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Sustainability indicator for the prevention of potential thermal interferences between groundwater heat pump systems in urban aquifers

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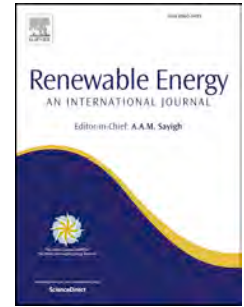
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31 **Abstract**

32 The steady increase of geothermal systems using groundwater is compromising the
33 renewability of the geothermal resources in shallow urban aquifers. To ensure
34 sustainability, scientifically-based criteria are required to prevent potential thermal
35 interferences between geothermal systems. In this work, a management indicator (balanced
36 sustainability index, BSI) applicable to groundwater heat pump systems is defined to assign
37 a quantitative value of sustainability to each system, based on their intrinsic potential to
38 produce thermal interference. The BSI indicator relies on the net heat balance transferred to
39 the terrain throughout the year and the maximum seasonal thermal load associated. To
40 define this indicator, 75 heating-cooling scenarios based in 23 real systems were
41 established to cover all possible different operational conditions. The scenarios were
42 simulated in a standard numerical model, adopted as a reference framework, and thermal
43 impacts were evaluated. Two polynomial regression models were used for the interpolation
44 of thermal impacts, thus allowing the direct calculation of the sustainability indicator
45 developed as a function of heating-cooling ratios and maximum seasonal thermal loads.
46 The BSI indicator could provide authorities and technicians with scientifically-based
47 criteria to establish geothermal monitoring programs, which are critical to maintain the
48 implementation rates and renewability of these systems in the cities.

49

50 **Keywords:** Shallow geothermal energy, GWHP, Urban hydrogeology, indicator,
51 Groundwater, BSI.

52

53 **1 Introduction**

54 Heating and cooling for buildings accounted for nearly half (544.2 Mtoe) of the final
55 energy consumption in the European Union in 2010 [1]. To fulfill this modern society need,
56 81% of this energy was generated from combustion processes emitting carbon dioxide
57 (CO₂) [2]. Technologies for heating-cooling using geothermal heat pumps (GHP) could
58 provide such energy requirements by increasing the use of renewable energy sources. GHP
59 installations presented a total installed power of more than 50 GW in 2015 [3], thus
60 presenting a large potential for the mitigation of climate change in this sector [4]. The
61 growing awareness of GHP has resulted in a steady increase of installed capacity
62 worldwide over the last 20 years, with a significant increase of around 10% [5, 6]. This fast
63 spreading of GHP systems all over the world can be explained by their economic and
64 environmental feasibility [7-9], as they are especially economically advantageous when the
65 price of electricity is low [10]. There are two main widespread types of configurations [11]:
66 closed loop and open loop. In close loop or ground-coupled systems, the heat exchanger
67 used to maximize heat transfer with the ground consists in a plastic pipe placed into the
68 ground, either horizontally in a trench or vertically in a borehole. On the other hand, open
69 loop or groundwater heat pump (GWHP) systems pump groundwater or surface water
70 directly as a heat source and circulate it through heat exchangers placed in the surface,
71 finally discharging it into another well or into the same water reservoir [4, 12]. GWHP
72 systems are the oldest type of GHP and were the most widely used until the 90s, when their
73 popularity dropped as environmental regulations raised to prevent aquifer and surface water
74 contamination [13]. Nevertheless, 20 years later, GWHP systems are becoming more
75 common as worldwide governments are cutting back on low-carbon heat sources in favor
76 of renewable heat initiatives. The substantial improvements in energy efficiency and

77 significant reductions in CO₂ emissions experienced in the last years have posed GWHP
78 systems as one of the most powerful systems of geothermal direct use world-wide and they
79 represent a booming sector in geothermal development [6, 14]. The technical potential of
80 GWHP systems for heating and cooling buildings is still large [15] but, to reach their full
81 capability, it is necessary to address different challenges related to regulatory barriers [2,
82 16] and sustainability of the systems related to thermal interference between systems in
83 densely populated urban areas, among others [17]. The management of shallow geothermal
84 resources is a critical point to maintain the implementation rates of these systems in the
85 cities and to ensure, at the same time, their renewability.

86 Although shallow ground is considered as a large energy reservoir, geothermal energy
87 availability in urban areas is limited and overexploitation of the ground is becoming a
88 major concern for authorities [18-20]. The increase in the number of GWHP systems and
89 the increase of thermal interferences between these systems enforces the need for new
90 criteria to develop subsurface energy policies that allow to plan their spatial distribution
91 and to limit their operation regimes. To obtain these sustainability criteria, different
92 approaches have been proposed, beginning with simple rules or threshold values that
93 appear to be empirically defined rather than scientifically evaluated. These first approaches
94 resulted in inconsistent regulative frameworks [16, 21, 22] and have led to failure due to the
95 inability of decision-makers to see the *big picture* and to understand the complexity in an
96 urban environment. This complexity derives from the heterogeneity of hydraulic and
97 thermal parameters in the terrain beneath the cities and, most importantly, from the
98 numerous different flow and heat-transport processes occurring in the urban subsurface,
99 namely surface temperature oscillation throughout the year [23], subsurface building

100 structures [24, 25], sewage systems [26] or river-aquifer interaction [27], among others.
101 Modifications of the thermal regime of urban aquifers are potentially affecting GWHP
102 systems performance [17]. These potential efficiency changes need to be evaluated with a
103 numerical approach when the grade of complexity involved cannot be handled by simple
104 analytical models [22]. Therefore, a decision-support tool based on numerical modeling for
105 the management of shallow geothermal resources is the most recognized approach [28-32].
106 Moreover, numerical models at city scale have successfully reproduced the evolution of
107 heat plumes and thermal interferences in urban environments, including complex transient
108 boundary conditions such as real shallow geothermal exploitation regimes [27, 33, 34].

109 In addition to numerical models, different management criteria have been developed to
110 understand the *big picture* of the resources managed [33]. Concepts such as *present thermal*
111 *state* compared to *potential natural state* [35] has improved the definition of the thermal
112 impacts from a transient point of view and by considering the thermal memory effect of
113 aquifers. The definition of a relaxation factor [36] allowed to partially improve the
114 temporal allocation of resources by reserving a fraction for future stakeholders. However, a
115 major problem with the application of such management concepts is that they require
116 advanced numerical models that, in turn, demand high resolution monitoring networks for
117 their calibration and validation, and these networks are not always available. Nevertheless,
118 if unsustainable GWPS systems are identified, decision-makers should have facilities to
119 perform a risk assessment of potential thermal interferences affecting the sustainability of
120 managed installations. Furthermore, managers should have a scientifically-based criteria to
121 measure or refine geothermal monitoring networks or to intensify surveillance actuations to
122 focus the efforts towards unsustainable systems.

123 The main purpose of this study is to develop a management indicator applicable to GWHP
124 systems in a way such that each system could have a quantitative value of sustainability
125 assigned in terms of its intrinsic potential to produce thermal interference. To do this, the
126 theoretical thermal impact generated by GWHP in a standard aquifer of reference
127 calculated by means of numerical modelling was evaluated in 75 heating-cooling scenarios
128 representative of plausible seasonal energy loads. For each of these scenarios, the numerical
129 model gave a thermal impact associated. From a management perspective, the magnitude of
130 these calculated thermal impacts was considered to be proportional to the sustainability of
131 each GWHP system operation scenario considered and, thus, was used directly as a new
132 indicator named BSI. The BSI indicators calculated for 75 heating-cooling scenarios by
133 means of numerical modelling were used to build two simple mathematical models
134 obtaining two polynomial regression models which allowed to relate the BSI to seasonal
135 energy loads. This allows city managers to calculate a sustainable indicator in a simple way
136 directly from a polynomial expression. In conclusion, the BSI indicator appears as a useful
137 decision making tool in the governance of shallow geothermal energy resources in urban
138 areas. The relationship between the net energy transferred to the aquifer and the thermal
139 impact caused is quantified and adopted as an indicator for GWHP systems. The indicator
140 is not expected to predict real thermal impacts of GWHPs but to reflect the degree of
141 sustainability obtained from simple operation parameters of the installations.

142 **2 Methodology**

143 *2.1 Definition of the BSI indicator*

144 Heating and cooling demand of buildings vary throughout the year [37]. Although this
145 demand is highly variable depending on the dimensions of the building and its uses, in the

146 majority of the cases (except in the equator), seasonality exists, thus conditioning the
 147 thermal demand of buildings. Therefore, GWHP systems operate with different reversible
 148 thermal loads for heating and cooling thorough the year [38]. This feature involves that
 149 GWHPs produce heat dissipation during the hot season using the aquifer as a heat sink, and
 150 heat absorption during the cold season using the aquifer as a heat source [39]. In this work,
 151 it is assumed that the dissipation and absorption periods are 6 months each. According to
 152 Chiasson [40], the energy transferred into the aquifer in the cold and hot seasons are
 153 referred here as heating load ($E_{Heating}$) and cooling load ($E_{Cooling}$), respectively. The heat
 154 net balance throughout a year can be expressed as the ratio of heating and cooling loads
 155 (*HC Ratio*), defined as:

$$156 \begin{cases} HC \text{ Ratio} = 1 - \left(\frac{\text{Log}_{10}(E_{Cooling})}{\text{Log}_{10}(E_{Heating})} \right), E_{Cooling} \geq E_{Heating} \\ HC \text{ Ratio} = 1 - \left(\frac{\text{Log}_{10}(E_{Heating})}{\text{Log}_{10}(E_{Cooling})} \right), E_{Cooling} < E_{Heating} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

157 where $E_{Heating} \geq 1$ and $E_{Cooling} \geq 1$ to ensure division by zero is avoided since logarithms
 158 are involved in the definition. This dimensionless ratio is equal to zero when the GWHP
 159 system is completely balanced. The logarithmic scale of the thermal loads is justified by the
 160 fact that thermal loads present high variability through different orders of magnitude (4
 161 orders of magnitude in this work). The more balanced the thermal load of the GWHP
 162 system into the aquifer is, the more sustainable this installation will be (this concept will be
 163 proved throughout this work). Table I shows the HC ratio calculated for 23 real GWHP
 164 systems studied in previous works [41, 42]. The HC ratio is dimensionless, thus different
 165 installations with different thermal loads but same proportion between seasonal loads
 166 would present the same ratio. If the maximum seasonal thermal load were considered

167 (Table I) for a given HC ratio, a complete operation scenario would be defined in order to
 168 calculate the plausible thermal impact this GWHP system would produce.

169

Groundwater heat pump system	Heating load [MWh]	Cooling load [MWh]	Maximum seasonal thermal load [MWh]	Heating-cooling ratio [-]	BSI simulated [K]	BSI calculated [K]	Error [%]
G-1	4.07E+03	9.34E-01	4.07E+03	0.276	11.276	11.452	1.563
G-2	3.25E+03	8.47E+02	3.25E+03	0.045	6.656	6.659	0.038
G-3	1.92E+03	1.15E+01	1.92E+03	0.173	5.297	5.296	0.011
G-4	1.69E+03	1.97E+02	1.69E+03	0.073	4.132	4.135	0.071
G-5	1.48E+03	1.21E+01	1.48E+03	0.164	4.070	4.068	0.052
G-6	1.71E+03	5.10E+02	1.71E+03	0.041	3.313	3.314	0.033
G-7	9.20E+02	2.11E+01	9.20E+02	0.131	2.489	2.488	0.026
G-8	7.90E+02	1.63E+02	7.90E+02	0.055	1.738	1.738	0.026
G-9	9.52E+02	3.67E+02	9.52E+02	0.033	1.621	1.622	0.021
G-10	8.76E+02	3.49E+02	8.76E+02	0.032	1.460	1.460	0.011
G-11	3.85E+02	0.00E+00	3.85E+02	1.000	1.067	1.051	1.468
G-12	3.46E+02	6.10E+01	3.46E+02	0.062	0.790	0.790	0.011
G-13	1.79E+02	3.79E+01	1.79E+02	0.057	0.390	0.391	0.259
G-14	1.28E+02	4.67E+00	1.28E+02	0.123	0.343	0.344	0.198
G-15	1.09E+02	0.00E+00	1.09E+02	1.000	0.301	0.299	0.553
G-16	3.75E+02	3.02E+02	3.75E+02	0.008	0.201	0.201	0.299
G-17	5.71E+01	0.00E+00	5.71E+01	1.000	0.158	0.157	0.683
G-18	4.39E+01	2.30E-02	4.39E+01	0.293	0.122	0.120	1.438
G-19	1.04E+01	1.43E+01	1.43E+01	0.013	0.011	0.010	7.898
G-20	9.93E+01	1.18E+02	1.18E+02	0.006	0.051	0.052	0.739
G-21	5.16E+01	8.06E+01	8.06E+01	0.017	0.080	0.081	1.674
G-22	4.73E+02	5.35E+02	5.35E+02	0.004	0.171	0.171	0.066
G-23	0.00E+00	6.18E+02	6.18E+02	1.000	1.712	1.673	2.283

170

171 **Table I.** Thermal loads of the 23 GWHP system studied [32] and the parameters required to
 172 calculate BSI index. Absolute errors obtained from validation process is also included.

173

174 In this work, a standard model of reference (synthetic numerical model) was defined in
 175 order to estimate a thermal impact produced by a GWHP working at a given theoretical
 176 operation scenario. The thermal impact produced by each theoretical operation scenario
 177 was related to an index value defined as *Balanced Sustainable Index* (BSI). To establish
 178 this relationship, multiple regression analysis was performed using MATLAB as well as its
 179 Curve Fitting Toolbox [43]. The thermal impact calculated by the standard numerical
 180 model or BSI was considered as the independent variable for a given scenario. This

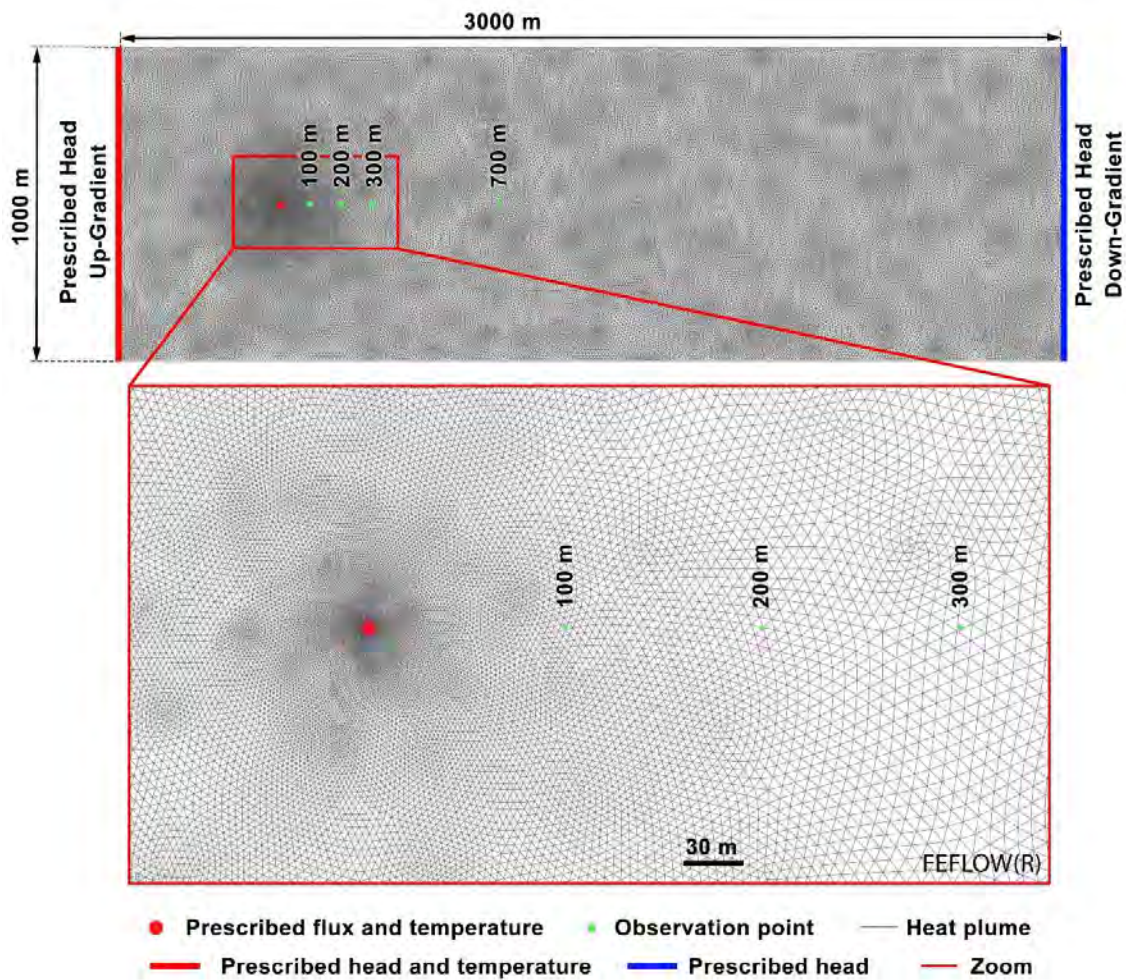
181 scenario could be defined by 2 dependent variables; (1) the HC ratio (equation 1) and (2)
182 the maximum seasonal thermal load (see Table I). Using multiple regression analysis, a
183 polynomial regression model [44] was obtained to predict BSI as a function of the HC ratio
184 and the maximum seasonal thermal load of the GWHP system. This mathematical model
185 allows to obtain BSI without performing any numerical modelling.

186 The BSI of a GWHP system represents the thermal impact of a given operational scenario
187 in a standard model considered as a reference framework. The objective of this index is not
188 to predict the real thermal impact of such scenario since a hydrogeological characterization
189 would be necessary. Instead, this index aims to provide a quantitative value proportional to
190 a potential thermal impact produced in a theoretical standardized model. This approach
191 would allow to compare any GWHP system worldwide in a simple way. The following
192 subsections will describe the standard synthetic model constructed and the operational
193 scenarios considered.

194 *2.2 Standard numerical model of reference*

195 A numerical model using finite element code FEFLOW [45], which allows to simulate the
196 conductive and advective heat transport in porous media, was constructed. The two-
197 dimensional (2D) model represented a 3000 m x 1000 m domain (Fig. 1) dimensioned to
198 provide a simulation period of 10 years without border effects. The modeled domain was
199 discretized into an unstructured finite element mesh with 141624 nodes and 71173
200 triangular elements. The injection well of a GWHP system was implemented by imposing a
201 prescribed flux boundary condition of constant $8 \text{ L} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ inflow (mean injection rate from the
202 23 real GWHP systems studied) to a node located 500 m away from the up-gradient
203 boundary of the model domain. Fixed head or Dirichlet boundary conditions were adopted

204 to the left and the right model boundaries to represent a regional hydraulic gradient of 1.3E-
205 03. The upper and lower boundaries represent a flow line and Neumann boundary condition
206 with null flux. Steady state was assumed for groundwater flow. A transmissivity of 1500
207 $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ were considered, resulting in an averaged Darcy velocity of $0.2 \text{ m} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ for the
208 regional flow. Longitudinal and transversal dispersivities considered were 5 and 0.5 m,
209 respectively, and were assumed to be constant through the domain. A dynamic porosity of
210 0.3 and an aquifer thickness of 10 m were considered. Thermal properties for the whole
211 domain were assumed to be homogeneous. Volumetric heat capacity of water and solid was
212 $4.18\text{E}6$ and $2.52\text{E}6 \text{ J} \cdot \text{m}^3 \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$, respectively, and the thermal conductivity adopted for water
213 and solid was 0.65 and $3 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$, respectively. A uniform initial temperature of 0 K was
214 assigned to the whole domain representing the undisturbed aquifer temperature. A fixed
215 temperature of 0 K was prescribed in nodes of the upgradient boundary condition, and a
216 prescribed transient temperature for the injection well was adopted in the node where
217 prescribed flux was imposed. The prescribed temperatures in the inflow node were updated
218 at each time step according to a time function depending on the GWHP system operational
219 scenario considered (scenarios are described in section 2.3). An automatic time-step control
220 with a maximum time-step size of 1 day was used to perform a 10 year simulation period.



221

222 **Fig. 1.** Figure 1. 2D finite element mesh and boundary conditions used in the standard
 223 numerical model used for the definition of the BSI index.

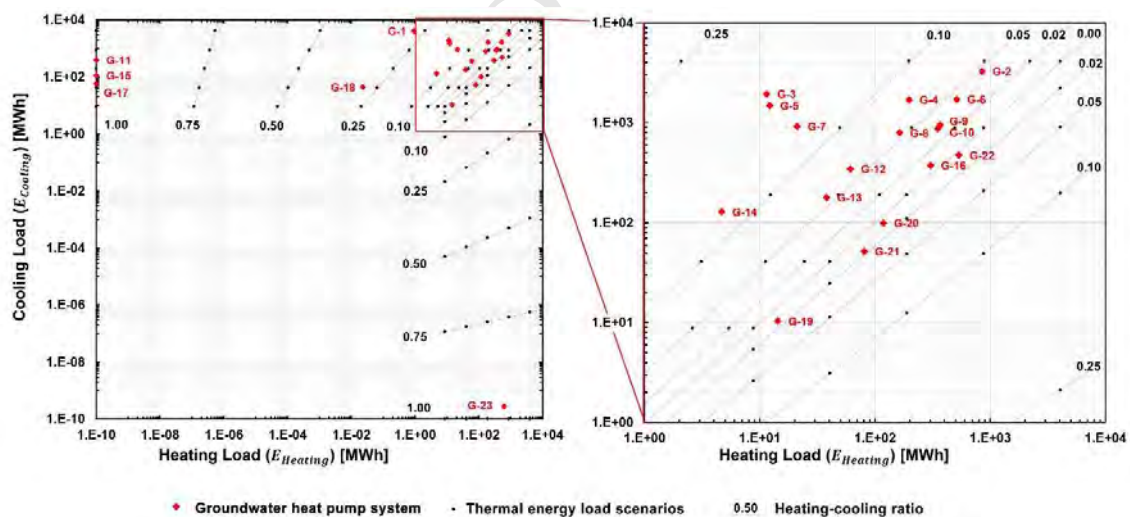
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225 2.3 Heating-cooling scenarios

226 The thermal loads of 23 real GWHP considered in this work (Table I) and the theoretical
 227 scenarios used to cover possible thermal loads are shown in Fig. 2. The scenarios combine
 228 thermal loads of 8.78, 40.77, 189.24, 878.41 and 4077.19 MWh, and HC ratios of ± 1.00 ,
 229 ± 0.75 , ± 0.50 , ± 0.25 , ± 0.10 , ± 0.05 , ± 0.02 and 0, with negative values representing scenarios

230 where heating load is greater than cooling and vice versa. Each scenario is divided in two
 231 operation periods: the first 6-months period is assumed to transfer a heating load to the
 232 aquifer and the following 6-month period considers that a cooling load is transferred to it.
 233 This schedule, defined over a year, is extrapolated over 10 years, which is the period
 234 required to reach a steady state regime for heat transport at distances greater than 600 m
 235 from the injection well. Closer distances respond in a yearly fashion to the seasonal thermal
 236 loads imposed. A total of 75 scenarios (see Fig. 2) were simulated by means of the standard
 237 numerical model described above to evaluate the standardized thermal impact derived from
 238 such scenarios. After the scenario simulations, the thermal impacts generated were
 239 considered as the stationary temperature rise after 10 years of exploitation at 700 m from
 240 the injection point. The justification of this approach will be discussed in section 3.

241



242

243 **Fig. 2.** Thermal energy loads of 23 groundwater heat pump systems from Zaragoza City
 244 [32]. Theoretical thermal energy load scenarios simulated for different heating-cooling
 245 ratios are also shown.

246 *2.4 Validation of BSI indicator*

247 Polynomial regression models derived from numerical modelling results obtained from the
248 75 heating-cooling scenarios were validated against 23 real GWHPs thermal loads. First,
249 BSI of real GWHP systems was calculated using polynomial regression models derived
250 from the real HC ratios and the maximum seasonal thermal loads of these systems (Table
251 I). Then, BSI of the real GWHP systems were obtained from multiple simulations using the
252 standard numerical model as a reference framework. Differences between calculated and
253 simulated BSI values were evaluated as absolute percentage error.

254 *2.5 BSI indicator calculation of a GWHP system*

255 To calculate the BSI indicator, first the HC ratio [-] (equation 1) of the considered GWHP
256 system needs to be calculated. GWHP systems operating in the 0.00 to 0.10 HC ratio range
257 will consider polynomial regression model 1 and those operating in a HC ratio larger than
258 0.10 will be using polynomial regression model 2 (provided in section 3.2). Polynomial
259 regression models will require, in addition to the HC ratio, the maximum seasonal energy
260 load [MWh]. Once the polynomial regression model is chosen, these two variables allow
261 obtaining the BSI indicator automatically in a simple way. A sample spreadsheet is
262 available as Supplementary Data (S1).

263 **3 Results and discussion**

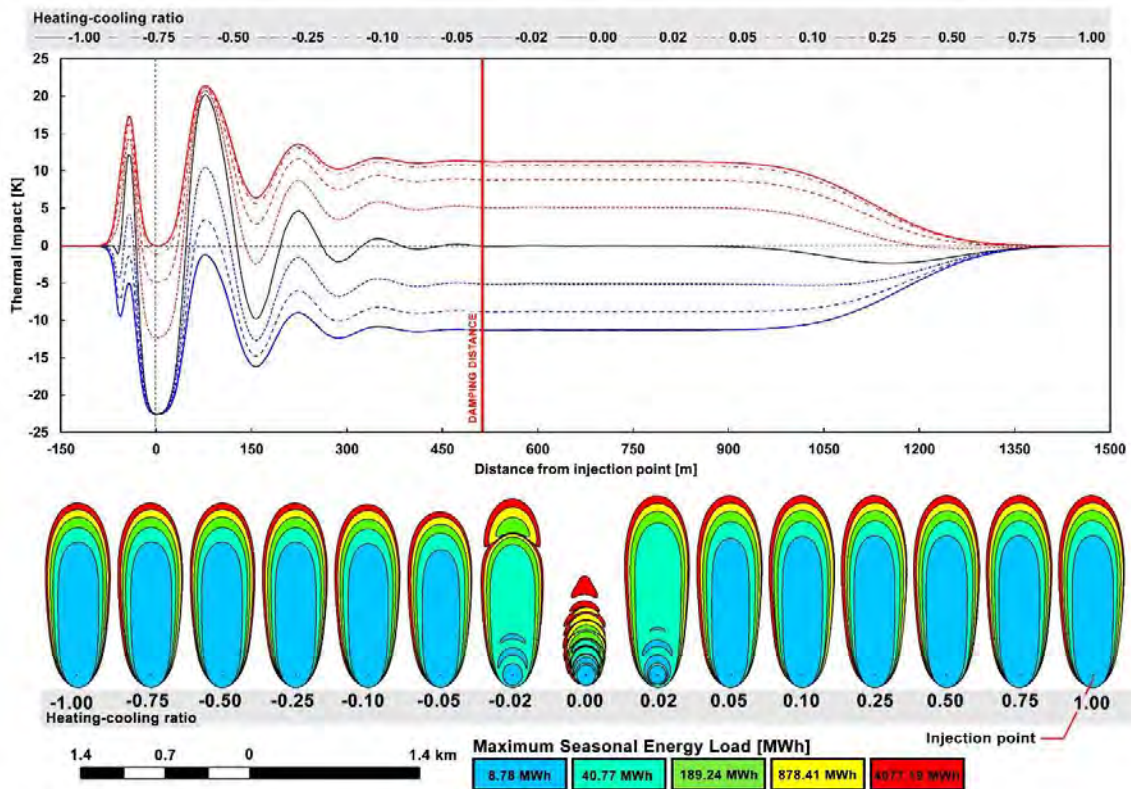
264 *3.1 Results from the simulation of the defined heating-cooling scenarios*

265 The spatial distribution of thermal impacts is shown in Fig. 3. Spatial distribution of
266 thermal impacts show important damping (exponential decrease) with distance from the
267 injection point and parallel to regional groundwater flow. This occurs independently of the
268 HC ratio. At a certain distance from the injection point, the thermal impact decay is

269 constant down to zero. This distance can be termed as *damping distance* and is marked on
270 Fig. 3. The thermal impact achieved in this constant zone is closely related to the HC ratio,
271 becoming zero when the heating load is the same as the cooling load. This effect is also
272 appreciated on the heat plume areas, where they are drastically reduced down to a zero
273 value HC ratio. Furthermore, the reduction of the thermal impact extension over space is
274 very sensible to the HC ratio. From ± 0.10 to ± 1 , this reduction is almost negligible and vice
275 versa. This figure also shows that an increase in the maximum seasonal energy load
276 increases heat plumes more effectively in the zero HC ratio scenarios. In addition, heat
277 plumes produced in scenarios with the same absolute ratio generate very similar spatial
278 thermal impacts but with the opposite sign. Differences arise from the fact that the initial
279 heat pulse is for heating by definition.

280

281



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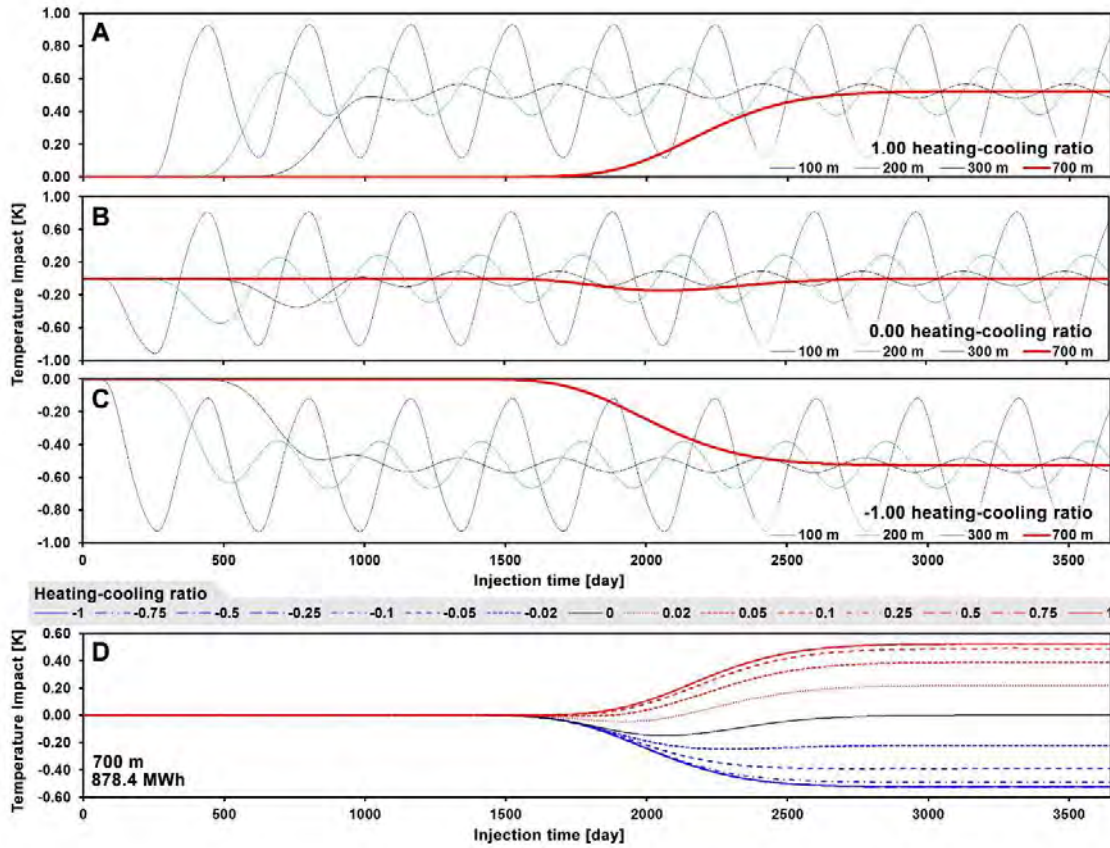
283 **Fig. 3.** Spatial distribution of thermal impacts calculated from the simulation of the 75
 284 heating-cooling scenarios after 10 years of simulation. In the top of the figure, the relative
 285 thermal impact is represented against distance in the x direction from the injection point
 286 parallel to regional groundwater flow. The relative thermal impact is shown for different
 287 heating-cooling ratios and a maximum seasonal energy load of 4077.19 MWh. In the
 288 bottom, the heat plumes extension for a ± 0.01 K increase for the different maximum
 289 seasonal energy loads is shown. Negative values of the heating-cooling represent heating
 290 loads greater than cooling, and vice versa.

291

292 The temporal distribution of thermal impacts at 100, 200, 300 and 700 m from the injection
 293 point and the 878.4 MWh maximum seasonal energy load are provided in Fig. 4. This

294 figure shows that, independently of the HC ratio, the thermal impact derived from seasonal
295 schedule of operation produces a cyclic oscillation of thermal impacts downgradient of the
296 injection point. The amplitude depends clearly on the distance at which the thermal impact
297 is evaluated, showing a clear damping of the oscillation amplitude of the thermograms with
298 distance. Nevertheless, the wavelength is the same for all distances where oscillation is
299 observed but oscillations at different distances present a phase difference (retardation). At a
300 certain distance from the injection point, termed here as damping distance, the oscillation of
301 the thermal impact disappears (Fig. 3) and a non-oscillatory impact is produced. At points
302 beyond the damping distance, the thermal impact rises steadily until reaching a stable
303 thermal impact. Moreover, this stable thermal impact corresponds to the origin axis of
304 oscillation at all distances for a given HC ratio. When the cooling loads are greater than the
305 heating ones (Fig. 4A), the non-oscillatory thermal impact is positive, when the cooling
306 loads are the same as the heating loads, the non-oscillatory thermal impact is zero (Fig. 4B)
307 and, finally, when the cooling loads are lower than the heating loads, the non-oscillatory
308 thermal impact is negative. The relationship between non-oscillatory thermal impacts and
309 HC ratios is shown in Fig. 4D. Symmetry of the non-oscillatory thermal impacts should be
310 noted: if the HC ratio sign is inverted, the non-oscillatory thermal impact will have the
311 same magnitude but with the opposite sign. In consequence, the absolute values of non-
312 oscillatory thermal impacts will be considered hereafter in the discussion. Considering all
313 these facts, it is possible to define the *non-oscillatory thermal impact* as the thermal impact
314 produced beyond the damping distance representative of the thermal imbalance of the
315 GWHP system. Therefore, the non-oscillatory thermal impact derived from a given
316 heating-cooling scenario is a possible approach to describe the sustainability of a GWHP
317 system.

318



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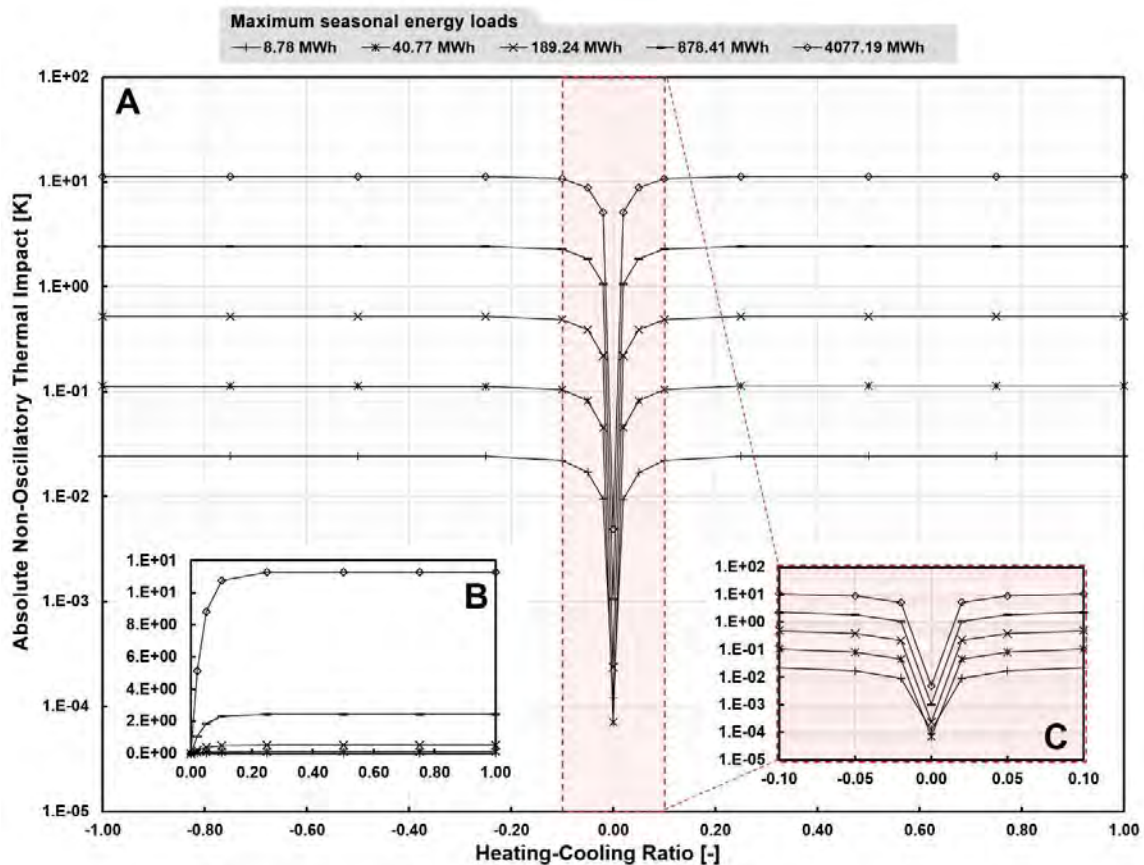
320 **Fig. 4.** Temporal distribution of thermal impacts at 100, 200, 300 and 700 m from the
 321 injection point, 878.4 MWh maximum seasonal energy load and 1.00 (A), 0.00 (B) and -
 322 1.00 (C) heating-cooling ratios. Temporal distribution of thermal impacts at 700 m from
 323 the injection point, 878.4 MWh maximum seasonal energy load and all evaluated heating-
 324 cooling ratios is also shown (D).

325

326 The non-oscillatory thermal impact associated to the 75 heating-cooling scenarios proposed
 327 in this work is shown in Fig. 5A as a function of HC ratios and maximum seasonal energy
 328 loads. It should be mentioned that the non-oscillatory thermal impact increases

329 exponentially with the maximum seasonal energy loads (Fig. 5A). The non-oscillatory
 330 thermal impact is almost independent of the HC ratio in the range of ± 0.10 to ± 1.00 . In
 331 contrast, in the 0 to ± 0.10 range (Fig. 5C), there is a clear thermal impact reduction (as seen
 332 in figures 4 and 5) up to 3 orders of magnitude. The symmetry of the non-oscillatory
 333 thermal impact with respect to the HC ratio allows to consider absolute ratios hereafter. The
 334 sign of the thermal impacts could be directly deduced by comparing heating load and
 335 thermal load.

336



337

338 **Fig. 5.** Absolute non-oscillatory thermal impact associated to the heating-cooling scenarios
 339 for the different maximum seasonal energy loads at a logarithmic scale (A) and non-

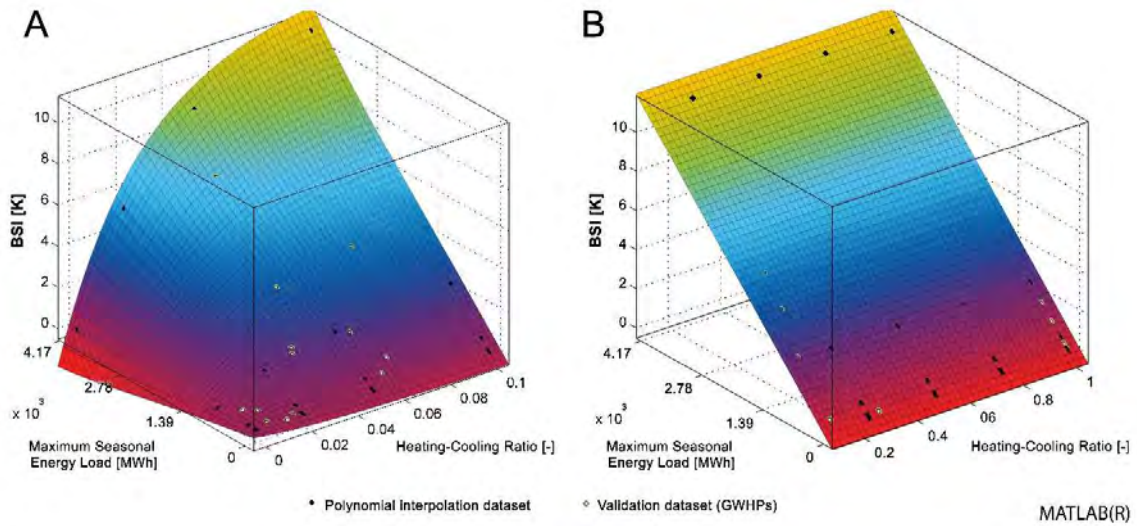
340 logarithmic scale (B). Detailed absolute non-oscillatory thermal impact in the 0 to ± 0.10
341 range is shown (C). Negative values of the heating-cooling represent heating loads greater
342 than cooling, and vice versa.

343

344 *3.2 BSI calculation and validation results*

345 The non-oscillatory thermal impacts were assumed to describe the sustainability of a
346 GWHP and the value of this variable is directly used as the BSI indicator. The regression
347 analysis performed allowed to obtain two polynomial regression models provided in Table
348 II to calculate directly BSI from the HC ratio and the maximum seasonal energy load of any
349 GWHP system. Since an unique polynomial regression model was not able to fit the whole
350 75 scenario dataset, two models were calculated: a polynomial regression model 1 for the
351 0.00 to 0.10 HC ratio range (Fig. 6A) and a second polynomial regression model 2 for a HC
352 ratio equal or greater than 0.10 (Fig. 6B). The goodness of fit is supported by a RMSE of
353 $7.52E-4$ and $1.72E-2$ K for model 1 and 2, respectively. The validation of the polynomial
354 regression models against 23 real GWHP systems showed an error below 8% in all cases,
355 and below 2% in 87% of the data validated. The error is mainly generated by GWHP
356 systems with a HC ratio larger than 0.10. This is explained by the polynomial regression
357 model 2 with the lowest RMSE. The largest error is derived from G-19, which presents a
358 very low HC ratio, close to the balanced regime of operation and the lowest maximum
359 seasonal thermal load. This indicates that the accuracy of the polynomial models proposed
360 is compromised for GWHP systems operating below $1.43E+01$ MWh as the maximum
361 seasonal thermal load, which are the smallest systems. Further analysis on validation results
362 are provided as Supplementary material (S2).

363



364

365 **Fig. 6.** Plots of polynomial regression model 1(A) and 2(B) obtained from the interpolation
 366 of non-oscillatory thermal impacts of the 75 heating-cooling scenarios considered. Non-
 367 oscillatory thermal impacts of the real GWHP systems used for validation are also shown.

368

369

370

Polynomial regression model 1

$$f(x,y) = p00 + p10x + p01y + p20x^2 + p11xy + p02y^2 + p30x^3 + p21x^2y + p12xy^2 + p03y^3 + p40x^4 + p31x^3y + p22x^2y^2 + p13xy^3 + p04y^4 + p50x^5 + p41x^4y + p32x^3y^2 + p23x^2y^3 + p14xy^4 + p05y^5$$

Coefficients

p00	2.814E-04
p10	-3.698E-01
p01	-9.965E-16
p20	1.917E+01
p11	2.126E-11
p02	9.720E-28
p30	-2.790E+02
p21	-2.888E-10
p12	2.652E-25
p03	-1.733E-40
p40	1.254E+02
p31	2.229E-09
p22	-3.606E-24
p13	-1.318E-38
p04	-5.020E-54
p50	1.108E+04
p41	-7.408E-09
p32	1.078E-23
p23	8.558E-38
p14	3.186E-52
p05	8.852E-67

*x = heating-cooling ratio [-]

*y = Maximum seasonal energy loads [J]

Polynomial regression model 2

$$f(x,y) = p00 + p10x + p01y + p20x^2 + p11xy + p02y^2 + p30x^3 + p21x^2y + p12xy^2 + p03y^3 + p40x^4 + p31x^3y + p22x^2y^2 + p13xy^3 + p04y^4 + p50x^5 + p41x^4y + p32x^3y^2 + p23x^2y^3 + p14xy^4$$

Coefficients

p00	-7.132E-02
p10	1.283E+00
p01	6.548E-13
p20	-7.305E+00
p11	8.366E-13
p02	1.364E-26
p30	1.763E+01
p21	-2.172E-12
p12	-4.862E-26
p03	-1.360E-39
p40	-1.876E+01
p31	2.492E-12
p22	2.433E-26
p13	4.294E-39
p04	3.779E-53
p50	7.222E+00
p41	-1.039E-12
p32	7.420E-27
p23	-2.195E-39
p14	-7.063E-53

*x = heating-cooling ratio [-]

*y = Maximum seasonal energy loads [J]

371

372 **Table II.** Polynomial regression model 1(A) and 2(B) obtained from the interpolation of
 373 non-oscillatory thermal impacts of the 75 heating of non-oscillatory thermal impacts of the
 374 75 heating-cooling scenarios considered. Maximum seasonal thermal load were considered
 375 in joules

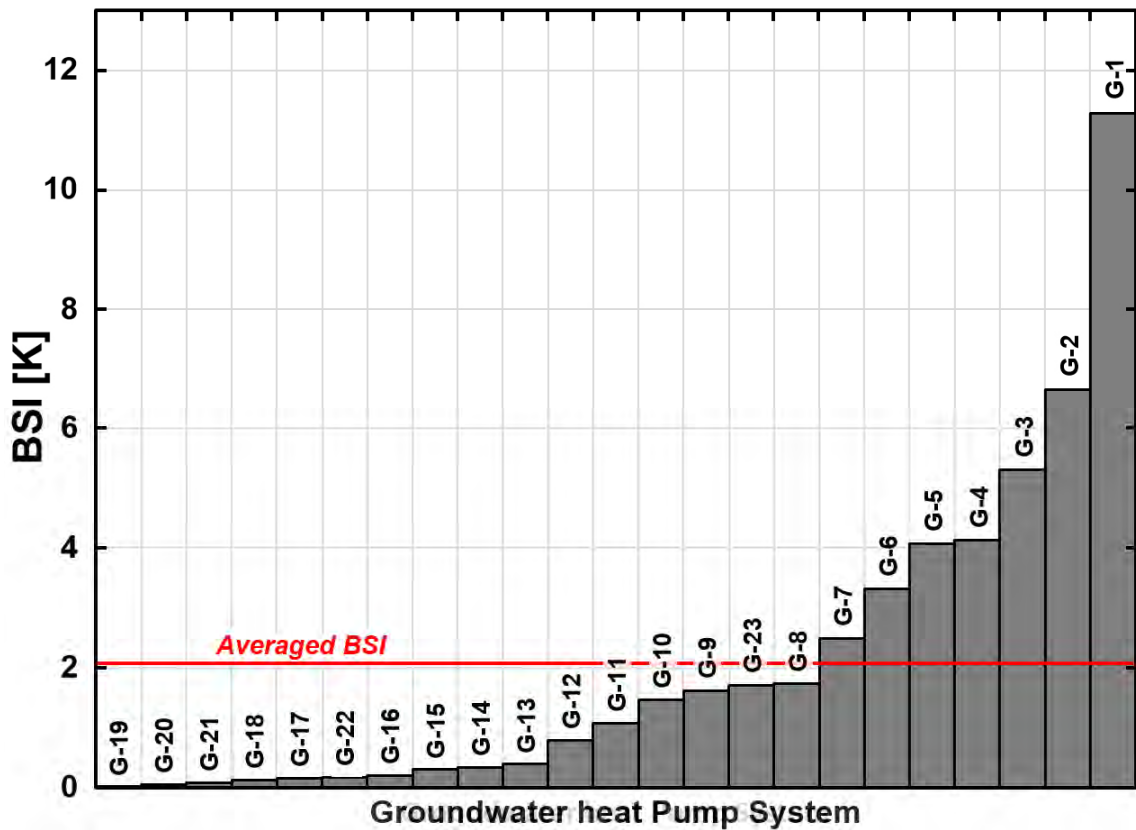
376

377 *3.3 The BSI indicator in shallow geothermal resources management and its limitations*

378 When city managers face the authorization and surveillance of GWHP systems, whether
 379 already existing or expected to operate in the future, they need scientifically-based criteria
 380 to ensure sustainability of their city subsurface energy resources' exploitation. The BSI
 381 indicator provides a first general view of the potential sustainability of the operating
 382 systems. The BSI indicator applied to the GWHP systems of the city of Zaragoza is shown
 383 in Fig. 7. This indicator clearly evidences the different situations in terms of potential
 384 sustainability. G-1 installation is by far the most potentially unsustainable. This installation
 385 would potentially produce, in the standard model of reference proposed, a non-oscillatory

386 thermal impact of 11 K 700 m downgradient. This is not a prediction for the real world
387 since all hydraulic and thermal parameters considered in the standard numerical model are
388 different to those found in each specific real world case. Furthermore, the heating and
389 cooling loads were distributed constantly over 6 months, which is not necessarily the
390 general case. This is a clear limitation of the method. The BSI indicator is not as accurate as
391 if each GWHP system would have a calibrated and validated numerical model associated
392 incorporating all hydrogeological settings and specific operation regimes. However, this
393 limitation can be easily overcome if these realistic numerical models are available to the
394 manager. The BSI indicator could be calculated following the procedure provided in this
395 work, replacing the “standard numerical model of reference” by the specifically adapted
396 one to the local conditions. In this case, the BSI indicator should be named BSIA, i.e.,
397 “*adapted BSI*”. This specific term is required since those indicators would be not
398 comparable worldwide in other urban areas. BSIA would be more reliable for city
399 managers, but they would be no longer normalized by the “standard numerical model of
400 reference” proposed in this work.

401



402

403 **Fig. 7.** BSI indicator applied to the 23 GWHP systems of city of Zaragoza [32].

404

405 Nevertheless, the BSI indicator does provide a reference framework for hydrogeologists
 406 and technicians as a normalized view of the GWHP systems in operation, which is of
 407 importance in order to design geothermal monitoring networks or prioritize specific local
 408 studies investigating the potential thermal interferences between systems. The BSI indicator
 409 can also be calculated for yet to be constructed GWHP systems, thus providing city
 410 managers with an idea of the appropriateness of emplacing a given projected installation in
 411 a given area. In the case study provided, G-1 system should be considered for control, by
 412 means of installation monitoring or downgradient monitoring by the construction of a

413 piezometer if aquifer monitoring is planned, especially if there are GWHP systems
414 downgradient. The same treatment should be considered for G-2, G-3, G-4, G-5, G-6 and
415 G-7, establishing a priority proportional to magnitude of the BSI indicator. On the other
416 hand, G-19, G-20, G-21, G-18, G-17, G-22, G-16, G-15, G-14 and G-13 are relatively well-
417 balanced installations. In addition, when a group of installations present similar BSI
418 indicators, the HC ratio could be additionally considered (Table I). E.g., G-22 presents a
419 larger maximum thermal load than that of G-22, but the latter has a smaller BSI, due to G-
420 22 having a lower HC ratio, i.e., G-22 installation is better thermally-balanced. Therefore,
421 G-22 is potentially using more efficiently the city shallow geothermal energy resources.
422 These examples demonstrate the usefulness of the BSI indicator as an objective tool to
423 reinforce effective and sustainable installations. Nevertheless, this indicator needs to be
424 complemented with other indicators relative to real thermal impacts produced in the
425 groundwater body managed to verify the possible risk of thermal interferences and other
426 possible conflicts. The IRF indicator [36] showing the real accumulated thermal impacts in
427 pumping wells of GWHP systems and the piezometers from geothermal monitoring
428 networks, combined with the BSI indicator proposed would complete the cause-effect
429 relationship between the GWHPs systems and the urban subsurface environment.
430 Moreover, if a downgradient installation's IRF (IRF_{down}) is compared to the corresponding
431 upgradient installation's BSI (BSI_{up}), this could provide a *Thermal Interference*
432 *Sustainability (TIS)* indicator between installations, given by the following expression:

$$433 \quad TIS = BSI_{up} \cdot IRF_{down}$$

434 (1)

435 The greater the thermal interference generated (greater IRF_{down}) by an unsustainable
436 GWHP system (greater BSI_{up}), the more unsustainable this situation would be and the
437 more attention it would need from city managers. Other application of the BSI indicator is
438 comparing GWHP systems between different case studies or assigning a mean BSI for the
439 city considered. For the urban aquifer of Zaragoza, this mean BSI would be 2.07 K (Fig. 7).
440 Moreover, this indicator could be updated every year to monitor the evolution of the
441 systems and to validate the efficiency of the actions taken against the unsustainable use of
442 shallow geothermal resources such as financial incentives or other support tools/flanking
443 measures to boost the development of these renewable technologies [2]. Finally, it is to be
444 highlighted that the BSI indicator is not an end-solution to shallow geothermal resources
445 management in cities. It provides an objective criteria to establish/design geothermal
446 monitoring programs to control thermal impacts and to develop city-scale numerical
447 groundwater and heat transport models [30, 31] that would finally provide city managers
448 with the real thermal state of the aquifer [46] and possible exploitation-remediation
449 scenarios [32, 35].

450 **4 Conclusions**

451 The present investigation has proposed a novel indicator for city managers to face the
452 characterization of managed GWHP systems in terms of potential intrinsic sustainability.
453 After the definition of the indicator and the discussion of its applicability and limitations,
454 the following conclusions can be highlighted: (1) The BSI indicator provides a first general
455 view of the potential sustainability of the operating systems from a quantitative perspective
456 by making use of simple installation operational parameters. (2) The indicator provides a
457 reference framework for hydrogeologists and technicians in order to harmonize thermal
458 impacts of GWHP systems. This allows comparing intrinsic potential sustainability of these
459 systems independently of the hydrogeological conditions worldwide. Therefore, the
460 indicator has no capability to predict real thermal impacts of a GWHP. However, it does
461 provide the standardized thermal impact under normalized conditions without performing
462 any numerical modelling. (3) The validation of the polynomial regression models
463 underpinning the BSI indicator showed an error below 8% for all the data validated, thus
464 ensuring the accuracy of the BSI indicator for GWHP systems operating with maximum
465 seasonal thermal load in the range of $1.43E+01$ to $4.17E+03$ MWh. (4) The BSI indicator
466 applied to 23 real GWHP systems evidences its usefulness in the identification of different
467 groups of installations that deserve different management policies to prevent plausible
468 thermal interferences. (5) The design of geothermal monitoring networks could make use of
469 the BSI indicator to focus control and prioritize specific areas where potential unsustainable
470 systems are located. This would target monitoring efforts to efficiently prevent thermal
471 interference between systems.

472 Finally, this indicator is not an end-solution to shallow geothermal energy management of
473 urban groundwater bodies. It can be considered as a first step in the roadmap of establishing
474 city-scale management policies for shallow geothermal energy. The potential intrinsic
475 sustainability evaluation of a GWHP system using the BSI indicator could provide the
476 administrators with an objective tool to design geothermal monitoring programs required to
477 develop complex decision-support models based on numerical modeling. Further
478 developments of the BSI indicator include its complementation with other indicators
479 relative to real thermal impacts produced in the aquifer managed to verify the possible risk
480 of thermal interferences and other possible conflicts.

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486 strategies of geothermal installations in the city of Zaragoza”. Alejandro García-Gil
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488

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601

602 **Figure and Table captions**

603 **Fig. 1.** Figure 1. 2D finite element mesh and boundary conditions used in the standard
604 numerical model used for the definition of the BSI index.

605 **Fig. 2.** Thermal energy loads of 23 groundwater heat pump systems from Zaragoza City
606 [32]. Theoretical thermal energy load scenarios simulated for different heating-cooling
607 ratios are also shown.

608 **Fig. 3.** Spatial distribution of thermal impacts calculated from the simulation of the 75
609 heating-cooling scenarios after 10 years of simulation. In the top of the figure, the relative
610 thermal impact is represented against distance in the x direction from the injection point
611 parallel to regional groundwater flow. The relative thermal impact is shown for different
612 heating-cooling ratios and a maximum seasonal energy load of 4077.19 MWh. In the
613 bottom, the heat plumes extension for a ± 0.01 K increase for the different maximum
614 seasonal energy loads is shown. Negative values of the heating-cooling represent heating
615 loads greater than cooling, and vice versa.

616 **Fig. 4.** Temporal distribution of thermal impacts at 100, 200, 300 and 700 m from the
617 injection point, 878.4 MWh maximum seasonal energy load and 1.00 (A), 0.00 (B) and -

618 1.00 (C) heating-cooling ratios. Temporal distribution of thermal impacts at 700 m from
619 the injection point, 878.4 MWh maximum seasonal energy load and all evaluated heating-
620 cooling ratios is also shown (D).

621 **Fig. 5.** Absolute non-oscillatory thermal impact associated to the heating-cooling scenarios
622 for the different maximum seasonal energy loads at a logarithmic scale (A) and non-
623 logarithmic scale (B). Detailed absolute non-oscillatory thermal impact in the 0 to ± 0.10
624 range is shown (C). Negative values of the heating-cooling represent heating loads greater
625 than cooling, and vice versa.

626 **Fig. 6.** Plots of polynomial regression model 1(A) and 2(B) obtained from the interpolation
627 of non-oscillatory thermal impacts of the 75 heating-cooling scenarios considered. Non-
628 oscillatory thermal impacts of the real GWHP systems used for validation are also shown.

629 **Fig. 7.** BSI indicator applied to the 23 GWHP systems of city of Zaragoza [32].

630 **Table I.** Thermal loads of the 23 GWHP system studied [32] and the parameters required to
631 calculate BSI index. Absolute errors obtained from validation process is also included.

632 **Table II.** Polynomial regression model 1(A) and 2(B) obtained from the interpolation of
633 non-oscillatory thermal impacts of the 75 heating of non-oscillatory thermal impacts of the
634 75 heating-cooling scenarios considered. Maximum seasonal thermal load were considered
635 in joules.

636

Groundwater heat pump system	Heating load [MWh]	Cooling load [MWh]	Maximum seasonal thermal load [MWh]	Heating-cooling ratio [-]	BSI simulated [K]	BSI calculated [K]	Error [%]
G-1	4.07E+03	9.34E-01	4.07E+03	0.276	11.276	11.452	1.563
G-2	3.25E+03	8.47E+02	3.25E+03	0.045	6.656	6.659	0.038
G-3	1.92E+03	1.15E+01	1.92E+03	0.173	5.297	5.296	0.011
G-4	1.69E+03	1.97E+02	1.69E+03	0.073	4.132	4.135	0.071
G-5	1.48E+03	1.21E+01	1.48E+03	0.164	4.070	4.068	0.052
G-6	1.71E+03	5.10E+02	1.71E+03	0.041	3.313	3.314	0.033
G-7	9.20E+02	2.11E+01	9.20E+02	0.131	2.489	2.488	0.026
G-8	7.90E+02	1.63E+02	7.90E+02	0.055	1.738	1.738	0.026
G-9	9.52E+02	3.67E+02	9.52E+02	0.033	1.621	1.622	0.021
G-10	8.76E+02	3.49E+02	8.76E+02	0.032	1.460	1.460	0.011
G-11	3.85E+02	0.00E+00	3.85E+02	1.000	1.067	1.051	1.468
G-12	3.46E+02	6.10E+01	3.46E+02	0.062	0.790	0.790	0.011
G-13	1.79E+02	3.79E+01	1.79E+02	0.057	0.390	0.391	0.259
G-14	1.28E+02	4.67E+00	1.28E+02	0.123	0.343	0.344	0.198
G-15	1.09E+02	0.00E+00	1.09E+02	1.000	0.301	0.299	0.553
G-16	3.75E+02	3.02E+02	3.75E+02	0.008	0.201	0.201	0.299
G-17	5.71E+01	0.00E+00	5.71E+01	1.000	0.158	0.157	0.683
G-18	4.39E+01	2.30E-02	4.39E+01	0.293	0.122	0.120	1.438
G-19	1.04E+01	1.43E+01	1.43E+01	0.013	0.011	0.010	7.898
G-20	9.93E+01	1.18E+02	1.18E+02	0.006	0.051	0.052	0.739
G-21	5.16E+01	8.06E+01	8.06E+01	0.017	0.080	0.081	1.674
G-22	4.73E+02	5.35E+02	5.35E+02	0.004	0.171	0.171	0.066
G-23	0.00E+00	6.18E+02	6.18E+02	1.000	1.712	1.673	2.283

Polynomial regression model 1

$$f(x,y) = p00 + p10x + p01y + p20x^2 + p11xy + p02y^2 + p30x^3 + p21x^2y + p12xy^2 + p03y^3 + p40x^4 + p31x^3y + p22x^2y^2 + p13xy^3 + p04y^4 + p50x^5 + p41x^4y + p32x^3y^2 + p23x^2y^3 + p14xy^4 + p05y^5$$

Coefficients

p00	2.814E-04
p10	-3.698E-01
p01	-9.965E-16
p20	1.917E+01
p11	2.126E-11
p02	9.720E-28
p30	-2.790E+02
p21	-2.888E-10
p12	2.652E-25
p03	-1.733E-40
p40	1.254E+02
p31	2.229E-09
p22	-3.606E-24
p13	-1.318E-38
p04	-5.020E-54
p50	1.108E+04
p41	-7.408E-09
p32	1.078E-23
p23	8.558E-38
p14	3.186E-52
p05	8.852E-67

*x = heating-cooling ratio [-]

*y = Maximum seasonal energy loads [J]

Polynomial regression model 2

$$f(x,y) = p00 + p10x + p01y + p20x^2 + p11xy + p02y^2 + p30x^3 + p21x^2y + p12xy^2 + p03y^3 + p40x^4 + p31x^3y + p22x^2y^2 + p13xy^3 + p04y^4 + p50x^5 + p41x^4y + p32x^3y^2 + p23x^2y^3 + p14xy^4$$

Coefficients

p00	-7.132E-02
p10	1.283E+00
p01	6.548E-13
p20	-7.305E+00
p11	8.366E-13
p02	1.364E-26
p30	1.763E+01
p21	-2.172E-12
p12	-4.862E-26
p03	-1.360E-39
p40	-1.876E+01
p31	2.492E-12
p22	2.433E-26
p13	4.294E-39
p04	3.779E-53
p50	7.222E+00
p41	-1.039E-12
p32	7.420E-27
p23	-2.195E-39
p14	-7.063E-53

*x = heating-cooling ratio [-]

*y = Maximum seasonal energy loads [J]

Highlights

- An indicator for the management of open-loop geothermal systems is proposed
- Scientifically-based criteria to prevent thermal interferences are provided
- The indicator is applied to 23 groundwater heat pump systems