ORIGIN OF ¹⁴C IN ICELANDIC GROUNDWATER

ÁRNÝ E. SVEINBJÖRNSDÓTTIR,¹ JAN HEINEMEIER² and STEFÁN ARNÓRSSON¹

ABSTRACT. We report the first attempt to date Icelandic groundwater by the radiocarbon dating technique. We propose that boron concentrations of the water samples can be taken as a measure of the amount of dead CO_2 in the groundwater leached from rock. By assuming that the ratio of boron to CO_2 is the same in the rock and groundwater it is possible to correct the ¹⁴C concentration for the contribution of rock-derived carbon in the groundwater and thus calculate the initial (undiluted) ¹⁴C concentration. When this correction is applied, the values for the cold and warm waters lie in the range 60 to 110 pMC, which is in accordance with the estimated residence time for the groundwater. We have also calculated the fractions of atmospheric and organic carbon in the water, based on the δ^{13} C measurements, and the results agree well with the general hydrology and vegetational cover of the areas. Results from geothermal systems indicate that it is possible to use ¹⁴C to estimate relative age differences of the water in a particular geothermal area.

INTRODUCTION

The deuterium content of the mean annual precipitation in Iceland has been used extensively as a tracer to delineate regional movement of groundwater, including geothermal water (Árnason 1976, 1977; Tómasson, Fridleifsson and Stefánsson 1975). From stable isotope measurements and general hydrological considerations, Árnason (1976) concluded that the water in cold groundwater systems is relatively young (an average of a few years to a few decades old). Hot water is of varying ages, and, in most cases, is much older than the cold water. The youngest hot water is thought to be only a few decades old, while the oldest is considered to be from the last glaciation (≥ 10 ka BP) (Árnason 1976).

Carbon in groundwater may be derived from several sources with different ¹⁴C concentrations and δ^{13} C. Thus, age determination of groundwater is complex from a geochemical point of view, and the interpretation of a ¹⁴C determination is often unclear. Under certain conditions, absolute groundwater ages can be obtained within certain limits by applying correction procedures using the chemical and stable carbon isotopic composition of the sample (*e.g.*, Dörr, Sonntag and Regenberg 1987; Aravena and Suzuki 1990; Aravena and Wassenaar 1993; Taylor 1994). Relative ages can be determined with more certainty. In Iceland, we expect at least three different sources of carbon supply in the water: atmospheric CO₂, soil CO₂ of organic origin and CO₂ leached from the rock through which the water seeps. Moreover, there may be a supply of CO₂ from a magmatic source in some geothermal systems. Addition of carbon from sources other than the atmosphere and organic soil dilutes the ¹⁴C concentration of the water and in this way yields a high apparent ¹⁴C age. Because of the multiple character of the carbon supply in the water, a simple two-component isotopic dilution model (Mook 1980) is inadequate to correct ¹⁴C measurements for the Icelandic samples.

The first measurements of ¹⁴C in Icelandic groundwater were made in a study on aquatic moss samples collected in the active geothermal area at Hveragerdi, some 40 km east of Reykjavík (Sveinbjörnsdóttir *et al.* 1992). The apparent age of the water samples from Hveragerdi ranged from 20 ka BP at the source of a hot spring, to 6 ka BP, as the distance from the source increased. The decrease was explained by exchange with atmospheric CO₂ and dilution with non-geothermal surface water. For the present study, we collected water samples, expected to be modern or only a few decades old, from different geological areas and with different types of vegetational cover, to define a correction procedure based on the chemical and stable carbon isotopic composition of the samples. We sam-

²AMS ¹⁴C Dating Laboratory, Institute of Physics and Astronomy, University of Aarhus, DK-8000 Denmark

Proceedings of the 15th International ¹⁴C Conference, edited by G. T. Cook, D. D. Harkness, B. F. Miller and E. M. Scott. RADIOCARBON, Vol. 37, No. 2, 1995, P. 551–565

¹Science Institute, University of Iceland, Dunhaga 3, IS-107 Reykjavík, Iceland

pled also from low-temperature geothermal systems, but geothermal waters are expected to have considerably higher absolute ages.

Geological and Hydrological Settings

In Iceland, most of the igneous rocks are basaltic (~90%); the rest are of rhyolitic and intermediate composition. Ca. 90% of Iceland above sea level consists of volcanic rock, only ca. 10% being consolidated sediments, which are mainly interbedded tuffaceous layers of short transport, and tillite. Icelandic bedrock contains no calcareous rock. Geothermal activity is widespread in Iceland, and the thermal areas are conventionally divided into two groups referred to as the high ($\geq 150^{\circ}$ C) and low temperature areas ($\leq 150^{\circ}$ C) (Bödvarsson 1961). It is commonly held that magmatic heat source contribute to the gas and boron content of high-temperature fluids (Ármannsson *et al.* 1982; Arnórsson and Andrésdóttir 1995). On the other hand, the low-temperature activity is non-volcanic, and sources of the dissolved constituents are the atmosphere, the rock with which the water has interacted, and sometimes marine groundwater. For the present study we collected waters only from non-thermal and low-temperature areas.

We report here the results of ¹⁴C analyses of groundwater sampled from three localities: 1) the Southern Lowlands; 2) Kjalarnes, South Iceland; and 3) the southwestern part of the Northwest Peninsula (Fig. 1). In addition, we collected some water samples from the Laugarnes low-temperature geothermal field, Reykjavík and also from the Mosfellssveit low-temperature field, just outside of Reykjavík (Fig. 1), together with associated calcite crystals precipitated from geothermal water.



Fig. 1. Map of Iceland showing sample locations

The Southern Lowlands are located in Quaternary rock between the two active volcanic belts in South Iceland. The area is flat and almost completely covered with relatively thick humus and peat soil. Volcanic ash and aeolian material, most of which is volcanic glass, is abundant in the soil. The

glass has been partly altered into allophane and ferrihydrate, but sheet-structured clay minerals are rare or absent (Wada *et al.* 1992). The water samples were taken from springs or flowing boreholes with temperatures ranging from 3°C to 22°C. Kjalarnes is also located in Quaternary rock, just west of the western volcanic belt. The Kjalarnes water samples were taken from springs with temperatures *ca.* 6°C. The springs emerge at the foot of mountain slopes and humus soil cover upstream is limited. The third area (Northwest Peninsula) is located in Miocene flood basalts 10–13 Ma old and dissected by deep, glacially eroded valleys and fjords separated by a 500–600-m high plateau. Humus and peat soil cover is sparse except along the coast and in low valleys. Our water samples from the Northwest Peninsula are all from flowing boreholes and range in temperature from 3°C to 43°C.

Most of the boreholes sampled for this study are <100 m deep and cased only down to bedrock. All of them have natural discharge. For this reason, we expect the borehole water had no chance to interact with the atmosphere during ascent and sampling. This is, of course, not the case for surface waters and springs, particularly those which emerge from the bottom of the talus slopes (*i.e.*, Mógilsá, Ingólfsfjall, Medalfellsvatn).

We expect that a component of the carbon in the water samples derives from the rock and that the relative amount of this component increases with the extent of the water-rock interaction. We have used the aqueous boron concentration to estimate the fraction of rock-derived carbon in the water samples. This estimate assumes that boron acts as a mobile element in the Icelandic basalt-water environment (Arnórsson and Andrésdóttir 1995). It is well known that boron is removed from an aqueous solution into sheet-structured clay minerals, in particular illite (Harder 1970), but as previously noted, these minerals are rare or absent in Icelandic soils. The dissolved solids content of non-thermal and warm waters in Iceland is, according to Gíslason and Arnórsson (1993), controlled to a large extent by dissolution of basaltic glass, which is abundant in both the soil and bedrock. We assume carbon and boron in the rock is concentrated in the glass, which is logical since both elements are fugitive. Therefore, glass dissolution should release carbon and boron into the water in stoichiometric proportion.

Data on carbon in basalts from Iceland are very limited. Flower *et al.* (1982) report CO_2 in the range 0.05 to 0.3% by weight (wt) for lavas in the IRDP drill hole in Eastern Iceland, which penetrated Tertiary formations. The average for 250 analyses is 0.13% wt CO_2 ; the average for 78 dike samples is 0.14% wt CO_2 . Most values lie in the range 0.03% to 0.07% wt. Therefore, the median value of 0.05% wt CO_2 has been selected as the average CO_2 content of Icelandic basalts. The average value based on the results of Flower *et al.* (1982) is affected by high values in hydrothermally altered basalts. The basalts in our study area have not been significantly hydrothermally altered.

Arnórsson and Andrésdóttir (1995) present data on boron in Icelandic basalts. The range is considerable (0.05 to 3.3 ppm) but the average boron content of tholeiites is 1.2 ppm. We have chosen this value, together with the average CO_2 content of 0.05% wt, to represent the ratio in which boron and carbon are dissolved from the rock. In this respect it is important to realize that the water has contacted many eruptive units. For this reason, we expect that the relative content of boron and carbon gained through rock dissolution will be close to the average boron-carbon ratio of the volcanic rock. Some of the aquatic boron, particularly in the surface waters, is of marine origin (sea spray and aerosols). Following Arnórsson and Andrésdóttir (1995), we have estimated the marine boron component (B_M) from the known Cl/B molal ratios in seawater, $Cl_M/B_M=1330$, and Icelandic basalt, $Cl_R/B_R=30$ (Arnórsson and Andrésdóttir 1995)

$$B_{M} = [Cl_{W} - (Cl_{R}/B_{R})B_{W}]/[(Cl_{M}/B_{M}) - (Cl_{R}/B_{R})]$$

where Cl_W and B_W represent the Cl and B concentration in the water sample. Rock-derived boron (B_R) is represented by the difference in analyzed boron (B_W) and the calculated value of B_M . (Measured values for B_W , Cl_W and calculated values of B_R are given in Table 2.)

METHODS

We collected one liter of each water sample and precipitated carbon from the samples as BaCO₃ by adding a solution of 10 ml 1M BaCl₂ and 10 ml 1M NaOH. The two reagents were mixed and filtrated beforehand to remove atmospheric CO₂ contamination of the NaOH. The precipitate from the sample was transformed to CO₂ by reaction with 86% phosphoric acid in an evacuated vial placed in a water bath at 20°C. The released CO₂ was then partly used for δ^{13} C measurements at the Science Institute, Reykjavík, and partly converted to graphite for AMS ¹⁴C measurements at the University of Aarhus. We followed the same CO₂ procedure for the hydrothermal calcite crystals (CaCO₃). Further information on sample preparation, the graphitization system in Reykjavík and the AMS system in Aarhus is given in Sveinbjörnsdóttir *et al.* (1993). ¹⁴C results were normalized to a δ^{13} C of -25‰ PDB and expressed in "percent modern carbon" (pMC) relative to 0.95 times the ¹⁴C concentration of NBS oxalic acid (HOxI).

To define a background level for the groundwater samples, we collected CO_2 -rich waters on the Snæfellsnes Peninsula, West Iceland. No rigorous definition is available for " CO_2 -rich" waters, but those collected for this study contain 1400 and 4000 ppm of total carbonate (calculated as CO_2) as opposed to some 10–100 ppm total carbonate in cold and thermal waters of the low-temperature geothermal fields. We prepared three kinds of samples from the CO_2 -rich waters, *i.e.*, from full concentration and dilution to 50 ppm and 10 ppm, respectively.

The concentration of total inorganic carbon ΣCO_2 was measured by titration with O.1M HCl. Boron was measured by a modification of the curcumin method (Wikner 1981). For a 50-ml sample, aliquot sensitivity is *ca.* 0.001 ppm B.

RESULTS

Table 1 gives the results of ¹⁴C measurements, stable isotopes and the most important chemical parameters. The concentration of total CO_2 is variable—it is lowest in the samples from the Northwest Peninsula (8–16 ppm), but considerably higher in samples from Southern Iceland (12–93 ppm). The water samples from the geothermal areas in Mosfellssveit and Laugarnes (70–130°C) have ΣCO_2 concentrations between 17 and 26 ppm.

The δ^{13} C in the cold (<10°C) groundwater samples from Southern Iceland ranges from -7.2 to -21‰, whereas the range is much smaller for the cold groundwater samples from the Northwest Peninsula, *i.e.*, -12 to -14‰. The δ^{13} C in the warm water samples (10<T<40°C) ranges from -12 to -17‰ and -10 to -15‰ for the Southern Lowlands and the Northwest Peninsula, respectively. The geothermal water in Mosfellssveit and Reykjavík give δ^{13} C values between -6 and -13‰.

For the cold and up to 40°C groundwater samples, the ¹⁴C concentration ranges from 45 to 117 pMC, corresponding to apparent ¹⁴C ages from *ca*. 5500 BP to modern, bomb-influenced values of present atmospheric ¹⁴C excess. The water samples from the geothermal areas in Mosfellssveit and Laugarnes (70–130°C) range from *ca*. 11 to 63 pMC, corresponding to apparent ¹⁴C ages from *ca*. 17,600 to 3700 BP. Where stable isotopes of oxygen and hydrogen suggest that the cold groundwater is of local meteoric origin, the ¹⁴C concentration varies from 101 to 117 pMC in samples from South Iceland, and from 88 to 98 pMC in the Northwest Peninsula. This difference could stem from the

TABLE 1. Pri	imary Data for Ground	water and	d Geothe	rmal Wate	r Sampl	cs							
		AAR	Temp	2 CO ₂		¹⁴ C concer	tration	Conv ¹⁴ C	Ål3C	8 ¹⁸ 0 %	۵۵ ۵D	Darre	
Sample no.	Location	no.	(Ĵ)	(mqq)	Hq	(pMq)		age (yr BP)	% PDB	SMOW	SMOW		
Kjalarnes (. 190701	Springs) Hríchrí	1337	0 9	5	00	102 12							
1002001		/0007	, v ,	C.12	8.9	103.12 ±	0.94	-247 ± 73	-14.36	-8.82	-61.2	1	
100200	Mogilsa	1338	5.6	19.7	7.6	107.63 ±	0.98	-591 ± 73	-8.73	-9.15	-63.5	I	
190/03	Steypustöö	1339	6.2	26.8	7.2	108.36 ±	0.88	-645 ± 65	-7.21	-8.70	-63.3	ł	
190705	Medalfellsvatn	1340	5.8	24.1	6.9	115.28 ±	0.00	-1142 ± 63	-14.61	-9.04	-64.6	1	
Southern Lc	wlands												
	Springs												
200701	Gaulverjabær	1341	4.9	93.1	6.7	116.76 ±	0.99	-1245 ± 68	-21 01	-8 37	-56.0		
200702	Ingólfsfjall	1342	3.6	21.8	8.9	101.44 ±	0.80	-115 + 63	-10.05	20.0-	292	1	
200704	Ljósuár (04)	1343	3.0	12.0	9.8	I		}	-8.83	-10.50	72.1		
200705	Ljósuár (05)	1344	5.7	18.5	9.2	82.71 +	0.77	1525 + 75	17 70	10.54	1.0.1	0500.0	
200706	Hrútá	1345	4.3	17.3	8.9	100.22 ±	0.92	-18 + 74	-11.04	+C-01-	-70.6		
	Drill Holes										0.0/-	00000	C
200707	Gýgjarhólskot	1346	22.4	48.4	9.4	80.04 +	0.68	1788 + 68	17 17	000		1000	rig
200708	Einholt	1347	19.8	70.1	. 6	51 42 +	00.0	1/00 - 00	-1/.42	-0.92	C'70-	د/۵۵.0	zin
200709	Tungufell	1348	13.7	35.6	7.0	H Ct.IC	10.0	3341 ± 89	-12.28	-8.72	-60.1	ł	ı of
	0	2	1.01	0.00	0.0	H 00.10	00	0/ ∓ 160T	-16.61	-9.19	-63.5	0.0039	• 14
Northwest F	eninsula (Drill Holes)												^I C
220707	Thverá I	1361	21.7	12.7	9.8	59.28 ±	0.70	4200 ± 95	-15.29	0,0-	P 29-	0 0077	in .
230701	Thverá II	1446	20.9	11.3	9.6	57.00 ±	1.37	4516 ± 114	-14 73	-0.35		0.0005	Ice
220708	Flókalundur	1362	36.9	13.0	10.0	45.10 ±	0.75	6396 ± 134	-13.91	-9.61		0.0151	lar
230702	Krossholt	1364	43.0	15.5	9.8	47.25 ±	0.76	6022 ± 129	-14.06	10.0	1231		ıdi
230703	Tungumúli	1365	24.8	13.7	9.7	51.23 ±	1.36	5373 ± 213	-14.87	-9.04	-611	1020.0	c G
230704	Norðurbotn I	1366	17.5	9.7	10.0	79.61 ±	1.31	1832 ± 132	-14.58	-9.65	654	0.0075	ro
230705	Norðurbotn II	1367	20.1	10.4	9.9	50.21 ±	2.24	5535 ± 358	-13.24	-9.61	-641	70000	unc
230/06	Sveinseyri	1368	20.1	10.4	9.5	62.09 ±	2.30	3829 ± 298	-12.64	LL 6-	-66.0	0.0107	łw
230707	Litli Laugardalur	1369	40.2	12.9	9.8	48.98 ±	0.93	5734 ± 153	-10.14	-9.92	-67 2		ate
230708	Undir Hlídinni	1370	12.5	10.9	9.5	63.39 ±	0.74	3662 ± 94	-13.45	-9.62	-64.8	0.00.0	r
230/09	Patrekstjördur	1371	3.8	8.1	9.2	87.55 ±	3.07	1068 ± 282	-12.16	-10.10	-69.6		
230/10	Miklidalur	1447	2.9	9.0	7.9	98.47 ±	1.68	124 ± 137	-13.28	-9.56	-65.6	0 0042	55
11/062	Hnjótur	1372	6.0	8.1	9.2	88.20 ±	2.65	1009 ± 241	-13.94	-8.46	-57.8	0.0071	5

TABLE 1. (Co	intinued)										
,									$\delta^{18}O$	8D	
		AAR	Temp	2 CO,		¹⁴ C concentration	Conv. ¹⁴ C	8 ¹³ C	960	80	Boron
Sample no.	Location	no.	j D	(mqq)	Hd	(pMC)	age (yr BP)	% PDB	SMOW	SMOW	(mqq)
Geothermal	Areas										
140701	I anoarnes-19	1373	128.0	19.2	9.5	28.30 ± 0.94	$10,140 \pm 266$	-9.02	-9.65	-62.5	ł
140707	I ameannes.5	1374	127.5	17.1	9.4	1	ł	(-5.86)	-9.91	-64.8	ł
140702	Morfelleeveit-75	1375	93.4	22.5	9.6	35.53 ± 0.89	8312 ± 202	-9.48	-9.25	-62.7	I
140704	Mostelleeveit-11	1376	84.5	25.9	9.6	63.33 ± 1.25	3669 ± 158	-13.45	-9.16	-63.4	ł
140705	Mosfellsevieit_77	1377	85.7	25.7	9.6	41.33 ± 1.73	7098 ± 337	-11.13	-9.17	-63.8	ł
001010F11	Macfelleeveit-73	177	75.6		ł	52.38 ± 0.65	5195 ± 100	-10.65	-8.73	-61.9	1
	Mosfellsevieit_31	1378	77.4	23.6	9.6	59.30 ± 1.22	4198 ± 165	-12.97	-8.78	-57.6	ł
140/00	Mosfallsevait-35	176	00 6	1	:	11.17 ± 0.28	17.610 ± 200	-5.81	-9.40	-64.5	ł
T-9	Tan water. Rvík.	167	70.0	ł	ł	42.05 ± 0.63	6960 ± 120	-7.37	-9.33	-63.3	ł
1	and the second second										
Calcite fron	n Geothermal Drilling	5 1054				0 U>	>39.000	-4.07			
008m 546m	Mosfellssveit-23 Mosfellssveit-23	1055				<0.7	>40,000	-4.12			
1300m	Mosfellssveit-35	1052				<2.6	>30,000	-3.12			
1532m	Mosfellssveit-35	1053				<2.5	>30,000	-2.66			
948m	RV-30	167				<0.4	>45,000	-3.90			
Blanks: Ca	rhon Dioxide Waters fi	rom Snæf	fellsnes								
220701	L'úsuhóll-1	1382	ł	10.0	ł	3.22 ± 0.22	$27,600 \pm 540$	-3.10	1		
220701	L úsuhóll-1	1381	:	50.0	ł	2.25 ± 0.14	$30,470 \pm 500$	-2.82	-8.79	-60.1	1
220701	L'úsuhóll-1	1380	ł	1400.0	ł	2.15 ± 0.19	$30,840 \pm 700$	-2.80	ł		ł
201000	L úsuhóll-7	1385	ł	10.0	ł	7.01 ± 0.30	$21,350 \pm 340$	-2.80	ł		ł
207022	L'ésuhóll-7	1384	ł	50.0	I	1.84 ± 0.15	$32,100 \pm 660$	-2.49	-8.78	-58.7	ł
20702	L ýsuhóll-7	1383	ł	1400.0	ł	2.22 ± 0.17	$30,600 \pm 620$	-2.70	1		ł
220703	Ölkelda	1387	ł	10.0	ł	6.23 ± 0.31	22,300 ± 400	-3.50	1		1
220703	Ölkelda	1386	ł	50.0	ł	2.34 ± 0.19	$30,150 \pm 660$	-3.00	-9.74	-64.1	:

fact that, in South Iceland, the water is sampled from springs, whereas water from the Northwest Peninsula is collected from shallow drill holes. Where it is possible to locate the recharge areas to the springs some 50 km away from the sampling point, the concentration drops to *ca.* 83 pMC. For warm water, the ¹⁴C concentration varies from 45 to 80 pMC and from 51 to 87 pMC for the Northwest Peninsula and the Southern Lowlands, respectively.

Calcite (CaCO₃) formed by precipitation from the thermal water is a very common alteration mineral in Icelandic thermal systems. Four calcite crystals were analyzed from two boreholes in the Mosfellssveit thermal area and one crystal from a borehole in Reykjavík. The results, shown in Table 1, suggest that the calcite crystals have ¹⁴C concentrations too low for ¹⁴C dating (>30 ka BP), even though the geothermal water collected from the three boreholes have very different, but measurable ¹⁴C apparent ages, ranging from 5200 to 17,600 BP.

Figure 2 shows that the ¹⁴C concentration generally drops with increasing groundwater temperature. This correlation can be explained by dilution of atmospherically derived younger carbon with dead carbon dissolved from the basaltic rock as the water seeps into the ground and gains heat. The extent of dilution is expected to be governed by the initial carbon content of the surface water infiltrating the bedrock and the amount of rock dissolution, which increases with temperature.



Fig. 2. Relation between temperature of groundwater and ¹⁴C concentration

Since we found no clear correlation between ¹⁴C concentration and δ^{13} C in the young groundwaters, it was no surprise to find that a simple, two-component (*i.e.*, rock and organic derived carbon) δ^{13} C model, to correct for dissolution of old carbon, resulted in strongly varying ¹⁴C concentrations (100– 700 pMC). Therefore, we tried to use the boron analysis, available for some of the water samples (Table 2), as according to Arnórsson, Andrésdóttir and Sveinbjörnsdóttir (1993), it is possible to use the amount of the mobile element boron in geothermal waters as a leaching indicator, *i.e.*, its aqueous concentration is a measure of the amount of rock with which the water has reacted. We observe a negative correlation between the boron concentration and the ¹⁴C concentration of the water samples (Fig. 3). The fit is hyperbolic, as expected if the boron concentration is a measure of dilution with ¹⁴C-dead CO₂.

TARLE 2. Bo	oron Concentration	in Groundy	vater as ar	1 Indicator	: of CO ₂ Le	ached froi	m Rock					
					-				Atm	Oro		
		Boron,		Boron,	Kock		:				A tm	ů.
		Bw	G∿	$\mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{R}}$	CO2	¹⁴ C	¹	SusC	,	5°.		èn c
Sample		(mdd)	(mqq)	(mdd)	fraction	pMC	pMC	800	fraction	traction		رست ست
no.	Location	water	water	rock	X _R	meas.	COTT.	PDB	٧V	٥	(mdd)	(mdd)
Kjalarnes	(Springs)	*			O	103	103	-14.36	0.59	0.41	12.6	8.7
10/061	Hrisoru Máœileá	o *			0	108	108	-8.73	0.90	0.10	17.8	1.9
100703	Stevnistöð	o *0			0	108	108	-7.21	0.99	0.01	26.5	0.3
190705	Medalfellsvatn	*0			0	115	115	-14.61	0.58	0.42	13.9	7.01
Southern	Lowlands											
	Springs	;			c	717	117	01_01	0.22	0.78	20.6	72.5
200701	Gaulverjabær	*0*				101	101	-10.05	0.83	0.17	18.1	3.7
200702	Ingólfstjall	-0	2	0.0010	200	2 1	2 1	-8.83	0.78	0.12	9.9	1.3
200704	Ljósuár (04)	0.0000		010000	0.0	83	86	-12.78	0.63	0.33	11.7	6.1
200705	Ljósuár (05)	0.0036	0. v v	010010	500 000	6 0 0	106	-11.04	0.71	0.23	12.2	4.0
200706		00000	, ,				1					
	Druu Holes Géreierhálebet	0.0075	10.5	0.0052	0.04	80	84	-17.42	0.37	0.59	17.9	28.4
200709	Tungufell	0.0039	8.4	0.0020	0.02	87	89	-16.61	0.44	0.54	15.6	1.61
Northunos	+ Doninsula (Drill F	Holes)									1	Ċ
720707	Thverá I	0.0077	12.8	0.0049	0.16	59	71	-15.29	0.35	0.49	4 0 0 4	7.0
230701	Thverá II	0.0095	12.6	0.0068	0.25	57	76	-14.73	0.28	0.47	J.L	
220708	Flókalundur	0.0151	13.4	0.0123	0.39	45	74	-13.91	0.16	0.40	0.7	C.C C L
230702	Krossholt	0.0201	17.4	0.0165	0.44	47	\$ (-14.00	60°0	1+.0 7 4 0		6.4
230703	Tungumúli	0.0085	12.7	0.0057	0.17	51	70	-14.0/	0000	24.0	2	4.4
230704	Norðurbotn I	0.0075	14.2	0.0043	0.19	80	86	-14.58	00	0.40		
230705	Norðurbotn II	0.0094	13.7	0.0064	0.26	50	68	-13.24	CC.U	40.U		0.4 7
230706	Sveinsevri	0.0107	14.3	0.0076	0.30	62	80	-12.64	0.33	00.0	+ c	0.0
230708	Undir Hlídinni	0.0079	11.0	0.0055	0.21	63	80	-13.45	0.40	96.U	0.4 U 7	, t , c
230710	Miklidalur	0.0042	15.6	0.0006	0.03	98	101	-13.28	0.62	(<u>)</u>	0.0	7.0
230711	Hnjótur	0.0071	22.1	0.0021	0.11	88	66	-13.94	0.49	0.40	4.0	C.C
*Boron value	s assumed											



Fig. 3. Relation between boron concentration of groundwater and 14 C concentration. The fit is hyperbolic as expected if the boron concentration is a measure of dilution with 14 C-dead CO₂.

We propose, therefore, that the boron concentration may be taken as a measure of the amount of dead CO_2 in the groundwater leached from the rock. Accordingly, we have calculated the ¹⁴C dilution, assuming the typical concentrations of 1.2 ppm boron and 500 ppm CO_2 for the basaltic bedrock in the Northwest Peninsula (Arnórsson and Andrésdóttir 1995). The concentration of leached CO_2 in the water sample is calculated as

$$ppm(CO_2, leached)_{WATER} = ppm(B, leached)_{WATER} \times ppm(CO_2)_{ROCK}/ppm(B)_{ROCK}$$
 (1)

We calculate the CO₂ fraction derived from the rock as

$$X_{R} = ppm(CO_{2}, leached)_{WATER}/ppm(CO_{2}, total)_{WATER}$$
 (2)

Accordingly, corrected pMC values are calculated from the measured pMC values as

$$pMC_{corr} = pMC_{meas} (1/(1-X_R)) \quad . \tag{3}$$

Here we assume that the rock-derived CO_2 component contains no measurable ¹⁴C. Dilution-corrected ¹⁴C concentrations (pMC_{corr}) are given in Table 2, representing the atmospheric and organic soil carbon components of the groundwater, where influence of rock-derived CO_2 (no ¹⁴C) has been eliminated. Figure 4 illustrates the relative success of this boron-based correction, as the ¹⁴C results are more uniform and closer to the expected modern level after the correction is applied. We can then use these values to estimate the absolute ¹⁴C ages of the groundwater.

We can use the calculated values of the rock-derived carbon X_R to determine the CO₂ fractions derived from the atmosphere (X_A) and organic material (X_O):

$$X_{A} + X_{O} = 1 - X_{R} \tag{4}$$

or

$$X_0 = (1 - X_R) - X_A$$
 . (5)



Fig. 4. Relation between boron-based corrected pMC values and the calculated fraction (X_R) of carbon dissolved from the rock

If a substantial fraction of the carbon entering the water has precipitated as calcite, the X_R value in equation (2) is overestimated and X_A and X_O correspondingly underestimated. We now use the measured δ^{13} C values (δ_m). By assuming the standard atmospheric δ^{13} C value as -7% (δ_A), organic δ^{13} C value as -25% (δ_O) and δ^{13} C values for basaltic rock as -4% (δ_R), which is the typical value for calcite in basaltic rock in Iceland, we can express the measured δ_m as

$$\delta_{\rm m} = X_{\rm A} \,\delta_{\rm A} + X_{\rm R} \,\delta_{\rm R} + X_{\rm O} \,\delta_{\rm O} \quad . \tag{6}$$

Inserting the right side of equation (5) and rearranging, we obtain

$$X_{A} = (\delta_{m} - \delta_{O} + X_{R}(\delta_{O} - \delta_{R})) / (\delta_{A} - \delta_{O}) \quad .$$
⁽⁷⁾

The atmosphere-derived $CO_2(X_A)$ and organics-derived $CO_2(X_O)$ are given in Table 2, both as fractions and absolute concentrations (ppm). Figure 5 shows the calculated concentrations of atmospheric and organics-derived carbon versus calculated fraction (X_R) of carbon dissolved from the rock. The results serve to explain why a two-component (e.g., rock/organic) model is not adequate, as there are significant fractions of three components: rock, organics- and atmosphere-derived carbon. We note that the organic and atmospheric concentrations of carbon in the Northwest Peninsula samples are uniform despite the considerable range (20–70%) in X_R . For the spring samples, the atmospheric carbon concentration is somewhat higher than the organic concentration, whereas the organic-carbon concentration of the drill hole samples from the Southern Lowlands is very high, as expected, because this is an agricultural area.

DISCUSSION

Cold and Warm Groundwater

The pH of pure rainwater in equilibrium with the CO_2 of the atmosphere at 25°C is close to 5.7. Most of the water samples we collected for this study have a pH in the range of 9 to 10, typical values for



Fig. 5. Relation between the concentration of atmospheric and organic-derived carbon vs. calculated fraction (X_R) of carbon dissolved from the rock. Data points from springs are denoted by S.

groundwaters that have reacted substantially with the basaltic rock. The pH increase is the result of hydrolysis of silicates. On the other hand, all samples from Kjalarnes, one from the Southern Lowlands (Gaulverjabær) and one from the Northwest Peninsula (Miklidalur) have pH <8, which is typical for shallow and non-equilibrated cold water (Arnórsson 1983). Most of the water samples are saturated with calcite (Fig. 6), in accordance with Ellis (1970) and Arnórsson (1978), who have shown that geothermal reservoir waters are always close to saturation with calcite, whereas cold groundwaters, and especially surface waters, tend to be strongly undersaturated.

For the drill-hole samples, we observed a clear linear relation between the δ^{13} C values and the calculated fraction (X_R) of carbon dissolved from the rock, based on boron analyses (Fig. 7). The δ^{13} C values increase with increasing X_R, and for X_R = 1, the line extrapolates to δ^{13} C = -5‰, similar to the typical δ^{13} C value of calcite in basaltic rock. Four samples fit the line poorly. Two of them (Flókalundur and Krossholt) are from areas with unusually high vegetational cover, explaining their low δ^{13} C values. The third (Miklidalur) has the lowest X_R of the Northwest Peninsula samples. It has a character of a non-equilibrated cold water (pH = 7.9), showing a high atmospheric component and a less negative δ^{13} C value. The fourth sample (Hnjótur) is more difficult to explain and needs further study. Samples from springs (Ljósuár and Hrútá) have reacted with the atmosphere and show less negative δ^{13} C values.

As mentioned above, the boron-based corrected pMC values (Table 2) are shown in Figure 4 in relation to the calculated fraction (X_R) of carbon dissolved from the rock. The corrected values lie in the range 60 to 110 pMC. In contrast to the original values (45–100 pMC), also shown in the figure, the corrected values exhibit only a weak correlation with X_R . We take this as an indication that boron is indeed a good indicator of the amount of CO₂ leached from the rock. In fact, if, as a fitting parameter, we assume ppm(CO₂)_{ROCK} = 600 instead of 500 in Equation 1, the correlation disappears entirely.



Fig. 6. Relation between temperature and ion activity product of Ca^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} of the water samples. The calcite saturation curve is shown for comparison.



Fig. 7. Relation between $\delta^{13}C$ and the calculated fraction (X_R) of carbon dissolved from the rock

All of the samples from the Northwest Peninsula were taken from boreholes. Most of the samples were warm (20-40°C) and their corrected pMC values ranged from 60-100, corresponding to a water age from about 4000 BP to modern. For 3 of the 4 cold water samples (3-12°C) results of boron analyses are available (Table 2). One of the samples shows corrected ¹⁴C concentration of *ca*. 80 pMC, corresponding to an apparent water age of 2000 BP, whereas the remaining two show mod-

ern levels of *ca*. 100 pMC. Since we expected all four samples to be close to modern, the boron correction seems to be too low in one case.

The samples from the Southern Lowlands show similar results. The local spring sample (Hrútá) gives a modern, bomb-influenced ¹⁴C value of 110 pMC after correction, whereas the borehole samples and the spring sample from a distance source show corrected ¹⁴C concentration of *ca.* 90 pMC. This corresponds to a water age of *ca.* 1000 BP, which, according to hydrological considerations, could well be the true residence time for the samples.

We have no boron data for the Kjalarnes samples and two of the Southern Lowland samples (Gaulverjabær and Ingólfsfjall). All of these samples show modern, bomb-influenced ¹⁴C levels, from 101–117, as expected. Assuming no boron in these samples (*i.e.*, X_R = 0), we calculated fractions of atmospherically derived and organic carbon in the water (Table 2). The fraction of calculated organic carbon varies from 0.01–0.78, in qualitative agreement with the different plant cover and hydrology of the areas.

Geothermal Water

Geographically, the Mosfellssveit low-temperature geothermal area can be divided into the Helgadalur field and the South Reykir field. It is clear from Table 1 that the geothermal waters fall into three categories: 1) thermal water from well 35, which is in the Helgadalur field, with apparent ages of *ca*. 17,600 BP; 2) thermal water from wells 25 and 22 in the field of South Reykir, with apparent ages of *ca*. 8000 BP; and 3) thermal water from wells 11, 23, 31 in the field of South Reykir with apparent ages of *ca*. 4000 BP. These data suggest a distinct difference in the ¹⁴C concentration of the thermal water circulating in the area, and agree with Sveinbjörnsdóttir's (1988) suggestion, based on oxygen and hydrogen isotopic data, that the Mosfellssveit thermal water is oldest within the Helgadalur field and youngest in the southernmost South Reykir field. The present ¹⁴C results on thermal water indicate that ¹⁴C dating may be useful in estimating relative age differences of thermal water within a particular geothermal area. The results also encourage further measurements on thermal water from numerous boreholes in the Mosfellssveit area (*ca*. 40) to obtain a fuller picture of the carbon isotopes and to estimate their usefulness in mapping groundwater circulation. ¹⁴C concentrations of calcite crystals that have precipitated from the thermal water are, on the other hand, too low for ¹⁴C dating, indicating that calcite crystals and the associated thermal waters are in disequilibrium with ¹⁴C.

CONCLUSION

Our results show that boron concentrations of water samples can be used successfully to indicate leaching, *i.e.*, the aqueous concentration of boron is a measure of the amount of rock with which the water has reacted. By assuming that the ratio of boron to CO_2 is the same in rock and groundwater, one can correct for the contribution of rock-derived carbon in groundwater. When we apply this correction, the ¹⁴C values for the cold and warm water samples lie in the range 60–110 pMC, which accords with the estimated residence time of the groundwater. In some instances, our boron based correction may be too low. Future research will aim at further investigation using a fuller data set and performing tritium analyses.

After having calculated the fraction of carbon (X_R) dissolved from the rock, based on the boron analyses, and by using the measured $\delta^{13}C$ values, we calculated the CO₂ fractions derived from the atmosphere (X_A) and organic material (X_O) by using the standard $\delta^{13}C$ values for the atmosphere (-7%), organic material (-25%) and basaltic rock (-4%). The results agree well with the general hydrology and plant cover of the areas.

For borehole samples, we observe a clear relation between the $\delta^{13}C$ values and the calculated fraction (X_R) of carbon dissolved from the rock, based on boron analyses. The $\delta^{13}C$ values increase with increasing X_R , and when $X_R = 1$, $\delta^{13}C = -5\%$, similar to the typical $\delta^{13}C$ value of calcite in basaltic rock. Water from springs has reacted with the atmosphere and shows less negative $\delta^{13}C$ values.

The results from geothermal systems indicate that it is possible to use ¹⁴C in the geothermal water to estimate relative age differences of thermal water within a particular geothermal area.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Our sincere thanks go to Henrik Loft Nielsen, University of Aarhus, for critically reading the manuscript and making valuable comments. We gratefully acknowledge financial support from the Icelandic Science Foundation and NorFa (Nordiska forskarutbildningsakademin).

REFERENCES

- Ármannsson, H., Gudmundsson, Á. and Hauksson, T. 1982 Magmatic gases in well fluids aid the mapping of the flow pattern in a geothermal system. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta 46: 167–177.
- Árnason, B. 1976 Groundwater systems in Iceland traced by deuterium. Societas Scientiarum Islandica 42: 236 p.
- _____1977 Hydrothermal systems in Iceland traced by deuterium. *Geothermics* 5: 125–151.
- Arnórsson, S. 1978 Precipitation of calcite from flashed geothermal waters in Iceland. Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology 66: 21–28.
- _____1983 Chemical equilibria in Icelandic geothermal systems—Implications for chemical geothermometry investigations. *Geothermics* 12(2/3): 119–128.
- Arnórsson, S. and Andrésdóttir, A. 1995 Processes controlling the distribution of B and Cl in natural waters in Iceland. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*. In press.
- Arnórsson, S., Andrésdóttir, A. and Sveinbjörnsdóttir, Á. E. 1993 The distribution of Cl, B, &D and &¹⁸O in natural waters in the Southern Lowlands geothermal area in Iceland. Contribution to an international conference on fluid evolution, migration and interaction in rocks. *British Gas*: 313–318.
- Aravena, R. and Suzuki, O. 1990 Isotopic evolution of river water in the northern chile region. Water Resources Research 26(12): 2887–2895.
- Aravena, R. and Wassenaar, L. I. 1993 Dissolved organic carbon and methane in a regional confined aquifer, southern Ontario, Canada: Carbon isotope evidence for associated subsurface sources. *Applied Geochemistry* 8: 483–493.
- Bödvarsson, G. 1961 Physical characteristics of natural heat resources in Iceland. *Jökull* 11: 29–38.
- Dörr, H., Sonntag, S. and Regenberg, W. 1987 Field study on the initial ¹⁴C content as a limiting factor in ¹⁴C groundwater dating. In *Isotope Techniques in Water Resources Development*. IAEA, Vienna: 73–86.

Ellis, A. J. 1970 Quantitative interpretation of chemical

characteristics of geothermal solutions. *Geothermics*, Special Issue 2: 516–528.

- Flower, M. F. J., Pritchard, R. G., Brem, G., Cann, J. R., Delaney, J., Emmerman, R., Gibson, I. L., Oakley, P. J., Robinson, P. T. and Schmincke, H.-U. 1982 Chemical Stratigraphy, Iceland Research Drilling Project Reydarfjordur, Eastern Iceland. Journal of Geophysical Research 87(B8): 6489–6510.
- Gíslason, S. and Arnórsson, S. 1993 Dissolution of primary basaltic minerals in natural waters: Saturation state and kinetics. *Chemical Geology* 105: 117–135.
- Harder, H. 1970 Boron content of sediments as a tool in facies analysis. Sedimentary Geology 4: 153–175.
- Mook, W. G. 1980 Carbon-14 in hydrogeological studies. In Fritz, P. and Fontes, J. Ch., eds., Handbook of Environmental Isotope Geochemistry. The Terrestrial Environment. Amsterdam, Elsevier: 49–74.
- Sveinbjörnsdóttir, Á. E. 1988 Stable isotope measurements on the geothermal fluids in Mosfellssveit, Iceland. Science Institute, University of Iceland. RH-10-88: 20 p (mimeographed, in Icelandic).
- Sveinbjörnsdóttir Á. E., Eiríksson, J., Geirsdóttir, Á., Heinemeier, J. and Rud N. 1993 The Fossvogur marine sediments in SW Iceland—Confined to the Allerød/Younger Dryas transition by AMS ¹⁴C dating. *Boreas* 22: 147–157.
- Sveinbjörnsdóttir, Á. E., Heinemeier, J., Rud, N. and Johnsen, S. 1992 ¹⁴C anomalies observed for plants growing in Icelandic geothermal waters. *In* Long, A. and Kra, R. S., eds., Proceedings of the 14th International ¹⁴C Conference. *Radiocarbon* 34(3): 696–703.
- Taylor, C. B. 1994 Hydrology of the Poverty Bay flats aquifers, New Zealand: recharge mechanisms, evolution of the isotopic composition of dissolved inorganic carbon, and ground-water ages. *Journal of Hydrology* 158: 151–185.
- Tómasson, J., Fridleifsson, I. B. and Stefánsson, V. 1975 A hydrological model for the flow of thermal water in southwestern Iceland with special reference to the Reykir and Reykjavík thermal areas. Second United

Nations Symposium on the Development and Use of Geothermal Resources, San Francisco 20–29 May 1975, 2: 643–648.

Wada, K., Arnalds, Ó., Kakuto, Y., Wilding, L. P. and Hallmark, C. T. 1992 Clay minerals of four soils formed in eolian and tephra materials in Iceland. Geoderma 52: 351-365.

Wikner, B. 1981 Boron determination in natural waters with curcumin using 2,2-dimethyl-1,3-hexanediol to eliminate interferences. Communications in Soil Science and Plant Analysis 12: 697-709.