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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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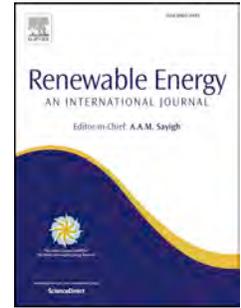
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**31 Abstract**

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 (CO<sub>2</sub>) [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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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

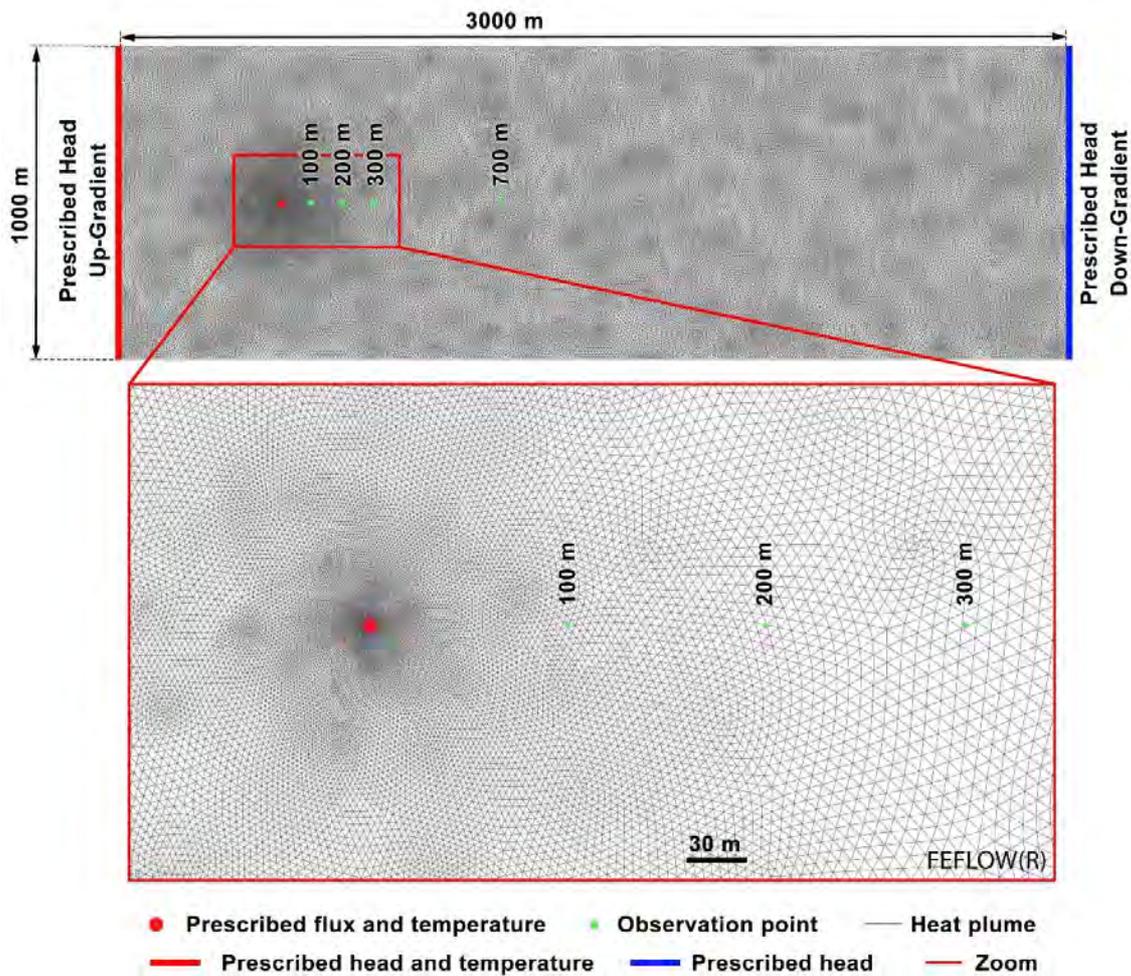
181 scenario could be defined by 2 dependent variables; (1) the HC ratio (equation 1) and (2)  
182 the maximum seasonal thermal load (see Table I). Using multiple regression analysis, a  
183 polynomial regression model [44] was obtained to predict BSI as a function of the HC ratio  
184 and the maximum 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.

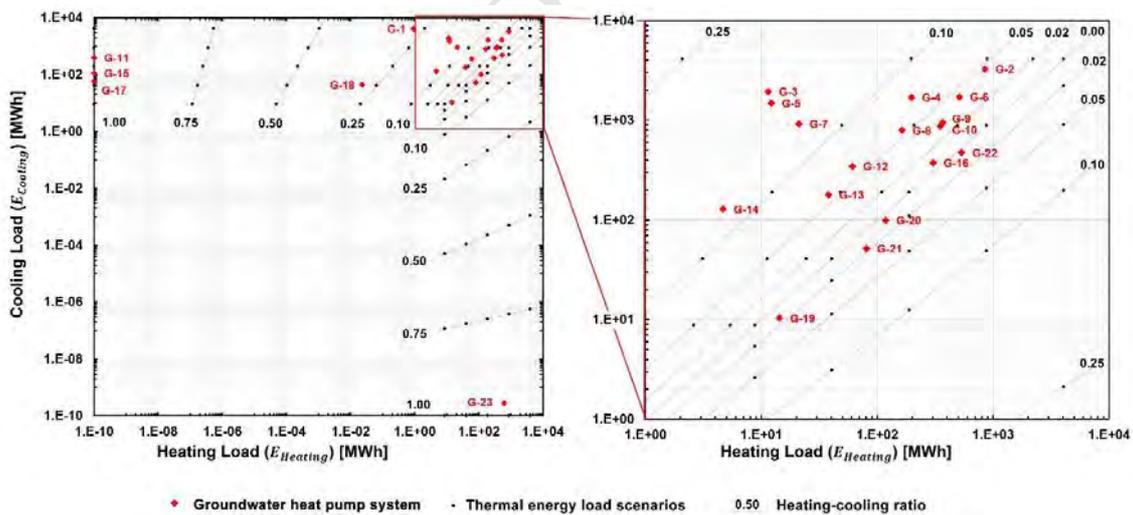
224

### 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  $\pm 1.00$ ,  
 229  $\pm 0.75$ ,  $\pm 0.50$ ,  $\pm 0.25$ ,  $\pm 0.10$ ,  $\pm 0.05$ ,  $\pm 0.02$  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**

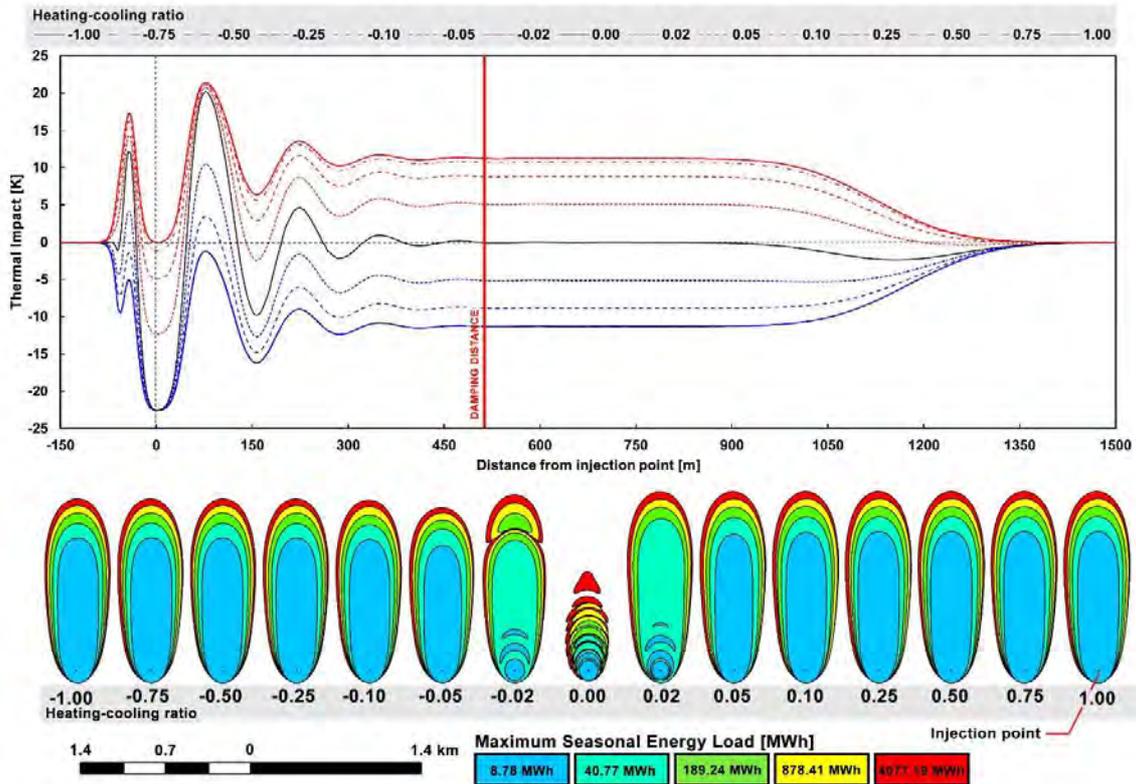
#### 264 *3.1 Results from the simulation of the defined heating-cooling scenarios*

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  $\pm 0.10$  to  $\pm 1$ , 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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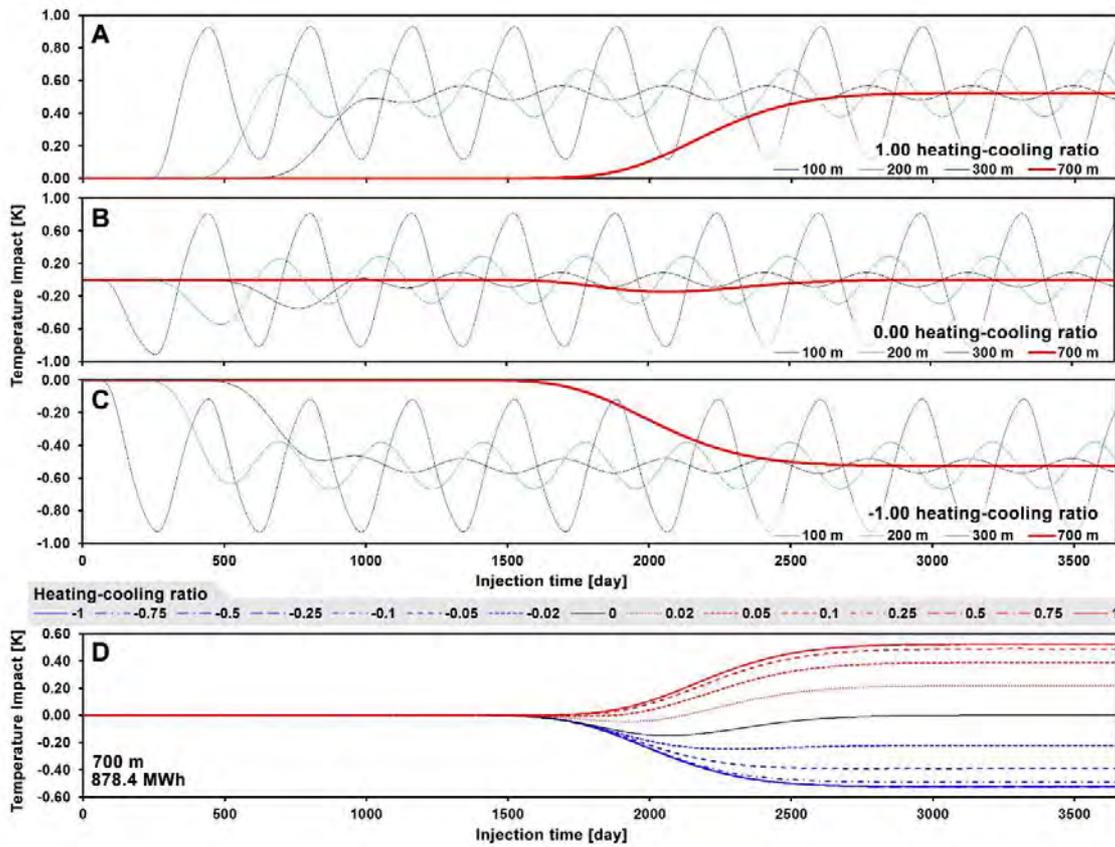
283 **Fig. 3.** Spatial distribution of thermal impacts calculated from the simulation of the 75  
 284 heating-cooling scenarios after 10 years of simulation. In the top of the figure, the relative  
 285 thermal impact is represented against distance in the  $x$  direction from the injection point  
 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  $\pm 0.01$  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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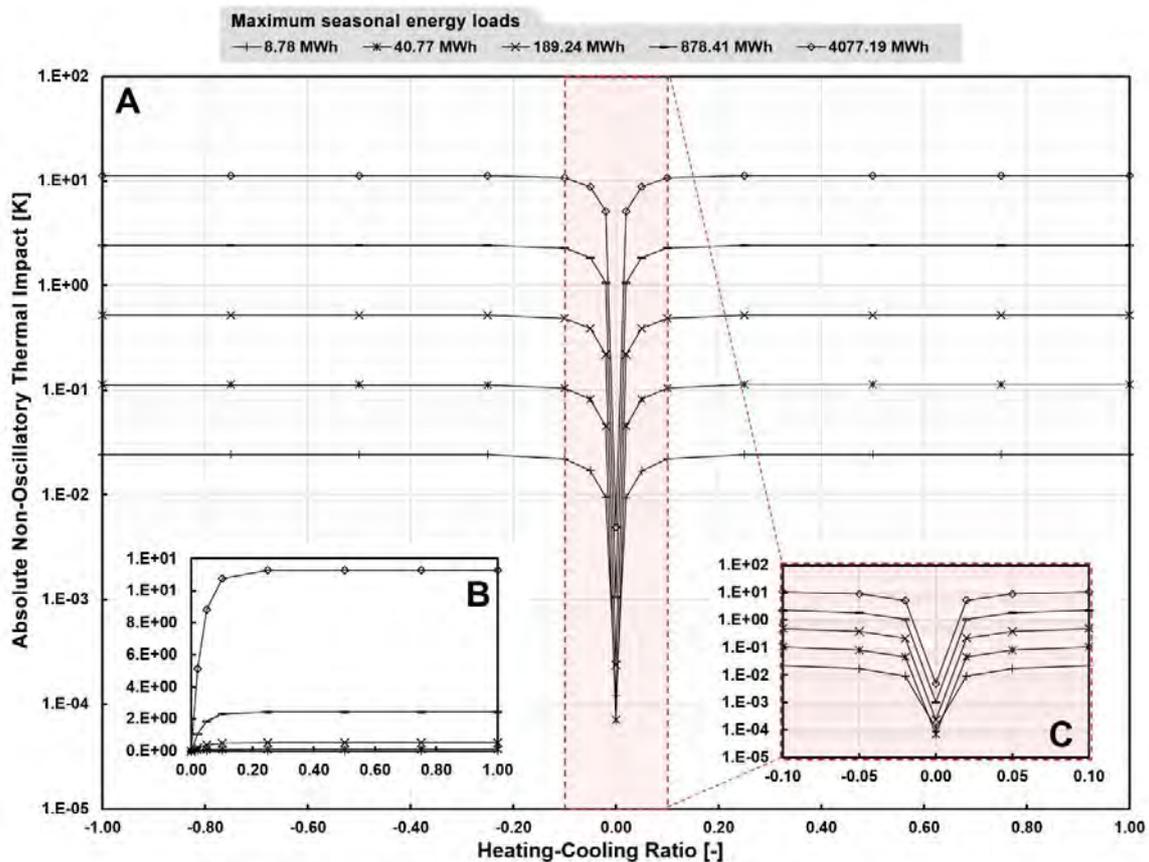
320 **Fig. 4.** Temporal distribution of thermal impacts at 100, 200, 300 and 700 m from the  
 321 injection point, 878.4 MWh maximum seasonal energy load and 1.00 (A), 0.00 (B) and -  
 322 1.00 (C) heating-cooling ratios. Temporal distribution of thermal impacts at 700 m from  
 323 the injection 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  $\pm 0.10$  to  $\pm 1.00$ . In  
 331 contrast, in the 0 to  $\pm 0.10$  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-

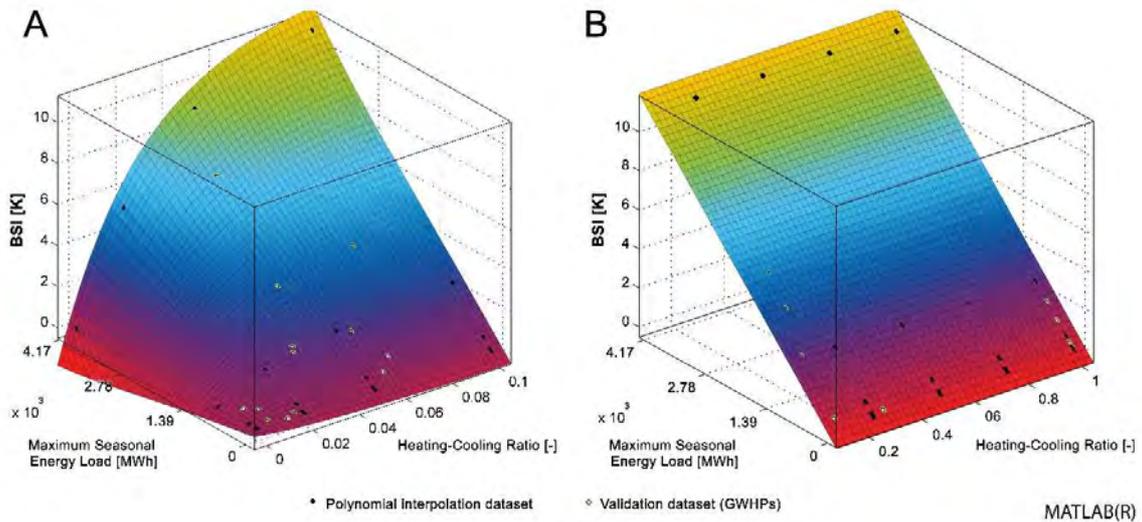
340 logarithmic scale (B). Detailed absolute non-oscillatory thermal impact in the 0 to  $\pm 0.10$   
341 range is shown (C). Negative values of the heating-cooling represent heating loads greater  
342 than cooling, and vice versa.

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

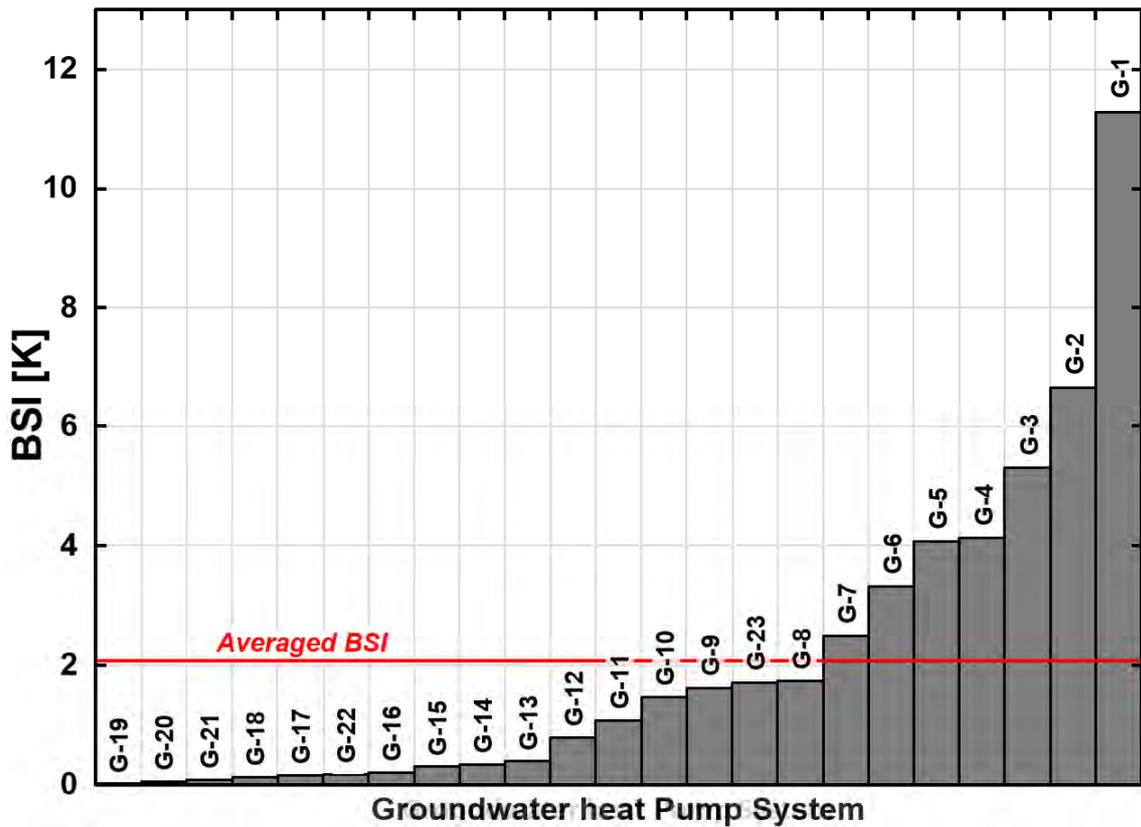
376

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.

## 481 **5. Acknowledgments**

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483 Cooperation Agreement framework between IGME and the Ebro Hydrographic  
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485 groundwater flow and heat transport numerical model for the simulation of management  
486 strategies of geothermal installations in the city of Zaragoza”. Alejandro García-Gil  
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488

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600

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  $\pm 0.01$  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  $\pm 0.10$   
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