



Tracing effects of decalcification on solute sources in a shallow groundwater aquifer, NW Germany

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SUMMARY

$\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and Ca/Sr ratios were employed to quantify solute inputs from atmospheric and lithogenic sources to a catchment in NW Germany. The aquifer consists primarily of unconsolidated Pleistocene eolian and fluvial deposits predominated by >90% quartz sand. Accessory minerals include feldspar, glauconite, and mica, as well as disperse calcium carbonate in deeper levels. Decalcification of near-surface sediment induces groundwater pH values up to 4.4 that lead to enhanced silicate weathering. Consequently, low mineralized Ca–Na–Cl- and Ca–Cl-groundwater types are common in shallow depths, while in deeper located calcareous sediment Ca–HCO₃-type groundwater prevails. $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and Ca/Sr ratios of the dissolved pool range from 7.3 to –2.6 and 88 to 493, respectively. Positive $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and low Ca/Sr ratios indicate enhanced feldspar dissolution in shallow depths of less than 20 m below soil surface (BSS), while equilibrium with calcite governs negative $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and elevated Ca/Sr ratios in deep groundwater (>30 m BSS). Both positive and negative $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values are evolved in intermediate depths (20–30 m BSS). For groundwater that is undersaturated with respect to calcite, atmospheric supplies range from 4% to 20%, while feldspar-weathering accounts for 8–26% and calcium carbonate for 62–90% of dissolved Sr²⁺. In contrast, more than 95% of Sr²⁺ is derived by calcium carbonate and less than 5% by feldspar dissolution in Ca–HCO₃-type groundwater. The surprisingly high content of carbonate-derived Sr²⁺ in groundwater of the decalcified portion of the aquifer may account for considerable contributions from Ca-containing fertilizers. Complementary tritium analyses show that equilibrium with calcite is restricted to old groundwater sources.

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Introduction

During the Pleistocene glaciations, eolian and fluvial sands were deposited over wide areas in Northern Europe (e.g. Ehlers et al., 1984; Eissmann, 2002; Walter, 2007). Today, the unconsolidated sediments represent economically important but vulnerable groundwater reservoirs that are exploited for drinking water supply. Particularly, unconfined aquifers, shallow water tables, and decalcification of soils increase the potential risk for environmental and anthropogenic contamination (e.g. Dahl and Dörhöfer, 1991; Dörhöfer et al., 2001).

Soils dominated by quartz sand have naturally low acid-neutralization capacities, and decalcification caused by natural and anthropogenic processes produces low pH values in shallow groundwater systems. As a consequence, the mobility of aluminum and other heavy metals increases, and leaching and transfer of toxic compounds may affect the quality of potable water resources. The effect of base cation loss on forested watersheds resulting from the impact of soil

acidification in Europe and North America was intensely studied throughout the past decades (e.g. Falkengren-Grerup et al., 1987; Shortle and Bondietti, 1992; Bricker and Rice, 1993; Likens et al., 1996; Lawrence et al., 1999; Huntington et al., 2000; Driscoll et al., 2001; Hrkal et al., 2006; Fenn et al., 2006).

$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ and Ca/Sr ratios are useful natural tracers to discriminate sources of base cations and quantify inputs to hydrological systems (e.g. Bullen et al., 1996; Katz and Bullen, 1996; Probst et al., 2000; Wiegand et al., 2001; Négrel et al., 2004). Both tracers are reactive along flow paths and are controlled by the sources contributing to the dissolved Sr²⁺ and Ca²⁺ loads. While the Sr isotope composition is not affected by changes in Sr²⁺ concentrations, the Ca/Sr ratios may be altered, e.g. by precipitation of secondary minerals and cation-exchange processes (e.g. Sposito, 1989; Capo et al., 1998).

In near-surface groundwater systems, dissolved Sr²⁺ and Ca²⁺ pools generally represent mixtures of atmospheric inputs and releases from mineral weathering. In addition, anthropogenic sources including fertilizers may be of importance (e.g. Böhlke and Horan, 2000; Soler et al., 2002; Vitòria et al., 2004). Under favorable conditions, the contributing sources have different Sr isotope and Ca/Sr ratios permitting the determination of origin

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and mixing proportions of solute inputs along flow paths. For example carbonate and silicate minerals are usually characterized by considerable differences in their isotope and concentration ratios. Studies focusing on experimental dissolution rates of Sr-bearing minerals include Åberg (1995), Brantley et al. (1998), and Taylor et al. (2000), while applications to water–rock interactions and weathering processes in the natural environment were reported by Miller et al. (1993), Johnson and DePaolo (1994), Bullen et al. (1997), Peterman and Wallin (1999), Quade et al. (2003), Jacobson et al. (2002), Bau et al. (2004), Shand et al. (2007) and others.

The present study is focused on a shallow groundwater aquifer located in Pleistocene siliciclastic deposits in NW Germany to assess changes in the chemical composition of the water caused by decalcification (carbonate dissolution) processes. A decrease in the acid-neutralization potential of soils and declining depths of decalcification are probably linked to a combination of natural and anthropogenic processes including fluctuating water tables, redox processes, agricultural exploitation, nitrification, acid rain deposition of the past decades, and increased groundwater withdrawal. Considerable variations in groundwater pH and alkalinity imply changes in the weathering regime across the aquifer. To trace the effects of decalcification on solute sources and quantify replenishing cation inputs from mineral and atmospheric sources, $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ (here reported as $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values) and Ca/Sr ratios of groundwater, rainwater, bulk sediment, and mineral separates were evaluated. A model for the evolution of groundwater with respect to the origin of dissolved Ca^{2+} and Sr^{2+} and quantification of solute fluxes from atmospheric and mineral sources is presented.

Geology and hydrology

The water works of Ristedt is located about 10 km south of the city of Bremen in Lower Saxony, northwestern Germany (Fig. 1). About 20-million m^3 of groundwater are pumped annually from depths between 18 and 30 m for local drinking water supply by the Harzwasserwerke GmbH, Germany. The catchment area has a size of about 100 km^2 , extending between the towns of Syke and Weyhe. The average yearly precipitation is 691 mm yr^{-1} (source: Deutscher Wetterdienst/German Meteorological Service; www.dwd.de). Groundwater recharge is between 100 and 300 mm annually, corresponding to about 133-million $\text{m}^3 \text{yr}^{-1}$ (source: EG-WRRL Report 2005).

The aquifer is composed of Quaternary unconsolidated siliciclastic sediments (sands, intercalated with silt and gravel) that were deposited during the Pleistocene (mainly Elsterian and Saalian glaciations) (e.g. Ehlers et al., 1984; Grube et al., 1986; Meyer, 2005). In the northern catchment area, periglacial deposits created by solifluction during the Weichselian glaciation form a transition to sand-loess deposits in the south, and eolian sands in the west (Kartenserver des NIBIS, 2008a). Streams draining the catchment are bordered by peaty-clayey fens. Deposits of the northern catchment area show variable permeabilities from $>10^{-4}$ to $<10^{-5}$ m/s, while to the south medium permeabilities with coefficients between 10^{-5} and 10^{-4} m/s prevail. The western catchment surrounding the water works of Ristedt shows highest permeabilities of $>10^{-4}$ m/s (Kartenserver des NIBIS, 2008b). Groundwater drains largely through the streams Hache and Hombach both discharging to the river Weser.

Groundwater flows from the higher plains in the southwest (German “Geest”) to the northeast (Weser marshlands) (Fig. 1). During the sampling campaign in summer 2001, the water table was between 20 and 25 m below the surface at the rim of the Geest plains, and between 1 and 4 m in the Weser marshlands. Groundwater in monitoring wells of the Geest is mostly oxic in contrast to the marshland where anoxic conditions prevail. Reducing conditions are linked to intercalations of organic-rich layers and coal

fragments in the sand deposits. Alternating groundwater dynamics and redox processes in organic-rich sediments of the Weser marshland cause acidic conditions that contribute to natural decalcification of the soils.

Methods

Groundwater samples ($n = 32$) were collected from monitoring wells in defined depths between 6 and 54 m below the soil surface (BSS). In addition, sediment from the unsaturated and saturated zone was collected (Fig. 1). In the unsaturated zone, sediment cores ranging between 2 and 5 m in depth were drilled with a piston corer. An additional core of 30 m length (B16) from the saturated zone located in the Weser marshlands was provided by the Harzwasserwerke GmbH. Water samples were filtered through 0.45 μm cellulose-nitrate filters, stabilized with 1% distilled HNO_3 and stored in pre-cleaned polyethylene bottles prior to analysis of Sr concentrations and $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios. A separate set of samples was collected for major elements and analyzed by standard procedures including ion-chromatography and graphite-AAS at the Central Laboratory of the Harzwasserwerke GmbH, Langelsheim, Germany. Saturation indices were modeled with the computer code PHREEQC (Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999). Tritium analyses were performed on 2 L of untreated groundwater samples using the liquid scintillation technique at the University of Goettingen, Germany. Selected samples were analyzed at the Hydroisotop GmbH, Germany.

Bulk sediment samples were dried (40 °C) prior to geochemical analysis. Selected sediment samples were pulverized and analyzed by X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy for major and trace components at the Geoscience Center, University of Goettingen, Germany. For Sr isotope analysis, about 100 mg of sediment powders were digested in a mixture of $\text{HF-HNO}_3\text{-HClO}_4$ at 120 °C over night. The digestion of mineral separates (~ 10 mg) followed the same procedure. After complete dissolution and evaporation, the sample residue was dissolved in 6 N HCl at 120 °C and again evaporated. The sample residue was then re-dissolved in 2.5 N HCl for ion exchange chromatography. Separation of Sr from other cations was carried out on quartz glass columns using Biorad AG50 $\times 8$ (200–400 mesh) resin and 2.5 N HCl. Groundwater (~ 10 mL) was pre-concentrated by evaporation before ion exchange chromatography. Sr concentrations were determined by isotope dilution technique using an ^{84}Sr -enriched spike solution. Purified Sr fractions were loaded onto out-gassed Ta single filaments using 0.25 N H_3PO_4 and measured on a Finnigan MAT262 thermal ionization mass spectrometer (TIMS) at the Geoscience Center, University of Goettingen, Germany. $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios were corrected for instrumental fractionation using the natural $^{88}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of 8.375209. Routine standard measurements yield 0.71026 ± 0.00002 (2σ ; $n = 32$) for the NBS987 Sr standard. Only distilled reagents were used for chemical sample preparation. Blanks were less than 0.5 ng for Sr. The reproducibility of the individual $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio is equal to or less than 0.00002 (2σ). All analyzed $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios were normalized to the average $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of rainwater 0.710 (Wiegand et al., 2001) and are reported in delta notation according to the equation:

$$\delta^{87}\text{Sr} = \left(\frac{^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{\text{sample}}}{^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{\text{rainwater}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

Results

Hydrogeochemical parameters

Changes in the physical and chemical properties across the aquifer (e.g. acid-neutralization capacity, redox conditions, resi-

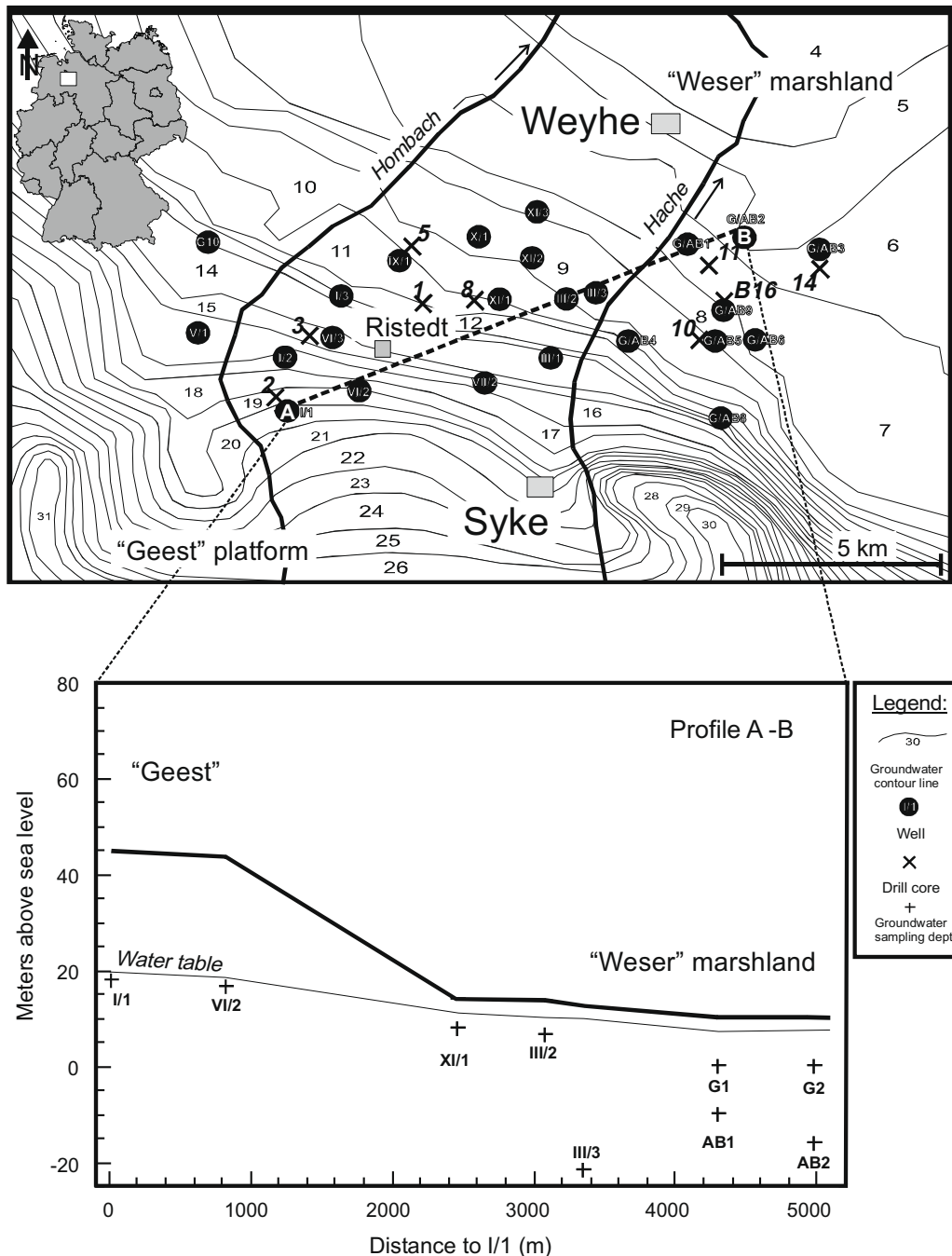


Fig. 1. Upper figure: distribution of groundwater contour lines in the catchment area surrounding the town of Ristedt (52°57'N; 8°46'E). The figure displays the locations of sampled wells (filled circles) and sediment cores (cross symbol with core number, see Table 2). Lower figure: cross section (A-B) of the aquifer in groundwater flow direction from the Geest platform to the Weser marshland. Cross symbols indicate sampling depths of wells across the profile.

dence times) produce a wide range in hydrological characteristics and solute concentrations in groundwater, e.g. total dissolved solids (85–393 mg/L), pH value (4.4–7.6), alkalinity (0.04–3.58 mmol/L), and dissolved oxygen content (0.1–11.2 mg/L). Concentration ranges of major solutes are: 4–91 mg/L Na⁺, 1–93 mg/L K⁺, 7–51 mg/L Ca²⁺, 2–18 mg/L Mg²⁺, 5–141 mg/L Cl⁻, 5–154 mg/L SO₄²⁻, and 2–218 mg/L HCO₃⁻ (Table 1).

Na⁺ and Cl⁻ are positively correlated ($R^2 = 0.57$), and Na/Cl ratios (avg. = 0.52) of most groundwater samples are slightly below the Na/Cl ratio (=0.74) of local precipitation, probably as a result of cation-exchange processes involving Na⁺. For Na⁺ and Cl⁻ a predominant atmospheric origin is assumed; only well XI-3 has an

elevated Na⁺ (91 mg/L) and Cl⁻ (141 mg/L) content, possibly due to anthropogenic contamination. Elevated K⁺ concentrations and Mg/Ca ratios in some shallow and intermediate wells likely result from enhanced silicate weathering, especially in groundwater with low pH values. High dissolved K⁺ concentrations may be an indicator for dissolution of K-rich silicate phases. HCO₃⁻ is considerably depleted in those wells and increases with depth parallel increasing pH values. Depletion of HCO₃⁻ and Ca²⁺ in shallow wells are an indicator of sediment decalcification.

Moreover, the chemical composition of groundwater is affected by complex redox reactions. In the northwestern part of the aquifer (Weser marshlands), reducing groundwater conditions persist as a

Table 1
Hydrological data, concentrations of major- and trace elements, tritium, and $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values of groundwater samples.

Sample ID	Water table (m) BSS ^a	Well depth (m) BSS ^a	T°C	pH	ALK ^d (mmol/L)	TDS ^d (mg/L)	O ₂ (mg/L)	Na (mg/L)	K (mg/L)	Ca (mg/L)	Mg (mg/L)	Fe (mg/L)	Sr (mg/L)	HCO ₃ (mg/L)	Cl (mg/L)	SO ₄ (mg/L)	NO ₃ (mg/L)	SI _{cc} ^b	Tritium (TU)	Ca/Sr	$\delta^{87}\text{Sr}^c$	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$
I/1	25.20	27	13	5.55	0.17	298	9.3	19.7	4.5	36.8	13.5	0.159	0.268	10.1	42.3	37.3	125.6	-4.38	12	137	1.99	0.71141
I/2	23.40	26	11.8	5.35	0.17	315	10	34.3	3.1	39.1	10.7	0.366	0.220	10.4	41.4	125.3	43	-4.79	19	178	3.87	0.71275
I/3	3.50	7	11.3	4.85	0.11	122	3.5	12.8	4.5	8.7	6.8	0.181	0.099	6.7	19.9	36.8	20.5	-6.55	10	88	7.34	0.71521
III/1	2.10	7	11.5	5.55	1.01	127	0.4	4.4	2.9	21.6	2.3	0.203	0.075	61.6	4.5	20.9	4.9	-3.81	8	288	2.87	0.71204
III/2	3.25	7	11.1	4.35	0.04	230	3.4	11.5	13.2	28.4	9.0	0.174	0.186	2.1	25.6	70.3	62.2	-7.57	13	153	3.32	0.71236
III/3	2.65	54	12.5	7.35	3.00	320	2.4	15.9	4.0	51.3	5.7	0.068	0.285	182.7	35.2	5.1	1.3	-0.33	<0.6	180	-2.61	0.70815
V/1	21.50	26	11.8	5.35	0.17	162	10.1	21.2	2.0	18.0	4.0	0.045	0.089	10.4	31.4	48.1	18.9	-5.07	38	202	2.58	0.71183
VI/2	25.10	27	12.6	5.45	0.14	293	10	22.4	4.5	37.8	11.5	0.068	0.178	8.5	44.6	58.5	96.7	-4.65	23	212	2.28	0.71162
VI/3	5.90	10	11.0	6.55	2.29	265	11.2	24.2	3.0	44.0	10.9	0.005	0.245	139.4	14.4	10.7	10.7	-1.52	20	180	3.59	0.71255
VII/2	14.70	16	11.8	5.3	0.10	255	10.8	11.4	10.3	24.0	17.3	0.091	0.271	5.8	21.6	45	113.9	-5.3	12	89	6.13	0.71435
IX/1	2.85	7	11.1	5	0.16	367	0.8	38.2	24.7	22.9	12.9	18.8	0.198	9.8	84	138.1	6.6	-5.76	14	116	5.76	0.71409
X/1	2.00	7	11.1	5.75	1.10	194	0.3	24.4	2.8	21.1	3.0	2.76	0.078	67.1	46.9	17.1	<0.1	-3.44	22	271	0.72	0.71051
XI/1	3.30	6	10.9	4.55	0.07	247	1.5	26.7	9.5	25.2	8.7	5.07	0.198	4.3	54.8	86.5	18.2	-6.94	n.d.	127	5.68	0.71403
XI/2	4.95	8	11.0	4.5	0.05	314	9	37.3	7.4	27.7	15.5	0.017	0.229	2.7	55.7	96.6	62.9	-7.21	n.d.	121	7.30	0.71518
XI/3	4.40	9	11.3	4.75	0.11	377	5.2	90.7	14.7	18.7	3.7	0.054	0.086	6.7	141.2	48	45.8	-6.46	n.d.	217	2.54	0.71180
G1	2.65	10	10.9	5.65	0.48	299	0.1	13.9	33.8	37.4	7.0	4.30	0.124	29.3	37.5	129	0.3	-3.82	23	302	1.87	0.71133
G2	2.30	10	10.7	4.85	0.09	253	0.1	12.8	18.9	30.0	8.8	4.70	0.178	5.5	28.8	134.3	1.1	-6.19	17	169	2.86	0.71203
G3	1.45	10	10.8	5.3	0.21	353	0.7	34.2	18.4	30.7	14.8	12.7	0.297	12.5	66.5	153.9	0.3	-4.96	n.d.	103	4.13	0.71293
G4	4.05	14	11.6	5.2	0.19	286	6	31.7	12.2	23.9	13.3	0.060	0.217	11.3	50.1	69.2	67.5	-5.26	17	110	6.14	0.71436
G5	2.95	11	10.8	5.5	0.20	89	1.2	8.0	9.4	7.1	2.5	0.438	0.055	12.2	13.1	31.2	0.6	-5.11	13	129	4.38	0.71311
G6	2.45	10	11.0	4.85	0.14	239	0.1	21.3	15.8	28.1	6.3	5.13	0.127	8.2	44.7	102.1	0.1	-6.02	11	221	3.24	0.71230
G8	12.20	14	11.1	4.8	0.07	393	10	15.3	15.1	48.8	17.6	0.076	0.290	4.0	33.7	60.9	189.5	-6.18	12	168	4.52	0.71321
G9	3.70	10	10.5	4.5	0.04	173	0.1	15.8	3.1	13.0	6.6	10.3	0.115	2.4	30.3	83.1	0.2	-7.57	13	113	5.11	0.71363
G10	2.35	8	12.4	4.5	0.08	390	0.2	34.1	92.7	12.3	4.5	0.317	0.055	4.9	72.3	75.1	86.7	-7.25	10	224	2.07	0.71147
AB1	2.70	20	10.9	5.3	0.31	349	0.1	29.0	44.3	21.6	11	11.5	0.237	18.6	58.8	145.8	0.8	-4.93	15	91	5.24	0.71372
AB2	2.50	26	10.9	6.1	0.63	309	0.1	20.6	4.8	33.6	9.2	22.4	0.171	38.1	42.5	128.2	0.2	-2.96	12	196	2.04	0.71145
AB3	1.45	30	10.8	7.55	3.58	403	0.2	75.3	2.3	28.7	2.5	1.22	0.091	218.4	29.9	33.4	0.4	-0.33	4	315	-1.80	0.70872
AB4	4.10	54	11.4	7.52	1.32	172	0.1	9.3	1.2	21.7	3.3	11.5	0.051	80.5	14.1	21.4	<0.1	-0.85	<0.6	425	-0.85	0.70940
AB5	2.95	29	10.7	5.75	0.33	224	0.1	17.8	10.2	24.6	8.7	5.03	0.161	20.1	39.1	90.6	0.1	-3.96	12	153	2.86	0.71203
AB6	2.45	25	10.7	6.0	0.47	282	0.2	25.0	4.9	37.2	8.7	5.83	0.194	28.4	43.5	119	0.5	-3.21	17	192	-0.75	0.70947
AB8	12.20	17	11.3	5.25	0.12	278	6.3	18.7	4.0	40.0	9.5	0.327	0.154	7.3	38.5	56.9	95.1	-5.10	9	260	0.75	0.71053
AB9	3.80	21	10.5	6.75	1.29	217	0.3	10.3	1.0	35.0	2.9	6.86	0.071	78.4	25.5	43.8	0.5	-1.60	4	493	-1.07	0.70924

^a BSS = below soil surface; ALK = alkalinity; TDS = total dissolved solids, n.d. = not determined.

^b Saturation indices with respect to calcite (SI_{cc}) were modeled using PHREEQC (Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999).

^c $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values are normalized to rainwater ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.710$).

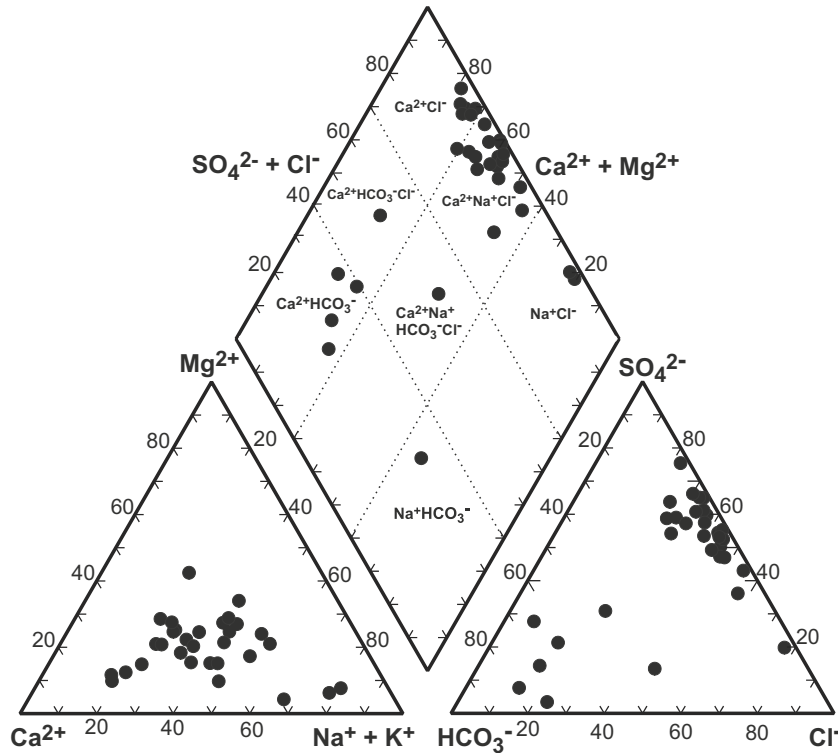


Fig. 2. Characterization of groundwater in diagrams after Piper (1944). Most groundwater samples have Ca–Na–Cl-, Ca–Cl- (shallow depths), and Ca–HCO₃-type compositions (deep wells).

result of exhaustion in dissolved oxygen due to organic matter degradation. In contrast, oxic groundwater is prevalent in the southwestern part of the aquifer (Geest plain), where monitoring wells contain high nitrate concentrations up to 190 mg/L NO₃⁻. At reducing groundwater conditions nitrate concentrations decrease to values below detection limits due to denitrification processes. Anoxic groundwater of the Weser marshland and deeper aquifer horizons are typically enriched in SO₄²⁻ and in dissolved Fe up to 22 mg/L due to reductive processes.

In shallow depths (<20 m BSS), groundwater is characterized by Ca–Na–Cl- and Ca–Cl-type compositions, whereas Ca–HCO₃-type groundwater prevails in deep wells (>30 m BSS) (Fig. 2). Intermediate groundwater depths (20–30 m BSS) are characterized either by Ca–Na–Cl-, Ca–Cl-, or Ca–HCO₃-type compositions. Decalcification of soils produces low alkalinity and undersaturation of groundwater with respect to calcite. Both pH values and alkalinity of groundwater increase with depth. At neutral pH value groundwater is close to equilibrium with calcite. Parallel to the distribution of pH, saturation indices for calcite (*SI*_{calcite}) vary from –7.57 in shallow to –0.33 in deep wells.

Tritium concentrations and stable isotopes of oxygen and hydrogen indicate modern recharge during the past about 50 years for shallow to intermediate groundwater wells. In those wells, tritium concentrations average 16 ± 7 TU (*n* = 19; year 2001). In deep wells (54 m BSS), tritium concentrations were below detection limits, indicating that deep groundwater was recharged before ~1950. The distribution of stable oxygen and hydrogen isotopes show no influence of Pleistocene groundwater; δ¹⁸O and δD values plot along a local meteoric water line according to the equation: $D = 7.37 \text{ }^{18}\text{O} + 2.11$ ($R^2 = 0.93$) (Fig. 3).

δ⁸⁷Sr values and Ca/Sr ratios in precipitation and groundwater

The average ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of local precipitation is 0.710 equal to a δ⁸⁷Sr value of “0” (Wiegand et al., 2001). This value is in the

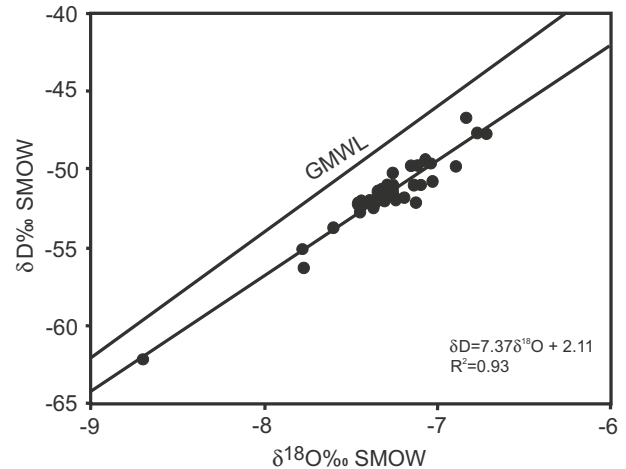


Fig. 3. Distribution of δ¹⁸O and δD (normalized to SMOW) in groundwater. δ¹⁸O and δD values plot along a local meteoric water line according to the equation: $\delta D = 7.37 \text{ }^{18}\text{O} + 2.11$. The global meteoric water line (GMWL) is added as a reference.

range of ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios analyzed for rainwater at other European locations, e.g. Chabaux et al. (2005), Négrel et al. (2007). Concentrations of Sr²⁺ in precipitation average 3 μg/L, resulting in rainwater-derived Sr²⁺ inputs to the catchment of approximately 2 mg/m² yr⁻¹. Dissolved Sr²⁺ concentrations in groundwater range from 50 to 300 μg/L with δ⁸⁷Sr values between 7.3 and –2.6 (Table 1). Sr²⁺ concentrations do not show a systematic distribution across the aquifer, however, δ⁸⁷Sr values vary with depth, pH value, Ca/Sr ratio, and calcite saturation index (*SI*_{calcite}). In shallow depths, positive δ⁸⁷Sr values are evolved, whereas δ⁸⁷Sr values decline below the value of local precipitation in deeper groundwater horizons (Fig. 4). Parallel, pH values increase from 4.4 in shallow to

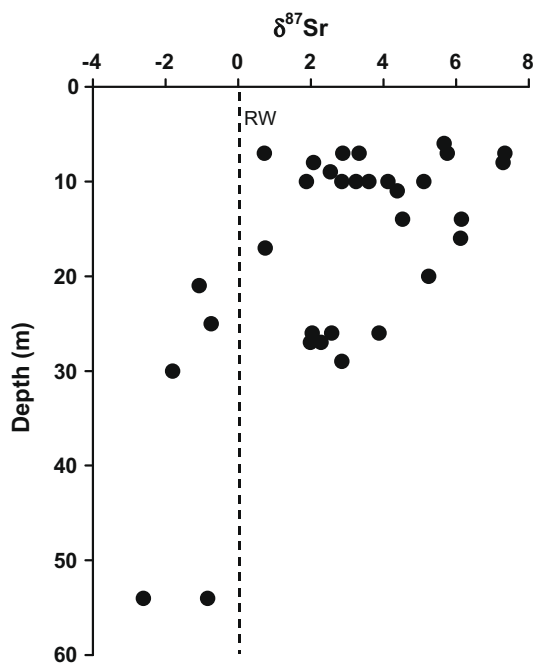


Fig. 4. Depth-related distribution of $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values in groundwater. $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ of rainwater (RW) is given as a reference line. Depth in meters below soil surface (BSS).

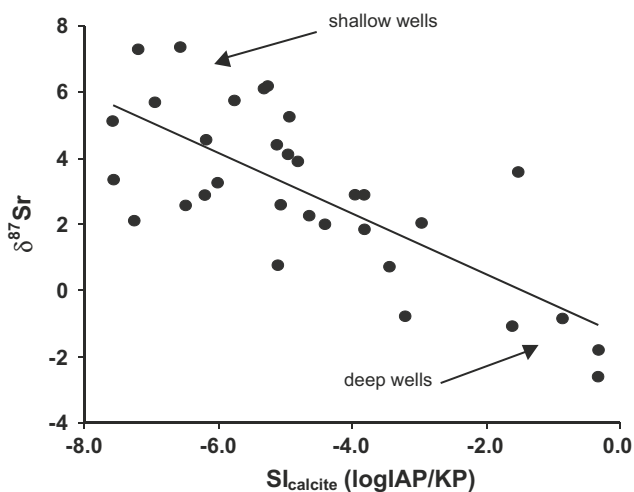


Fig. 5. Distribution of $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ relative to saturation indices for calcite ($\text{SI}_{\text{calcite}}$) in groundwater. Strong undersaturation with respect to calcite corresponds with positive $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values; higher $\text{SI}_{\text{calcite}}$ values are associated with negative $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values; [$\delta^{87}\text{Sr} = -0.92 \text{ SI} - 1.34$; $R^2 = 0.55$].

7.6 in deep wells, and both parameters are inversely correlated (R^2 : 0.55). The changes in pH and $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values indicate significant changes in the weathering conditions and the sources of base cations contributing to the dissolved loads. Positive $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values account for higher contributions from weathering silicate minerals in shallow depths, while negative $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values of deep groundwater are linked to dissolution of/or equilibrium with calcium carbonate. Accordingly, $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ and $\text{SI}_{\text{calcite}}$ values are significantly correlated (R^2 : 0.55) (Fig. 5).

Further geochemical fingerprints like the Ca/Sr ratio may be used to distinguish between dissolving carbonate and silicate phases. Ca/Sr ratios of groundwater range from 88 to 493 and are negatively correlated with $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values (R^2 : 0.62). Weathering of Ca-poor silicate minerals produces low Ca/Sr ratios, while high

Ca/Sr ratios are associated with the dissolution of calcium carbonate. Ca/Sr ratios and $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values are independent tracers and the correlation of both in the present study provides a reliable means to distinguish sources of Sr and Ca.

Distribution of $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ in sediment and minerals

The aquifer is mainly composed of coarse to fine-grained quartz sand ($\text{SiO}_2 > 90\%$) that contains variable amounts of accessory minerals including glauconite, feldspar, mica, and calcium carbonate. Trace amounts of illite are present in deeper sediment horizons. Gravel (partly from Nordic crystalline rocks), boulder clay, and organic layers are locally intercalated. $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values of bulk sediment from the unsaturated and saturated zones vary between 28 and 65 with an average of 45 ± 1 ($n = 36$) (Table 2). In the unsaturated zone, $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values generally increase with depth, while for the saturated zone a decrease to a $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ value of 42 can be observed in depths between 25 and 30 m BSS (sediment profile B16; Table 2). Highest $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values (51–65) are associated with layers of coarse sand and fine gravel, while low $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values (35–42) correspond with fine-grained sand and silt horizons e.g. in the unsaturated and shallow saturated zones and in deeper horizons between 20 and 30 m depth.

While Sr isotope analyses of bulk sediment contribute to understanding mineralogical heterogeneities in the aquifer on a larger scale, mineral separates allow direct determination of the dissolving phases that govern the Sr isotope composition of the dissolved pool. Quartz, the predominant mineral contains extremely low amounts of Sr, thus contributing only little to the isotopic composition of the bulk sediment and the dissolved pool (Rossman et al., 1987). Consequently, the Sr isotope composition of the bulk sediment is controlled by the distribution of accessory mineral phases, which represent mixtures from silicates and carbonates in different quantities. Analyses of mineral separates yield the following $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values (Table 2): 18.3 (glauconite), 33.8 (feldspar: the feldspar separate contains a mixture of K-feldspar and plagioclase; separation between the two phases was not possible due to the small grain size and intense weathering of the minerals), 133.5 (muscovite), and 296.3 (biotite, partly chloritized). Glauconite and feldspar have $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values below the average of bulk sediment, while micas contribute more radiogenic Sr. In addition, calcium carbonate (mostly disperse, occasionally small fragments of limestone and marine fossils) is a supplier of non-radiogenic Sr especially in deep aquifer horizons. Both glauconite and calcium carbonate are presumably derived from underlying Late Cretaceous and Tertiary deposits that were reworked during the Pleistocene glaciations. $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values of Late Cretaceous and Tertiary limestones vary between -3.1 and -1.8 (Burke et al., 1982; Smalley et al., 1994). For comparison, the most negative $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ value analyzed for groundwater in 54 m BSS is -2.6 .

Ca concentrations of the bulk sediment are variable with highest values in deeper aquifer horizons. The unsaturated zone contains between 400 and 1600 mg/kg Ca with an average of 876 ± 321 mg/kg, and between 24 and 58 mg/kg Sr with an average of 40 ± 9 mg/kg. In the saturated zone, average Ca concentrations increase by a factor of two to 2091 ± 68 mg/kg in depths below 19 m. Higher Ca concentrations are usually associated with smaller grain sizes $< 200 \mu\text{m}$, suggesting that the amount of disperse calcium carbonate is elevated in fine-grained deep aquifer horizons. In sediment profile B16 Sr concentrations (39 ± 5 mg/kg) vary little and Ca/Sr ratios increase from an average of 22 in the unsaturated zone to 52 below 19 m BSS. Low Ca/Sr ratios indicate silicate-rich/carbonate-poor sediments, while the increase in Ca/Sr ratios is associated with the increasing calcium carbonate content in deeper aquifer horizons.

Additional sources of Ca in near-surface sediment and shallow groundwater may include Ca-rich fertilizer and decomposing

Table 2
 $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ and Ca/Sr data of sediment profiles from the unsaturated and saturated zones.

Sample ID	Sampling depth (m)	Analyzed fraction	Aquifer zone	Ca (mg/kg)	Sr (mg/kg)	Ca/Sr	$\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$
1.5	1.07	BS	UZ	1644	49	34	30	0.73107
1.13	2.78	BS	UZ	786	28	28	60	0.75259
2.6	1.2	BS	UZ	1215	49	25	52	0.74718
2.9	1.74	BS	UZ	786	32	25	54	0.74825
3.5	1.0	BS	UZ	572	33	17	50	0.74571
3.10	2.06	BS	UZ	572	34	17	51	0.74603
3.21	4.84	BS	UZ	572	39	15	49	0.74489
5.2	0.51	BS	UZ	1001	34	29	38	0.73722
5.6	1.19	BS	UZ	1144	48	24	32	0.73278
5.8	1.67	BS	UZ	1287	58	22	34	0.73414
8.5	1.23	BS	UZ	500	24	21	47	0.74343
8.17	3.54	BS	UZ	1001	48	21	37	0.73648
10.3	0.71	BS	UZ	1144	38	30	48	0.74375
11.3	1.08	BS	UZ	643	41	16	37	0.73647
11.5	1.43	BS	UZ	643	44	15	n.d.	n.d.
11.7	1.70	BS	UZ	572	30	19	57	0.75029
14.4	1.28	BS	UZ	1072	55	19	28	0.73000
14.6	1.77	BS	UZ	429	33	13	34	0.73448
B16	0.4–0.9	BS	UZ	858	36	24	37	0.73622
B16	4–5	<200 μm	UZ	1072	45	24	42	0.73950
B16	6–7	BS	SZ	572	30	19	46	0.74260
B16	6–7	<200 μm	SZ	1001	42	24	n.d.	n.d.
B16	8–9	<200 μm	SZ	1644	42	39	51	0.74624
B16	11–12	BS	SZ	929	32	29	56	0.74960
B16	12–13	<200 μm	SZ	2216	45	49	52	0.74687
B16	14–15	BS	SZ	1358	40	34	65	0.75639
B16	19–20	BS	SZ	2144	43	50	51	0.74635
B16	24–25	<200 μm	SZ	2073	40	52	43	0.74081
B16	28–29	BS	SZ	2144	40	54	42	0.74008
B16	28–29	<200 μm	SZ	2001	38	53	n.d.	n.d.
Rainwater		Average	$n = 5$	1.22	0.003	407	0	0.71017
Feldspar ^c				4952	195	25	34	0.73352
Glauconite				5847	49	119	18	0.72250
Muscovite				n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	133	0.80477
Biotite (chloritized)				n.d.	n.d.	22–33 ^b	296	0.92034
CaCO ₃		Average ^a		400000	400	1000	–2.96	0.70790

Abbreviations: BS = bulk sediment; UZ = unsaturated zone; SZ = saturated zone; n.d. = not determined.

^a Average Sr concentration of Cretaceous limestone (after Demovic and Wedepohl, in Hoefs, 1970) $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ ratios of cretaceous limestone: –1.8 to –3.1 (after Burke et al., 1982; Smalley et al., 1994); $\delta^{87}\text{Sr} = -2.96$ was used for model calculations.

^b Ca/Sr ratio of biotite; data from Taylor et al. (2000) and Gunter et al. (1993).

^c The feldspar separate contains a mixture of alkali feldspar and plagioclase.

organic matter, which has incorporated Sr from atmospheric sources (e.g. Wiegand et al., 2005). Those sources may contribute to the non-radiogenic Sr pool, resulting in a decrease in $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values of sediment and groundwater in shallow horizons. Ca-rich fertilizers usually contain Ca from marine limestone/dolomite, thus negative $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values are expected. Commercially available fertilizers were studied by e.g. Böhlke and Horan (2000), Soler et al. (2002), and Vitòria et al. (2004), resulting in $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values between –2.8 and –1.4 and Ca/Sr ratios that overlap with potential marine calcium carbonate sources in the investigated catchment. Organic fertilizer (manure) contains Sr mostly from local crops that match the plant available Sr pool.

Discussion

Constraining sources of dissolved Sr^{2+}

Sources of Sr^{2+} in groundwater reflect mixtures of atmospheric, lithogenic, and potentially anthropogenic inputs. The $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ value of rainwater equals “0” (see “Methods” and “ $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and Ca/Sr ratios in precipitation and groundwater”), silicate phases have positive $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values between 18 and 296, and marine carbonates (including Ca-containing fertilizers) are characterized by negative $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values between –1.4 and –3.1. In most near-surface wells, the Sr isotopic composition of the dissolved pool is more radio-

genic than the infiltrating rainwater due to contributions from weathering silicate phases. A decrease in $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ in deep wells below the rainwater-introduced Sr isotope value reflects the predominance of Sr^{2+} from calcium carbonate.

Although quartz is the dominant mineral in the aquifer, both low Sr concentrations and low dissolution rates (e.g. Rossman et al., 1987; Brady and Walther, 1990; House and Hickinbotham, 1992; Dove, 1995) suggest only insignificant contributions to the dissolved pool. Lithogenic Sr^{2+} inputs are therefore controlled by accessory mineral phases. Experimental dissolution rates of primary minerals are usually in the order calcite–hornblende–plagioclase–biotite–K–feldspar–muscovite–quartz (Berner and Berner, 1987). Biotite and hornblende are largely depleted from the soil column, and trace amounts of chloritized biotite (0.1%) suggest only a minor influence on the Sr isotope composition of groundwater. It is possible that biotite mostly disintegrated during glacial transport (Anderson et al., 1997; Anderson, 2005). Under glacial conditions, weathering of biotite and depletion of K^+ and radiogenic Sr^{2+} from interlayer sites is known to be rapid (e.g. Drever and Hurcomb, 1986; Blum et al., 1994; Taylor et al., 2000). The depletion of biotite in the aquifer may reflect significant glacial weathering. From the silicate phases present, feldspars are the most likely source for radiogenic Sr in the dissolved pool due to their relatively high dissolution rates. Glauconite, as a member of the clay mineral group, is assumed to have a high weathering resistance and low dissolution rates may be expected in the range of

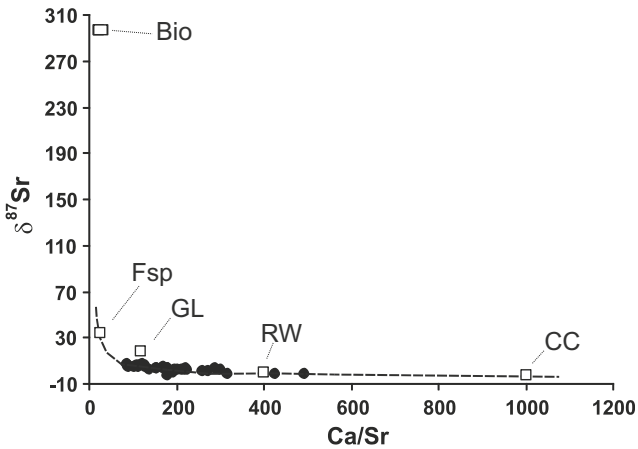


Fig. 6. Distribution of $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ and Ca/Sr ratios in groundwater (closed circles) ($R^2 = 0.62$), rainwater (RW), calcium carbonate (CC), feldspar (Fsp), biotite (Bio), and glauconite (GL) (rainwater/mineral data displayed as open squares).

muscovite and quartz. However, release of interlayer cations including Sr^{2+} may affect groundwater composition at acidic conditions (e.g. Bau et al., 2004; Fernandez-Bastero et al., 2008).

To constrain contributing sources, the relationship between $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and Ca/Sr ratios of groundwater samples, rainwater, biotite, feldspar, glauconite, and calcium carbonate was evaluated (Fig. 6). Both rainwater and calcium carbonate are characterized by high Ca/Sr ratios and non-radiogenic Sr isotope compositions, while the analyzed biotite and feldspar separates are characterized by high $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and low Ca/Sr ratios. Glaucanite has a lower Sr isotope composition than the other silicate phases and a Ca/Sr ratio that overlaps with Ca/Sr in groundwater samples.

Feldspar and calcium carbonate are considered to be the main sources of dissolved Sr^{2+} and Ca^{2+} in groundwater. Radiogenic Sr^{2+} contributions from biotite are assumed to be of minor significance because of the strong depletion of biotite in the sediment. Also, glauconite is likely not a significant source for Sr^{2+} due to its high weathering resistance and a four times lower Sr concentration than feldspar. Though, small contributions from interlayer sites cannot be completely excluded for shallow groundwater that is characterized by low pH values.

The position of the groundwater samples proximate to the end-members rainwater, feldspar, and calcium carbonate suggests that the dissolved Sr^{2+} and Ca^{2+} pools are mainly derived by a mixture of those sources. Because of low solute concentrations in rainwater, the release of Sr^{2+} from mineral weathering predominates the $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ isotope signal in groundwater. Feldspar dissolution dominates contributions from silicate weathering, though feldspar-derived Sr^{2+} inputs are estimated to be small compared to inputs from calcium carbonate sources (sources include weathering of carbonate minerals and possible fertilizer inputs). This finding is in agreement with lower Sr^{2+} and Ca^{2+} concentrations in feldspar compared to calcium carbonate and a higher dissolution rate of the latter.

Evolution of groundwater and mixing calculations

Proportional contributions from the sources calcium carbonate, feldspar, biotite, and rainwater can be modeled using $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and Sr^{2+} concentrations according to the following Eqs. (2)–(5). The average Sr^{2+} concentration in local precipitation is $3 \mu\text{g/L}$, and average annual precipitation and recharge rates are 691 mm and 200 mm, respectively (see “Methods” and “ $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and Ca/Sr ratios in precipitation and groundwater”). Assuming steady state conditions concerning recharge/discharge and constant aver-

age inputs from atmospheric precipitation during the time of groundwater formation for shallow to intermediate depths (during the past about 50 years or less according to tritium concentrations in groundwater of $>8 \text{ TU}$), the concentration of rainwater-derived Sr^{2+} entering the groundwater cycle is about $11 \mu\text{g/L}$. Deducting the amount of rainwater-derived Sr_r from the analyzed Sr^{2+} concentration in groundwater (Sr_w) determines the contribution of mineral weathering-derived Sr_m . The resulting change in $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}_m$ can be computed according to

$$\delta^{87}\text{Sr}_m = \frac{(\delta^{87}\text{Sr}_w \times \text{Sr}_w) - (\delta^{87}\text{Sr}_r \times \text{Sr}_r)}{\text{Sr}_m} \quad (2)$$

The contribution from mineral weathering consists of a mixture from biotite, feldspar, and calcium carbonate. As discussed earlier (“Constraining sources of dissolved Sr^{2+} ”), biotite is strongly depleted in the aquifer, and constitutes $\sim 0.1\%$ of the reactive silicate phases. Radiogenic Sr^{2+} supplied to the groundwater by biotite is calculated based on the estimated abundance. To determine weathering contributions from feldspar (Sr_f) and calcium carbonate (Sr_k), the following 2-component mixing calculation is employed (Eq. (3)). (Note: the feldspar fraction contains a mixture of both plagioclase and alkali feldspar which were considered together.)

$$\text{Sr}_m \times \delta^{87}\text{Sr}_m = (\text{Sr}_m - \text{Sr}_f) \times \delta^{87}\text{Sr}_k + \text{Sr}_f \times \delta^{87}\text{Sr}_f \quad (3)$$

The amount of feldspar-derived Sr_f in groundwater can be obtained by converting Eq. (3) to (4).

$$\text{Sr}_f = \frac{\text{Sr}_m \times \delta^{87}\text{Sr}_m - \text{Sr}_m \times \delta^{87}\text{Sr}_k}{\delta^{87}\text{Sr}_f - \delta^{87}\text{Sr}_k} \quad (4)$$

The concentration of carbonate-derived Sr_k is obtained by subtracting the amount of feldspar-derived Sr_f from the bulk weathering-derived accumulation

$$\text{Sr}_k = \text{Sr}_m - \text{Sr}_f \quad (5)$$

Fig. 7 displays the distribution of modeled Sr^{2+} inputs from atmospheric and mineral weathering sources relative to groundwater depth. Contributions from feldspars reach 8–26% in shallow to intermediate groundwater wells, while rainwater and calcium carbonate provide 4–20% and 62–90%, respectively. The amount of biotite-derived radiogenic Sr^{2+} was calculated to 0.1% for shallow to deep wells. Groundwater of some intermediate and deep wells (below 20 m BSS) contain between 95% and 99.8% of calcium carbonate-derived Sr^{2+} , and less than 5% from feldspars. Because groundwater from those wells is close to equilibrium with calcite and not (considerably) affected by modern recharge (tritium concentrations are between 4 TU and $<0.6 \text{ TU}$), rainwater-derived Sr^{2+} was assumed negligible and not considered in the mixing calculation.

Lithogenic inputs from silicate and carbonate weathering provide more than 80% of dissolved Sr^{2+} in groundwater, while contributions from rainwater are relatively small with an average of 8% due to low solute concentrations in atmospheric precipitation. Both Sr^{2+} inputs from feldspars and calcium carbonate show significant correlations with the pH value of groundwater as a result of the pH dependence of the weathering reactions (Fig. 8). Feldspar weathering is enhanced at acidic conditions in decalcified shallow to intermediate aquifer horizons, and decreases with aquifer depths when disperse calcium carbonate buffers groundwater acidity and pH values rise. At neutral pH, feldspar dissolution is minor, while equilibrium with calcium carbonate controls groundwater chemistry and the supply of dissolved Sr^{2+} . The observed pH dependence of feldspar dissolution is in agreement with experimental results, e.g. by Helgeson et al. (1984), Knauss and Wolery (1986), Murphy and Helgeson (1987).

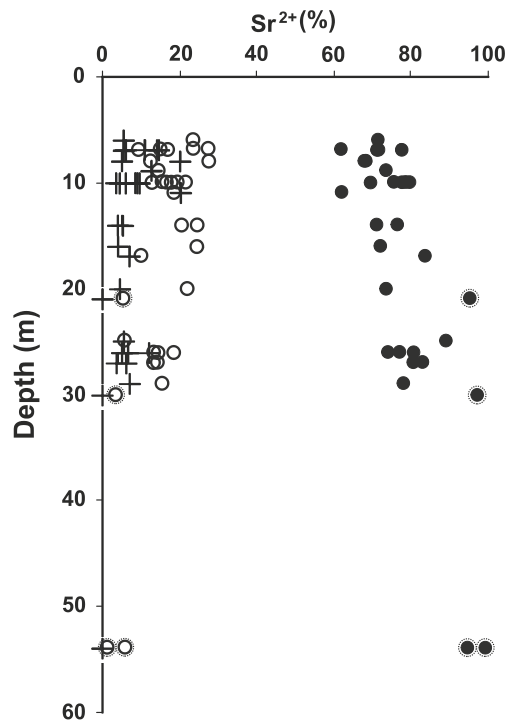


Fig. 7. Depth-related distribution of modeled Sr^{2+} (%) contributions from atmospheric precipitation (cross symbols), feldspars (open circles), and calcium carbonate (closed circles) to groundwater. Groundwater samples that are close to equilibrium with calcite are marked by dotted circles.

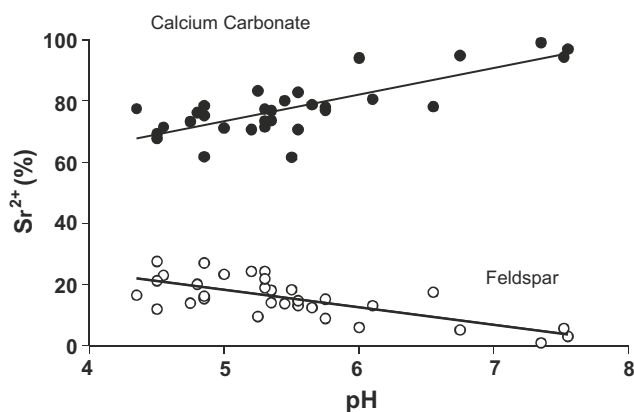


Fig. 8. Proportions of dissolved Sr^{2+} (%) released from feldspar (open circles; R^2 : 0.52) and calcium carbonate (closed circles; R^2 : 0.62) in relation to pH values of groundwater. The dissolution of feldspar is enhanced at acidic pH in decalcified aquifer horizons.

Though feldspar is a significant suppliers of radiogenic Sr^{2+} in groundwater of shallow to intermediate depths, on average 75% of the dissolved pool is controlled by non-radiogenic Sr^{2+} inputs from calcium carbonate sources. As a result, Ca^{2+} concentrations of calcite-undersaturated groundwater are positively correlated with the amount of carbonate-derived Sr^{2+} ($R^2 = 0.62$). The high content of carbonate-derived Sr^{2+} in groundwater associated with the decalcified part of the aquifer is likely linked to contributions from Ca–N-rich fertilizers. In the NW German Geest, lime-marl and Ca-containing fertilizers were traditionally used in agriculture to improve soil fertility. High nitrate concentrations (avg. 68 52 mg/L; $n = 14$) in oxic groundwater are characteristic for the intense use of fertilizers in the catchment area during the past dec-

ades. Carbonate-derived Sr^{2+} introduced to the investigated aquifer by fertilizer application is indistinguishable from local calcium carbonate sources by means of Sr isotope analysis (see Distribution of $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ in sediment and minerals). Thus, proportions of Sr^{2+} from fertilizer cannot be quantified.

Conclusions

Decalcification of silicate-dominated soils has a significant impact on chemical weathering and solute sources in shallow unconfined aquifers. Sr isotope ratios, Ca/Sr, and hydrochemical data provide distinctive fingerprints to discriminate and quantify solute contributions of lithogenic and atmospheric origin and thus assist in evaluating effects of decalcification on vulnerable groundwater resources. Depletion of calcium carbonate in the upper sediment column of the investigated catchment causes a significant decrease in the acid-neutralization capacity and consequently low pH values in groundwater that trigger accelerated silicate weathering. Modern groundwater in shallow to intermediate aquifer depths is strongly undersaturated with respect to calcite, and dissolving feldspars are the predominant silicate source providing radiogenic Sr^{2+} and low Ca/Sr ratios. Considerable amounts of non-radiogenic Sr^{2+} in groundwater of decalcified horizons suggest an origin in Ca-containing fertilizers that were introduced to the catchment by intensive agricultural land use. Lithogenic inputs from silicates (feldspars, biotite) and calcium carbonate supply more than 80%, while atmospheric precipitation contributes $\leq 20\%$ of dissolved Sr^{2+} and Ca^{2+} to shallow and intermediate groundwaters. In deeper located calcareous sediments, calcium carbonate governs non-radiogenic $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values and high Ca/Sr ratios of the dissolved pool. Lithogenic contributions exceed 95% from calcium carbonate and less than 5% from feldspars. Equilibrium with calcium carbonate is restricted to old groundwater sources that are essentially tritium-free. No modern groundwater has achieved equilibrium with calcite due to the strong depletion of calcium carbonate in shallow to intermediate aquifer depths. Trends in groundwater pH, saturation indices with respect to calcite, and the distribution of $\delta^{87}\text{Sr}$ values suggest that large parts of the aquifer above 30 m BSS are decalcified. Assuming that decalcification of the sediment has intensified over the past decades due to the anthropogenic impact, the equilibrium between groundwater and calcium carbonate has been affected irreversibly in shallow to intermediate aquifer depths of the investigated catchment.

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