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Ranchoux Coralie, Chabaux François, Viville Daniel, Labasque Thierry, Lucas Yann, Van der Woerd Jérôme, Ackerer Julien, Aquilina Luc

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6	Ranchoux Coralie ^{1,3} , Chabaux François ^{1*} , Viville Daniel ¹ , Labasque Thierry ² , Lucas Yann ¹ , Van der
7	Woerd Jérôme ¹ , Ackerer Julien ^{1,4} , Aquilina Luc ²
8	1- Institut Terre et Environnement Strasbourg (ITES), formerly: Laboratoire d'Hydrologie et de Géochimie de
9	Strasbourg (LHyGeS), Université de Strasbourg, CNRS, ENGEES, 67000 Strasbourg, France.
10	2- Geosciences Rennes, CNRS, Université Rennes 1, 35000 Rennes, France.
11	3- Present address : HydroSciences Montpellier, Montpellier University, CNRS, IRD, 34000 Montpellier, France
12	4- Present address : Institut des Géosciences de l'environnement, CNRS, Université Grenoble Alpes, Grenoble INP,
13	IRD, 38000 Grenoble, France.
14	
15	*Correspondence : <u>fchabaux@unistra.fr</u> , <u>cora.ranch@hotmail.fr</u>
16	
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23 Abstract

In order to characterize the chemical composition and the age of the water circulating in the critical 24 25 zone of the Strengbach catchment (Vosges mountains, France), water samples from springs, 10–15 m 26 deep piezometers and 50-120 m deep boreholes were collected and analyzed in elementary 27 concentrations, in Sr, Nd, and U isotopic ratios, and in chlorofluorocarbon (CFC) and sulfur 28 hexafluoride (SF₆) concentrations. The results evidence a clear distinction between surface water (< 29 ≈10-15 m) and deeper water. The latter has much higher conductivity and cationic loads and is 30 marked by lower Sr isotopic ratios and higher U activity ratios. Such a water typology suggests that the spring and piezometer water flows within the same shallow subsurface aquifer while deep 31 borehole water belongs to a different circulation system, which flow path is controlled by the 32 33 bedrock fracture network. The CFC data show that these two circulation systems are marked by 34 contrasted residence times with a short residence time for the surface water and a longer residence 35 time (water ages > 50 years) for the deep water. These results confirm different circulation histories 36 for surface and deep water in the Strengbach catchment. They also suggest that the higher degree of 37 chemical saturation of the deep water compared to the surface water is caused more by longer 38 water residence times in the deep circulation systems than by differences in the primary minerals involved in each of the water-rock interaction systems. Our results also point that in the Strengbach 39 40 granitic catchment, the SF₆ concentrations cannot be used for water dating due to their lithogenic 41 production in granitic bedrocks.

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43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 The identification of the main water circulation levels in the Critical Zone (CZ) and the determination of the characteristic times of these circulations are among key parameters controlling 46 the CZ functioning and its vertical extension (i.e., Riebe et al., 2017). These parameters also control 47 48 its future evolution in response to environmental modifications, whether related to global climate 49 change or to human activities of more local impact. This information, in particular, the partitioning 50 between deep and subsurface circulations, is also important to achieve a sustainable management of 51 the world's water resources and to model their future evolution in response to ongoing climate change (e.g., Gleeson et al., 2016; Ameli et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017; O'Geen et al., 2018; Weill et al., 52 2019; Ackerer et al., 2020a). 53

54 Surface and subsurface water circulations, especially in small headwater watersheds, are 55 studied more than deep water circulations occurring in fractured bedrock (e.g., Viville et al., 2012; 56 Brantley et al., 2017). The relatively recent setting up of several tens of meters-deep boreholes on such watersheds, especially those belonging to the so-called Critical Zone Observatories, is now 57 58 allowing a much better exploration of water circulations and weathering processes in the deeper 59 parts of the CZ (e.g., Brantley et al., 2013; Buss et al., 2013; Chabaux et al., 2017; Hahm et al., 2019; Holbrook et al., 2019; Ranchoux, 2020). These latter studies have systematically evidenced water 60 circulation at great depths in the various explored sites. The hydrogeochemical characteristics of 61 62 these waters, in particular, their specificity compared to surface waters, should be further clarified to better identify the water-rock interaction processes occurring in the deep CZ and the water 63 64 circulation residence times in these deep levels.

The purpose of this study, conducted on the Strengbach CZO, France, is to determine the nature and residence time of the various waters circulating in the bedrock of the Strengbach catchment from the surface to ≈100m depth. The Strengbach basin has been the subject of relatively extensive hydrogeochemical studies in the past for surface waters (springs, soil solutions, streams),

69 which today allows us to have a fairly good knowledge of their geochemical composition in major 70 elements as well as Sr, Nd, and U isotopic ratios. These elements and ratios are relevant tracers when 71 we seek to decipher the main water-rock interactions involved in biogeochemical and 72 hydrogeochemical cycles (e.g., Aubert et al., 2001; Riotte and Chabaux, 1999; Tricca et al., 1999; 73 Chabaux et al., 2011, 2013, 2019; Durand et al., 2005; Schaffhauser et al., 2014; Pierret et al., 2014, 74 and references therein). All these data have led us to propose a first order relatively solid 75 interpretative framework on the nature of water-rock interactions controlling the geochemical 76 composition of surface waters in the Strengbach catchment.

77 In the current study, we propose to establish the hydrogeochemical typology of the deeper 78 waters of the Strengbach CZO by a multi-method geochemical approach that combines the analysis 79 of the above tracers (i.e., major and trace elements, Sr, Nd, and U isotope ratios) with the analysis of 80 anthropogenic gases, namely, chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and sulfur hexafluoride (SF6). These latter elements are indeed suitable for determining the water ages and/or residence times in aquifers for 81 82 relatively recent periods, 0-70 years or a little more, depending on the interpretative models used 83 (e.g., Busenberg and Plummer, 1992; Corcho Alvarado et al., 2005; Plummer et al., 1998; Jankovec et al., 2017; De Montety et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2020). In particular, anthropogenic gases were 84 successfully applied to estimate mean water transit time in fractured aquifers (Cook et al., 1996, 85 2005; Plummer et al., 2000; Bockgard et al., 2004; Ayraud et al., 2008; Jaunat et al., 2012; Roques et 86 87 al., 2014a, b; Marçais et al., 2018). The results presented here on the Strengbach CZO highlight the 88 interest of combining these different geochemical tracers to explore the hydrological functioning of 89 the deep CZ.

90

91

92 **2. Site presentation**

The Strengbach catchment is a small 0.8 km² granitic catchment in the Vosges mountains 93 94 (northeastern France) at an altitude ranging between 880 and 1150 m a.s.l. with fairly steep slopes 95 (mean slope of 15°) (Fig. 1). It is an equipped environmental observatory where meteorological, 96 hydrological, and geochemical data have been recorded since 1986 (Observatoire Hydrologique et 97 Géochimique de l'Environnement/Hydrological and Geochemical Environmental Observatory, OHGE; 98 http://ohge.unistra.fr) and is one of the reference headwater sites of the French critical zone observatory network OZCAR (Observatoire de la Zone Critique: Application et Recherche/ Critical 99 Zone Observatories: Research and Application, https://www.ozcar-ri.org). The climate is temperate 100 oceanic mountainous with a mean annual temperature of 7 °C (mean monthly from -2 to 14 °C). 101 Annual precipitation is between 890 to 1630 mm.yr⁻¹ (mean 1400 mm.yr⁻¹) with snow cover for 2-4 102 months.yr¹ (Viville et al., 2012; Pierret et al., 2014). The mean runoff of the catchment is 853 mm and 103 104 varies from 525 to 1147 mm (Ladouche et al., 2001; Viville et al., 2012). Forest covers 90% of the 105 surface area (Azaël, 1990) and is essentially composed of 80% spruce trees and 20% beech trees.

106 The bedrock is mainly constituted by a Hercynian leucogranite affected by hydrothermal 107 alteration (e.g., Fichter et al., 1998a, b; Chabaux et al., 2019). The hydrothermal events caused the 108 alteration and transformation of primary minerals (albite, K-feldspars, muscovite) into fine-grained 109 illite and quartz. There is an occurrence of gneiss in the upper part of the northern slope of the basin 110 (El Gh'mari, 1995; Fichter, 1997; Fichter et al., 1998; Chabaux et al., 2019). Compared to granitic 111 bedrocks, gneiss is enriched in Mg due to the presence of biotite and chlorite (El Gh'mari, 1995; 112 Fichter, 1997). The soils are 80–100 cm deep and vary from Dystric Cambisol (southern slope) to Albic 113 Podzol (northern slope). The soils are usually developed on a sandy saprolite, 1 to 9 m thick, the 114 thickest saprolite being located on the downstream part of the southern slope (El Gh'mari, 1995). Several springs are emerging in the catchment on both slopes. Some of them (Cs1, Cs2, Cs3, Cs4, 115 116 ARG, RH3) were sampled for the present study (location on Fig. 1).

117 For studying deep water circulation within the Strengbach watershed, the site was equipped, 118 between 2012 and 2014, with 9 boreholes drilled along two transects, one along the south-facing 119 slope, and one along the north-facing slope (Fig. 1c-d). This includes six deep boreholes (50 to 120 m 120 depth — F1a,b, F5, F6, F7, F8) and three shallower ones of ≈15 m depth (pz3, pz5, pz7), named 121 piezometers in the following text. The main equipment installed in each well is summarized in 122 Supplementary Material Table 1 (SM Table1). Briefly, the three piezometers were equipped along 123 their length with a PVC tube, cased for the first two meters and screened deeper. In the screened 124 zones, gravel pack was introduced between the tube and the bedrock. Boreholes F6, F7, and F8, 125 drilled in 2012, were entirely cased and equipped with multi-level screened sections (SM Table 1), in 126 front of well-located fracture zones identified by the drilling company and considered as potential 127 water circulation levels. A gravel pack was set up outside the screened sections to ensure proper 128 water flow, and clay plugs of bentonite (compactonite) were used to tighten the cased sections. To 129 limit the pollution risks of the chemical composition of the water by the gravel and bentonite used in 130 the above wells, it was decided to equip the southern slope with uncased wells. Thus, boreholes F5 and F1, drilled in 2013 and 2014, are uncased holes throughout their depth, except for the first 8 m 131 132 where a PVC casing and a cement sheath were installed.

133

3. Methodology

135 3.1 Water sampling procedure

For the present study, 10 sampling campaigns, covering the diversity of hydrological contexts encountered on the catchment, were conducted over the period 05/2015–10/2018 (Fig. 2) for collecting water from springs CS1, CS2, CS3, CS4, RH3, and ARG, piezometers pz3, pz5, and pz7, and deep boreholes F5, F6, F7, and F8. Piezometer and borehole water were sampled with a pump descended to the chosen depth after generally 10 min of pumping, which is the time required to renew the water in the well. Piezometers were sampled at a depth of between 10 to 14 m. For deep borehole water, the initial sampling depths corresponded to the depths at which more significant

fractures were noticed from acoustic and optical logging. The sampling depths were adapted during the course of the study based on the first conductivity logging obtained in the wells as explained in Ranchoux (2020) (see Table 1 for sampling dates, sample depths, and the analyses performed on each sample).

147 Samples collected for major and trace element concentrations and Sr-Nd-U isotopic analyses 148 were stored in 2 L polypropylene bottles, which were previously cleaned with ultra-pure HCl and 149 ultra-pure water (18.2 M Ω .cm). For some Nd analyses requiring larger water volumes (up to 10 to 15 150 L), water was stored in large food-grade PVC water tanks. For analysis of dissolved gas concentrations 151 (Ar, Ne, N_2 , O_2) and CFC and SF6 concentrations in water, samples were collected following the 152 procedure described in Labasque et al. (2004, 2014). Water samples were stored in 500 mL glass bottles for Ar, Ne, N₂, and O₂ measurements and in steel ampoules of 40 ml and 300 ml for CFC and 153 154 SF₆ analyses, respectively.

155

156 **3.2 Analysis of major element concentrations and Sr-Nd-U isotope ratios**

157 Determination of major and trace element concentrations, Sr-Nd isotope ratios, and U activity ratios were performed at LHyGeS, Strasbourg, France. Water samples were filtered through a 0.45 158 159 µm cellulose acetate membrane filter. Each water sample was divided into two aliquots. One aliquot 160 was acidified with bidistilled 13.5 N HNO₃ to $pH\approx 1$ for trace element and isotopic analyses. The other 161 aliquot was not acidified, measured pH and conductivity, and analyzed major element and Dissolved 162 Organic Carbon (DOC) concentrations, following the standard procedures used in the laboratory (e.g., 163 Lucas et al., 2010; Schaffhauser et al., 2014; Gangloff et al., 2014; Prunier et al., 2015). The pH was determined using a Meterlab[®] PHM210 pH-meter with a precision of ±0.02 units and the 164 165 conductivity using a Meterlab® CDM210 conductometer with an uncertainty from 1 to 2%. The DOC 166 was measured by the thermal method (Shimadzu TOC VPH) with an uncertainty of 2% and a detection limit of 0.3 mgC L⁻¹. Cation (Na⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, Ca²⁺, and Mg²⁺) and anion (Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and NO₃⁻) 167 concentrations were analyzed by ionic chromatography (ICS 5000 Thermo Scientific) with 168

uncertainties of 2% and a detection limit of 5µmol.L⁻¹. The Al, Mn, P, Si, and Fe concentrations were measured by ICP-AES (Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometry) with a Thermo ICAP 6500, a detection limit of 1µg/l, and a measurement uncertainty of \approx 5%. Trace element concentrations were analyzed by ICP-MS (Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer) Thermo XseriesII with an uncertainty of \approx 5% and detection limits between 1–10 ppt, depending on the elements.

175 $(^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U})$ activity ratios were analyzed by mass spectrometry on a Neptune Thermo-Scientific 176 multi-collector (MC-ICP-MS). U was first separated and purified by anionic exchange chromatography 177 following procedures developed at the LHyGeS (e.g., Chabaux et al., 1995; Riotte and Chabaux, 178 1999). The procedure blanks were <10 pg, negligible compared to the U amount processed. The 179 reproducibility and reliability of the U isotopic analysis were tested by the regular measurement of 180 the HU1 standard, assumed to be in secular equilibrium, which for the analysis period 2015–2018 181 gave a $(^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U})$ activity ratio of 0.999 ± 0.003 (2SD, n = 71).

182 For Sr and Nd isotope measurements, Sr and Nd were extracted and purified following the 183 chromatography procedures used in the laboratory (Geagea et al., 2007; Guéguen et al., 2012). For 184 Nd analysis on large water volume (>1L), Nd was first extracted from the water by coprecipitation with Fe(OH)₃, followed by iron removal on cation exchange resins (Chauvel et al., 2011; Pelt et al., 185 2013). ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and ¹⁴⁴Nd/¹⁴³Nd isotope ratios were measured on a Neptune Thermo-Scientific 186 187 multicollector (MC-ICP-MS) and Thermo-Scientific Triton Thermal Ionisation Mass Spectrometry 188 (TIMS), respectively. Blanks were <1ng for Sr, i.e., negligible compared to the Sr amount analyzed in 189 the samples. For Nd they reached 130 pg for samples processed with a coprecipitation stage, which 190 represented a maximum contribution of 2-3% of the Nd used for the analysis in the few samples 191 where the Nd amount processed was between 5 and 10 ng. The regular analysis of SRM 987 standard for the analysis period 2015-2018 gave a 87 Sr/ 86 Sr isotope ratio 0.71026 ± 0.00003 (2SD, n = 41). 192 Analysis of the La Jolla standard gave a $^{144}Nd/^{143}Nd$ isotope ratio of 0.511846 ± 0.00002 (2SD, n = 39) 193

for a Nd amount processed > 10 ng and a ratio of 0.511846 ± 0.00004 (2SD, n = 8) for a Nd amount
between 2 and 10 ng.

196

197 **3.3 Analysis of CFC, SF6, and noble gas concentrations**

198 The CFC, SF₆, and dissolved gas were analyzed at the Condate Eau platform (OSUR, University 199 of Rennes, France). CFC and SF_6 were extracted by purge and trap and measured by gas 200 chromatography with electron capture detection (Labasque, 2004), modified from Busenberg and Plummer methodology (1992, 2000). An uncertainty of 4% applies for high concentrations (above 0.1 201 202 pmol/kg for CFC and 0.1 fmol/kg for SF₆) and rises to 20% for lower values, next to the detection limit 203 (between 0.01 to 0.05 pmol/L for CFC and 0.06 fmol/L for SF_6) (Labasque et al., 2006; Labasque et al., 204 2014). Samples for dissolved gases (Ar, Ne, N₂, O₂) were analyzed by gas chromatography following the Sugisaki method (Sugisaki and Taki, 1987) at the Condate Eau platform with uncertainties of 205 206 around 3% for minor gases (< 100 ppm) and 1% for others.

207

208 **3.4 Residence time and ages estimation model**

209 CFC and SF₆ water concentrations were converted to atmospheric partial pressure (pptv) to be 210 interpreted in terms of residence time by comparing these atmospheric concentrations with 211 theoretical values obtained in simple hydrological models classically used for dating purposes. The 212 conversion was done using the solubility functions for CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113, and SF₆ provided by 213 Warner and Weiss (1985), Bu and Warner (1995) and Bullister, et al. (2002), respectively. Results 214 obtained in such conversion depend on recharge temperature, altitude, and excess air (Darling et al., 215 2012). For the present study, the excess air was calculated using Ne concentrations, following the 216 approach given in Heaton and Vogel (1981). The mean recharge temperature was fixed at 7 °C, the 217 mean annual temperature measured at the meteorological station located at one of the summits of 218 the Strengbach watershed (Fig. 1 for location). The recharge altitude used was consequently taken to 219 1100 m, the \approx altitude of the meteorological station. The dependence of the results on the selected

recharge altitude and temperature is about 1.3%/100 m and 5%/°C (e.g., De Montety et al., 2018;
Busenberg and Plummer, 1992).

222 The overall principle of CFC-SF₆ dating is that a given concentration of CFC-SF₆ in water, 223 converted into atmospheric pressure (pptv) and associated to the atmospheric chronicle, provides an 224 indication of the residence time. The CFC and SF₆ concentrations data for the northern hemisphere given by the software TRACER LPM (<u>https://www.usgs.gov/software/tracerlpm</u> – Jurgens et al., 2012) 225 226 were used as an input parameter. The estimation of the residence time is linked to the conditions of 227 infiltration in the soil and the water flow dynamics in the aquifer. A lumped parameter approach 228 (Maloszewski and Zuber, 1982; Jurgens et al., 2012) can be used to compare the CFC and SF₆ 229 measurements to the distribution of theoretical concentrations and thus correlate the 230 measurements to the age of the groundwater in the system investigated. For the present study, we have used three classical models (Maloszewski and Zuber, 1982): the Piston flow model (PFM), the 231 232 Exponential Mixing Model (EMM), and the Binary Mixing Model (BMM) represented in Fig. 3. The 233 PFM model considers the system as a continuously flowing system in a tube where recent water 234 compels older water (Fig. 3a). CFC data, in this case, leads to determination of "groundwater age." 235 The EMM corresponds to a vertical stratification of groundwater flow with a similar distribution of 236 transit times, which increases logarithmically (Jurgens et al., 2012; Fig. 3b). The water sample is then 237 an average of all the streamlines, and the obtained residence time corresponds to the "characteristic 238 time," which is in fact the mean of the residence time of all the streamlines. The BMM is a mixture of 239 two components, which have evolved hydrologically independently and are mixed (Fig. 3c, d). We 240 can thus provide one age for the two-components and a mixing proportion between these two 241 components.

4. Results

243 4.1 Major element concentrations

244 Major element data for spring, piezometer, and borehole water analyzed for this study are 245 presented in Supplementary Materials (SM Tables 2a, 2b; 3a, 3b; 4a, 4b).

246

247 4.1.1 Spring and piezometer water

248 As apparent in Fig. 4, the data obtained from the springs sampled for this study from 2015-249 2018 are consistent with previously published data for the period 1986–2010. More importantly, our 250 data suggests that piezometer water, when excluding the deepest waters, has geochemical characteristics very similar to those of spring water (Fig. 5, 6 and SM Fig 1 for the piper diagram). 251 252 Both are marked by low conductivities, alkalinity, and pH values, ranging from 30–50 µS/cm, 0.04 to 253 0.44 meq/L, and 5.46 to 7.84, respectively. The Si concentrations vary from 3.7 ppm to 6.4 ppm for 254 piezometer water and from 3.3 ppm to 5.1 ppm for spring water. The concentrations of major cations Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Na⁺, and K⁺ in spring water range from 1.3 to 3.7 ppm, 0.3 to 0.9 ppm, 1.5 to 2.4 255 256 ppm, and 0.2 to 1.1 ppm, respectively. For piezometer water, the concentrations range from 1.3 to 257 4.0 ppm, 0.2 to 0.7 ppm, 1.7 to 3.1 ppm, and 0.5 to 1.5 ppm, respectively (Fig. 5). Slightly higher Si 258 and Na⁺ concentrations in some Pz3 and Pz7 samples are, however, observed (Fig. 5d, e). The NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ concentrations of piezometer water are also close to those of spring water. Some of the 259 260 deepest Pz3 and Pz5 samples can have much higher conductivities than the other piezometer 261 samples (SM Table3a,b). For three different sampling periods, Pz3 deep water was analyzed in major 262 elements. The data indicate that such water, in addition to being more conductive, has higher 263 alkalinity and higher pH values than the other piezometer water as well as much higher major cations 264 and anions concentrations (SM Table 3a).

265 4.1.2 Boreholes water

266 Compared to the spring and piezometer water, samples collected in the boreholes have 267 higher pH, conductivities, and alkalinity values, with pH from 6.98 to 8.32, conductivity between 150 268 and 270 μ S/cm, and alkalinity between 0,3 meq/L and 2,7 meq/L (Fig. 5a). Their concentrations in the main cations and anions are also different (Fig 5, Fig 6, SM Fig 1), with Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ concentrations 269 270 four to eight times higher in deep water than in spring and piezometer water, and Na^+ and K^+ 271 concentrations up to one to four times higher. Si concentrations are more concentrated, usually by about twice the maximum. NO₃ concentrations usually have lower values in deep borehole water 272 with values close to zero in some of them (Fig. 6e). Finally, Cl⁻ and SO₄²⁻ concentrations for all groups 273 274 of water (spring, piezometer, and deep borehole water) are in the same range of variations (Fig. 6). 275 The data also show that the geochemical characteristics of the borehole water are quite different 276 from one borehole to another and also within the same borehole.

277 - Borehole F5

The water column of borehole F5, when not perturbed for a long time and hence at a steady 278 279 state of hydrological functioning, is divided into two conductivity zones, with a surface zone marked 280 by low conductivity values closed to those observed in spring and piezometer water (\approx 30 μ S/cm) and 281 a deeper zone of several 10 m thick characterized by high conductivity values (\approx 250 μ S/cm) (Fig. 7). 282 The transition between the two zones is narrow and takes place over less than 1 m. Its depth 283 depends on the sampling period: the higher the water level (i.e., high flow period in the catchment) 284 the deeper the transition zone (Fig. 7). Geochemical data obtained on water samples collected in 285 such hydrological steady-state boreholes point out that water sampled around 43 m deep has high 286 concentrations in major cations, HCO_3^- , and Si, and low to zero concentrations in NO_3^- (Fig. 6). Water 287 samples from 13–14 m deep during periods of high water, i.e., not in the vicinity of the conductivity 288 transition zone (see Fig. 7), have much lower concentrations of major cations, HCO₃, Si, and higher concentrations of NO₃⁻. This F5 surface water has the same geochemical characteristics as those of 289 290 Pz5 water, located a few meters away from the F5 borehole, and defines the same range of

variability in all the binary diagrams studied (Fig. 5 and 6) and in the Piper diagrams (SM Fig. 1). The
other samples, i.e., the 13 m deep water taken during the lower water period and thus in the vicinity
near the conductivity transition zone in the water column (see Fig. 7), as well as the water sampled at
23-27 m deep, define in all these diagrams (Fig. 5 and 6) an alignment between the above two water
types.

296 In 2015, three pumping tests of a few hours, with the pump at the bottom of the borehole, 297 were performed in borehole F5. As illustrated in Fig. 7b, the electrical conductivity profile of the 298 water column was significantly modified, especially in its deeper part, with conductivity decreasing to 299 50 to 90 μ S/cm, depending on the pumping dates. After the pumping, a slightly higher conductivity 300 level around 21 m depth can be observed on some profiles (Fig. 7b). The data also highlights that the 301 water column recovers its stationary profile with two contrasted conductivity zones in a few days 302 (Fig. 7c). Several samples, collected along the water column a few hours after pumping or one or two 303 days later when the profile was returning to equilibrium (Fig. 7 b, c), were analyzed in major 304 elements. All these samples, including the samples collected at ≈23 m and ≈45 m, plot in Fig. 5 and 6 305 along the linear trends defined between the unperturbed deep end-member and piezometer Pz5 306 end-member.

307 - Boreholes F6-F7-F8

The concentrations of major elements in F6, F7, and F8 boreholes, located on the northern 308 309 slope, show that the deep water of the different boreholes has geochemical characteristics specific 310 to each of them and different from those of borehole F5 (Fig. 5, 6). Deep water from the F6 borehole 311 has relatively stable major element concentrations over time. This water has the highest conductivity, alkalinity, Mg²⁺, and Cl⁻ concentrations of all the deep water sampled in the Strengbach 312 catchment and the lowest Si and Na⁺ concentrations (Fig. 5). It has also high Ca^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} 313 concentrations, similar to those analyzed in F5 deep water, and as for this water, no NO_3^- (Fig. 6). 314 Compared to borehole F6, the F7 and F8 deep water have lower alkalinity, conductivity, Cl⁻, Ca²⁺, and 315 Mg^{2+} concentrations, but higher Si, Na⁺, and NO₃⁻ concentrations, and similar K⁺ concentrations. F8 316

water has lower Mg²⁺, Cl⁻, and SO₄²⁻ concentrations compared to F7 water. In addition, in the SO₄²⁻ vs.
Mg²⁺ (Fig. 6d) or vs. Ca²⁺ (Fig. 6c) concentrations diagrams, all deep water samples define a single
linear and positive trend except for the F8 borehole, which plots in a different and negative trend.
Compared to F6 and F5 deep water, the F7 and F8 deep water is marked by a higher range of
variations in nearly all the major anion and cation concentrations, which, however, remain relatively
small compared to the inter-borehole chemical variability described above.

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324 **4.2 Sr, U, and Nd isotopic ratios**

The 87 Sr/ 86 Sr and 143 Nd/ 144 Nd isotopic ratios and (234 U/ 238 U) activity ratios are given in Table 1. 325 326 The data indicate that spring water samples collected in this study display U-Sr isotopic systematics 327 very similar to the one observed for water collected in 2004-2006 (Prunier 2008; Pierret et al., 2014) with similar ranges of ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and (²³⁴U/²³⁸U) variations for each studied spring (and similar ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr 328 329 ratio variations with discharge (Figures in supplementary material SM Fig. 2a,b). The data also confirm the existence of small but possibly significant variations of $(^{234}U/^{238}U)$ with discharge (Fig. SM 330 Fig. 2b). The data also evidence similar 87 Sr/ 86 Sr and (234 U/ 238 U) ratios in piezometer and spring water 331 (Fig. 8a,b) with ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios between 0.72039 and 0.72627 in piezometer water and between 332 0.72117 to 0.72785 in spring water, and with $(^{234}U/^{238}U)$ systematically < 1 in spring and piezometer 333 water except in one Pz7 sample, which has a $(^{234}U/^{238}U)$ ratio of 1.168 ± 0.003 (Fig. 8b). Compared to 334 335 spring and piezometer water, deep borehole water has much less radiogenic Sr ratios, ranging 336 between 0.71416 (F5) to 0.71898 (F6), and have U activity ratios systematically > 1 with values 337 ranging between 1.071 and 1.103 in F7 and F8 borehole deep water, between 1.073 and 1.354 in F6 338 borehole water, and around 2.000 in F5 borehole water (Table 1 and Fig. 8). For F5 borehole water, 339 while deep water is isotopically not very variable over time, the Sr and U ratio of surface and 340 intermediate water show much higher variability. Surface water collected during high water periods, 341 far from the conductivity transition zone (see above), has values close to those of the piezometer 342 Pz5. On the other hand, surface water taken during low flow, i.e., intermediate water and water after

a long pumping test, have more variable values intermediate between the values of Pz5 water and F5

deep water. Compared to the variations of $({}^{87}\text{Sr}/{}^{86}\text{Sr})$ and $({}^{234}\text{U}/{}^{238}\text{U})$ ratios, the variations of (${}^{143}\text{Nd}/{}^{144}\text{Nd}$) ratios are much less important with similar values in surface and deep water, with ${}^{143}\text{Nd}/{}^{144}\text{Nd}$ values ranging from 0.51214 to 0.51227 in spring water, from 0.51220 to 0.51227 in piezometer water, and from 0.51219 (F8) to 0.51224 (F5), in borehole deep water (Table 1).

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343

349 4.3 CFC and SF₆ data

CFC and SF₆ data collected for this study are given in Table 2 with water concentrations given 350 351 in pmol/L and atmospheric mixing concentrations in pptv. The data show that spring waters have 352 high CFC concentrations: 155 to 272 pptv for CFC-11, 376 to 625 pptv for CFC-12, and 50 to 101 pptv 353 for CFC-113. A few springs were also analyzed in 2006 and 2007 and data are given in Supplementary 354 materials (SM Table 5). Are also given in supplementary materials the dissolved gas concentrations 355 (Ne, Ar, N₂ and O₂) (SM Table 6). The CFC concentrations obtained in 2006 and 2007 are very 356 consistent with the values obtained 10 years later at a similar season (Fig. 9). As observed with the elementary and isotopic geochemical characteristics, the CFC and SF₆ concentrations in the 357 358 piezometer water (Pz3, Pz5, and Pz7) are similar to those of springs (Fig. 9). For spring and 359 piezometer water, the data show lower CFC concentrations during low flow periods (August 2015) 360 than during high flow periods (May 2006, 2007, and 2015). The data may also indicate a decrease of 361 CFC concentration with the increase of Si concentration for spring water. This trend is less apparent 362 when piezometer data are added (Fig. 10).

363 CFC data from boreholes lead to water typologies similar to those observed with elemental 364 or isotopic geochemistry data. Surface water from F5 (13-15 m deep) plot within the same range of 365 variation as spring and piezometer water (Fig. 9). For this water as for spring and piezometer water, 366 CFC concentrations in samples collected during high flow periods (May 2015) are higher than during 367 low flow periods (August 2015). F5 borehole water collected at 23-26 m has concentrations between 368 F5 deep water and surface water concentrations (Pz5 and "surface" water from F5) (e.g., in Fig. 10b).

Deep water from boreholes F6, F7, F8, and F5 has lower concentrations than in spring and 369 370 piezometer water, 16 to 124 pptv, 131 to 383 pptv, 12 to 48 pptv for CFC-11, CFC-12, and CFC-113, 371 respectively. The distinction between surface and deep water, evidenced by the CFC concentrations, is clearly illustrated in the CFC-11 vs. CFC-113 or CFC-12 vs. CFC-113 binary diagrams (Fig. 9), despite 372 373 the scattering of the data of each of these water types. Compared to CFC concentrations, SF_6 374 concentrations in Strengbach water do not show a systematic difference between spring/piezometer 375 water and deep water. Only the amplitude of the variation range is different, with concentrations 376 ranging from 6 to 24 pptv in spring and piezometer water and from 2 to 50 pptv in borehole deep 377 water. The highest SF_6 concentrations are analyzed in the deep water of borehole F5, with values far 378 above the maximum values measured in the atmosphere (9 pptv in 2016). When these samples are 379 not considered, the variation range in SF₆ concentrations is more limited (\approx 2 - 15 pptv) and closer to 380 that of surface water.

381 **5. Discussion**

382 Geochemical data, whether elementary concentrations, 87 Sr/ 86 Sr and (234 U/ 238 U) ratios, or tracer 383 gases (CFC and SF₆), show a systematic distinction between the values measured in spring and 384 piezometer water, on the one hand, and in deep borehole water, on the other hand. These data also 385 show second-order variability between the different piezometers and between the different deep 386 water sampled in the boreholes.

387 5.1. Influence of borehole building materials on water chemistry

As detailed in section 2, boreholes and piezometers have been equipped with various materials (SM Table 1 in Supplementary Materials), which can potentially impact the chemical composition of waters. The major and trace element concentrations of these different materials were analyzed and leaching was carried out on each of them for additional analysis. The protocol is presented in the Supplementary Materials 3 (leaching experiments), with the related table of results (Table SM3) and Figures (Fig. SM3a, b). The plot of the data in (Fig. SM 3a, b) clearly show that the

394 trends defined in each of these diagrams by deep borehole water (F5, F6, F7, and F8) cannot be 395 explained by the contribution of a chemical flux with the characteristics of one of these materials or 396 of their leachate into a surface-type water end-member. The trends defined by the data points in the 397 diagrams never go towards one of such potential end-members. Similarly, the trends defined in Fig. 398 SM 3a, b by the piezometer data points are very similar to those defined by the spring water and do 399 not show any specific bias towards one of possible pollution end-members, except for the deep 400 water of piezometer pz3. The latter water samples in Fig SM 3 define linear trends from the more 401 surface waters of the piezometer to the domain defined by the leachates of the soda-lime glass 402 beads used as filters in the piezometers. Based on such observations, it can be suspected that at the 403 bottom of the pz3 piezometer, the bead filter has construction defects, which causes leaching of 404 these beads and hence pollution of the deep pz3 waters. For this reason, the deep piezometer water samples are no longer discussed in the following sections. 405

406 5.2 Hydrological Implications from geochemical characteristics of spring and piezometer waters

407 As shown in the result section, the geochemical characteristics of spring water collected 408 between 2015 and 2018 are consistent with those collected and analyzed over the 1986–2010 409 period, indicating similar hydrogeochemical contexts and processes at the origin of the geochemical 410 signatures of spring water over these different periods. Hydrogeochemical modeling of the 411 Strengbach spring water for the period 1986–2010 (Ackerer et al, 2018, 2020a) has made it possible 412 (a) to better specify the nature of the water-rock interactions controlling the geochemical budget of 413 this water, (b) to specify the origin of the chemostatic behavior of these sources (Ackerer et al., 2018, 414 2020a), and (c) to explain the decoupling that exists between the time evolution of the Si-Na 415 concentrations and Ca-K concentrations in the Strengbach spring water over the past 30 years 416 (Ackerer et al., 2018). Furthermore, the simulation results show that the rock interacting with the 417 water feeding these springs is neither a fresh granitic bedrock nor a surface saprolite type rock but an 418 already slightly weathered granite corresponding to fractured saprolite rocks located between one to

419 a few meters deep (Ackerer et al., 2018). This conclusion is not specific to the Strengbach case. It is 420 also proposed for a neighboring granitic catchment, the Ringelbach catchment, based on the 421 modeling of the geochemical composition of the Ringelbach spring water (Lucas et al., 2017; 422 Schaffhauser et al., 2014). Such conclusions are consistent with the hydrological schemes deduced 423 for the Strengbach catchment from hydrologic modellings, i.e., water circulating in a shallow 424 subsurface aquifer constituted by the relatively thin (< \approx 10 m) porous saprolite above the more 425 compact bedrock (Ackerer et al., 2020a; Weill et al., 2019). Furthermore, as previously proposed 426 (Riotte and Chabaux, 1999; Pierret et al., 2014; Prunier et al., 2015), water interactions with already weathered granites readily explain the occurrence of $(^{234}U/^{238}U) < 1$ in the stream and spring 427 428 Strengbach water, including the spring water retained in the present study. Such an interpretation is consistent with ²³⁴U/²³⁸U<1 measured in soil horizons of the Strengbach catchment (Prunier et al., 429 430 2015; Ackerer et al., 2016). The geochemical modeling studies also explain the different behavior of 431 Ca and the Si-Na system in the Strengbach spring water, whether because of their different long-432 term concentration trends or the greater spatial variability of Ca concentrations compared to the Si 433 ones (Ackerer et al., 2018, 2020a). Both are related to the different nature of the main minerals 434 controlling the budget of these elements in the Strengbach spring water. Dissolution of albite is the 435 main mineral source of Na in solution; biotite and feldspars are the main source of Si. The Ca in solution is essentially derived from the dissolution of apatite with a small contribution of anorthite 436 437 (5–10% of the Ca). The predominant role of apatite or its alteration products on the Ca budget of the 438 Strengbach surface water was also proposed from the Sr-Nd isotope ratios of the Strengbach surface 439 water (Aubert et al., 2001; Stille et al., 2009). It is confirmed by the new Sr-Nd results obtained in the 440 present study, which plot within the domain of previous Sr-Nd data between the apatite and 441 plagioclase domains (Fig. 11). Incidentally, such a similitude shows that for the spring water, the 442 alteration system controlling the Sr-Nd budget of water circulating in the regolith has not been 443 significantly modified over the past 20 years at the difference of what is observed for soil solutions 444 (Prunier et al., 2015; Schmitt et al. 2017; Chabaux et al., 2019 for more details on soil solutions).

Altogether, these data, acquired over the last 15 to 30 years in the Strengbach basin, lead to a fairly well-defined hydrogeochemical framework for the spring water of this basin, with a geochemical signature of the water acquired in a shallow subsurface aquifer formed by the more or less altered saprolite levels.

The observation that piezometer water has on average similar geochemical and isotopic characteristics to those of surface water, which are very different from deep water, indicates that such water in the Strengbach catchment circulates in a reservoir similar to that of spring water, i.e., in porous fractured saprolite. This conclusion thus confirms the hypothesis made by Ackerer et al. (2020a) to model the geochemical composition of Strengbach piezometer waters.

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455 5-3 Origin of the geochemical characteristics of deep borehole waters

456 5-3-1 Water mixing processes

As seen in the Results section, the deep water collected in boreholes has geochemical and 457 458 isotopic characteristics quite different from those of surface water. The data also show significant 459 geochemical variation between and within wells. This is particularly visible in borehole F5, which is 460 characterized by two contrasting water samples highlighting at least two inflows of water (Fig. 7a) 461 with a surface water end-member having geochemical characteristics of spring/piezometer water 462 and a deep water end-member marked by high conductivity values and geochemical characteristics 463 relatively stable over time. The results also show that the other F5 water samples, i.e., those 464 collected at 23-26 m, after a long pumping test, or in the vicinity of the conductivity transition zone, 465 plot along a mixing line between the two end-members in classical binary elementary diagrams (Fig. 5-6). The U, Sr, and Nd isotopic results, as well as CFC and SF6 data, confirm such a mixing 466 interpretation as, for instance, all data of F5 water plots along mixing lines in the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr vs 1/Sr 467 468 diagram (Fig. 8a). The different mixing lines defined in this diagram are easily explained by the 469 geochemical variations of the surface end-member over time, which are much more important than 470 for the deep end-member. The anti-correlation defined by all F5 data points in the CFC-11 vs. SF6

diagram (Fig. 10c) can also be explained by the proposed mixing scenario with low SF6 content in surface and a deep water end-member concentrated in SF6. Altogether, these data evidence that in borehole F5, waters of intermediate depths, water taken after pumping, and water collected at the vicinity of the conductivity transition represent mixing in variable proportions between surface and deep water end-members, which is potentially induced by the pumping protocols used in this study.

476 Compared to the deep water collected in borehole F5 or to the deep water in borehole F6, 477 the waters collected in F7 at 42 m and 47 m and in F8 at 27 m are marked by relatively large 478 geochemical variations in nearly all the major anion and cation concentrations (Fig. 5 and 6). As for 479 intermediary waters of borehole F5, such variability could be a consequence of the water pumping 480 procedure because in both boreholes F7 and F8 such pumping was performed in the vicinity of a level 481 of conductivity change in the water column (in Ranchoux 2020). For borehole F7, the chemical 482 variability of the samples at 47 m is higher than at 42 m, with chemical compositions approaching 483 those of the 42 m water when the conductivity transition between the two zones is close to the 47 m 484 depth. These variations could therefore be interpreted in terms of mixing in varying proportions of 485 two distinct water supplies within the water column, one close to 42 m depth and another one to 47 486 m depth, implying that our sampling protocol allows a better sampling of water at 42 m depth than 487 at 47 m depth. Overall, these different results illustrate the difficulty of precisely sampling the 488 diversity of deep water in boreholes with the sampling protocols, which can induce mixing artifacts 489 between the different water incomes supplying the water column. However, such a protocol is 490 sufficient to geochemically identify one to two specific deep water end-members per borehole, the 491 geochemical composition of which is discussed later. These deep water end-members can be 492 systematically associated to fractured areas in the two cores recovered during borehole F5 and F6 493 drilling or in camera logging (Ranchoux, 2020). This certainly confirms a system of water circulation in 494 the deep part of the substratum principally controlled by the fractures structuring it (Chabaux et al., 2017). 495

496 5-3-2 Mineralogical control

497 The different deep water identified in boreholes F5, F6, F7, and F8 have conductivities, alkalinities, 498 and pH much higher than those in surface water. Such a characteristic, also seen for the Ringelbach 499 catchment (Lucas et al., 2017; Schaffahauser et al., 2014), confirms a different hydrogeochemical 500 context for the deep water compared to surface water. Each of these water samples has its own 501 geochemical characteristics, which is consistent with the interpretation that deep water circulations 502 in the Strengbach catchment are located along with different fractures, each of them having its own 503 hydrophysical and mineralogical characteristics. Among the parameters that can be involved to 504 explain the distinction between surface water and deep water and between the different deep water 505 themselves, there is the nature of water-rock interactions (primary and secondary minerals) 506 occurring along the water pathway.

Saturation tests were performed for all water types in the Strengbach catchment using the 507 508 Hydrogeochemical KIRMAT code (Gérard et al., 1996), which was recently used to contribute to the 509 understanding of different issues such as groundwater salinization (Lucas et al., 2010; M'Nassri et al., 2019), weathering processes (Lucas et al, 2017; Ackerer et al., 2018) and hydrothermal alteration 510 (Ngo et al., 2016). The minerals tested are the granite minerals and granite alteration products (clay 511 512 minerals, carbonates, Fe oxides) with the same characteristics as those used for Strengbach springs 513 modeling (Ackerer et al., 2018; 2020a). Phosphate phases (apatite) recognized as mineral phases 514 controlling the budget of Sr, Nd, and probably Ca of surface water, i.e., stream, springs, and soil 515 solutions (Aubert et al., 2001, 2002; Prunier et al., 2015; Chabaux et al., 2019) have also been tested 516 based on the P total concentrations as well as Ca sulfates. Based on major element characteristics, 517 three piezometer water samples (pz3, pz5, and pz7) and four borehole water samples (F5 deep, F6, 518 F7 42 m, and F8 27m) have been selected for the saturation test. Besides, an average spring water 519 composition has been used for the saturation test. Data used for the calculation are given in Table 3 520 and the results of the saturation index are given in Table 4 and illustrated in Fig. 12.

521 The results confirm different water-rock interaction characteristics between surface 522 (piezometer and spring water) and deep water from boreholes F5, F6, F7, and F8. In terms of primary

523 silicate minerals, the surface water is undersaturated in biotite and plagioclases (Ca and Na) and 524 slightly in K-feldspars. They are also oversaturated in muscovite and quartz. Deep water is 525 undersaturated in plagioclases only (especially Ca and slightly or not in Na plagioclases) and 526 saturated in K-feldspars, muscovite, quartz, and most often in biotite. The differences between the 527 two types of water signature are also found in secondary or minor minerals: surface and deep water 528 are both saturated with kaolinite and illite, while only deep water is saturated with a 529 montmorillonite-type clay mineral. Moreover, surface water is highly undersaturated with calcite or 530 dolomite while deep water is undersaturated in dolomite and only slightly in calcite. These results 531 highlight the very different saturation degree between these two types of water, confirming that 532 surface water is mostly in a context of dissolution, involving a wide range of primary silicate minerals but also minor minerals such as apatite, and secondary minerals such as clay minerals (Ackerer et al., 533 534 2018, 2020a). The deep water is, by contrast, in a context of dissolution limited essentially to 535 plagioclase and carbonates.

The observation that, in the ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd vs. ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr isotopic diagram (Fig. 11), spring and 536 537 piezometer water is placed on or near the theoretical apatite-plagioclase mixing curve is consistent 538 with the interpretation that in the Strengbach catchment, the surface water has a Sr-Nd budget 539 controlled by the dissolution of these two minerals without significant Sr-Nd fractionation (Aubert et 540 al., 2001). The offset of surface water with such a theoretical mixing curve has been proposed due to 541 a contribution from a component of the atmospheric deposition type (Aubert et al., 2002). Compared 542 to spring and piezometer water, borehole water is characterized by less radiogenic Sr isotope ratios. 543 In the Sr-Nd isotopic diagram, the borehole water data thus defines a domain distinct from that of 544 surface water (Fig. 11). Explaining the difference between the Sr-Nd systematic in surface and deep 545 waters by a different atmospheric contribution in the two water types would imply a higher 546 atmospheric contribution in the deep borehole water than in spring or piezometer water, which is 547 difficult to consider. Thus, the deep-water data points in the Sr-Nd diagram, assuming for surface water a Sr-Nd budget essentially controlled by the phosphate-plagioclase minerals, would impose a 548

549 dissolution of these two minerals with a significant Sr-Nd fractionation at the difference of what we 550 propose for surface water. An alternative explanation would be that the Sr and Nd chemical budget 551 in deep water is controlled by an additional mineral phase and not only by the apatite plagioclase 552 dissolution. Saturation tests indicate that deep water, in addition to being undersaturated in 553 plagioclase, is also relatively undersaturated in carbonates. Carbonates are also observed as fracture 554 minerals in cores (Ranchoux, 2020). We propose, therefore, that they can contribute to the Sr-Nd 555 budget of deep water. Besides, if apatite dissolution in deep water-rock interaction is assumed not to 556 fractionate Sr-Nd, as for surface water, the Sr and Nd isotope ratios of carbonates must have 557 unradiogenic Sr and Nd to account for the deep water points in the Nd vs. Sr isotope ratio diagram. 558 Observation of sulfate-rich water for boreholes F5, F6, and F7, and less rich for borehole F8, may also suggest a contribution of sulfate minerals in deep water-rock interactions in the Strengbach 559 catchment. Sulfate minerals are observed in fractures (Lerouge pers. comm.), and their role is also 560 561 invoked to explain some specific chemical characteristics of soil solutions (Prunier et al., 2015; 562 Chabaux et al., 2019).

563 We, therefore, propose from the above geochemical and isotopic data that differences between surface and deep water in the Strengbach catchment are the consequence of two different 564 565 water circulation contexts, with surface water circulating in a shallow subsurface aquifer or very 566 fractured area and deep water circulating in a network of more or less independent fractures separated by fresh bedrock. The observation that borehole water at Strengbach has ²³⁴U/²³⁸U activity 567 568 ratios systematically > 1, whereas surface water (spring and piezometer water) has activity ratios < 1, 569 supports this pattern of different alteration contexts for the two types of water. For deep water, a ²³⁴U-²³⁸U fractionation is classically expected in a fresh bedrock alteration context, i.e., at ²³⁴U/²³⁸U 570 equilibrium. However, this pattern needs to be confirmed by ²³⁴U-²³⁸U analysis of rocks and minerals 571 572 in fractures, which is beyond the scope of this study. In the Ringelbach catchment, Lucas et al. (2017) 573 proposed that the chemical differences between surface and deep water and between two deep 574 water samples result from their different hydrodynamic characteristics, namely, from different water

velocity and/or residence times between the two systems with faster water flow for surface water than for deep water. The observation that in the Strengbach catchment the saturation index of deep water increases with decreasing altitude (Fig. 12) may support the assumption that the groundwater residence time potentially plays an important role in the geochemical diversity of the Strengbach water. The CFC analysis makes it possible to discuss this point for the Strengbach catchment.

580

581 5-4 Water age dating

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583 5.4.1 SF₆ lithogenic production

As for the chemical and isotopic data, the CFC data indicate a systematic difference between 584 585 surface and deep water, which is interpreted as two different water circulation systems for surface 586 water and deep water. The data also define positive trends in binary CFC diagrams (Fig. 9a, c). By 587 contrast, no global correlation is observed between CFC and SF₆. In almost all water samples, SF₆ 588 concentrations are higher than the maximum SF₆ atmospheric concentrations with values as high as 589 five times the maximum atmospheric values. A lithogenic production of SF₆ is often invoked to explain such high concentrations. SF₆ terrigenous flux was proposed, for instance, in diagenetic fluids 590 591 (Busenberg and Plummer, 2000), basalt, or granitic rocks (Kranz 1966; Harnisch and Eisenhauer, 592 1998; Busenberg and Plummer, 2000; Koh et al., 2007). SF_6 lithogenic production requires a fluor 593 source in rocks, which can be found in some minerals such as magmatic micas, fluorapatites or fluorites. It also requires an energy source, which is often assumed to be linked to energy produced 594 595 by α decays of the U and Th series (Kranz, 1966). Fluorites or fluorapatites are observed in Vosges 596 granites or fracture systems of the Vosges granites (Blanalt et al., 1972; Turpault et al., 1998). Occurrences of such minerals may thus provide a terrigenous SF₆ source in the Strengbach 597 598 catchment, which prevents the use of SF₆ concentrations for water age estimation.

599 5.4.2 Age dating of spring and piezometer water

600 CFC data show similar values for spring and piezometer water consistent with the 601 interpretation that these two water types circulate in a similar hydrological environment. The CFC 602 values are relatively close to the current atmospheric values, both for the 2015–2018 or 2006–2007 603 data. This implies young ages for this water. The dispersion of the CFC data is relatively high (Fig. 9), 604 much higher than the analytical uncertainty. The dispersion of data in the CFC binary diagrams is 605 classical and has been explained by different processes, which, in addition to the possible variation of 606 recharge T°, can be due to local atmospheric pollution leaks from landfills or agriculture (e.g., Oster 607 et al., 1996; Ho et al., 1998; Hohener et al., 2003; Plummer et al., 2000; Spurlock et al., 2000; 608 International Atomic Energy Agency, 2006; Darling et al., 2012) or to CFC microbial degradation in 609 reductive context. Such microbial degradation affects CFC-11 much more than CFC-113 and, finally, 610 CFC-12 (e.g., Cook et al., 1995; Plummer et al., 1998; Sebol et al., 2007; Horneman et al., 2008). In 611 the Strengbach deep water, the correlation observed between CFC-11 and NO₃⁻ concentrations (Fig. 612 10b), associated with low values of dissolved oxygen (Table SMT1), likely indicates the occurrence of 613 CFC microbial degradation. CFC microbial degradation does not occur in an oxidizing environment and thus cannot be invoked for CFC scattering of surface water. 614

615 The observation that the spring and piezometric water collected in August 2015 during 616 periods of low flow have systematically lower values than water from periods of higher flow might 617 indicate mean residence times of water greater during low flow periods than during high flow 618 periods with a potential difference of several years. Such age might even be consistent with the 619 preliminary estimate of surface water residence time made in the Strengbach catchment from 620 oxygen isotopic data (Viville et al., 2006). The global anticorrelation observed between the CFC-113 621 concentrations and Si concentrations (Fig. 10a) might also reinforce such an interpretation if the Si 622 concentrations of water were considered as a proxy of the water residence time within the aquifer 623 (e.g., Marçais et al., 2018). However, a variation of water temperature recharge of \approx 1 °C can entirely

624 account for the CFC concentration range of the spring and piezometer water. The noble gases 625 concentrations vary following a similar trend as CFC, with higher concentrations in high flow (May) 626 and lower in low flow (August) periods (SM Table 6 in Supplementary Material). Such variations can 627 result from a variation of the equilibration temperature of these dissolved gases at the season scale 628 in the context of a monthly circulation of the surface water in the Strengbach catchment. The 629 hydrological modeling works, using the NIHM code (Pan et al., 2015; Weill et al., 2019) as well as the 630 coupled hydrogeochemical NIHM-KIRMAT modeling (Ackerer et al., 2020a), evidence short water transfer times of a few months maximum for the spring and piezometer water in the Strengbach 631 632 catchment, which is not very variable from one hydrological period to another. The 633 hydrogeochemical modeling exercise also explains the origin of the SiO₂ concentration variations within the Strengbach surface water (Ackerer et al., 2020a). A seasonal variation of recharge 634 635 temperature of the surface water in the Strengbach catchment is certainly the main cause of the 636 observed CFC data dispersion. This implies that in such mid-mountain and headwater catchments 637 where surface water circulates relatively quickly, the classical assumption of a constant recharge 638 temperature to recalculate atmospheric concentrations of CFC is not applicable. The consequence is 639 that in such a hydrogeological context, without an independent estimate of water recharge 640 temperature, CFC can only be used as tracers of short residence time (less than a year to a few years) 641 and cannot be used to infer more precise water ages.

642 5.4.3 Age dating of borehole deep water

As seen in section 4.4, deep water has lower CFC concentrations than surface water and the data define a linear trend in the CFC-12 vs. CFC-113 diagram (Fig. 9b). In this diagram, the data does not plot along the theoretical curve given by the Piston Flow (PF) Model but rather along the theoretical curves from Binary Mixing (BM) Model and Exponential Mixing (EM) Model. These observations imply that the CFC data of the Strengbach borehole water cannot be interpreted with

the PF model but rather with the other two. The CFC data alone do not allow one model to befavored over the other. Therefore, they are discussed for both models.

650 In the case of the EM model, the CFC data mean that the groundwater residence time is 651 greater than 30 years for F6 water (Table 2) and up to 130 years in the case of the less concentrated 652 water (F5 and F8 in Tables 2). If we consider vertical circulation, the water's apparent velocity varies 653 between 0.18 and 2.03 m/yr (Table 5), which is the order of magnitude typically used in modeling 654 this type of circulation (e.g., Lucas et al., 2017). If we consider circulation in a fracture network, then 655 the distance can increase considerably, inducing higher velocity. For a maximal distance proposed as 656 the distance from the top added to the sampling depth (considering no tortuosity), the velocity 657 obtained would vary between 1.56 and 11,97 m/yr (Table 5).

In the case of the BMM model with a straight line between the recent water and a point 658 659 without CFC, i.e., before 1940, the deep-water concentration would be due to a mixture between 660 recent water and water older than 80 years. The estimation of the proportion of recent and deep water can be calculated with a CFC-12 concentration to provide information on flow dynamics, 661 considering a PF Model for recent water from 2018 to ≈1995 and old water without CFC for the 662 663 second end-member. The average values of the proportion of recent water obtained for each 664 borehole are presented in Table 2. The proportion of recent water on deep water ranges from 70% 665 to 27%, depending on the observed borehole and the sampling period. Similar values are obtained 666 using O_2 values (Table 2) with values ranging from 60% to almost 0%. A relationship appears between 667 the proportion of recent water and the location of the borehole along the watershed slope: when the 668 borehole is located lower in the slope, the influence of recent water is lower. It is also observed that 669 when the sampling is deeper in the borehole, the proportion of young water is lower. The 670 comparison of data from a borehole with the nearby piezometer validates the mixing hypothesis. For 671 the two pairs F5-Pz5 and F7-Pz7, in almost all cases for the same sampling period, the couple of

672 surface-deep samples aligns between a young/present day water component and a water end673 member without CFC in the diagram CFC-12 vs. CFC-113.

674 In a context other than that of the Strengbach catchment, old deep saline fluids of several 675 hundred thousand years have been observed at a few hundred meters deep in the fracture granitic 676 basement (e.g., Bucher and Stober, 2010). Even not considering such depths, in the fracture granitic 677 basement in Brittany, France, ancient water has also been seen at depths of \approx 100 to 200 m (Roques 678 et al., 2014a, b). These waters circulate slowly in circulation loops which can exceed the limits of 679 surface watersheds. They can show mixing processes with surface water during high flow periods 680 similar to those observed in the deep drillings of Strengbach (Roques et al., 2014a, b; Bochet et al., 681 2019). Within such systems, the slow deep circulation allows for partial equilibration of the water 682 with the granitic matrix (micro-fracturation), which provides solutes with much higher residence 683 times related to diffusion through the matrix (Aquilina et al., 2015; Aquilina and Dreuzy, 2011). We 684 propose that such a scenario could be invoked to explain the CFC systematic of the Strengbach deep 685 water, i.e., the water flowing in fractures is a mixture between recent water circulating rapidly 686 through fracture networks and old water (> 80 yrs) flowing either in secondary fractures or in the 687 granitic matrix.

688 **6.** Conclusion

This study presents the water geochemical characteristic of the Strengbach catchment at different depths to bring better constraints of the deep alteration process, which occurs in a small granitic catchment. For this purpose, spring water (i.e., water circulating in the first meter of a saprolite aquifer), water from piezometers (i.e., from 10 to 15 m deep), and deep water (from 50 to 120 m-deep boreholes) were sampled and analyzed under different hydrological conditions (high, intermediate, and low flow).

695 Chemical data show contrasted characteristics between spring and piezometer water, on the 696 one hand, and water sampled in front of the main fractured area, on the other. Deep water is 697 characterized by concentrations of major elements generally higher than those of more superficial 698 water. This, therefore, highlights the existence of at least two types of water with contrasting 699 signatures. Analysis of major elements as well as Sr and Nd isotopes shows that all the geochemical 700 and isotopic signatures of the water of the catchment can be explained at first order by the primary 701 mineralogy of the granite in place, and in particular by the dissolution of the phosphate-plagioclase 702 minerals. Besides, the saturation index shows that chemical variations in water can be explained by a 703 more advanced degree of alteration of primary minerals for deep water where minerals such as 704 albite, anorthite, or biotite are closer to equilibrium.

705 CFC data show that the two types of water have very different ages. CFC concentration in 706 surface water indicates recent ages. The data also suggests that the variations of CFC concentrations 707 in spring and piezometer water, between the periods of high and low water, can result from a 708 seasonal variation of recharge temperature of surface water. Such an interpretation implies that in a 709 hydrological context of rapid surface water circulation, as in the Strengbach catchment, without an 710 independent estimate of water recharge temperature, CFC data can mainly be used as tracers of 711 short residence time (less than a year to a few years) without being able to determine the water ages 712 more precisely. For deep water, the low CFC concentrations can be explained by (1) water with ages 713 between 50 to 200 years or (2) a mixing between recent water having high concentrations of CFC and 714 older than 70 years water without CFC, depending on the interpretation of the CFC mode used. 715 Relationships between the deep boreholes and piezometers at intermediate depth observed for CFC 716 as well as oxygen might favor the mixing interpretation as already observed in other fractured 717 systems.

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729 Table captions

730

Table 1: Isotopic ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd ratios, (²³⁴U/²³⁸U) activity, and Sr, Nd, and U concentrations
 of boreholes, piezometers, and spring waters.

733

Table 2: CFC-SF₆ gas concentration in water (pmol/l), corresponding atmospheric mixing ratio (pptv),

- and simulation results of the PFM mean age, EMM mean age, and mix fraction of the young
 component of the BMM using CFC-12 values and TracerLPM software.
- **Table 3**: Average water concentrations of springs, piezometers, and boreholes used for the indexsaturation test.
- **Table 4:** Saturation Index of main minerals for the different water signatures. Negative values arehighlighted in grey.
- 741 **Table 5:** Minimum water velocity estimates based on sampling depths and residence time from the742 EMM model.
- 743

744 Figure captions

745

Figure 1: (a) and (b) localization and presentation of the Strengbach catchment with the position of
springs (dark blue), piezometers (light blue), and deep boreholes (orange) in the basin; (b) and (c)
simplified slope cross-sections with borehole localization.

- 749
- Figure 2: Precipitation (dark histogram on top), stream discharge (light blue), and F5 borehole
 piezometric level (red line) from 2015 to 2019. Borehole, piezometer, and spring water (dark point),
 and CFCs-SF6 (yellow point) sampling periods are highlighted.
- 753

Figure 3: schematic lumped parameter model used for the CFC-SF6 interpretation of this study, with
(a) Piston Flow Model (PFM), (b) Exponential Mixing Model (EMM), (c) and (d) Binary Mixing Model
(BMM).

757

Figure 4: Time evolution of Na+, K+, Ca2+, Mg2+ and Si concentrations of spring water from 1990 to
2016 (data: Ackerer et al., 2018, 2020a; this study)

- Figure 5: Concentration plots of water samples: (a) conductivity vs. pH, (b) Ca²⁺ vs. alkalinity, (c) Ca²⁺
 - 762 vs. Mg²⁺, (d) Si vs. Na⁺, and (e) K⁺ vs. Na⁺.
 - Figure 6: Concentration plots of water samples: (a) Cl^{-} vs. alkalinity, (b) Cl^{-} vs. NPOC, (c) $SO_{4}^{2^{-}}$ vs. $Ca^{2^{+}}$, (d) $SO_{4}^{2^{-}}$ vs. $Mg^{2^{+}}$, and (e) $SO_{4}^{2^{-}}$ vs. NO_{3}^{-} .
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Figure 7: Borehole F5 conductivity profile evolution influenced by long pumping: (a) before pumping,
(b) after pumping (around 5 hr), (c) coming back to equilibrium, and (d) acoustic scanner of borehole
walls. The fractured area is highlighted in grey.

- 770
- 771Figure 8: (a) 87 Sr/ 86 Sr isotopic ratio vs. 1/Sr (ppm) and (b) (234 U/ 238 U) activity ratio vs. 1/U (ppm) of772Strengbach water samples. As an example, mixing lines of borehole F5 are represented with a full

- line corresponding to the May 2015 sampling period, dashed lines for December 2015, and dottedlines for November 2016.
- 775

Figure 9: Plot of (a) CFC-11 vs. CFC-113, (b) CFC-12 vs. CFC-113, and (c) CFC-11 vs. SF6 of spring, piezometer, and borehole water from the Strengbach catchment. Theoretical curve given by Piston Flow Model (PFM – Black curve), Exponential Mixing Model (EMM – Grey curve) and Binary Mixing Model (BMM – dotted line). Dates of recharge are indicated on the PFM curve as well as the mean residence times on the EMM. The BMM curves consider a mixing between actual water (2018) and old groundwater (older than 80 years).

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Figure 10: Plot of (a) CFC-113 (pptv) vs. Si (mmol/l) of spring and piezometer water, and (b) CFC-11
(pptv) vs. NO₃⁻ (mmol/l) of boreholes and piezometer water.

Figure 11: ¹⁴⁴Nd/¹⁴³Nd vs. ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr diagram. Previously analyzed minerals (Aubert et al., 2001, 2002;
 Bosia pers. comm.) are represented. Several mixing hyperboles are also represented:

Yellow curve: Apatite-plagioclase mixing hyperbole using Sr and Nd concentrations and isotopic ratios measured in the two mineral end-members, namely, for apatite 144 Nd/ 143 Nd = 0.5123, 87 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0.7112, [Nd] = 430 ppm, and [Sr] = 752 ppm, and for plagioclase 144 Nd/ 143 Nd = 0.5121, 87 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0.7365, [Nd] = 1 ppm, and [Sr] = 16 ppm. The percentages on the curve represent the contribution of apatite in apatite-plagioclase mixing.

793 Grey curve: Theoretical mixing hyperboles assuming a Nd-Sr fractionation during mineral dissolution.

The full grey curve corresponds to a case with a very limited leaching of Nd from apatite ([Nd] = 4 ppm instead of 430 ppm); the dotted grey line corresponds to a very small dissolution of Sr from plagioclase ([Sr] = 0.1 ppm instead of 16 ppm).

797 Dashed black curves: Mixing hyperboles between atmospheric end-member and a lithogenic 798 weathering end-member resulting from dissolution of a apatite-plagioclase mixing without Sr-Nd 799 fractionation. Atmospheric end-member: 144 Nd/ 143 Nd = 0.5121, 87 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0.71096, [Nd] = 25 ppm, 800 and [Sr] = 360 ppm.

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Figure 12: Saturation Index (SI) of (a) quartz, (b) albite, (c) feldspath, (d) Muscovite, (e) biotite, (f)
 montmorillonite, (g) dolomite, and (h) illites for average values of spring, piezometer, and deep
 borehole waters from the Strengbach catchment.

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Table 1:

Туре	Name	Depth (m)	Date	Sr	Nd	U	⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸	⁶ Sr		(²³⁴ U/	^{/238} U)	¹⁴³ Nd/ ¹⁴⁴	Nd	
					ppb		(25)	E)		(25	SE)		(2SE+0,5	*10-5	5)
Borehole	F5	13	10/11/2015	70.90	0.006	22.50	0.714996	±	7	1.953	±	3	0.51223	±	3
		14	12/11/2015	26.40	0.019	4.30	0.716876	±	9	1.728	±	1	-	±	-
		15	05/05/2015	13.10	0.026	0.22	0.722504	±	12	0.873	±	2	0.51226	±	3
		15	26/08/2015	15.90	0.026	1.06	0.719441	±	11	1.364	±	2	0.51224	±	3
		15	02/12/2015	8.70	0.029	0.26	0.724714	±	13	0.938	±	1	0.51226	±	3
		15*	10/11/2015	19.30	0.022	3.03	0.718447	±	9	1.614	±	4	0.51224	±	3
		23	23/11/2016	20.91	0.009	3.87	0.717270	±	7	1.758	±	2	0.51220	±	1
		26	05/05/2015	20.90	0.024	2.04	0.718890	±	13	1.816	±	2	0.51226	±	3
		26	26/08/2015	31.50	0.004	3.92	0.715910	±	10	1.805	±	2	-	±	-
		26	10/11/2015	120.00	<l.d< td=""><td>46.50</td><td>0.714096</td><td>±</td><td>7</td><td>1.983</td><td>±</td><td>4</td><td>-</td><td>±</td><td>-</td></l.d<>	46.50	0.714096	±	7	1.983	±	4	-	±	-
		26	12/11/2015	43.00	0.004	8.56	0.715163	±	8	1.842	±	1	-	±	-
		26	02/12/2015	84.78	0.001	31.50	0.714258	±	6	1.982	±	1	-	±	-
		26*	10/11/2015	36.40	0.004	8.31	0.716311	±	8	1.680	±	2	0.51227	±	3
		40	05/05/2015	121.00	0.004	52.30	0.714065	±	14	2.019	±	2	-	±	-
		40	26/08/2015	72.80	<l.d< td=""><td>23.10</td><td>0.714516</td><td>±</td><td>10</td><td>1.994</td><td>±</td><td>2</td><td>-</td><td>±</td><td>-</td></l.d<>	23.10	0.714516	±	10	1.994	±	2	-	±	-
		40	10/11/2015	126.00	<i.d< td=""><td>47.90</td><td>0.713944</td><td>±</td><td>6</td><td>1.991</td><td>±</td><td>3</td><td>-</td><td>±</td><td>-</td></i.d<>	47.90	0.713944	±	6	1.991	±	3	-	±	-
		40	12/11/2015	103.00	<i.d< td=""><td>37.90</td><td>0.714248</td><td>±</td><td>9</td><td>1.961</td><td>±</td><td>1</td><td>-</td><td>±</td><td>-</td></i.d<>	37.90	0.714248	±	9	1.961	±	1	-	±	-
		40	02/12/2015	100.00	<i.d< td=""><td>38.80</td><td>0.714083</td><td>±</td><td>6</td><td>1.990</td><td>±</td><td>1</td><td>-</td><td>±</td><td>-</td></i.d<>	38.80	0.714083	±	6	1.990	±	1	-	±	-
		40*	10/11/2015	34.70	0.006	7.87	0.716387	±	11	1.713	±	3	-	±	-
		43	23/11/2016	88.83	<i.d< td=""><td>33.20</td><td>0.714073</td><td>±</td><td>6</td><td>1.935</td><td>±</td><td>1</td><td>0.51222</td><td>±</td><td>4</td></i.d<>	33.20	0.714073	±	6	1.935	±	1	0.51222	±	4
		48	10/11/2015	124.00	<i.d< td=""><td>47.70</td><td>0.714051</td><td>±</td><td>5</td><td>1.981</td><td>±</td><td>3</td><td>-</td><td>±</td><td>-</td></i.d<>	47.70	0.714051	±	5	1.981	±	3	-	±	-
		48	12/11/2015	94.00	<l.d< td=""><td>36.00</td><td>0.714319</td><td>±</td><td>7</td><td>1.932</td><td>±</td><td>1</td><td>-</td><td>±</td><td>-</td></l.d<>	36.00	0.714319	±	7	1.932	±	1	-	±	-
		48*	10/11/2015	38.20	0.006	9.21	0.716213	±	6	1.748	±	2	-	±	-
		49*	02/12/2015	15.14	0.008	1.49	0.718959	±	10	1.697	±	1	-	±	-
	F6	63	27/10/2016	16.51	0.002	6.93	0.719292	±	7	1.354	±	1	-	±	-
		63	22/11/2016	12.11	0.003	3.86	0.718662	±	6	1.073	±	1	0.51220	±	3
	F7	45	26/08/2015	82.80	0.003	24.40	0.715566	±	7	1.071	±	1	-	±	-
		46	26/10/2016	81.97	0.003	29.60	0.715583	±	7	1.090	±	1	-	±	-

		42	22/11/2016	53.82	0.006	13.90	0.715593	±	8	1.079	±	1	0.51223	±	3
		47	22/11/2016	77.84	0.002	30.80	0.715588	±	7	1.099	±	1	0.51221	±	1
	F8	27	22/11/2016	114.00	0.005	79.90	0.715201	±	8	1.103	±	1	0.51219	±	2
		45	22/11/2016	110.00	0.002	87.60	0.715248	±	8	1.095	±	1	-	±	-
Piezometer	Pz3	11	26/08/2015	7.96	0.074	0.53	0.724897	±	12	0.860	±	2	-	±	-
		11	22/11/2016	5.88	0.101	0.69	0.724694	±	8	0.850	±	1	0.51227	±	1
		13	22/11/2016	20.99	0.007	0.73	0.720393	±	9	0.883	±	1	0.51220	±	1
	Pz5	13	23/11/2016	7.27	0.025	0.40	0.724958	±	8	0.897	±	1	0.51225	±	1
	Pz7	12	26/08/2015	9.90	0.133	1.06	0.726271	±	10	1.168	±	1	-	±	-
		13	22/11/2016	8.09	0.099	1.15	0.724853	±	9	0.985	±	2	0.51220	±	2
Spring	ARG		05/05/2015	8.05	0.031	0.06	0.726939	±	9	0.929	±	4	0.51224	±	1
			26/08/2015	7.66	0.041	0.10	0.726212	±	12	0.910	±	5	0.51222	±	1
	CS1		05/05/2015	6.93	0.285	0.30	0.727848	±	3	0.881	±	2	0.51225	±	3
			26/08/2015	6.04	0.093	0.13	0.725587	±	9	0.868	±	2	0.51214	±	5
			10/11/2015	6.44	0.102	0.17	0.725475	±	6	0.872	±	1	-	±	-
			02/12/2015	7.01	0.251	0.23	0.727235	±	7	0.877	±	2	-	±	-
	CS2		05/05/2015	9.79	0.051	0.15	0.725390	±	7	0.877	±	1	0.51226	±	1
			26/08/2015	8.74	0.051	0.23	0.725260	±	9	0.874	±	2	0.51225	±	2
			10/11/2015	8.94	0.050	0.24	0.725265	±	3	0.877	±	1	-	±	-
	CS3		05/05/2015	9.51	0.043	0.36	0.722197	±	6	0.829	±	1	0.51217	±	2
			26/08/2015	9.34	0.012	0.21	0.722333	±	10	0.824	±	1	0.51216	±	4
			10/11/2015	10.70	0.016	0.25	0.722138	±	7	0.825	±	1	-	±	-
	CS4		05/05/2015	7.83	0.179	0.27	0.726496	±	10	0.882	±	1	0.51225	±	1
			26/08/2015	9.42	0.057	0.24	0.723438	±	10	0.856	±	1	0.51227	±	0
			10/11/2015	9.75	0.056	0.24	0.723208	±	7	0.854	±	1	-	±	-
	RH3		26/08/2015	11.80	0.032	0.18	0.721422	±	12	0.986	±	1	0.51222	±	0
			10/11/2015	12.70	0.033	0.16	0.721169	±	6	0.979	±	1	-	±	-

* Influence of pumping

Table 2:

												CFC-12					
_			- .	*				- *				PFN	/	EM	М	BMM	
Туре	Name	Depth	Date	SF ₆ *	CFC-12	CFC-11	CFC-113	SF ₆ *	CFC-12	CFC-11	CFC-113	Mean age	±**	Mean age	±**	Mix fraction of young component	±**
		m	-		pm	ol/L		pptv			yr %	%	yr	%	% (O ₂ %***)	%	
				x 10 ³	_												
Borehole	F5	15	05/05/2015	2.49	3.12	5.53	0.59	6	565	255	87	13	3	5	6	> 99	4
Dorenoie		-s 15	26/08/2015	5.85	2 25	4 78	0.4	15	408	221	59	30	2	26	<1	75	<1
		15	20,00,2013	5.05	2.25	4.70	0.4	15	400	221	Averaae	22	2	16	1	87	1
		23	23/11/2016	5.87	2.48	4.23	0.34	15	449	195	50	29	1	20	<1	82 (88)	<1
		23	24/04/2018	14.56	0.99	0.34	0.08	16	538	189	53	10	<1	6	2	98 (91)	<1
		26	26/08/2015	5.43	2.03	3.91	0.33	14	368	181	49	32	<1	32	<1	67	<1
											Average	24		19		82	
		40	05/05/2015	16.89	1.05	0.97	0.23	43	190	45	34	42	3	86	<1	35	<1
		40	26/08/2015	11.3	1.36	2.19	0.22	29	247	101	33	40	<1	61	<1	45	<1
		43	23/11/2016	21.48	0.81	0.56	0.09	55	146	26	13	46	1	124	<1	27 (2)	<1
		43	24/04/2018	3.61	2.03	0.93	0.2	39	186	16	12	45	5	95	<1	34 (<1)	<1
											Average	43		<i>92</i>		35	
	F6	63	22/11/2016	5.29	1.35	2.26	0.33	14	244	104	48	41	1	64	<1	45 (60)	<1
		64	25/04/2018	3.14	0.7	1.54	0.16	10	383	45	31	34	1	31	<1	70 (56)	<1
											Average	38		48		57	
	F7	45	05/05/2015	1.77	1.03	1.88	0.22	5	187	87	33	42	4	88	<1	34	<1
		45	26/08/2015	1.59	1.03	1.59	0.17	4	186	73	25	43	1	89	<1	34	<1
		42	22/11/2016	2.82	1.46	2.69	0.23	7	264	124	34	40	1	57	<1	48 (54)	<1
		47	22/11/2016	1.46	0.97	1.89	0.16	4	177	87	24	44	5	98	<1	32 (53)	<1
		47	26/04/2018	5.11	2.58	4.51	0.39	4	253	91	26	42	1	63	<1	46 (53)	<1
											Average	42		79		39	
	F8	27	22/11/2016	4.01	0.76	1.31	0.13	10	137	61	19	47	4	134	<1	25 (20)	<1
		29	25/04/2018	1.71	1.34	1.89	0.17	8	131	74	25	49	5	145	<1	24 (21)	<1
											Average	48		140		24	
Piezometer	Pz3	11	26/08/2015	5.74	2.31	4.59	0.47	15	419	212	69	29	1	24	<1	77	<1
		11	22/11/2016	7.29	2.69	4.45	0.33	19	487	206	48	27	<1	15	<1	89 (75)	<1
											Average	20		15		88	
	Pz5	11	05/05/2015	4.13	3.13	5.52	0.66	11	567	255	97	13	3	5	6	99	4

								Journal F	Pre-proof								
		13	23/11/2016	8.27	2.84	4.87	0.36	21	515	225	53	25	<1	11	<1	94 (97)	<1
		14	24/04/2018	5.98	2.85	3.91	0.34	14	486	218	60	29	1	16	<1	89 (92)	<1
											Average	22		11		94	
	Pz7	10	05/05/2015	4.18	2.56	6.57	0.58	11	464	304	85	27	<1	18	<1	85	<1
		12	26/08/2015	5.65	2.01	3.66	0.39	15	365	169	57	32	1	32	<1	67	<1
		13	22/11/2016	5.34	2.44	4.33	0.28	14	442	200	41	30	2	21	<1	81 (93)	<1
											Average	30		24		78	
Spring	ARG		05/05/2015	4.12	2.75	5.15	0.67	11	497	238	98						
			26/08/2015	4.68	2.22	4.26	0.41	12	402	197	60						
	CS1		05/05/2015	2.88	2.83	5.45	0.61	7	513	252	89						
			26/08/2015	2.98	2.21	4.24	0.41	8	401	196	61						
	CS2		05/05/2015	6.9	2.99	5.58	0.62	18	541	258	91						
			26/08/2015	4.52	2.44	4.68	0.47	12	442	216	69						
			24/04/2018	-	3.31	5.21	0.45	-	625	252	69						
	CS3		05/05/2015	4.66	2.58	5.37	0.56	12	467	248	82						
			26/08/2015	4.15	2.07	4.11	0.39	11	376	190	58						
	CS4		05/05/2015	3.3	2.98	5.65	0.68	8	540	261	101	-					
			26/08/2015	4.71	2.31	4.55	0.46	12	418	210	68						
	RH3		26/08/2015	-	2.27	4.21	0.41	-	412	194	61						

* SF_6 corrected from air excess with Ne concentration (conc.).

** Relative Error (ABS(model conc. - obs conc.)/obs conc.) * 100. *** The value in brackets represents the proportion of recent water estimated with the O₂ values measured in the water (SM Table 6). The maximum value measured in water (8.83mg/L) is used as the current atmospheric value.

Table 3:

Sample name	Number of samples	temperature	Field pH	Conductivity	Na⁺	K⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺
		°C		20°C μS/cm		mr	nol/l	
Mean F5 deep*	9	6.6	7.8	214	0.319	0.043	0.385	0.776
Mean F6*	6	6.3	7.8	231	0.134	0.048	0.632	0.719
Mean F7 42m*	5	7.2	7.3	129	0.139	0.043	0.251	0.426
Mean F8 27m*	5	7.3	7.9	161	0.479	0.061	0.184	0.497
Mean Pz3**	10	6.3	5.7	26	0.107	0.016	0.012	0.049
Mean Pz5	9	6.3	5.7	27	0.085	0.015	0.018	0.055
Mean Pz7	10	7.4	5.9	35	0.099	0.032	0.022	0.069
Mean springs Cs	25	6.0	5.7	28	0.086	0.017	0.015	0.063

Sample name	Mn ²⁺	Fe ³⁺	Al ³⁺	Cl	NO ₃	SO4 ²⁻	P total	Si			
				mm	nol/l						
Mean F5 deep*	3.64E-03	6.07E-04	1.21E-04	0.045	0.004	0.065	0.000	0.317			
Mean F6*	5.33E-04	1.76E-04	7.55E-05	0.06	0.01	0.063	0.000	0.16			
Mean F7 42m*	1.02E-04	3.37E-04	1.19E-04	0.054	0.056	0.059	0.003	0.271			
Mean F8 27m*	2.73E-05	1.22E-04	1.84E-04	0.048	0.027	0.036	0.001	0.306			
Mean Pz3 surface**	1.30E-04	2.40E-04	1.73E-03	0.035	0.032	0.041	0.002	0.195			
Mean Pz5	2.08E-04	4.45E-04	1.04E-03	0.039	0.037	0.05	0.001	0.159			
Mean Pz7	2.58E-04	3.58E-04	2.59E-03	0.042	0.091	0.05	0.002	0.181			
Mean springs Cs	0.000	4.01E-04	1.44E-03	0.040	0.072	0.042	0.002	0.156			

* Average of concentration without the sample from 10/01/18

** Pz3 average concentration without the three deepest charged samples

Table 4:

Sample	Saturation index													
	Quartz	Albite	K-Feldspar	Anorthite	Apatite	Kaolinite	Illite	Muscovite	Montmorillonite	Calcite	Dolomite	Biotite	Andydrite	
Mean F5 deep	0.862	0.571	3.041	-4.12	-9.957	4.687	4.35	5.037	3.161	-0.339	0.299	4.104	-3.342	
Mean F6	0.572	-0.879	2.021	-5.153	-10.309	3.717	2.958	3.632	1.78	-0.337	0.545	1.364	-3.402	
Mean F7 42m	0.782	-0.278	2.542	-4.996	-15.015	4.992	4.037	4.996	2.665	-1.335	-1.161	0.469	-3.571	
Mean F8 27m	0.834	0.858	3.29	-3.929	-11.253	4.791	4.582	5.443	3.283	-0.537	-0.215	-8.643	-3.732	
Mean Pz3	0.659	-2.472	0.049	-9.611	-33.426	4.54	1.014	2.309	-0.533	-5.139	-9.619	-17.544	-4.542	
Mean Pz5	0.57	-3.058	-0.465	-10.18	-37.179	3.921	0.223	1.353	-1.223	-5.102	-9.42	-17.253	-4.408	
Mean Pz7	0.603	-1.919	0.916	-8.024	-39.704	5.489	2.536	4.223	0.717	-4.757	-8.72	-15.455	-4.31	
Mean spring	0.536	-2.713	-0.066	-9.25	-40.603	4.492	1.022	2.378	-0.591	-4.967	-9.221	-16.583	-4.392	

Table	e 5:
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Borehole	F6	F7	F8	F5
Sampling depth* (m)	63	42 - 47	26	45
Longest way**(m)	100	300	430	730
EMM mean age (yr)	31 - 64	57 - 98	134 - 145	61 - 124
Velocity vertical (m/yr)	0.98 - 2.03	0.42 - 0.82	0.18-0.19	0.36 - 0.74
Velocity longest way (m/yr)	1.56 - 3.23	3.06 - 5.26	2.97 – 3.21	5.89 - 11.97

* Corresponding to input area from fracture network

** Distance from the top added to the sampling depth















Figure 5



Figure 6





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Figure 8



Figure 9



Figure 10



Figure 11



Figure 12

Highlights :

- Geochemical typology of deep water in the Strengbach critical zone observatory
- Specific chemical concentrations and Sr-U isotope ratios relative to surface water
- Evidence of longer residence times (water ages > 50 years) for the deep water
- Different circulation histories for surface and deep water in the Strengbach CZO

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Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: