Evaluation of geochemical and hydrogeological processes by

2	geochemical modeling in an area affected by evaporite karstification
3	P. Acero ^{a,1,*} , L. F. Auqué ^a , J. P. Galve ^a , F. Gutiérrez ^a , D. Carbonel ^a , M. J. Gimeno ^a , Y.
4	Yechieli ^b , M.P. Asta ^{a,c} and J. B. Gómez ^a
5	^a Earth Sciences Department, University of Zaragoza, c/ Pedro Cerbuna 12, 50009,
6	Zaragoza, Spain.
7	^b Geological Survey of Israel, 30 Malkhei Israel Street, Jerusalem 95501, Israel and
8	Department of Environmental Hydrology & Microbiology, Zuckerberg Institute for
9	Water Research, Blaustein Institutes for Desert Studies, Ben Gurion University of the
10	Negev, Sede Boqer, Israel.
11	^c Instituto Andaluz de Ciencias de la Tierra (IACT) (CSIC-UGR), Avda. de las
12	Palmeras, 4; 18100 Armilla, Granada, Spain.
13	¹ Present address: Earth and Planetary Science Department, Birkbeck, University of
14	London, Malet Street, WC1E 7HX London, United Kingdom.
15	*corresponding author: patri.acero@gmail.com . Tel: +34 976 761067 /
16	+447851946528/ Fax: +34 976 761106.
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22 Abstract

A combination of inverse (mixing + mass-balance) and forward (reaction-path) geochemical calculations is applied for the quantification of the main processes and seasonal variations in an area severely affected by evaporite karstification (Ebro Valley in the outskirts of Zaragoza city; NE Spain). The obtained results prove the suitability of the applied methodology to the characterisation of similar problems in other areas with scarce geological and hydrogeological information. The hydrogeology and hydrochemistry of the system can be mainly attributed to the mixing of variable proportions of concentrated groundwater from the evaporitic aquifer and more dilute water from the overlying alluvial aguifer. The existence of a good connection between these aquifers is supported by: 1) the fast changes in the hydrochemistry of the karst aguifer to recharge by irrigation, and 2) the deduced input of evaporitic groundwater in the alluvial materials. The evolution in some parts of the alluvial/evaporitic aguifer system is clearly dominated by the seasonal variations in the recharge by dilute irrigation waters (up to 95% of water volume in some sinkhole ponds), whereas other points seem to be clearly determined by the hydrochemistry of the concentrated evaporitic aquifer groundwater (up to 50% of the water volume in some springs). The following reactions, previous or superimposed to mixing processes, explain the observed hydrochemistry in the studied area: dissolution of halite (NaCl), gypsum (CaSO₄·2H₂O)/anhydrite (CaSO₄) and dolomite (CaMg(CO₃)₂), CO₂(g) input and degassing and calcite (CaCO₃) dissolution/precipitation. The modeling results suggest the existence of a large spatial variability in the composition of the evaporitic groundwater, mainly caused by large differences in the availability of halite in contact with the groundwater.

- 47 Active subsidence associated with halite dissolution is expected to continue in the study
- area, together with the episodic increase of gypsum dissolution associated with the input
- of dilute irrigation waters.
- 50 **Keywords:** hydrochemistry, mixing, sinkholes, mass-balance calculations.

1- INTRODUCTION

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In karst terrains, subsurface dissolution of carbonate and/or evaporitic materials by groundwater may lead to the gravitational instability and internal erosion of the overlying sediments, eventually resulting in the settlement of the ground surface (e.g. Waltham et al., 2005; Gutiérrez, 2010). This subsidence hazard may constitute a significant limitation for development and may lead to high risk scenarios in areas with human structures and activities, causing significant direct and indirect economic losses (Gutiérrez et al., 2008a). Mitigating the sinkhole risk in a cost-effective way requires a detailed knowledge on the processes and factors involved in karstification. Among other features, the mineralogy, hydrochemistry and hydrogeology of the target areas need to be well-known in order to understand the processes leading to sinkhole development (Lamont-Black et al., 2002). However, a drawback commonly encountered for the detailed characterization of these types of processes in many evaporite karst systems is the scarcity of appropriate boreholes providing direct information from the target geologic materials and the associated groundwater. In order to overcome this limitation, a cost-effective approach that can be applied to infer a general hydrogeological model and the associated geochemical processes, including karstification, is the analysis of hydrochemical information and geochemical calculations. This methodology has been extensively applied in many karst aquifers aimed at identifying flow patterns, calculating mixing ratios, identifying geochemical reactions along groundwater flow-paths and pinpointing hydraulic connections between aquifers. Nevertheless, the vast majority of earlier works dealing with karst hydrogeology and geochemistry have been carried out in carbonate aquifers (Plummer

76 et al., 1990; Lee and Krothe, 2001; López-Chicano et al., 2001; Uliana and Sharp, 2001; Wang and Luo, 2001; Aquilina et al., 2003, 2005, 2006 and references therein; 77 78 Barbieri et al., 2005; Tuccimei et al., 2005; Moral et al., 2008; Augué et al., 2009; Moore et al., 2009; Belkhiri et al., 2010; Dassi, 2011; Barberá and Andreo, 2012 and 79 references therein; Bicalho et al., 2012; Carucci et al., 2012; Huang and Chen, 2012 and 80 81 references therein; Wong et al., 2012; Markovic et al., 2013; Xie et al., 2013), whereas 82 the works focused on evaporite karst systems are much more scarce (Kaçaroglu et al., 2001; Günay, 2002; Land, 2003; Lamont-Black et al., 2005; Yechieli et al., 2006; 83 84 Omelon et al., 2006; Chiesi et al., 2010; Fidelibus et al., 2011; Apaydin and Aktas, 2012). Moreover, in spite of the large potential of mass-balance and reaction-path 85 geochemical calculations to shed light on the hydrogeological and geochemical 86 processes in karst systems, this methodology has not been applied, to our knowledge, to 87 any evaporite karst system. 88 Thus, the main goal of this study is to explore the practicality of hydrochemical data 89 and the application of geochemical modeling to quantify the relative importance of the 90 91 different processes involved in evaporite karstification and to assess the role of their seasonal variations. This approach has been applied to a stretch of the Ebro Valley 92 alluvial evaporite karst, including Zaragoza city (NE Spain). Even though this is one of 93 94 the areas in the world where subsidence risk related to evaporite dissolution has the greatest economic impact (Gutiérrez et al., 2008a; Galve et al., 2009) and where more 95 studies on evaporite karst subsidence have been published (Gutiérrez et al., 2007, 96 2008a; Castañeda et al., 2009; Galve et al., 2009; Guerrero et al., 2013), a detailed 97 98 assessment of the hydrogeochemical and hydrogeological processes behind these highly hazardous phenomena has not been carried out yet. The interpretation of modeling 99 results will allow identifying differences in the hydrogeology and mineralogy of 100

- different portions of the studied system and some of the main current uncertainties
 about the Ebro Valley alluvial evaporite karst.
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2- STUDY AREA

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2.1- Geological setting and climate

The studied area is a 60 km-long reach of the Ebro River valley located in the central sector of the Ebro Tertiary Basin (NE Spain), which constitutes the southern foreland basin of the Pyrenees (Fig. 1). In this section of the Ebro Valley, the river has been carved in subhorizontally lying evaporites of the Oligo-Miocene Zaragoza Formation (Quirantes, 1978, Ortí and Salvany, 1997). In the subsurface, the formation is primarily composed of anhydrite (CaSO₄)/gypsum (CaSO₄·2H₂O), halite (NaCl) and glauberite (Na₂Ca(SO₄)₂), with interlayered marls and lutites including calcite (CaCO₃), dolomite (CaMg(CO₃)₂) and quartz (SiO₂) (Salvany et al., 2007 and references therein; Guerrero et al., 2008a,b, 2013). In outcrop, the evaporitic succession exhibits around 300 m of laminated and nodular secondary gypsum derived from the hydration of anhydrite or from the replacement of glauberite. The evaporitic formation changes laterally into impervious and insoluble clay facies, which probably act as a hydrogeological barrier for the evaporite karst aguifer in the eastern (downstream) sector of the studied area (Fig. 1b). In the studied reach of the valley, the terrace and pediment deposits overlying the evaporitic materials may reach 80 m in thickness and fill basins several kilometers long generated by dissolution-induced synsedimentary subsidence (Guerrero et al., 2013) and references therein). These alluvial deposits mainly consist of gravels dominated by siliciclastic and carbonate pebbles with a sand-silt matrix, commonly cemented by carbonates.

(insert here Figure 1)

Sinkholes derived from the karstification of the evaporitic materials are a common geomorphological feature in the area. Some sinkholes in the valley bottom are

permanently filled with water (Fig. 2) and, therefore, may provide information on the hydrochemical and hydrogeological features of the alluvial-karst aquifer system.

(insert here Figure 2)

The climate in this region is Mediterranean with strong continental influence, characterized by hot summers and cold winters. The mean monthly temperature ranges from 9 °C to 21°C (Ninyerola *et al.*, 2005). The average annual precipitation in the Zaragoza area is around 340 mm and it shows a considerable inter-annual variability. A significant proportion of the precipitation corresponds to intense, short-duration convective storms that commonly occur in spring and autumn. The year 2011, corresponding to the sampling campaign specifically carried out for this study, showed a total precipitation of 315 mm, indicating a slightly dryer year in relation to the average. The mean annual reference evapotranspiration in Ebro Valley exceeds 1150 mm, indicating a negative water balance of more than 800 mm and, therefore, a climate characterized by semiarid conditions (Diputación General de Aragón, 2007).

2.2- Hydrogeology

Two main interconnected aquifers can be identified in the study area: (1) the alluvial aquifer, composed by the alluvium underlying the valley bottom and the associated terrace deposits at the valley margins; (2) the karst aquifer developed in the evaporitic bedrock. The effluent Ebro River and the associated valley bottom alluvium acts as the base level for the alluvial-karst aquifer system and the general flow direction in the alluvial aquifer is developed towards the river (Fig. 1). The largest proportion of water input to the system in the studied stretch of the valley is anthropogenic induced recharge in the urban area of Zaragoza and irrigation, which represents more than 90% of the groundwater input (Durán *et al.*, 2005). The main irrigation sources are the Ebro River,

the Imperial Canal and the Urdana ditch (Fig. 1a and b). Irrigation processes are the main cause of the seasonal variations in the water table, which may rise several meters by the end of the irrigation season (around September), when the river flow is commonly low.

Although the hydrogeological information about the evaporite karst aquifer is scarce, multiple lines of evidence suggest that it has a considerable permeability due to dissolution processes (Gutiérrez et al., 2007, Guerrero et al., 2008b, 2013; Galve et al., 2009). The recharge of the evaporitic aquifer is thought to occur through infiltration of irrigation and precipitation water in the bedrock outcrops and perched alluvial deposits. The groundwater that flows through the salt-bearing evaporitic bedrock progressively increases its concentrations of total dissolved solids (TDS) and ultimately discharges into the floodplain alluvium, as evidenced by the frequent presence in this aquifer of highly-saline waters associated with springs, wells and sinkhole ponds. Some authors have proposed that there may be areas of preferential discharge of the evaporite karst aquifer into the overlying alluvial aquifer (Jiménez-Torrecilla et al., 2004; Sánchez et al., 2004; Gutiérrez et al., 2007).

3- METHODOLOGY

3.1- Selection of water points for hydrochemical characterisation

Time series of hydrochemical data from 23 sampling points (wells, springs, sinkhole ponds, ditches and the Ebro River; Table 1) were included in this study to characterize the main hydrochemical features of the Ebro alluvial aquifer and to explore its relationship with the evaporitic karst aquifer in the study area. As displayed in Table 1, the hydrochemical information from some of the points could be obtained from the public database of the Ebro Water Authority (Confederación Hidrográfica del Ebro;

CHE). For the rest of the sampling points, 3 to 7 sampling surveys were carried out between January 2011 and January 2012. Apart from these new sampling points, some additional samples were also collected during the surveys for analysis at some of the points from the CHE database in order to confirm and complete their reported hydrochemistry. A systematic nomenclature has been used for the sampling points in order to facilitate the understanding of the results and interpretations (see explanation in Table 1). To facilitate the interpretations, the study area has been divided into two zones: Zone 1 for the sampling points located W of Zaragoza city and Zone 2 for the points placed E of Zaragoza city (Fig. 1a).

As displayed in Table 1, two of the wells withdraw groundwater from the evaporitic aquifer (1WA2 and 2WA7, for zone 1 and 2, respectively), whereas the rest of them withdraw water from depths corresponding to the alluvial aquifer (Table 1), although they may be also affected by variable mixing with the evaporitic aquifer groundwater. In the case of springs, their aquifer association is uncertain and will be assessed on the

191 (insert here Table 1)

basis of their hydrochemistry.

3.2- Methods for sampling, analysis and geochemical modeling

The methods for sampling and analysis have been extensively described elsewhere (Acero *et al.*, 2013). The hydrochemistry of the studied points was studied in samples obtained by pumping (in wells) or manually (in springs, ponds, ditches and in the Ebro River). Temperature, conductivity and pH were determined in the field and the alkalinity and concentrations of Cl, SO₄, Ca, Mg, Na, K, Sr and Si were measured in the laboratory by different methods (see Acero *et al.*, 2013 for further details).

Geochemical calculations that will be discussed throughout this work have been performed with the PHREEQC code (Parkhust and Appelo, 2013) using the WATEQ4F thermodynamic database (Ball and Nordstrom, 2001) included in the PHREEQC package. The calculated charge balance error for the reported analyses, as calculated with the PHREEQC code, is generally below 5% and never above 10%.

4- RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the results obtained from different plots and calculations are presented and discussed. Firstly, the general hydrochemical features and seasonal variations of the studied zones are explored and the main hydrogeological and geochemical processes already identified in Acero *et al.* (2013) are briefly detailed. Secondly, the identified processes are combined into several conceptual models and tested with the assistance of inverse (mixing + mass-balance) and forward (reaction-path) geochemical calculations.

4.1- General hydrochemical features and seasonal variations

For the characterization of the general hydrochemical features of the alluvial-karst system in the surroundings of Zaragoza city, and in order to maximize the representativeness of the data, the whole hydrochemical dataset (i.e. data from the Ebro Water Authority plus data from our sampling campaigns; Table EA1 in the electronic annex) has been used.

There are some common hydrochemical features for Zone 1 (W of Zaragoza city) and Zone 2 (E of Zaragoza city, Tables 2 and 3). Both zones have Cl-SO₄-Na-Ca waters with pH values mostly between 6.7 and 8.5. As a general trend, the highest pH values are those from the irrigation waters, which also display the lowest alkalinity values and electric conductivities. The electric conductivity values of the waters sampled in the upstream Zone 1 are generally lower than those obtained for the selected points in Zone 2.

(insert here Tables 2 and 3)

Seasonal variations in the observed hydrochemistry can be assessed by examining the data from each given point in the 2011-2012 campaigns (Table EA1 in the electronic

- annex). According to the observed seasonal variations and groundwater types, three groups of sampling points can be differentiated:
 - 1) Roughly constant hydrochemistry throughout the year, with variations generally smaller than 10% for most of the dissolved concentrations: this behavior is observed for the sampling points 1WA2, 2SA1 and 2SA2 (Fig. 3a and Table EA1 in the electronic annex). The sampling point 2WA7 could also be included in this group, although its dissolved concentrations increase slightly (less than 15%) at the end of the year. This group seems to correspond to sampling points influenced by a fairly constant interaction with the evaporitic groundwater. This is apparent not only for the wells 1WA2 and 2WA7, withdrawing groundwater from the evaporitic aquifer, but also for the sinkhole ponds 2SA1 and 2SA2, in the light of their large and roughly constant TDS values (generally above 1900 mg·L⁻¹, larger than the average values for the area; Table 3 and Table EA1 in the electronic annex).
 - July, in coincidence with the first months of the irrigation period. This trend is mainly observed for the sinkholes 1HB1, 1HB2 and 1HB3 from Zone 1 (Fig. 3b and Table EA1 in the electronic annex), although the evolution of the sinkhole 1HB2 could also been included in the previous group with small hydrochemical variations. The observed hydrochemistry at those points is fairly dilute but more concentrated than the corresponding irrigation waters in this zone, with average TDS below 600 mg/L (1IR3; Table 2). These characteristics suggest that the hydrochemistry in these points is mainly determined by the features of the alluvial/irrigation waters, but with some influence of mixing with groundwater from the underlying evaporitic aquifer and/or of geochemical processes.

3) Lowest dissolved concentrations at the beginning of the year (January 2011), strongly increasing thereafter to their maximum during the months with irrigation (between April and October). This trend is observed for the sampling points 1WA3, 1WA4 and 2HA1, whose waters are fairly concentrated and display a wide range of seasonal variability (Fig. 3c and Table EA1 in the electronic annex). These features point towards the existence of variable interactions between the alluvial and the evaporitic aquifer throughout the year, which will be explored further in the following sections with the assistance of ion-ion plots and geochemical calculations.

(insert here Figure 3)

4.2- Description of the main geochemical and hydrogeological processes

The aim of this section is to detail the main identified geochemical and hydrogeological processes potentially controlling the behavior of the Ebro alluvial-evaporitic karst system. These processes were already described as a complement to exploratory analyses using multivariate statistical techniques for the same area (see Acero *et al.*, 2013 for further details). However, this information is a key previous step for the selection of processes to be included in the conceptual model for numerical calculations and geochemical modeling. Therefore, the main processes identified in Acero *et al.* (2013), will be shortly described below in order to facilitate the understanding of the modeling sections and their results. Such geochemical and hydrogeological processes are:

1- Halite and gypsum/anhydrite dissolution: the presence of minerals has been reported for the studied area and the influence of their dissolution can be interpreted from the correlations displayed by the molar dissolved concentrations of Na-Cl and Ca-SO₄ (Pearson correlation coefficients of 0.99 and 0.98, respectively; Table 4, and Fig. 4a,b

and c). As displayed in Fig. 5a, all the sampled waters are far from equilibrium with respect to halite but some of the most concentrated samples from different wells and springs are already equilibrated (within uncertainty) with respect to gypsum (Fig. 5b). The Na/Cl stoichiometric ratios generally close to 1 (Tables 2 and 3) suggest that other processes potentially affecting Na concentrations and that ratio, such as Na-exchange or glauberite dissolution, have a minor contribution to the observed general hydrochemistry.

(insert here Table 4, Figure 4 and Figure 5)

2- Mixing processes: the existence of mixing processes between the groundwater from the alluvial and evaporitic materials seems evident after the examination of the Na-Cl ion plot (Fig. 4a and b). Since halite is only present (in significant amounts) in the evaporitic materials, the existence of large and well-correlated Na and Cl concentrations in the groundwater from ponds and wells associated with the alluvial deposits can only be explained as derived from the input of evaporitic groundwater. Consistent with this explanation, the composition of most of the studied waters is linearly distributed in the Na-Cl plot between the position of two types of end members: 1) irrigation waters (stars in Fig. 4a and b), and 2) groundwater associated with the evaporitic aquifer (sampling points 1WA2 and 2WA7; Fig. 4a and b).

3- Input and degassing of $CO_2(g)$: the presence of $CO_2(g)$ input probably derived from biological activity in soils can be deduced from the calculated $CO_2(g)$ partial pressures in equilibrium with many of the sampled waters (Fig. 5c), which are clearly larger than the atmospheric value (i.e. around $10^{-3.5}$ atm). $CO_2(g)$ degassing seems to be especially relevant for the aerated samples from irrigation waters and ponds (Fig. 5c), in contact with atmospheric conditions and displaying $pCO_2(g)$ values closer to the atmospheric ones.

4- Dissolution of carbonate minerals (calcite and dolomite) and possible precipitation of calcite. The presence of these mineral phases has been reported for both the alluvial and the evaporitic materials and, in the case of dolomite, this phase seems to be the main Mg mineral (Alberto and Navas, 1987; Salvany *et al.*, 2007). Most of the sampled waters are either in equilibrium or oversaturated with respect to both calcite and dolomite, although oversaturation occurs mainly in surface waters with pCO₂(g) close to equilibrium with atmospheric conditions (irrigation waters and ponds; stars, squares and rhombi in Fig. 5c), where it may be attributed to the already described CO₂(g) degassing.

5- Other minor processes: the dissolution of aluminosilicate minerals seems also to take place in the system and mainly in the evaporitic materials, which would explain the positive correlation between Si concentrations and the concentrations of Ca, Mg, Sr and sulfate (with Pearson correlation coefficients between 0.57-0.72; Table 4). Finally, other processes (e.g. cation exchange or agricultural practices) may also occur in the system. Although their importance seems to be minor compared to the rest of processes already described, they could affect, for instance, the behavior of K and explain the lack of correlation between its concentrations and the concentrations of the rest of analyzed ions (Table 4).

4.3- Mass-balance calculations: conceptual model and general assumptions

Once the possible processes and factors controlling the observed hydrochemistry have been identified, their relative influence and seasonal variations at each sampling point have been assessed with the assistance of inverse (mixing + mass-balance) and forward (reaction-path) calculations (Zhu and Anderson, 2002). These calculations have been carried out only for the points specifically sampled for this study (detailed in Table 1), for which complete hydrochemical data throughout the hydrological year are available.

- For the mixing + mass-balance calculations, the following hypotheses and procedures have been adopted:
- The observed major element hydrochemistry can be attributed to mixing of groundwater from the alluvial aquifer and the evaporitic aquifer and/or to geochemical processes. Thus, for each sample, the calculations were intended to reproduce the hydrogeochemical features of each sample as a mixture of certain proportions of groundwater from the alluvial and the evaporitic aquifer plus one or several reactions.
 - The set of reactions included, in accordance with the described mineralogical composition for the Zaragoza Fm. and with the processes described in the previous section, is the following: (1) input or degassing of CO₂(g) and (2) dissolution or precipitation of calcite and gypsum and dissolution of dolomite and halite. Although the minor influence of other processes is also possible (e.g. influence of cation exchange), their associated uncertainties are so large that the resulting models would be highly speculative and unnecessarily complex (for the goals of the study). Thus, they have not been included in the assessed conceptual models.
 - The groundwater composition in the evaporitic aquifer is estimated according to the hydrochemistry of samples that are clearly associated with the evaporitic materials (i.e. deep pumping wells with concentrated waters equilibrated with respect to gypsum; Fig. 5b). These samples are 1WA2-4, 1WA3-2 and 1WA4-3 for Zone 1 and 2WA7-2 for Zone 2. The hydrochemistry of these samples is detailed in Table 5.
 - The dilute end-member in the alluvial aquifer is represented by the irrigation waters from each zone (irrigation is responsible for more than 90% of the recharge in the studied area; Durán *et al.*, 2005); 1IR3 for Zone 1 (Table 3) and 2IR1 or 2IR2 for Zone 2 (Table 3). For each modeling case, the composition of the corresponding

- irrigation water in a similar date has been selected as a proxy of the waters recharging the alluvial aquifer.
- explaining the observed hydrochemistry at any given sampling point, the selection of the most feasible model was based on the following criteria: (1) thermodynamic feasibility of the resulting mass transferences (i.e. for each mineral phase, only undersaturated solutions are allowed to dissolve, and precipitation can only take place in oversaturated solutions), (2) minimum number of heterogeneous reactions involved, (3) consistency of the model with the ones inferred for other samples from the same sampling point (i.e. similar general models are preferred for explaining the whole set of hydrochemical observations at each sampling point).
- The analytical data for potassium, silica and strontium were not included in the model, since they are minor elements in the studied system and they are more affected by uncertainties regarding their possible geochemical controls (e.g. cation exchange, aluminosilicate dissolution, etc). For Sr, the observed concentrations and evolution can be reasonably attributed to the dissolution of gypsum or anhydrite, in whose lattice this element would appear (Kushnir, 1980; Lu *et al.*, 1997). This can be deduced from: 1) the strong correlation of Sr concentrations with both sulfate and Ca concentrations, with Pearson correlation coefficients of around 0.9 (Table 4), and 2) fairly constant Sr:Ca molar ratios around 0.007 for both sampled zones (not shown).
- Owing to the uncertainties and simplifications related to the sample compositions
 used as representative for the alluvial/irrigation and evaporitic waters, the obtained
 results (i.e. mixing proportions, amounts of dissolved/precipitated phases) should
 only be interpreted as general trends rather than fixed values.
- Prior to calculations, measured pH values have been corrected to account for the deviations caused at sampling points by CO₂(g) degassing due to extensive aeration by

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contact with atmospheric conditions or even during sampling. As already explained, this process seems to be responsible for the apparent oversaturation with respect to calcite deduced for most of the surface waters. In order to correct this deviation, pH values in all the samples have been corrected in the subsequent calculations by imposing for each of them the pCO₂ necessary to attain calcite equilibrium, without any other changes in their hydrochemistry.

In order to check the suitability of the obtained inverse models (i.e. mixing proportions and geochemical reactions), they were tested by reaction-path calculations. In these calculations, the proportions of waters from the evaporitic and alluvial/irrigation proxies deduced for each sample were mixed and the calculated amounts dissolved/precipitated/degassed phases were subsequently incorporated/substracted from the water compositions after mixing. The hydrochemical features obtained by means of the described reaction-path simulations were reasonably similar to the measured data in all the samples, being pH differences generally within ± 0.06 pH units and absolute differences in the rest of dissolved concentrations mostly below 15% and frequently below 5%. These differences are considered acceptable taking into account the analytical and sampling errors and the uncertainties associated with the selection of the evaporitic and aquifer/irrigation proxies for each modeling case. Therefore, the results from reaction-path calculations fully support the conceptual models obtained by mixing + mass balance modeling presented in the following sections.

4.3.1- Results from mass-balance calculations for Zone 1

For the three ponds sampled at Zone 1 (1HB1, 1HB2 and 1HB3), the results suggest a mixture of minor amounts of groundwater from the evaporitic aquifer (5-30%, depending on the pond, sampling date and considered composition for the evaporitic waters) with the alluvial aquifer and/or irrigation waters, plus dissolution of $CO_2(g)$,

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dolomite and halite, and occasional calcite dissolution or precipitation (see as an example the results for the pond 1HB1 in Fig. 6a). Roughly similar results (mixing and heterogeneous reactions) are obtained by using the composition of 1WA2-4, 1WA3-2 or 1WA4-3 (not shown) as representative from the hydrochemistry of the evaporitic aquifer. All these reactions may be easily justified to occur in the alluvial materials during or after mixing except in the case of halite dissolution, whose presence in the alluvial materials is scarce. A possible explanation for the halite dissolution obtained with the calculations would be that this process takes place in the evaporitic materials before mixing with the alluvial groundwater. This would imply that the actual evaporitic groundwater mixing with the alluvial groundwater should have larger average Na and Cl concentrations than the 1WA2-4 sample used in the calculations. In order to test this possibility, two additional sets of mass-balance calculations were performed using the composition of the 1WA2-4 sample as representative from the hydrochemistry of the evaporitic groundwater but increasing 4 and 7 times its Na and Cl dissolved concentrations, respectively (synthetic sample compositions 1WA2-MOD1 and 1WA2-MOD2; Table 5 and Fig. 4a). Those increase factors were chosen to make the Na and Cl concentrations in the 1WA2 sample roughly similar to the ones measured in other chosen evaporitic representatives richer in those elements and included in the modeling exercises (samples 1WA4-3 and 2WA7-2; Table 5). With these calculations, general mixing + reaction models similar to the one explained above, but without any halite dissolution, were obtained for almost all the samples from these three ponds (see representative examples using the composition of the 1WA2-MOD2 synthetic sample in Fig. 6b, c and d). Even though the calculated proportions of evaporitic groundwater decrease when increasing the Na and Cl concentrations in these waters, the obtained evolution trends of mixing proportions and heterogeneous reactions throughout the year are very similar for both sets of calculations.

(insert here Table 5 and Figure 6)

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Therefore, the modeling results support the feasibility of this conceptual model to explain the hydrochemical observations at the three ponds 1HB1, 1HB2 and 1HB3, being at the same time consistent with the available mineralogical information (e.g. halite present only in small amounts in the alluvial materials). Only two groups of processes are necessary to justify the observations: 1) mixing between alluvial/irrigation waters and evaporitic groundwater richer in Na and Cl than the one sampled at the 1WA2 well, and 2) dissolution of CO₂(g) and dolomite, and occasional calcite dissolution or precipitation. However, an evaporitic end member richer in Na and Cl than the sampled evaporitic groundwater is required in these calculations. Although the existence of such hydrochemistry seems probable in the light of the larger Na and Cl concentrations found in other wells withdrawing water from the evaporitic materials (wells 1WA4-3 and 2WA7; Table 5), additional deep wells in Zone 1 would be necessary in order to fully confirm this hypothesis. According to this conceptual model, the calculated mixing proportions for the sinkhole pond 1HB1 seem to range between 70-80% and 90-95% of alluvial water throughout the year (Fig. 6b). A sharp increase in the contribution of these waters is observed in coincidence with the beginning of the irrigation season in the area (March-April 2011). This large contribution of around 90% of alluvial/irrigation waters is maintained during the whole irrigation period (until October 2011), decreasing thereafter to similar values to the ones calculated for the period preceding the irrigation season (Fig. 6b). For the ponds 1HB2 and 1HB3, similar mixing proportions are obtained, with more than 80% of alluvial/irrigation water contribution throughout the year (Fig. 6c and d). As a general

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trend, a slight decrease in the relative contribution of evaporitic groundwater is calculated for the months corresponding to the irrigation season (between March and October), which is consistent with the expected hydrogeological regime of the system. For the pumping wells 1WA3 and 1WA4, the hydrochemistry of the evaporitic groundwater has been represented by the composition of the samples 1WA3-2 and 1WA4-3, respectively (Table 5). These samples have been selected as evaporitic end members for these wells because they display the highest dissolved concentrations for most of the elements (Table EA1 in the electronic annex) and they are close to equilibrium with respect to gypsum (Fig. 5b). These features support their probable association with the evaporitic materials and their local representativeness of the variable hydrochemistry of evaporitic groundwater. For these two wells, the inferred geochemical processes are mainly CO₂(g) input, dolomite dissolution and calcite dissolution/precipitation (Fig. 6e and f). Regarding the proportions of mixing waters, the deduced contribution of evaporitic groundwater is larger (generally above 40%; Fig. 6e and f) than in the previously described ponds, which is consistent with the fact that both wells reach the evaporitic bedrock (Table 1). Evaporitic groundwater proportions increase during the irrigation period up to 80-100% (Fig. 6e and f), which could be attributed to their upwelling associated with pumping for irrigation purposes during that period. An important implication of the observed behaviour is the possibility that pumping leads to high local hydraulic gradients within the alluvial and evaporitic materials and to a decline in the water table (depression cones). These changes may favour mineral dissolution (due to the increase of water flow rates) and the loss of buoyant support. Both effects are relevant, since they might accelerate the subsidence on existing sinkholes or even create new ones (Gutiérrez et al., 2008b). In fact, the well

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1WA3 is located within a damaging sinkhole with estimated subsidence rates of 7 cm/yr (Galve et al., 2009).

4.3.2- Results from mass-balance calculations for Zone 2

In the mass-balance calculations carried out for this zone, the hydrochemistry of the alluvial/irrigation waters was represented by the composition of IR1 for the sampling points 2SA2 and 2HA1, and IR2, for the 2SA1 spring. This selection was based on the proximity of the sampling points to the Urdana ditch or to the Ebro River (Fig. 1). The hydrochemistry of the evaporitic aguifer was represented by the composition of the groundwater sampled in the pumping well 2WA7, drilled directly in the evaporitic bedrock on the northern valley margin and whose hydrochemistry corresponds clearly to these materials (Tables 1 and 5). In order to consider for this evaporitic groundwater a composition representative for the largest possible time span of the year, the hydrochemistry of sample 2WA7-2 was selected (Table 5). As displayed in Fig. 7 and also described for Zone 1, mixing between evaporitic and alluvial/irrigation waters plus some geochemical reactions can account for the observed hydrochemistry at the three sampling points of Zone 2 throughout the year. With regard to the calculated geochemical processes, CO₂(g) input to the groundwater and, in some cases, some gypsum, calcite, dolomite and, especially, halite dissolution is required to account for the observed hydrochemistry (see a representative example for the sampling point 2SA2 in Fig. 7a). All these processes can be justified in the alluvial materials based on their reported mineralogy except halite dissolution, which must mainly take place in the evaporitic materials. Analogously to Zone 1, larger sodium and chloride concentrations would be necessary in the evaporitic groundwater contributing to mixing than the ones sampled at the well 2WA7.

(insert here Figure 7)

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In fact, when sodium and chloride concentrations in the evaporitic end-member are doubled (composition 2WA7-MOD, from now on; Table 5 and Fig. 4b), halite dissolution is not required to reproduce the observations at any of the target sampling points (Fig. 7b, c and d), being the rest of the results notably similar (see a representative comparison of results for the sampling point 2SA2 in Fig. 7a and b). For simplicity, the composition 2WA7-MOD will be assumed as the evaporitic end member for Zone 2 in the description of results detailed below. However, similar results have been obtained using the originally sampled 2WA7-2 composition but in that case including some halite dissolution, as shown for the sampling point 2SA2 (Fig. 7a and b). For the spring 2SA1, located in the floodplain, the calculations suggest that the contribution of evaporitic groundwater is minor (between 9 and 16%) and fairly constant throughout the year (Fig. 7c). A slight decrease in the relative contribution of groundwater from the evaporitic aquifer is inferred after April 2011 and towards the end of the year, which could be attributed to the impact of irrigation during this period. Apart from mixing, dissolution of $CO_2(g)$ and minor amounts of dolomite (always less than 130 mg/L) are also suggested by the model results. Regarding the spring 2SA2, the deduced proportions of evaporitic groundwater contributing to the observed hydrochemistry are generally much higher than at spring 2SA1, ranging roughly between 30 and 50% throughout the year (Fig. 7a and b). The contribution of the evaporitic aquifer seems to be highest in April 2011 and decreases thereafter towards January 2012, as also described for the spring 2SA1, most probably due to similar reasons. Only some extra CO2(g) and calcite dissolution, in addition to mixing, are required to explain the measured hydrochemistry and its temporal variability.

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Similarly, the hydrochemical evolution at the 2HA1 sinkhole pond can also be explained by mixing plus some CO₂(g) input, with dolomite, calcite and gypsum dissolution only for some months (Fig. 7d). Surprisingly, the proportion of evaporitic groundwater contributing to the hydrochemistry at this sinkhole pond seems to increase from around 10% to 21-25% during the irrigation season (from March 2011; Fig. 7d). If this mixing model is accepted, this result would imply the rise of evaporitic waters during this period. Although the lack of detailed hydrogeological information from the area prevents from obtaining any unequivocal interpretation for this behavior, a possible cause for such groundwater rise could be the presence of a lateral facies change from evaporitic materials to impervious clays just downstream of this sampling point (Fig. 1b). This change from karstified to impervious bedrock might act as a hydrogeological barrier, forcing the rise of deep and highly saline flows from the evaporitic aquifer, creating a zone of focused upward discharge. An alternative explanation to the observed increase of most dissolved concentrations at the sampling point 2HA1 during the irrigation season could be the possible presence of high soil salinity associated with the high evapotranspiration and shallow water head levels (at around 2-4 meters depth). This would imply the existence of active mineral precipitation linked to evapotranspiration in the vadose zone, followed by re-dissolution of those mineral phases and transport of the dissolved elements towards the groundwater linked to irrigation. The results obtained in mass-balance calculations using this alternative conceptual model (i.e. alluvial/irrigation waters + reactions) for the 2HA1 point are displayed in Fig. 7e, showing that the main dissolved phases in the vadose zone would be gypsum and, especially, halite.

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In order to confirm or discard these hypotheses, new studies focused on the evolution of salinity in soil profiles throughout the year and on the hydrogeological processes in the surroundings of the 2HA1 should be carried out in the future.

5- SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The application of geochemical modelling to the quantification of hydrogeological and geochemical processes in the studied stretch of the Ebro Valley (NE Spain) has provided new insights on the behaviour of this system affected by evaporite karstification at a relatively low cost. The hydrogeology and hydrochemistry of the system may be explained by the mixing of groundwater from the evaporitic aquifer and the overlying alluvial aquifer. Such mixing controls the wide range of water compositions observed in different sinkhole ponds, springs and pumping wells. For the sinkhole ponds, the proportion of evaporitic groundwater required to justify the observed hydrochemistry varies between 5 and 50% of the water volume in the pond. The effects of pumping and irrigation seem to play a key role in the seasonal evolution of mixing proportions of groundwater from the evaporitic and the alluvial aquifer. According to the obtained results, the following hydrogeological conclusions can also be obtained: - There is a good connection between the evaporite karst and the alluvial aquifers, as suggested by: 1) the rapid response of the karst aquifer hydrochemistry to recharge by irrigation, and 2) the deduced input of evaporitic groundwater in all the studied ponds. - Different hydrogeological features and processes are observed in various parts of the alluvial/evaporitic aguifer system, as suggested mainly by the different hydrochemical response to irrigation. These variations can be grouped in three main trends: 1) dilute alluvial waters receiving a small influence of groundwater from the evaporitic aquifer, especially during the irrigation campaigns (e.g. ponds 1HB1 and 1HB2; Fig. 8); 2) concentrated waters affected by the rise of evaporite groundwater owing to pumping during the irrigation campaigns (e.g. wells 1WA3 and 1WA4; Fig. 8) or to other processes (sinkhole pond 2HA1; Fig. 8); 3) saline waters associated with the evaporitic aquifer and roughly unaffected by irrigation (sampling wells 1WA2 and 2WA7; Fig. 8).

(insert here Figure 8)

Apart from the described hydrogeological controls, the hydrogeochemical behaviour of the study area is influenced by the following geochemical processes, in order of decreasing relative importance: (1) dissolution of gypsum and halite, mainly in the evaporitic aquifer; (2) CO₂(g) dissolution, probably associated with the percolation of alluvial/irrigation waters through soils with active biological processes; and (3) dissolution of dolomite and calcite dissolution/precipitation, both in the alluvium and in the evaporitic bedrock.

Whereas the groundwater circulating through the evaporitic bedrock seems to have reached equilibrium with respect to gypsum, it is far from equilibrium with respect to halite. Therefore, active subsidence associated with halite dissolution is expected to continue until halite becomes exhausted. Since irrigation waters are very undersaturated with respect to gypsum, an episodic increase of gypsum dissolution associated with their input is expected, which may also contribute to subsidence phenomena. The presence of these active dissolution processes suggests that there is a clear potential of future subsidence due to further karstification in the area.

In general, the results of this study show the applicability of the used methodology to explore the hydrogeological and geochemical processes in areas with scarce direct information. Although a more detailed hydrogeological, hydrochemical and

mineralogical characterization of the studied portion of the Ebro Valley should be carried out in the future, the proposed conceptual model represents a helpful step towards the understanding and management of the subsidence hazard in this area.

6- ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

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Figure 1: a: Location and geological settings of the studied area and position of the selected sampling points for hydrochemical characterisation. b: Schematic crosssections perpendicular (A-A') and roughly parallel (B-B') to the Ebro Valley, showing the general distribution of the main lithostratigraphic units and the weathering zone in which anhydrite and glauberite are replaced by secondary gypsum. These sections are based on borehole data from the southern margin of the valley (Salvany, 2009) and assume a roughly symmetric configuration at both sides of the valley, excavated along the axial zone of a very gentle syncline. Figure 2:a: Aerial view of the Ebro River valley upstream of Zaragoza city showing the evaporitic bedrock (escarpment) and the valley bottom underlain by the alluvial aquifer; b: Ojo del Fraile pond (ca. 240 m long) developed in a sagging sinkhole with nested collapse dolines (sampling point 1HB1); c: Ojos de Matamala sinkhole ponds. The subcircular lake, 30 m in diameter, corresponds to sampling point 2HA1. A maximum depth of 3.5 m was measured in April 2009; d: Pond 55 m across in Torre del Chocolatero collapse sinkhole (sampling point 1HB2). A maximum water depth of 6.6 m was measured in April 2009. Figure 3: Variation trends of TDS concentrations in the sampled waters throughout the year. Pannels a, b and c display the different trends for the three groups of sampling points described in the text: a) group with roughly constant hydrochemistry throughout the year; b) group with lowest dissolved contents at the beginning of the irrigation season (March-July); and c) group with lowest dissolved contents at the beginning of the year, increasing thereafter to their maximum during the months with irrigation (April-October).

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Figure 4: Correlation between some of the main hydrochemical parameters in the water samples from the studied system. a and b: Chloride vs. sodium dissolved concentrations in Zone 1 (a) and 2 (b). Be aware of the different scale for Cl concentrations between both panels; c: Sulfate vs. calcium dissolved concentrations. The position corresponding to the synthetic sample compositions used for representing the evaporitic groundwater in the mass-balance calculations (1WA2-MOD1, 1WA2-MOD2 and 2WA7-MOD) is also included in panels a and b. Modified and simplified from Acero et al. (2013). Figure 5: Correlation between calculated saturation indexes and with some hydrochemical parameters in the water samples from the studied system. a: Halite saturation index vs. Total Dissolved Solids (TDS); b: Gypsum saturation index vs. TDS; c: log[pCO₂(g)] vs Calcite saturation index; d: Dolomite saturation index vs. Calcite saturation index. The uncertainty range for the saturation indexes of gypsum, calcite and dolomite are 0.22 (Langmuir and Melchior, 1985), 0.35 (Plummer et al., 1990) and 0.5 (Plummer et al., 1990), respectively. Modified and simplified from Acero et al. (2013). Figure 6: Summary of results of some of the mixing + mass balance models for Zone 1 carried out in this study. a and b: results of models of mixing between irrigation/alluvial waters and evaporitic waters + heterogeneous reactions for the pond 1HB1, using as evaporitic end members the compositions of the sample 1WA2-4 and of the synthetic sample 1WA2-MOD2 (see Fig. 4a and text for details), respectively; c and d; results of the same type of models for the ponds 1HB2 and 1HB3, respectively, using as evaporitic end member the composition of the synthetic sample 1WA2-MOD2; e and f: results of the same type of models for the sampling points 1WA3 (e) and 1WA4 (f), using as evaporitic end members the compositions of the samples 1WA3-2 and 1WA4-3, respectively.

Figure 7: Summary of results of some of the mixing + mass balance models from Zone 2 carried out in this study: a and b: results of models of mixing between irrigation/alluvial waters and evaporitic waters + heterogeneous reactions for the spring 2SA2, using as evaporitic end members the compositions of the samples 2WA7-2 and 2WA7-MOD, respectively (see Fig. 4b and text for details); c and d: results of the same type of models for the spring 2SA1 (c) and the sinkhole pond 1HA1 (d), using as evaporitic end members the composition of the synthetic sample 2WA7-MOD; e: results of model without mixing for the sinkhole pond 2HA1.

Figure 8: Schematic 3D-block (not at scale) showing the main hydrogeological situations that have been inferred for the studied zones.

TABLE CAPTIONS

Table 1: General features of the sampling points included in this study. The codes for the sampling points consist of four numbers and capital letters: first, a number (1 or 2) indicates if the point is located W of the confluence between the Ebro and Gallego rivers (Zone 1), or to the E (Zone 2), respectively (Fig. 1); then, a capital letter indicates if the point corresponds to a well (-W--), a spring (-S--) or a pond (-H--), and a second letter is used to indicate if the water at that point can be considered as relatively concentrated (--A-) or diluted (--B-), compared to the average TDS of the study area, which is around 1600 mg/L according to our data. Additionally, IR points correspond to irrigation waters. Finally, consecutive numbers allow differentiating the different sampling points.

Table 2: Average hydrochemical features of the sampling points included in this study for Zone 1. Statistics for strontium and silica dissolved concentrations are not shown

889	because they are only available for some of the points (see Table EA1 in the electronic
890	annex).
891	Table 3: Average hydrochemical features of the sampling points included in this study
892	for Zone 2. Statistics for strontium and silica dissolved concentrations are not shown
893	because they are only available for some of the points (see Table EA1 in the electronic
894	annex).
895	Table 4: Pearson correlation coefficients between the different variables included in this
896	study, obtained from the whole available dataset (see Table EA1 in the electronic
897	annex).
898	Table 5: Hydrochemical features of the samples chosen as representative from the
899	evaporitic aquifer groundwater in the mixing + mass balance geochemical calculations.
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Figure 1
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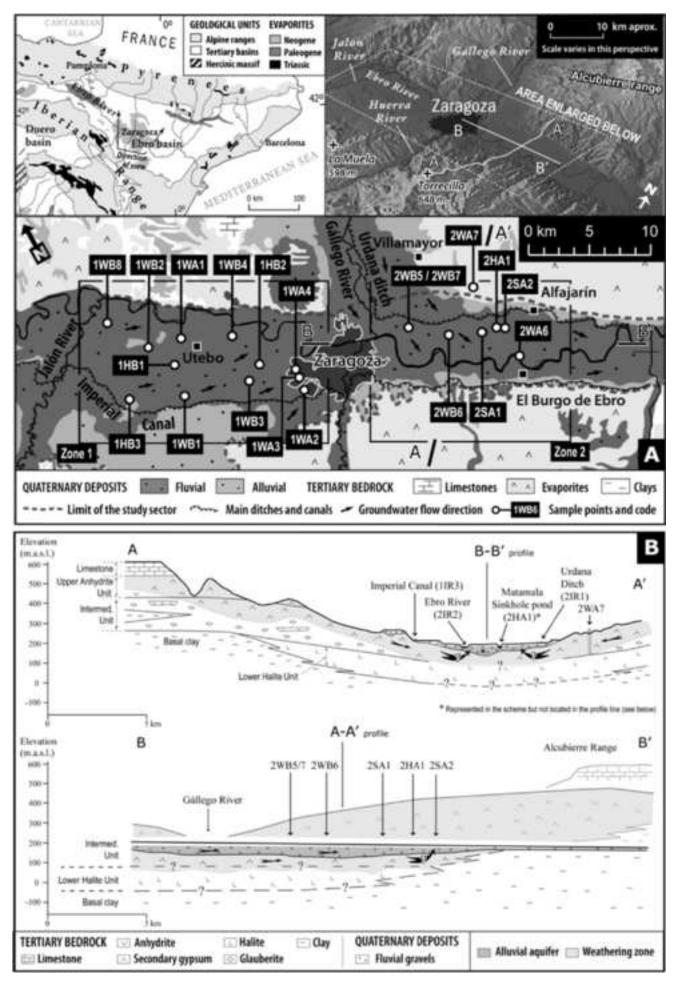


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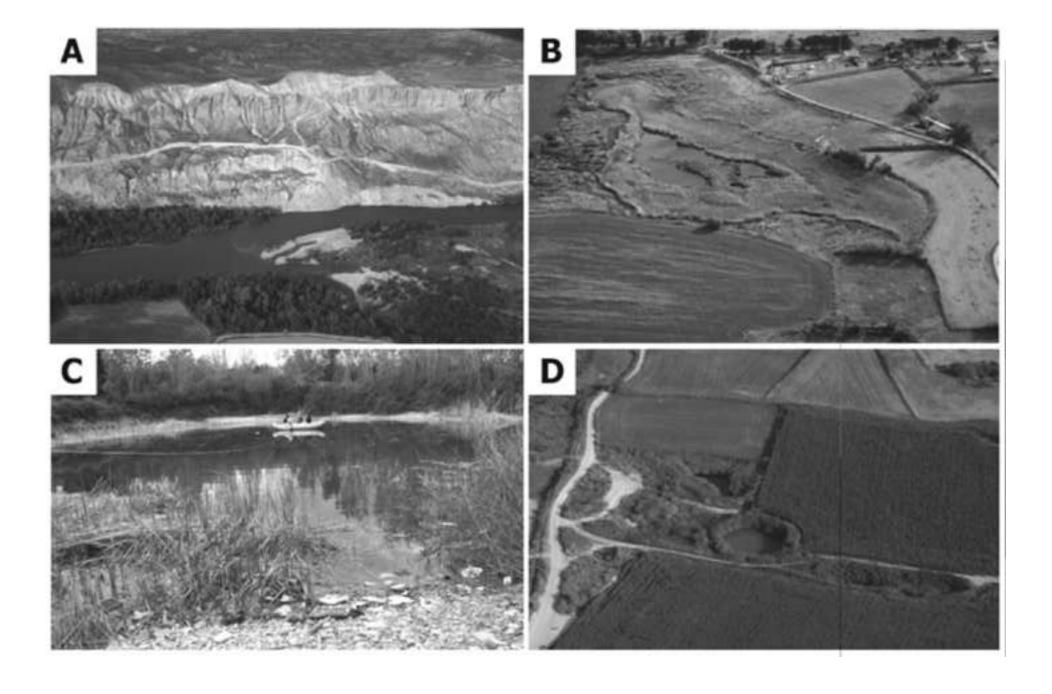


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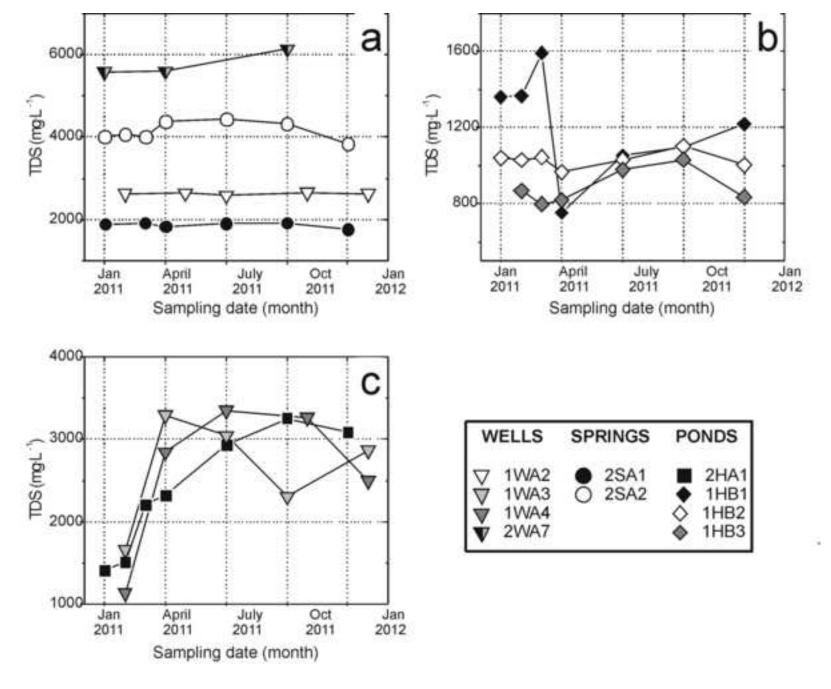


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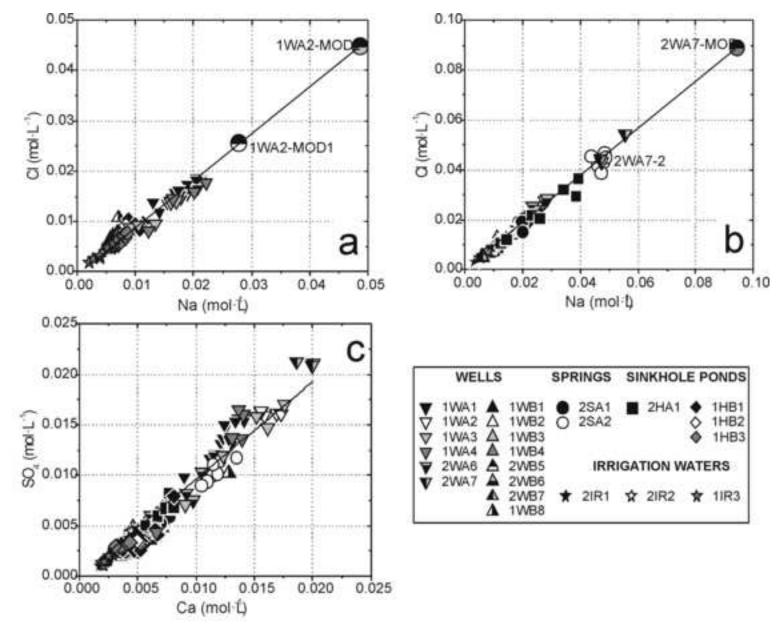


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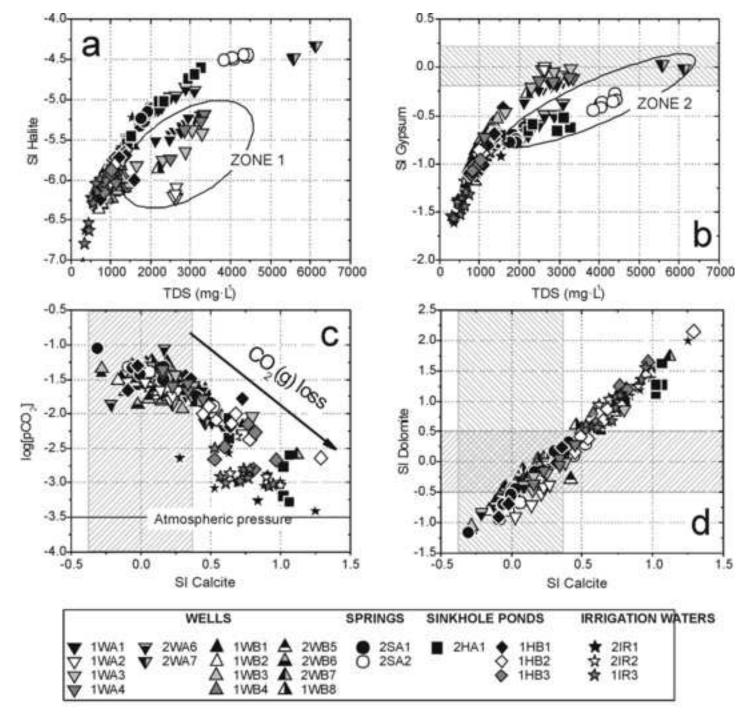


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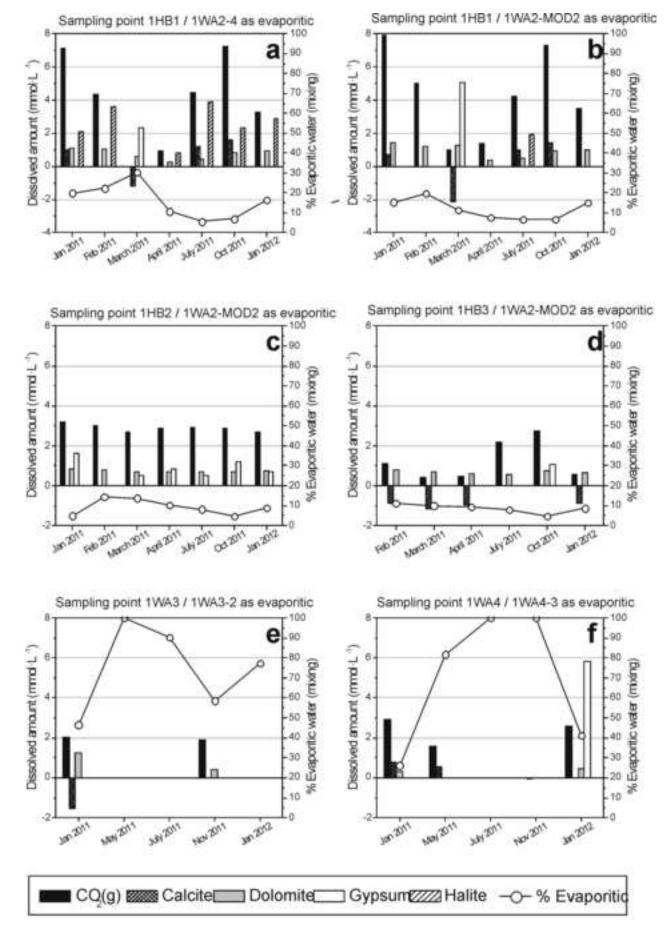
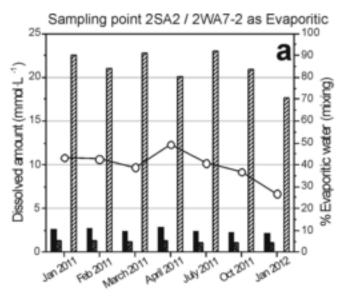
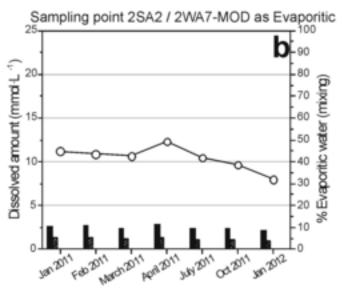
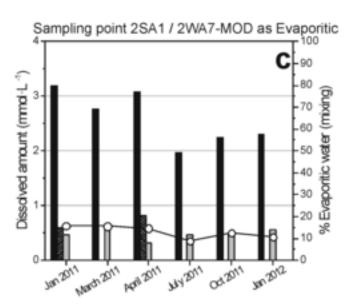
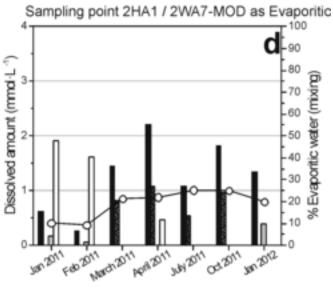


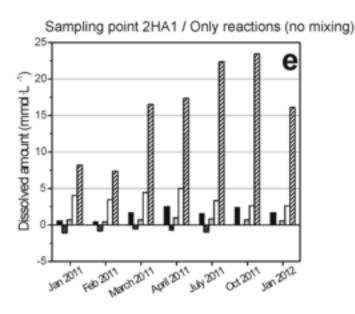
Figure 7
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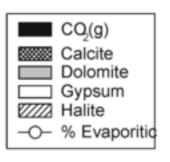
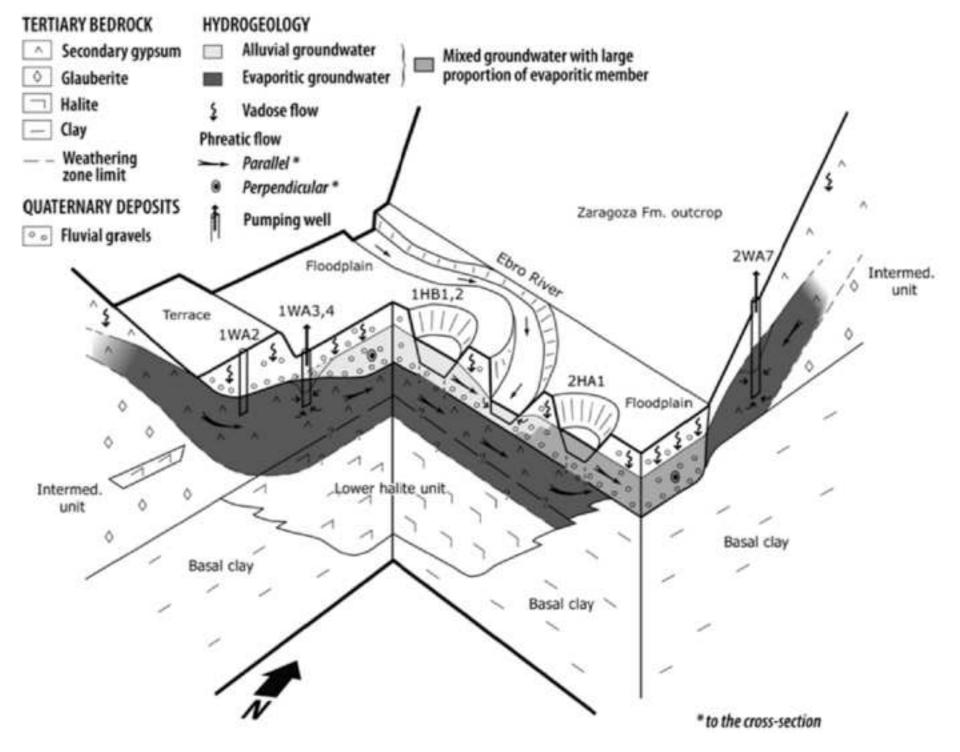


Figure 8
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TABLES

Table 1: General features of the sampling points included in this study.

Sampling point	Study zone	Type of water point	Origin of hydrochemical information	Alluvial aquifer thickness (m)	Probable sampled aquifer ⁽⁴⁾	Well depth (m)	Watertable average depth (m) (3)	Elevation (m.a.s.l.) ⁽⁵⁾
1WA1	1	Pumping well	(1)	10	Mixing	15	2	209
1WA2	1	Pumping well	(2)	37	Evaporitic	70	37.5	239
1WA3	1	Pumping well	(2)	30	Mixing	40	15	218
1WA4	1	Pumping well	(2)	20	Mixing	40	10	207
2WA6	2	Pumping well	(1)	5-10	Mixing	15	5	179
2WA7	2	Pumping well	(2)	n.a.	Evaporitic	101	n.a.	237
1WB1	1	Pumping well	(1)	35	Mixing	38	18	237
1WB2	1	Pumping well	(1)	6	Mixing	14	7	219
1WB3	1	Pumping well	(1)	>52	Alluvial	52	20	229
1WB4	1	Pumping well	(1)	13	Alluvial	14.7	3	205
2WB5	2	Pumping well	(1)	>25	Alluvial	10	4.5	191
2WB6	2	Pumping well	(1)	>12.4	Alluvial	12.4	3.5	187
2WB7	2	Pumping well	(2)	>25	Alluvial	10	4.5	191
1WB8	1	Pumping well	(1)	12	Mixing	23	8	217
2SA1	2	Spring	(1) and (2)	25	Unknown	-	-	181
2SA2	2	Spring	(2)	25	Unknown	-	-	179
2HA1	2	Sinkhole pond	(2)	25	Unknown	-	-	181
1HB1	1	Sinkhole pond	(2)	15	Unknown	-	-	216
1HB2	1	Sinkhole pond	(2)	20	Unknown	-	-	206
1HB3	1	Gravel pit pond	(2)	15	Alluvial	-	-	236
2IR1	2	Irrigation waters from Urdana Ditch	(1) and (2)	-	-	-	-	-
2IR2	2	Irrigation waters from Ebro River	(1)	-	-	-	-	-
1IR3	1	Irrigation waters from Imperial Canal	(1) and (2)	-	-	-	-	-

⁽¹⁾ hydrochemical data obtained from the Ebro Waters Authority (CHE); (2) hydrochemical data obtained from sampling carried out for this study; (3) according to data from CHE water points database (IPA) and/or provided by drilling and engineering geology companies; (4) according to waterlevel data at wells and to alluvial aquifer thickness; (5) elevation data obtained from the CHE Digital Elevation Model (DEM); n.a.: information not available; -: information not applicable for this type of sampling point.

Table 2: Average hydrochemical features of the sampling points included in this study for Zone 1.

Point / Number of samples		TDS (1)	рН	T ⁽²⁾	Cond (3)	Alk (4)	Ca ⁽⁵⁾	CI ⁽⁵⁾	K ⁽⁵⁾	Mg ⁽⁵⁾	Na ⁽⁵⁾	SO ₄ (5)	Na/Cl (6)	Ca/SO ₄ (6) CI/SO ₄ (6)
1WA1 / 17	Mean	2874	7.05	17.0	3374	336	497	558	6.3	66	413	1305	1.14	0.92	1.16
	Stdev	327	0.06	0.9	260	19	49	71	1.2	7	57	154	0.08	0.04	0.05
1WA2/5	Mean	2622	6.94	15.9	2834	251	650	198	3.6	44	153	1552	1.20	1.00	0.35
	Stdev	27	0.10	1.1	398	27	32	18	0.4	3	9	17	0.11	0.05	0.03
1WA3/5	Mean	2633	7.00	16.0	3478	369	564	394	5.4	64	305	1279	1.19	1.08	0.88
	Stdev	657	0.26	1.7	847	28	136	93	0.5	3	79	381	0.14	0.12	0.24
1WA4/5	Mean	2618	7.01	16.8	3469	353	492	444	6.3	63	361	1232	1.26	1.04	1.04
	Stdev	897	0.15	1.2	1141	29	128	177	0.5	17	137	473	0.14	0.28	0.3
1WB1 / 28	Mean	773	7.07	16.2	1358	352	163	192	3.2	32	132	226	1.07	1.74	2.31
	Stdev	45	0.12	1.2	97	18	10	15	0.9	4	7	22	0.07	0.14	0.22
1WB2 / 25	Mean	861	7.08	17.4	1474	384	185	205	5.9	35	137	273	1.04	1.63	2.03
	Stdev	58	0.10	1.0	119	30	9	23	0.7	2	11	24	0.07	0.14	0.17
1WB3 / 26	Mean	1204	7.05	16.3	1813	373	250	235	9.7	47	154	479	1.01	1.27	1.36
	Stdev	106	0.13	1.1	171	26	19	25	2.9	5	14	70	0.05	0.12	0.22
1WB4/4	Mean	1089	7.05	16.9	1800	409	202	255	5.3	49	163	409	0.98	1.20	1.7
	Stdev	34	0.31	1.4	161	70	12	3	1.8	2	6	44	0.05	0.19	0.17
1WB8/5	Mean	1358	6.90	17.2	2052	456	298	270	4.9	74	153	541	0.90	1.36	1.46
	Stdev	477	0.17	1.3	278	70	122	62	2.6	17	16	255	0.15	0.18	0.31
1HB1/7	Mean	1205	7.27	11.5	1731	465	22 9	296	19.9	43	215	387	1.13	1.53	2.44
	Stdev	271	0.37	7.7	350	143	59	69	9.1	10	46	185	0.14	0.36	1.13
1HB2/7	Mean	1031	7.62	13.1	1679	380	215	264	6.2	36	185	318	1.09	1.62	2.25
	Stdev	41	0.26	6.1	213	14	11	34	1.4	1	7	10	0.11	0.10	0.32
1HB3/6	Mean	887	7.88	15.1	1481	311	148	224	10.0	35	174	286	1.21	1.24	2.12
	Stdev	95	0.16	8.1	261	66	20	33	0.9	3	16	23	0.08	0.10	0.16
1IR3 / 10	Mean	523	8.13	16.7	977	216	90	155	4.1	17	113	144	1.14	1.54	2.88
	Stdev	135	0.13	5.3	219	15	9	60	0.6	4	39	32	0.11	0.23	0.88

⁽¹⁾ TDS: Total dissolved solids (in mg/L); (2) T: temperature (in °C); (3) Cond: electric conductivity (in µS·cm); (4) Alk: Alkalinity, as HCO₃ in mg/L; (5) all values in mg/L; (6) molar ratios

Table 3: Average hydrochemical features of the sampling points included in this study for Zone

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Point / Number of samples		TDS (1)	рН	-emp (Cond (3)	Alk (4)	Ca ⁽⁵⁾	CI ⁽⁵⁾	K ⁽⁵⁾	Mg ⁽⁵⁾	Na ⁽⁵⁾	SO ₄ (5)	Na/Cl ⁽⁶) Ca/SO ₄ ⁽⁶⁾	CI/SO ₄ (6)
2WA6/8	Mean	2400	6.99	16.5	3402	393	322	796	5.0	55	538	672	1.06	1.16	3.22
	Stdev	511	0.24	1.1	940	119	70	189	2.3	14	100	169	0.10	0.11	0.41
2WA7/3	Mean	5767	7.25	17.6	6543	219	784	1677	10.8	105	1149	2025	1.06	0.93	2.24
	Stdev	314	0.19	0.2	1311	1	33	214	0.9	1	111	20	0.04	0.05	0.27
2WB5 / 19	Mean	1035	7.13	16.5	1641	346	184	261	2.3	32	205	336	1.21	1.32	2.13
	Stdev	82	0.14	2.9	206	28	24	31	0.7	6	26	34	0.05	0.16	0.35
2WB6/2	Mean	1419	7.05	19.9	2010	282	229	415	5.2	45	254	462	0.95	1.21	2.44
	Stdev	165	0.07	4.0	269	95	3	55	1.1	3	6	84	0.10	0.20	0.12
2WB7 / 2	Mean	899	7.67	15.5	1482	368	206	183	2.9	36	140	320	1.19	1.54	1.55
	Stdev	16	0.53	1.3	252	3	13	15	0.5	0	6	11	0.15	0.04	0.18
2SA1 / 13	Mean	1922	6.94	16.4	2996	406	265	648	2.7	49	454	492	1.09	1.29	3.58
	Stdev	106	0.21	1.9	326	31	18	70	0.7	3	26	33	0.11	0.07	0.41
2SA2/7	Mean	4149	6.96	15.1	6130	350	465	1540	5.2	50	1074	1002	1.08	1.12	4.18
	Stdev	225	0.23	1.3	798	6	39	98	0.7	2	41	99	0.08	0.05	0.35
2HA1/7	Mean	2388	7.94	12.7	3647	286	280	832	8.1	38	613	610	1.14	1.11	3.59
	Stdev	741	0.35	7.3	1478	57	38	350	1.5	8	252	112	0.10	0.09	1.16
2IR1 / 10	Mean	1037	8.17	16.2	1809	193	140	342	4.2	21	241	289	1.08	1.24	3.19
	Stdev	440	0.24	6.4	738	19	44	159	1.3	6	116	122	0.08	0.25	0.45
2IR2/5	Mean	891	8.02	15.2	1534	252	138	251	4.1	30	181	292	1.11	1.15	2.31
	Stdev	248	0.26	8.3	330	23	26	76	1.2	6	60	82	0.05	0.13	0.08

⁽¹⁾ TDS: Total dissolved solids (in mg/L); (2) T: temperature (in °C); (3) Cond: electric conductivity (in µS·cm); (4) Alk: Alkalinity, as HCO₃ in mg/L; (5) all values in mg/L; (6) molar ratios

Table 4: Pearson correlation coefficients between the different variables included in this study.

TDS	1											
рН	-0.26	1										
Temp	0.03	-0.15	1									
Cond	0.95	-0.23	0.04	1								
Alk (HCO ₃ -)	-0.04	-0.59	-0.02	0.03	1							
Ca	0.90	-0.38	0.05	0.78	0.01	1						
Cl	0.88	-0.13	0.02	0.93	-0.01	0.59	1					
K	0.12	0.02	-0.26	0.06	0.15	0.16	0.04	1				
Mg	0.76	-0.49	0.05	0.67	0.29	0.81	0.54	0.25	1			
Na	0.89	-0.11	-0.01	0.94	-0.03	0.61	0.99	0.04	0.53	1		
SO_4	0.90	-0.30	0.05	0.77	-0.09	0.98	0.58	0.15	0.79	0.60	1	
Sr	0.86	-0.61	0.19	0.72	-0.09	0.99	0.52	-0.09	0.84	0.53	0.97	1
Si	0.52	-0.66	0.09	0.44	0.48	0.67	0.25	0.29	0.72	0.27	0.64	0.57
_	TDS	рН	Temp	Cond	Alk (HCO ₃ -)	Ca	Cl	K	Mg	Na	SO ₄	Sr

Table 5: Hydrochemistry of the samples used as evaporitic end members in the mixing + mass balance calculations.

Sample	Zone	рН	T ⁽¹⁾	Alk (2)	Ca ⁽³⁾	CI (3)	Mg ⁽³⁾	Na ⁽³⁾	SO ₄ (3)
1WA2-4	1	7.01	15.8	254	624	228	48	159	1564
1WA2-MOD1	1	7.01	15.8	254	624	911	48	637	1564
1WA2-MOD2	1	7.01	15.8	254	624	1594	48	1116	1564
1WA3-2	1	6.74	17.4	347	705	489	68	372	1634
1WA4-3	1	7.16	17.3	326	564	628	79	509	1536
2WA7-2	2	7.03	17.5	218	801	1579	104	1082	2004
2WA7-MOD	2	7.03	17.5	218	801	3158	104	2165	2004

⁽¹⁾ T: temperature (in °C); (2) Alk: Alkalinity, as HCO₃ in mg/L; (3) all values in mg/L