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Title: Contribution of isotopic research techniques to characterize highmountain-Mediterranean karst aquifers: The Port del Comte (Eastern Pyrenees) aquifer.

Article Type: Research Paper

Keywords: Stable isotopes, Seasonal isotopic amplitude, Altitudinal line, Recharge, Mean transit time, Karst

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Order of Authors: Ignasi Herms, M.Sc.; Jorge Jódar, Ph.D.; Albert Soler, Ph.D.; Iñaki Vadillo, Ph.D.; Luis J Lambán, Ph.D.; Sergio Martos-Rosillo, Ph.D.; Joan A Núñez, M.Sc.; Georgina Arnó, Ph.D.; Joan Jorge, Ph.D.

Abstract: Water resources in high mountain karst aquifers are usually characterized by high rainfall, recharge and discharge that lead to the sustainability of the downstream ecosystems. Nevertheless, these hydrological systems are vulnerable to the global change impact. The mean transit time (MTT) is a key parameter to describe the behavior of these hydrologic systems and also to assess their vulnerability. This work is focused on estimating MTT by using environmental tracers in the framework of high-mountain karst systems with a very thick unsaturated zone (USZ). To this end, it is adapted to alpine zones a methodology that combines a semi-distributed rainfall-runoff model to estimate recharge time series, and a lumped-parameter model to obtain MTT. The methodology has been applied to the Port del Comte Massif (PCM) hydrological system (Southeastern Pyrenees, NE Spain), a karst aquifer system with an overlying1000 m thick USZ. Six catchment areas corresponding to most important springs of the system are considered. The obtained results show that hydrologically the behavior of the system can be described by an exponential flow model (EM), with MTT ranging between 1.9 and 2.9 years. These _____values are shorter than those obtained by considering a constant recharge rate along time, which is the easiest and most applied aquifer recharge hypothesis when estimating DDD through lumped-parameter models.

Response to Reviewers: COMMENTS FROM REVIEWERS: Reviewer #1

General comments

Thee paper by Herms et al. with title: "Contribution of isotopic research techniques to characterize high mountain-Mediterranean karst aquifers: The Port del Comte (Eastern Pyrenees) aquifer." provides an interesting study regarding the contribution of isotopic research in karst aquifers. The concept is interest and the manuscript well written. Thank you very much for your kind comments

However, I have a number of recommendations, which should be done before publication.

Abstract

Reviewer #1 - General comments #1: You have to include the innovative results of this study. Provide the innovation of this study:

Reply to general comment #1: Certainly, as the reviewer points, the innovative points of this study are not stated in the manuscript. In this regard, the study presents two innovations: (1) a global innovation and (2) the specific innovation with the case study.

(1) The study presents the adaptation of a procedural methodology to improve the estimation of the mean transit time (\Box) in high-mountain karst aquifers. The methodology is based on the previous approach presented by Vitvar et al., 1999 to estimate groundwater residence times in pre-alpine non-karstic aquifers (tertiary and quaternary deposits in a small basin with elevation ranges between 680 to 960 m a.s.l.) by means of developing a link between distributed rainfall-runoff models to estimate recharge series, and then a lumped-parameter model using environmental tracers to solve the convolution integral. In our case the method is adapted to estimate \Box in high-mountain karst systems taking into account the existing vertical gradients of precipitation and air temperature along the slope of high mountains, the role played by the snow accumulation and ablation processes in the runoff generation, and considering the hydrological system to be modelled as the whole aquifer (i.e. the unsaturated zone and saturated zones).

(2) The adapted methodology is applied to the Port del Comte high mountain karst aquifer (NE, Spain) as a practical case study. Despite the strategic role played by this hydrogeological system as water resource provider to Barcelona, the hydrological behaviour of this system is completely unknown. This is the first hydrodynamic and transit time characterization of this hydrological system. Besides, the isotopic characterization of rainfall conducted in the Port del Comte has allowed to estimate the vertical gradient of the amplitude associated to the seasonal variation of the isotopic content ([180 and [2H) in rainfall, an important but rarely reported parameter (only two additional references exist as reported in Table 4 of the manuscript) to correctly estimate the groundwater mean transit time when amplitude dumping method (Eq. 8 of the manuscript) is applied.

We have modified accordingly both the Abstract and the Introduction to highlight these points.

Reviewer #1 - General comment #2: Provide the future works to be implemented to generalize the results of this study.

Reply to general comment #2: Indeed. This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this

work by focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the total transit time of groundwater and how this role is reflected in the hydrogeochemical evolution of the springs discharge after important rainfall events and during low-flows and (2) the use of artificial tracers and environmental isotopes (34S, 15N, ..) to characterize not only the mean transit time (i.e. the first moment of the transit-time distribution) but also to profile the groundwater transit-time distribution in terms of fast, intermediate and slow groundwater flows. This investigation is crucial to evaluate the aquifer vulnerability. We have included this information in the last part of the discussion a section.

Reviewer #1 - General comment #3: Compare the results of this study with similar studies.

Reply to general comment #3: A comparation in terms the mean transit time associated to the hydrological karst systems of Port del Comte and Ordesa and Monte Perdido (Jódar et al. 2016b) was already included in the manuscript. Nevertheless, and following the reviewer suggestions, additional comparations with the results obtained by Einsiedl et al. (2012), Garvelmann et al. (2017), and Lauber and Goldscheider (2014) for alpine karst aquifer systems with an overlying unsaturated have been included in the manuscript.

Specific comments

Introduction

Reviewer #1 - Q1: L 76-81: Including all this reference is not useful. You have to discuss this works. I suggest retaining two or three and the rest to remove them in the discussion only if you have something important to provide. Also, I suggest including information from karst systems from other Mediterranean countries (e.g. From Italy, Greece etc. see suggested literature).

Answer to Reviewer #1 - Q1: Indeed. We have rephrased the paragraph while synthetizing the cited references. Additionally, and as the reviewer suggests, the references of Allocca et al., (2015) and Kazakis et al. (2018) have been added to this paragraph to include in the storyline a link to Mediterranean karst systems

Reviewer #1 - Q2: Provide the innovation of this study. It is not clear to me. (Characterization of the hydrological behaviour of karst aquifer is not enough for an international journal)

Answer to Reviewer #1 - Q2: As it's commented in the eply to "general comment #1", the study adapts procedural approach to estimate the mean transit time in mountain karst aquifers by using a semi-distributed conceptual rainfall-runoff model and a lumped parameter model combined in a row. The first model explicitly provides the aquifer recharge time series that is used by the second model for simulating the environmental tracer transport through the hydrological system, and hence obtaining the aquifer mean transit time. Besides, the methodology has been applied in the karst aquifer system of Port del Comte (NE Spain) characterizing for

first time the hydrological behaviour of this important karst system. Moreover, this work provides an additional value of the vertical gradient of the amplitude associated to the seasonal variation of the water isotopic content (\Box 180 and \Box 2H) in rainfall, an important but rarely reported parameter (only two additional references exist as reported in Table 4 of the manuscript) to correctly estimate the groundwater mean transit time when amplitude dumping method (Eq. 8 of the manuscript) is applied. We have modified accordingly both the Abstract and the Introduction to highlight these points.

Methodology

Reviewer #1 - Q3: Methodology: You can add photos of the karst spring and the cumulative precipitation gauges (maybe in supplementary materials)

Answer to Reviewer #1 - Q3: Following the reviewer suggestion photos from the main regional karst spring (S-1, S-2, S-3 and S-5) and also from the 8 cumulative precipitation gauges have been added as supplementary materials:

• Supplementary materials #1: Main regional karst springs of the Port del Comte massif (S-1, S-2, S-3 and S-5)

• Supplementary materials #2: The 8 cumulative precipitation gauges (pluviometers) used of the type CoCoRaHS RG202 Official-4

Results and discussion

Reviewer #1 - Q4: L 425-426: You plot the results in GMWL. What is the meaning of this? It provides altitude? Origin? You have to explain it. Discussion is actually missing. See also my previous comment.

Answer to Reviewer #1 - Q4: In the caption of the Figure 6 (Fig 5 in the new version) is explained the meaning of this acronym GMWL, which means the Global Meteoric Water Line. It is used to represent the isotopic variation of the rain globally. The position of the water samples isotopic composition respect to the GMWL indicates the origin of moisture generating rainfall and also indicates fractionation processes (e.g. evaporation, sublimation) affecting groundwater recharge. We have included the reference of Clarke and Fritz (1997) to help the reader if any question arise in this regard.

Conclusions

Reviewer #1 - Q5: Provide only the take home message. Avoid abbreviations in this section (e.g. The PCM.)

Answer to Reviewer #1 - Q5: Indeed. According to the reviewer suggestion we have modified the conclusions to summarize the important findings

COMMENTS FROM REVIEWERS: Reviewer #2

General comments

Reviewer #2 - General comment #1: This manuscript deals with the hydrological characterization of the karst aquifer system of the Port del Comte (NE of Spain) using stable isotopes. Specific objectives are to describe the isotopic seasonal variation of precipitation and springs to understand the groundwater flow time distribution by means of a semidistributed hydrological model and lumped parameter flow models. In my opinion, this work deserves to be published in Science of the Total Environment after a minor revision because the topic is highly relevant for the water resources management of the Barcelona city area.

The manuscript firstly presents a general introduction, describes in great detail the study area and the methodology, before showing and discussing results and finally giving a concluding section. I consider that the manuscript is well-written and presented but some sections (i.e., the methodology and study area) are extremely long and it might be a good idea to move some information to the Supplementary Material as well as some of the Figures and Tables. This might help to the better understanding of the manuscript.

Reply to general comment #1: Thank you very much for your comments. Following the reviewer suggestion, the sections "Study area" and "Materials and methods" have been restructured to make them shorter, thus facilitating the reading.

Specific comments

Reviewer #2 - Q1: Graphical Abstract: The authors might consider including some numbers such as the average isotopic composition of the precipitation and groundwater considering the elevation and the transit time distribution.

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q1: Indeed. These numbers certainly improve the understanding of the graphical abstract. According to the reviewer suggestion, we have added the mean isotopic content values corresponding to pluviometers P-02 (Bassa Clot de la Vall Z= 1946 m a.s.l), P-03 (Refugi Bages Z= 1768, m a.s.l.) and P-04 (Casa X&A Bages Z= 1657, m a.s.l.), and also the mean isotopic content of the regional spring S-05 (Fonts del Cardener).

Highlights

Reviewer #2 - Q2: The acronym PCM needs to be described in the second highlight.

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q2: Indeed. We have rephrased the sentence.

Keywords

Reviewer #2 - Q3: I suggest the term "stable" instead of "environmental" isotopes

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q3: This word has been changed. Thank you for the observation.

Abstract and introduction

Reviewer #2 - Q4: The abstract properly summarizes the main findings of this research and the introduction content is appropriate. I do not have any major comment.

Answer to Reviewer #2- Q4: Thank you very much.

Reviewer #2 - Q5: L75: GW is not the first time that is mentioned, I think.

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q5: Thanks for catching this. We have defined the acronym the first time we mention Groundwater in the manuscript.

Reviewer #2 - Q6: Study area: Figure 1. a) The font size of the figure 1b is too small. b) Why the authors chose this geological cross section?

Answer to Reviewer #2- Q6: a) according to the reviewer suggestion, the image has been enlarged and the font size has been increased. b) The previous geological cross-section _____ shows the structure of the subbasin for one of the most important springs in the zone: the spring S-05. The idea was including this section to explain how the existing faults but also the geometry of the different layer materials condition both storage capacity and flow direction inside the aquifer. Nevertheless, and from a geological point of view, it is indeed better to add at least one more geological cross-section following a perpendicular direction to the previous one, to show the structure of the massif along a N-S direction. According to this, a new geological cross-section has been added. Therefore, the first previous cross-section is now identified as A-B, and the new second one as C-D.

Reviewer #2 - Q7: L123-124: a) Is there no dry season? B) Please, indicate the period of time used to evaluate the average precipitation per month in the meteorological station MS-01.

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q7:

According to the 'Iberian Climate Atlas: Air temperature and precipitation (1971-2000)' (Agencia Estatal de Meteorología de España (AEMET) and Instituto de Meteorologia - Portugal (IMA). 2011), the Köppen Climate Classification for the study area is 'Dfb type' (defined as 'cold without dry season and temperate summer'). The reference can be consulted in the following link: https://www.aemet.es/documentos/es/conocermas/publicaciones/Atlasclimatologico/Atlas.pdf

This information has been included in the manuscript.

b) Indeed. The time period to evaluate the monthly average precipitation in MS-01 is comprised between September 2005 and April 2016. This information has been included in the figure caption.

Reviewer #2 - Q8: Table 1 might be supplementary material

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q8: The information contained in Table 1 is referenced in several places along the manuscript. To facilitate the reading of the manuscript we consider that it is better to maintain this table in its original position.

Reviewer #2 - Q9: Materials and methods: This section is extremely long and the authors might consider moving some parts of the text to the Appendix or Supplementary material.

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q9: According to the reviewer comments, we have moved some parts of the manuscript at a new Appendix A. In particular, the original 'Figure 4' and 'Table 2' have been moved to an Appendix.

Reviewer #2 - Q10: L215-216: Position of "only" in the sentence: "groundwater samples were only taken with uneven frequency when it was possible".

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q10: Thanks for catching this. It has been changed.

Reviewer #2 - Q11: L233-234: I would recommend moving these lines to the supplementary material.

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q11: We suppose there is a mistake in the line numbering of this comment. In our opinion, these two lines (233-234) are necessary to following up the paragraph.

Reviewer #2 - Q12: L255: Method

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q12: Indeed. The sentence has been rephrased.

Reviewer #2 - Q13: Fig 5: might be supplementary material.

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q13: The schematic representation of the groundwater system response to a hypothetical input tracer function is a corner stone concept of this research. The authors consider that maintaining this figure in the main body of the manuscript facilitates the comprehension and reading of the text.

Reviewer #2 - Q14: L367: Might it be Eq. 5?

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q14: Indeed. Thank you for the observation. We have modified that number.

Reviewer #2 - Q15: Results and discussion: The results are discussed and presented in a detailed manner. Table 5: Might it be Supplementary material?

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q15: This table provides unpublished important data regarding the amplitude associated to the seasonal variation of the

water isotopic content (\Box 180 and \Box 2H) in rainfall, an important but rarely reported parameter (only two additional references exist as reported in this table) to correctly estimate the groundwater mean transit time when the amplitude dumping method (Eq. 8 of the manuscript) is applied. As stated in the abstract, this is one of the important findings of this work.

Reviewer #2 - Q16: L554-570: This equation and the associated text might be in the methodology.

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q16: Indeed. According to the reviewer suggestion, we have moved this part on the Methodology section inside a new subchapter named '3.5. Statistical analysis of the relationship between infiltration coefficient and recharge'.

Reviewer #2 - Q17: L635-658: In my opinion these lines break the flow of this section. The authors can consider include a new subsection explaining the implications of the estimation of dynamic volume stored in the aquifer for the springs in the management of water resources in Barcelona.

Answer to Reviewer #2- Q17: The authors fully agree with the reviewer's opinion. This part has been moved inside a new sub-section named "Evolution of results for groundwater management purposes".

COMMENTS FROM REVIEWERS: Reviewer #3

General Comment: The authors present the results of a groundwater modeling study of an aquifer in the Pyrenees. The topic is cogently introduced, the methodology is comprehensively explained, and the results are clearly presented and supported via high quality figures.

Overall, I think the work is well-developed and deserving of publication. I just have one major comment, and one minor comment, which I think should be addressed in revision.

Thank you very much for your kind comments

Reviewer #3 - Q1: First, a minor note: I generally disagree with the use of words like "proven" and "perfect" in research papers. In reality, these terms describe unattainable thresholds. Regardless of whether the authors might maintain they observed a "perfect mixing" in groundwater at their sites, the term rankles even the causal reader, and should be replaced.

Answer to Reviewer #3- Q1: The term 'perfect or complete mixing' is a term that can be easily found in the groundwater related bibliography when it is focussed on lumped parameter models. These models are commonly used to estimate mean transit time of hydrological systems. Despite of that, the authors fully agree with the reviewer point of view, and the terms "perfect mixing flow process" and "perfect mixing model" have been replaced by the terms "good mixing flow process" and "exponential flow model", respectively, throughout the manuscript Reviewer #3 - Q2: As for my primary criticism, in its current form, the manuscript is a bit too close to a technical report, given the limited scope of the work and the authors' conclusions. It is obviously acceptable for a groundwater study to focus on a single aquifer. However, if the results of the work remain essentially descriptive, the work itself remains limited in applicability to a single site. Instead, I suggest the authors develop the discussion of their results to clearly note and illustrate what their work contributes to the broader discipline (other than the characterization of a single, previously uncharacterized aquifer), and how their results pertain to aquifers globally. Such discussion will increase the impact of the work and justify publication of the manuscript in an international journal.

Answer to Reviewer #3- Q2: Thank you for the sincere suggestion. Indeed, the former version of the manuscript did not focus on relevant aspects such as the applicability and usefulness of the applied methodology, which clearly improves what has been done so far when estimating groundwater transit times in high mountain kast systems with an overlaying thick unsaturated zone. In this sense, the manuscript has been modified, highlighting the key innovations, and discussing the obtained results. Additionally, a deep bibliographic revision has been conducted to find studies focused on characterizing the hydrological behaviour of high mountain karst systems with an overlying not saturated zone to compare with. Unfortunately, the search has not been very successful and only four publication were found. The scarce number of publications reflects the difficulties for characterizing such hydrological systems rather than the existence of only a small number of alpine hydrological karst systems with an overlying thick unsaturated zone. In this line, we have included in the manuscript a list of sites with similar hydrogeological settings (i.e. a high mountain karst aguifer with a thick unsaturated zone) than those of the Port del Comte Massif (PCM). The location of these sites is presented in a new figure that also shows the carbonate outcrops in Europe. Looking at the figure one realizes that the number of sites analogue to PCM might be much larger.

COMMENTS FROM REVIEWERS: Reviewer #4

General Comment: I think that this research has very interesting results, the methodology is well described and the study area description is of a good quality. The figures also are of a good quality. The conclusions are well sustained by data. There are some general concerns that I suggest to the authors in order to improve the manuscript, being the first one critical:

Thank you very much for your kind comments

Reviewer #4 - Q1: I feel that the results are too localized to the study site being investigated or some other areas that some of the authors have already published in Spain and a more general setting is needed, comparing the results and the methodological approach in other climates regimes. To declare what is the novelty of the work and why is so an important contribution to scientific knowledge.

Answer to Reviewer #4-Q1: The authors fully agree with the reviewer. The original work did not focus on the key aspects from a global perspective, including the applicability and usefulness of the applied methodology. In

this sense, the introduction has been modified to highlight the novelty and importance of this work. Additionally, a deep bibliographic revision has been conducted to find studies focused on characterizing the hydrological behaviour of high mountain karst systems with an overlying not saturated zone to compare with. Unfortunately, the search has not been very successful and only five publication were found. Despite of that, the results of these studies are compared with the obtained in our manuscript. The scarce number of publications reflects the difficulties for characterizing such hydrological systems rather than the existence of only a small number of alpine hydrological karst systems with an overlying thick unsaturated zone. In this line, we have included in the manuscript a list of sites with similar hydrogeological settings (i.e. a high mountain karst aquifer with a thick unsaturated zone) than those of the Port del Comte Massif (PCM). The location of these sites is presented in a new figure that also shows the carbonate outcrops in Europe. Looking at the figure one realizes that the number of sites analogue to PCM might be much larger.

Reviewer #4 - Q2: The second issue is that more schematic geological profiles are needed to fully understand the aquifer geometry.

Answer to Reviewer #4-Q2: Indeed. A new geological cross-section has been included in Figure 1. The new section is orthogonal to the previous one and improves the understanding of the whole geometry of the Port del Comte Massif.

Reviewer #4 - Q3: The third and final issue is the abstract. Its need some rewriting will improve its quality, because some ideas are repeated, like the realization of the isotopic study.

Answer to Reviewer #4-Q3: Thanks for catching this. The abstract has been changed accordingly.

To whom concern:

The Port del Comte karst aquifer system discharges into the Cardener River, the most important tributary of the populated Llobregat River basin that provides drinking water to the city of Barcelona (NE Spain), where the population is larger than 2 million people, and where more than 70% of the water supply derives from surface waters. These waters also feed one of the major groundwater reservoirs for the Barcelona area, the aquifers of the Llobregat Delta (Otero et al., 2008). Surprisingly, the hydrological behavior of this important mountain karst system is still unknown.

In addition, high mountain environments are very sensitive to water driving vectors such the hydro-climatic forcing expected to be generated by climate change. Management and preservation of these water dependent systems requires a thorough understanding of the processes governing the hydrologic behavior of these systems. Furthermore, it is extremely important to characterize the hydrological behavior of the hydrological systems located in the mountain zones since they can be used as early warning system of water shortage events to minimize the impact of such events in the low valley zones.

Processes such as precipitation, evapotranspiration, aquifer recharge and runoff generation which force and describe the hydrological systems response also belong to the main knowledge areas considered by Science of the Total Environment, by including the atmosphere, hydrosphere, biosphere, lithosphere, and anthroposphere.

Barcelona, 20/09/2018

The authors: Ignasi Herms. Jorge Jódar, Albert Soler, Iñaki Vadillo, Luis Javier Lambán, Sergio Martos-Rosillo, Joan Agustí Núñez, Georgina Arnó, and Joan Jorge

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(b) Groundwater Hydrology Group. Dept. Civil Engineering and Environment, Technical University of Catalonia (UPC), Barcelona, Spain & Aquageo Proyectos S.L., Spain

(c) Grup de Mineralogia Aplicada i Geoquímica i Geomicrobiologia, Departament de Mineralogia,
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(f) Departament d'Enginyeria Minera, Industrial i TIC. Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC), Manresa, Spain

* Corresponding author: Jorge Jódar (jorge.jodar@hydromodelhost.com). Telf:(+34)619712122

Dear Professor Damià Barcelo, Co-Editor in Chief of Science of the Total Environment

Manuscript. No.: STOTEN-D-18-10315

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First of all we want to thank you and the reviewers for the effort of reviewing the manuscript.

We have corrected the manuscript by accounting the reviewer's sugestions.

Sincerely,

Ignasi Herms Canellas, M.Sc. Jorge Jódar Bermúdez, Ph.D. Albert Soler Gil, Ph.D. Iñaki Vadillo Pérez, Ph.D. Luis Javier Lambán Jiménez, Ph.D. Sergio Martos Rosillo, Ph.D. Joan Agustí Núñez, M.Sc. Georgina Arnó Pons, B.Sc. Joan Jorge Sánchez, Ph.D.

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Reviewer #1 - Q3: Methodology: You can add photos of the karst spring and the cumulative precipitation gauges (maybe in supplementary materials)

Answer to Reviewer #1 - Q3: Following the reviewer suggestion photos from the main regional karst spring (S-1, S-2, S-3 and S-5) and also from the 8 cumulative precipitation gauges have been added as supplementary materials:

- Supplementary materials #1: Main regional karst springs of the Port del Comte massif (S-1, S-2, S-3 and S-5)
- Supplementary materials #2: The 8 cumulative precipitation gauges (pluviometers) used of the type CoCoRaHS RG202 Official-4

Results and discussion

Reviewer #1 - Q4: L 425-426: You plot the results in GMWL. What is the meaning of this? It provides altitude? Origin? You have to explain it. Discussion is actually missing. See also my previous comment.

Answer to Reviewer #1 - Q4: In the caption of the Figure 6 (Fig 5 in the new version) is explained the meaning of this acronym GMWL, which means the Global Meteoric Water Line. It is used to represent the isotopic variation of the rain globally. The position of the water samples isotopic composition respect to the GMWL indicates the origin of moisture generating rainfall and also indicates fractionation processes (e.g. evaporation, sublimation) affecting groundwater recharge. We have included the reference of Clarke and Fritz (1997) to help the reader if any question arise in this regard.

Conclusions

Reviewer #1 - Q5: Provide only the take home message. Avoid abbreviations in this section (e.g. The PCM.)

Answer to Reviewer #1 - Q5: Indeed. According to the reviewer suggestion we have modified the conclusions to summarize the important findings

COMMENTS FROM REVIEWERS: Reviewer #2

General comments

Reviewer #2 - General comment #1: This manuscript deals with the hydrological characterization of the karst aquifer system of the Port del Comte (NE of Spain) using stable isotopes. Specific objectives are to describe the isotopic seasonal variation of precipitation and springs to understand the groundwater flow time distribution by means of a semidistributed hydrological model and lumped parameter flow models. In my opinion, this work deserves to be published in Science of the Total Environment after a minor revision because the topic is highly relevant for the water resources management of the Barcelona city area.

The manuscript firstly presents a general introduction, describes in great detail the study area and the methodology, before showing and discussing results and finally giving a concluding section. I consider that the manuscript is well-written and presented but some sections (i.e., the methodology and study area) are extremely long and it might be a good idea to move some information to the Supplementary Material as well as some of the Figures and Tables. This might help to the better understanding of the manuscript.

Reply to general comment #1: Thank you very much for your comments. Following the reviewer suggestion, the sections "Study area" and "Materials and methods" have been restructured to make them shorter, thus facilitating the reading.

Specific comments

Reviewer #2 - Q1: Graphical Abstract: The authors might consider including some numbers such as the average isotopic composition of the precipitation and groundwater considering the elevation and the transit time distribution.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q1: Indeed. These numbers certainly improve the understanding of the graphical abstract. According to the reviewer suggestion, we have added the mean isotopic content values corresponding to pluviometers P-02 (Bassa Clot de la Vall Z= 1946 m a.s.l), P-03 (Refugi Bages Z= 1768, m a.s.l.) and P-04 (Casa X&A Bages Z= 1657, m a.s.l.), and also the mean isotopic content of the regional spring S-05 (Fonts del Cardener).

Highlights

Reviewer #2 – Q2: The acronym PCM needs to be described in the second highlight.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q2: Indeed. We have rephrased the sentence.

Keywords

Reviewer #2 – Q3: I suggest the term "stable" instead of "environmental" isotopes

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q3: This word has been changed. Thank you for the observation.

Abstract and introduction

Reviewer #2 - Q4: The abstract properly summarizes the main findings of this research and the introduction content is appropriate. I do not have any major comment.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q4: Thank you very much.

Reviewer #2 – Q5: L75: GW is not the first time that is mentioned, I think.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q5: Thanks for catching this. We have defined the acronym the first time we mention Groundwater in the manuscript.

Reviewer #2 – Q6: Study area: Figure 1. a) The font size of the figure 1b is too small. b) Why the authors chose this geological cross section?

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q6: a) according to the reviewer suggestion, the image has been enlarged and the font size has been increased. b) The previous geological cross-section α – β shows the structure of the sub-basin for one of the most important springs in the zone: the spring S-05. The idea was including this section to explain how the existing faults but also the geometry of the different layer materials condition both storage capacity and flow direction inside the aquifer. Nevertheless, and from a geological point of view, it is indeed better to add at least one more geological cross-section following a perpendicular direction to the previous one, to show the structure of the massif along a N-S direction. According to this, a new geological cross-section has been added. Therefore, the first previous cross-section is now identified as A-B, and the new second one as C-D.

Reviewer #2 - Q7: L123-124: a) Is there no dry season? B) Please, indicate the period of time used to evaluate the average precipitation per month in the meteorological station MS-01.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q7:

According to the 'Iberian Climate Atlas: Air temperature and precipitation (1971-2000)' (Agencia Estatal de Meteorología de España (AEMET) and Instituto de Meteorologia – Portugal (IMA). 2011), the Köppen Climate Classification for the study area is 'Dfb type' (defined as 'cold without dry season and temperate summer'). The reference can be consulted in the following link:

https://www.aemet.es/documentos/es/conocermas/publicaciones/Atlasclimatologico/Atlas.pdf This information has been included in the manuscript.

b) Indeed. The time period to evaluate the monthly average precipitation in MS-01 is comprised between September 2005 and April 2016. This information has been included in the figure caption.

Reviewer #2 – Q8: Table 1 might be supplementary material

Answer to Reviewer #2-Q8: The information contained in Table 1 is referenced in several places along the manuscript. To facilitate the reading of the manuscript we consider that it is better to maintain this table in its original position.

Reviewer #2 - Q9: Materials and methods: This section is extremely long and the authors might consider moving some parts of the text to the Appendix or Supplementary material.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q9: According to the reviewer comments, we have moved some parts of the manuscript at a new Appendix A. In particular, the original 'Figure 4' and 'Table 2' have been moved to an Appendix.

Reviewer #2 - Q10: L215-216: Position of "only" in the sentence: "groundwater samples were only taken with uneven frequency when it was possible".

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q10: Thanks for catching this. It has been changed.

Reviewer #2 – Q11: L233-234: I would recommend moving these lines to the supplementary material.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q11: We suppose there is a mistake in the line numbering of this comment. In our opinion, these two lines (233-234) are necessary to following up the paragraph.

Reviewer #2 – Q12: L255: Method

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q12: Indeed. The sentence has been rephrased.

Reviewer #2 – Q13: Fig 5: might be supplementary material.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q13: The schematic representation of the groundwater system response to a hypothetical input tracer function is a corner stone concept of this research. The authors consider that maintaining this figure in the main body of the manuscript facilitates the comprehension and reading of the text.

Reviewer #2 – Q14: L367: Might it be Eq. 5?

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q14: Indeed. Thank you for the observation. We have modified that number.

Reviewer #2 - Q15: Results and discussion: The results are discussed and presented in a detailed manner. Table 5: Might it be Supplementary material?

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q15: This table provides unpublished important data regarding the amplitude associated to the seasonal variation of the water isotopic content (δ 18O and δ 2H) in rainfall, an important but rarely reported parameter (only two additional references exist as reported in this table) to correctly estimate the groundwater mean transit time when the amplitude dumping method (Eq. 8 of the manuscript) is applied. As stated in the abstract, this is one of the important findings of this work.

Reviewer #2 - Q16: L554-570: This equation and the associated text might be in the methodology.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q16: Indeed. According to the reviewer suggestion, we have moved this part on the Methodology section inside a new sub-chapter named '3.5. Statistical analysis of the relationship between infiltration coefficient and recharge'.

Reviewer #2 – Q17: L635-658: In my opinion these lines break the flow of this section. The authors can consider include a new subsection explaining the implications of the estimation of dynamic volume stored in the aquifer for the springs in the management of water resources in Barcelona.

Answer to Reviewer #2– Q17: The authors fully agree with the reviewer's opinion. This part has been moved inside a new sub-section named "Evolution of results for groundwater management purposes".

COMMENTS FROM REVIEWERS: Reviewer #3

General Comment: The authors present the results of a groundwater modeling study of an aquifer in the Pyrenees. The topic is cogently introduced, the methodology is comprehensively explained, and the results are clearly presented and supported via high quality figures.

Overall, I think the work is well-developed and deserving of publication. I just have one major comment, and one minor comment, which I think should be addressed in revision.

Thank you very much for your kind comments

Reviewer #3 – Q1: First, a minor note: I generally disagree with the use of words like "proven" and "perfect" in research papers. In reality, these terms describe unattainable thresholds. Regardless of whether the authors might maintain they observed a "perfect mixing" in groundwater at their sites, the term rankles even the causal reader, and should be replaced.

Answer to Reviewer #3– Q1: The term 'perfect or complete mixing' is a term that can be easily found in the groundwater related bibliography when it is focussed on lumped parameter models. These models are commonly used to estimate mean transit time of hydrological systems. Despite of that, the authors fully agree with the reviewer point of view, and the terms "perfect mixing flow process" and "perfect mixing model" have been replaced by the terms "good mixing flow process" and "exponential flow model", respectively, throughout the manuscript

Reviewer #3 – Q2: As for my primary criticism, in its current form, the manuscript is a bit too close to a technical report, given the limited scope of the work and the authors' conclusions. It is obviously acceptable for a groundwater study to focus on a single aquifer. However, if the results of the work remain essentially descriptive, the work itself remains limited in applicability to a single site. Instead, I suggest the authors develop the discussion of their results to clearly note and illustrate what their work contributes to the broader discipline (other than the characterization of a single, previously uncharacterized aquifer), and how their results pertain to aquifers globally. Such discussion will increase the impact of the work and justify publication of the manuscript in an international journal.

Answer to Reviewer #3– Q2: Thank you for the sincere suggestion. Indeed, the former version of the manuscript did not focus on relevant aspects such as the applicability and usefulness of the applied methodology, which clearly improves what has been done so far when estimating groundwater transit times in high mountain kast systems with an overlaying thick unsaturated zone. In this sense, the manuscript has been modified, highlighting the key innovations, and discussing the obtained results. Additionally, a deep bibliographic revision has been conducted to find studies focused on characterizing the hydrological behaviour of high mountain karst systems with an overlying not saturated zone to compare with. Unfortunately, the search has not been very successful and only four publication were found. The scarce number of

publications reflects the difficulties for characterizing such hydrological systems rather than the existence of only a small number of alpine hydrological karst systems with an overlying thick unsaturated zone. In this line, we have included in the manuscript a list of sites with similar hydrogeological settings (i.e. a high mountain karst aquifer with a thick unsaturated zone) than those of the Port del Comte Massif (PCM). The location of these sites is presented in a new figure that also shows the carbonate outcrops in Europe. Looking at the figure one realizes that the number of sites analogue to PCM might be much larger.

COMMENTS FROM REVIEWERS: Reviewer #4

General Comment: I think that this research has very interesting results, the methodology is well described and the study area description is of a good quality. The figures also are of a good quality. The conclusions are well sustained by data. There are some general concerns that I suggest to the authors in order to improve the manuscript, being the first one critical:

Thank you very much for your kind comments

Reviewer #4 - Q1: I feel that the results are too localized to the study site being investigated or some other areas that some of the authors have already published in Spain and a more general setting is needed, comparing the results and the methodological approach in other climates regimes. To declare what is the novelty of the work and why is so an important contribution to scientific knowledge.

Answer to Reviewer #4– Q1: The authors fully agree with the reviewer. The original work did not focus on the key aspects from a global perspective, including the applicability and usefulness of the applied methodology. In this sense, the introduction has been modified to highlight the novelty and importance of this work. Additionally, a deep bibliographic revision has been conducted to find studies focused on characterizing the hydrological behaviour of high mountain karst systems with an overlying not saturated zone to compare with. Unfortunately, the search has not been very successful and only five publication were found. Despite of that, the results of these studies are compared with the obtained in our manuscript. The scarce number of publications reflects the difficulties for characterizing such hydrological systems rather than the existence of only a small number of alpine hydrological karst systems with an overlying thick unsaturated zone. In this line, we have included in the manuscript a list of sites with similar hydrogeological settings (i.e. a high mountain karst aquifer with a thick unsaturated zone) than those of the Port del Comte Massif (PCM). The location of these sites is presented in a new figure that also shows the carbonate outcrops in Europe. Looking at the figure one realizes that the number of sites analogue to PCM might be much larger.

Reviewer #4 - Q2: The second issue is that more schematic geological profiles are needed to fully understand the aquifer geometry.

Answer to Reviewer #4– Q2: Indeed. A new geological cross-section has been included in Figure 1. The new section is orthogonal to the previous one and improves the understanding of the whole geometry of the Port del Comte Massif.

Reviewer #4 - Q3: The third and final issue is the abstract. Its need some rewriting will improve its quality, because some ideas are repeated, like the realization of the isotopic study.

Answer to Reviewer #4– Q3: Thanks for catching this. The abstract has been changed accordingly.

1	Contribution of isotopic research techniques to characterize					
2	high-mountain-Mediterranean karst aquifers: The Port del					
3	Comte (Eastern Pyrenees) aquifer.					
4						
5	Herms. I. ^a , Jódar, J. ^{b,*} , Soler, A. ^c , Vadillo, I. ^d , Lambán, L.J. ^e , Martos-					
6	Rosillo, S. ^e , Núñez, J.A. ^a , Arnó, G. ^a , Jorge, J. ^f					
7						
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12	Petrologia i Geologia Aplicada, Facultat de Ciències de la Terra, Universitat de Barcelona (UB),					
13	Barcelona, Spain					
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17	Manresa, Spain					
18	* Corresponding author: Jorge Jódar (jorge.jodar@hydromodelhost.com). Telf:(+34)					
19	619712122					
20						
21						
22	Abstract					
23	Water resources in high mountain karst aquifers are usually characterized by high					
24	rainfall, recharge and discharge that lead to the sustainability of the downstream					

25 ecosystems. Nevertheless, these hydrological systems are vulnerable to the global

26 change impact. The mean transit time (MTT) is a key parameter to describe the behavior

27	of these hydrologic systems and also to assess their vulnerability. This work is focused
28	on estimating MTT by using environmental tracers in the framework of high-mountain
29	karst systems with a very thick unsaturated zone (USZ). To this end, it is adapted to
30	alpine zones a methodology that combines a semi-distributed rainfall-runoff model to
31	estimate recharge time series, and a lumped-parameter model to obtain MTT. The
32	methodology has been applied to the Port del Comte Massif (PCM) hydrological system
33	(Southeastern Pyrenees, NE Spain), a karst aquifer system with an overlying1000 m
34	thick USZ. Six catchment areas corresponding to most important springs of the system
35	are considered. The obtained results show that hydrologically the behavior of the system
36	can be described by an exponential flow model (EM), with MTT ranging between 1.9
37	and 2.9 years. These MTT values are shorter than those obtained by considering a
38	constant recharge rate along time, which is the easiest and most applied aquifer recharge
39	hypothesis when estimating MTT through lumped-parameter models.
40	
38 39	constant recharge rate along time, which is the easiest and most applied aquifer rech hypothesis when estimating MTT through lumped-parameter models.

41 Keywords: Stable isotopes; Seasonal isotopic amplitude; Altitudinal line; Recharge;
42 Mean transit time; Karst.

43

44 **1. Introduction**

High mountain zones are known as "water towers" because they generate the main water resources feeding the most important rivers in the world (Viviroli et al., 2007). This phenomenon is especially important in the drought-prone Mediterranean area (Vicente-Serrano et al 2014), where water availability is scarce and greatly dependent on runoff from headwater basins (De Jong et al., 2009). Moreover, water discharge from mountain areas is critical to ensure water supply in the lowland and coastal fringe Comment [JJ1]: Answer to Reviewer #1 – General comment 1 Answer to Reviewer #1 – Q2 Answer to Reviewer #4– Q3

Comment [JJ2]: Answer to Reviewer #2 – Q3 51 (Viviroli and Weingartner, 2004; García-Ruiz et al 2011), where human activity
52 (agriculture, industry, tourism) concentrates.

53

54 Future scenarios for climate change in the whole Mediterranean region forecast an 55 increase in temperature and a decrease in precipitation at the end of the 21st century (Giorgi and Lionello, 2008). These effects may well impact the Mediterranean high 56 mountain zones (Nogués-Bravo et al., 2008; Lopez-Moreno et al., 2009; Ribalaygua et 57 al., 2013), modifying the hydrological behavior of their headwater basins (Barnett et al., 58 59 2005; García-Ruiz et al. 2011, and references therein). Nevertheless, the first evidence of such changes has already been reported in the Pyrenees, the southernmost European 60 range where glaciers can be found (Grunewald and Scheithauer, 2010). Pyrenean 61 62 glaciers have undergone an intense retreat since the middle of the last century, causing most of them to face a certain close extinction (Chueca et al., 2007; René 2013; Marti et 63 al., 2015; López-Moreno et al., 2016). In addition, during this period, both mean annual 64 65 precipitation and number of rainy days have shown a clear decreasing trend in this zone 66 (Lopez-Moreno et al., 2010), along with a lesser snowfall and snow accumulation (López-Moreno, 2005). These effects directly impact the water storage capacity of the 67 associated headwater systems (Seibert et al., 2015), as well as their associated 68 hydrological response in terms of both river discharge flowrates and timing of 69 maximum discharges (López-Moreno and García-Ruiz, 2004; Gremaud et al., 2009). 70 71 These changes will directly impact the downstream zones by complicating the current 72 water stress situation in the Mediterranean zone (Milano et al., 2013; Hernández-Mora et al., 2014, Molina and Melgarejo, 2016). Because of the hydrological outlook that is 73 74 not so promising, it is essential to understand the functioning of the mountain 75 hydrological systems of the Mediterranean area, especially those scenarios in which 76 groundwater (GW) plays a major role in the headwater discharge, because mountain

aquifers maintain base flows to rivers during the recurrent Mediterranean dry periods(Hoerling et al 2012; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2014).

79

80 Despite playing a strategic role, most high mountain hydrogeological systems are still insufficiently understood (Goldscheider, 2011). Conventional hydrogeological 81 investigation techniques (Bakalowicz, 2005; Goldscheider and Drew, 2007) are often 82 83 difficult to apply in alpine regions because of the difficult access and the harsh working 84 conditions, along with the types of instruments needed for conducting research in high mountain zones (Lauber et al., 2014; Hood and Hayashi, 2010). However, a growing 85 number of publications are focusing on the importance of groundwater in the 86 87 functioning of high-mountain watershed rivers in different geological settings, including alluvial/rockfall/talus aquifers (Lauber and Goldscheider, 2014; Kurylyk and Hayashi, 88 2017), fractured aquifers (Jódar et al., 2017; Barberá et al., 2018a) and karst systems 89 (Wetzel, 2004; Goldscheider, 2005; Gremaud et al., 2009; Mudarra et al., 2014; Allocca 90 91 et al., 2015; Lambán et al., 2015; Chen, 2017; Barberá et al., 2018b; Kazakis et al., 2018). Determining the magnitude of groundwater recharge and aquifer Mean Transit 92 Time (MTT) are key issues for understanding and managing alpine groundwater 93 systems. Spring hydrograph analysis and environmental tracer methods allow for 94 characterizing aquifer recharge and discharge processes, estimating recharge zone 95 elevation and transit times, determining drainage structures, and assessing spring 96 vulnerability, as well as calculating water resources in headwater aquifers (Wetzel, 97 2004; Rodgers et al., 2005; Einsiedl, 2005; Farlin and Maloszewski, 2013; Jódar et al., 98 2016b; Malard et al., 2016; Epting et al., 2018). 99

Comment [JJ3]: Answer to Reviewer #21 - Q5

Comment [JJ4]: Answer to Reviewer #1 – 01

101	In high-altitude alpine karst aquifers, groundwater recharge processes highly depend on
102	temporal and spatial distribution of precipitation and snowmelt (Lauber and
103	Goldscheider, 2014). The estimation of MTT in karst systems is conditioned by the
104	existence of variable flow conditions. These systems normally show triple-porosity and
105	different connected parts: the karstic conduits that allows rapid flow, and the fissured-
106	porous matrix that shows intermediate to slow flow. Artificial tracer test normally
107	injected in preferential flow paths (i.e. the channels) doesn't consider the fissured-
108	porous matrix of the aquifer, which can be important as far as the total karst water
109	volumes (Maloszewski et al., 2002). In this respect, the use of artificial tracers to
110	characterize such hydrological systems is not enough since it doesn't allow
111	characterizing all the components of the flow. Others important factors that govern the
112	suitability of injection test for MTT estimations is the existence of a thick unsaturated
113	zones (USZ): conducting tracer tests by injecting it at the surface of the thick USZ is
114	likely a failing tracer test given the large uncertainties regarding the likelihood of
115	hydraulic connection between the tracer injection point and the sampled system
116	discharge point (Lauber and Goldscheider, 2014). Additionally, the adverse working
117	conditions and the type of material of the instruments necessary to correctly perform the
118	tracer test (Goldscheider et al., 2008) in high-mountain areas make it difficult to execute
119	them.
120	
121	As a result, the hydrogeological behavior of most of the mountain karst systems with an
122	associated thick USZ remain uncharacterized, despite of being the exploration of these
123	systems on the focus of speleogenetic research since the last decades (Ballesteros et al.,
124	2015a, and references therein).

126	Lumped parameter models (LPMs) are useful to simulate the behavior of such complex
127	mountain karst systems, even when they are poorly characterized. These models do not
128	require a detailed hydrological knowledge of the physical system. Moreover, LPMs
129	naturally integrate the USZ of the aquifer as a part of the whole hydrological system to
130	be modeled (Turnadge and Smerdon, 2014). Additionally, the stable isotopes of water
131	$(\delta^{18}O \text{ and } \delta^2H)$ in rainfall have proved to be good environmental tracers for
132	investigating the dynamics of such hydrological systems karst systems (Andreo et al.,
133	2004). These tracers enter the system as recharge, migrate downgradient exploring the
134	whole hydrological system, and leave the karst aquifer with spring discharge or by
135	lateral mass transfer to other hydrogeologically connected aquifer units. In this line, this
136	work is devoted to estimate MTT of a high-mountain karst aquifer with a thick
137	unsaturated zone by using ⁸ O and ² H as environmental tracers along with LPMs. To this
138	end, it is considered the approach presented by Vitvar et al. (1999) to estimate MTT in a
139	small Swiss pre-alpine aquifer. The original approach is adapted to high mountain zones
140	by considering the existing vertical gradients of precipitation and air temperature along
141	the slope of high mountains, but also the role played by the snow accumulation and
142	ablation processes in the runoff generation. The resulting method combines in series
143	two LPMs: (1) a semi-distributed rainfall-runoff HBV model (Bergström, 1976; Seibert,
144	2005) that simulates the observed hydrodynamical system response while taking into
145	account the elevation dependences of the different hydrometeorological variables (i.e.
146	Precipitation and temperature) and associated processes (e.g. snow accumulation and
147	ablation), and (2) a FlowPC model (Małoszewski and Zuber, 1996) that estimates the
148	mean transit time of the hydrological system while simulating the environmental tracer
149	content evolution in the system discharge. This is done by numerically integrating a
150	convolution integral (Maloszewski et al., 1983; Jódar et al., 2014). In our case, the

151	FlowPC model uses as input data: a) the recharge time series of the aquifer obtained
152	with the HBV model, and b) the time series isotope content (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) in recharge,
153	which is obtained through a spatiotemporal characterization of the isotope contained of
154	precipitation.
155	

156	The methodology is applied to the hydrological system of Port del Comte Massif (PCM;
157	NE Spain), a karst aquifer with a 1000 m thick USZ. The hydrological system mainly
158	discharges though the Cardener springs into the homonym river, which is the main
159	tributary of the Llobregat River, the first water resources provider to the city of
160	Barcelona (NE Spain). Despite the strategic role of Cardener springs the hydrologic
161	behavior of the karst system remains unknown. This study contributes to a better
162	hydrological characterization of PCM hydrological system. Moreover, the proposed
163	methodology can be applied to characterize other high mountain karst aquifers with an
164	overlying thick USZ that are common in many alpine zones elsewhere the globe.
165	

Comment [JJ5]: Answer to Reviewer #1 -Gegeneral comment 1 Answer to Reviewer #1 – Q2

166

167 2. Study area

The study area is located at the Port del Comte Massif (PCM), which is situated in the eastern part of the Pyrenees, NE Spain (Fig. 1). The elevation of the watershed ranges from approximately 900 m a.s.l., up to 2387 m a.s.l., at the 'Pedró dels Quatre Batlles' peak. With approximately 110 km², it contains one of the main mountain karst aquifers of the Catalan Pyrenees. The watershed of the massif divides the river basin of the Cardener River at the E and S and the river basin of the Segre River at the NW and SW. The massif constitutes an independent structural and hydrogeological unit.



Comment [JJ6]: Answer to Reviewer #2 – Q6 Answer to Reviewer #4– Q2

Fig. 1. (1) Location map of the study zone. (2) Geological map (geological map modified from
ICGC, 2007). (3) Geological cross-section A-B. (4) Geological cross-section C-D. (5)
Geological legend: [1] Triassic – shales, limestones, dolomites and evaporates; [2] Jurassic –
marls, bioclastic limestones and dolomites; [3] Lower Cretaceous – mudstones, ammonite
limestones and marl; [4] Upper Cretaceous – limestones, marls, calcarenites and terrigenous

182	deposit; [5] Garumnian – red snales and limestones; [6] Lower Eocene – fissured and karstified
183	alveoline limestones and dolomites; [7] Lower Eocene - marls, sandstones and limestone; [8]
184	Lower Eocene - fissured and karstified micritic and bioclastic limestones; [9] Middle Eocene -
185	sandstones, marls, conglomerates, limestones and evaporates; [10] Upper Eocene - continental
186	alluvial systems: conglomerates and sandstones; [11] Oligocene - continental alluvial systems:
187	conglomerates, breccias and sandstones.

188

. . .

189 2.1 Meteorological setting

190 From a climatic point of view, and according to the Köppen-Geiger classification (Peel et al., 2007), the study zone has a cold climate without dry season and temperate 191 summer (defined as 'Dfb' type; accordingly to AEMET and IMA, 2011). At the 192 meteorological station MS-01 (Fig. 1), which is located at 2315 m a.s.l., the average 193 values of precipitation (P), temperature (T) and potential evapotranspiration (ETP) 194 calculated with the Hargreaves and Samani (1982) equation are 1055 mm/yr, 3,24 °C 195 and 525 mm/yr, respectively. These three variables show a seasonal variation (Fig. 2) 196 and an elevation dependence. The measured vertical gradients (lapse rate) of 197 198 precipitation ($\nabla_z P$), atmospheric temperature ($\nabla_z T$) and potential evapotranspiration 199 $(\nabla_z \text{ETP})$ are 8,9 mm/yr/100 m, -0,74 °C/100 m and -32,3 mm/yr/100 m, respectively. 200 The snow cap is present in the upper zones of the basin in winter and spring, maintained annually for 3 to 4 months since 1800 m a.s.l., meaning that precipitation is partly 201 produced as snow. 202

203

Despite the high average rainfall above 1000 mm/year, in most of the study area the surface runoff is almost nonexistent, and it is not observed until reaching lower altitudes.

207

Comment [JJ7]: Answer to Reviewer #2-Q7:



208

209 Fig. 2. Seasonal variation of precipitation, potential evapotranspiration and temperature

210 measured at the meteorological station MS-01 (see Table 1) located at 2315 m a.s.l. for the

211 period Sep 2005- Apr 2016.

212

213 2.2 General settings of the study zone

214 From a geological perspective, the massif belongs to the PCM thrust sheet that presents 215 complex structural relationships in its contours (Fig. 1). On the E, the PCM mantle borders on the mantle of Cadí, coinciding with the point of origin for the Cardener 216 River (spring S-05; Fig. 1). To the NE and NW, the PCM is limited by the tectonic 217 218 plates of the mantles of Sierras Marginales, Montsec and Boixols. To the S, the PCM 219 mantle overlaps with the conglomeratic materials of the Ebro Basin, the southern 220 foreland basin of the Pyrenees. The internal structure of the PCM mantle is formed by a set of folds and thrusts detached above the Triassic. These folds have a constant 221 222 direction NE-SW parallel to the NW limit of the mantle (Vergés, 1999). The stratigraphic series contains materials from the Triassic, Jurassic, Cretaceous and 223 224 Paleogene with a total of approximately 1000 m thickness. The main karst aquifer 225 inside PCM massif is in the Paleocene - Eocene carbonate rocks. The geologic structure and stratigraphy of the PCM thrust strongly influence the location of the existing karst 226

Comment [JJ8]: Answer to Reviewer #2- Q7

springs, their groundwater geochemistry and their hydrologic behavior. The lower
Upper Cretaceous/Paleocene (Garumnian facies) substrate materials underlying the
Palaeocene aquifer are composed of sandstone, siltstone and shale. These materials
constitute an impervious layer for the overlaying aquifer system.

231

232 From the geomorphological point of view, the PCM has a characteristic triangular 233 geometry. The PCM has a smooth rounded landscape with a plain in the highest part 234 without vegetation cover and with almost no soil, which corresponds to approximately 235 10% of the total area. The rest of the massif is covered by mountain meadows (29%) and forest (61%) with scarce soil depth up to medium developed soil cover. Different 236 karstic forms progressively appear from 1950 m a.s.l. upwards, being well developed at 237 238 2050 m a.s.l., with sinkholes, dry caves, dolines and karren fields, generating a heterogeneous karstified hydrogeological system. 239

240

The hydrogeological conceptual model of the PCM aquifer system considers that 241 242 recharge is produced by infiltration of precipitation as rainfall and snowmelt. The magnitude and distribution of infiltration is conditioned by the development of the karst 243 244 landforms. The infiltration is produced (1) in a concentrated way through the local 245 karstic elements such as dolines and (2) in a diffuse way by rain and snowmelt along the whole PCM area. The epikarst unsaturated zone (NSZ) presents a thickness close to 246 247 1000 m in the highest zones of the PCM. The infiltrated water flows vertically through 248 the NSZ towards the saturated zone.

249

The hydrogeological system naturally discharges through the large number of existing springs. Approximately 100 springs have been found in the PCM showing large

discrepancies in their mean discharge flow rate, ranging from values <<1 L/s up to 252 253 values > 100 L/s. Most of these springs discharge a local subhorizontal interflow 254 characteristic of a small entity (i.e., Local springs, Table 1). However, in terms of 255 groundwater discharge, there are six important springs in the PCM (i.e., Regional 256 springs, Table 1). These springs have been monitored regularly for this research, 257 showing that all of them have a highly variable discharge flow rate (Fig. 3). Four of these regional springs (S-01, S-02, S-03 and S-05) are the principals discharging points 258 of the whole hydrogeological system. The four springs are located at elevations between 259 944 and 1098 m a.s.l. (see Table 1). Through these main springs, the hydrogeological 260 261 system discharges at two principal watersheds: the Cardener River watershed to the east and the Segre River watershed to the northwest. Groundwater flow direction is 262 263 conditioned by the geological structure of PCM. Nevertheless, the exact position of the regional groundwater table is poorly known. 264

Table 1. Meteorological stations, pluviometers and springs in the study zone sampled during the
period July 2013 – October 2015.

			Elevation	Num. water	Discharge rate
Code	Type Nan	Name	(m a.s.l.)	samples (-)	(L/s)
MS-01	Met. Station	SMC-Z8	2315	-	-
MS-02	Met. Station	AEMET-0127O	1800	-	-
P-01	Pluviometer	Refugi de l'Arp	1936	7	-
P-02	Pluviometer	Bassa Clot de la Vall	1946	8	-
P-03	Pluviometer	Refugi Bages	1768	8	-
P-04	Pluviometer	Casa X&A	1657	8	-
P-05	Pluviometer	Casa Ramonet	1450	8	-
P-06	Pluviometer	Casa Cavallera	1216	7	-
P-07	Pluviometer	Camp. La Comella	1062	8	-
P-08	Pluviometer	Camp. Morunys	896	9	-
-------------	-----------------	---------------------------	------	----	---------------
S-01	Regional Spring	Font Aiguaneix	1098	25	8 - 73
S-02	Regional Spring	Font Sant Quintí	944	25	70 - 575
S-03	Regional Spring	Font Can Sala	1062	25	0,25 – 148
S-04	Local Spring	Font Coll de Jou	1464	25	0,07 - 0,59
S-05	Regional Spring	Fonts del Cardener	1032	25	57 - 904
S-06	Local Spring	Font carretera Refugi Arp	1858	25	0,04 - 7
M-05	Local Spring	Font del Ginebró	1730	4	<0,001
M-06	Local Spring	Font de la Garganta	1657	4	0,02-0,49
M-08	Local Spring	Font Orris 02	1871	4	0,1-0,7
M-14	Local Spring	Font Estivella	2053	4	0,07 – 5
M-15	Local Spring	Font Arderic	2158	3	0,03 – 2,8
M-16	Local Spring	Font del Casalí	2077	1	<0,001
M-17	Local Spring	Font del Diumenge	1989	2	0,004 - 0,026
M-18	Local Spring	Font barraca Sangonella	1940	1	0,001 - 0,01
M-24	Local Spring	Font dels Acens	1550	4	0,06 - 0,23
M-35	Local Spring	Font Ca l'Arreplagant	1330	4	<0,001 - 0,02
M-37	Local Spring	Font La Part (esllav.)	1315	4	0,5 – 1

269

270 **3. Materials and methods**

271 **3.1 Field work**

To collect precipitation samples, a network of 8 cumulative precipitation gauges (pluviometers) of the type CoCoRaHS RG202 Official-4 was installed at elevations between 896 and 1935 m a.s.l. (P-01 a P-08; Fig. 1). The pluviometers consist of a polycarbonate cylindrical deposit with a diameter of 10,8 cm. The pluviometers include a top funnel that captures and guides precipitation into the storing deposit, where

according to the technical procedure for the stations of the Global Network of Isotopes 277 278 in Precipitation (GNIP) of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), a 0,5 cm 279 paraffin oil floating layer is added to avoid evaporation. The pluviometers were sampled 280 seasonally (except the first winter with two campaigns), a total of 9 campaigns from 281 Dec. 2013 to Dec. 2015. Additionally, one snow sampling survey was conducted in 282 December 2003. The snow samples were obtained by drilling through the entire snow depth (Lambán et al., 2015) and were taken at different locations with elevations 283 ranging from 1935 to 2150 m a.s.l. 284

285

Groundwater samples were collected under different hydrodynamic conditions between 286 287 Oct. 2013 and Dec. 2015. In this period, the springs S-01 to S-06 were sampled approximately monthly, for a total of 25 sampling campaigns. Groundwater samples 288 were taken before the snow arrival in autumn (Oct. 2013 and Oct. 2014), and after the 289 snow-melting season (Apr. 2014 and Apr. 2015). In these springs, groundwater 290 291 discharge was measured once every two weeks from Jul. 2013 to Oct. 2015 (Fig. 3). In springs S-01, S-02, S-03 and S-05 the discharge flow rate was measured by conducting 292 293 slug-injection salt dilution tests (Cervi et al., 2014), whereas the volumetric method was 294 used for the precision discharge measurement in springs S-04 and S-06. The M-## 295 springs (Table 1) showed a tiny and intermittent discharge. Therefore, groundwater 296 samples were only taken with uneven frequency when it was possible.

297

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Fig. 3. Measured spring discharge (circles) in the six monitored springs (S-01 to S-06, Table 1) of the PCM hydrogeological system. Gray lines indicate the spring discharge numerically simulated with the HBV model (Seibert and Vis, 2012). For each spring, blue columns indicate the recharge values time series used as input data to the corresponding HBV model.

The isotopic composition (δ^2 H and δ^{18} O) of all low salinity water samples was determined in the Center of Hydrogeology of the University of Málaga (CEHIUMA), where a Picarro® "L2130-I" isotopic water analyzer was used. The analytical

uncertainties for δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H are ± 0.2 ‰ and ± 1.0 ‰, respectively. According to Coplen et al., (2011) several international and laboratory standards have been interspersed for normalization of analyses. The standards used (WICO-13, WICO-14, WICO-15) were calibrated in an interlaboratory comparison (Wassenaar et al., 2012). All results are given relative to the V-SMOW standard.

312

313 **3.2** Approach for spring catchment delineation

314 A critical aspect to understand the behavior of karst hydrogeological flow systems is the 315 delineation of the spring capture zones (i.e., recharge areas) and their boundaries (Goldscheider and Drew, 2007). Ideally, the delineation should be based on the proven 316 317 information of connection between recharge areas and the discharge points. In high 318 mountain zones, this connection may be confirmed by conducting tracer tests 319 (Goldscheider et al., 2008; Mudarra et al., 2014; Barberá et al., 2018b). When this information is not available, the spring capture zone can be indirectly inferred by 320 considering inputs from other classical information sources such as geophysics, 321 structural geology and geomorphology data interpretation. However, 3D conceptual 322 modeling techniques are currently being used to delineate the spring capture zones: 323 Malard et al. (2015) analyze spring discharge hydrographs based on geological three-324 325 dimensional (3D) conceptual modeling (Butscher and Huggenberger, 2007, 2008; 326 Martos-Rosillo et al., 2014; Ruiz-Costán et al., 2015; Malard et al., 2015; Ballesteros et 327 al., 2015b; Epting et al., 2018).

328

In this work, a combined 3D conceptual methodology has been used to delineate the catchment areas associated with each spring. The delineating criteria are based on the

information provided by three complementary methods: (1) the interpretation of the 331 332 geological structure and the subsurface catchments relative to each spring location. To 333 this end, a 3D geological model has been developed in the 3DMove software platform 334 (Midland Valley Exploration Ltd.); (2) the analysis of the disposition and location of the 335 karst landforms over the area, and (3) the analysis through GIS spatial analysis tools of the ground surface structure, including type of soils (CREAF, 2009) and vegetation 336 (Appendix A) at the spring recharge elevation zones. In the case of the regional springs 337 S-01, S-02, S-03 and S-05, the three listed methods have been applied to delineate their 338 catchment zone, whereas in the case of the perched springs S-04 and S-06, only the 339 previous methods (2) and (3) could be applied. Fig. A1 (Appendix A) shows the 340

341 catchment zones (i.e., aquifer units) obtained for the selected springs.

342

The delineated catchment zones associated with the regional springs divide PCM into 343 two main blocks: (1) a southwestern block that includes only the catchment zone 344 associated with S-05. This catchment zone is characterized by a syncline dipping NW 345 346 structure (Fig. 1). From a functional point of view, this zone is hydrodynamically independent of the rest of PCM given the existence of an anticline and a main NE-SW 347 fault that prevents lateral flows. (2) The northeastern block formed by the catchment 348 zone associated with springs S-01, S-02 and S-03. The geological structure of this block 349 350 regulates the regional groundwater flows, so as the Alinyà anticline controls the 351 discharge of spring S-01, and the main syncline-anticline system dips SW along with 352 the minor faults and synclines dipping south conditions the discharge of springs S-02 and S-03. Table A1 (Appendix A) provides the geographical details of the delineated 353 354 groundwater catchment zones.

355

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356 **3.3** Characterizing the seasonal variation of environmental tracers

The evolution of some environmental variables is linked to the atmospheric temperature variation. As a result, these variables often show a similar seasonal pattern that can be characterized with a general sinusoidal function $\delta(t)$ (Jódar et al., 2014). This function consists of two additive terms, a sine-wave function [Eq. 1] plus a temporal linear trend for the mean [Eq. 2].

362

$$\delta(t) = A\sin(\omega(t - t_0) + \varphi) + \overline{\delta}$$
⁽¹⁾

$$\overline{\delta} = \alpha(t - t_0) + \overline{\delta_0} \tag{2}$$

363

where *A* is the amplitude of the sinusoidal function, ω is the angular frequency, φ is the angular initial at time t_0 , α is the slope of the linear trend, and $\overline{\delta_0}$ is the linear trend value at time t_0 . The parameters *A*, α and $\overline{\delta_0}$ can be estimated by using the solution of any of the commonly available spreadsheet software's or manually. In this work, the root-mean-squared error (RMSE) is used as the selection criterion for the best fit to the measured isotope content time series.

370

In the case time series with a short amount of data (e.g., associated with the M-## springs in Table 1), it is not possible to obtain reliable estimates for, α , A, and $\overline{\delta_0}$ by using the method proposed above. In this case, no linear trend in the mean value is assumed ($\alpha = 0$), and $\overline{\delta_0}$ and A are estimated as:

$$\overline{\delta_0} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_i \tag{3}$$

$$A = \max\left(\operatorname{Abs}\left(\overline{\delta_0} - \delta_i\right)\right); \ \forall i = 1 \div N$$
(4)

376 where N is the number of the isotopic content value of the time series.

377

Hydrogeological systems transfer the isotopic input signal of recharge. The tracer input seasonal signal is buffered and delayed as it propagates through the aquifer towards the discharging point (Fig. 4). This tracer transport process through the hydrological system can be described by the convolution integral that relates the tracer input content in recharge δ_{in} to the tracer input content in the spring discharge δ_{out} as shown below.

$$\delta_{out}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \delta_{in}(t)g(t-t')dt'$$
(5)

384

383

where *t* is the time of tracer entry as recharge, *t*' is the integration variable and g(t') is a weighting function describing the Transit Time Distribution (TTD) exit of tracer content that entered the aquifer at different times in the past. The differences between the input and the output tracer signals are related to the aquifer system MTT (τ) which is the first moment of the system TTD and is given by

$$\tau = \int_0^\infty tg(t)dt \tag{6}$$

390

where *V* is the volume of mobile water in the system (Małoszewski et al., 1983), and *Q* is the volumetric flow rate through the system. In the case of natural gradient hydrogeological systems, MTT corresponds to the mean amount of time for groundwater to travel from the recharge zone to the discharging spring. In this situation, MTT is related to the spring discharge flow rate *Q*, and the aquifer storage *V*as follows (Custodio and Llamas, 1976):

$$\tau = \frac{V}{Q} \tag{7}$$

Additionally, in natural gradient hydrogeological systems with a seasonal varying input
tracer function, MTT can be estimated as (Małoszewski et al., 1983):

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\omega} \sqrt{\left(\frac{A_{\delta_{\rm in}}}{A_{\delta_{\rm out}}}\right)^2 - 1} \tag{8}$$

400

401 where $A_{\delta_{in}}$ and $A_{\delta_{out}}$ are the amplitudes of the seasonal variation of the isotopic content 402 in the aquifer recharge and the spring discharge, respectively. As can be shown, the 403 above equation compares $A_{\delta_{in}}$ with respect to $A_{\delta_{out}}$, so the larger the amplitude 404 dampening is, the longer the transit time.

405



406

Fig. 4. Schematic representation of the groundwater system response $\delta_{out}(t, \tau)$ to a hypothetical input tracer function $\delta_{in}(t)$ (modified from Jódar et al., 2016b), where τ means MTT.

410

411 **3.4** Numerical approach for simulating the aquifer behavior

412 To reproduce the observed spring discharge flow rates and the associated isotopic

413 content, a two-step methodology has been used:

415	(1) Simulation of the hydrodynamic behavior of the hydrogeological system. To this
416	end, the freely available version of the semi-distributed conceptual
417	precipitation-runoff model HBV-Light (Seibert and Vis, 2012) is used. HBV is
418	a conceptual rainfall-runoff model for catchment hydrology modeling that solves
419	a general water balance equation. HBV has been used in different alpine
420	mountain hydrologic research studies (Braun and Renner, 1992; Hottelet, et al.,
421	1993; Uhlenbrook et al., 1999; Merz and Blöschl, 2004; Konz and Seibert, 2010;
422	Staudinger et al., 2017; Epting, et al., 2018; Jódar et al., 2018). This model has
423	become a standard tool for simulating high mountain snow-dominated
424	hydrological systems. This code requires as input data some hydroclimatic
425	catchment information such as the relative weight with respect to the total area
426	of the different altitude and associated vegetation zones in the catchment, the
427	vertical lapse rates $\nabla_z P$ and $\nabla_z T$, as well as the time series of daily P, T, and
428	ETP. The hydrological catchment can be separated into numerous elevation
429	zones, depending on the elevation gap between the lowest and the highest points
430	of the catchment. In this work, every zone has been divided into three elevation
431	zones (Table A1 in Appendix A). Additionally, every elevation zone can be
432	divided into different vegetation zones. Based on the Land Cover Map of
433	Catalonia (CREAF, 2009), three vegetation zones are considered: (1) open areas
434	corresponding to zones of both poor or no soils where karst landforms are very
435	well-developed (karren fields, sinkholes, dolines, etc.), (2) areas with mountain
436	meadows and soil moderately developed, and (3) alpine forest zones with
437	moderate to well-developed soils. A two stacked linear reservoir is used to
438	simulate the hydrological system dynamics. The upper reservoir is used to
439	generate surface and subsurface runoff whereas the lower reservoir generates

groundwater runoff. The model considers vegetation zones parameters and
catchment zone parametrer (Tables C1 and C2 of Appendix C, respectively).
They are can be automatically calibrated by minimizing an efficiency objective
function (R_{eff}; Table C3, Appendix C), which is already implemented in HBV.
The model output includes the daily time series of aquifer recharge Q_R, which is
used in the following step.

446

(2) Simulation of the transient isotopic content variation in the groundwater 447 discharge. The temporal variation of the isotopic content in the spring discharge 448 is simulated with FlowPC (Małoszewski and Zuber, 1996, 2002), a lumped 449 450 parameter model typically used to estimate groundwater MTTs with the aid of observed environmental tracer data (Viville et al., 2006; Einsiedl et al., 2009; 451 Katsuyama et al., 2010; Lauber and Goldscheider, 2014; Sánchez-Murillo et al., 452 2015; Mądrala et al., 2017). The program solves the convolution integral [Eq. 5] 453 and transforms the isotopic input tracer signal $\delta_{in}(t)$ entering the hydrogeological 454 455 system as recharge into the isotopic output tracer signal $\delta_{out}(t)$ leaving the system through the spring discharge. To this end, FlowPC includes among 456 others two parametric TTDs which are especially well suited for simulating karst 457 aquifer systems: (A) The exponential model (EM), also known as a "good 458 mixing model", is typically applied in systems where the groundwater flow lines 459 460 tend to converge towards the water sampling points (Zuber, 1986; Amin and Campana, 1996). (B) The Exponential-Piston model (EPM) or "real system 461 462 model", which combines two parts in line, an unconfined upstream part where recharge enters the system and an exponential distribution of transit times is 463 assumed, and a confined downstream part where the flow scheme is 464

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Comment [JJ12]: Answer to Reviewer #3- Q1 465 approximated like the piston flow model (Zuber, 1986). The weighting function466 for EPM is described by the following equation.

467

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < \tau \left(1 - \frac{1}{\eta}\right) \equiv t_{\tau} \\ \\ \frac{1}{\tau} \eta e^{-\frac{\eta}{\tau} + \eta - 1} & t \ge t_{\tau} \end{cases}$$
(9)

468

469 where η is the ratio of total volume of the hydrogeological system to the volume 470 of the system in which the exponential TDD exists, and τ is MTT. [Eq. 9] also 471 describes the EM weighting functions when $\eta = 1$, which is the lowest bound of 472 this parameter. The model parameters (η and τ) are calibrated by minimizing the 473 RMSE function.

474

FlowPC requires the time series of (1) monthly aquifer recharge $\widehat{Q_R}$ (hereinafter, 475 476 a circumflex accent over a flow or an isotopic content variable indicates that the 477 variable is cumulated monthly or averaged, respectively), which is obtained from the HBV model outputs for each simulation, and (2) the corresponding 478 monthly averaged isotopic content of the recharge $\hat{\delta_{R}}$. Given the karstic nature of 479 the hydrogeological system, we assume that the isotopic content of local 480 481 recharge and its seasonal characteristics (i.e., $\overline{\delta}_{in}, A_{\delta_{in}}$) are the same as the 482 isotopic content and seasonal characteristics of local precipitation ($\overline{\delta}_{P}, A_{\delta_{P}}$). Since $\bar{\delta}_P$ and A_{δ_P} are known, then $\delta_P(t)$ is analytically obtained through [Eq.1]. 483 As $\delta_{\rm P}(t)$ is a daily time function, it is necessary to transform it into $\widehat{\delta_{\rm P}}$. For the 484

485 j^{th} month, $\widehat{\delta_{P_j}}$ is obtained by weighting the daily values of recharge isotopic 486 content $\delta_{P_{ij}}$ by the corresponding daily recharge rate $Q_{P_{ij}}$ as

$$\widehat{\delta_{\mathrm{R}_{j}}} \sim \widehat{\delta_{\mathrm{P}_{j}}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_{\mathrm{P}_{ij}} Q_{\mathrm{R}_{ij}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} Q_{\mathrm{R}_{ij}}}$$
(10)

487 where *N* is the number of days of the j^{th} month. The Appendix D includes all the 488 technical details corresponding to the different FlowPC models used in this work 489

490 3.5 Statistical analysis of the relationship between the infiltration coefficient 491 and recharge

To analyze the factors that controls the mean calculated infiltration coefficient (ξ) in the
PCM, a linear regression model has been built, expressing the dependent variable ξ as a

494 linear function of N explanatory variables Ψ_i as

$$\xi = \lambda_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i \Psi_i \tag{11}$$

495	where λ_0 is the intercept (constant) term, and λ_i ($i \ge 1 \div N$) are the regression coefficients
496	associated with the predictors Ψ_i . In this study, the predictor variables of the linear
497	regression model of the [Eq.11] are the elevation of the spring recharge zone Z_R (Table
400	2) the many marginization of the environmentance D (Table () and the many term
498	5), the mean precipitation at the spring recharge zone P_{ZR} (1 able 6), and the percentages
499	of open areas mountain meadows and forest in the spring catchment zones (VZ_1 , VZ_2
155	or open arous, mountain meadows and recest in the spring caterine $20005 (72), 722$
500	and VZ ₃ , respectively; Table A1 in Appendix A). The coefficient of determination of
501	the regression is one, so the model reproduces the whole variance of ξ . Table 7 shows
502	the intercept value λ_0 , the regression coefficients λ_i , and their corresponding
503	standardized value β_i ($i \ge 1 \div N$). The standardized value β_i measures the expected
504	change in ζ , in standard deviation units, for a one standard deviation change in Ψ_i ,

provided that other explanatory variables in the model $(\Psi_i, \forall i \neq j)$ are fixed (Nimon and

506 Oswald, 2013). The larger the absolute value of β_i , the more important the

507 corresponding predictor Ψ_i is.

508

509

510 **4. Results and discussion**

511 4.1 Results from observed data

The isotopic content of the precipitation corresponding to the water samples taken is 512 513 shown in Fig. 5A. The mean isotopic content of precipitation is lighter in winter and autumn than that in spring and summer, as one would expect given the dependence 514 515 between the isotopic content in rainfall and temperature (Mook and De Vries, 2000). The obtained values are aligned between the Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL) and 516 the West Mediterranean Meteoric Water Line (WMMWL) (Fig. 5A). The local water 517 meteoric water line (LMWL) that is obtained by linear regression (N= 76; $R^2 = 0.97$) is 518 defined as $\delta^2 H = 8,05 \cdot \delta^{18} O + 12,74$. From a seasonal point of view, the isotopic content 519 of precipitation in autumn and winter presents a larger variability than the isotopic 520 521 content of precipitation in spring and summer, as shown in Fig. 5B by the error bars indicating the standard deviation associated with every seasonal value. The isotopic 522 content in groundwater changes seasonally much less, than the isotopic content in 523 precipitation (Fig. 5B), pointing out the existence of a good mixing flow process in the 524 525 discharging points of the aquifer.

526

527 The geographical location of the study zone postulates the Mediterranean as the most 528 important source of precipitation. This assumption is supported by the overall mean 529 deuterium excess ($dex = \delta^2 H - 8 \cdot \delta^{18} O$) value of 12,03 ± 3,37 ‰ obtained for all the Comment [JJ13]: Answer to Reviewer #2- Q16

Comment [JJ14]: Answer to Reviewer #3- 01 precipitation samples analyzed (Celle-Jeanton et al., 2001; Jiménez-Martínez and
Custodio, 2008). Nevertheless, the Atlantic fingerprint in rainfall can be observed in the
above *dex* value through its variation interval, which provides a minimum *dex* value of
8,66 ‰ (Froehlich et al., 2001; Araguás-Araguás and Díaz-Teijeiro, 2005).



The isotopic composition of precipitation and spring discharge show a seasonal variation, which is not reflected in the deuterium excess. A seasonal variation in *dex* would indicate the existence of different moisture sources generating rainfall in the Comment [JJ15]: Answer to Reviewer #1

study zone by following a certain seasonal pattern (Schotterer et al 1993; Liu et al 2008;
Froehlich et al 2008). The lack of such seasonal pattern supports the Mediterranean as
the main rainfall source.

552

A sine-wave function [Eq.1] is used to characterize every one of the measured seasonal time series of isotopic content in water from the sampling points (Fig. B1 in Appendix B). Tables 2 and 3 show the calibrated mean isotopic content ($\overline{\delta}$) and amplitude (*A*) corresponding to the time series of isotopic content of precipitation and spring discharge, respectively.

558

Table 2. Mean value $\overline{\delta}_{in}$ and amplitude $A_{\delta_{in}}$ of the seasonal variation in the isotopic content of precipitation for the sampled pluviometers.

-			$\bar{\delta}_{in}$ (‰)			$A_{\delta_{ii}}$	"(‰)
	Pluviometer	$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$	dex	δ	¹⁸ O	$\delta^2 H$
_	P-01	-9.20	-59.91	14.56	3	.34	26.89
	P-02	-9.50	-62.29	13.88	2	.87	23.23
	P-03	-9.20	-60.25	12.94	3	.29	27.92
	P-04	-8.60	-56.11	12.87	3	.02	26.05
	P-05	-8.60	-55.65	12.37	3	.05	23.31
	P-06	-7.80	-51.10	9.53	2	.76	23.96
	P-07	-7.50	-49.06	10.24	2	.59	20.92
	P-08	-7.50	-50.22	9.40	2	.55	19.53

561

562

Table 3. Mean value \bar{s}_{out} and amplitude $A_{\delta_{out}}$ of the seasonal variation in the isotopic content of groundwater for the springs sampled. For every spring, the elevation of the corresponding recharge zone Z_R is included. For this elevation, the associated amplitude $A_{\delta_{ZR}}$ of the seasonal variation in isotopic content of precipitation is shown.

 $\bar{\delta}_{out}$ (‰)

‰)

 $A_{\delta_{\text{out}}}(\%)$

Z_R (m a.s.l)

 $A_{\delta_{ZR}}(\%_0)$

Spring	$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$	dex	$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$	$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$	dex	δ ¹⁸ 0	$\delta^2 H$
S-01	-9,31	-60,65	13,81	0,12	1,10	 1892	1881	1852	3,10	5 26,23
S-02	-9,61	-62,82	14,06	0,25	1,93	2038	2046	1902	3,24	27,18
S-03	-9,18	-59,85	13,60	0,11	1,07	1830	1819	1702	3,12	2 25,88
S-04	-9,01	-58,11	13,95	0,10	0,67	1745	1686	1881	3,07	25,12
S-05	-9,73	-63,36	14,50	0,14	0,88	2099	2088	1994	3,28	3 27,41
S-06	-9,69	-64,03	14,80	0,15	0,90	2078	2140	1798	3,27	27,71
M-05	-9,01	-58,53	13,52	0,44	1,81	1744	1718	1793	3,07	25,31
M-06	-8,70	-54,75	14,88	0,54	2,51	1597	1428	2071	2,98	3 23,65
M-08	-9,49	-62,22	13,68	0,27	1,84	1979	2001	1826	3,21	26,92
M-14	-9,69	-64,01	13,53	1,08	8,01	2079	2138	1795	3,27	27,70
M-15	-9,73	-63,81	14,05	0,87	6,24	2099	2123	1901	3,28	3 27,61
M-16	-9,77	-64,13	14,05	0,65	4,00	2118	2147	1902	3,29	27,75
M-17	-9,76	-64,32	13,73	0,49	2,86	2110	2161	1836	3,29	27,83
M-18	-9,59	-63,12	13,64	0,62	4,12	2031	2070	1817	3,24	27,31
M-24	-9,41	-62,26	13,02	0,47	1,64	1941	2004	1690	3,19	26,93
M-35	-8,90	-57,02	14,14	0,94	7,54	1690	1602	1920	3,04	4 24,65
M-37	-8,44	-54,00	13,53	0,26	0,93	1469	1371	1795	2,90	23,33

The mean isotopic content in rainfall $\bar{\delta}_{in}$ shows a clear-cut linear relationship with 568 elevation (Fig. 6) that allows defining Isotopic Altitudinal Lines (IAL) for $\delta^{18}O,\,\delta^2H$ 569 and *dex*, with slopes (i.e., vertical gradients $\nabla_z \delta^{18} 0$, $\nabla_z \delta^2 H$ and $\nabla_z dex$) of -1,9, -12,1 570 571 and 4,7 ‰/km, respectively. Vertical gradients ($\nabla_z \delta$) of mean isotopic content in precipitation are common in mountain zones (see Poage and Chamberlain, 2001, and 572 573 references therein) and are related to the atmospheric decreasing thermal vertical profile existing along the slope of the mountains. $\nabla_z \delta$ values obtained for the study zone are 574 575 like those obtained in other alpine areas, especially in the central Pyrenees and the Alps (Table 4). 576



578

Fig. 6. Relationship between elevation and the mean isotopic content in precipitation and springs. (A) δ^{18} O, (B) δ^{2} H, and (C) *dex*. Error bars indicate the standard deviation. Dashed lines indicate the local Isotopic Altitudinal Line (IAL) of precipitation.

The vertical gradients of the mean isotopic content in precipitation depend linearly on the mean seasonal precipitation (Fig. 7). In the case of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H, the higher the seasonal precipitation is, the lower the seasonal gradient is. In the case of *dex*, the relationship is reversed, obtaining a higher $\nabla_z dex$ value as seasonal precipitation

increases. In a seasonal framework, recycling moisture evaporated from the land surface 587 588 to atmosphere may increase dex of local precipitation. Soil evaporation is maximum 589 when atmospheric vapor pressure deficit ($\Delta e = e - e_{sat}$, e being the atmospheric water pressure and esat the saturating water pressure at the air parcel temperature) is 590 maximum, if the soil contains water for evaporating. Therefore, to allow soil water to 591 592 evaporate, it is necessary to have enough (1) soil water content, which is higher in spring and autumn since these are the rainiest seasons, and (2) atmospheric vapor 593 pressure deficits (Δe). Satisfying these two conditions, $\nabla_z dex$ is maximum when the 594 595 difference in dex (i.e., Δe) between the highest and the lowest points of the mountain 596 slope is maximum. Given that e_{sat} is an increasing function of temperature (Gonfiantini 597 et al., 2001), Δe will decrease as temperature declines. During the cold season, despite a 598 thermal difference existing between the highest and lowest points of the mountain, the 599 difference in Δe between these points is minimum. Additionally, the commented Δe difference is minimum as well when there is no thermal difference along the mountain 600 slope, a situation that is favored by the cathabaltic winds in winter (Obleitner, 1994; 601 602 Gladich et al., 2011) but is also favored by the vertical atmosphere air mixing during the 603 typical summer local low pressure convective rainfall events.



Fig. 7. Dependence of the vertical gradient of the mean isotopic content with respect to the
mean seasonal precipitation. The subscripts Sp, S, A, and W stand for spring, summer, autumn
and winter, respectively.

609

The amplitude of the seasonal variation in the isotopic content of precipitation $A_{\delta_{in}}$ relates linearly to elevation (Fig. 8) to allow defining Amplitude Altitudinal Lines (AAL) for δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H with slopes (i.e., vertical gradients $\nabla_{z}A_{\delta^{18}O}$ and $\nabla_{z}A_{\delta^{2}H}$) of 0,6 and 5,7 ‰/km, respectively. Similar vertical gradients have previously been reported in the central Pyrenees (Jódar el al., 2016b) and the Bernese Alps (Jódar el al., 2016a) (Table 4).



Fig. 8. Relationship between elevation and amplitude of the seasonal variation of the isotopic content (δ^{18} O, δ^{2} H) in precipitation. Dashed line and dashed-dotted line indicate the local Amplitude Altitudinal Lines (AALs) of precipitation for δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H, respectively.

Table 4. Vertical gradients of mean isotopic water content and amplitude of the seasonalvariation of the isotopic water content in precipitation.

	Z_{min} - Z_{max}	$\nabla_z \delta^{18} 0$	$\nabla_z \delta^2 \mathbf{H}$	$\nabla_z dex$	$\nabla_z A_{\delta^{18}0}$	$\nabla_z A_{\delta^2 H}$	Reference
Zone	(m a.s.l.)	(‰/km)	(‰/km)	(‰/km)	(‰/km)	(‰/km)	
Eastern Pyrenees	896-1936	-1,9	-15,2	4,7	0,6	6,1	This study
(PCM ^a)							
Central Pyrenees	772-2200	-2,2	-17,4	2,2	0,9	4,4	Jódar et al.
(PNOMP ^b)							(2016a)
Bernese Alps	874-2023	-3,0	-19,7	3,7	1,6	14,6	Jódar et al.
							(2016b)
Austrian Alps	580-2245	-1,9	-12,0	2,7	-	-	Froehlich et
							al. (2008)
Austrian Alps	469-1598	-1,3	-8,0	3,4	-	-	Froehlich et
							al. (2008)

Central	Andes	2380-4250	-4,7	-42,5	2,2	-	-	Aravena et
(western f	lank)							al. (1989)
Central	Andes	2380-4250	-1,9	-14,3	1,1	-	-	Fiorella et
(eastern fl	ank)							al. (2015)
Central	Andes	200-4080	-1,7	-11,7	2,0	-	-	Gonfiantini
(eastern fl	ank)							et al. (2001)
Western		104-2008	-2,1	-	-	-	-	Holko et al.
Carpathia	ns							(2012)
Mount Ca	meroon	10-4050	-1,16	-11,4	1,4	-	-	Gonfiantini
								et al. (2001)
(a) Dort d	al Comta N	lessif: (b): Ordess	and Monta I	Dandida Matic	nol Dorl			

(a): Port del Comte Massif; (b): Ordesa and Monte Perdido National Park

624

625 The mean isotopic content of groundwater corresponding to local (perched) springs 626 shows a relationship with elevation dependence with a vertical gradient larger than that of precipitation (Fig. 6), indicating the existence of aquifer recharge along the mountain 627 slope, a process also known as slope effect (Custodio and Jódar, 2016). Additionally, 628 the evolution of the isotopic content in the spring discharge shows a seasonal 629 dependence like precipitation but showing smaller amplitudes (Fig. B1 in Appendix B). 630 Even being lumped, the seasonal pattern of recharge is observed in the spring discharge, 631 632 indicating that MTT should not be longer than 5 or 6 years (DeWalle et al., 1997).

633

The isotopic altitudinal line (IAL, Fig. 6) allows estimation of the elevation of the recharge zone (Z_R) corresponding to every spring by projecting their mean isotopic content on IAL. Table 3 shows Z_R for all the springs, with their mean Z_R value ranging between 1420 m a.s.l. (M-37) and 2136 m a.s.l. (M-17). With a known value for Z_R , it is possible to calculate the amplitude of the variation in the isotopic content in precipitation at the recharge zone elevation ($A_{\delta ZR}$) by projecting Z_R on the amplitude

altitudinal line (AAL, Fig. 8). Table 2 shows $A_{\delta_{ZR}}$ for every spring. Finally, if both $A_{\delta_{ZR}}$ (i.e., $A_{\delta_{in}}$ at the springs recharge zone) and $A_{\delta_{out}}$ are known, it is possible to obtain a first analytical estimate of MTT through [Eq. 8]. Table 5 provides the MTT values obtained for all the springs. As can be shown, the obtained MTT values range between 0,5 and 5 yr.

646

Table 5. MTT values estimated for the springs sampled

		$\delta^{18}O$		$\delta^2 H$
Spring	$ au^{a}(yr)$	$\tau^{\rm b}({ m yr})$	η(-)	$ au^{a}(yr) au^{b}(yr) \qquad \eta(-)$
S-01	4,10	2,25	1,02	3,78 3,00 1,01
S-02	2,06	1,42	1,02	2,23 1,96 1,00
S-03	4,67	2,25	1,00	3,83 2,33 1,01
S-04	4,70	2,33	1,01	5,93 2,67 1,00
S-05	3,73	2,88	1,02	4,98 2,83 1,01
S-06	3,47	2,58	1,02	4,90 2,75 1,02
M-05	1,10	-	1,00	2,22 - 1,00
M-06	0,86	-	1,00	1,49 - 1,00
M-08	1,89	-	1,00	2,32 - 1,00
M-14	0,45	-	1,00	0,53 - 1,00
M-15	0,58	-	1,00	0,69 - 1,00
M-16	0,79	-	1,00	1,09 - 1,00
M-17	1,06	-	1,00	1,54 - 1,00
M-18	0,82	-	1,00	1,04 - 1,00
M-24	1,07	-	1,00	2,61 - 1,00
M-35	0,49	-	1,00	0,5 - 1,00
M-37	1,77	-	1,00	3,99 1,00

(a) Analytical MTT value obtained by [Eq. 8]. (b) Numerical MTT value

obtained by FlowPC.

649 4.2 Aquifer recharge evaluation through HBV

The HBV semi-distributed conceptual rainfall-runoff model has been used to simulate 650 the observed groundwater discharge in every spring. The spring discharges were 651 measured every fortnight between July 2013 and October 2015. This period has been 652 653 used for calibrating the HBV parameters, which are shown in Table C4 (Appendix C). The efficiency parameter R_{eff} that describes the goodness of the model fit ranges 654 655 between 0,55 (S-01) and 0,77 (S-05) (Table C5, Appendix C). The computed discharges resemble the observed discharges by reproducing their temporal evolution in all the 656 springs (Fig. 3). 657

658

The results from the HBV model indicated that recharge is especially concentrated in the open areas (VZ₁) and meadow areas (VZ₂). The yearly average effective recharge ranges from 210 mm/yr (S-04) to 637 mm/yr (S-06) (Table 6). The aquifer infiltration capacity ξ (i.e., the ratio between Q_{Re} – the effective recharge of the aquifer, and P_{ZR} – precipitation at the spring recharge zone) ranges as the yearly average ranges from 28,3% (S-03) to almost 62% (S-06) (Table 6).

666 Table 6. Mean annual precipitation P_{ZR} , mean aquifer recharge Q_R , seasonal distribution of 667 recharge, infiltration capacity ξ .

Spring	P _{ZR}	Q _R	$\frac{Q_{R_{eSpring}}}{Q_{R}}$	$\frac{Q_{R_{eSummer}}}{Q_{R}}$	$\frac{Q_{R_{eAutumn}}}{Q_{R}}$	$\frac{Q_{R_{eWinter}}}{Q_{R}}$	ξ ^a
	(mm/yr)	(mm/yr)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
S-01	954	473	37,5%	15,0%	25,4%	22,1%	49,6%
S-02	1006	433	40,8%	12,3%	23,8%	23,1%	43,0%
S-03	793	227	38,1%	6,7%	27,2%	27,9%	28,6%

S-04	698	210	37,0%	10,2%	25,4%	27,4%	30,1%
S-05	1008	429	42,5%	14,3%	23,0%	20,2%	42,6%
S-06	1030	637	45,9%	8,9%	21,2%	24,0%	61,9%
(a)	$\xi = Q_{R_{e}}/P_{z}$	R					

Aquifer recharge follows a linear relationship similar to precipitation, as found by Martos-Rosillo et al. (2015) for the mountain carbonate aquifers in the Betic Cordillera (Southern Spain), where recharge is generally lower (Fig. 9A). In PCM, recharge is at a maximum in spring, accounting for 40,3% of the total recharge, and this outcome is explained by both rainfall and snow melt infiltration. Recharge is at a minimum (11,2%) in summer, coinciding with the period of minimum seasonal precipitation.





Fig. 9. (A) Mean annual rainfall versus mean annual recharge, (B) Mean infiltration coefficient
versus mean annual rainfall, and (C) Mean infiltration coefficient versus mean annual recharge.

The relationship between ξ and P (Fig. 9B) is not as clear as the relationship between ξ and R (Fig. 9C), indicating that precipitation is a necessary condition for aquifer recharge, but it is not enough. In this respect, the results of the application of the linear regression model between the variables Z_{R} , $P_{ZR, and}$ VZ₁, VZ₂ and VZ₃; shows that the Z_R and is the most important predictor controlling the aquifer infiltration capacity ξ . In addition, VZ₁ (karren fields and sinkholes at the highest parts of the massif) and VZ₃ (forest fields at the lowest of the massif) also play a role regarding ξ . These parameters reflect the differences in both the karstification degree and the vegetation covering theepikarst system in the PCM.

689

690 Table 7. No standardized (λ) and standardized (β) regression coefficients associated with the

691 explanatory variables used in the multiple regression method.

Explanatory Variable	λ	β
Intercept (λ_0)	-39,562	
Z_R	0,047	0,823
P _{ZR}	-0,007	-0,054
VZ_1	6,034	0,133
VZ_2	4,018	0,072
VZ_3	258,518	0,122



693

694 **4.3** Determination of spring discharge mean transit time

To estimate the mean transit time of the spring discharge, the program FlowPC v3.2 695 696 (Małoszewski and Zuber, 1996) has been used. According to the hydrogeological 697 setting, it is assumed that the EPM flow model can describe the behavior of the aquifers discharging through the springs of PCM. The lumped model parameters (η and τ) have 698 been calibrated (Table 5) by fitting the isotopic contents observed in the spring 699 discharge from December 2013 to December 2015 (Fig. 10). The goodness of fit is 700 defined in terms of RMSE, ranging between 0,02‰ (S-05) and 0,04‰ (S-02) for δ^{18} O 701 (Table D1, Appendix D), and between 0,17% (S-03) and 0,22% (S-04) for $\delta^2 H$ (Table 702 703 D2, Appendix D).



Fig. 10. Measured against simulated isotope content evolution with FlowPC and an EPM model.

707 The gray line represents the best fit.

708

The estimated value of η is very close to 1 regardless of the spring, indicating that the corresponding aquifers behave as almost an exponential flow model in coherence with the behavior of a karst aquifer system discharging through a main spring. The estimated MTT with the applied methodology ranges between 1,69 yr (S-02) and 2,85 yr (S-05), vhile in the case of the analytical approach MTT ranges between 2,14 yr (S-02) and

714 5,31 yr (S-04).

715



716

Fig. 11. Graph showing the MTT values estimated based on the lumped parameter model
FlowPC (Maloszewski, 1996) versus the MTT values estimated based on the analytical model
[Eq. 8] (Maloszewski et al., 1983)

720

721 The MTT values obtained by this numerical approach are 1,9 times shorter than the 722 MTT values analytically obtained through [Eq. 8] that compares the amplitude of the 723 seasonal isotopic content of recharge with the seasonal isotopic content in the spring discharge [Fig 11]. In the numerical case, the monthly isotopic content in recharge is 724 weighted by the monthly volumetric recharge rate, whereas in the analytical case, the 725 isotopic content weighting coefficients for the monthly recharge are all equal to 1 726 727 because recharge is assumed constant (i.e., steady state) for the whole period covered by 728 the isotopic content time series. This assumption is worth keeping in mind when using [Eq. 8] for estimating groundwater mean transit times. In other words, if aquifer 729 730 recharge shows a seasonal pattern, then the numerical approach should be used instead of the analytical approach to estimate MTT. The transit time discrepancies between both 731

732 approaches may be critical when MTT is used as a vulnerability indicator for karstfissure aquifers (Malík et al, 2016). The results obtained suggest that the numerical 733 approach based explicitly on considering the recharge series in the LPM model provides 734 a more accurate evaluation of hydraulic dynamics throughout the system. This allows 735 better MTT estimations, similar of what concluded Vitvar et al. (1999) in pre-alpine 736 non-karst aquifers. The MTT values obtained in this work are consistent with the 737 conceptual model of the karst system. The aquifer presents specific zones with rapid 738 739 recharge through surficial karstic elements (e.g. swallow holes) and slow recharge 740 trough meadows and forest.

741

742	In terms of MTT, the results obtained in this study are similar to those obtained in other
743	hydrological karst systems located in mountain zones: (1) In the case of the Ordesa and
744	Monte Perdido karst aquifer system (Central Pyrenees, Spain), which is the highest
745	calcareous massif in Western Europe, Lambán et al. (2015) and Jódar et al. (2016b)
746	estimated MMT for several springs. For each spring the authors fitted a sinusoidal
747	function [Eq. 1] to the measured tracer (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) content time series
748	corresponding to rainfall entering the system as recharge and the spring discharge,
749	obtaining the amplitude of the seasonal variation of both the input and output system
750	tracer function ($A_{\delta_{in}}$ and $A_{\delta_{out}}$, respectively; Fig. 4). Besides, the authors assumed a
751	constant recharge rate along the year. This hypothesis allowed obtaining an analytical
752	solution to the convolution integral [Eq. 5] (Jódar et al., 2014) but also applying [Eq. 8]
753	to directly estimate MTT, that ranged between 1,12 and 4,48 yr.
754	

(2) In the Wimbach high-alpine karst system (Berchtesgaden Alps) Einsiedl et al.(2009) estimated MTT with FlowPC. To this end, they used as tracer input function the

757	time series of 'H content in rainfall measured in a meteorological station close to the
758	study zone, and as system output the time series of ³ H content in groundwater discharge
759	for different springs and also at the outlet of the hydrological catchment. They obtained
760	MTT ranging between 4 and 5 yr for the considered springs, and 5 yr for the whole
761	hydrologic catchment. For the same catchment, Maloszewski et al. (1992) evaluated the
762	MTT by using monthly recharge time series instead of rainfall time series. The aquifer
763	recharge time series was obtained by applying a seasonal infiltration coefficient to the
764	observed monthly precipitation time series. With this approach they estimated a MTT of
765	4,15 yr. This value is close to that obtained by Einsiedl et al. (2009). Additionally,
766	Garvelmann et al. (2017) expanded the previous studies in the Berchtesgaden Alps for a
767	total of eight springs. For each spring they estimated MTT using two different methods;
768	(A) by numerically solving the convolution integral [Eq. 5], and (B) though [Eq. 8] by
769	previously conducting a sin-wave analysis [Eq. 1] to the input (i.e. rainfall) and output
770	tracer functions. The MTT obtained by both methods did not show large discrepancies
771	for the same spring. In terms of the obtained MTT the sampled springs were be
772	classified in two groups: a first group with relatively short MTTs (0,7 to 1,9 yr) and a
773	second group with longer MTTs (7,3 to 12,5 yr).
774	
775	(3) In the Schneealpe massif Rank et al. (1992) used the environmental tracers to study
776	the karstic-fissured-porous aquifer system of Schneealpe, The aquifer system that is
777	drained by two principal springs is the main drinking water resource for Vienna

778 (Austria). It is composed of a fissured-porous aquifer with a high storage capacity that

779 partially feds a karst aquifer conformed by a high- conductivity drainage channel

- network. For each aquifer they estimated MTT by calibrating a LPM with a 8 years long
- 781 time series of environmental tracer data, using ³H and δ^{18} O for the fissured-porous and

782	the karst aquifer, respectively. In the former case MTTs ranged between 2,5 and 4,5 yr,
783	whereas in the karst aquifer the estimated MTT was only 2 months. Maloszewski et al.
784	(2002) recalibrated both LPMs by refining and extending up to 20 years the length of
785	the observed time series of ${}^{3}\mathrm{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\mathrm{O}$ measurements. In the case of the fissured-
786	porous aquifer the obtained MTTs ranged between 14 and 26 yr, being significantly
787	larger than those obtained by Rank et al (1992). Nevertheless, in the case of the karst
788	aquifer the obtained MTTs were similar ranging between1,2 and 1,5 months. The large
789	discrepancy between the MTT associated to the Fissured-Porous and karst aquifer
790	indicates that water enters the aquifer system at the surface and flows through it towards
791	the conductive drainage channels until reaching the springs. Nevertheless, the short
792	MTTs associated to the karst aquifer reveal a direct hydraulic connection between the
793	sinkholes at the surface and the drainage channel network.
794	
795	(4) In the Wetterstein Mountains karst aquifer system Lauber and Goldscheider (2014)
796	used both artificial (uranine) and environmental tracers (¹⁸ O and ² H) to investigate the
797	hydrological behavior of the system. Despite the low recovery of artificial tracer during
798	the tracer test, the fast tracer arrival observed in all the sampled springs, with peak times
799	between 1,8 and 3,2 days, indicates as in the previous case, the existence of well-
800	developed flow paths through thick (>1000 m) USZ. This result underlines the role that
801	may play the USZ conditioning the hydrologic response of the karst system. The
802	authors estimated the aquifer MTT with FlowPC by using as input tracer content that of
803	precipitation, and assuming a constant (without any seasonality) aquifer recharge rate.
804	The obtained MTT values ranged between 3 and 5 months, being significantly shorter

than those MTT presented above for the other karst systems.

Comment [JJ16]: Answer to Reviewer #1– General Comment 3 Answer to Reviewer #3– Q2 Answer to Reviewer #4– Q1

The hydrological system MTT reflects the diversity of aquifer flow paths and 807 808 groundwater mixing from the recharge zone to the discharge point. Considering that the 809 different aquifers constituting the PCM show an exponential flow model (EM) behavior, and provided that MTT (τ ; Table 5) and the aquifer mean recharge flow rate 810 (Q_R; Table 6) are known, it is possible to estimate the aquifer storage (i.e., mixing) 811 volume by using [Eq. 7]. In Table 8, the stored dynamic volume ('mobile water volume 812 -V_m'; Małoszewski and Zuber (2002); where: $V_m = Q_R \cdot \tau$) is associated with the 813 814 catchment areas (Fig. A1 of the Appendix A) discharging through the springs S-01 to S-815 06. S-05 and S-02 play a major role in terms of both groundwater discharge and aquifer storage. The springs S-05 and S-02 present a similar area and a similar discharge. 816 817 Nevertheless, from a geometrical point of view, they are different: S-05 is rounded in shape whereas S-02 is elongated. Considering that aquifer recharge is produced mainly 818 in the highest parts of PCM, it is clear that the distance between the recharge and 819 discharge points is larger in the case of S-02. This difference is interesting if one 820 821 considers that the mean transit time of S-02 is shorter than the mean transit time of S-822 05. The shorter transit time would indicate a higher development of the karst water conducting features in the catchment area of S-02. The springs S-04 and S-06 denote 823 824 their perched character with the associated low discharge flow rates and groundwater reserve volumes. 825

827 Table 8. Estimation of dynamic volume V_m stored in the aquifer for the springs analyzed

Spring	$V_m (hm^3)$
S-01	2,44 + 0,49
S-02	11,54 + 2,61
S-03	1,72 + 0,04

S-04	0,03 + 0,01
S-05	19,39 + 0,20
S-06	0,09 + 0,01

The few available groundwater level depth data from old water wells in the PCM 829 830 suggest the karst aquifer presents low regional hydraulic gradients in the phreatic zone ranging between 1 - 2%. Nevertheless, while considering the expected mean phreatic 831 832 level above the horizontal plane from the spring levels (i.e., the groundwater that contributes to each spring discharge), the 3D geological model evaluates the total 833 aquifer formation volume (V_{aq}) associated with the regional springs S-01, S-02, S-03 834 and S-05. Assuming V_{aq} as known, the mean aquifer interconnected porosity (φ) can 835 836 therefore be estimated as the ratio V_{GW}/V_{aq} . In the PCM, the average ϕ obtained is 3,1%. This result agrees with the value obtained for other carbonate aquifers of the 837 838 Betic Cordillera (Southern Iberian Peninsula) with an average value of 3% (Pulido-Bosch et al., 2004; Martos- Rosillo et al., 2014). 839

840

This work is aimed to characterize the hydrological behavior of a high mountain karst 841 system with a overlaying thick UZS that plays a relevant role along with in the system 842 843 response. The applied approach allows accounting the effects of the extreme alpine 844 climate conditions on both the aquifer recharge rates and the isotopic composition of 845 recharge. The used approach provides a more reliable assessment of the hydrological behavior of these alpine karst systems than the obtained applying the traditional 846 approaches found in the scarce bibliography. The methodology used in this work for 847 characterizing the hydrological behavior of PCM can be applied in many analogue high 848 849 mountain karst systems whose hydrologic behavior still remains unknown. In this sense, Table 9 shows a brief summary of the available bibliography at the pan-European zone 850

851 focused on high-mountain karst aquifers with a thick USZ in which this methodology

could be tested (Fig. 12).

- 853
- 854 Table 9. Brief summary of published research studies of groundwater flow karst systems in

855 mountain areas with thick USZ the pan-European zone.

Code	High mountain karst system	NSZ Thickness	Reference
1	Yunquera-Sierra de las Nieves	1000	Andreo et al. (2004); Pardo-Iguzquiza et al.
			(2015)
2	Alta Cadena	700	Mudarra and Andreo (2011)
3	Sierra Gorda	500	Mudarra and Andreo (2015)
4	Picos de Europa	1500	Ballesteros et al. (2015a); Ruiz and Poblete
			(2012)
5	Ordesa y Monte Perdido	1500	Lambán et al. (2015); Jódar et al. (2016b)
6	Port del Comte	1000	(This research)
7	Fontaine Vaucluse	800	Fleury et al. (2007)
8	Schlichenden Brünnen -	1000	Jeannin (2001)
	Muotathal		
9	Wetterstein Mountains	1000	Lauber and Goldscheider (2014)
	(Zugspitze)		
10	Wimbachtal catchment	1500	Maloszewski et al. (1992)
11	Totes Gebirge	1000	Laimer (2010)
12	Schneealpe Massif	900	Rank et al 1992; Maloszewski et al. (2002)
13	Cansiglio-Cavallo karst aquifer	800	Filippini et al. (2018)
14	Mount Kanin	2000	Zini et al. (2015); Turk et al. (2015)
15	Gacka	1000	Ozyurt et al. (2014)
16	Gran Sasso aquifer	1500	Falcone et al. (2008); Amuroso et al. (2013)
17	Arabika Massif	2500	Klimchouk (2009)
18	Aladaglar Mountains	2000	Ozyurt and Bayari (2008)



858

859 Fig. 12. Spatial distribution of carbonate rock outcrops at the pan-Mediterranean zone. Red

860 points indicate the position of those high mountain karst aquifers zones with a thick (<500 m)

861 NSZ referenced in the existing bibliography (map modified from the World Map of Carbonate

- 862 Rock Outcrops v.3.0. Source: http://www.fos.auckland.ac.nz/our_research/karst). Numbers in
- bullets correspond to the codes shown in Table 9.

864

865 4.4 Evaluation of results for groundwater management purposes

866 MTT is a corner stone for groundwater management strategies, and many authors have used this variable as a proxy of vulnerability assessment in hydrogeological systems 867 (Einsiedl et al., (2009) and Malik et al., (2016), among others). This work provides the 868 869 first estimation of the MTT associated with most important springs discharging the PCM karst system. From the perspective of aquifer vulnerability, the intensive cattle 870 grazing conducted in the PCM is the most threading activity to the groundwater 871 872 resources stored in the underlying aquifer so far. The relatively large MTTs (2,25 yr) 873 along with the exponential flow model describing the hydrologic behavior of PCM, Comment [JJ17]: Answer to Reviewer #3- Q2 Answer to Reviewer #4- Q1

874	points to groundwater mixing as a natural attenuation/dilution process inside the aquifer
875	system. However, it must be taken in mind that the presence of unnoticed but likely
876	well-developed flow paths through the USZ and also the existence of karst conductive
877	features in the saturated zone of the PCM may favor fast contaminant migration from
878	the recharge areas to the groundwater discharge points of this aquifer system, but this is
879	investigation is out of the scope of this work.

881	From the perspective of water resources management the storage and dynamic volumes
882	associated with the PCM aquifer system are also valuable information obtained in this
883	study. In this line, it is worth to comment that the PCM aquifer system has an integrated
884	groundwater storage capacity (V_{GW}) of 35,2 hm ³ , and generates an overall mean annual
885	groundwater discharge of 15,35 hm ³ /yr, that represents 15% of the mean annual water
886	consumption in the city of Barcelona (Barcelona City Council, 2018). Moreover, the
887	average discharge of S-05, which is one of the main groundwater springs of the PCM
888	represents 7% of the mean annual water consumption of Barcelona city. This discharge
889	tributes to the Llobregat River Basin, which in turns provides critical water resources to
890	the Barcelona metropolitan area. It is important keeping these numbers in mind to
891	estimate the water resources availability given the increased frequency and severity of
892	the Mediterranean droughts reported by the experts (Hoerling et al., 2012; Vicente-
893	Serrano et al., 2014).
894	

895	In the Pyrenean range, climate models forecast a precipitation decrease up to 14% with
896	respect to the observed mean precipitation and a temperature increase between 2 and 4
897	°C that will reduce the amount of solid precipitation and the corresponding snowmelt
808	runoff (López-Moreno et al. 2008, 2009). In addition, the duration of the snownack will
899	be shorter, shifting the timing of the snowmelt (Adam et al., 2009). The PCM is in the
--	---
900	pre-Pyrenean zone to the South of the Pyrenean axial zone. Here, the elevation of the
901	mountains is lower, and the climate conditions are not so severe, accelerating the impact
902	of the forecast temperature increase on snow precipitation, snowmelt runoff generation
903	and the dynamics of the hydrological systems located in this area. Therefore, the
904	geographical and hydrogeological settings of the PCM, along with the groundwater
905	transit times calculated, make the PCM aquifer system an exceptional observatory for
906	anticipating and studying the climate change impact on southern Europe. In this line, it
907	would be extremely important to maintain the observation research program to fully
908	understand the hydrogeological behavior of this aquifer system.
909	
910	4.5 Future works in PCM
910 911	Future works in PCMThis study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer
910 911 912	 4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge
910 911 912 913	4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by
910 911 912 913 914	4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the
910 911 912 913 914 915	4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the total transit time of groundwater and how this role is reflected in the hydrogeochemical
910 911 912 913 914 915 916	 4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the total transit time of groundwater and how this role is reflected in the hydrogeochemical evolution of the springs discharge after important rainfall events and during low-flows
910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917	4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the total transit time of groundwater and how this role is reflected in the hydrogeochemical evolution of the springs discharge after important rainfall events and during low-flows and (2) the use of artificial tracers and environmental isotopes (e.g. 34S, 15N) to
910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917 918	4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the total transit time of groundwater and how this role is reflected in the hydrogeochemical evolution of the springs discharge after important rainfall events and during low-flows and (2) the use of artificial tracers and environmental isotopes (e.g. 34S, 15N) to characterize not only the mean transit time (i.e. the first moment of the transit-time
910 911 912 913 914 915 915 916 917 918	 4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the total transit time of groundwater and how this role is reflected in the hydrogeochemical evolution of the springs discharge after important rainfall events and during low-flows and (2) the use of artificial tracers and environmental isotopes (e.g. 34S, 15N) to characterize not only the mean transit time (i.e. the first moment of the transit-time distribution) but also to profile the groundwater transit-time distribution in terms of fast,
910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917 918 919	4.5 Future works in PCM This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the total transit time of groundwater and how this role is reflected in the hydrogeochemical evolution of the springs discharge after important rainfall events and during low-flows and (2) the use of artificial tracers and environmental isotopes (e.g. 34S, 15N) to characterize not only the mean transit time (i.e. the first moment of the transit-time distribution) but also to profile the groundwater transit-time distribution in terms of fast, intermediate and slow groundwater flows. This investigation is crucial to evaluate the

Comment [JJ18]: Answer to Reviewer #23- Q17

Comment [JJ19]: Answer to Reviewer #1– General Comment 2

5. Conclusions

923	A distributed rainfall-runoff model and a lumped-parameter model have been combined
924	to estimate MTT in high-mountain karst systems with an overlying thick unsaturated
925	zone by using the stable isotopes of precipitation as environmental tracers. The
926	presented approach accounts for the effects of the alpine climate conditions on both the
927	aquifer recharge rates and the isotopic composition of recharge. The used approach
928	provides a more reliable assessment of mean transit time compared to traditional
929	methods for such alpine karst systems.
930	
931	The approach presented in this work has been used to characterize the hydrological
932	behavior of the Port del Comte Massif, a high mountain karst aquifer with a 1000 m
933	thick unsaturated zone located in the southeastern part of the Pyrenees. The percentage
934	of precipitation that enters into the hydrogeological system as aquifer recharge reaches
935	61,9% (the highest studied spring in the area). This elevated infiltration capacity is
936	controlled by the presence of karren fields and sinkholes at the highest parts of Port del
937	Comte Massif, at elevations between 2050 and 2300 m a.s.l. The evolution of the
938	isotopic content in the sampled springs shows a sinusoidal pattern that reflects the
939	seasonal variation of the isotopic composition of recharge. This is consistent with the
940	relatively short groundwater transit times (2,25 yr) obtained for the hydrological system,
941	which is in agreement with its karstic nature of the aquifer system, and emphasizes the
942	high vulnerability of the aquifer system to variations in recharge.
943	

The mean annual groundwater discharge and the mean water storage of the Port del
Comte Massif hydrogeological system represent 16 and 34% of the mean annual water
consumption in the city of Barcelona, underlying the important role as a strategic water

947 resource that the Port del Comte Massif may play for stakeholders and water resources
948 managers when facing the drought episodes that the Mediterranean region iteratively
949 suffers. Moreover, given the geographical position of the study zone, located to the
950 south of the Pyrenean axial zone, and the hydrogeological settings of the associated
951 karst aquifer system, the Port del Comte Massif is an exceptional watchtower for
952 anticipating the impact of climate change in Southern Europe.

953

954

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Comment [JJ20]: Answer to Reviewer #12-05 972

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- 1458

1459 Appendix A: Groundwater catchment areas for the springs S-01 to S-06.



into which every GWC is divided.

	GWC	El	evation Zone	es	Vegeta	tion Zor	ne Areas	Per	rcentage Are	eas
Index	Associated Spring	Z _{min} (m a.s.l.)	Z _{max} (m a.s.l.)	EZ _{ij} ^a (ha)	VZ ₁ ^b (ha)	VZ ₂ ^c (ha)	VZ ₃ ^d (ha)	$\frac{VZ_1/EZ_{ij}}{(\%)}$	$\frac{VZ_2/EZ_{ij}}{(\%)}$	VZ ₃ /EZ _{ij} (%)
1	S-01	1334	1600	204,0	41,8	56,8	105,5	20,5	27,8	51,7
		1601	1851	219,1	19,0	67,7	132,4	8,7	30,9	60,4
		1851	2141	122,8	4,8	6,8	111,1	3,9	5,5	90,5
2	S-02	1122	1543	106,9	8,2	26,0	72,7	7,7	24,3	68,0
		1544	1965	756,5	32,2	210,3	514,0	4,3	27,8	67,9

Comment [JJ21]: Answer to Reviewer #2- Q9

		1966	2385	1389,5	183,8	443,5	762,2	13,2	31,9	54,9
3	S-03	1201	1443	102,3	1,7	36,9	63,7	1,7	36,1	62,3
		1444	1686	561,2	19,5	178,9	362,8	3,5	31,9	64,6
		1687	1927	522,6	12,6	119,4	390,6	2,4	22,8	74,7
4	S-04	1468	1710	9,1	0,1	2,8	6,2	1,1	30,8	68,1
		1711	1847	0,9	0,1	0,5	0,3	11,1	55,6	33,3
		1848	1875	0,1	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,0	100,0	0,0
5	S-05	1421	1663	234,3	8,1	24,4	201,8	3,5	10,4	86,1
		1664	1973	635,5	45,4	126,0	464,1	7,1	19,8	73,0
		1974	2348	1278,4	215,5	495,0	568,0	16,9	38,7	44,4
6	S-06	1838	1926	11,9	0,7	0,7	10,5	5,9	5,9	88,2
		1927	2014	20,7	0,1	1,8	18,8	0,5	8,7	90,8
		2015	2101	13,4	0.0	2,3	11,2	0.0	17,2	83,6

(a) For a given elevation zone EZ_{ij} the subscripts "i" (from 1 to 6) and "j" refer to the corresponding groundwater catchment zone and elevation zone number, respectively; (b) VZ_1 corresponds to open areas; (c) VZ_2 corresponds to mountain meadows; (d) VZ_3 corresponds to forest zones

1471 Appendix B: Sinusoidal functions fitting the measuring the isotopic content

1472 (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) variation in precipitation and spring discharges.

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1474

1475 Fig. B1. Isotopic content of precipitation (P; black symbols) and spring discharge (GW; blue 1476 symbols). δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H are indicated by solid and empty symbols, respectively The dashed lines 1477 indicate the fitted sinusoidal function [Eq.1]. The identification codes correspond to those in 1478 Table 1.

1480 Appendix C: HBV hydrological modeling

1481 Table C1. List of abbreviations for the vegetation zone parameters of HBV (Seibert, 2005)

Parameter	Units	Valid range	Description
TT	°C	(-inf,inf)	Threshold temperature to produce accumulation of
			precipitation as snow. Melt of snow starts if temperatures
			are above TT calculated with a simple degree-day
			(degree- Δt in case of a non-daily time step) method
CFMAX	mm/ Δt /°C	[0,inf)	Degree- Δt factor - CFMAX varies normally between 1.5
			and 4 mm oC-1 day-1 (in Sweden), with lower values for
			forested areas. As approximation the values 2 and 3.5 can
			be used for CFMAX in forested and open landscape
			respectively.
SFCF	-	[0,inf)	Snowfall correction factor
CFR	-	[0,inf)	Refreezing coefficient
CWH	-	[0,inf)	Water holding capacity, according to: refreezing
			meltwater = $CFR \cdot CFMAX(TT-T)'$
FC	mm	(0,inf)	Maximum soil moisture storage
LP	-	[0,1)	Soil moisture value above which AET reaches PET
BETA	-		Parameter that determines the relative contribution to
			runoff from rain or snowmelt

1482 1483

Table C2. List of abbreviations for the catchment parameters of HBV (Seibert, 2005)

Parameter	Units	Valid range	Description
PERC	mm/\Deltat	[0,inf)	Threshold parameter
UZL	mm	[0,inf)	Threshold parameter
K0	$1/\Delta t$	[0,1)	Storage (or recession) coefficient 0
K1	$1/\Delta t$	[0,1)	Storage (or recession) coefficient 1
K2	$1/\Delta t$	[0,1)	Storage (or recession) coefficient 2
MAXBAS	Δt	[1,100]	Length of triangular weighting function

1485 Table C3. Objective functions for the calibration of the HBV hydrologic model, where Q_{obs_i}

1486 and Q_{sim_i} are the measured and computed of spring discharge values, respectively, $\overline{Q_{obs}}$ is the

- 1487 arithmetic mean of the observed spring discharge values, and $\overline{Q_{sim}}$ is the arithmetic mean of the
- 1488 computed spring discharge values.

Objective function	Observations
$R_{eff} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (Q_{sim_i} - Q_{obs_i})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (Q_{obs_i} - \overline{Q_{obs}})^2}$	$\begin{aligned} R_{\text{eff}} &= 1 \text{ means perfect fit} \\ R_{\text{eff}} &= 0, \text{ indicates that the model} \\ \text{fits the observed data no better} \\ \frac{1}{Q_{obs}} &= 0 \\ R_{\text{eff}} &< 0 \text{ means very poor fit} \end{aligned}$
$\mathbf{R}^{2} = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(Q_{obs_{i}} - \overline{Q_{obs}}\right) * \left(Q_{sim_{i}} - \overline{Q_{sim}}\right)\right)^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(Q_{obs_{i}} - \overline{Q_{obs}}\right)^{2} * \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(Q_{sim_{i}} - \overline{Q_{sim}}\right)^{2}}$	R^2 is the determination coefficient. The higher the R^2 value the better the model performance

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1490

1491 Table C4. Calibrated values of the parameters in the HBV-light model

Catchment Parameters	Units	S-01	S-02	S-03	S-04	S-05	S-06
Snow Routine (VZ ₁)							
TT	°C	-0,2	-4,52	-1,6	-1,1	-1	-1,1
CFMAX	mm/d/°C	1,9	2,4	2	1,7	2,8	1,2
SFCF	-	1	2,38	0,5	1	1,2	1,5
CFR	-	1	2,5	0,7	0,5	0,6	0,6
CWH	-	0,5	2	2	1	0,8	0,8
Snow Routine (VZ ₂)							
TT	°C	-0,2	-4,39	-1,6	-0,5	-3	-0,46
CFMAX	mm/d/°C	1,9	1	2	1,6	1	2,1
SFCF	-	1	2,6	0,7	1	1,2	1,16
CFR	-	1	2,5	0,7	0,3	1	1
CWH	-	1	2	1	1	0,2	0,2

Snow Routine (VZ₃)

TT		°C	4	6	6	0	5,5	6,5
CFMA	X	mm/d/°C	1,5	1	1,5	1,5	1	4
SFCF		-	0,001	0,001	0,001	0,01	0,001	0,001
CFR		-	0,7	1	0,7	0,2	0,4	0,4
CWH		-	2	2	3	1	1	1
Soil Moistu	re Routine							
(VZ_1)								
FC		mm	95	75	80	75	50	80
LP		-	0,07	0,01	0,02	0,02	0,01	0,01
BETA		-	0,60	0,40	1,54	1,70	0,30	2,5
Soil Moistu	re Routine							
(VZ ₂)								
FC		mm	180	120	150	125	139	150
LP		-	0,07	0,01	0,06	0,01	0,01	0,01
BETA		-	0,60	2,20	3,90	3,45	1,80	2,7
Soil Moistu	re Routine							
(VZ ₃)								
FC		mm	750	550	490	750	660	700
LP		-	0,00	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01
BETA		-	6,00	3,00	5,70	6,00	3,50	4,00
Response R	outine							
PERC		mm/d	5	20,0	2,2	1,1	25,0	1,7
UZL		mm	100	80	100	110	100	100
K0		1/d	0,20	0,50	0,20	0,20	0,20	0,40
K1		1/d	0,07	0,11	0,13	0,17	0,20	0,20
K2		1/d	0,01	0,02	0,04	0,04	0,05	0,05
Routing Ro	utine							
MAXI	BAS	d	1,7	6,2	2	2,45	4,3	4,22

Table C5. Goodness of the result of the HBV calibrations for each spring model

HBV model	R _{eff} (-)	R ² (-)
S-01	0,55	0,55
S-02	0,66	0,67
S-03	0,73	0,78
S-04	0,57	0,73
S-05	0,77	0,80
S-06	0,62	0,66

1498 Appendix D: FlowPC modeling

1499 Table D1. Fitted parameters of the exponential-piston flow model (EPM) for the estimated

Parameters	S-01	S-02	S-03	S-04	S-05	S-06
β (%)	0	0	0	0	0	0
δ_{eta} (‰) ^b	0	0	0	0	0	0
η (-) ^c	1,02	1,02	1,00	1,01	1,02	1,02
$\tau(yr)$	2,25	1,42	2,25	2,33	2,88	2,58
RMSE (‰)	0,03	0,04	0,03	0,03	0,02	0,03
(a) A constant discharge	component as a	a fraction (usually old	er) of the	total spring	volumetric
discharge flow rate. (b) Co	onstant isotopic	content of	β. (c) η is t	the ratio of	the total vo	lume to the
volume with exponential dis	stribution transit	time (TTD). $\eta = 1$ mea	ins the Expo	nential mod	el (EM) and
$\eta > 1$ for Exponential-piston	flow model (EP	M)				

1500 mean transit times (τ) with FlowPC model and $\delta^{18}O$ data

1501	

1502

1503 Table D2. Fitted parameters of the exponential-piston flow model (EPM) for the estimated

1504 mean transit times (τ) with FlowPC model and $\delta^2 H$ data

Exponential-piston flow model (EPM)

Parameters	S-01	S-02	S-03	S-04	S-05	S-06
β (%) ^a	0	0	0	0	0	0
δ_{β} (‰) ^b	0	0	0	0	0	0
η (-) ^c	1,01	1,00	1,01	1,00	1,01	1,02
$\tau(yr)$	3,00	1,92	2,33	2,67	2,83	2,75
RMSE (‰)	0,19	0,21	0,17	0,22	0,18	0,20
(a) A constant discharge component as a fraction (usually older) of the total spring volumetric discharge						
flow rate. (b) Constant isotopic content of $\beta.$ (c) η is the ratio of the total volume to the volume with						
exponential distribution transit time (TTD). $\eta = 1$ means the Exponential model (EM) and $\eta > 1$ for						



Amplitude of seasonal isotopic composition of rainfall depends on elevation Moisture generating rainfall in the study zone comes from the Mediterranean The aquifer main recharge zones located at elevations between 2700 and 2100 m a.s.l Considering transient recharge improves the estimations of mean transit times Transit times in agreement with the karstic nature of the aquifer system

1	Contribution of isotopic research techniques to characterize
2	high-mountain-Mediterranean karst aquifers: The Port del
3	Comte (Eastern Pyrenees) aquifer.
4	
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20	
21	
22	Abstract
23	Water resources in high mountain karst aquifers are usually characterized by high
24	rainfall, recharge and discharge that lead to the sustainability of the downstream

change impact. The mean transit time (MTT) is a key parameter to describe the behavior

25

ecosystems. Nevertheless, these hydrological systems are vulnerable to the global

27 of these hydrologic systems and also to assess their vulnerability. This work is focused 28 on estimating MTT by using environmental tracers in the framework of high-mountain karst systems with a very thick unsaturated zone (USZ). To this end, it is adapted to 29 30 alpine zones a methodology that combines a semi-distributed rainfall-runoff model to estimate recharge time series, and a lumped-parameter model to obtain MTT. The 31 32 methodology has been applied to the Port del Comte Massif (PCM) hydrological system 33 (Southeastern Pyrenees, NE Spain), a karst aquifer system with an overlying 1000 m thick USZ. Six catchment areas corresponding to most important springs of the system 34 are considered. The obtained results show that hydrologically the behavior of the system 35 36 can be described by an exponential flow model (EM), with MTT ranging between 1.9 37 and 2.9 years. These MTT values are shorter than those obtained by considering a constant recharge rate along time, which is the easiest and most applied aquifer recharge 38 hypothesis when estimating MTT through lumped-parameter models. 39

40

41 Keywords: Stable isotopes; Seasonal isotopic amplitude; Altitudinal line; Recharge;
42 Mean transit time; Karst.

43

44 **1. Introduction**

High mountain zones are known as "water towers" because they generate the main water resources feeding the most important rivers in the world (Viviroli et al., 2007). This phenomenon is especially important in the drought-prone Mediterranean area (Vicente-Serrano et al 2014), where water availability is scarce and greatly dependent on runoff from headwater basins (De Jong et al., 2009). Moreover, water discharge from mountain areas is critical to ensure water supply in the lowland and coastal fringe 51 (Viviroli and Weingartner, 2004; García-Ruiz et al 2011), where human activity
52 (agriculture, industry, tourism) concentrates.

53

54 Future scenarios for climate change in the whole Mediterranean region forecast an increase in temperature and a decrease in precipitation at the end of the 21st century 55 (Giorgi and Lionello, 2008). These effects may well impact the Mediterranean high 56 57 mountain zones (Nogués-Bravo et al., 2008; Lopez-Moreno et al., 2009; Ribalaygua et al., 2013), modifying the hydrological behavior of their headwater basins (Barnett et al., 58 2005; García-Ruiz et al. 2011, and references therein). Nevertheless, the first evidence 59 60 of such changes has already been reported in the Pyrenees, the southernmost European range where glaciers can be found (Grunewald and Scheithauer, 2010). Pyrenean 61 62 glaciers have undergone an intense retreat since the middle of the last century, causing 63 most of them to face a certain close extinction (Chueca et al., 2007; René 2013; Marti et al., 2015; López-Moreno et al., 2016). In addition, during this period, both mean annual 64 65 precipitation and number of rainy days have shown a clear decreasing trend in this zone (Lopez-Moreno et al., 2010), along with a lesser snowfall and snow accumulation 66 (López-Moreno, 2005). These effects directly impact the water storage capacity of the 67 associated headwater systems (Seibert et al., 2015), as well as their associated 68 hydrological response in terms of both river discharge flowrates and timing of 69 maximum discharges (López-Moreno and García-Ruiz, 2004; Gremaud et al., 2009). 70 These changes will directly impact the downstream zones by complicating the current 71 72 water stress situation in the Mediterranean zone (Milano et al., 2013; Hernández-Mora et al., 2014, Molina and Melgarejo, 2016). Because of the hydrological outlook that is 73 74 not so promising, it is essential to understand the functioning of the mountain hydrological systems of the Mediterranean area, especially those scenarios in which 75
groundwater (GW) plays a major role in the headwater discharge, because mountain
aquifers maintain base flows to rivers during the recurrent Mediterranean dry periods
(Hoerling et al 2012; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2014).

79

Despite playing a strategic role, most high mountain hydrogeological systems are still 80 insufficiently understood (Goldscheider, 2011). Conventional hydrogeological 81 investigation techniques (Bakalowicz, 2005; Goldscheider and Drew, 2007) are often 82 difficult to apply in alpine regions because of the difficult access and the harsh working 83 conditions, along with the types of instruments needed for conducting research in high 84 85 mountain zones (Lauber et al., 2014; Hood and Hayashi, 2010). However, a growing number of publications are focusing on the importance of groundwater in the 86 functioning of high-mountain watershed rivers in different geological settings, including 87 88 alluvial/rockfall/talus aquifers (Lauber and Goldscheider, 2014; Kurylyk and Hayashi, 2017), fractured aquifers (Jódar et al., 2017; Barberá et al., 2018a) and karst systems 89 90 (Wetzel, 2004; Goldscheider, 2005; Gremaud et al., 2009; Mudarra et al., 2014; Allocca 91 et al., 2015; Lambán et al., 2015; Chen, 2017; Barberá et al., 2018b; Kazakis et al., 2018). Determining the magnitude of groundwater recharge and aquifer Mean Transit 92 Time (MTT) are key issues for understanding and managing alpine groundwater 93 systems. Spring hydrograph analysis and environmental tracer methods allow for 94 characterizing aquifer recharge and discharge processes, estimating recharge zone 95 elevation and transit times, determining drainage structures, and assessing spring 96 vulnerability, as well as calculating water resources in headwater aquifers (Wetzel, 97 2004; Rodgers et al., 2005; Einsiedl, 2005; Farlin and Maloszewski, 2013; Jódar et al., 98 2016b; Malard et al., 2016; Epting et al., 2018). 99

In high-altitude alpine karst aquifers, groundwater recharge processes highly depend on 101 temporal and spatial distribution of precipitation and snowmelt (Lauber and 102 103 Goldscheider, 2014). The estimation of MTT in karst systems is conditioned by the 104 existence of variable flow conditions. These systems normally show triple-porosity and 105 different connected parts: the karstic conduits that allows rapid flow, and the fissuredporous matrix that shows intermediate to slow flow. Artificial tracer test normally 106 injected in preferential flow paths (i.e. the channels) doesn't consider the fissured-107 108 porous matrix of the aquifer, which can be important as far as the total karst water volumes (Maloszewski et al., 2002). In this respect, the use of artificial tracers to 109 characterize such hydrological systems is not enough since it doesn't allow 110 characterizing all the components of the flow. Others important factors that govern the 111 suitability of injection test for MTT estimations is the existence of a thick unsaturated 112 113 zones (USZ): conducting tracer tests by injecting it at the surface of the thick USZ is likely a failing tracer test given the large uncertainties regarding the likelihood of 114 115 hydraulic connection between the tracer injection point and the sampled system 116 discharge point (Lauber and Goldscheider, 2014). Additionally, the adverse working conditions and the type of material of the instruments necessary to correctly perform the 117 118 tracer test (Goldscheider et al., 2008) in high-mountain areas make it difficult to execute 119 them.

120

As a result, the hydrogeological behavior of most of the mountain karst systems with an associated thick USZ remain uncharacterized, despite of being the exploration of these systems on the focus of speleogenetic research since the last decades (Ballesteros et al., 2015a, and references therein).

125

Lumped parameter models (LPMs) are useful to simulate the behavior of such complex 126 127 mountain karst systems, even when they are poorly characterized. These models do not require a detailed hydrological knowledge of the physical system. Moreover, LPMs 128 129 naturally integrate the USZ of the aquifer as a part of the whole hydrological system to be modeled (Turnadge and Smerdon, 2014). Additionally, the stable isotopes of water 130 $(\delta^{18}O \text{ and } \delta^2H)$ in rainfall have proved to be good environmental tracers for 131 132 investigating the dynamics of such hydrological systems karst systems (Andreo et al., 2004). These tracers enter the system as recharge, migrate downgradient exploring the 133 134 whole hydrological system, and leave the karst aquifer with spring discharge or by lateral mass transfer to other hydrogeologically connected aquifer units. In this line, this 135 work is devoted to estimate MTT of a high-mountain karst aquifer with a thick 136 unsaturated zone by using ⁸O and ²H as environmental tracers along with LPMs. To this 137 end, it is considered the approach presented by Vitvar et al. (1999) to estimate MTT in a 138 small Swiss pre-alpine aquifer. The original approach is adapted to high mountain zones 139 140 by considering the existing vertical gradients of precipitation and air temperature along the slope of high mountains, but also the role played by the snow accumulation and 141 ablation processes in the runoff generation. The resulting method combines in series 142 143 two LPMs: (1) a semi-distributed rainfall-runoff HBV model (Bergström, 1976; Seibert, 144 2005) that simulates the observed hydrodynamical system response while taking into 145 account the elevation dependences of the different hydrometeorological variables (i.e. 146 Precipitation and temperature) and associated processes (e.g. snow accumulation and ablation), and (2) a FlowPC model (Małoszewski and Zuber, 1996) that estimates the 147 148 mean transit time of the hydrological system while simulating the environmental tracer 149 content evolution in the system discharge. This is done by numerically integrating a convolution integral (Maloszewski et al., 1983; Jódar et al., 2014). In our case, the 150

FlowPC model uses as input data: a) the recharge time series of the aquifer obtained with the HBV model, and b) the time series isotope content (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) in recharge, which is obtained through a spatiotemporal characterization of the isotope contained of precipitation.

155

The methodology is applied to the hydrological system of Port del Comte Massif (PCM; 156 157 NE Spain), a karst aquifer with a 1000 m thick USZ. The hydrological system mainly discharges though the Cardener springs into the homonym river, which is the main 158 159 tributary of the Llobregat River, the first water resources provider to the city of Barcelona (NE Spain). Despite the strategic role of Cardener springs the hydrologic 160 behavior of the karst system remains unknown. This study contributes to a better 161 162 hydrological characterization of PCM hydrological system. Moreover, the proposed methodology can be applied to characterize other high mountain karst aquifers with an 163 164 overlying thick USZ that are common in many alpine zones elsewhere the globe.

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166

167 2. Study area

The study area is located at the Port del Comte Massif (PCM), which is situated in the eastern part of the Pyrenees, NE Spain (Fig. 1). The elevation of the watershed ranges from approximately 900 m a.s.l., up to 2387 m a.s.l., at the 'Pedró dels Quatre Batlles' peak. With approximately 110 km², it contains one of the main mountain karst aquifers of the Catalan Pyrenees. The watershed of the massif divides the river basin of the Cardener River at the E and S and the river basin of the Segre River at the NW and SW. The massif constitutes an independent structural and hydrogeological unit.



Fig. 1. (1) Location map of the study zone. (2) Geological map (geological map modified from
ICGC, 2007). (3) Geological cross-section A-B. (4) Geological cross-section C-D. (5)
Geological legend: [1] Triassic – shales, limestones, dolomites and evaporates; [2] Jurassic –
marls, bioclastic limestones and dolomites; [3] Lower Cretaceous – mudstones, ammonite
limestones and marl; [4] Upper Cretaceous – limestones, marls, calcarenites and terrigenous

deposit; [5] Garumnian – red shales and limestones; [6] Lower Eocene – fissured and karstified
alveoline limestones and dolomites; [7] Lower Eocene – marls, sandstones and limestone; [8]
Lower Eocene – fissured and karstified micritic and bioclastic limestones; [9] Middle Eocene –
sandstones, marls, conglomerates, limestones and evaporates; [10] Upper Eocene – continental
alluvial systems: conglomerates and sandstones; [11] Oligocene – continental alluvial systems:
conglomerates, breccias and sandstones.

188

189 2.1 Meteorological setting

190 From a climatic point of view, and according to the Köppen-Geiger classification (Peel et al., 2007), the study zone has a cold climate without dry season and temperate 191 summer (defined as 'Dfb' type; accordingly to AEMET and IMA, 2011). At the 192 meteorological station MS-01 (Fig. 1), which is located at 2315 m a.s.l., the average 193 194 values of precipitation (P), temperature (T) and potential evapotranspiration (ETP) calculated with the Hargreaves and Samani (1982) equation are 1055 mm/yr, 3,24 °C 195 196 and 525 mm/yr, respectively. These three variables show a seasonal variation (Fig. 2) 197 and an elevation dependence. The measured vertical gradients (lapse rate) of precipitation ($\nabla_z P$), atmospheric temperature ($\nabla_z T$) and potential evapotranspiration 198 $(\nabla_z \text{ETP})$ are 8,9 mm/yr/100 m, -0,74 °C/100 m and -32,3 mm/yr/100 m, respectively. 199 200 The snow cap is present in the upper zones of the basin in winter and spring, maintained annually for 3 to 4 months since 1800 m a.s.l., meaning that precipitation is partly 201 202 produced as snow.

203

Despite the high average rainfall above 1000 mm/year, in most of the study area the surface runoff is almost nonexistent, and it is not observed until reaching lower altitudes.



Fig. 2. Seasonal variation of precipitation, potential evapotranspiration and temperature measured at the meteorological station MS-01 (see Table 1) located at 2315 m a.s.l. for the period Sep 2005- Apr 2016.

212

213 **2.2** General settings of the study zone

From a geological perspective, the massif belongs to the PCM thrust sheet that presents 214 complex structural relationships in its contours (Fig. 1). On the E, the PCM mantle 215 216 borders on the mantle of Cadí, coinciding with the point of origin for the Cardener 217 River (spring S-05; Fig. 1). To the NE and NW, the PCM is limited by the tectonic plates of the mantles of Sierras Marginales, Montsec and Boixols. To the S, the PCM 218 mantle overlaps with the conglomeratic materials of the Ebro Basin, the southern 219 220 foreland basin of the Pyrenees. The internal structure of the PCM mantle is formed by a set of folds and thrusts detached above the Triassic. These folds have a constant 221 direction NE-SW parallel to the NW limit of the mantle (Vergés, 1999). The 222 stratigraphic series contains materials from the Triassic, Jurassic, Cretaceous and 223 Paleogene with a total of approximately 1000 m thickness. The main karst aquifer 224 225 inside PCM massif is in the Paleocene - Eocene carbonate rocks. The geologic structure and stratigraphy of the PCM thrust strongly influence the location of the existing karst 226

springs, their groundwater geochemistry and their hydrologic behavior. The lower
Upper Cretaceous/Paleocene (Garumnian facies) substrate materials underlying the
Palaeocene aquifer are composed of sandstone, siltstone and shale. These materials
constitute an impervious layer for the overlaying aquifer system.

231

232 From the geomorphological point of view, the PCM has a characteristic triangular 233 geometry. The PCM has a smooth rounded landscape with a plain in the highest part 234 without vegetation cover and with almost no soil, which corresponds to approximately 10% of the total area. The rest of the massif is covered by mountain meadows (29%) 235 236 and forest (61%) with scarce soil depth up to medium developed soil cover. Different karstic forms progressively appear from 1950 m a.s.l. upwards, being well developed at 237 2050 m a.s.l., with sinkholes, dry caves, dolines and karren fields, generating a 238 239 heterogeneous karstified hydrogeological system.

240

241 The hydrogeological conceptual model of the PCM aquifer system considers that 242 recharge is produced by infiltration of precipitation as rainfall and snowmelt. The magnitude and distribution of infiltration is conditioned by the development of the karst 243 244 landforms. The infiltration is produced (1) in a concentrated way through the local 245 karstic elements such as dolines and (2) in a diffuse way by rain and snowmelt along the 246 whole PCM area. The epikarst unsaturated zone (NSZ) presents a thickness close to 1000 m in the highest zones of the PCM. The infiltrated water flows vertically through 247 248 the NSZ towards the saturated zone.

249

The hydrogeological system naturally discharges through the large number of existing springs. Approximately 100 springs have been found in the PCM showing large

discrepancies in their mean discharge flow rate, ranging from values <<1 L/s up to 252 values > 100 L/s. Most of these springs discharge a local subhorizontal interflow 253 254 characteristic of a small entity (i.e., Local springs, Table 1). However, in terms of groundwater discharge, there are six important springs in the PCM (i.e., Regional 255 256 springs, Table 1). These springs have been monitored regularly for this research, 257 showing that all of them have a highly variable discharge flow rate (Fig. 3). Four of these regional springs (S-01, S-02, S-03 and S-05) are the principals discharging points 258 259 of the whole hydrogeological system. The four springs are located at elevations between 944 and 1098 m a.s.l. (see Table 1). Through these main springs, the hydrogeological 260 261 system discharges at two principal watersheds: the Cardener River watershed to the east 262 and the Segre River watershed to the northwest. Groundwater flow direction is 263 conditioned by the geological structure of PCM. Nevertheless, the exact position of the 264 regional groundwater table is poorly known.

Table 1. Meteorological stations, pluviometers and springs in the study zone sampled during the
period July 2013 – October 2015.

0.1	T.	N	Elevation	Num. water	Discharge rate
Code	I ype	Name	(m a.s.l.)	samples (-)	(L/s)
MS-01	Met. Station	SMC-Z8	2315	-	-
MS-02	Met. Station	AEMET-0127O	1800	-	-
P-01	Pluviometer	Refugi de l'Arp	1936	7	-
P-02	Pluviometer	Bassa Clot de la Vall	1946	8	-
P-03	Pluviometer	Refugi Bages	1768	8	-
P-04	Pluviometer	Casa X&A	1657	8	-
P-05	Pluviometer	Casa Ramonet	1450	8	-
P-06	Pluviometer	Casa Cavallera	1216	7	-
P-07	Pluviometer	Camp. La Comella	1062	8	-

P-08	Pluviometer	Camp. Morunys	896	9	-
S-01	Regional Spring	Font Aiguaneix	1098	25	8 - 73
S-02	Regional Spring	Font Sant Quintí	944	25	70 - 575
S-03	Regional Spring	Font Can Sala	1062	25	0,25 – 148
S-04	Local Spring	Font Coll de Jou	1464	25	0,07 - 0,59
S-05	Regional Spring	Fonts del Cardener	1032	25	57 - 904
S-06	Local Spring	Font carretera Refugi Arp	1858	25	0,04 - 7
M-05	Local Spring	Font del Ginebró	1730	4	<0,001
M-06	Local Spring	Font de la Garganta	1657	4	0,02-0,49
M-08	Local Spring	Font Orris 02	1871	4	0,1 - 0,7
M-14	Local Spring	Font Estivella	2053	4	0,07 – 5
M-15	Local Spring	Font Arderic	2158	3	0,03 – 2,8
M-16	Local Spring	Font del Casalí	2077	1	<0,001
M-17	Local Spring	Font del Diumenge	1989	2	0,004 - 0,026
M-18	Local Spring	Font barraca Sangonella	1940	1	0,001 - 0,01
M-24	Local Spring	Font dels Acens	1550	4	0,06 - 0,23
M-35	Local Spring	Font Ca l'Arreplagant	1330	4	<0,001-0,02
M-37	Local Spring	Font La Part (esllav.)	1315	4	0,5 – 1

269

270 **3. Materials and methods**

271 **3.1 Field work**

To collect precipitation samples, a network of 8 cumulative precipitation gauges (pluviometers) of the type CoCoRaHS RG202 Official-4 was installed at elevations between 896 and 1935 m a.s.l. (P-01 a P-08; Fig. 1). The pluviometers consist of a polycarbonate cylindrical deposit with a diameter of 10,8 cm. The pluviometers include a top funnel that captures and guides precipitation into the storing deposit, where

according to the technical procedure for the stations of the Global Network of Isotopes 277 278 in Precipitation (GNIP) of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), a 0,5 cm 279 paraffin oil floating layer is added to avoid evaporation. The pluviometers were sampled 280 seasonally (except the first winter with two campaigns), a total of 9 campaigns from 281 Dec. 2013 to Dec. 2015. Additionally, one snow sampling survey was conducted in December 2003. The snow samples were obtained by drilling through the entire snow 282 283 depth (Lambán et al., 2015) and were taken at different locations with elevations 284 ranging from 1935 to 2150 m a.s.l.

285

286 Groundwater samples were collected under different hydrodynamic conditions between 287 Oct. 2013 and Dec. 2015. In this period, the springs S-01 to S-06 were sampled approximately monthly, for a total of 25 sampling campaigns. Groundwater samples 288 were taken before the snow arrival in autumn (Oct. 2013 and Oct. 2014), and after the 289 290 snow-melting season (Apr. 2014 and Apr. 2015). In these springs, groundwater discharge was measured once every two weeks from Jul. 2013 to Oct. 2015 (Fig. 3). In 291 292 springs S-01, S-02, S-03 and S-05 the discharge flow rate was measured by conducting 293 slug-injection salt dilution tests (Cervi et al., 2014), whereas the volumetric method was 294 used for the precision discharge measurement in springs S-04 and S-06. The M-## 295 springs (Table 1) showed a tiny and intermittent discharge. Therefore, groundwater 296 samples were only taken with uneven frequency when it was possible.



Fig. 3. Measured spring discharge (circles) in the six monitored springs (S-01 to S-06, Table 1) of the PCM hydrogeological system. Gray lines indicate the spring discharge numerically simulated with the HBV model (Seibert and Vis, 2012). For each spring, blue columns indicate the recharge values time series used as input data to the corresponding HBV model.

298

The isotopic composition (δ^2 H and δ^{18} O) of all low salinity water samples was determined in the Center of Hydrogeology of the University of Málaga (CEHIUMA), where a Picarro® "L2130-I" isotopic water analyzer was used. The analytical uncertainties for δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H are ± 0.2 ‰ and ± 1.0 ‰, respectively. According to Coplen et al., (2011) several international and laboratory standards have been interspersed for normalization of analyses. The standards used (WICO-13, WICO-14, WICO-15) were calibrated in an interlaboratory comparison (Wassenaar et al., 2012). All results are given relative to the V-SMOW standard.

312

313 3.2 Approach for spring catchment delineation

A critical aspect to understand the behavior of karst hydrogeological flow systems is the 314 delineation of the spring capture zones (i.e., recharge areas) and their boundaries 315 316 (Goldscheider and Drew, 2007). Ideally, the delineation should be based on the proven information of connection between recharge areas and the discharge points. In high 317 318 mountain zones, this connection may be confirmed by conducting tracer tests (Goldscheider et al., 2008; Mudarra et al., 2014; Barberá et al., 2018b). When this 319 320 information is not available, the spring capture zone can be indirectly inferred by 321 considering inputs from other classical information sources such as geophysics, 322 structural geology and geomorphology data interpretation. However, 3D conceptual 323 modeling techniques are currently being used to delineate the spring capture zones: 324 Malard et al. (2015) analyze spring discharge hydrographs based on geological three-325 dimensional (3D) conceptual modeling (Butscher and Huggenberger, 2007, 2008; Martos-Rosillo et al., 2014; Ruiz-Costán et al., 2015; Malard et al., 2015; Ballesteros et 326 327 al., 2015b; Epting et al., 2018).

328

In this work, a combined 3D conceptual methodology has been used to delineate the catchment areas associated with each spring. The delineating criteria are based on the

information provided by three complementary methods: (1) the interpretation of the 331 332 geological structure and the subsurface catchments relative to each spring location. To this end, a 3D geological model has been developed in the 3DMove software platform 333 334 (Midland Valley Exploration Ltd.); (2) the analysis of the disposition and location of the karst landforms over the area, and (3) the analysis through GIS spatial analysis tools of 335 the ground surface structure, including type of soils (CREAF, 2009) and vegetation 336 (Appendix A) at the spring recharge elevation zones. In the case of the regional springs 337 338 S-01, S-02, S-03 and S-05, the three listed methods have been applied to delineate their catchment zone, whereas in the case of the perched springs S-04 and S-06, only the 339 previous methods (2) and (3) could be applied. Fig. A1 (Appendix A) shows the 340 catchment zones (i.e., aquifer units) obtained for the selected springs. 341

342

343 The delineated catchment zones associated with the regional springs divide PCM into 344 two main blocks: (1) a southwestern block that includes only the catchment zone 345 associated with S-05. This catchment zone is characterized by a syncline dipping NW 346 structure (Fig. 1). From a functional point of view, this zone is hydrodynamically independent of the rest of PCM given the existence of an anticline and a main NE-SW 347 fault that prevents lateral flows. (2) The northeastern block formed by the catchment 348 349 zone associated with springs S-01, S-02 and S-03. The geological structure of this block regulates the regional groundwater flows, so as the Alinyà anticline controls the 350 discharge of spring S-01, and the main syncline-anticline system dips SW along with 351 352 the minor faults and synclines dipping south conditions the discharge of springs S-02 and S-03. Table A1 (Appendix A) provides the geographical details of the delineated 353 354 groundwater catchment zones.

356 3.3 Characterizing the seasonal variation of environmental tracers

The evolution of some environmental variables is linked to the atmospheric temperature variation. As a result, these variables often show a similar seasonal pattern that can be characterized with a general sinusoidal function $\delta(t)$ (Jódar et al., 2014). This function consists of two additive terms, a sine-wave function [Eq. 1] plus a temporal linear trend for the mean [Eq. 2].

362

$$\delta(t) = A\sin(\omega(t - t_0) + \varphi) + \overline{\delta}$$
(1)

$$\overline{\delta} = \alpha (t - t_0) + \overline{\delta_0} \tag{2}$$

363

where *A* is the amplitude of the sinusoidal function, ω is the angular frequency, φ is the angular initial at time t_0 , α is the slope of the linear trend, and $\overline{\delta_0}$ is the linear trend value at time t_0 . The parameters *A*, α and $\overline{\delta_0}$ can be estimated by using the solution of any of the commonly available spreadsheet software's or manually. In this work, the root-mean-squared error (RMSE) is used as the selection criterion for the best fit to the measured isotope content time series.

370

In the case time series with a short amount of data (e.g., associated with the M-## springs in Table 1), it is not possible to obtain reliable estimates for, α , A, and $\overline{\delta_0}$ by using the method proposed above. In this case, no linear trend in the mean value is assumed ($\alpha = 0$), and $\overline{\delta_0}$ and A are estimated as:

$$\overline{\delta_0} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_i \tag{3}$$

$$A = \max\left(\operatorname{Abs}\left(\overline{\delta_0} - \delta_i\right)\right); \ \forall i = 1 \div N$$
(4)

376 where N is the number of the isotopic content value of the time series.

377

Hydrogeological systems transfer the isotopic input signal of recharge. The tracer input seasonal signal is buffered and delayed as it propagates through the aquifer towards the discharging point (Fig. 4). This tracer transport process through the hydrological system can be described by the convolution integral that relates the tracer input content in recharge δ_{in} to the tracer input content in the spring discharge δ_{out} as shown below.

$$\delta_{out}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \delta_{in}(t)g(t-t')dt'$$
(5)

384

where *t* is the time of tracer entry as recharge, *t'* is the integration variable and g(t') is a weighting function describing the Transit Time Distribution (TTD) exit of tracer content that entered the aquifer at different times in the past. The differences between the input and the output tracer signals are related to the aquifer system MTT (τ) which is the first moment of the system TTD and is given by

$$\tau = \int_0^\infty tg(t)dt \tag{6}$$

390

where *V* is the volume of mobile water in the system (Małoszewski et al., 1983), and *Q* is the volumetric flow rate through the system. In the case of natural gradient hydrogeological systems, MTT corresponds to the mean amount of time for groundwater to travel from the recharge zone to the discharging spring. In this situation, MTT is related to the spring discharge flow rate *Q*, and the aquifer storage *V*as follows (Custodio and Llamas, 1976):

$$\tau = \frac{V}{Q} \tag{7}$$

Additionally, in natural gradient hydrogeological systems with a seasonal varying input
tracer function, MTT can be estimated as (Małoszewski et al., 1983):

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\omega} \sqrt{\left(\frac{A_{\delta_{\rm in}}}{A_{\delta_{\rm out}}}\right)^2 - 1} \tag{8}$$

400

401 where $A_{\delta_{in}}$ and $A_{\delta_{out}}$ are the amplitudes of the seasonal variation of the isotopic content 402 in the aquifer recharge and the spring discharge, respectively. As can be shown, the 403 above equation compares $A_{\delta_{in}}$ with respect to $A_{\delta_{out}}$, so the larger the amplitude 404 dampening is, the longer the transit time.

405



406

407 Fig. 4. Schematic representation of the groundwater system response $\delta_{out}(t, \tau)$ to a 408 hypothetical input tracer function $\delta_{in}(t)$ (modified from Jódar et al., 2016b), where τ 409 means MTT.

410

411 **3.4** Numerical approach for simulating the aquifer behavior

412 To reproduce the observed spring discharge flow rates and the associated isotopic

413 content, a two-step methodology has been used:

(1) Simulation of the hydrodynamic behavior of the hydrogeological system. To this 415 end, the freely available version of the semi-distributed conceptual 416 precipitation-runoff model HBV-Light (Seibert and Vis, 2012) is used. HBV is 417 418 a conceptual rainfall-runoff model for catchment hydrology modeling that solves a general water balance equation. HBV has been used in different alpine 419 mountain hydrologic research studies (Braun and Renner, 1992; Hottelet, et al., 420 1993; Uhlenbrook et al., 1999; Merz and Blöschl, 2004; Konz and Seibert, 2010; 421 422 Staudinger et al., 2017; Epting, et al., 2018; Jódar et al., 2018). This model has become a standard tool for simulating high mountain snow-dominated 423 hydrological systems. This code requires as input data some hydroclimatic 424 catchment information such as the relative weight with respect to the total area 425 426 of the different altitude and associated vegetation zones in the catchment, the 427 vertical lapse rates $\nabla_z P$ and $\nabla_z T$, as well as the time series of daily P, T, and ETP. The hydrological catchment can be separated into numerous elevation 428 429 zones, depending on the elevation gap between the lowest and the highest points of the catchment. In this work, every zone has been divided into three elevation 430 431 zones (Table A1 in Appendix A). Additionally, every elevation zone can be 432 divided into different vegetation zones. Based on the Land Cover Map of 433 Catalonia (CREAF, 2009), three vegetation zones are considered: (1) open areas corresponding to zones of both poor or no soils where karst landforms are very 434 435 well-developed (karren fields, sinkholes, dolines, etc.), (2) areas with mountain meadows and soil moderately developed, and (3) alpine forest zones with 436 437 moderate to well-developed soils. A two stacked linear reservoir is used to simulate the hydrological system dynamics. The upper reservoir is used to 438 generate surface and subsurface runoff whereas the lower reservoir generates 439

440 groundwater runoff. The model considers vegetation zones parameters and 441 catchment zone parametrer (Tables C1 and C2 of Appendix C, respectively). 442 They are can be automatically calibrated by minimizing an efficiency objective 443 function (R_{eff} ; Table C3, Appendix C), which is already implemented in HBV. 444 The model output includes the daily time series of aquifer recharge Q_R , which is 445 used in the following step.

446

447 (2) Simulation of the transient isotopic content variation in the groundwater discharge. The temporal variation of the isotopic content in the spring discharge 448 449 is simulated with FlowPC (Małoszewski and Zuber, 1996, 2002), a lumped parameter model typically used to estimate groundwater MTTs with the aid of 450 observed environmental tracer data (Viville et al., 2006; Einsiedl et al., 2009; 451 452 Katsuyama et al., 2010; Lauber and Goldscheider, 2014; Sánchez-Murillo et al., 453 2015; Madrala et al., 2017). The program solves the convolution integral [Eq. 5] and transforms the isotopic input tracer signal $\delta_{in}(t)$ entering the hydrogeological 454 455 system as recharge into the isotopic output tracer signal $\delta_{out}(t)$ leaving the system through the spring discharge. To this end, FlowPC includes among 456 others two parametric TTDs which are especially well suited for simulating karst 457 aquifer systems: (A) The exponential model (EM), also known as a "good 458 mixing model", is typically applied in systems where the groundwater flow lines 459 460 tend to converge towards the water sampling points (Zuber, 1986; Amin and 461 Campana, 1996). (B) The Exponential-Piston model (EPM) or "real system 462 model", which combines two parts in line, an unconfined upstream part where 463 recharge enters the system and an exponential distribution of transit times is assumed, and a confined downstream part where the flow scheme is 464

465 approximated like the piston flow model (Zuber, 1986). The weighting function466 for EPM is described by the following equation.

467

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < \tau \left(1 - \frac{1}{\eta}\right) \equiv t_{\tau} \\ \frac{1}{\tau} \eta e^{-\frac{\eta}{\tau} + \eta - 1} & t \ge t_{\tau} \end{cases}$$
(9)

468

469 where η is the ratio of total volume of the hydrogeological system to the volume 470 of the system in which the exponential TDD exists, and τ is MTT. [Eq. 9] also 471 describes the EM weighting functions when $\eta = 1$, which is the lowest bound of 472 this parameter. The model parameters (η and τ) are calibrated by minimizing the 473 RMSE function.

474

FlowPC requires the time series of (1) monthly aquifer recharge \widehat{Q}_{R} (hereinafter, 475 a circumflex accent over a flow or an isotopic content variable indicates that the 476 variable is cumulated monthly or averaged, respectively), which is obtained 477 from the HBV model outputs for each simulation, and (2) the corresponding 478 monthly averaged isotopic content of the recharge $\widehat{\delta_{R}}$. Given the karstic nature of 479 480 the hydrogeological system, we assume that the isotopic content of local recharge and its seasonal characteristics (i.e., $\overline{\delta}_{in}, A_{\delta_{in}}$) are the same as the 481 isotopic content and seasonal characteristics of local precipitation ($\overline{\delta}_{P}$, $A_{\delta_{P}}$). 482 Since $\overline{\delta}_P$ and A_{δ_P} are known, then $\delta_P(t)$ is analytically obtained through [Eq.1]. 483 As $\delta_{\rm P}(t)$ is a daily time function, it is necessary to transform it into $\widehat{\delta_{\rm P}}$. For the 484

485 j^{th} month, $\widehat{\delta_{P_j}}$ is obtained by weighting the daily values of recharge isotopic 486 content $\delta_{P_{ij}}$ by the corresponding daily recharge rate $Q_{P_{ij}}$ as

$$\widehat{\delta_{\mathrm{R}_{j}}} \sim \widehat{\delta_{\mathrm{P}_{j}}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta_{\mathrm{P}_{ij}} Q_{\mathrm{R}_{ij}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} Q_{\mathrm{R}_{ij}}}$$
(10)

487 where *N* is the number of days of the j^{th} month. The Appendix D includes all the 488 technical details corresponding to the different FlowPC models used in this work 489

490 3.5 Statistical analysis of the relationship between the infiltration coefficient 491 and recharge

492 To analyze the factors that controls the mean calculated infiltration coefficient (ξ) in the 493 PCM, a linear regression model has been built, expressing the dependent variable ξ as a 494 linear function of *N* explanatory variables Ψ_i as

$$\xi = \lambda_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i \Psi_i \tag{11}$$

where λ_0 is the intercept (constant) term, and λ_i ($i \ge 1 \div N$) are the regression coefficients 495 496 associated with the predictors Ψ_i . In this study, the predictor variables of the linear 497 regression model of the [Eq.11] are the elevation of the spring recharge zone Z_R (Table 3), the mean precipitation at the spring recharge zone P_{ZR} (Table 6), and the percentages 498 of open areas, mountain meadows and forest in the spring catchment zones (VZ₁, VZ₂ 499 500 and VZ₃, respectively; Table A1 in Appendix A). The coefficient of determination of 501 the regression is one, so the model reproduces the whole variance of ξ . Table 7 shows the intercept value λ_0 , the regression coefficients λ_i , and their corresponding 502 standardized value β_i ($i \ge 1 \div N$). The standardized value β_i measures the expected 503 504 change in ξ , in standard deviation units, for a one standard deviation change in Ψ_i ,

provided that other explanatory variables in the model $(\Psi_j, \forall i \neq j)$ are fixed (Nimon and Oswald, 2013). The larger the absolute value of β_i , the more important the corresponding predictor Ψ_i is.

508

509

510 **4. Results and discussion**

511 4.1 Results from observed data

The isotopic content of the precipitation corresponding to the water samples taken is 512 shown in Fig. 5A. The mean isotopic content of precipitation is lighter in winter and 513 autumn than that in spring and summer, as one would expect given the dependence 514 515 between the isotopic content in rainfall and temperature (Mook and De Vries, 2000). 516 The obtained values are aligned between the Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL) and the West Mediterranean Meteoric Water Line (WMMWL) (Fig. 5A). The local water 517 meteoric water line (LMWL) that is obtained by linear regression (N= 76; $R^2 = 0.97$) is 518 defined as $\delta^2 H = 8.05 \cdot \delta^{18} O + 12.74$. From a seasonal point of view, the isotopic content 519 of precipitation in autumn and winter presents a larger variability than the isotopic 520 521 content of precipitation in spring and summer, as shown in Fig. 5B by the error bars indicating the standard deviation associated with every seasonal value. The isotopic 522 content in groundwater changes seasonally much less, than the isotopic content in 523 precipitation (Fig. 5B), pointing out the existence of a good mixing flow process in the 524 discharging points of the aquifer. 525

526

527 The geographical location of the study zone postulates the Mediterranean as the most 528 important source of precipitation. This assumption is supported by the overall mean 529 deuterium excess ($dex = \delta^2 H - 8 \cdot \delta^{18} O$) value of 12,03 ± 3,37 ‰ obtained for all the

precipitation samples analyzed (Celle-Jeanton et al., 2001; Jiménez-Martínez and
Custodio, 2008). Nevertheless, the Atlantic fingerprint in rainfall can be observed in the
above *dex* value through its variation interval, which provides a minimum *dex* value of
8,66 ‰ (Froehlich et al., 2001; Araguás-Araguás and Díaz-Teijeiro, 2005).

534



536

Fig. 5. (A) Values of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H in precipitation (P; solid circles) and groundwater (GW) 537 538 from local springs (empty red diamonds) and from regional springs (solid blue diamonds) for the period Oct. 2013 – Dec. 2015. (B) Seasonal overall averages of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H for 539 540 precipitation (P; solid symbols) and groundwater (GW; empty symbols). The spring, summer 541 autumn and winter values are indicated by green circles, red triangles, blue squares and orange 542 diamonds, respectively. GMWL (Clarke and Fritz, 1997) is the Global Meteoric Water Line 543 (slope 8 and *dex*=10‰), WMMWL is the Western Mediterranean Meteoric Water Line (slope 8 and dex=14‰) and LMWL is the Local Meteoric water Line (slope 8,05 and dex=12,74‰). 544

545

The isotopic composition of precipitation and spring discharge show a seasonal variation, which is not reflected in the deuterium excess. A seasonal variation in *dex* would indicate the existence of different moisture sources generating rainfall in the study zone by following a certain seasonal pattern (Schotterer et al 1993; Liu et al 2008;
Froehlich et al 2008). The lack of such seasonal pattern supports the Mediterranean as
the main rainfall source.

552

A sine-wave function [Eq.1] is used to characterize every one of the measured seasonal time series of isotopic content in water from the sampling points (Fig. B1 in Appendix B). Tables 2 and 3 show the calibrated mean isotopic content ($\overline{\delta}$) and amplitude (*A*) corresponding to the time series of isotopic content of precipitation and spring discharge, respectively.

558

Table 2. Mean value $\overline{\delta}_{in}$ and amplitude $A_{\delta_{in}}$ of the seasonal variation in the isotopic content of precipitation for the sampled pluviometers.

		$ar{\delta}_{in}$ (‰)			$A_{\delta_{in}}(\%_0)$		
Pluviometer	$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$	dex		$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$	
P-01	-9.20	-59.91	14.56		3.34	26.89	
P-02	-9.50	-62.29	13.88		2.87	23.23	
P-03	-9.20	-60.25	12.94		3.29	27.92	
P-04	-8.60	-56.11	12.87		3.02	26.05	
P-05	-8.60	-55.65	12.37		3.05	23.31	
P-06	-7.80	-51.10	9.53		2.76	23.96	
P-07	-7.50	-49.06	10.24		2.59	20.92	
P-08	-7.50	-50.22	9.40		2.55	19.53	

561

562

Table 3. Mean value $\bar{\delta}_{out}$ and amplitude $A_{\delta_{out}}$ of the seasonal variation in the isotopic content of groundwater for the springs sampled. For every spring, the elevation of the corresponding recharge zone Z_R is included. For this elevation, the associated amplitude $A_{\delta_{ZR}}$ of the seasonal variation in isotopic content of precipitation is shown.

$\overline{\delta}_{out}$ (‰)	$A_{\delta_{out}}(\%_0)$	Z_R (m a.s.l)	$A_{\delta_{ZR}}(\%_0)$

Spring	$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$	dex	δ ¹⁸ C	$\delta^{2}H$		$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$	dex		$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^2 H$
S-01	-9,31	-60,65	13,81	0,12	2 1,10	• -	1892	1881	1852	• –	3,16	26,23
S-02	-9,61	-62,82	14,06	0,25	5 1,93		2038	2046	1902		3,24	27,18
S-03	-9,18	-59,85	13,60	0,11	1,07		1830	1819	1702		3,12	25,88
S-04	-9,01	-58,11	13,95	0,10) 0,67		1745	1686	1881		3,07	25,12
S-05	-9,73	-63,36	14,50	0,14	4 0,88		2099	2088	1994		3,28	27,41
S-06	-9,69	-64,03	14,80	0,15	5 0,90		2078	2140	1798		3,27	27,71
M-05	-9,01	-58,53	13,52	0,44	4 1,81		1744	1718	1793		3,07	25,31
M-06	-8,70	-54,75	14,88	0,54	4 2,51		1597	1428	2071		2,98	23,65
M-08	-9,49	-62,22	13,68	0,27	7 1,84		1979	2001	1826		3,21	26,92
M-14	-9,69	-64,01	13,53	1,08	8 8,01		2079	2138	1795		3,27	27,70
M-15	-9,73	-63,81	14,05	0,87	6,24		2099	2123	1901		3,28	27,61
M-16	-9,77	-64,13	14,05	0,65	5 4,00		2118	2147	1902		3,29	27,75
M-17	-9,76	-64,32	13,73	0,49	9 2,86		2110	2161	1836		3,29	27,83
M-18	-9,59	-63,12	13,64	0,62	2 4,12		2031	2070	1817		3,24	27,31
M-24	-9,41	-62,26	13,02	0,47	7 1,64		1941	2004	1690		3,19	26,93
M-35	-8,90	-57,02	14,14	0,94	4 7,54		1690	1602	1920		3,04	24,65
M-37	-8,44	-54,00	13,53	0,26	5 0,93		1469	1371	1795		2,90	23,33

The mean isotopic content in rainfall $\overline{\delta}_{in}$ shows a clear-cut linear relationship with 568 elevation (Fig. 6) that allows defining Isotopic Altitudinal Lines (IAL) for δ^{18} O, δ^{2} H 569 and dex, with slopes (i.e., vertical gradients $\nabla_z \delta^{18} 0$, $\nabla_z \delta^2 H$ and $\nabla_z dex$) of -1,9, -12,1 570 and 4,7 ‰/km, respectively. Vertical gradients ($\nabla_z \delta$) of mean isotopic content in 571 precipitation are common in mountain zones (see Poage and Chamberlain, 2001, and 572 573 references therein) and are related to the atmospheric decreasing thermal vertical profile existing along the slope of the mountains. $\nabla_z \delta$ values obtained for the study zone are 574 575 like those obtained in other alpine areas, especially in the central Pyrenees and the Alps 576 (Table 4).



579 Fig. 6. Relationship between elevation and the mean isotopic content in precipitation and 580 springs. (A) δ^{18} O, (B) δ^{2} H, and (C) *dex*. Error bars indicate the standard deviation. Dashed lines 581 indicate the local Isotopic Altitudinal Line (IAL) of precipitation.

582

The vertical gradients of the mean isotopic content in precipitation depend linearly on the mean seasonal precipitation (Fig. 7). In the case of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H, the higher the seasonal precipitation is, the lower the seasonal gradient is. In the case of *dex*, the relationship is reversed, obtaining a higher $\nabla_z dex$ value as seasonal precipitation 587 increases. In a seasonal framework, recycling moisture evaporated from the land surface 588 to atmosphere may increase dex of local precipitation. Soil evaporation is maximum when atmospheric vapor pressure deficit ($\Delta e = e - e_{sat}$, e being the atmospheric water 589 590 pressure and e_{sat} the saturating water pressure at the air parcel temperature) is maximum, if the soil contains water for evaporating. Therefore, to allow soil water to 591 592 evaporate, it is necessary to have enough (1) soil water content, which is higher in 593 spring and autumn since these are the rainiest seasons, and (2) atmospheric vapor 594 pressure deficits (Δe). Satisfying these two conditions, $\nabla_z dex$ is maximum when the 595 difference in dex (i.e., Δe) between the highest and the lowest points of the mountain 596 slope is maximum. Given that e_{sat} is an increasing function of temperature (Gonfiantini 597 et al., 2001), Δe will decrease as temperature declines. During the cold season, despite a thermal difference existing between the highest and lowest points of the mountain, the 598 599 difference in Δe between these points is minimum. Additionally, the commented Δe 600 difference is minimum as well when there is no thermal difference along the mountain slope, a situation that is favored by the cathabaltic winds in winter (Obleitner, 1994; 601 602 Gladich et al., 2011) but is also favored by the vertical atmosphere air mixing during the 603 typical summer local low pressure convective rainfall events.



Fig. 7. Dependence of the vertical gradient of the mean isotopic content with respect to the
mean seasonal precipitation. The subscripts Sp, S, A, and W stand for spring, summer, autumn
and winter, respectively.

609

The amplitude of the seasonal variation in the isotopic content of precipitation $A_{\delta_{in}}$ relates linearly to elevation (Fig. 8) to allow defining Amplitude Altitudinal Lines (AAL) for δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H with slopes (i.e., vertical gradients $\nabla_{z}A_{\delta^{18}O}$ and $\nabla_{z}A_{\delta^{2}H}$) of 0,6 and 5,7 ‰/km, respectively. Similar vertical gradients have previously been reported in the central Pyrenees (Jódar el al., 2016b) and the Bernese Alps (Jódar el al., 2016a) (Table 4).



618 Fig. 8. Relationship between elevation and amplitude of the seasonal variation of the isotopic 619 content (δ^{18} O, δ^{2} H) in precipitation. Dashed line and dashed-dotted line indicate the local 620 Amplitude Altitudinal Lines (AALs) of precipitation for δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H, respectively.

622 Table 4. Vertical gradients of mean isotopic water content and amplitude of the seasonal

	Z_{min} - Z_{max}	$\nabla_z \delta^{18} 0$	$\nabla_z \delta^2 \mathbf{H}$	$\nabla_z dex$	$\nabla_z A_{\delta^{18}0}$	$\nabla_z A_{\delta^2 H}$	Reference
Zone	(m a.s.l.)	(‰/km)	(‰/km)	(‰/km)	(‰/km)	(‰/km)	
Eastern Pyrenees	896-1936	-1,9	-15,2	4,7	0,6	6,1	This study
(PCM ^a)							
Central Pyrenees	772-2200	-2,2	-17,4	2,2	0,9	4,4	Jódar et al.
(PNOMP ^b)							(2016a)
Bernese Alps	874-2023	-3,0	-19,7	3,7	1,6	14,6	Jódar et al.
							(2016b)
Austrian Alps	580-2245	-1,9	-12,0	2,7	-	-	Froehlich et
							al. (2008)
Austrian Alps	469-1598	-1,3	-8,0	3,4	-	-	Froehlich et
							al. (2008)

623 variation of the isotopic water content in precipitation.

Central	Andes	2380-4250	-4,7	-42,5	2,2	-	-	Aravena et
(western fl	ank)							al. (1989)
Central	Andes	2380-4250	-1,9	-14,3	1,1	-	-	Fiorella et
(eastern fla	unk)							al. (2015)
Central	Andes	200-4080	-1,7	-11,7	2,0	-	-	Gonfiantini
(eastern fla	unk)							et al. (2001)
Western		104-2008	-2,1	-	-	-	-	Holko et al.
Carpathian	IS							(2012)
Mount Car	neroon	10-4050	-1,16	-11,4	1,4	-	-	Gonfiantini
								et al. (2001)

(a): Port del Comte Massif; (b): Ordesa and Monte Perdido National Park

624

625 The mean isotopic content of groundwater corresponding to local (perched) springs 626 shows a relationship with elevation dependence with a vertical gradient larger than that 627 of precipitation (Fig. 6), indicating the existence of aquifer recharge along the mountain 628 slope, a process also known as slope effect (Custodio and Jódar, 2016). Additionally, the evolution of the isotopic content in the spring discharge shows a seasonal 629 630 dependence like precipitation but showing smaller amplitudes (Fig. B1 in Appendix B). 631 Even being lumped, the seasonal pattern of recharge is observed in the spring discharge, 632 indicating that MTT should not be longer than 5 or 6 years (DeWalle et al., 1997).

633

The isotopic altitudinal line (IAL, Fig. 6) allows estimation of the elevation of the recharge zone (Z_R) corresponding to every spring by projecting their mean isotopic content on IAL. Table 3 shows Z_R for all the springs, with their mean Z_R value ranging between 1420 m a.s.l. (M-37) and 2136 m a.s.l. (M-17). With a known value for Z_R , it is possible to calculate the amplitude of the variation in the isotopic content in precipitation at the recharge zone elevation ($A_{\delta_{ZR}}$) by projecting Z_R on the amplitude altitudinal line (AAL, Fig. 8). Table 2 shows $A_{\delta_{ZR}}$ for every spring. Finally, if both $A_{\delta_{ZR}}$ (i.e., $A_{\delta_{in}}$ at the springs recharge zone) and $A_{\delta_{out}}$ are known, it is possible to obtain a first analytical estimate of MTT through [Eq. 8]. Table 5 provides the MTT values obtained for all the springs. As can be shown, the obtained MTT values range between 0,5 and 5 yr.

645

646

Table 5. MTT values estimated for the springs sampled

		δ ¹⁸ Ο			$\delta^2 H$	
Spring	$\tau^{a}(yr)$	$\tau^{\rm b}({ m yr})$	η(-)	$\tau^{a}(yr)$	$\tau^{\rm b}({\rm yr})$	η(-)
S-01	4,10	2,25	1,02	3,78	3,00	1,01
S-02	2,06	1,42	1,02	2,23	1,96	1,00
S-03	4,67	2,25	1,00	3,83	2,33	1,01
S-04	4,70	2,33	1,01	5,93	2,67	1,00
S-05	3,73	2,88	1,02	4,98	2,83	1,01
S-06	3,47	2,58	1,02	4,90	2,75	1,02
M-05	1,10	-	1,00	2,22	-	1,00
M-06	0,86	-	1,00	1,49	-	1,00
M-08	1,89	-	1,00	2,32	-	1,00
M-14	0,45	-	1,00	0,53	-	1,00
M-15	0,58	-	1,00	0,69	-	1,00
M-16	0,79	-	1,00	1,09	-	1,00
M-17	1,06	-	1,00	1,54	-	1,00
M-18	0,82	-	1,00	1,04	-	1,00
M-24	1,07	-	1,00	2,61	-	1,00
M-35	0,49	-	1,00	0,5	-	1,00
M-37	1,77	-	1,00	3,99		1,00

(a) Analytical MTT value obtained by [Eq. 8]. (b) Numerical MTT value

obtained by FlowPC.

649 **4.2** Aquifer recharge evaluation through HBV

650 The HBV semi-distributed conceptual rainfall-runoff model has been used to simulate 651 the observed groundwater discharge in every spring. The spring discharges were 652 measured every fortnight between July 2013 and October 2015. This period has been 653 used for calibrating the HBV parameters, which are shown in Table C4 (Appendix C). The efficiency parameter R_{eff} that describes the goodness of the model fit ranges 654 655 between 0,55 (S-01) and 0,77 (S-05) (Table C5, Appendix C). The computed discharges 656 resemble the observed discharges by reproducing their temporal evolution in all the 657 springs (Fig. 3).

658

The results from the HBV model indicated that recharge is especially concentrated in the open areas (VZ₁) and meadow areas (VZ₂). The yearly average effective recharge ranges from 210 mm/yr (S-04) to 637 mm/yr (S-06) (Table 6). The aquifer infiltration capacity ξ (i.e., the ratio between Q_{Re} – the effective recharge of the aquifer, and P_{ZR} – precipitation at the spring recharge zone) ranges as the yearly average ranges from 28,3% (S-03) to almost 62% (S-06) (Table 6).

666 Table 6. Mean annual precipitation P_{ZR} , mean aquifer recharge Q_R , seasonal distribution of 667 recharge, infiltration capacity ξ .

Spring	P _{ZR}	Q _R	$Q_{R_{eSpring}}$	$Q_{R_{eSummer}}$	$Q_{R_{eAutumn}}$	$Q_{R_{eWinter}}$	ξ ^a
			Q_R	Q _R	Q _R	Q _R	
	(mm/yr)	(mm/yr)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
S-01	954	473	37,5%	15,0%	25,4%	22,1%	49,6%
S-02	1006	433	40,8%	12,3%	23,8%	23,1%	43,0%
S-03	793	227	38,1%	6,7%	27,2%	27,9%	28,6%

S-04	698	210	37,0%	10,2%	25,4%	27,4%	30,1%
S-05	1008	429	42,5%	14,3%	23,0%	20,2%	42,6%
S-06	1030	637	45,9%	8,9%	21,2%	24,0%	61,9%
(a)	$\xi = Q_{R_{e}}/P_{z}$	R					

Aquifer recharge follows a linear relationship similar to precipitation, as found by Martos-Rosillo et al. (2015) for the mountain carbonate aquifers in the Betic Cordillera (Southern Spain), where recharge is generally lower (Fig. 9A). In PCM, recharge is at a maximum in spring, accounting for 40,3% of the total recharge, and this outcome is explained by both rainfall and snow melt infiltration. Recharge is at a minimum (11,2%) in summer, coinciding with the period of minimum seasonal precipitation.



Fig. 9. (A) Mean annual rainfall versus mean annual recharge, (B) Mean infiltration coefficient
versus mean annual rainfall, and (C) Mean infiltration coefficient versus mean annual recharge.

676

The relationship between ξ and P (Fig. 9B) is not as clear as the relationship between ξ and R (Fig. 9C), indicating that precipitation is a necessary condition for aquifer recharge, but it is not enough. In this respect, the results of the application of the linear regression model between the variables Z_{R} , $P_{ZR, and}$ VZ₁, VZ₂ and VZ₃; shows that the Z_R and is the most important predictor controlling the aquifer infiltration capacity ξ . In addition, VZ₁ (karren fields and sinkholes at the highest parts of the massif) and VZ₃ (forest fields at the lowest of the massif) also play a role regarding ξ . These parameters reflect the differences in both the karstification degree and the vegetation covering theepikarst system in the PCM.

689

690 Table 7. No standardized (λ) and standardized (β) regression coefficients associated with the

691	explanatory	variables	used in	the n	nultiple	regression	method.
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Explanatory Variable	λ	β
Intercept (λ_0)	-39,562	
Z _R	0,047	0,823
P _{ZR}	-0,007	-0,054
VZ_1	6,034	0,133
VZ_2	4,018	0,072
VZ_3	258,518	0,122

692

693

694 **4.3** Determination of spring discharge mean transit time

To estimate the mean transit time of the spring discharge, the program FlowPC v3.2 695 (Małoszewski and Zuber, 1996) has been used. According to the hydrogeological 696 setting, it is assumed that the EPM flow model can describe the behavior of the aquifers 697 discharging through the springs of PCM. The lumped model parameters (η and τ) have 698 been calibrated (Table 5) by fitting the isotopic contents observed in the spring 699 700 discharge from December 2013 to December 2015 (Fig. 10). The goodness of fit is defined in terms of RMSE, ranging between 0,02‰ (S-05) and 0,04‰ (S-02) for δ^{18} O 701 (Table D1, Appendix D), and between 0,17‰ (S-03) and 0,22‰ (S-04) for $\delta^2 H$ (Table 702 703 D2, Appendix D).



705

Fig. 10. Measured against simulated isotope content evolution with FlowPC and an EPM model.The gray line represents the best fit.

The estimated value of η is very close to 1 regardless of the spring, indicating that the corresponding aquifers behave as almost an exponential flow model in coherence with the behavior of a karst aquifer system discharging through a main spring. The estimated MTT with the applied methodology ranges between 1,69 yr (S-02) and 2,85 yr (S-05),
while in the case of the analytical approach MTT ranges between 2,14 yr (S-02) and
5,31 yr (S-04).

715



716

Fig. 11. Graph showing the MTT values estimated based on the lumped parameter model
FlowPC (Maloszewski, 1996) versus the MTT values estimated based on the analytical model
[Eq. 8] (Maloszewski et al., 1983)

721 The MTT values obtained by this numerical approach are 1,9 times shorter than the 722 MTT values analytically obtained through [Eq. 8] that compares the amplitude of the 723 seasonal isotopic content of recharge with the seasonal isotopic content in the spring 724 discharge [Fig 11]. In the numerical case, the monthly isotopic content in recharge is 725 weighted by the monthly volumetric recharge rate, whereas in the analytical case, the 726 isotopic content weighting coefficients for the monthly recharge are all equal to 1 727 because recharge is assumed constant (i.e., steady state) for the whole period covered by 728 the isotopic content time series. This assumption is worth keeping in mind when using 729 [Eq. 8] for estimating groundwater mean transit times. In other words, if aquifer recharge shows a seasonal pattern, then the numerical approach should be used instead 730 731 of the analytical approach to estimate MTT. The transit time discrepancies between both

732 approaches may be critical when MTT is used as a vulnerability indicator for karstfissure aquifers (Malík et al, 2016). The results obtained suggest that the numerical 733 734 approach based explicitly on considering the recharge series in the LPM model provides 735 a more accurate evaluation of hydraulic dynamics throughout the system. This allows better MTT estimations, similar of what concluded Vitvar et al. (1999) in pre-alpine 736 non-karst aquifers. The MTT values obtained in this work are consistent with the 737 738 conceptual model of the karst system. The aquifer presents specific zones with rapid 739 recharge through surficial karstic elements (e.g. swallow holes) and slow recharge 740 trough meadows and forest.

741

742 In terms of MTT, the results obtained in this study are similar to those obtained in other 743 hydrological karst systems located in mountain zones: (1) In the case of the Ordesa and Monte Perdido karst aquifer system (Central Pyrenees, Spain), which is the highest 744 745 calcareous massif in Western Europe, Lambán et al. (2015) and Jódar et al. (2016b) 746 estimated MMT for several springs. For each spring the authors fitted a sinusoidal function [Eq. 1] to the measured tracer (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) content time series 747 748 corresponding to rainfall entering the system as recharge and the spring discharge, obtaining the amplitude of the seasonal variation of both the input and output system 749 tracer function ($A_{\delta_{in}}$ and $A_{\delta_{out}}$, respectively; Fig. 4). Besides, the authors assumed a 750 751 constant recharge rate along the year. This hypothesis allowed obtaining an analytical solution to the convolution integral [Eq. 5] (Jódar et al., 2014) but also applying [Eq. 8] 752 to directly estimate MTT, that ranged between 1,12 and 4,48 yr. 753

(2) In the Wimbach high-alpine karst system (Berchtesgaden Alps) Einsiedl et al.(2009) estimated MTT with FlowPC. To this end, they used as tracer input function the

time series of ³H content in rainfall measured in a meteorological station close to the 757 study zone, and as system output the time series of ³H content in groundwater discharge 758 for different springs and also at the outlet of the hydrological catchment. They obtained 759 MTT ranging between 4 and 5 yr for the considered springs, and 5 yr for the whole 760 761 hydrologic catchment. For the same catchment, Maloszewski et al. (1992) evaluated the 762 MTT by using monthly recharge time series instead of rainfall time series. The aquifer recharge time series was obtained by applying a seasonal infiltration coefficient to the 763 764 observed monthly precipitation time series. With this approach they estimated a MTT of 4,15 yr. This value is close to that obtained by Einsiedl et al. (2009). Additionally, 765 Garvelmann et al. (2017) expanded the previous studies in the Berchtesgaden Alps for a 766 767 total of eight springs. For each spring they estimated MTT using two different methods; (A) by numerically solving the convolution integral [Eq. 5], and (B) though [Eq. 8] by 768 769 previously conducting a sin-wave analysis [Eq. 1] to the input (i.e. rainfall) and output 770 tracer functions. The MTT obtained by both methods did not show large discrepancies 771 for the same spring. In terms of the obtained MTT the sampled springs were be 772 classified in two groups: a first group with relatively short MTTs (0,7 to 1,9 yr) and a 773 second group with longer MTTs (7,3 to 12,5 yr).

774

(3) In the Schneealpe massif Rank et al. (1992) used the environmental tracers to study the karstic-fissured-porous aquifer system of Schneealpe, The aquifer system that is drained by two principal springs is the main drinking water resource for Vienna (Austria). It is composed of a fissured-porous aquifer with a high storage capacity that partially feds a karst aquifer conformed by a high- conductivity drainage channel network. For each aquifer they estimated MTT by calibrating a LPM with a 8 years long time series of environmental tracer data, using ³H and δ^{18} O for the fissured-porous and

the karst aquifer, respectively. In the former case MTTs ranged between 2,5 and 4,5 yr, 782 783 whereas in the karst aquifer the estimated MTT was only 2 months. Maloszewski et al. (2002) recalibrated both LPMs by refining and extending up to 20 years the length of 784 the observed time series of ³H and δ^{18} O measurements. In the case of the fissured-785 786 porous aquifer the obtained MTTs ranged between 14 and 26 yr, being significantly larger than those obtained by Rank et al (1992). Nevertheless, in the case of the karst 787 788 aquifer the obtained MTTs were similar ranging between 1,2 and 1,5 months. The large discrepancy between the MTT associated to the Fissured-Porous and karst aquifer 789 790 indicates that water enters the aquifer system at the surface and flows through it towards 791 the conductive drainage channels until reaching the springs. Nevertheless, the short 792 MTTs associated to the karst aquifer reveal a direct hydraulic connection between the 793 sinkholes at the surface and the drainage channel network.

794

795 (4) In the Wetterstein Mountains karst aquifer system Lauber and Goldscheider (2014) used both artificial (uranine) and environmental tracers (¹⁸O and ²H) to investigate the 796 hydrological behavior of the system. Despite the low recovery of artificial tracer during 797 the tracer test, the fast tracer arrival observed in all the sampled springs, with peak times 798 799 between 1,8 and 3,2 days, indicates as in the previous case, the existence of welldeveloped flow paths through thick (>1000 m) USZ. This result underlines the role that 800 801 may play the USZ conditioning the hydrologic response of the karst system. The 802 authors estimated the aquifer MTT with FlowPC by using as input tracer content that of precipitation, and assuming a constant (without any seasonality) aquifer recharge rate. 803 804 The obtained MTT values ranged between 3 and 5 months, being significantly shorter 805 than those MTT presented above for the other karst systems.

The hydrological system MTT reflects the diversity of aquifer flow paths and 807 groundwater mixing from the recharge zone to the discharge point. Considering that the 808 different aquifers constituting the PCM show an exponential flow model (EM) 809 810 behavior, and provided that MTT (τ ; Table 5) and the aquifer mean recharge flow rate $(Q_R; Table 6)$ are known, it is possible to estimate the aquifer storage (i.e., mixing) 811 812 volume by using [Eq. 7]. In Table 8, the stored dynamic volume ('mobile water volume -V_m'; Małoszewski and Zuber (2002); where: $V_m = Q_R \cdot \tau$) is associated with the 813 814 catchment areas (Fig. A1 of the Appendix A) discharging through the springs S-01 to S-815 06. S-05 and S-02 play a major role in terms of both groundwater discharge and aquifer storage. The springs S-05 and S-02 present a similar area and a similar discharge. 816 Nevertheless, from a geometrical point of view, they are different: S-05 is rounded in 817 818 shape whereas S-02 is elongated. Considering that aquifer recharge is produced mainly 819 in the highest parts of PCM, it is clear that the distance between the recharge and 820 discharge points is larger in the case of S-02. This difference is interesting if one 821 considers that the mean transit time of S-02 is shorter than the mean transit time of S-822 05. The shorter transit time would indicate a higher development of the karst water 823 conducting features in the catchment area of S-02. The springs S-04 and S-06 denote 824 their perched character with the associated low discharge flow rates and groundwater 825 reserve volumes.

827 Table 8. Estimation of dynamic volume V_m stored in the aquifer for the springs analyzed

Spring	$V_m (hm^3)$
S-01	2,44 + 0,49
S-02	11,54 + 2,61
S-03	1,72 + 0,04

S-04	0,03 + 0,01
S-05	19,39 + 0,20
S-06	0,09 + 0,01

829 The few available groundwater level depth data from old water wells in the PCM suggest the karst aquifer presents low regional hydraulic gradients in the phreatic zone 830 ranging between 1 - 2%. Nevertheless, while considering the expected mean phreatic 831 832 level above the horizontal plane from the spring levels (i.e., the groundwater that contributes to each spring discharge), the 3D geological model evaluates the total 833 aquifer formation volume (V_{aq}) associated with the regional springs S-01, S-02, S-03 834 and S-05. Assuming V_{aq} as known, the mean aquifer interconnected porosity (ϕ) can 835 therefore be estimated as the ratio V_{GW}/V_{aq} . In the PCM, the average ϕ obtained is 836 837 3,1%. This result agrees with the value obtained for other carbonate aguifers of the Betic Cordillera (Southern Iberian Peninsula) with an average value of 3% (Pulido-838 Bosch et al., 2004; Martos- Rosillo et al., 2014). 839

840

This work is aimed to characterize the hydrological behavior of a high mountain karst 841 842 system with a overlaying thick UZS that plays a relevant role along with in the system 843 response. The applied approach allows accounting the effects of the extreme alpine 844 climate conditions on both the aquifer recharge rates and the isotopic composition of recharge. The used approach provides a more reliable assessment of the hydrological 845 846 behavior of these alpine karst systems than the obtained applying the traditional approaches found in the scarce bibliography. The methodology used in this work for 847 848 characterizing the hydrological behavior of PCM can be applied in many analogue high mountain karst systems whose hydrologic behavior still remains unknown. In this sense, 849 850 Table 9 shows a brief summary of the available bibliography at the pan-European zone 851 focused on high-mountain karst aquifers with a thick USZ in which this methodology852 could be tested (Fig. 12).

- 853
- Table 9. Brief summary of published research studies of groundwater flow karst systems in
- 855 mountain areas with thick USZ the pan-European zone.

	High mountain karst system	NSZ Thickness	Reference	
1	Yunquera-Sierra de las Nieves	1000	Andreo et al. (2004); Pardo-Iguzquiza et al.	
			(2015)	
2	Alta Cadena	700	Mudarra and Andreo (2011)	
3	Sierra Gorda	500	Mudarra and Andreo (2015)	
4	Picos de Europa	1500	Ballesteros et al. (2015a); Ruiz and Poblete	
			(2012)	
5	Ordesa y Monte Perdido	1500	Lambán et al. (2015); Jódar et al. (2016b)	
6	Port del Comte	1000	(This research)	
7	Fontaine Vaucluse	800	Fleury et al. (2007)	
8	Schlichenden Brünnen -	1000	Jeannin (2001)	
	Muotathal			
9	Wetterstein Mountains	1000	Lauber and Goldscheider (2014)	
	(Zugspitze)			
10	Wimbachtal catchment	1500	Maloszewski et al. (1992)	
11	Totes Gebirge	1000	Laimer (2010)	
12	Schneealpe Massif	900	Rank et al 1992; Maloszewski et al. (2002)	
13	Cansiglio-Cavallo karst aquifer	800	Filippini et al. (2018)	
14	Mount Kanin	2000	Zini et al. (2015); Turk et al. (2015)	
15	Gacka	1000	Ozyurt et al. (2014)	
16	Gran Sasso aquifer	1500	Falcone et al. (2008); Amuroso et al. (2013)	
17	Arabika Massif	2500	Klimchouk (2009)	
18	Aladaglar Mountains	2000	Ozyurt and Bayari (2008)	





Fig. 12. Spatial distribution of carbonate rock outcrops at the pan-Mediterranean zone. Red
points indicate the position of those high mountain karst aquifers zones with a thick (<500 m)
NSZ referenced in the existing bibliography (map modified from the *World Map of Carbonate Rock Outcrops v.3.0.* Source: http://www.fos.auckland.ac.nz/our_research/karst). Numbers in
bullets correspond to the codes shown in Table 9.

4.4 Evaluation of results for groundwater management purposes

866 MTT is a corner stone for groundwater management strategies, and many authors have 867 used this variable as a proxy of vulnerability assessment in hydrogeological systems (Einsiedl et al., (2009) and Malik et al., (2016), among others). This work provides the 868 first estimation of the MTT associated with most important springs discharging the 869 870 PCM karst system. From the perspective of aquifer vulnerability, the intensive cattle 871 grazing conducted in the PCM is the most threading activity to the groundwater resources stored in the underlying aquifer so far. The relatively large MTTs (2,25 yr) 872 873 along with the exponential flow model describing the hydrologic behavior of PCM, 874 points to groundwater mixing as a natural attenuation/dilution process inside the aquifer 875 system. However, it must be taken in mind that the presence of unnoticed but likely 876 well-developed flow paths through the USZ and also the existence of karst conductive 877 features in the saturated zone of the PCM may favor fast contaminant migration from 878 the recharge areas to the groundwater discharge points of this aquifer system, but this is 879 investigation is out of the scope of this work.

880

881 From the perspective of water resources management the storage and dynamic volumes associated with the PCM aquifer system are also valuable information obtained in this 882 study. In this line, it is worth to comment that the PCM aquifer system has an integrated 883 groundwater storage capacity (V_{GW}) of 35,2 hm³, and generates an overall mean annual 884 groundwater discharge of 15,35 hm³/yr, that represents 15% of the mean annual water 885 886 consumption in the city of Barcelona (Barcelona City Council, 2018). Moreover, the average discharge of S-05, which is one of the main groundwater springs of the PCM 887 888 represents 7% of the mean annual water consumption of Barcelona city. This discharge 889 tributes to the Llobregat River Basin, which in turns provides critical water resources to the Barcelona metropolitan area. It is important keeping these numbers in mind to 890 891 estimate the water resources availability given the increased frequency and severity of 892 the Mediterranean droughts reported by the experts (Hoerling et al., 2012; Vicente-893 Serrano et al., 2014).

894

In the Pyrenean range, climate models forecast a precipitation decrease up to 14% with respect to the observed mean precipitation and a temperature increase between 2 and 4 °C that will reduce the amount of solid precipitation and the corresponding snowmelt runoff (López-Moreno et al., 2008, 2009). In addition, the duration of the snowpack will

be shorter, shifting the timing of the snowmelt (Adam et al., 2009). The PCM is in the 899 900 pre-Pyrenean zone to the South of the Pyrenean axial zone. Here, the elevation of the mountains is lower, and the climate conditions are not so severe, accelerating the impact 901 902 of the forecast temperature increase on snow precipitation, snowmelt runoff generation 903 and the dynamics of the hydrological systems located in this area. Therefore, the geographical and hydrogeological settings of the PCM, along with the groundwater 904 905 transit times calculated, make the PCM aquifer system an exceptional observatory for 906 anticipating and studying the climate change impact on southern Europe. In this line, it would be extremely important to maintain the observation research program to fully 907 908 understand the hydrogeological behavior of this aquifer system.

909

910 **4.5 Future works in PCM**

911 This study is the first stage in the full hydrogeological characterization of this aquifer 912 system. The next step is to conduct the hydrogeochemical characterization of recharge 913 and groundwater springs discharge to complement the results obtained in this work by 914 focusing in relevant unsolved questions like (1) the role play by the epikarst zone in the 915 total transit time of groundwater and how this role is reflected in the hydrogeochemical 916 evolution of the springs discharge after important rainfall events and during low-flows 917 and (2) the use of artificial tracers and environmental isotopes (e.g. 34S, 15N) to characterize not only the mean transit time (i.e. the first moment of the transit-time 918 919 distribution) but also to profile the groundwater transit-time distribution in terms of fast, 920 intermediate and slow groundwater flows. This investigation is crucial to evaluate the 921 aquifer vulnerability.

922 **5.** Conclusions

A distributed rainfall-runoff model and a lumped-parameter model have been combined to estimate MTT in high-mountain karst systems with an overlying thick unsaturated zone by using the stable isotopes of precipitation as environmental tracers. The presented approach accounts for the effects of the alpine climate conditions on both the aquifer recharge rates and the isotopic composition of recharge. The used approach provides a more reliable assessment of mean transit time compared to traditional methods for such alpine karst systems.

930

931 The approach presented in this work has been used to characterize the hydrological behavior of the Port del Comte Massif, a high mountain karst aquifer with a 1000 m 932 933 thick unsaturated zone located in the southeastern part of the Pyrenees. The percentage of precipitation that enters into the hydrogeological system as aquifer recharge reaches 934 61,9% (the highest studied spring in the area). This elevated infiltration capacity is 935 936 controlled by the presence of karren fields and sinkholes at the highest parts of Port del 937 Comte Massif, at elevations between 2050 and 2300 m a.s.l. The evolution of the 938 isotopic content in the sampled springs shows a sinusoidal pattern that reflects the 939 seasonal variation of the isotopic composition of recharge. This is consistent with the 940 relatively short groundwater transit times (2,25 yr) obtained for the hydrological system, 941 which is in agreement with its karstic nature of the aquifer system, and emphasizes the 942 high vulnerability of the aquifer system to variations in recharge.

943

The mean annual groundwater discharge and the mean water storage of the Port del Comte Massif hydrogeological system represent 16 and 34% of the mean annual water consumption in the city of Barcelona, underlying the important role as a strategic water

947 resource that the Port del Comte Massif may play for stakeholders and water resources 948 managers when facing the drought episodes that the Mediterranean region iteratively 949 suffers. Moreover, given the geographical position of the study zone, located to the 950 south of the Pyrenean axial zone, and the hydrogeological settings of the associated 951 karst aquifer system, the Port del Comte Massif is an exceptional watchtower for 952 anticipating the impact of climate change in Southern Europe.

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Fig. A1. Groundwater catchment areas for the springs S-01 to S-06.

Table A1. Distribution of geographical and elevation zones considered into the HBV semidistributed rainfall-runoff model into the groundwater catchment zones. The areas of the different vegetation zones (VZs) are provided, considering the three different elevation zones into which every GWC is divided.

(GWC	Elevation Zones		Vegeta	Vegetation Zone Areas			Percentage Areas		
Index	Associated Spring	Z _{min} (m a.s.l.)	Z _{max} (m a.s.l.)	EZ _{ij} ^a (ha)	VZ ₁ ^b (ha)	VZ ₂ ^c (ha)	VZ ₃ ^d (ha)	VZ_1/EZ_{ij} (%)	VZ ₂ /EZ _{ij} (%)	VZ ₃ /EZ _{ij} (%)
1	S-01	1334	1600	204,0	41,8	56,8	105,5	20,5	27,8	51,7
		1601	1851	219,1	19,0	67,7	132,4	8,7	30,9	60,4
		1851	2141	122,8	4,8	6,8	111,1	3,9	5,5	90,5
2	S-02	1122	1543	106,9	8,2	26,0	72,7	7,7	24,3	68,0

		1544	1965	756,5	32,2	210,3	514,0	4,3	27,8	67,9
		1966	2385	1389,5	183,8	443,5	762,2	13,2	31,9	54,9
3	S-03	1201	1443	102,3	1,7	36,9	63,7	1,7	36,1	62,3
		1444	1686	561,2	19,5	178,9	362,8	3,5	31,9	64,6
		1687	1927	522,6	12,6	119,4	390,6	2,4	22,8	74,7
4	S-04	1468	1710	9,1	0,1	2,8	6,2	1,1	30,8	68,1
		1711	1847	0,9	0,1	0,5	0,3	11,1	55,6	33,3
		1848	1875	0,1	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,0	100,0	0,0
5	S-05	1421	1663	234,3	8,1	24,4	201,8	3,5	10,4	86,1
		1664	1973	635,5	45,4	126,0	464,1	7,1	19,8	73,0
		1974	2348	1278,4	215,5	495,0	568,0	16,9	38,7	44,4
6	S-06	1838	1926	11,9	0,7	0,7	10,5	5,9	5,9	88,2
		1927	2014	20,7	0,1	1,8	18,8	0,5	8,7	90,8
		2015	2101	13,4	0,0	2,3	11,2	0,0	17,2	83,6

(a) For a given elevation zone EZ_{ij} the subscripts "i" (from 1 to 6) and "j" refer to the corresponding groundwater catchment zone and elevation zone number, respectively; (b) VZ_1 corresponds to open areas; (c) VZ_2 corresponds to mountain meadows; (d) VZ_3 corresponds to forest zones

1471 Appendix B: Sinusoidal functions fitting the measuring the isotopic content



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1475 Fig. B1. Isotopic content of precipitation (P; black symbols) and spring discharge (GW; blue 1476 symbols). δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H are indicated by solid and empty symbols, respectively The dashed lines 1477 indicate the fitted sinusoidal function [Eq.1]. The identification codes correspond to those in 1478 Table 1.

1480 Appendix C: HBV hydrological modeling

Parameter	Units	Valid range	Description
TT	°C	(-inf,inf)	Threshold temperature to produce accumulation of
			precipitation as snow. Melt of snow starts if temperatures
			are above TT calculated with a simple degree-day
			(degree- Δt in case of a non-daily time step) method
CFMAX	mm/\Deltat/°C	[0,inf)	Degree- Δt factor - CFMAX varies normally between 1.5
			and 4 mm oC-1 day-1 (in Sweden), with lower values for
			forested areas. As approximation the values 2 and 3.5 can
			be used for CFMAX in forested and open landscape
			respectively.
SFCF	-	[0,inf)	Snowfall correction factor
CFR	-	[0,inf)	Refreezing coefficient
CWH	-	[0,inf)	Water holding capacity, according to: refreezing
			meltwater = $CFR \cdot CFMAX(TT-T)'$
FC	mm	(0,inf)	Maximum soil moisture storage
LP	-	[0,1)	Soil moisture value above which AET reaches PET
BETA	-		Parameter that determines the relative contribution to
			runoff from rain or snowmelt

1481 Table C1. List of abbreviations for the vegetation zone parameters of HBV (Seibert, 2005)

1483 Table C2. List of abbreviations for the catchment parameters of HBV (Seibert, 2005)

Parameter	Units	Valid range	Description
PERC	mm/\Deltat	[0,inf)	Threshold parameter
UZL	mm	[0,inf)	Threshold parameter
К0	$1/\Delta t$	[0,1)	Storage (or recession) coefficient 0
K1	$1/\Delta t$	[0,1)	Storage (or recession) coefficient 1
K2	$1/\Delta t$	[0,1)	Storage (or recession) coefficient 2
MAXBAS	Δt	[1,100]	Length of triangular weighting function
- 1485 Table C3. Objective functions for the calibration of the HBV hydrologic model, where Q_{obs_i}
- 1486 and Q_{sim_i} are the measured and computed of spring discharge values, respectively, $\overline{Q_{obs}}$ is the
- 1487 arithmetic mean of the observed spring discharge values, and $\overline{Q_{stm}}$ is the arithmetic mean of the
- 1488 computed spring discharge values.

Objective function	Observations		
$R_{eff} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (Q_{sim_i} - Q_{obs_i})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (Q_{obs_i} - \overline{Q_{obs}})^2}$	$\begin{split} R_{\rm eff} &= 1 \text{ means perfect fit} \\ R_{\rm eff} &= 0, \text{ indicates that the model} \\ \text{fits the observed data no better} \\ \frac{1}{Q_{obs}} \\ R_{\rm eff} &< 0 \text{ means very poor fit} \end{split}$		
$R^{2} = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(Q_{obs_{i}} - \overline{Q_{obs}}\right) * \left(Q_{sim_{i}} - \overline{Q_{sim}}\right)\right)^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(Q_{obs_{i}} - \overline{Q_{obs}}\right)^{2} * \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(Q_{sim_{i}} - \overline{Q_{sim}}\right)^{2}}$	R^2 is the determination coefficient. The higher the R^2 value the better the model performance		

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1491 Table C4. Calibrated values of the parameters in the HBV-light model

Catchment Parameters	Units	S-01	S-02	5-03	S-04	S-05	S-06
Cateminent 1 arameters	Onits	5-01	5-02	5-05	5-04	5-05	5-00
Snow Routine (VZ ₁)							
TT	°C	-0,2	-4,52	-1,6	-1,1	-1	-1,1
CFMAX	mm/d/°C	1,9	2,4	2	1,7	2,8	1,2
SFCF	-	1	2,38	0,5	1	1,2	1,5
CFR	-	1	2,5	0,7	0,5	0,6	0,6
CWH	-	0,5	2	2	1	0,8	0,8
Snow Routine (VZ ₂)							
TT	°C	-0,2	-4,39	-1,6	-0,5	-3	-0,46
CFMAX	mm/d/°C	1,9	1	2	1,6	1	2,1
SFCF	-	1	2,6	0,7	1	1,2	1,16
CFR	-	1	2,5	0,7	0,3	1	1
CWH	-	1	2	1	1	0,2	0,2

Snow Routine (VZ₃)

TT	°C	4	6	6	0	5,5	6,5
CFMAX	mm/d/°C	1,5	1	1,5	1,5	1	4
SFCF	-	0,001	0,001	0,001	0,01	0,001	0,001
CFR	-	0,7	1	0,7	0,2	0,4	0,4
CWH	-	2	2	3	1	1	1
Soil Moisture Routine							
(VZ ₁)							
FC	mm	95	75	80	75	50	80
LP	-	0,07	0,01	0,02	0,02	0,01	0,01
BETA	-	0,60	0,40	1,54	1,70	0,30	2,5
Soil Moisture Routine							
(VZ ₂)							
FC	mm	180	120	150	125	139	150
LP	-	0,07	0,01	0,06	0,01	0,01	0,01
BETA	-	0,60	2,20	3,90	3,45	1,80	2,7
Soil Moisture Routine							
(VZ ₃)							
FC	mm	750	550	490	750	660	700
LP	-	0,00	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01	0,01
BETA	-	6,00	3,00	5,70	6,00	3,50	4,00
Response Routine							
PERC	mm/d	5	20,0	2,2	1,1	25,0	1,7
UZL	mm	100	80	100	110	100	100
K0	1/d	0,20	0,50	0,20	0,20	0,20	0,40
K1	1/d	0,07	0,11	0,13	0,17	0,20	0,20
K2	1/d	0,01	0,02	0,04	0,04	0,05	0,05
Routing Routine							
MAXBAS	d	1,7	6,2	2	2,45	4,3	4,22

Table C5. Goodness of the result of the HBV calibrations for each spring model

HBV model	R _{eff} (-)	R ² (-)
S-01	0,55	0,55
S-02	0,66	0,67
S-03	0,73	0,78
S-04	0,57	0,73
S-05	0,77	0,80
S-06	0,62	0,66

1499 Appendix D: FlowPC modeling

1500 Table D1. Fitted parameters of the exponential-piston flow model (EPM) for the estimated

Parameters	S-01	S-02	S-03	S-04	S-05	S-06
β (%) [□]	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\delta_{\beta} \left(\% \right)^{b}$	0	0	0	0	0	0
η (-) ^c	1,02	1,02	1,00	1,01	1,02	1,02
τ (yr)	2,25	1,42	2,25	2,33	2,88	2,58
RMSE (‰)	0,03	0,04	0,03	0,03	0,02	0,03

1501 mean transit times (τ) with FlowPC model and δ^{18} O data

(a) A constant discharge component as a fraction (usually older) of the total spring volumetric discharge flow rate. (b) Constant isotopic content of β . (c) η is the ratio of the total volume to the volume with exponential distribution transit time (TTD). $\eta = 1$ means the Exponential model (EM) and $\eta > 1$ for Exponential-piston flow model (EPM)

1502

1503

1504 Table D2. Fitted parameters of the exponential-piston flow model (EPM) for the estimated

	() $()$ $()$ $()$ $()$ $()$ $()$ $()$
1505	mean transit times (τ) with FlowPC model and δ^2 H data

Parameters	S-01	S-02	S-03	S-04	S-05	S-06
β (%) ^a	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\delta_{eta} \left(\% \right)^{b}$	0	0	0	0	0	0
η (-) ^c	1,01	1,00	1,01	1,00	1,01	1,02
$\tau(yr)$	3,00	1,92	2,33	2,67	2,83	2,75
RMSE (‰)	0,19	0,21	0,17	0,22	0,18	0,20

(a) A constant discharge component as a fraction (usually older) of the total spring volumetric discharge flow rate. (b) Constant isotopic content of β . (c) η is the ratio of the total volume to the volume with exponential distribution transit time (TTD). $\eta = 1$ means the Exponential model (EM) and $\eta > 1$ for Exponential-piston flow model (EPM)

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