

**This is a much better paper than the original version and I consider that it is suitable for publication in HESS following moderate revisions. I have made several specific comments below that are mainly concerned with the details of the paper. The overall methodology and conclusions are sound and the aims and objectives are generally clear.**

We thank the reviewer for taking the time to go through our manuscript again. We have addressed all specific comments below. All line numbers below refer to the track changed document.

**The one major concern that I have is with the calculation of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  residence times. The interpretation of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  is difficult in the best of circumstances due to problems with defining the  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  input function over time (given that the rainfall patterns, distance from the coast, input of dust etc is likely very different several hundred thousand years ago to today). Additionally, in many studies (including this one), the in situ production rate of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  is assumed rather than measured and the definition of residence times via Eq. (1) implicitly assumes piston flow which is also unlikely. In groundwater such as that discussed in this study, there is also the problem of mixing which means that the calculations can only be carried out in waters that can be guaranteed to be the pre-mixing endmembers (which given the extent of mixing may be difficult). The fact that the GAB groundwater has long (several 100 ka) residence times is well established in previous studies and this paper does not add to that understanding. It would be sufficient to note that the low  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  activities are consistent with the old GAB groundwater and focus on the mixing.**

We agree about the shortcomings of  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  to calculate meaningful groundwater residence times and we do make these shortcomings clear in the introduction (lines 95-102). Previous literature in the GAB (Bentley et al. 1986; Radke et al. 2000; Love et al. 2000; Moya et al. 2016) and the Coonamble Embayment (Radke et al. 2000; Mahara et al. 2007) have constrained GAB groundwater residence times using similar or the same methods (this is outlined at lines 408-413 in the revised manuscript). Therefore, the 'old' nature of GAB groundwater has been established in most cases with the same methods and uncertainties. However, we have followed the reviewer's advice above and removed all references to residence times associated with  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  from the discussion.

All references to  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  in the results section are purely the  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  results from our samples so that section remains (lines 535-540).

The initial discussion regarding  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  (636-645) just discusses Figure 7 and the distinct mixing trend between the samples so that remains.

At line 648 is where we first mention residence time calculations using  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ . These lines have been deleted.

Lines 654-667 remain because they are just discussing the  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  values in relation to the  $^{14}\text{C}$  values that we obtained for our samples.

Lines 674-680 remove all trace of residence time estimation. At line 676 “up to 900 ka” has been removed and replaced with “conceivably older than that of the GAB recharge zone”.

“...groundwater with a residence time of 900 ka (calculated using eqn 1.)” has been changed to “...groundwater with low <sup>36</sup>Cl activities, consistent with old GAB groundwater” (lines 679-680). The final sentence (line 680) regarding how the “only source of groundwater with a residence time of 900 ka in the study area is the GAB” has been deleted, as this is now evident in the previous sentence.

Lines 817-818: mention of residence time has been removed and 900 ka has been replaced with “old groundwater consistent with the GAB”.

Lines 39-40 in the abstract have removed reference to 900 ka and instead mention groundwater that is potentially hundreds of thousands of years old, which is consistent with that of the GAB.

The residence times have also been removed from Figure 7 and replaced with ‘alluvial’ and ‘GAB’.

These are all the instances where we refer to residence times calculated from <sup>36</sup>Cl. They have all been removed and instead the low <sup>36</sup>Cl data from the LNA has been used to compare with the GAB.

### **Specific Comments**

**Lines 50-55. Strictly recharge is infiltration of rainfall, what you are discussing here is mixing between recently recharged waters and older upward flowing groundwater. Since your main story is mixing and the water balance then I would frame the first sentences around that topic.**

The first sentence of the introduction has been changed to focus on mixing rather than recharge. It has been changed to “Groundwater type mixing in an alluvial aquifer can occur between recently recharged groundwater (via infiltration from the land surface) and groundwater discharging into the alluvium from surrounding geological...” (lines 53-55 in the revised manuscript). Additionally, lines 58-59 have been modified to reflect mixing rather than recharge. “Additional uncertainties when allocating recharge to each source include...” has been changed to “Additional uncertainties confounding source attribution include...” (lines 60-61).

**Lines 62-75. Similar comments apply. The Scanlon study is specific to recharge but some of the others deal with mixing in aquifers.**

At line 68 we have included “...discharge from...” when mentioning artesian sources, to make the distinction between recharge and discharge. At line 74 we have changed “...can improve our understanding of recharge processes...” to “...can improve our understanding of groundwater mixing processes...”. At lines 84-85 we have changed “...proportioning sources

of recharge to groundwater resources” to “...proportioning input sources for groundwater that has mixed origins”.

**Lines 79-83. Not very clearly expressed. It would be good to reference Jascheko (2016, Chemical Geology, 427, 35-42) who deals with this in some detail.**

This has been better expressed at lines 90-93 in the revised manuscript. We have deleted the sentence regarding different tracers for a given window of time and included a sentence on the hindrance that calculation assumptions can have on interpretations. (line 90-91). We have cited the above reference at this location. We now mention that “multiple tracers are **useful for covering** the relevant time scales **and uncertainties associated with** the large range of groundwater residence times” (lines 92-93) (new text in bold).

**Lines 89-93. The interpretation of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  is also hampered by uncertainties in the input function. Because rainfall  $R^{36}\text{Cl}$  values vary temporally due to climate variations the input function at any time in the past may not be the same as it is today (e.g., Phillips et al., 2000. In: Cook & Herczeg, Environmental Tracers in Subsurface Hydrology. pp. 299-348).**

This additional difficulty in the interpretation of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  (regarding the input function and changing rainfall) and reference has been added at lines 101-104. However, this is the case for all pre-existing  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  work in the GAB. Whether climatic variations are more important than groundwater flow assumptions, neotectonic movements or even point source contributions from high U/Th concentration rocks, is a matter of conjecture. We provide a dataset and interpretations that can be compared to other work in the area.

**The introduction could be clearer and framed more specifically around understanding mixing between groundwater from different sources in aquifers. As it is you use recharge and discharge alternately to describe the input of the deeper waters in the alluvials. Also it would be good to note that geochemistry allows us to understand long-term patterns of mixing and groundwater flow whereas using hydraulic heads (especially in systems perturbed by land clearing or water abstraction) only informs present day groundwater flow.**

We have changed the introduction to better reflect a focus on mixing rather than recharge (as per the first two comments above). We have carefully gone through the introduction and changed any mention of input of artesian water to ‘discharge’ rather than recharge, so that there is consistency (this includes at lines 68, 73, and 87).

Lines 126-139 (in the revised manuscript) have been changed to reflect the final sentence in the review comment. Line 130 is now a new paragraph (forming the concluding paragraph of the introduction). Lines 126-129 have been added, as per the reviewer’s suggestion, to note that geochemical data can give us insights into long term patterns and trends, whereas hydrologic data (such as hydraulic heads) can give us insights on seasonal pumping impacts, and current local and catchment-scale groundwater flow paths.

**While the choice of references is always personal, there has been more done in this field than is apparent from the introduction. For example, the numerous references by Edmunds (especially the review in Applied Geochemistry, 24, 1058-1073). These are also several Australian examples of the use of major ions, stable isotopes, and radioactive isotopes by CSIRO (Herczeg and co-workers) and the Monash (Cartwright and co-workers) groups.**

We have included Edmunds (2009) in the references in the introduction, when highlighting the importance of geochemistry for other groundwater processes (line 76 in the revised manuscript). References from Herczeg et al. 1991 and Cartwright et al. 2010, 2013 are also included throughout the manuscript (lines 466, 567, 622, 97).

**Lines 109-115. This is a rather convoluted way to say that you use the radioisotopes to determine mixing between waters with long and short residence times. It is obvious that determining residence times in mixed waters is nigh on impossible and I don't think that you need this as your explanation above is clear.**

We have removed lines 109-113. We have left the last sentence to illustrate the global relevance of our study (lines 137-139 in the revised manuscript).

**Line 134 (and elsewhere) ML is a commonly used unit in Australia but less so elsewhere. Suggest using m3 (which is the conventional SI unit).**

We have changed all ML to m3. (lines 169 and 174 and 249-253).

**Section 2 is much more relevant and informative than in the previous version of the paper. Adding the groundwater flow directions to one of the maps and the cross-sections would be good.**

The major direction of groundwater flow actually follows the B-B' cross section line in Figure 2. In the interest of not making the maps too busy, we have mentioned in the caption that the major flow direction is from the SE to the NW following the B-B' line.

**Lines 245-246. Can you give typical screen intervals (it is important as interpretation of geochemistry from short-screened wells is much easier than from those with long screens)?**

We have provided the average length of the screened interval across all samples (average length of 5.6 m) at line 295-296. The specific depth of the start and end of all screen intervals are detailed in the tables in the supplementary.

**Lines 268-275. A bit of a longwinded way of saying that you used existing data to characterise the GAB groundwater.**



We have removed the lines stating our intentions during the sampling campaign (at line 319 in revised manuscript) to shorten this paragraph. We now simply state that we couldn't access any GAB bores so we used past data. We have also cut some words at lines 320 and 336 to condense this section.

**Lines 278-283. This point about the aquifer structure was made earlier. While it might be of local interest, I am not sure that it is worth repeating through the paper (and in many ways it is misplaced as you are stating a conclusion in the methods section). It is a common observation globally that geological formations (which might be determined on ages) do not always form separate aquifers. Your explanation on lines 178-183 explains it well enough.**

We have removed this section (removed at line 340 in revised manuscript) as we have already stated it previously and is misplaced in the methods.

**Lines 290-291. That is precision not accuracy.**

We have changed 'results are accurate to' to 'results have a precision of' at lines 347-348 in the revised manuscript.

**Lines 335-339. You seem to be describing the procedure for getting the CBE correct. If you determined NH<sub>4</sub> and the subsequent CBE was OK, then just make sure that the NH<sub>4</sub> concentrations are in the table and report your final CBEs.**

We thank the reviewer for noting this detail that we have overlooked many times, and we apologise for not finding it and remedying it earlier. We did a qualitative field analysis, which suggested the presence of NH<sub>4</sub>, however we were unable to properly measure it along with the other ions. Therefore, to avoid confusion, we have eliminated its mention and instead reported the outlying charge balances (-7.8 % for sample 25327-1 and -5.8 % for sample 36001-1). This is at line 404 in the revised manuscript.

**Lines 342-348. These details are getting beyond strict methodology and it would be better to discuss the exact compositions of the endmembers when you present the results of the calculations.**

We have deleted these lines at 408 in the new manuscript from the methods. The lines detailing the general Cl concentration of surface water and GAB groundwater have been moved down to lines 689-691 in the new manuscript (in the discussion section). This then flows onto the discussion regarding the Cl mixing in our study.

**Lines 349-359. This section is fine. However, as noted elsewhere these calculations do not add much to the paper and are highly speculative given that mixing has occurred.**

We have modified this section to state that we calculate residence time estimations from <sup>36</sup>Cl to allow a direct comparison, under similar assumptions, with other estimates obtained from

GAB groundwater elsewhere. Even though we don't explicitly put a residence time on the groundwater using the  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  anymore, we still think it is important to show that some of our alluvial samples were in the same calculation range as other GAB groundwater and that the methods we used are the same for residence times calculations for GAB groundwater in the literature (lines 409-441 in the revised manuscript).

**Lines 363-403. This section describing the geochemistry is far better than in the first version of the paper. The only thing that I would suggest adding is the standard deviation to the average concentrations.**

We have included standard deviations to all average concentrations in this section (lines 446-461 in new manuscript).

**Fig. 3a. It is not clear what the calcite saturation line is (explain in caption or text).**

We have added to the caption for Figure 3a: "The orange calcite saturation line indicates samples that are more enriched due to separate evapotranspiration and calcite precipitation".

**Lines 406-414 (and elsewhere). Given the quoted precision your  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values should not have decimal places and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values should only have 1 decimal place.**

Any future use of this research would be compromised by an artificially introduced rounding error. For example, rounding up  $\delta^2\text{H}$  from -10.4 to -10 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from -3.86 to -3.9 would change a d-excess calculation by approximately 1‰. It is common practice to report one decimal figure for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and two decimal figures for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  for the precisions reported. Furthermore, in some instances stable isotope runs have even better precision on individual runs than reported but a general long term precision is reported.

**Lines 410-412. Add a reference for the evaporation trend and perhaps rephrase it as "define a trend to the right of the meteoric water line with a slope of XX that is consistent with evaporation (REF)".**

We have deleted "follow an evaporation line" and replaced it with the reviewer's suggestion (lines 495-496 in the revised manuscript). We have included a reference to show that this is consistent with evaporation (Cendón et al. 2014). This reference shows a water stable isotope plot with a groundwater evaporation line trending to the right of the meteoric water line.

Cendón, D.I. et al. Groundwater residence time in a dissected and weathered sandstone plateau: Kulnura-Mangrove Mountain aquifer, NSW, Australia. *Aus. J. Earth Sci.* **61(3)**, 475-499, 2014.

**Lines 409-410. Are the local sites close? Given that your samples seem to lie on the GMWL, I'm not sure whether the LMWLs are relevant (?)**

Gunnedah is 86 km away from the study site and the Macquarie Marshes are 210 km away. Whilst they are not extremely close, considering the low relief orography in Australia, they are relevant. They are the closest LMWL's for this study site and so we believe they are important to put our data into regional context. Therefore, we have left the mention to them in text (line 493 in revised manuscript).

**Lines 422-433. Here and elsewhere I would specify “<0.04 TU” rather than “detection limit” in the text as it is more specific.**

We have changed “above the det limit” or “below the det limit” to  $> 0.04$  TU and  $< 0.04$  TU at all locations where it was mentioned (including lines 516, 593-594, 602, 608 in the revised manuscript).

However, we were imprecise with our words when we referred to the 0.04 TU threshold as a ‘detection limit’. It is actually a quantification limit, meaning that we can still detect values below 0.04 TU, however there is too much uncertainty to use them confidently. We set the limit at 50 % uncertainty and so if the analysis uncertainty is 50% or higher, then we say it is below the quantification limit. Keeping the values that were below the quantification limit allows us to plot our data against other isotopes like  $^{14}\text{C}$ .

Any mention of ‘detection’ has been changed in text as per reviewer’s suggestion above, or has been changed to ‘quantification’ (in Figures 5 and 6).

**Lines 423-425. The statement that you have modern recharge is an interpretation. Try to rephrase it so you explain to the reader why you said this (eg “The highest  $^3\text{H}$  activities of XX are near the river... these are similar to those of modern rainfall(?)... this implies...”). On that point I presume that you can infer a modern rainfall  $^3\text{H}$  activity from the Tadros (2014) compilation and that would be worth doing.**

We have deleted this sentence as it was and changed it to: “The highest  $^3\text{H}$  activities of 2.31 TU and 2.36 TU are from a sample 40 m from the river and from the Namoi River itself, respectively. These are very similar to modern rainfall in Australia (2-3 TU (Tadros et al. 2014)), which suggests modern recharge near the river channels” (lines 511-515). Tadros et al. 2014 has been added to the reference list as well.

**Lines 426-429. This is true but the explanation is a little brief for anyone not familiar with southern hemisphere  $^3\text{H}$ . A couple more sentences would be helpful.**

We have added a qualifier saying “...the peak of the bomb pulse in Australia was only 60 TU, compared to locations in the northern hemisphere. This is primarily because most thermonuclear testing was undertaken in the northern hemisphere far from Australia and mixing is limited between the atmospheric convection cells in the northern and southern hemispheres. Therefore,  $^3\text{H}$  in Australian rainfall has been at background....” (new text in bold; lines 517-521 in revised manuscript). This places the  $^3\text{H}$  Australian concentrations into context for international readers.

**Fig. 5. Suggest plotting the samples that are below detection on the left hand axis as the 3H values have no actual meaning. The same is true in your tables (ie designate these as “<0.04” or “bd” rather than quoting actual values).**

Please see our response above regarding quantification limits. The legend in figures 5 and 6 has been changed to state ‘quantification limit’ rather than ‘detection’.

**Lines 492 to 497. This section is not very clearly expressed. You could add a few more details (eg where in the region these observations come from and whether the data are from the same wells). Also you should stress that both observations (the high initial 3H and the subsequent increase in 3H) imply recharge from the surface.**

This has been rewritten to better express what we are trying to say (lines 596-602 in the revised manuscript). We have changed the beginning to “Tritium data from the 1970’s collected from bores that were included in our sampling campaign (25329 and 25332) (Calf 1978) suggest...” We have also emphasised that both observations imply recharge from the surface and noted this at lines 600-602.

**Line 492. Where does the estimate of <70 years come from?**

This estimate at lines 595-596 comes from the half-life of 3H. We are saying that if we can measure  $3H > 0.04$  TU at depth (207 m bgs), then 3H has not undergone decay longer than 70 years at this stage. Hence, if we can detect 3H at depth it must have been recharged in a timeframe of  $< 70$  years.

**Lines 503 to 505. Does this interpretation agree with the major ion geochemistry? For example if your deeper water is  $^{14}C$ -free and the surface water has a  $^{14}C$  activity close to 100 pMC, then given the relative  $HCO_3$  concentrations how much old water do you need to add to reduce the  $^{14}C$  down to the observed values? What then would the predicted 3H activities of the mixed water be? The interpretation is plausible but it would be good to see it confirmed.**

We thank the reviewer for these comments and ideas. This suggestion is looking for complementary mixing indicators, which would reinforce the concept already illustrated by the Cl mixing calculations and with the  $^{36}Cl$  vs  $^{14}C$  plot, and even the  $^{36}Cl/Cl$  vs Na plot that is included in the supplementary. We feel that the requested additional calculations are beyond the scope of the manuscript and do not provide critical insights. The reviewer’s suggestions could form the basis of material for a new paper.

**Fig. 6. I found the reversed axis for  $^{14}C$  confusing (is there any reason why 0 is not at the left especially since 3H is plotted conventionally). Also due to the waters containing different DIC concentrations, mixing lines are curved (if you know the relative DIC**

**concentrations, you should be able to predict whether the curvature is concave or convex).**

Yes, we reversed the 14C axis to intuitively place samples with proximity to surface on the top left-hand corner. However, it was easy enough to reverse and we have done so to facilitate interpretation. The new Figure 6 contains the reversed 14C axis following reviewer advice. The blue dotted mixing line in Figure 6 was not a calculated mixing line, but rather simply a visual aid for readers, to highlight that there is this mixing between groundwaters. This is why the line isn't curved.

**Lines 531-562. As outlined above, I think that estimating residence times using 36Cl in waters that have undergone mixing is not very convincing. It is clear from the available literature that the GAB waters have residence times of several hundred thousand years and this study does not add to that understanding. I strongly suggest that this section is reframed to discuss the mixing with a statement referenced to previous works that the low 36Cl in GAB groundwater is a consequence of the (already established) long residence times.**

As detailed above, all mention of residence times calculated directly from our 36Cl values have been removed. Instead we now frame the discussion as mixing between very young groundwater and groundwater that is potentially hundreds of thousands of years old, which has 36Cl values consistent with those from the GAB (Bentley et al. 1986; Radke et al. 2000; Love et al. 2000; Mahara et al. 2009; Moya et al. 2016).

**Lines 546-547. The Cl/Br ratios are a better indication of the lack of halite dissolution than the Cl concentrations.**

Yes, we agree and this can be readily observed in Figure 3c, which also indicates expected Cl/Br ratios trends following dissolution of evaporites.

**Lines 593-597. As in the introduction, it is worth stressing here that the geochemistry provides an indication of the long-term groundwater flow and mixing whereas hydraulics in perturbed systems show how the system is currently functioning.**

Reference to the long-term insights from the geochemical data, contrasted to the current system functioning using hydraulic heads has been mentioned again at lines 727-729.

**Section 5.3. This section appears almost as an afterthought (it has its own introduction, data description, and interpretations) and is speculative. While the data is interesting they are not that well integrated with the main part of the paper. I suggest shortening the material and noting that the 14C contents in some of the groundwater has changed over time implying a dynamic system without trying to over interpret it. As it is, the data seems to have been collected without a specific hypothesis in mind (eg collecting**

**from an area before and after groundwater extraction was established) and so are not that easy to interpret with any confidence.**

We have shortened this section, including removing the detailed speculation of why each bore that had a different  $^{14}\text{C}$  activity may be experiencing different rates of GAB inflow. We have changed this section now to better reflect that it is important that temporal changes in the extent of groundwater mixing are considered to make judgements about how the system may change into the future or with increased groundwater abstraction. We maintain that the  $^{14}\text{C}$  data from our study and the past data may offer some preliminary insights into how the extent of mixing has changed, with a higher pmc now reflecting increased modern infiltration. However, the over interpretation in this section has been removed, as per the reviewer's suggestion. All specific changes between lines 746 and 784 are shown in the track changed document.

**Conclusions. These are a summary of the paper. Given HESS is an international journal, it would be good to emphasise what is of broader interest. Some of that material (changes over time, general utility of tracers) appears in Section 5 but probably would be better here to round off the study.**

We have removed a portion of the conclusion that was focused on the detailed findings of section 5.3 (and very site specific oriented as well), as the weight put on that section has now been greatly reduced. At lines 813-815 we include why our findings are important globally and lines 844-847 already has a concluding sentence that presents our findings with a broader interest. Since one of the major findings of this manuscript was the difference between water balance modelling estimates of GAB contribution and our findings using geochemistry, it is necessary to reference local sites in the conclusion. However, we have attempted to convey through the conclusion and the final paragraphs of the introduction too that water balance models, globally, must consider geochemistry because of the discrepancies that we find in our study and the ramifications for the sustainable use of groundwater.

**A multi-tracer approach to constraining artesian groundwater discharge into an  
alluvial aquifer**

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25 Understanding pathways of recharge to alluvial aquifers is important for maintaining  
26 sustainable access to groundwater resources. Water balance modelling is often used to  
27 proportion recharge components and guide sustainable groundwater allocations.  
28 However, it is not common practice to use hydrochemical evidence to inform and  
29 constrain these models. Here we compare geochemical versus water balance model  
30 estimates of artesian discharge into an alluvial aquifer, and demonstrate why multi-  
31 tracer geochemical analyses should be used as a critical component of water budget  
32 assessments. We selected a site in Australia where the Great Artesian Basin (GAB), the  
33 largest artesian basin in the world, discharges into the Lower Namoi Alluvium (LNA),  
34 an extensively modelled aquifer, to convey the utility of our approach. Water stable  
35 isotopes ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ) and the concentrations of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  suggest a continuum  
36 of mixing in the alluvial aquifer between the GAB (artesian component) and surface  
37 recharge, whilst isotopic tracers ( $^3\text{H}$ ,  $^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ ) indicate that the alluvial  
38 groundwater is a mixture of groundwaters with residence times of < 70 years and  
39 groundwater that is potentially hundreds of thousands of years old, which is consistent  
40 with that of the GAB. In addition,  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations provide a means to calculate a  
41 percentage estimate of the artesian contribution to the alluvial groundwater. In some  
42 locations, an artesian contribution of up to 70% is evident from the geochemical  
43 analyses, a finding that contrasts previous regional scale water balance modelling  
44 estimates that attributed 22% of all inflow for the corresponding zone within the LNA  
45 to GAB discharge. Our results show that hydrochemical investigations need to be  
46 undertaken as part of developing the conceptual framework of a catchment water  
47 balance model, as they can improve our understanding of recharge pathways and better  
48 constrain artesian discharge to an alluvial aquifer.

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## 52 1 Introduction

53 Groundwater type mixing in an alluvial aquifer can occur between recently recharged  
54 groundwater (via infiltration from the land surface) and groundwater discharging into the  
55 alluvium from surrounding geological formations and artesian groundwater resources  
56 (Costelloe et al. 2012; Schilling et al. 2016; Rawling & Newton 2016; Salameh et al. 2017).  
57 Insufficient spatial and temporal data resolution, as well as heterogeneity in hydrogeological  
58 properties can result in considerable uncertainty when proportioning contributions from  
59 various sources in groundwater with mixed origins (Anderson & Woessner 1992; Beven  
60 2009; Gardner et al. 2012). Additional uncertainties confounding source attribution include  
61 change in the magnitude of groundwater gradients and directions over time due to ongoing  
62 groundwater abstraction (for irrigation, stock and domestic water supplies), and the impact  
63 that this and flood frequency may have on the extent of artesian discharge and groundwater  
64 mixing. These complexities make it challenging to accurately proportion contributions from  
65 various sources to an alluvial aquifer and to guide water allocations.

66 Water balance modelling of alluvial aquifers is commonly used to quantify and  
67 proportion recharge inputs from river leakage, floodwaters, areal (diffuse recharge) and  
68 discharge from artesian sources (Anderson & Woessner 1992; Middlemis et al. 2000; Zhang  
69 et al. 2002; Dawes et al. 2004; Barnett et al. 2012; Giambastiani et al. 2012; Hocking & Kelly  
70 2016). Historically, hydrochemical analyses are not often used to constrain catchment scale  
71 water balance modelling (Reilly and Harbaugh 2004; Barnett et al. 2012), despite Scanlon et  
72 al. (2004) highlighting the need to use multiple techniques (including hydrochemical  
73 insights) to increase the reliability of recharge and discharge estimates. Geochemical data can  
74 improve our understanding of groundwater mixing processes because of the potential to trace  
75 pathways of groundwater movement and water-rock interactions, whilst also providing  
76 insights on the impacts of past groundwater extractions (Edmunds 2009; Martinez et al.

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83 2017). Therefore, the integration of geochemical evidence to constrain aquifer water balance  
84 models provides a more rigorous approach for proportioning input sources for groundwater  
85 that has mixed origins (Raiber et al. 2015; Currell et al. 2017).

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86 Radioactive isotopic tracers that provide insights into groundwater residence times can  
87 constrain mechanisms of recharge and discharge, and detect groundwater mixing. Isotopes of  
88 dissolved species can be useful for elucidating groundwater mixing provided the different  
89 sources of groundwater have distinctly different and consistent isotopic signatures. However,  
90 each tracer has a different half-life and both physical and chemical processes and calculation  
91 assumptions can affect the interpretation of groundwater residence times (Jasechko 2016).

92 Therefore, multiple tracers are useful for covering the relevant time scales and uncertainties  
93 associated with the large range of groundwater residence times. Tritium ( $^3\text{H}$ ) is an excellent

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94 indicator of modern recharge inputs in shallow groundwater (Robertson et al. 1989; Chen et  
95 al. 2006; Duvert et al. 2016), and provides valuable information on processes active in the  
96 past ~ 70 years. Carbon-14 ( $^{14}\text{C}$ ) is used to understand processes active from modern to ~ 30  
97 ka (Clark & Fritz 1997; Cartwright et al. 2010; Cendón et al. 2014) and chlorine-36 ( $^{36}\text{Cl}$ ),  
98 whilst applicable in modern groundwater (Tosaki et al. 2007), is usually reserved for the  
99 identification of much older groundwater (100 ka to 1 Ma). One of the challenges of using  
100  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  is that, in certain cases, nucleogenic production of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  can be significant and/or varying  
101 Cl concentrations can complicate groundwater residence time interpretations. Additionally,  
102 the interpretation of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  can be affected by the input function, as  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  values from rainfall  
103 vary temporally. This means that the input function for rainfall from any time in the past may  
104 be different from current conditions (Phillips 2000). However, in regions with low and fairly  
105 consistent Cl concentrations (such as in our study area),  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  values can provide solid  
106 indications of old groundwater residence times (Mahara et al. 2007).

118 These isotopes can also be used for tracer mixing calculations independent of residence  
119 time estimations (Bentley et al. 1986; Andrews & Fontes 1993; Love et al. 2000; Moya et al.  
120 2016). Therefore, the combination of  $^3\text{H}$ ,  $^{14}\text{C}$ , and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  dating techniques can provide  
121 hydrochemical process insights that cannot be captured by using only one isotope.

122 Identification of recharge and discharge pathways (particularly from underlying  
123 artesian contributions), and proportioning their relative contributions in a groundwater  
124 sample can be better constrained by combining traditional geochemical data with multiple  
125 dating techniques and other hydrologic analyses (Amiri et al. 2016; Rawling & Newton 2016;  
126 Schilling et al. 2016). This is because groundwater geochemical data give insights into long-  
127 term patterns of mixing and groundwater flow, whereas other hydrologic data (such as  
128 hydraulic head differences) provide insights on seasonal pumping impacts, and current local  
129 and catchment-scale groundwater flow paths.

130 Here, we present for the first time a multi-tracer approach to constraining artesian  
131 discharge from the Great Artesian Basin (GAB) into the Lower Namoi Alluvium (LNA),  
132 north-west New South Wales (NSW), Australia (Figure 1). We use water stable isotopes and  
133 major ion data to assess the major recharge and discharge pathways and occurrences of  
134 groundwater mixing in the LNA. We also use  $^3\text{H}$ ,  $^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  to show that artesian discharge  
135 from the underlying GAB to the LNA is locally much higher than is currently estimated from  
136 water balance models used to guide groundwater allocations in the region (Lower Namoi  
137 Groundwater 2008). Our results highlight the need to consider a multi-tracer geochemical  
138 approach when assessing artesian contributions to alluvial aquifers and constraining water  
139 balance models of alluvial systems globally.

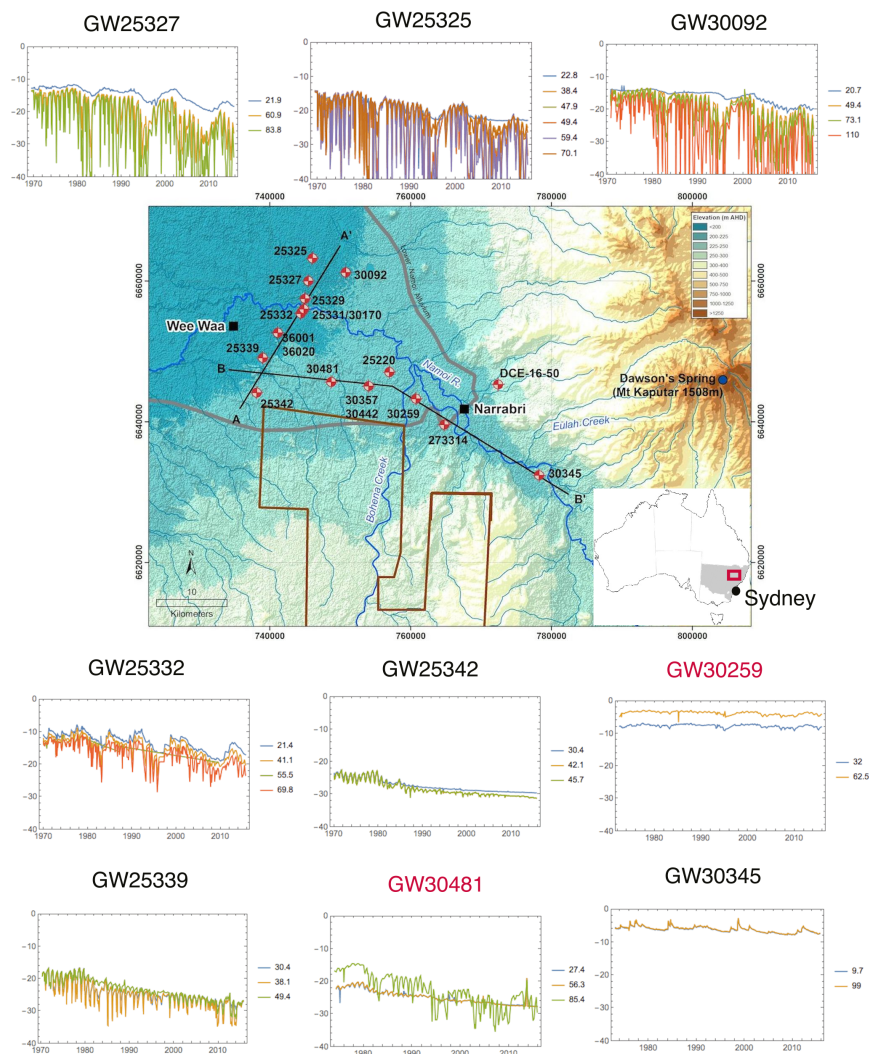
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**Deleted:** In this study we are not attempting to determine groundwater ages for all sampling locations, as it is very difficult to obtain meaningful ages for samples where significant mixing of old and recent groundwater has occurred. However, we do present "age" constraints for both modern and old end-members as a basis for delineating the relative ages of these end-members.



151  
 152 **Figure 1.** Map of the study area and sample locations, along with the location of the study area in  
 153 Australia. Accompanying hydrographs show the groundwater level response in different piezometers  
 154 throughout the study area (groundwater level data sourced from BOM 2017). The different colours in  
 155 the hydrographs represent the different monitoring bores in the nested set. The bottom of the slotted

interval for each bore is shown in the key. The x-axis in each hydrograph is the year (1970-2010) and the y-axis is depth (between 0 and 40 m below ground surface (bgs)). The two locations with red text highlight areas where the hydrograph heads show clear GAB contribution, with the deeper piezometer showing a higher head than the shallow one. The remaining locations show no apparent GAB contribution to the LNA based on the hydrograph data.

161

## 162 2 Study Area

163 The lower Namoi River catchment is located in the north-west of NSW, Australia (Figure 1).  
164 Groundwater resources in the LNA are the most intensively developed in NSW (DPI Water  
165 2017). For this reason, there is concern regarding groundwater exploitation and threat to the  
166 long-term sustainability of the system (Lower Namoi Groundwater 2008; DPI Water 2017).  
167 Groundwater abstraction from the LNA supports a multibillion-dollar agricultural sector  
168 (focused around cotton growing established in the 1960s), supplying around 50% of water for  
169 irrigation in the region (Powell et al. 2011). Peak extraction of approximately  $170 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$   
170 occurred over the 1994/1995 growing season (Smithson 2009). Consistently declining  
171 groundwater levels and concern regarding the long-term sustainability of groundwater  
172 abstraction led to the implementation of a Water Sharing Plan in 2006, which systematically  
173 reduced groundwater allocations to the irrigation sector over a ten-year period. The present  
174 allocation is  $86 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3/\text{year}$  (Lower Namoi Groundwater 2008).

175

### 176 2.1 Hydrogeological setting

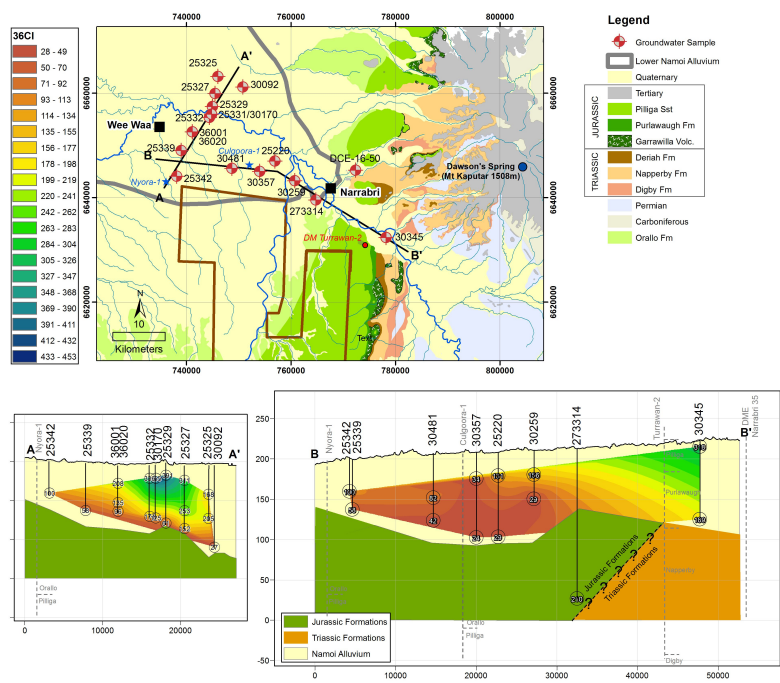
177 The lower Namoi River catchment lies within the Murray-Darling Basin, overlying the  
178 Coonamble Embayment, which is in the south-east portion of the GAB (Radke et al. 2000).  
179 The southernmost portion of the LNA is underlain by Triassic formations, while northwest of  
180 monitoring bore 30345 the LNA is underlain by Jurassic formations (Figure 2). Within the  
181 region of study, the oldest outcropping bedrock formation is the early Triassic Digby

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185 Formation (lithic and quartz conglomerates, sandstones and minor finer grained sediments)  
186 (Tadros 1993). The Digby Formation outcrops in the south-east of the area and the Namoi  
187 River abuts the formation just south of B' on Figure 2. The Digby Formation is overlain by  
188 the Triassic Napperby Formation (thinly bedded claystone, siltstones and sandstone). This  
189 formation occurs at a depth of 106 m, just below the base of monitoring bore 30345 (NSW  
190 Pinneena Groundwater Database, driller logs). In outcrops to the east of the study area, the  
191 Napperby Formation is overlain by the late Triassic Deriah Formation (green lithic sandstone  
192 rich in volcanic fragments and mud clasts) (Tadros 1993). The boundary between the Triassic  
193 and Jurassic lies west of monitoring bore 30345. The Jurassic formations important to this  
194 study are the Purlawaugh Formation (carbonaceous claystone, siltstone, sandstone and  
195 subordinate coal), Pilliga Sandstone (medium to coarse quartzose sandstone) and the Orallo  
196 Formation (clayey to quartzose sandstone, subordinate siltstone and conglomerate) (Tadros  
197 1993). The Pilliga Sandstone forms the bedrock below monitoring bores 25325 to 25342, and  
198 in the Namoi region is the primary aquifer of the GAB.



200

201 **Figure 2. A geological map of the study area and two cross sections through the study area, showing**  
202 **the location and depth of the samples in the alluvium and their proximity to formations of the GAB.**  
203 **Contacts obtained from gas wells Nyora-1, Culgoora-1 and Turrawan-2, coinciding with our cross**  
204 **sections, are added. Their locations are displayed on the map. The general direction of groundwater**  
205 **flow is from SE to NW, aligning with the B-B' line on the map.** The chlorine-36 data interpolated  
206 using the ‘natural neighbours’ algorithm is shown in each cross section.

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208 From the late Cretaceous to the mid Miocene, a palaeovalley was carved through the  
209 basement rocks (Kelly et al. 2014). Then from the mid Miocene until present, the palaeovalley  
210 was filled with reworked alluvial sediments. Groundwater abstraction in the study area is  
211 mostly from these alluvial sediments. Fluvial and aeolian interbedded clays, silts, sands and

213 gravels form the up to ~ 140 m thick alluvial sequence of the Lower Namoi Catchment  
214 (Williams et al. 1989). Traditionally, three main non-formally defined aquifers/formations have  
215 been used to describe the LNA. The semi-confined Cubbaroo Formation overlies the bedrock in  
216 the northern palaeochannel (which passes beneath monitoring bores 25325 and 30092). This  
217 formation is up to 60 m thick. The Cubbaroo Formation is overlain by the semi-confined  
218 Gunnedah Formation, which is up to 80 m thick, and is conformably overlain by the unconfined  
219 Narrabri Formation, which is 10 to 40 m thick (Williams et al. 1989). However, recent studies  
220 in the Namoi Catchment suggest that the rigid subdivision in to the Narrabri, Gunnedah, and  
221 Cubbaroo formations cannot easily explain the continuum in chemical evolution observed  
222 (discussed further below) and that the valley filling sequence is better characterised as a  
223 distributive fluvial system (Kelly et al. 2014, Acworth et al. 2015).

224 Groundwater drains from the Upper Namoi into the LNA via a bedrock constriction north  
225 of Narrabri and generally flows from east to west within the LNA (Barrett 2012). Hydraulic  
226 conductivity in the alluvial aquifer is highly variable (0.008-31 m/day) due to the presence of  
227 variable sand and clay (Golder Associates 2010). However, hydraulic conductivity generally  
228 increases with depth.

229

## 230 **2.2 Current understanding of recharge and discharge processes in the Lower Namoi**

### 231 **Alluvium**

232 There have been numerous catchment water balance models and hydrochemical  
233 investigations in the study area because of the local and national economic importance of the  
234 LNA. However, the hydrochemistry of the groundwater in the region has not been used in  
235 conjunction with water balance modelling prior to this study (Merrick 2000; CSIRO 2007;  
236 Kelly et al. 2007).

237



238 2.2.1 *Water balance modelling of recharge*

239 To guide groundwater allocations from the LNA, a series of water budget models were  
240 developed using MODFLOW (Merrick 2000; summarised in Kelly et al. 2007). These  
241 models were driven by climatic, rainfall, flood and streamflow data and calibrated to  
242 groundwater head data. There are multiple plausible solutions for all water balance models  
243 and the solution presented is often constrained by several factors. These constraining factors  
244 include geological insights; the modeller's experience and biases (such as, for example, the  
245 way diffuse recharge is modelled either as a percentage of rainfall (Merrick 2000; CSIRO  
246 2007) or as a complex evapotranspiration function (Giambastiani et al. 2012)); verification  
247 measures and pragmatic goals. One MODFLOW derived water balance model proportioned  
248 the recharge for the water budget period 1980-1994 as following: flood and diffuse rain  
249 recharge  $24.1 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3/\text{year}$ , stream recharge  $33.7 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3/\text{year}$ , up gradient alluvial inflow  
250  $3.06 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3/\text{year}$ , and artesian (GAB) recharge  $9.5 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3/\text{year}$ . In that model, artesian  
251 recharge was inferred to occur in the eastern portion of the model (between Narrabri and Wee  
252 Waa), which overlaps with this study area (Figure 1). The zone between Narrabri and Wee  
253 Waa accounted for  $42.7 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3/\text{year}$  of the total recharge to the LNA. Thus, according to  
254 the model, GAB discharge into the LNA in this area equated to 22%. When the LNA  
255 MODFLOW model was calibrated there was no consideration given to using hydrochemical  
256 data to constrain the calibration (Merrick 2000; CSIRO 2007; Kelly et al. 2007).

257

258 2.2.2 *Hydrochemical estimates of recharge*

259 The first isotopic investigation in the area was conducted from 1968 to 1975 and partially  
260 published by Calf (1978). The author used  $^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^3\text{H}$  to assess recharge pathways to the  
261 LNA and found evidence for river recharge in the upper aquifer, and that modern  
262 groundwater penetrated the deeper parts of the LNA. Calf (1978) also found evidence for

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273 'leakage' of groundwater from the GAB up into the deeper LNA, however volumetric  
274 estimates were not provided.

275 McLean (2003) conducted an extensive hydrochemical and isotopic characterisation of  
276 both the GAB groundwater and the alluvial groundwater in 1999-2000. This research  
277 concluded that mixing of groundwater from the GAB into the lower and middle parts of the  
278 LNA is an important process especially in the south of the catchment. This study also did not  
279 quantify the amount of mixing occurring between the two groundwater sources.

280 The over-reliance of water balance models used to allocate groundwater resources that  
281 have not been constrained by isotopic tracer residence times or hydrochemical results is a  
282 common issue globally. This research highlights that hydrochemical investigations improve  
283 our conceptual understanding of recharge pathways and that such investigations should be  
284 applied to all important groundwater resource assessments to enable sustainable management.

285

### 286 **3 Materials and methods**

#### 287 **3.1 Groundwater collection**

288 This study comprised two field campaigns, the first one from 28 January 2016 to 8 February  
289 2016 (summer) when the aquifer was stressed by pumping for irrigation, and the second from  
290 21 June 2016 to 30 June 2016 (winter) in the absence of abstraction for irrigation.

291 In summer, 28 groundwater samples were collected from NSW Department of Primary  
292 Industries Water (DPI Water) monitoring bores and a surface water sample from the Namoi  
293 River. In winter, 16 groundwater samples were collected from NSW DPI Water monitoring  
294 bores and surface water samples from the Namoi River and 2 upstream tributaries (see  
295 Supplementary Table 2 for locations). The bores are screened at varying intervals (average  
296 length of screened interval: 5.6 m (see Supplementary Table 2 for individual bores)),  
297 intersecting the shallow, middle and deep alluvium. Most bores were sampled with either a

298 Grundfos (MP1 sampling pump) or Bennett compress air piston pump, with the pump placed ~  
 299 1 m above the screen when using the Grundfos pump. Drop-tube extensions were used with the  
 300 Bennett pump to place the pump intake just above the screen. Some deep monitoring bores  
 301 were sampled with a portable bladder pump using low-flow methods (Puls & Barcelona, 1996).  
 302 In these bores the pump was placed approximately 10 m below standing water level, with a  
 303 drop-tube cut to place the pump intake within the screen. For shallower bores (less than 50 m),  
 304 a 12 V battery operated pump was used with the pump intake placed ~1 m above the screen.  
 305 For all sample sites, physico-chemical parameters (pH, DO, EC) were monitored and samples  
 306 collected once three well volumes had been pumped and/or the physico-chemical parameters  
 307 stabilised. This was generally achieved within 1 to 3 hours after onset of pumping. Sample  
 308 collection involved an in-line, 0.45 µm, high-volume filter connected to a high-density  
 309 polyethylene (HDPE) tube. Total alkalinity concentrations (field alkalinity) were determined in  
 310 the field by acid titration using a HACH digital titrator and external pH meter control. The Fe<sup>2+</sup>  
 311 and HS<sup>-</sup> concentrations were determined using a portable colorimeter (HACH DR/890).

312 Samples for anion and water stable isotope (δ<sup>2</sup>H and δ<sup>18</sup>O) analyses were collected in 60  
 313 mL and 30 mL HDPE bottles, respectively, with no further treatment. Samples for cation  
 314 analysis were collected in 60 mL HDPE bottles and acidified with ultrapure nitric acid.  
 315 Samples for <sup>14</sup>C and <sup>3</sup>H were collected in 1 L narrow mouth HDPE bottles and 2 L HDPE  
 316 bottles respectively, and were sealed with tape to avoid potential atmospheric exchange during  
 317 storage. Samples for <sup>36</sup>Cl were collected in 1 L narrow mouth HDPE bottles with no further  
 318 treatment. Major ion and <sup>14</sup>C samples were refrigerated at 4°C until analysed.

319 We were not able to access any previously sampled GAB bores within the study area.  
 320 Thus, better constrain GAB groundwater characteristics, we used geochemical data from  
 321 known GAB bores collected by Radke et al. (2000) and McLean (2003). These data were  
 322 collected to the northwest of our study area and are used as a range (depending on availability

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Deleted: For both sampling campaigns, we aimed to collect samples representative of the river, the alluvium and the GAB, however we were not able to access any previously characterised GAB bores within the study area, with the only bore screened within the Pilliga Sandstone (273314) (Figure 2).

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336 of the original reported data) for the GAB end-member in ~~our~~ discussions (Supplementary  
337 Table 1).

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338 To help in the description of results, we use shallow (< 30 m), intermediate (30 – 80 m)  
339 and deep (> 80 m) as a rough guide to the origin of the groundwater sample. The chosen depth  
340 categories are based on clusters and trends in the  $^{14}\text{C}$  analyses.

Deleted: Groundwater samples from similar contemporaneous alluvial-filled valleys in other eastern Australian river valleys show a continuum of geochemical evolution that cannot be explained by separating samples into arbitrary aquifers (such as the aforementioned Narrabri, Gunnedah and Cubbaroo Formations). In such settings, proximity to modern channels and depth are the primary controls on residence time (Cendón et al. 2010; Iverach et al. 2015).

### 342 3.2 Geochemical analyses

343 Groundwater samples from both campaigns were analysed at ANSTO by inductively coupled  
344 plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) for cations and ion chromatography (IC) for  
345 anions. Samples for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  were analysed using Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy  
346 (CRDS) on a Picarro L2130-*i* analyser. These values are reported as ‰ deviations from the  
347 international standard V-SMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water) and results ~~have a~~  
348 ~~precision of~~  $\pm 1\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\pm 0.15\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ .

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349 The  $^{14}\text{C}$  samples were processed and analysed at ANSTO using methods described in  
350 Cendón et al. (2014). The  $^{14}\text{C}$  activities were measured by accelerator mass spectrometry  
351 (AMS) using the ANSTO 2MV tandetron accelerator, STAR (Fink et al. 2004). The  $^{14}\text{C}$  results  
352 were reported as percent modern carbon (pmc) following groundwater  $^{14}\text{C}$  reporting criteria  
353 (Mook & van der Plicht 1999; Plummer & Glynn 2013) with an average  $1\sigma$  error of 0.21 pmc.

354 The  $^3\text{H}$  samples were analysed at ANSTO. Water samples were distilled and  
355 electrolytically enriched prior to analysis by liquid scintillation. The  $^3\text{H}$  concentrations were  
356 expressed in tritium units (TU) with a combined standard uncertainty of  $\pm 0.03$  TU and  
357 quantification limit of 0.04 TU. Tritium was measured by counting beta decay in a liquid  
358 scintillation counter (LSC). A 10 mL sample aliquot was mixed with the scintillation cocktail  
359 that releases a photon when struck by a beta particle. Photomultiplier tubes in the counter  
360 convert the photons to electrical pulses that are counted over 51 cycles for 20 minutes.

372 The  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}/^{37}\text{Cl}$  ratios were measured by AMS using the ANSTO 6MV SIRIUS  
373 Tandem Accelerator (Wilcken et al. 2017). Samples were processed in batches of 10, with  
374 each batch containing 1 chemistry blank. The amount of sample used was selected to yield ~  
375 5 mg of Cl for analysis without carrier addition. Chloride was recovered from the sample  
376 solutions by precipitation of AgCl from hot solution (Stone et al. 1996). This AgCl was re-  
377 dissolved in aqueous  $\text{NH}_3$  (20-22 wt %, IQ grade, Seastar) to remove sulfur compounds of Ag.  
378 Owing to isobaric interference of  $^{36}\text{S}$  with  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  in the AMS measurements, a saturated  
379  $\text{Ba}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  solution (99.999% trace metal basis) was used to precipitate sulfur as  $\text{BaSO}_4$ . At  
380 least 72 h were allowed for  $\text{BaSO}_4$  to settle from a cold solution (4°C) in the dark before  
381 removal of the supernatant by pipetting and filtration (0.22 Millex GS). Pure AgCl was re-  
382 precipitated by acidifying the  $\text{Ag}(\text{NH}_3)_2\text{-Cl}$  solution with 5M nitric acid (IQ Seastar, sub-  
383 boiled). Finally, AgCl was recovered, washed twice and dried. It was then pressed into high-  
384 purity AgBr (99% trace metal basis, Aldrich) in 6 mm diameter Cu-target holders. AgBr has a  
385 much lower sulfur content than Cu. The stable Cl isotopes  $^{35}\text{Cl}$  and  $^{37}\text{Cl}$  were measured with  
386 Faraday cups and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  events were counted with a multi-anode gas ionisation chamber. Gas  
387 (Ar) stripping (for good brightness/low ion straggling) the ions to 5+ charge state in the  
388 accelerator terminal suffices for effective  $^{36}\text{S}$  interference separation in the ionisation chamber  
389 combined with sample-efficient and rapid analysis. Purdue PRIMELab Z93-0005 (nominally  
390  $1.20 \times 10^{-12}$   $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$ ) was used for normalisation with a secondary standard (nominally  $5.0 \times 10^{-13}$   
391  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  (Sharma et al. 1990)) used for monitoring. Background subtraction was done with a  
392 linear dependence between  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ -rate and interfering  $^{36}\text{S}$ -rate. This dependency is established by  
393 combining all the blank and test sample measurements and applied to the unknown samples  
394 during offline data analysis. This correction factor was typically less than analytical uncertainty  
395 of 3-4% bar one sample that had a correction factor of 12% with an analytical uncertainty of  
396 6%.

398 **3.3 Geochemical calculations**

399 Calculations necessary to assess electrical neutrality, dissolved element speciation and  
 400 saturation indices for common mineral phases were undertaken using the PHREEQC  
 401 Interactive program (3.3.8) (Parkhurst & Appelo 1999) and the incorporated WATEQ4F  
 402 thermodynamic database (Ball & Nordstrom 1991). The cation and anion analyses were  
 403 assessed for accuracy by evaluating the charge balance error percentage (CBE%). All samples  
 404 fell within the acceptable  $\pm 5\%$  range, except for samples 25327-1 (-7.8 %) and 36001-1 (-5.8  
 405 %). The inverse geochemical modelling code NEPATH XL (Plummer et al. 1994; Parkhurst &  
 406 Charlton 2008) has been used to calculate the mixing ratio between two end-members, using  
 407 their Cl concentrations. The choice of end-members will influence calculated proportions,  
 408 however, end-members were selected to provide conservative approximations.

409 Despite limitations,  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  residence times for selected low  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  samples were  
 410 calculated from the equations of Bentley et al. (1986). This allows a direct comparison, under  
 411 similar assumptions, with other estimates obtained from GAB groundwater elsewhere  
 412 (Bentley et al. 1986; Radke et al. 2000; Love et al. 2000; Moya et al. 2016) and within the  
 413 Coonamble Embayment (Radke et al. 2000; Mahara et al. 2007). These calculations assume a  
 414 piston flow setting with no other sources or sinks besides recharge and natural decay (eqn. 1):

$$415 \quad t = \frac{-1}{\lambda_{36}} \ln \frac{R - R_{se}}{R_0 - R_{se}} \quad (1)$$

416 where  $R = ^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio measured in the sample,  $R_0 =$  the initial  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio (meteoric  
 417 water),  $R_{se} =$  the  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio under secular equilibrium (in this case the  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio from the  
 418 Pilliga Sandstone), and  $\lambda_{36}$  is the decay constant ( $2.303 \times 10^{-6}$ ). We used a  $R_0$  value of 160  
 419 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ), which was an average of 10 samples compiled from studies in the Coonamble  
 420 Embayment and reported in Radke et al. (2000). For  $R_{se}$  a value of  $5.7 (\times 10^{-15})$  was used,  
 421 which is appropriate for aquifers dominated by sandstone (this secular equilibrium value can

**Deleted:** , which both contained high  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentration that was not part of the initial ion analyses. This elevated  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentration skewed the CBE% so that they were initially outside the acceptable  $\pm 5\%$  range.

**Moved down [1]:** In general, Cl concentrations in surface water and shallow groundwater in the study area are low ( $< 30 \text{ mg/L}$ ), while samples recovered from the Pilliga Sandstone (GAB) have higher concentrations ( $\sim 60 \text{ mg/L}$ ). We mix a representative shallow, modern groundwater (30170-1) with an average GAB composition obtained from regional groundwater samples (McLean 2003). These two initial end-members are mixed in different proportions so that Cl concentrations in a selected final bore can be explained via inverse modelling calculations.

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439 vary according to the dominant lithology). This  $R_{se}$  value has been applied to  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$   
440 calculations elsewhere in the GAB (Moya et al. 2016) and is similar to that calculated from  
441 drill-core samples recovered in the GAB by Mahara et al. (2009).  
442

## 443 **4 Results**

### 444 **4.1 Major ion chemistry**

445 The groundwater of the alluvial aquifer is predominantly  $\text{Na-HCO}_3$ -type water, with  
446 concentrations ranging from 0.12 mmol/L to 54.6 mmol/L (average: 6.85 mmol/L; std dev:  
447 8.7 mmol/L) for  $\text{Na}^+$  and 0.29 mmol/L to 24.0 mmol/L (average: 6.43 mmol/L; std dev: 4.8  
448 mmol/L) for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (Supplementary Table 2). Generally, the highest concentrations of  $\text{Na}^+$   
449 and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  occur in the deeper groundwater and decrease up the vertical groundwater profile  
450 (Figure 3a). The concentration of these two ions in the groundwater of the LNA is higher  
451 than expected from local rainfall sources and other shallow groundwater alluvial systems in  
452 eastern Australia (Martinez et al. 2017). In GAB groundwater, the  $\text{Na-HCO}_3$  molar ratio is  
453 generally 1:1 and the two ions are generally present in higher concentrations than in our  
454 alluvial samples (Radke et al. 2000; McLean 2003), which is evident in the position of the  
455 regional GAB samples in Figure 3a.

456 Additional ions used in this study are  $\text{F}^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$  and the  $\text{Cl}/\text{Br}$  ratio. The concentration of  $\text{F}^-$   
457 in the groundwater ranges from 0.002 mmol/L to 0.215 mmol/L (average: 0.028 mmol/L; std  
458 dev: 0.04 mmol/L). Fluoride concentrations generally increase with depth and accumulate in  
459 solution as all groundwater samples are below saturation with respect to fluorite (Figure 3b).  
460 Concentrations of  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the alluvial groundwater range from 0.063 mmol/L to 26.73 mmol/L  
461 (average: 1.67 mmol/L; std dev: 3.7 mmol/L). Unlike the other major ions,  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations  
462 through the vertical groundwater profile are relatively stable (Figure 3c). The relationship  
463 between  $\text{Cl}^-$  and the  $\text{Cl}/\text{Br}$  ratio shows that groundwater composition clusters from values

below the seawater ratio to values close to seawater. The Cl/Br ratios are similar to ranges found in other alluvial groundwater systems but slightly lower than ratios observed in other GAB samples for Australian locations (Herczeg et al., 1991; Cendón et al., 2010; Cartwright et al., 2010). Additionally, the Cl/Br ratios in shallow samples connected to the river are consistent with expected ratios in rainfall (Short et al. 2017). The regional GAB samples (Radke et al. 2000) show a Cl/Br ratio more similar to seawater, with our samples from the LNA lying on a mixing trend between the two end-members (Figure 3c).



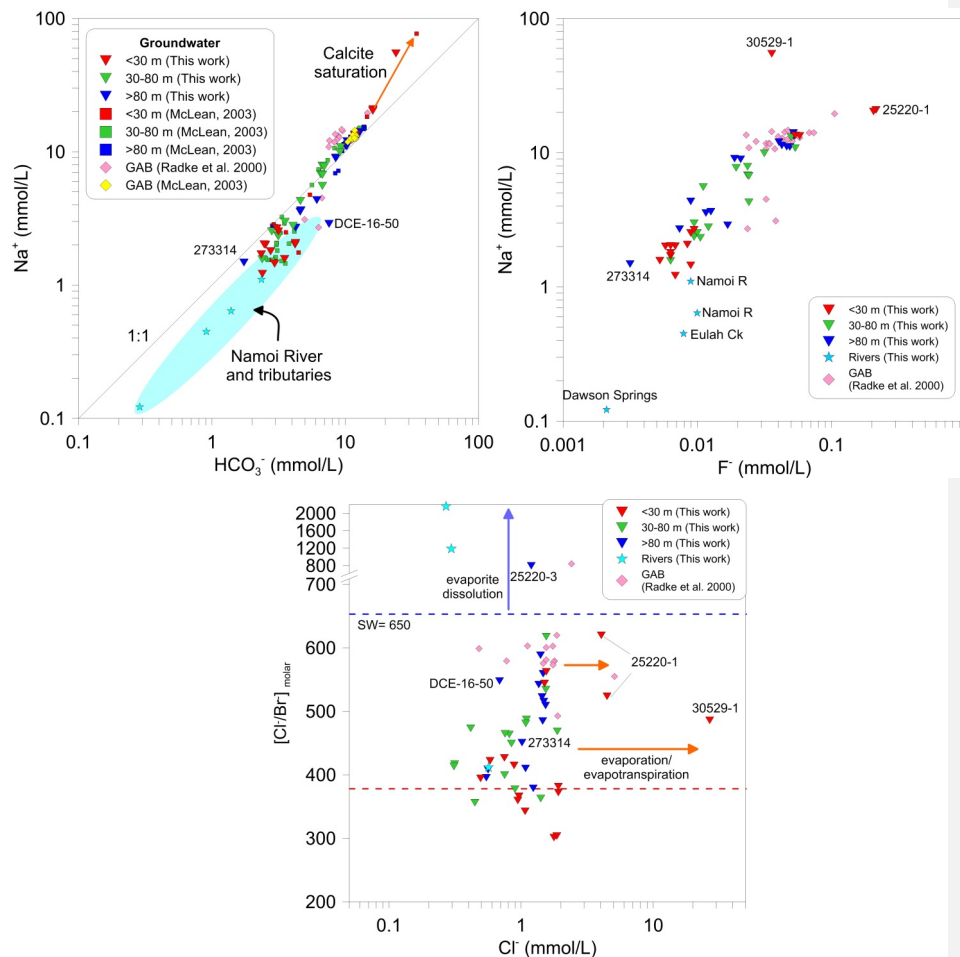


Figure 3. a)  $\text{Na}^+$  vs  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  showing the mixing trend that the alluvial samples form between the Namoi River and samples from the GAB (Radke et al. 2000; McLean 2003). The orange calcite saturation line indicates samples that are more enriched due to separate evapotranspiration and calcite precipitation. The shaded blue ellipse represents all river chemistry data available for the Namoi River and tributaries (this work (n=4), McLean 2003 (n=4), Mawhinney 2011 (n=79)); b)  $\text{Na}^+$  vs  $\text{F}^-$  and c)  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  vs  $\text{Cl}^-$ , highlighting the mixing trend between the surface recharge and the GAB that we observe in other geochemical indicators. The red dotted line represents the  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  ratio for rainfall and the blue dotted line is the seawater ratio.

481 We identified one major outlier in the hydrochemical results, which was sample  
482 273314. This sample is from 207 m bgs and the bore screen is classified as being in the GAB.  
483 However, the geochemical parameters for this deep GAB sample have a signature more  
484 similar to river water than what would be expected in the GAB 207 m bgs. The concentration  
485 of  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{F}^-$  and the Cl/Br ratio in this sample plot closer to the river and shallow  
486 groundwater than the deeper groundwater system (Figure 3). Potential reasons for this are  
487 explored in detail below.

488

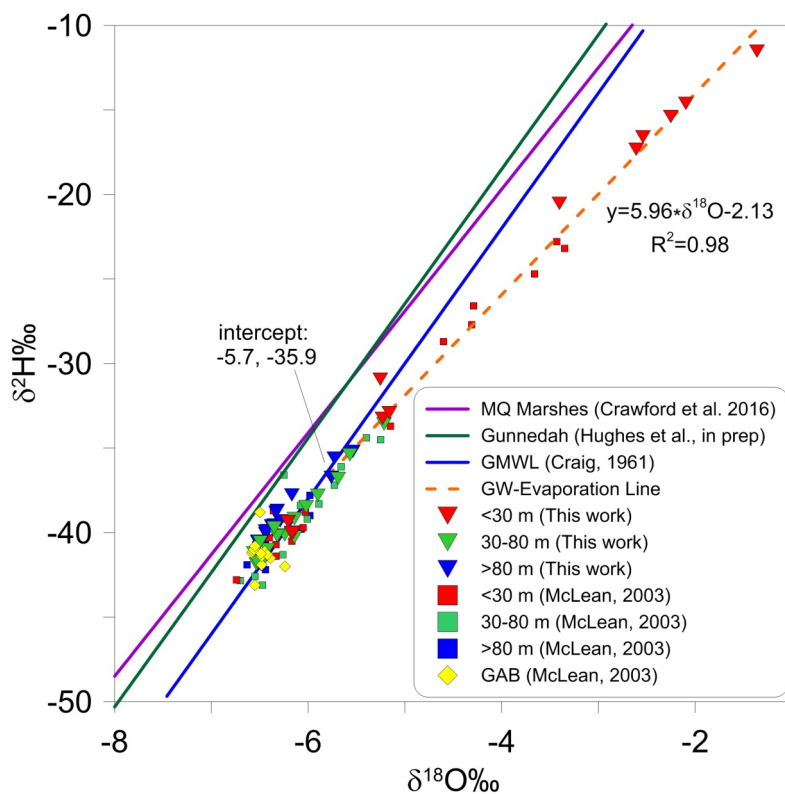
#### 489 4.2 **Stable water isotopes ( $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ )**

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490 The stable water isotopic values for this study range from -0.76‰ to 8.4‰ for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and -  
491 7.5‰ to -54.9‰ for  $\delta^2\text{H}$ . Most groundwater samples cluster together at around -6‰ and -  
492 40‰ ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ) and lie on the global meteoric water line (GMWL), to the right of the  
493 nearest available local meteoric water lines (LMWL) (Macquarie Marshes and Gunnedah)  
494 (Figure 4; Supplementary Table 3). A group of mostly shallow samples collected from  
495 piezometers close to river channels define a trend to the right of the GMWL with a slope of  
496 5.96, which is consistent with evaporation (Cendón et al. 2014). Our results are similar,  
497 including the shallow groundwater evaporative trend, to those recorded by McLean (2003).  
498 Water stable isotopic compositions for regional GAB samples range from -6.58‰ to -6.24‰  
499 for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and -43.1‰ to -38.8‰ for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  (McLean 2003) (Figure 4).

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500



**Figure 4.** Water stable isotopes in the LNA, showing the two separate mechanisms of recharge; surface water recharge plotting along an evaporation trend line and potential inflow from the GAB clustered with regional samples from the GAB (McLean 2003).

#### 4.3 Isotopic tracers ( $^3\text{H}$ , $^{14}\text{C}$ and $^{36}\text{Cl}$ )

Tritium activities vary throughout the study area, ranging from below the quantification limit ( $< 0.04 \text{ TU}$ ) to  $2.36 \text{ TU}$  (average:  $0.42 \text{ TU}$ ). Tritium activities generally decrease with depth and distance from the river channel (Figure 5) (all data in Supplementary Table 3). The highest  $^3\text{H}$  activities of  $2.31 \text{ TU}$  and  $2.36 \text{ TU}$  are from a sample  $40 \text{ m}$  from the river and the

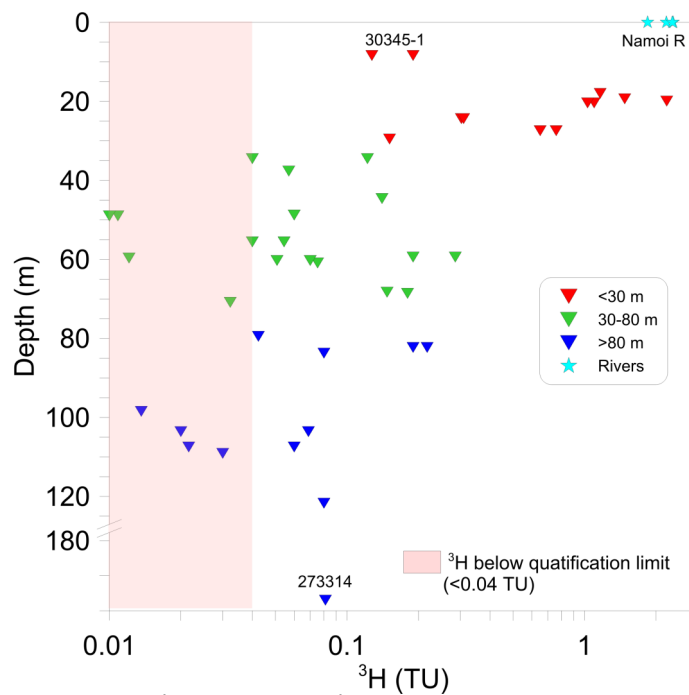
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514 Namoi River itself, respectively. These are very similar to modern rainfall in Australia (~2-3  
 515 TU (Tadros et al. 2014)), which suggests modern recharge near the river channels. However,  
 516  $^3\text{H} > 0.04 \text{ TU}$  was measured at depth (down to 207 m bgs). The  $^3\text{H}$  activities we measured at  
 517 depth are significant for Australian groundwater, as the peak of the bomb pulse in Australia  
 518 was only around 60 TU compared to locations in the northern hemisphere. This is primarily  
 519 because most thermonuclear testing was undertaken in the northern hemisphere far from  
 520 Australia and mixing is limited between the atmospheric convection cells in the northern and  
 521 southern hemispheres. Therefore,  $^3\text{H}$  in Australian rainfall has been at natural background  
 522 concentrations for some time (Tadros et al. 2014).

Deleted: , with modern recharge evident in the high  $^3\text{H}$  activities near the main river channels.

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523 **Figure 5.** Plot of depth vs  $^3\text{H}$ , highlighting the  $^3\text{H}$  activity throughout the vertical groundwater profile.  
 524 Samples that fall within the pink zone on the left are below the quantification limit (< 0.04 TU). These

529 data are not included in our interpretation of how  $^3\text{H}$  changes with depth. They are presented to  
530 convey the relative proportions of interpretable versus non-interpretable data.

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531 The  $^{14}\text{C}$  content in the groundwater ranged from 0.2 pmc to 107.6 pmc (average: 54.0  
532 pmc). Generally, groundwater samples shallower than 30 m had a high  $^{14}\text{C}$  content ( $> 90$   
533 pmc), which decreased with depth. There were 9 samples with a  $^{14}\text{C}$  content below 1 pmc,  
534 indicating old groundwater ( $> 30$  ka), with total depths ranging from 35 m bgs to 207 m bgs.

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535 Our  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  results for the alluvial groundwater ranged from 24.06 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) to 455.35 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ )  
536 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) (average: 169.4 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ )) (shown in the interpolation in Figure 2). It has been found that  
537 groundwater in the GAB recharge zone closest to the study area has a  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio up to  $\sim$   
538 200 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) (Radke et al. 2000) with recharge values applied in calculations elsewhere in the  
539 GAB of 110 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) (Moya et al. 2016). Water from the Namoi River has a  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio of  $\sim$   
540 420 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) (Supplementary Table 4).

Deleted: , possibly affected by thermonuclear  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  input from atmospheric bomb testing in the 1950s

## 542 **5 Discussion**

### 543 **5.1 Identification of recharge and mixing between the GAB and the LNA**

544 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  isotopic compositions suggest two mechanisms of recharge to the  
545 alluvium: artesian discharge and surface water infiltration. The regional GAB samples plot  
546 within the alluvial groundwater sample range, suggesting a GAB component in the alluvium.  
547 The evaporation line in Figure 4 indicates recharge to the alluvium via surface water  
548 infiltration. It also shows a good connection between surface water that has undergone  
549 evaporation prior to recharge.

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550 Additional evidence for these two mechanisms of recharge is the composition of  $\text{Na}^+$   
551 and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in the LNA. Figure 3a shows a mixing line that the alluvial samples follow,  
552 plotting between the end-members of the GAB and the Namoi River, suggesting an  
553 increasing GAB contribution to the alluvial groundwater with depth. This also implies that a

559 continuum of mixing exists between the shallow and deep groundwater within the LNA. The  
560 shallow samples (25220-1 and 30259-1) that are more  $\text{Na}^+$  enriched compared to samples  
561 from the GAB have undergone separate evapotranspiration processes and hence have a  
562 concurrent increase in  $\text{Cl}^-$ . Assuming that  $\text{Cl}^-$  is behaving conservatively (Appelo & Postma  
563 2005) we surmise that increases in dissolved major ion concentrations concomitant with  
564 increases in  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the shallow groundwater are likely to be a result of evapoconcentration.

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565 Further hydrochemical evidence for these recharge mechanisms is the covariation of  
566  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{F}^-$ , both interpreted as primarily derived from groundwater interaction with silicate  
567 minerals in this region (Airey et al. 1978; Herczeg et al. 1991; McLean 2003) (Figure 3b).  
568 Our alluvial samples fall on the mixing line between samples from the river and nearby  
569 tributaries and regional samples from the GAB (Radke et al. 2000), in a similar way to the  
570  $\text{Na-HCO}_3$  trend that we observe in Figure 3a. The  $\text{Cl/Br}$  ratios in the groundwater also  
571 support the mixing interpretation provided by the  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  concentrations, contrary to  
572 the possibility of water rock interactions along the alluvium flowpath (Figure 3c).  
573 Furthermore, the relationship between  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  provides additional evidence of mixing in  
574 the groundwater (Supplementary Figure 1).

575 Figure 3 also highlights the deep outlying sample (273314), which was 207 m bgs in  
576 total depth, yet plots with the shallow alluvial and river samples. Figure 2 shows that this  
577 sample is situated just above the Napperby Formation. We hypothesise that this sample  
578 originated from surface recharge from the Namoi River (which is in contact with the  
579 underlying Digby Formation to the south of the study area), with negligible input from the  
580 more  $\text{Na-HCO}_3$ -rich groundwater in the Pilliga Sandstone, where the sample is from. Sample  
581 30345-2 (Supplementary Tables 2 and 3), which is situated in the lower part of the LNA in  
582 proximity to the alluvial contact with the Napperby Formation (Figure 2) has a similar  
583 geochemistry. These results suggest the connection between deeper Triassic formations

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586 beneath the GAB and the Namoi River, which must be an important consideration in future  
587 water balance models of the catchment.

588

### 589 5.1.1 Mixing between groundwaters of varying residence times

590 Major ion and water stable isotope data suggest two primary mechanisms of recharge to  
591 the LNA and show that mixing is occurring within the alluvium.  $^3\text{H}$  activity and  $^{14}\text{C}$  content  
592 in the alluvial groundwater to quantify the potential residence times of the groundwater

593 sources that are mixing within the alluvium. Tritium activities  $> 0.04 \text{ TU}$  at depth (down to

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594 207 m bgs) indicates the extent of recharge from episodic flooding. Measuring  $^3\text{H} > 0.04 \text{ TU}$

595 at these depths also shows that surface recharge reaches the deeper LNA relatively quickly ( $<$

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596 70 years). Tritium data from the 1970's collected from bores that were included in our

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597 sampling campaign (25329 and 25332) (Calf 1978) suggest that  $^3\text{H}$  was already present in the

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598 deeper parts of the alluvial aquifer ( $> 70 \text{ m bgs}$ ) prior to a major flood in 1971, with activities

599 ranging from 7.9 TU to 11.2 TU. This indicates good connectivity to and recharge from the

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600 surface. Additionally, measurements of  $^3\text{H}$  in these bores post-flooding (16.6 to 20.7 TU)

601 indicate that substantial recharge from the surface took place during this flood. This

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602 highlights the importance of surface water recharge to the LNA. The activities of  $^3\text{H} > 0.04$

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603 TU throughout the vertical profile of the LNA (Figure 5) are inconsistent with the low  $^{14}\text{C}$

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604 contents in the groundwater. The presence of measurable  $^3\text{H}$  but negligible  $^{14}\text{C}$  (close to 0

605 pmc) suggests that mixing is occurring between groundwater that is associated with modern

606 recharge processes in the alluvium and groundwater that, as indicated by the  $^{14}\text{C}$  content, is

607 presumably much older. This older groundwater may be derived from artesian inflow. Figure

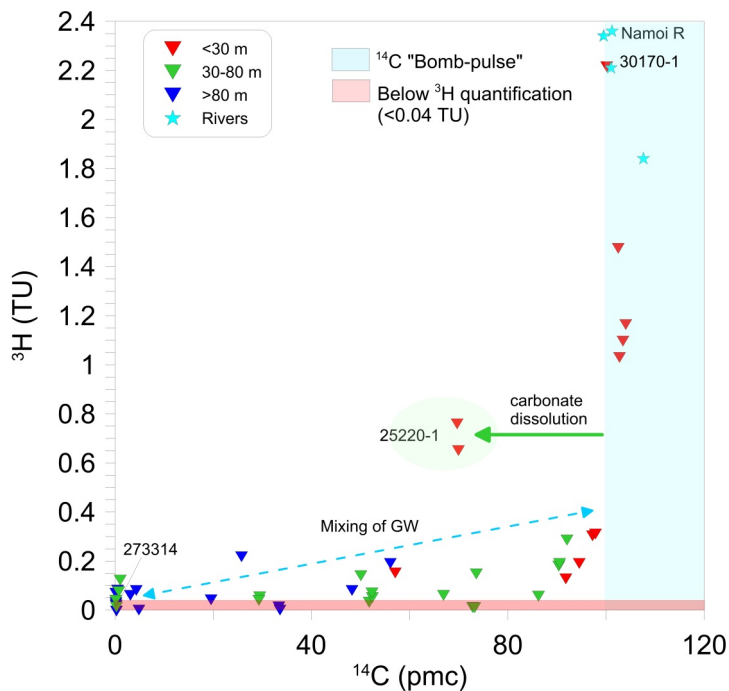
608 6 shows  $^3\text{H}$  activities  $> 0.04 \text{ TU}$  in samples with  $^{14}\text{C}$  content of almost 0 pmc, suggesting that

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609 groundwater with a very low  $^{14}\text{C}$  content is mixing with groundwater with a high  $^3\text{H}$  activity.

610 Even though there is evidence of  $^{14}\text{C}$  dilution in localised areas, we also observe mixing

620 between groundwaters of widely different  $^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^3\text{H}$  values in the gradient of the samples in  
 621 Figure 6 (emphasised with a dotted blue line). This gradient would be steeper if there were  
 622 mixing between groundwaters closer in residence times (Cartwright et al. 2013).  
 623



624  
 625 **Figure 6.**  $^3\text{H}$  (TU) vs  $^{14}\text{C}$  (pmc). This shows the mixing between groundwater with quantifiable  $^3\text{H}$   
 626 activity (as indicated by the red band) and groundwater with very low  $^{14}\text{C}$  content (as indicated by the  
 627 dotted blue line).  
 628

629 **5.2 Extent of interaction between the GAB and the LNA**

630 The  $^3\text{H}$  and  $^{14}\text{C}$  values show that there is mixing between groundwater of varying residence  
 631 times, however they provide little constraint on the groundwaters with a  $^{14}\text{C}$  content of close

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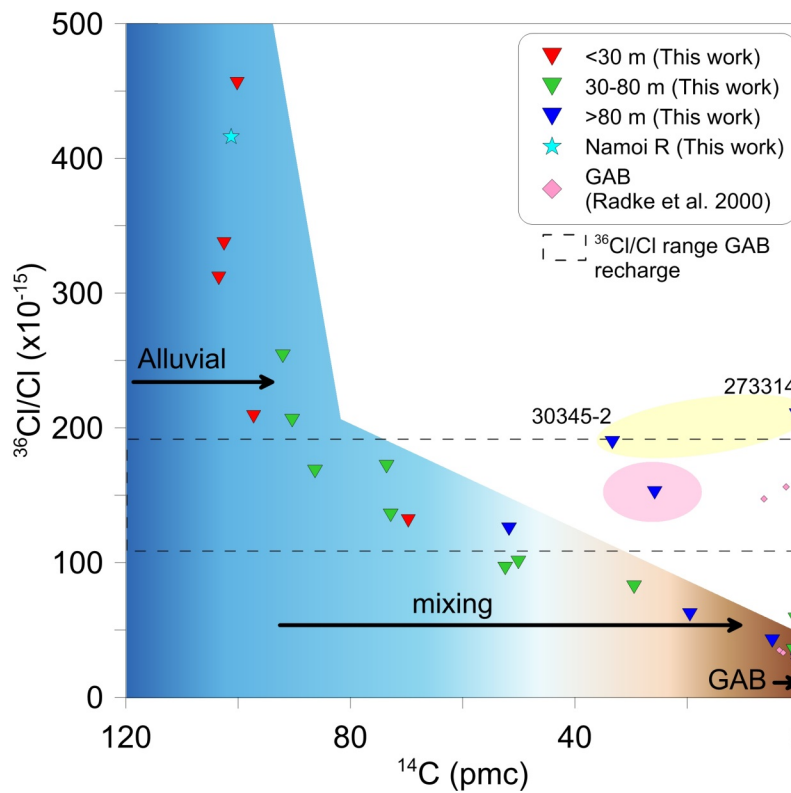
633 to 0 pmc (ie > 30 ka). This is where chlorine-36 dating can be a useful tracer because it can  
634 be used to identify the presence of groundwaters that are much older than the range provided  
635 by  $^{14}\text{C}$ .

636 A plot of  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  vs  $^{14}\text{C}$  (pmc) (Figure 7) shows a distinct mixing trend between  
637 groundwater with high and very low  $^{14}\text{C}$  content. The 2 deep outlying samples (30345-2 and  
638 273314; shaded yellow ellipse in Figure 7) display different geochemical characteristics from  
639 the other samples, possibly because of their proximity to the Napperby Formation (Figure 2).

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640 Figure 7 shows the  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  value range of GAB recharge, highlighting the alluvial samples  
641 with values lower than this GAB recharge value. Calculations suggest that these particular  
642 groundwater samples are potentially hundreds of thousands of years old, which is consistent  
643 with groundwater from the GAB. This implies that these alluvial groundwaters are influenced  
644 by artesian inflow of very old groundwater. This is evident in the natural neighbour  
645 interpolation in Figure 2.

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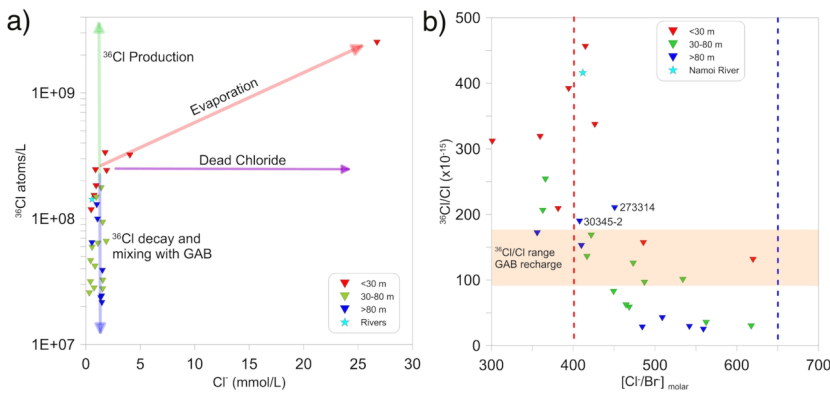


**Figure 7.**  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) vs  $^{14}\text{C}$  (pmc). The colour gradient represents the mixing between the two major sources: surface water recharge (blue = modern) and the GAB (brown = old). The shaded yellow ellipse encompasses the two outliers where the geochemistry is being influenced by proximity to the Napperby Formation. The shaded pink ellipse is sample 25327-3 located in the irrigation area.

The apparent degree of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  decay observed in the alluvial groundwater samples is too large to be explained simply by radioactive decay as indicated by the measurable  $^{14}\text{C}$  content in the same samples (Phillips 2000). This means that the time needed for the  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  to decay as much as observed would be well outside the range of  $^{14}\text{C}$  dating ( $> 30$  ka) and therefore all groundwater samples would be expected to have a  $^{14}\text{C}$  content of 0 pmc, which is not

**Deleted:** The longest residence time calculated from eqn. 1 for our study area is between 700 ka and ~900 ka. Using the two extremes of the  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  range for GAB recharge (100 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) and 200 ( $\times 10^{-15}$ )) this calculated residence time would be slightly shorter or slightly longer, respectively.

664 observed. Furthermore, the decrease in  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  is unlikely to result from dilution by  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ -  
 665 depleted sources such as evaporites, as the  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations are similar in most samples  
 666 (Figure 8a and b). Therefore, mixing between groundwaters of different residence times is the  
 667 most likely explanation for the observed  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  signatures.



668  
 669 **Figure 8.** a)  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  vs  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration. The  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  production arrow represents potential in situ  $^{36}\text{Cl}$   
 670 production from the high U and Th content in the host rocks; b)  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) vs  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$ . The  
 671 dotted blue line represents the  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  ratio in seawater and the dotted red line represents the expected  
 672  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  ratio for rainfall at Narrabri based on distance from the coast (Short et al. 2017).

673  
 674 Our groundwater samples from the deep alluvium display lower  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratios (down to  
 675  $24 (\times 10^{-15})$ ) than those measured in the GAB recharge zone. This indicates that there is very  
 676 old groundwater in the deeper LNA (conceivably older than that of the GAB recharge zone),  
 677 and that the mixing observed in our geochemical data could be taking place between  
 678 groundwater with a residence time of less than 70 years, (assumed using  $^3\text{H}$ ) and groundwater  
 679 with low  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  activities, consistent with GAB groundwater that is potentially hundreds of  
 680 thousands of years old (Radke et al. 2000).

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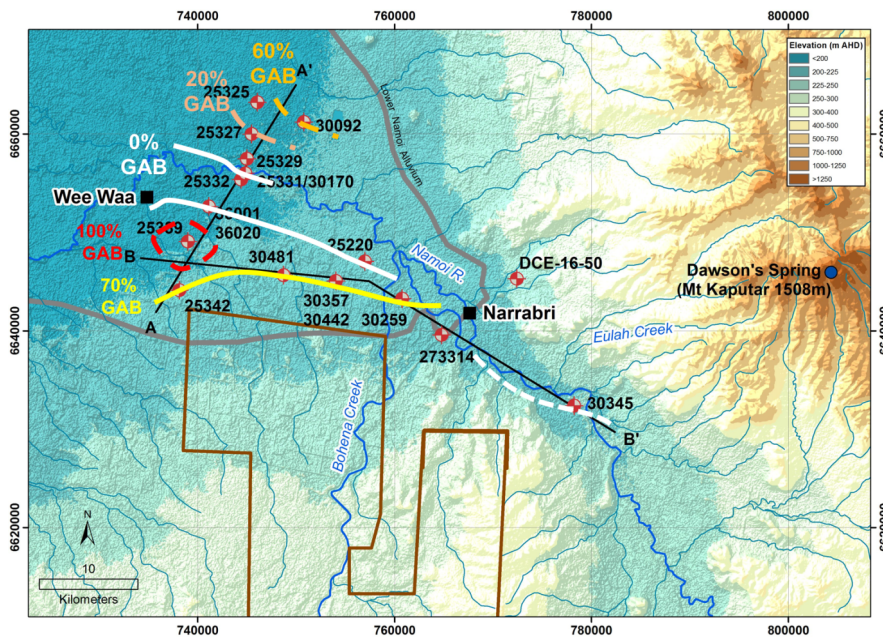
Deleted: with a residence time of ~ 900 ka (calculated using  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ ; an approximation based on eqn. 1). In the study area, the only source of groundwater with a residence time of ~ 900 ka is the GAB.

688 To quantify the extent of interaction between the two groundwater sources, we use the  
689 concentration of the conservative chloride ion to determine an approximate percentage of GAB  
690 to alluvial groundwater at each sample location. In general, Cl concentrations in surface water  
691 and shallow groundwater in the study area are low (< 30 mg/L), while samples recovered from  
692 the Pilliga Sandstone (GAB) have higher concentrations (~ 60 mg/L). To estimate the local  
693 surface infiltration end-member, a shallow groundwater sample with a high <sup>3</sup>H activity (sample  
694 30170-1; 2.21 TU) was used. The average of all available GAB data was used for GAB inputs.  
695 These end-members are mixed in varying proportions to obtain the Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration that we  
696 observe in all our groundwater samples (via inverse modelling calculations). If the Cl<sup>-</sup>  
697 concentration in the sample was lower than that in the representative local surface infiltration  
698 sample, a 100% LNA contribution is assumed. The representative sample used as the local  
699 surface infiltration end-member has been subject to some evaporation and therefore does not  
700 have the lowest Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration in the alluvium. If the sample with the lowest Cl<sup>-</sup>  
701 concentration was used as the surface water end-member, we would require a higher percentage  
702 of GAB contribution across the study area. Thus, the use of the evaporated sample as our end-  
703 member represents a conservative approach when considering the mixing components from  
704 both the LNA and the GAB.

705 The Cl mixing results provide an approximate mixing threshold with shallower samples  
706 generally containing a higher proportion of alluvial groundwater, which diminishes with  
707 depth. These mixing proportions show that some deeper samples in the LNA contain up to  
708 70% GAB groundwater. Figure 9 presents approximate contours for artesian discharge  
709 proportions into the LNA based on the Cl mixing approach. The dotted lines indicate areas  
710 where there is just one sample to inform the interpretation, whereas the solid lines connect  
711 multiple samples that all displayed similar contributions from the GAB.

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**Deleted:** We mix a representative shallow, modern groundwater (30170-1) with an average GAB composition obtained from regional groundwater samples (McLean 2003). These two initial end-members are mixed in different proportions so that Cl concentrations in a selected final bore can be explained via inverse modelling calculations. -



**Figure 9.** Approximate percentages of GAB contribution to the LNA, calculated from multiple geochemical tracers and major ion data.

Artesian input can be inferred from nested piezometers at locations 30481 and 30259 (Figure 1). At these locations, the monitoring bore slotted in the lower portion of the LNA has a head higher than the monitoring bore slotted in the shallow portion of the LNA, indicative of upward flow. At all other locations artesian contributions cannot be discerned from head data. Comparing Figure 9 to Figure 1 we show that groundwater geochemistry can provide a more accurate evaluation of GAB contribution to the LNA. This is because the geochemical data can elucidate groundwater mixing processes and provide longer term insights compared to the hydraulic head data. Multiple geochemical tracers reveal that boreholes in the north and west of the study area may be experiencing much more GAB inflow than has been inferred in catchment water balance models (Merrick 2000; Kelly et al.

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2007; CSIRO 2007). This is most evident at sample 25342. It is not immediately apparent from the vertical heads in the hydrograph set at sample 25342 that there is any GAB inflow, yet based on the geochemical tracers this location is 100 % GAB groundwater. The water balance model described in Merrick (2000) has GAB groundwater contributing 22% of all inflow into the LNA between Narrabri and Wee Waa (Figure 1). From the geochemistry alone it is not possible to make an estimate that can be directly compared to that artesian discharge estimate. However, it is apparent from the mixing results shown in Figure 9 that a large portion of the study area has an artesian input to the LNA that is likely to be greater than 22%. The above observations highlight why geochemical insights should ideally be used as one of the constraining data sets when doing water balance models in regions where there is both artesian discharge and surface water recharge to the alluvial aquifer.

744

### 745 5.3 Temporal changes in the interaction between the LNA and the GAB

746 The multiple geochemical tracers we have used show substantial artesian discharge to the  
747 LNA, which is larger than that currently considered in groundwater models of the region  
748 (Merrick 2000; Kelly et al. 2007; CSIRO 2007). However, it is difficult to constrain how the  
749 extent of artesian discharge has changed over time and how it may continue to change. Time  
750 series sampling can constrain how this GAB discharge will change, and is important for  
751 understanding future artesian contributions to the LNA. Past <sup>14</sup>C (pmc) data collected from  
752 the same bores in 1978 (Calf), 2003 (McLean), 2010 (ANSTO data) and 2016 (this study)  
753 enable us to observe how the <sup>14</sup>C content in the groundwater has changed over time. The  
754 historical <sup>14</sup>C data, coupled with data from this study, has the potential to be used as a  
755 preliminary indicator of changes in the relative contributions of high <sup>14</sup>C contents from recent  
756 surface recharge (~ 100 pmc) versus low <sup>14</sup>C contents of the GAB discharge to the LNA. The

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Deleted: Even though dissolved inorganic carbon content and isotopic signature can be affected by processes involving both organic and inorganic carbon sources along its flow path, (which can alter the <sup>14</sup>C content) the application of <sup>14</sup>C data can still be useful as a tracer when investigating mixing and recharge processes (Meredith et al. 2016). This is especially the case if it is assumed that the processes that can potentially alter the <sup>14</sup>C signature do not change substantially over the period where different historical <sup>14</sup>C data are compared. Therefore,

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dataset contains 14 bores from 5 nested sites and is the most comprehensive long-term time-series database for the study area, if not Australia, despite not being complete for all years.

Most of the samples displayed relatively consistent  $^{14}\text{C}$  values across the years where data were available. However, we observed large changes in  $^{14}\text{C}$  content in 5 monitoring bores; 4 showed an increase and 1 showed a decrease (bold text in Table 1). This suggests that the varying contributions of older and younger groundwater has changed over time, which could be a preliminary indicator of increased surface recharge to various sites, or increased artesian discharge to others. Therefore, measuring the  $^{14}\text{C}$  in the groundwater at any future time and assessing how this has changed using past data is useful as a preliminary indicator for the current state of the system. However, consistent data collection and incorporation of other factors that may affect groundwater mixing (such as rate of groundwater extraction and amount of surface infiltration) are necessary to make inferences about temporal changes in the interaction between the LNA and the GAB.

**Table 1.** Changes in  $^{14}\text{C}$  content (pmc) in select boreholes in the study area between 1978-2016 (see Figures 1 and 8 for the locations of the bores). The 5 bores in bold text highlight where we observe changes in the  $^{14}\text{C}$  content from 1978 to this study. Where available, the time of sampling is included.

ND = no data.

**Deleted:** The borehole that displayed a decrease in  $^{14}\text{C}$  (30092-2) between 2003 and 2016 suggests that there is an increasing GAB contribution over the time period at this site. Using the  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration, this sample displayed 60% GAB contribution (Figure 9), despite the vertical head gradients in the hydrograph showing no evidence of this (Figure 1). The remaining 4 monitoring bores, primarily located deeper in the LNA, have an increase in  $^{14}\text{C}$ , suggesting a larger alluvial contribution at these locations over time. At monitoring bore 25332-4,  $^{14}\text{C}$  increased between 1978 and 2010, then decreased between 2010 and 2016. These locations were in the northern part of the study area where there is extensive pumping for irrigation, suggesting that these changes in the  $^{14}\text{C}$  contents are reflecting the extent of pumping occurring and associated surface water recharge with modern carbon versus artesian discharge.

Bore	Depth interval (m bgs)	Calf (1978)	McLean (2003)	ANSTO data (summer 2010)	This study (summer 2016)	This study (winter 2016)
25220/1	24.4-30.5	28.15	ND	ND	69.66	69.94
25220/3	97.5-109.7	0.99	ND	0.13	0.17	0.22
25325/2	36.9-38.4	83.63	ND	85.77	86.25	ND
25325/6	67.1-70.1	65.31	ND	66.57	90.37	ND
25332/1	17.7-21	103.61	ND	ND	102.48	ND
25332/2	38.1-41.1	99.19	ND	104.78	ND	ND
25332/3	50.9-55.5	94.70	ND	ND	ND	ND
25332/4	66.8-69.8	49.33	ND	84.12	73.57	ND
25327/1	18.9-21.9	123.36	101.3 (s)	ND	103.43	102.74
25327/2	57.9-60.9	84.16	93.78 (s)	ND	92.05	90.56
25327/3	80.8-83.8	8.48	8.63 (s)	ND	25.79	56.08
30092/1	17.7-20.7	ND	90.51 (w)	ND	ND	ND
30092/2	48.2-49.4	ND	80.06 (w)	72.31	ND	66.92
30092/4	108.2-110	ND	0.19 (w)	0.24	0.3	0.21

## 6 Conclusion

We have used multiple geochemical tracers to show that artesian discharge to a shallow alluvial aquifer is higher than previously derived from water balance models in the literature (Merrick 2000; CSIRO 2007; Kelly et al. 2007). We have also provided a percentage estimate of GAB groundwater in each sample collected in the LNA using the concentration of Cl in the groundwater, showing that in some locations the ‘alluvial’ sample is comprised of up to 70% GAB groundwater. Our findings are important when considering the global importance of groundwater and the sustainable use of connected alluvial and artesian systems, globally.

Isotopic tracers ( $^3\text{H}$ ,  $^{14}\text{C}$ , and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ ) indicate that there is substantial mixing between two groundwater end-members of very different residence times (< 70 years, and very old groundwater consistent with the GAB). This suggests interaction between modern surface recharge through the shallow LNA and variable artesian inflow at depth, dependent on where the sample is located in the system. We have also used past  $^{14}\text{C}$  data (1978, 2003, 2010), along with data from this study to show that these data can be used as a preliminary indicator of how the extent of interaction between the GAB and the LNA has changed over time. Yet,

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836 how these trends change geographically throughout the system, and how they will behave in  
837 the future are difficult to constrain without continuous monitoring.

838 In the interval of the Lower Namoi studied discharge from the GAB into, the LNA was  
839 previously considered to contribute approximately less than 22% of the input water to the  
840 LNA (Merrick 2000; CSIRO 2007; Kelly et al. 2007). However, the geochemical data  
841 reported above clearly indicate that GAB discharge is occurring in locations where inflow is  
842 not apparent from the nested hydrograph data. This highlights the need to apply multiple  
843 groundwater investigation techniques (including flow modelling, hydrograph analysis,  
844 geophysics, and geochemistry) when inferring artesian discharge to an alluvial aquifer. This  
845 research has demonstrated that a multi-tracer geochemical approach is required to better  
846 determine artesian contributions to the alluvial aquifer and must be considered in  
847 constraining future models of the study system and elsewhere.

848

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857 overall quality of the manuscript.

858

#### 859 **Author contributions**

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864 Experimental conceptualisation and design was carried out by D.I.C & B.F.J.K. Fieldwork  
865 was conducted by C.P.I., D.I.C., S.I.H. & B.F.J.K. Additional data was contributed by  
866 K.T.M. Geochemical analyses were conducted by C.P.I., D.I.C. & K.M.W. The manuscript  
867 was written by C.P.I with input from all authors.

868

## 869 **Competing Interests**

870 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

871

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## 1128 List of Figures

1129 **Figure 1.** Map of the study area and sample locations, along with the location of the study  
1130 area in Australia. Accompanying hydrographs show the groundwater level response in  
1131 different piezometers throughout the study area (groundwater level data sourced from BOM  
1132 2017). The different colours in the hydrographs represent the different monitoring bores in



the nested set. The bottom of the slotted interval for each bore is shown in the key. The x-axis in each hydrograph is the year (1970-2010) and the y-axis is depth (between 0 and 40 m below ground surface (bgs)). The two locations with red text highlight areas where the hydrograph heads show clear GAB contribution, with the deeper piezometer showing a higher head than the shallow one. The remaining locations show no apparent GAB contribution to the LNA based on the hydrograph data.

**Figure 2.** A geological map of the study area and two cross sections through the study area, showing the location and depth of the samples in the alluvium and their proximity to formations of the GAB. Contacts obtained from gas wells Nyora-1, Culgoora-1 and Turrawan-2, coinciding with our cross sections, are added. Their locations are displayed on the map. The general direction of groundwater flow is from SE-NW, aligning with the B-B' line on the map. The chlorine-36 data interpolated using the 'natural neighbours' algorithm is shown in each cross section.

**Figure 3.** a)  $\text{Na}^+$  vs  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  showing the mixing trend that the alluvial samples form between the Namoi River and samples from the GAB (Radke et al. 2000; McLean 2003). The orange calcite saturation line indicates samples that are more enriched due to separate evapotranspiration and calcite precipitation. The shaded blue ellipse represents all river chemistry data available for the Namoi River and tributaries (this work (n=4), McLean 2003 (n=4), Mawhinney 2011 (n=79)); b)  $\text{Na}^+$  vs  $\text{F}^-$  and c)  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  vs  $\text{Cl}^-$ , highlighting the mixing trend between the surface recharge and the GAB that we observe in other geochemical indicators. The red dotted line represents the  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  ratio for rainfall and the blue dotted line is the seawater ratio.

**Figure 4.** Water stable isotopes in the LNA, showing the two separate mechanisms of recharge; surface water recharge plotting along an evaporation trend line and potential inflow from the GAB clustered with regional samples from the GAB (McLean 2003).

**Deleted:** Two cross sections through the study area, showing the location and depth of the samples in the alluvium and their proximity to formations of the GAB. Contacts obtained from gas wells Nyora-1, Culgoora-1 and Turrawan-2, coinciding with our cross sections, are added. Their locations are displayed on the map. The chlorine-36 data interpolated using the 'natural neighbours' algorithm is shown in each cross section.

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1166 **Figure 5.** Plot of depth vs  $^3\text{H}$ , highlighting the  $^3\text{H}$  activity throughout the vertical  
1167 groundwater profile. Samples that fall within the pink zone on the left are below the  
1168 quantification limit ( $< 0.04$  TU). These data are not included in our interpretation of how  $^3\text{H}$   
1169 changes with depth. They are presented to convey the relative proportions of interpretable  
1170 versus non-interpretable data.

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1171 **Figure 6.**  $^3\text{H}$  (TU) vs  $^{14}\text{C}$  (pmc). This shows the mixing between groundwater with  
1172 quantifiable  $^3\text{H}$  activity (as indicated by the red band) and groundwater with very low  $^{14}\text{C}$   
1173 content (as indicated by the dotted blue line).

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1174 **Figure 7.**  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) vs  $^{14}\text{C}$  (pmc). The colour gradient represents the mixing between  
1175 the two major sources: surface water recharge (blue = modern) and the GAB (brown = old).  
1176 The shaded yellow ellipse encompasses the two outliers where the geochemistry is being  
1177 influenced by proximity to the Napperby Formation. The shaded pink ellipse is sample  
1178 25327-3 located in the irrigation area.

1179 **Figure 8.** a)  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  vs  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration. The  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  production arrow represents potential in situ  
1180  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  production from the high U and Th content in the host rocks; b)  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) vs  
1181  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$ . The dotted blue line represents the  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  ratio in seawater and the dotted red line  
1182 represents the expected  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  ratio for rainfall at Narrabri based on distance from the coast  
1183 (Short et al. 2017).

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1184 **Figure 9.** Approximate percentages of GAB contribution to the LNA, calculated from  
1185 multiple geochemical tracers and major ion data.

Deleted: a)  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  vs  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration. The  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  production arrow represents in situ  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  production as a result of high U and Th in host rocks; b)  $^{36}\text{Cl}/\text{Cl}$  ratio ( $\times 10^{-15}$ ) vs  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$ . The dotted blue line represents the  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  ratio in seawater and the dotted red line represents the expected  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{Br}^-$  ratio for rainfall at Narrabri based on distance from the coast (Short et al. 2017).