Groundwater-Gossan Interaction and the Genesis of the Secondary Siderite at Las Cruces Ore Deposit (SW Spain)

4

5 ABSTRACT

The Las Cruces secondary siderite deposit has sparked an interest in the scientific community 6 7 because of its unique mineralogy. The original gossan formed by goethite and hematite has been replaced by a siderite and galena rock. We postulate that this rock can be formed by the 8 interaction of iron oxides with groundwater similar in composition to that of the present day,. 9 10 Hydrochemical and isotopic characteristics of groundwater support this hypothesis. The negative Eh values, the existence of H₂S and the tendency toward high sulfate isotope values 11 indicate a reducing groundwater condition. The high ammonium, boron and iodine 12 concentrations as well as the low δ^{13} C values of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) confirm the 13 organic matter degradation. The reductive dissolution of Pb-bearing goethite at the expense of 14 DOC leads to the precipitation of Fe-sulfides, galena and siderite. The formation of siderite 15 from this process is confirmed by the low amount of dissolved Fe in groundwater (<10 ppb), its 16 low δ^{13} C values and thermodynamic calculations. One-dimensional reactive transport modeling 17 18 demonstrated that the present-day groundwater flux and composition could form the siderite 19 rock in less than 1 Ma with no external supply of reactants. Sensitivity analyses revealed that the time of formation depends on the structure of the groundwater flux (spaced fractures or 20 pervasive), the flow rate and especially the DOC concentration. In fact, calculations with the 21 22 highest DOC measured concentration resulted in a mineral zonation formed by Fe-sulfides and siderite, with galena in both zones, that agrees with the observations. Reactive transport 23 calculations and the similarity of its high δ^{34} S values indicate that the sulfur of galena came 24 from the current groundwater. 25

27 **1. INTRODUCTION**

28 The weathering profile developed in the Volcanogenic Host Massive Sulfide (VHMS) has been extensively studied worldwide in terms of composition, structure and genesis (Crawford et al., 29 30 1992; Doyle and Allen, 2003; Galley et al., 2007; Large, 1992). The formation and characteristics of this profile depend on such factors as rock host type, climate, relief, sulfide 31 paragenesis, groundwater level, pH, and Eh. However, a common weathering profile can be 32 33 defined in three differentiated zones: primary, cementation and oxidation zones (Nickel, 1984; Scott et al., 2001b; Thornber and Wildman, 1984). The upper part of the oxidation zone is 34 known as "gossan". The gossan is formed mainly by oxides and oxyhydroxides of Fe as 35 36 goethite and hematite with jarosite in minor proportion. This typical gossan mineralogy is found 37 in most worldwide deposits, for example in the Australian Woodlawn and Currawong mine (Scott et al., 2001a), in deposits from the Spanish-Portuguese Iberian Pyritic Belt (IPB) 38 39 (Almodóvar et al., 1997; Kosakevitch et al., 1993; De Oliveira et al., 2011; Velasco et al., 2013; 40 Viñals et al., 1995), or in the Flambeau mine in the U.S. (Ross, 1997). ().

41 The IPB, with over 1.600 million tonnes of massive sulfides, is one of the most important metallogenic provinces in the world. The IPB integrates more than 100 mines, most of them 42 43 inactive, and represents 22% of worldwide VHMS deposits (Tornos, 2006). The IPB has been 44 extensively studied based on genesis, structure, mineralogy, and petrology (Leistel et al., 1997; Marcoux, 1997; Sáez et al., 1996; Strauss and Madel, 1974; Tornos et al., 2000). Most gossans 45 46 of the IPB are in the present-day surface except for those of Las Cruces in SW Spain and the 47 Lagoa Salgada in Portugal, which are covered by Cenozoic sediments. The Las Cruces cementation zone presents an exceptional wealth in copper, with 6.2% Cu grade and initial 48 49 reserves of 17.6 Mt. Moreover, the deposit has important resources of 2 Mt of gossan with 4.5% lead, 5% g/t gold and 115 g/t silver in the supergene profile (Yesares et al., 2014a). The Las 50 Cruces secondary deposit has also sparked an interest in the scientific community because of the 51 uniqueness of its mineralogical composition (Blake, 2008; Capitán Suárez, 2006; Knight, 2000; 52

Miguélez et al., 2011; Miguelez et al., 2011; Moreno C., 2003; Tornos et al., 2014; Yesares et 53 al., 2014a). The mineralogy is formed mainly by siderite with galena, calcite, goethite, hematite 54 and precious metals. A comparable case has only been reported in the South Urals (Belogub et 55 al., 2003). The genesis of this mineralogy is the subject of controversy and several hypotheses 56 have been proposed. Knight (2000) considers that the secondary enrichment was multi-genetic 57 and related to events ranging from alteration by a seawater hydrothermal system during primary 58 deposition (Carboniferous) to post-Tertiary weathering. Blake (2008) proposed that fluctuating 59 oxidizing and reducing conditions, coupled with biogenic processes in groundwater, provided a 60 suitable mechanism for the formation of the secondary deposit composition. Tornos et al. (2014) 61 suggested that anaerobic microbial activity was responsible for the uncommon mineralogy of 62 the Las Cruces secondary deposit and proposed that siderite is formed in a natural bioreactor 63 where microbial sulfate reduction was coupled to methane oxidation. These post-Miocene 64 processes occurred below a thick impermeable marl unit from Cenozoic Guadalquivir basin 65 deposits. Conversely, Capitán Suárez (2006) proposed for the Las Cruces gossan an evolution 66 67 controlled by the Miocene transgressive-regressive episodes affecting the area. Yesares et al. 68 (2014) proposed that the formation of the secondary deposit was related to the circulation of surficial waters flowing downwards the Cenozoic sediments. 69

The main objective of this paper is to quantitatively discuss the feasibility of a genetic model of the Las Cruces siderite rock resulting from the interaction of a previous gossan with groundwater similar to present day composition. To reach this objective, it was necessary to 1) characterize the hydrochemistry and isotopes of present day groundwater, 2) quantify the groundwater flow rate through the gossan by performing a hydrogeological numerical model, and 3) quantify the biogeochemical interaction of groundwater flow through the gossan rocks by reactive transport numerical modeling.

77 **2.** SITE DESCRIPTION

78 2.1. Geological setting

The Las Cruces ore deposit is located at the eastern edge of the Iberian Pyritic Belt (IPB), 79 80 approximately 20 km North of Seville. The IPB is a metallogenic province 250 km long and 30-50 km wide, extending from south of Lisbon (Portugal) to Seville (Spain) (Figure 1A). It 81 contains half of the worldwide giant volcanogenic massive sulfide deposits and has been 82 extensively described. The IPB shows a stratigraphic succession formed by upper Paleozoic 83 sedimentary marine materials and volcanic rocks (Schermerhorn, 1971; Moreno and Sáez, 1990; 84 Pascual et al., 1994). These materials were affected by several tectonic phases during the 85 Variscan orogeny resulting in NW-SE to W-E structures and a low grade metamorphism, 86 (Ouesada, 1991; Silva et al., 1990Later, the Alpine orogeny played an important role, 87 reactivating the structures previously formed. The exhumation of the Variscan chain exposed 88 the massive sulfide deposits to the surface, thus promoting oxidation and the formation of 89 gossans. Part of the IPB was covered by Cenozoic marine materials that refilled the 90 Guadalquivir basin because of marine transgression-regression (Abad de los Santos, 2007). The 91 dominant materials are bioclastic calcarenites related to shallow marine environments and marls 92 related to deep marine environments. 93

94 The study area is formed by a Paleozoic basement composed of black shales and volcanic rock 95 sequences, outcropping to the north of the area coinciding with higher topography. The 96 Paleozoic is overlain by two Cenozoic formations: the Niebla and Gibraleon formations (Fm.). 97 The Niebla Fm. is composed of basal conglomerates (bioclastic calcarenites) and sandstones 98 rich in marine micro/macro fauna. The Gibraleon Fm. is formed by marine bluish marls rich in 99 organic matter (Figure 1B and C). All these materials are affected by Alpine faults with a main 98 SW-NE and a secondary NW-SE orientation (Figure 1B).

Based on the age of river terraces in the region, it is considered that the geomorphological and
hydraulic (and therefore hydrogeological) functioning of the study area have not changed
significantly from low-Pleistocene (1,8 Ma) to recent times (Escudero, 1994; Moral et al., 2013;
Salvany et al., 2001)





Figure 1. A) Location of the Iberian Pyrite Belt (IPB) and the Las Cruces deposit. B) Section
showing the main geological trends and C) the weathering profile of Las Cruces deposit.

109 2.2. Ore deposit description

110 The Las Cruces ore deposit is a sulfide massive body enclosed in Paleozoic materials. The 111 deposit was exhumed in Miocene time and the Paleozoic rocks and the massive sulfides were 112 weathered under atmospheric conditions. Consequently, a supergene profile was developed in 113 the upper part of the sulfide massive composed of the primary zone, cementation zone and 114 oxidation zone (Figure 1C). The profile alteration remains intact because it was buried by 115 Cenozoic sediments during the Tortonian marine transgression. The secondary deposit of Las 116 Cruces has a peculiarity in its composition where the original gossan formed by goethite and 117 hematite have been replaced by siderite, galena and iron metastable sulfides such as greigite and 118 smythite (Tornos et al., 2014).

The primary zone, of the Las Cruces deposit, is formed by unaltered sulfides and integrates a 119 sulfide massive body and stockwork mineralization. The main minerals in the massive body are 120 pyrite, chalcopyrite, sphalerite and galena, whereas the stockwork is made up of pyrite and 121 122 chalcopyrite, similar to other sulfide massive deposits from the IPB (García de Miguel, 1990; Marcoux et al., 1996). The cementation zone is an enrichment in chalcocite. Tornos et al. (2016) 123 differentiated 2 zones in the secondary deposit: (1) a basal "Black rock" formed manly by iron 124 sulfides, galena, calcite and quartz and (2) a "Red rock" formed mostly by siderite, galena and 125 residual goethite, which constitutes most of the volume. Mineralogical details and textural 126 features are described in Yesares et al. (2015), who described textures of replacement of Fe-127 oxyhydroxides by siderite and sulfides. 128

Some isotopic studies have reported data about the Las Cruces ore deposit and have helped to 129 improve the understanding of the formation of this deposit. For example, $\delta^{13}C$ values of the 130 siderite were provided by Capitán Suárez (2006) and Tornos et al. (2014) and ranged from -131 47.95 to -13.4‰ and -41.7 to -17.6‰, respectively. Capitán Suárez (2006) interpreted these 132 values as linked to biomass and concluded that the low values indicated a soil-related origin. 133 However, Tornos et al. (2014) proposed that these values can only be derived by biologically 134 135 mediated methanotrophy or anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM) or of low molecular weight organic compounds. Moreover, Knight (2000) and Tornos et al. (2014) presented δ^{34} S values for 136 both primary and secondary mineralization, which will be discussed below. 137

138

2.3. Aqueous phase characterization

139 The conglomerate and sand strata of the Niebla formation, together with a narrow layer of
140 weathered Paleozoic basement, constitutes an aquifer. The upper part of fractured Paleozoic
141 basement also constitutes a zone of moderate permeability. These aquifers outcrop to the north

of the study area, constituting the recharge zone. The Niebla Fm. dips southward and is 142 confined by the overlying marls of the Gibraleon Fm. that reaches a thickness of hundreds of 143 metres (Figure 2A). Five zones can be differentiated based on their transmissivity values: (1) 144 corresponds to the marls of the Gibraleon Fm.; (2) the sands and conglomerates of Niebla 145 formation; (3) the weathered part of upper Paleozoic formation; (4) the Paleozoic rocks; and (5) 146 the faults (Figure 2A). The approximately 10- to 30-m-thick Niebla Fm. has transmissivity 147 values that range between 10 and 500 m^2/d , and its storage coefficient values are on the order of 148 10^{-2} within the unconfined zone and between 10^{-3} and 10^{-5} in the confined areas (CHG, 2012). It 149 is sealed near the recharge zone by the low transmissivity ($<5 \text{ m}^2/d$) marls of the Gibraleon Fm. 150 (CHG, 2012). No previous values have been measured for the Paleozoic, the weathered 151 Paleozoic and the main faults. Following the groundwater head inventory and prior to mine 152 operations, groundwater regional flow was dominantly from the northwest to the southeast 153 (Figure 2B). There was an abnormal change of gradient in the area around the mine site 154 attributed to an elevation of the basement paleorelief, where the Niebla Fm. disappears and the 155 marl layer rests directly on the Paleozoic (Figure 2A and B). The main recharge of the aquifer is 156 by rainwater infiltration in the outcropping zone (NW). The groundwater residence time, 157 estimated from ³H, ¹⁴C and ³⁶Cl analyses, confirms the existence of some recharge of the Niebla 158 aquifer from the underlying Paleozoic. A residence time up to 30.000 years was obtained for the 159 groundwater close to the Las Cruces deposit (Scheiber et al., 2015). The total estimated annual 160 recharge is 32 hm³ (25 mm/y) for an area of 1,300 km². The discharge was 34 hm³/y and 161 corresponds to agricultural and consumption extractions (CHG, 2012; Navarro et al., 1993). 162 Note that the Niebla aquifer was artesian south of the outcropping area prior to mining and 163 agricultural extractions (IGME, 1984). Another important fact is the role of the main fault 164 165 system as a possible discharge zone. Several data items, such as high groundwater temperatures (up to 37.5 °C) detected in areas near faults, confirm the presence of upward flows along these 166 167 faults.



168

Figure 2. A) Simplified hydrogeological cross-section and hydrochemical characteristics of
groundwater; B) Piezometric map of study area and sampling points distribution; The lines and
bold labels are the interpolated groundwater isopotential lines and heads in masl (meters above sea
level).

174 2.4. Hydrogeochemical setting

The groundwater chemistry was detailed by Scheiber et al. (2016) and is summarized below. Groundwater shows an evolution along flow lines from the NW to SE direction (Figure 2A and B). Groundwater is of the Ca-HCO₃-type initially, switching to Na-HCO₃- and Na-Cl-type downstream in proximity to the recharge zone. An excess in Na concentrations with respect to seawater ratios is observed towards deeper portions of the aquifer related to a Na-Ca exchange process that occurs within dispersed clay layers in the aquifer or within the overlying formation. There is also an increase in pH and specific conductivity (SC) and a decrease of Eh values downstream. In proximity to the Las Cruces ore, the groundwater has basic pH values up to 10.6 (Figure 3A), the SC reaches values from 1000 up to 5.940 μ S·cm⁻¹. Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC) concentration ranges from 2.86 up to 15.9 mg·L⁻¹ in the deepest area (Figure 3B). These values are above the typical values in groundwater of <1 mg·L⁻¹ (Kalbitz et al., 2000). Complete analyses can be found in Supplementary Information (Table A1).

187 The negative Eh values (Figure 3A), together with the decreasing sulfate concentration and the 188 presence of H₂S, suggest that this is an environment with reducing conditions. Values of δ^{34} S 189 and δ^{18} O of the sulfate molecule range between -17.2 to 20.4‰ (CDT), and 1.9 to 18.1‰ (V-190 SMOW), respectively, for samples near the mining site. This tendency towards higher δ^{18} O and 191 δ^{34} S values confirms the sulfate reduction shown in Figure 4.

Moreover, high ammonium (up to 12.8 mg·L⁻¹), boron (up to 3.48 mg·L⁻¹) and iodide (up to 0.67 mg·L⁻¹) concentrations are found in parts of the deep Niebla and Paleozoic aquifers (Figure 3C) and increase towards the deepest areas close to the ore body. The high NH₄, B and I concentrations have been attributed to the anoxic decomposition of marine organic matter (Whitehead, 1974; Goldberg et al., 1993; Scheiber et al., 2016). Moreover, the δ^{13} C values of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) are approximately -10‰ in the ore proximity. All these facts indicate that the organic matter occurs along a groundwater flow path.

From the groundwater characteristics described above, we can postulate that the current groundwater can induce the reductive dissolution of the goethite at the expense of DOC (represented as CH_2O). The reaction increased the pH and released Fe^{2+} and HCO_3^- , which promoted siderite precipitation by the following reaction:

$$CH_2O + 4FeOOH + 7H^+ \rightarrow 4Fe^{2+} + HCO_3^- + 6H_2O$$
 (R1)

Arsenic concentration, present as As(III), ranging from below the limit detection to 0.18 mg/L
has also been found locally in some wells from the deepest Niebla aquifer. The presence of
As(III) also suggests the dissolution of the As-bearing goethite in a reducing environment. The

low amount of Fe (< 10 ppb) detected in groundwater can be due to siderite precipitation.
Indeed, thermodynamic calculations performed with PHREEQC and the Wateq4 database
(Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013) indicate that groundwater close to the ore body is supersaturated
and very close to equilibrium with respect to siderite (Figure 3D).



Figure 3. (A) Eh and pH values of groundwater; (B) Dissolved Organic Carbon concentration of groundwater; (C) NH₄, B and I concentration and (D) Saturation index of siderite. The location of the samples is shown in Figure 2B.



215

Figure 4. Representation of the isotopic content of sulfates in groundwater. Legend: (A) Sulfate 216 derived from sedimentary, (B) Sulfate derived from magmatic sulfide. Figure modified from 217 218 Scheiber et al. (2015) 219

2.5. Solid phase characterization

Another aspect to consider is that groundwater transports a very low content of Pb (< 1 ppb) and 221 222 thus an additional source of the element to form galena is assumed to be present in the initial gossan. Minerals from the jarosite family rich in lead, such as plumbojarosite or beudantite, 223 have very often been described as the mineral limiting the low Pb concentrations of massive 224 225 sulfide oxidation sites, particularly in the Iberian Pyrite Belt (Figueiredo and Pereira da Silva, 226 2011; Nieto et al., 2003). However, these minerals have not been identified in the oxides remaining in the Las Cruces siderite rock. 227 To determine the origin of Pb, three samples rich in goethite were analysed by Electron 228

- microprobe (EPM). Lead, As, Cu, Fe, S and Sb in goethite were quantified(Figure 5 and 6). The 229
- complete analyses are shown in Table A2 of Supplementary Information. 230



232 Figure 5. Electron microprobe images of secondary deposit fragments. Goethite (gt) replaced by 233 siderite (sd) and galena (gn). 234

The EPM analyses in goethite suggest that this mineral is the main source of Pb and Sb that 235 subsequently form galena and Pb-sulfosalts and for As found in groundwater in some wells 236 237 from the deep zone.



238

239 240

Figure 6. Results from electron microprobe analyses of goethite (N= 53) and histogram of the frequency of lead in goethite. 241

The presence of As, Pb and Sb in goethite has been extensively described. Fe-oxyhydroxides 242 are characterized by a very high specific surface area of $\pm 300 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ and a high adsorption 243 capacity capable of adsorbing large amounts of metals and metalloids (Davis and Leckie, 1978). 244 245 Many studies related to As adsorption on goethite are available (Bowell, 1994; Dixit and Hering, 2003; Fendorf et al., 1997; Goldberg and Johnston, 2001). Lead adsorption on goethite 246 was investigated by Forbes et al. (1976), Hiemstra and Van Riemsdijk (1999), Coughlin and 247 Stone (1995), and Bargar et al. (1997), among others. Several studies have also investigated the 248

Sb adsorption mechanism on Fe-oxyhydroxides by laboratory experiments (Leuz et al., 2006; Tighe et al., 2005). No mineral phases other than goethite have been identified by X ray Diffraction, but the atomic Pb/S ratio close to 1 (0.96) and the narrow dispersion of the Pb and S contents suggest that these elements could be present as nanoinclusions of a Pb:S 1:1 phase anglesite homogeneously distributed in goethite.

254

255

Additionally, sulfur isotope data provide valuable information about the environmental 256 conditions of ore formation and the sources of sulfur. Our values fall between the range reported 257 by Knight (2000) and Tornos et al. (2016) for galena from the Las Cruces deposit and 258 significantly higher than the values reported for other sulfides from the IPB (Table 1). The 259 similarity between the δ^{34} S values of the secondary mineralization of the Las Cruces deposit and 260 those of groundwater sulfate suggests that the current galena composition can be explained by 261 the groundwater and gossan interaction. Indeed, the sulfate reduction increases the $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ of 262 groundwater along its transit through the aquifer. The remaining $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ values of groundwater 263 from the deep zone close to the Las Cruces deposit are as high as 10‰ and up to 20‰ (Figure 264 4). The complete reduction of SO₄ and the precipitation of galena can produce a solid with high 265 δ^{34} S values. Therefore, the δ^{34} S_{SO4} data suggest a high influence of the S carried by groundwater 266 in the final galena sulfur. Since galena would have remained stable under reducing conditions, 267 intial microinclusions in goethite would probably be of a oxidized phase such as anglesite or 268

beudantite.

RE DEPOSIT	δ ³⁴ S MIN. VALUE	δ ³⁴ S MAX. VALUE (‰)	DATA SOURCE
Agua Teñidas	-5.6	+3.6	
Aljustrel	-20.4	+4.0	
Aznalcollar	-6.0	+4.4	
Concepción	-1.4	+9.2	
Cueva de la Mora	+2.5	+7.1	
La Zarza	-7.3	+7.8	V_{a} Values of v_{a} (1008)
Lousal	-8.3	+5.5	v elasco et al. (1998)
Monte Romero	+3.3	+9.0	
Neves Corvo	-11.1	+6.0	
Rio Tinto	-14.1	+12.4	
San Miguel	-3.9	+9.2	
Sotiel	-34.2	+6.7	

Tharsis	-26.8	+3.5							
Aznalcollar	-6.0	+4.4	Almodóvar et al. (1997)						
Tharsis	-10.7	+3.5	Kase et al. (1990)						
Tharsis	-11.5	+0.0	Tornos et al. (1998)						
Las Cruces secondary deposit	+11.9	+25.9	Tornos et al. (2014)						
Las Cruces secondary deposit	+3.5	+21.7	Knight (2000)						
Las Cruces secondary deposit	+10.2	+13.5	This work.						
Table 1. Summary of sulfur isotope data of some massive sulfide deposits from the Iberian Pyrite									

Belt

270

271 272

273 **3.** QUANTITATIVE MODELING AND DISCUSSION

274

3.1. Numerical flow model

The main purpose of quantitative modeling was to apply a semi-quantitative approach to the 275 276 flow recently circulating through the original gossan. The flow rate value obtained was used to perform reactive transport modeling. To achieve this purpose, a 2D numerical flow model in 277 steady conditions based on piezometric data prior to mining activity was applied. The 278 TRANSIN code (Medina and Carrera, 2003) was used for the modeling process using its 279 280 graphical interface VISUAL TRANSIN (UPC (2003), http://h2ogeo.upc.edu/en/investigationhydrogeology/software). The model corresponds to a NW-SE vertical section 25 km in length 281 and 1.2 km thick. Based on the data described in the preceding sections, the following boundary 282 conditions were imposed: (C1) prescribed head in SE boundary; (C2) prescribed recharge in the 283 Paleozoic outcrop (1.2 m³y⁻¹, CHG (2012)) and (C3) in the Niebla formation outcrop (0.3 m³y⁻¹, 284 285 CHG (2012)); and (C4) mixed conditions representing the artesian zone in the marls surface close to the recharge area (IGME, 1984). The model was discretized in the five transmissivity 286 zones based on the geologic differences defined in section 2.4: the Gibraleón Fm. (T1), the 287 Niebla Fm. (T2), the weathered Paleozoic (T3), Paleozoic schists and volcanics (T4) and faults 288 289 (T5) (Figure 2A).

TRANSIN solves the flow equation by applying the finite element method and the inverse problem using automatic calibration. A finite element mesh of 4752 nodes and 8947 triangular elements was built. The model calibration was performed by fitting the measured and calculated groundwater levels, the hydraulic parameters applied and their uncertainty range and the mass balance consistency. The transmissivity data from the CHG (2012) and the piezometric levels

295	from previous	mining activity	(Figure 2B)) were used	in the ca	alibration process.	The starting and

ZONE	DESCRIPTION	TRANSMISSIVITY m ² d ⁻¹					
		Reference	Calibrate				
T1	Gibraleon Fm.	<5	0.2				
T2	Niebla Fm.	10-500	20				
Т3	Weathered Paleozoic	-	3.5				
T4	Paleozoic materials	-	0.04				
T5	Faults	-	0.02				
ZONE	DESCRIPTION	RECHAF	RGE m ³ y ⁻¹				
R1	Paleozoic	1.2					
R2	Niebla Fm.	0	.3				

296 calibrated values of transmissivity and recharge are listed in Table 2.

297Table 2. Calibrated transmissivity values of the five different materials used in the flow model.298Initial reference values from CHG (2012). Recharge values used for the numerical flow model299(CHG, 2012).

300

The correlation between computed and measured head is shown in Figure 7, which shows an average error lower or equal to 2.5 m. Owing to the highest errors correspond to the most distant areas from the ore deposit, the adjustment was considered acceptable. The mass balance expressed as an annual average value model is shown in Table 3. For a steady-state flow, inputs were equal to outputs.

306

ZONE	PRESCRIBED HEAD	PRESCRIBED FLOW	LEAKAGE
C1	-1.5	-	-
C2	-	1.2	-
C3	-	0.3	-
C4	-	-	-0.34E-05
FLOW MA	SS BALANCE ERROR		0.12E-10

307Table 3. Mass balance obtained from the modeling process (m³d⁻¹). Water inflow is expressed by308positive values and negative values instead express water outflow.





311 312 313

Figure 7. Correlation between computed and measured hydraulic heads obtained from the flow numerical model.

The piezometric map of the cross section from NW to SE was thus obtained from the model (Figure 7). As expected, the flow was from the recharge area to SE. There were areas where the flow in the Paleozoic materials had an upward component. This behaviour was mainly detected close to the principal faults where the flow was up to the faults and the groundwater from the Paleozoic discharged to the Niebla aquifer. The main output of the flow modeling was that the unitary flow which circulates upwards through the gossan is $1.35 \text{ m}^3\text{m}^2\text{y}^{-1}$. This value was used in the reactive transport model.



Figure 7. Cross section piezometric map of study area as result of the flow numerical model results.
 The labels in the isopotential lines correspond to groundwater levels in masl (meters above sea
 level)

325 326

3.2. Reactive transport model

327

344

345 346

-

3.2.1.Initial and boundary conditions

The main goal of this section is to evaluate the feasibility of the conceptual model proposed in section 2 and to estimate the time required for the formation of the siderite rock. Groundwatermineral interaction was modelled with the computer code RETRASO. This code is based on a full coupling of the multicomponent solute transport equations with chemical reaction equations, either under equilibrium or kinetic laws (Saaltink et al., 1998).

A 1D reactive transport model representing a 10-m long flow line circulating from the base to 333 the top of the gossan was considered. The entire domain was initially composed of goethite (0.7)334 volume fraction) and refractory silicates (0.1). A porosity of 0.3 has been estimated for the 335 original gossan (Emmons and Laney, 1926; Kelly, 1958). Based on the analysis of goethite, Pb 336 was included in the stoichiometric formula of goethite. However, for the sake of simplicity no 337 Sb and As were included in the calculations. The upstream boundary condition was prescribed 338 flow (1.35 m³·m⁻²·y⁻¹), obtained from the groundwater flow model. The chemical composition 339 of initial and inflow water (Table 4) corresponded to a groundwater composition upstream of 340 the secondary deposit (sample number 5, Figure 2A). The domain was discretized into 20 341 elements. Calculations were performed at 25°C, the temperature of present day groundwater in 342 343 the wells close to the deposit.

рΗ	Ca DIC Cl		Fe (II)	Na	S(II)	S(VI)	Pb	DOC	
7.8	2.50E-05	6.41E-03	4.47E-02	8.98E-08*	4.63E-02	3.13E-06	1.31E-04	4.84E-09*	2.86E-04

 Table 4. Chemical composition of groundwater from the deep aquifer used as initial and inflow water (mol·L⁻¹). *Detection Limit.

A total of eleven primary aqueous species, fifteen aqueous complexes and five minerals were selected to describe the geochemical model (Table 5). A summary of all the reactions and kinetic formulations used for the reactive transport model is found in Table 5. Aqueous species were selected from the most abundant species in previous aqueous speciation modeling. Thermodynamic data are those of the Wateq4f database included in the PHREEQC code 352 (Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013). In addition to initial goethite, neoformed minerals were selected

353 from among the most representative observed in the present-day secondary deposit mineralogy.

- 354 Mackinawite has been selected as a first step for greigite and smythite formation (Rickard,
- 355 2006). Minerals were assumed to precipitate in equilibrium.

 $R_5: 2CH_2O + SO_4^{2-} \rightarrow HS^- + 2HCO_3^- + H^+$

PRIMARY AQUEOUS SPECIES	Ca ⁺² , H	ICO ₃ ⁻ , H ⁺ , Cl ⁻ , Fe ⁺² , Fe(OH) ₃ , Na ⁺ , HS ⁻ , SO ₄ ⁻² , PbCo	D ₃ ⁻ , H ⁺ , Cl ⁻ , Fe ⁺² , Fe(OH) ₃ , Na ⁺ , HS ⁻ , SO ₄ ⁻² , PbCO ₃ , CH ₂ O							
AQUEOUS COMPLEXES CaCO ₃ , NaCO ₃ ⁻ , NaHCO ₃ , CaHCO ₃ ⁺ , CO ₂ , CO ₃ ⁻² , FeCO ₃ , FeHCO ₃ ⁺ , Fe(OH) ₄ ⁻ , Fe ⁺³ , OH ₂ S, NaSO ₄ ⁻ , Pb(CO ₃) ₂ ⁻² , Pb ⁺²										
MINERALS	Goethit	e (Fe _{0.996} Pb _{0.004} OOH), Calcite, Galena, Siderite, Ma	ckinawite							
REACTION		FORMULATION	k							
R ₁ : Ca ²⁺ + HCO ₃ ⁻ → CaCO ₃ + H ⁺ R ₂ : 2CH ₂ O + 4FeOOH + 7H ⁺ → 4F R ₃ : Pb ²⁺ + HS ⁻ → PbS (s) + H ⁺ R ₄ : Fe ²⁺ + HCO ₂ ⁻ → FeCO ₃ + H ⁺	$e^{2+} + HCO_3^{-} + 6H_2O$	EQUILIBRIUM r _{om_feooh} =k _{om_feooh} ·([CH ₂ O]/k*+[CH ₂ O])·(Ω-1) EQUILIBRIUM EQUILIBRIUM	1.38E ⁻¹⁰	[1]						

356 357	Table 5. Primary and secondary aqueous s the reactive transport model. [1] Liu et a	pecies, mineralogical composition and I. (2001): [2] Canavan et al. (2006) and	l reactions used f d [3] Torres et al	`or	
R ₇ :	$Fe^{2+} + HS^{-} \rightarrow FeS + H^{+}$	EQUILIBRIUM			
R ₆ :	$1/8H_2S+FeOOH+1/4H^+ \rightarrow Fe^{2+}+1/8SO_4^{2-}+3/2H_2O$	$r_{\text{H2S-FeOOH}} = k_{\text{H2S-FeOOH}} \cdot [H_2S]$	1E ⁻⁵	[3]	

 $r_{OM_SO4} = k_{OM_SO4} \cdot [CH_2O] \cdot (SO^{2-4}/k_{SO4} + SO^{2-4})$

 357
 the reactive transport model. [1] Liu et al. (2001); [2] Canavan et al. (2006) and [3] Torres et al.

 358
 (2014).

359 Reactions involving organic matter were modelled based on experimental kinetic laws. The reductive dissolution of goethite at the expense of DOC has been investigated by several authors 360 (Torrent et al., (1987; Schwertmann, 1991; Liu et al., 2001; Zachara et al., 2001 and Crosby et 361 al.,2007); however, only a few studies, for example Torrent et al. (1987) and Liu et al. (2001), 362 contain the data necessary to obtain dissolution rates normalized to surface area and can be used 363 in reactive transport modeling. Torrent et al. (1987) measured the goethite reductive dissolution 364 in dithionite and obtained a dissolution rate of $4.6E^{-10}$ mol m⁻²·s⁻¹. Liu et al. (2001) performed a 365 366 comprehensive study of goethite reduction in batch cultures of the groundwater bacterium Shewanella putrefaciens at neutral pH. To match the experimental values, they proposed a 367 Monod-type expression where the rate depends on the FeOOH surface and the concentration of 368 lactate used as electron donors and on the thermodynamics of the solution with respect to 369 goethite. 370

371 In the reactive transport model, the kinetic expression for goethite dissolution proposed by Liu372 et al. (2001) was used as follows:

3.17E⁻⁸/1E⁻⁴

[2]

$$R = k\sigma \frac{[DOC]}{k^* + [DOC]} (\Omega - 1)$$
(E1)

where R is the goethite dissolution rate (mol $m^{-3} s^{-1}$), k is the dissolution rate constant (mol m^{-2} 373 s⁻¹), σ is the specific reactive surface area or the area of water-mineral contact (m⁻² m⁻³), k* is an 374 experimental semi-reaction constant with value 0.52 mol m⁻³ proposed by Liu et al. (2001), and 375 Ω is the saturation of the solution with respect to goethite (ion activity product divided by the 376 equilibrium constant). A value of 1.38E⁻¹⁰ mol m⁻²·s⁻¹ was obtained for k from the initial 377 dissolution experimental values ($\Omega \ll 1$) of Liu et al. (2001). The σ parameter has a large 378 uncertainty that depends on the flow structure. Therefore, a sensitivity analysis of the reactive 379 transport results to this parameter is discussed below. Similar kinetic expressions have also been 380 381 used to describe the sulfate-reduction at DOC expense (Torres et al., 2014) and the reductive dissolution of goethite by H₂S (Canavan et al., 2006). 382

3.2.2. Results

The results obtained from the reactive transport model show that the goethite dissolution 384 occurred at the expense of organic matter degradation decreased with distance from the inflow 385 because of its consumption along the flow path Figure 9A and B). Because the rate depends on 386 DOC concentration (equation E1), goethite dissolution also vanished with distance. Goethite 387 dissolution also decreased with time because reactive surface (σ in E1) shrinks with the goethite 388 389 mass. As observed in Figure 9, most of the siderite with high reactive surface area was replaced in 0.8 Ma. Goethite dissolution released iron and lead to groundwater. Galena and then 390 mackinawite precipitated close to the inflow because of its low solubility product. The FeS 391 consumed most of the available Fe^{2+} , reducing the precipitation of siderite, which again 392 increased in the second part of the system (Figure 8C, D and E). Calcite did not precipitate in 393 the calculations because of the low concentration of Ca in the inflow groundwater. Porosity was 394 slightly depleted with time in most of the system (Figure 8F) because of the higher molar 395 volume of siderite with respect to goethite and the precipitation of sulfides. However, porosity 396 increased to almost 0.5 of the inflow boundary of the system because no mackinawite formed. A 397 period of 1 Ma was necessary to replace 80% of the goethite initially assumed. By comparing 398

the flow and goethite dissolution rates, the mass of sulfur carried by groundwater was up to two orders of magnitude higher than that released by goethite dissolution. This explains the heavier values of $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ measured in galena, close to the values of groundwater and far from those of massive sulfides in the IPB (Table 1).



403

404 Figure 8. Results of the reactive transport base model.

405 406

3.2.3. Sensitivity analysis

407 Some of the parameters used in the described calculations (base model) are not well known.
408 Therefore, the impact of changing the values of these parameters on the results was investigated.
409 The reactive surface area, the groundwater flow rate and the DOC concentration in the inflow
410 water have major impacts on the results and were selected for sensitivity analysis. Other
411 parameters, such as the concentration of solutes other than DOC in the inflow water, led to a

slight and expected modification of the results. Thus, the increase of Ca in the inflow water,
within the range of the low concentrations measured in groundwater, led to precipitation of
minor calcite at the expense of siderite (not represented).

415 The reactive surface area is the most uncertain parameter in reactive transport modeling because it depends on the structure of the flux (i.e., the wetted surface of the minerals). The value of 10 416 $m^2 m^{-3}$ for rock used in the base case corresponds to a flow through fractures separated by 0.20 417 m. Two more cases with rock reactive surface areas of $1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-3}$, corresponding to a fracture 418 every 2 m (fracture-controlled flux), and 50 m² m⁻³ rock, corresponding to fractures every 0.04 419 m (pervasive flux) were tested. The results are plotted in Figure 9. The decrease of the reactive 420 surface area (σ =1) produced a dramatic decrease in the dissolution of goethite. Consequently, 421 the small amount of Fe²⁺ released was precipitated as mackinawite inhibiting the formation of 422 siderite, in clear disagreement with observations. The increase of the reactive surface area 423 (σ =50) enhanced the goethite dissolution, and the high amount of Fe²⁺, Pb²⁺ and DIC allowed 424 the precipitation of siderite and galena. Porosity was drastically depleted below 0.1 at the end of 425 the system, perhaps modifying the flow structure, as will be discussed below. 426



Figure 90. Sensibility analysis of the reactive transport model based on the specific reactive surface area, $\sigma_{BASE}=10 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$, $\sigma=1 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ and $\sigma=50 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ for each mineral. Elapsed time of 0.8 Ma.

The groundwater flow rate also could have varied in the past with respect to the present-day
value. For example, changes in pluviometry or in sea level during the Holocene could have led
to changes in groundwater flow. The impact of flows half and twice that of the base case have
been tested. The results are plotted in Figure 101.

A flow rate reduction (the flow is divided by two) did not produce major changes with respect
to the base model but decreased the galena and mackinawite precipitation because most of
sulfur was supplied by groundwater flux. A flow rate increase (double) produced the opposite
effect. However, the resulting mineral zonation was similar in all these cases (Figure 10).



439

Figure 10. Sensibility analysis of the reactive transport model based on the flow rate value,
Q_{BASE}=1.35 m³·m⁻²·y⁻¹, Q/2=0.675 m³·m⁻²·y⁻¹ and Q*2=2.7 m³·m⁻²·y⁻¹ for each mineral. Elapsed time
of 0.8 Ma.

Finally, DOC concentration from the different wells close to the deposit area displayed a wide range of variation. The impact of the lower and higher DOC concentrations in the results of the model were tested, and the results are plotted in Figure 11. Changes in DOC concentration led to a very distinct results. Indeed, the lower DOC concentration ($1 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) led to a very low amount of goethite dissolution and no precipitation of mackinawite, in disagreement with observations. The higher DOC concentration ($15 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) caused faster goethite dissolution (sulfate reduction rates). Therefore, all the Fe, Pb and DIC released was precipitated as 451 mackinawite and galena in the first 3 m, and precipitation of siderite was entirely inhibited and 452 delayed to the second 7 m of the system. The complete replacement of goethite occurred in less 453 than 0.8 Ma. Porosity increased to values near 0.5 close to the input, and the formation of the 454 "black rock" formed mainly by sulfides and the "red rock" formed by siderite as described by 455 Tornos et al. (2016) thus became distinct. This result suggests that DOC concentration in past 456 groundwater was probably higher that the average of the values recorded in present day 457 samples.

In the previous calculations, changes in porosity were low and no changes in the hydraulic 458 properties of the rock were assumed. However, the porosity increased up to 0.8 at the inflow in 459 several calculations. The upsurge in porosity could have caused the mechanical collapse of the 460 rock and an apparent increase in deformation at the base of the system, as was described by 461 Yesares et al. (2015). In contrast, in cases of high surface area and/or DOC concentration (15 462 $mg \cdot L^{-1}$), porosity in the second half of the system approached 0.05. In such a case, reactions 463 leading to an increase in the volume of the solid phase become difficult. Therefore, more 464 realistic modeling would assume that replacement reaction rates are constrained to maintain the 465 466 solid volume (Ayora et al., 1998), and the following stoichiometry would occur instead of R1:

R2 $FeOOH + 0.459 HCO_3^- + 1.041 H^+ + 0.25 CH_2O = 0.709 FeCO_3 + 1.5H_2O + 0.291 Fe^{2+}$

The resulting model would reduce the siderite precipitated without a virtual decline in porosity
(Figure 12). The final resulting texture would be an isomorphic replacement of goethite with
siderite, which has been extensively described in Las Cruces siderite rock (Tornos et al., 2016;
Yesares et al., 2015).



471

Figure 11. Sensibility analysis of the reactive transport model based on the organic matter
concentration, DOC_{BASE}=4.5 mg·L⁻¹, DOC1 = 1 mg·L⁻¹ and DOC15=15 mg·L⁻¹ for each mineral.
Elapsed time of 0.8 Ma

476 **4.** CONCLUSIONS

This paper quantitatively and qualitatively demonstrated that the reduction of gossan minerals at
the expense of the organic matter dissolved in present day groundwater can form the unusual
mineralogy of the Las Cruces deposit.
A reactive transport 1D model was developed and applied to calculate the interaction between

the present-day groundwater and a goethite gossan. The obtained results show that the goethite

482 dissolution occurs at the expense of organic matter degradation and siderite, galena and iron

sulfides thus precipitate. It required less than 1 Ma to replace the goethite initially assumed. 483 This is consistent with the continuity in the functioning of the hydrogeological system from the 484 lower-Pleistocene (1.8 Ma). The goethite dissolution is the major source of the Pb, As and Sb 485 486 recorded in galena and of the As found in water from wells. Porosity tent to increase at the inflow boundary and may cause the mechanical collapse of the rock. In the rest of the system, 487 the higher volume of siderite with respect to goethite tends to reduce the porosity. However, 488 volume constraints may induce the observed isomorphic replacement to maintain the porosity 489 and the hydraulic permeability of the final rock. The mass of sulfur carried by groundwater is up 490 to two orders of magnitude higher than that released by goethite dissolution, which explains the 491 high values of $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ values measured in galena, close of those of groundwater. 492

We concluded from the sensitivity analysis that the groundwater flux was pervasive rather than channelized through fractures. More interestingly, DOC concentration in past groundwater was probably higher than the average of the values recorded in present day samples. Indeed, high DOC concentration produced a mineral zonation formed by Fe-sulfides and siderite that agrees with the observations described by Tornos et al. (2016) of black rock (formed manly by iron sulfides) and red rock (formed mainly by siderite).

The results from the reactive transport model are also supported by the following evidence observed both in the groundwater and in the rock: (A) low Eh values, the presence of H₂S and the high sulfate isotope values, which indicate that the groundwater has reducing conditions; (B) high ammonium, boron, iodide and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations together with the low δ^{13} C values for both groundwater and siderite, which shows the important role of the organic matter degradation; and (C) the chemical equilibrium of groundwater with siderite, which indicate the precipitation of this mineral.

506

507 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

508 This work has been supported by Fundación Migres. Other financial support was provided by509 the Spanish Government project CGL2013-48460-C2-R and the Catalan Government through

- 510 the project "Grup de Mineralogia Ambiental i Geoquímica de Fluids" 2014SGR-1456. We
- 511 would like to thank the Centres Científics i Tecnològics from the Universitat de Barcelona for
- 512 the isotopic analyses; and Mercè Cabañas, Rafael Bartrolí and Jordi Bellés (IDAEA-CSIC) for

513 chemical analyses. We are also grateful to the staff of Cobre Las Cruces for their collaboration

514 during of fieldwork and granting access to the mine.

515

516 **REFERENCES**

- 517 Abad de los Santos, F., 2007. La transgresión tortoniense en el margen pasivo de la cuenca del Guadalquivir: 518 respuesta estratigráfica e implicaciones paleontológicas., Universidad de Huelva.
- 519Almodóvar, G. R., Sáez, R., Pons, J. M., Maestre, A., Toscano, M., & Pascual, E. (1997). Geology and genesis of
the Aznalcóllar massive sulphide deposits, Iberian Pyrite Belt, Spain. Mineralium Deposita, 33(1-2),
111-136.
- 522 Ayora, C., Taberner, C., Saaltink, M., Carrera, J., 1998. The genesis of dedolomites: a discusion based on 523 reactive transport modeling. Journal of Hydrology, 209(1): 346-365.
- Bargar, J., Brown, G., Parks, G., 1997. Surface complexation of Pb (II) at oxide-water interfaces: I. XAFS and bond-valence determination of mononuclear and polynuclear Pb (II) sorption products on aluminum oxides. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 61(13): 2617-2637.
- 527 Belogub, E., Novoselov, C., Spiro, B., Yakovleva, B., 2003. Mineralogical and S isotopic features of the 528 supergene profile of the Zapadno-Ozernoe massive sulphide and Au-bearing gossan deposit, South 529 Urals. Mineralogical Magazine, 67(2): 339-354.
- 530 Blake, C., 2008. The mineralogical characterization and interpretation of a precious metal-bearing fossil 531 gossan, Las Cruces, Spain. , Cardiff University, 330 pp pp.
- 532 Bowell, R., 1994. Sorption of arsenic by iron oxides and oxyhydroxides in soils. Applied Geochemistry, 9(3): 533 279-286.
- Canavan, R. W., Slomp, C. P., Jourabchi, P., Van Cappellen, P., Laverman, A. M., & Van den Berg, G. A. (2006).
 Organic matter mineralization in sediment of a coastal freshwater lake and response to salinization.
 Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 70(11), 2836-2855.
- 537 Capitán Suárez, M.A., 2006. Mineralogía y geoquímica de la alteración superficial de depósitos de sulfuros 538 masivos en la faja pirítica ibèrica., Universidad de Huelva (UHU), 368 pp.
- 539 Carvalho, D.d., 1976. Considerações sobre o vulcanismo da região de Cercal-Odemira. Suas relações com a 540 faixa piritosa. Com Serv Geol Portugal, 60: 215-238.
- 541Coughlin, B.R., Stone, A.T., 1995. Nonreversible adsorption of divalent metal ions (MnII, Coll, Nill, Cull, and542PbII) onto goethite: effects of acidification, Fell addition, and picolinic acid addition. Environmental543science & technology, 29(9): 2445-2455.
- 544Crawford, A., Corbett, K., Everard, J., 1992. Geochemistry of the Cambrian volcanic-hosted massive sulfide-rich545Mount Read Volcanics, Tasmania, and some tectonic implications. Economic Geology, 87(3): 597-546619.
- 547Crosby, H.A., Roden, E.E., Johnson, C.M., Beard, B.L., 2007. The mechanisms of iron isotope fractionation548produced during dissimilatory Fe (III) reduction by Shewanella putrefaciens and Geobacter549sulfurreducens. Geobiology, 5(2): 169-189.
- 550 CHG, Confederación Hidrográfica del Guadalquivir, 2012. Propuesta de Proyecto de Plan Hidrológico de la 551 Demarcación Hidrográfica del Guadalquivir.
- 552 Davis, J.A., Leckie, J.O., 1978. Effect of adsorbed complexing ligands on trace metal uptake by hydrous oxides. 553 Environmental science & technology, 12(12): 1309-1315.
- De Oliveira, D. P. S., Matos, J. X., Rosa, C. J. P., Rosa, D. R. N., Figueiredo, M. O., Silva, T. P., Reiser, F. K. M.
 (2011). The Lagoa Salgada Orebody, Iberian Pyrite Belt, Portugal. Economic Geology, 106(7), 1111 1128.
- 557 Dixit, S., Hering, J.G., 2003. Comparison of arsenic (V) and arsenic (III) sorption onto iron oxide minerals: 558 implications for arsenic mobility. Environmental science & technology, 37(18): 4182-4189.
- 559 Doyle, M.G., Allen, R.L., 2003. Subsea-floor replacement in volcanic-hosted massive sulfide deposits. Ore 560 Geology Reviews, 23(3): 183-222.
- 561 Emmons, W.H., Laney, F.B., 1926. Geology and ore deposits of the Ducktown mining district, Tennessee. Govt. 562 Print. Off.
- 563 Escudero, R. B. (1994). Cuaternario aluvial dela depresión del Guadalquivir: episodios geomorfológicos y 564 cronología paleomagnética.
- 565 Fendorf, S., Eick, M.J., Grossl, P., Sparks, D.L., 1997. Arsenate and chromate retention mechanisms on 566 goethite. 1. Surface structure. Environmental science & technology, 31(2): 315-320.

- 567 Figueiredo, M.-O., Pereira da Silva, T., 2011. The positive environmental contribution of jarosite by retaining 568 lead in acid mine drainage areas. International journal of environmental research and public health, 569 8(5): 1575-1582.
- 570 Forbes, E., Posner, A., Quirk, J., 1976. The specific adsorption of divalent Cd, Co, Cu, Pb, and Zn on goethite. 571 Journal of soil science, 27(2): 154-166.
- 572Galley, A.G., Hannington, M., Jonasson, I., 2007. Volcanogenic massive sulphide deposits. Mineral deposits of573Canada: a synthesis of major deposit-types, district Metallogeny, the evolution of geological574provinces, and exploration methods: Geological Association of Canada, Mineral Deposits Division,575Special Publication, 5: 141-161.
- 576 García de Miguel, J., 1990. Mineralogía, paragénesis y sucesión de los sulfuros masivos de la Faja Pirítica en 577 el suroeste de la Península Ibérica. Boletin Geológico y Minero, 101(1): 73-105.
- 578 Goldberg, S., Forster, H.S., Heick, E.L., 1993. Boron Adsorption Mechanisms on Oxides, Clay Minerals, and Soils 579 Inferred from Ionic Strength Effects. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J., 57(3): 704-708.
- 580 Goldberg, S., Johnston, C.T., 2001. Mechanisms of arsenic adsorption on amorphous oxides evaluated using 581 macroscopic measurements, vibrational spectroscopy, and surface complexation modeling. Journal 582 of colloid and Interface Science, 234(1): 204-216.
- 583 Hiemstra, T., Van Riemsdijk, W., 1999. Surface structural ion adsorption modeling of competitive binding of 584 oxyanions by metal (hydr) oxides. Journal of colloid and Interface Science, 210(1): 182-193.
- 585 Kalbitz, K., Solinger, S., Park, J.-H., Michalzik, B., Matzner, E., 2000. Controls on the dynamics of dissolved 586 organic matter in soils: a review. Soil Science, 165(4): 277-304.
- 587 Kase, K., Yamamoto, M., Nakamura, T., Mitsuno, C., 1990. Ore mineralogy and sulfur isotope study of the 588 massive sulfide deposit of Filon Norte, Tharsis Mine, Spain. Mineral. Deposita, 25(4): 289-296.
- 589 Kelly, W., 1958. Topical study of lead-zinc gossans. Bulletin, 46: 42-47.
- 590 Knight, F., 2000. The mineralogy, geochemistry and genesis of the secondary sulphide mineralisation of the 591 Las Cruces deposit, Spain.
- Kosakevitch, A., Polomero, F., Leca, X., Leistel, J. M., Lenotre, N., Sobol, F. (1993). Contrôles climatique et géomorphologique de la concentration de l'or dans les chapeaux de fer de Rio Tinto (Province Huelva, Espagne). Comptes rendus de l'Académie des sciences. Série 2, Mécanique, Physique, Chimie, Sciences de l'univers, Sciences de la Terre, 316(1), 85-90.
- Large, R.R., 1992. Australian volcanic-hosted massive sulfide deposits; features, styles, and genetic models.
 Economic Geology, 87(3): 471-510.
- Leistel, J. M., Marcoux, E., Thiéblemont, D., Quesada, C., Sánchez, A., Almodóvar, G. R., Sáez, R. (1997). The volcanic-hosted massive sulphide deposits of the Iberian Pyrite Belt Review and preface to the Thematic Issue. Mineralium Deposita, 33(1-2), 2-30.
- 601Leuz, A.-K., Mönch, H., Johnson, C.A., 2006. Sorption of Sb (III) and Sb (V) to goethite: influence on Sb (III)602oxidation and mobilization. Environmental science & technology, 40(23): 7277-7282.
- 603 Liu, C., Kota, S., Zachara, J.M., Fredrickson, J.K., Brinkman, C.K., 2001. Kinetic Analysis of the Bacterial 604 Reduction of Goethite. Environmental science & technology, 35(12): 2482-2490.
- 605 Marcoux, E., 1997. Lead isotope systematics of the giant massive sulphide deposits in the Iberian Pyrite Belt. 606 Mineral. Deposita, 33(1-2): 45-58.
- 607 Marcoux, E., Moelo, Y., Leistel, J., 1996. Compared ore mineralogy and geochemistry of the massive-sulfide 608 and stringers ore deposits of Southern Spain. Mineral. Deposita, 31: 1-26.
- 609Medina, A.n., Carrera, J., 2003. Geostatistical inversion of coupled problems: dealing with computational610burden and different types of data. Journal of Hydrology, 281(4): 251-264.
- 611 Miguélez, G., Tornos Arroyo, F., Velasco, F., Videira, J.C., 2011. Geology and Cu Isotope Geochemistry of the Las 612 Cruces Deposits (SW Spain). Macla 15: 131-132.
- 613 Moral, F., Balanyá, J. C., Expósito, I., Rodríguez Rodríguez, M., 2013. Análisis geomorfológico de las terrazas 614 fluviales del Bajo Guadalquivir e implicaciones tectónicas.
- 615 Moreno, C., Sáez, R., 1990. Sedimentación marina somera en el Devónico del anticlinorio de Puebla de 616 Guzmán, Faja Pirítica Ibérica. Geogaceta, 8: 62-64.
- 617 Moreno C., C.M.A., Doyle M., Nieto J.M., Ruiz F., Sáez R., 2003. Edad mínima del gossan de Las Cruces. 618 Geogaceta 33.
- 619 Navarro, A., Fernández, A., Doblas, J.G., 1993. In: IGME (Ed.), Las aguas subterráneas en España, pp. 255-256.
- 620 Nickel, E., 1984. The mineralogy and geochemistry of the weathering profile of the Teutonic Bore Cu-Pb-Zn-Ag 621 sulphide deposit. Journal of Geochemical Exploration, 22(1): 239-263.
- Nieto, J., Capitán, M., Sáez, R., Almodóvar, G., 2003. Beudantite: a natural sink for As and Pb in sulphide
 oxidation processes. Applied Earth Science: Transactions of the Institutions of Mining and Metallurgy:
 Section B, 112(3): 293-296.
- 625Parkhurst, D.L., Appelo, C., 2013. Description of input and examples for PHREEQC version 3: a computer626program for speciation, batch-reaction, one-dimensional transport, and inverse geochemical627calculations. 2328-7055, US Geological Survey.
- Pascual, E., Sáez, R., Toscano, M., Ruiz de Almodóvar, G., Donaire, T., 1994. Petrología y geoquímica de tobas
 vítreas del área de Aznalcóllar (Faja Pirítica Ibérica). Boletín de la Sociedad Española de Mineralogía,
 17(1): 155-156.
- Quesada, C., 1991. Geological constraints on the Paleozoic tectonic evolution of tectonostratigraphic terranes
 in the Iberian Massif. Tectonophysics, 185(3): 225-245.
- Rambaud, F., 1978. Distribución de focos volcánicos y yacimientos en la banda pirítica de Huelva. Bol. Geol.
 Min., 89: 223-233.

- 635 Rickard, D., 2006. The solubility of FeS. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 70(23): 5779-5789.
- Ross, A.M., 1997. Supergene gold enrichment of the Precambrian aged Flambeau gossan, Flambeau mine,
 Rusk County, Wisconsin.
- 638 Saaltink, M.W., Ayora, C., Carrera, J. 1998. A mathematical formulation for reactive transport that eliminates 639 mineral concentrations. Water Resources Research, 34: 1649-1656.
- Sáez, R., Almodóvar, G., Pascual, E., 1996. Geological constraints on massive sulphide genesis in the Iberian
 Pyrite Belt. Ore Geology Reviews, 11(6): 429-451.
- Salvany, J., Mediavilla, C., Manzano, M., Mantecón, R., 2001. Geología del Valle del Guadiamar y áreas
 colindantes.
- Scott, K., Ashley, P., Lawie, D., 2001a. The geochemistry, mineralogy and maturity of gossans derived from volcanogenic Zn-Pb-Cu deposits of the eastern Lachlan Fold Belt, NSW, Australia. Journal of Geochemical Exploration, 72(3): 169-191.
- Scott, K.M., Ashley, P.M., Lawie, D.C., 2001b. The geochemistry, mineralogy and maturity of gossans derived
 from volcanogenic Zn-Pb-Cu deposits of the eastern Lachlan Fold Belt, NSW, Australia. Journal of
 Geochemical Exploration, 72(3): 169-191.
- Scheiber, L., Ayora, C., Vázquez-Suñé, E., Cendón, D. I., Soler, A., Baquero, J. C., 2016. Origin of high ammonium, arsenic and boron concentrations in the proximity of a mine: Natural vs. anthropogenic
 processes. Science of the Total Environment, 541, 655-666.
- Scheiber, L., Ayora, C., Vázquez-Suñé, E., Cendón, D. I., Soler, A., Custodio, E., Baquero, J. C., 2015. Recent and
 old groundwater in the Niebla-Posadas regional aquifer (southern Spain): Implications for its
 management. Journal of Hydrology, 523, 624-635..
- Schermerhorn, L.J.G., 1971. An outline stratigraphy of the Iberian Pyrite Belt. Boletin Geológico y Minero, 82(3 4): 239-268.
- 658 Schwertmann, U., 1991. Solubility and dissolution of iron oxides. Plant and Soil, 130(1): 1-25.
- 659 Silva, J., Oliveira, J., Ribeiro, A., 1990. South Portuguese Zone. Structural outline. Pre-Mesozoic Geology of 660 Iberia, 6(3): 348-363.
- Strauss, G.K., Madel, J., 1974. Geology of massive sulphide deposits in the Spanish-Portuguese Pyrite Belt.
 Geologische Rundschau, 63(1): 191-211.
- 663 Thornber, M., Wildman, J., 1984. Supergene alteration of sulphides, VI. The binding of Cu, Ni, Zn, Co and Pb 664 with gossan (iron-bearing) minerals. Chemical Geology, 44(4): 399-434.
- 665 Tighe, M., Lockwood, P., Wilson, S., 2005. Adsorption of antimony (V) by floodplain soils, amorphous iron (III) 666 hydroxide and humic acid. Journal of Environmental Monitoring, 7(12): 1177-1185.
- 667Tornos, F., 2006. Environment of formation and styles of volcanogenic massive sulfides: the Iberian Pyrite668Belt. Ore Geology Reviews, 28(3): 259-307.
- Tornos, F., 2000. The Iberian Pyrite Belt. R.R. Large, D.J. Blundell (Eds.), Database on Global VMS Districts,
 CODES-GEODE: pp. 19-5.
- Tornos, F., Clavijo, G.E., Spiro, B., 1998. The Filon Norte orebody (Tharsis, Iberian Pyrite Belt): a proximal low-temperature shale-hosted massive sulphide in a thin-skinned tectonic belt. Mineral. Deposita, 33(1):
 150-169.
- Tornos, F., Velasco, F., Menor-Salván, C., Delgado, A., Slack, J. F., Escobar, J. M., 2014. Formation of recent Pb Ag-Au mineralization by potential sub-surface microbial activity. Nature communications, 5.
- Tornos, F., Velasco, F., Slack, J. F., Delgado, A., Gomez-Miguelez, N., Escobar, J. M., Gomez, C., 2016. The high grade Las Cruces copper deposit, Spain: a product of secondary enrichment in an evolving basin.
 Mineralium Deposita, 1-34.
- Torrent, J., Schwertmann, U., Barron, V., 1987. The reductive dissolution of synthetic goethite and hematite in dithionite. Clay Miner, 22(3): 329-337.
- 681Torres, E., Ayora, C., Jiménez-Arias, J. L., García-Robledo, E., Papaspyrou, S., Corzo, A., 2014. Benthic metal682fluxes and sediment diagenesis in a water reservoir affected by acid mine drainage: A laboratory683experiment and reactive transport modeling. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 139, 344-361.
- 684 UPC, 2003. Visual Transin code. Universitat Politécnica de Catalunya (UPC).
- Velasco, F., Herrero, J. M., Suárez, S., Yusta, I., Alvaro, A., Tornos, F., 2013. Supergene features and evolution of
 gossans capping massive sulphide deposits in the Iberian Pyrite Belt. Ore Geology Reviews, 53, 181 203.
- Velasco, F., Sánchez-España, J., Boyce, A. J., Fallick, A. E., Sáez, R., Almodóvar, G. R., 1998. A new sulphur isotopic study of some Iberian Pyrite Belt deposits: evidence of a textural control on sulphur isotope composition. Mineralium Deposita, 34(1), 4-18.
- Viñals, J., Roca, A., Cruells, M., Núñez, C., 1995. Characterization and cyanidation of Rio Tinto gossan ores.
 Canadian metallurgical quarterly, 34(2): 115-122.
- 693 Whitehead, D., 1974. The sorption of iodide by soil components. Journal of the Science of Food and 694 Agriculture, 25(1): 73-79.
- Yesares, L., Sáez, R., Nieto, J.M., de Almodóvar, G.R., Cooper, S., 2014. Supergene enrichment of precious metals by natural amalgamation in the Las Cruces weathering profile (Iberian Pyrite Belt, SW Spain).
 Ore Geology Reviews, 58(0): 14-26.
- Yesares, L., Sáez, R., Nieto, J. M., De Almodovar, G. R., Gómez, C., Escobar, J. M., 2015. The Las Cruces deposit, Iberian Pyrite Belt, Spain. Ore Geology Reviews, 66, 25-46.
- Zachara, J.M., Fredrickson, J.K., Smith, S.C., Gassman, P.L., 2001. Solubilization of Fe (III) oxide-bound trace metals by a dissimilatory Fe (III) reducing bacterium. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 65(1): 75-93.

704 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

705

706 Groundwater sampling and analytical procedures

Groundwater samples were collected from a total of 40 wells and piezometers during two field campaigns carried out in February 2012 and September 2013. Wells were purged and samples collected after removing three well volumes or once flied parameters had stabilized. The physico-chemical parameters such as temperature (°C), pH, Specific Conductance (SC, μ S·cm⁻ 1), Eh and dissolved oxygen (DO, mgL⁻¹) were measured in situ inside a closed flow cell. Total alkalinity was determined in the field by acid-base titration using an Aquamerck Alkalinity kit.

Groundwater samples for general chemistry were collected in high-density polyethylene, 25 mL 713 bottles for anions and 50 mL for cation-trace samples, previously filtered through a 0.22 µm 714 nylon filter. Cation-tracer samples were acidified with 1 mL of 20% diluted nitric acid for 715 sample preservation. Anions were analysed by High Performance Liquid Chromatography 716 (HPLC) and cations by Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-AES). 717 The total trace elements concentrations were measured by inductively coupled plasma and mass 718 719 spectrometry (ICP-MS). In order to differentiate arsenite (As (III)) from arsenate (As(V)) field speciation cartridges were used (Meng et al., 1998). Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC) samples 720 were collected in 30 ml glass bottles previously muffled. These samples were filtered through a 721 722 0.45 µm and acidified with 1 mL of HCl (2N). Bottles were sealed with Parafilm® to minimize any contact with air. DOC was analysed by the catalytic oxidation method at 680 °C using a 723 724 Shimadzu TOC-V CSH instrument, with a detection limit of 0.05 mg/L. NH_4^+ and I⁻ concentrations were analysed with ion selective electrodes Orion 9512, with an error of $\pm 2\%$. 725

726

Twelve samples for CH₄ and H₂S gas analysis were collected in 250 mL glass bottles with septum cap and stored in an upside-down vertical position according with Capasso and Inguaggiato, (1998). The CH₄ in the gas phase was determined using a Trace GC Ultra ThermoFisher Scientific chromatograph, with a detection limit of 0.58 mg/L and analytical error from ± 0.001 to ± 0.009 mg·L. The CH₄ dissolved in water was calculated by the liquid gas partition coefficient (Alberto et al., 2000). The H_2S content in the liquid phase was analysed by ionic chromatography with a DIONEX model IC5000, and with a variable wavelength detector with a detection limit of 0.005 mg·L S₂ and an analytical error of 5%.

To determine δ^{34} S and δ^{18} O in sulfate, 2L samples in polyethylene terephthalate (PET) bottles 735 were collected, acidified with HCl, with an excess of barium chloride solution added to 736 precipitate BaSO₄. The precipitation was carried out at elevated temperature (≈ 100 ° C) to 737 prevent the formation of BaCO₃. After settling, the precipitate was recovered by filtration 738 through a 3- μ m filter and dried at room temperature. The $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ was analyzed in a Carlo Erba 739 Elemental Analyzer (EA) coupled in continuous flow to a Finnigan Delta C IRMS. $\delta^{18}O_{SO4}$ was 740 analyzed in duplicate with a ThermoQuest TC/EA unit (high temperature conversion elemental 741 analyzer) with a Finnigan Matt Delta C IRMS. The analytical error is 0.1 to 0.6 for δ^{34} S and 0.1 742 to 0.8 for δ^{18} O. 743

The samples for $\delta^{15}N_{NH4+}$ were collected in high-density polyethylene bottles of 250 mL 744 capacity, previously filtered through a 0.22 μ m nylon filter and preserved by adding H₂SO₄ 745 (10%) to keep pH below 5.5. At the laboratory, over the water sample a filter-pack is placed by 746 747 the ammonia trap. Filter-packs consist a 1 cm-diameter GF/D filter (WHATMAN) acidified with 30 µL of 8N H₂SO₄, sandwiched between two 2.5 cm diameter 10 µm pore-size Teflon 748 membranes. Two mL of Na(OH) 5N solution was added in order to increase pH to a value 749 above 12 pH units causing NH₄⁺ to convert to NH₃. The bottle was quickly sealed and placed in 750 an orbital shaker during 7 days at room temperature in order to favour the NH₃ diffusion into the 751 headspace. NH₃ was then trapped into the filter and converted to (NH₄⁺)₂ SO₄. After one week, 752 the filter-pack was placed in an acid-washed glass bottle and placed in a freezer-drier during 2 753 hours to remove any water from the filter. Then the GF/D filter was removed, placed in a silver-754 755 cup and analyzed immediately in an EA-IRMS. The $\delta^{15}N_{NH4+}$ were analysed by a diffusion method based on protocols by Sebilo et al., (2004) and Holmes et al., (1998). 756

758 Rock sampling and analytical procedures

A total of 16 solid samples from Las Cruces replacement deposit have been analysed. The samples have been selected from boreholes and supplied by the CLC mining company. The major mineral phases of the solid samples were identified by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Cu-K α radiation source. For $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ rock analysis, was determined from BaSO₄ by an elemental analyser coupled in continuous flow with a Delta C Finnigan Matt mass spectrometer.

- Additionally, some samples have been analysed by, electron microprobe (EPMA) using
 wavelength dispersive X-ray spectrometry (WDS) and energy dispersive spectrometry (EDS)
 for quantify weight percent of Fe, As, Pb, S and Sb in goethite.
- 767

SAMPLE	рН	Eh (mV)	SC (μS/cm)	T (ºC)	DOC	CI	NO ₃	SO₄	HCO₃	Са	к	Mg	Na	NH₄	I	Br-	Fe	Mn	В	As	δ ¹³ C (‰)	18O (‰)	34S(‰)	SI FeCO₃
44	6.9	159	957	22.5	0.38	39.4	0.1	72.6	442.4	97.8	1.4	14.7	30.8	0.5	0.01	0.22	0.4	0.002	0.15	0.0001	-11.44	5.80	4.85	-0.08
42	6.9	306	922	19.8	0.63	15.5	97.2	16	381.3	109	0.1	3.8	14.8	0.1	0.01	0.14	0.4	0.002	0.03	0.0001	-11.9	3.70	6.34	-0.28
40	7.1	163	903	18.6	0.31	19.1	48.1	13.1	268.5	102.7	0.1	2.8	14.6	0.1	0.01	0.09	0.4	0	0.02	0.0001		5.80	0.94	-0.42
43	7.1	234	999	14.7	0	35	41.6	19.6	297.5	118.3	0.1	9.9	14.8	0.2	0.01	0.18	0.4	0.001	0.03	0.0001		5.90	5.45	-0.86
41	6.9	165	1028	19.6	0.54	27.7	47.1	19.9	427.1	120.2	0.1	4.3	15.8	0.1	0.01	0.14	0.4	0.001	0.03	0.0002		5.90	5.84	-0.27
27	7.4	368	607	20.4	0.74	12.6	16.4	17.3	213.6	68.6	1.9	2.3	16.3	0.1	0.01	0.12	0.4	0.001	0.05	0.0002	-10.73	6.80	0.53	-1.23
46	7.2	137	629	21.2	0.66	16.4	24.3	19.4	236.4	68	2.9	6	19.3	0.2	0.01	0.11	0.4	0.002	0.02	0	-10.02	6.30	-5.58	-1.75
32	7.1	222	916	19.8	0.35	24.7	44.6	30.9	236.4	98.7	4.7	4	17	0.2	0.01	0.12	0.4	0.003	0.06	0.0005		6.87	-8.17	-0.48
24	7.3	-25	491	21.3	3.32	38.9	0.1	13.2	292.6	58.4	5.2	7.4	33.7	0.04	0.02	0.1	0.006	0.01	0.06	0.0008	-11.2	18.10	7.22	-0.89
1	8.4		1015	28.1	4.94	80.3	0.1	0.1	548.7	1.6	3.3	0.5	216	2.57	0.04	0.1	0.005	0.002	0.91	0		9.30	-8.88	-1.88
11	7.5	-200	578	23.3	4.64	71.1	0.1	18.6	243.8	49	3.5	15	49.5	0.79	0.02	5.25	0.005	0.014	0.18	0.0009	-10.09	13.40	-4.80	-2
29	7.4		837	25.1	0.23	44.4	0.1	14.4	308.1	33.7	3.9	12.5	77.6	1	0.03	0.23	0.4	0.031	0.23	0.0015	-5.57	14.47	-6.93	-1.88
17	7.7	-50	812	24.3	4.5	128.6	0.1	10.9	317	32	5.4	8.2	122.7	1.08	0.04	0.38	0.002	0.035	0.45	0.0016	-11.05	6.70	-3.95	-0.41
25	7		4200	21.7	4.73	915.6	13.4	75.4	201.5	177	4.1	50.6	279.3	0.04	0.03	0.1	0.006	0.003	0.47	0.0017	-10.08			-2.32
10	8.2	-297	388	22.6	4.6	43.9	0.1	0.1	158.5	29	2.4	11.9	34.3	0.31	0.03	0.46	0.006	0.013	0.1	0.0025	-10.69	9.21	4.93	-1.56
19	8		989	21.7	4.44	155	9.2	38	317	144.7	5.1	16.5	43.3	0.12	0.01	0.1	0.004	0.012	0.13	0.0097				0.7
22	10.3		943	23.5	7.56	148.4	0.1	0.1	182.9	0.9	3.4	0	163.1	1.7	0.14	0.35	0.005	0	1.49	0.012		16.87	10.53	-6.36
28	8.7	30	1846	27	0.66	198.6	0.1	5.8	328.6	2.1	3.9	0.1	247.3	3.4	0.08	0.81	0.4	0.01	0.61	0.0005	-6.16			-0.76
4	8.6	169	1006	31.7	4.88	110.6	0.1	0.1	475.5	1.7	3.2	0.4	208.2	2.68	0.06	0.1	0.012	0.002	0.76	0.0005	-8.09	18.10	7.22	-1.82
33	8.9		1441	21.8	0.32	91.4	0.1	10.4	570.9	1	3.4	0.1	255.7	2.8	0.04	0.42	0.4	0.003	0.93	0.0006		16.70	1.29	-2.34
13	8.3		1275	26.6	7.83	212.2	0.1	7.2	390.2	2.2	3.7	0.6	246.8	2.35	0.08	0.56	0.006	0.001	1.01	0.0006	-8.81	13.50	-4.39	-1.46
30	7.4	65	834	25.6	0.36	36	0.1	14.7	308.1	35.9	3.9	12.5	71.3	1.1	0.03	0.2	0.4	0.049	0.16	0.0011	-3.8			-0.03
7	8.4		1491	29.2	4.16	305.8	0.1	0.1	317	4	4.5	0.9	277.7	3.23	0.1	0.93	0.006	0.006	0.79	0.0015		17.30	4.92	0.15
35	9		1397	27.8	0.79	97.1	0.1	9	401.2	1	3.3	0.1	221.1	2.7	0.06	0.45	0.888	0.003	0.77	0.0021	-7.57	16.30	9.44	0.16
36	8.6	17	1889	28.2	0.26	238	0.1	6.9	305.1	2.6	4	0.1	273.1	2.8	0.1	0.86	0.4	0.005	0.63	0.0024	-7.44			-0.09
23	8.4		2360	24.4	7.14	522.6	0.1	0.1	304.8	7.6	7	1.7	422.4	4.18	0.2	1.51	0.009	0.036	1.59	0.0025		7.65	-4.27	-0.3
20	8	-130	1499	26	4.75	276.4	0.1	5.8	426.7	13.3	4.4	4.1	2/1.3	1.91	0.19	0.92	0.002	0.016	1.22	0.006	-10.81			1.14
38	8.4	-24	1973	26.7	0.26	233.1	0.1	0.1	442.4	2.4	4.4	0.1	310.8	2.9	0.15	0.94	0.4	0.005	1.48	0.0079				0.95
34	8.3		2326	29.3	1.32	459.9	0.1	2.1	457.6	3	0.3	0.1	475.9	4.2	0.18	1.76	0.4	0.006	1.7	0.0083				1.25
20	7.5		987	20.5	15.89	151.4	0.1	0.1	505.8	03.7	3.7	7.1	123	5.04	0.13	0.1	0.007	0.159	0.75	0.0011				0.20
18	10.1	-07	2750	27.5	9.76	520.1	8.4 0.1	0.3	548.7 402.4	1 5 1	6.5	0.1	525.2 460 1	0.00	0.34	0.4	0.025	0 011	3.15	0.0014	-0.27			0.39
16	10.6	-37	2/20	25.5	7.83	503.3	0.1	0.1	353.6	0.6	5.6	0	403.1	12.82	0.2	0.69	0.025	0.011	3.48	0.0010	-9.27			-0.48
12	8	-270	2390	32.5	2.86	534.6	0.1	0.1	487 7	5.0	5.6	19	442.2	4 58	0.45	0.05	0.035	0.005	2 42	0.0024	-7 58			-0.27
9	8	-178	2400	32.5	5 58	574.2	0.1	0.1	414 5	55	61	2.5	451 7	4.30	0.17	0.62	0.036	0.007	2.72	0.0039	-8 94	11 41	4 4 4	-0.32
21	79	-190	2880	31.9	5.50	669 3	10.5	10.1	463 3	14	9.2	5.4	510.1	4 64	0.24	1 99	0.03	0.005	2 31	0.005	-10.84	11.71	4.44	-0.35
2	7.8	100	2080	28.7	4.75	460.5	0.1	0.1	365.8	5.1	10.1	2.7	378.9	3.25	0.13	1.11	0.137	0.009	1.86	0.0052	10.04			-0.32
8	7.7	-290	2670	35.3	5.45	624.6	0.1	0.1	524.3	12.8	8.7	5.1	484.1	4.72	0.26	1.35	0.016	0.012	2.22	0.0121	-10.71			-0.29
5	7.8	-240	5940	37.5	4.57	1581	16.7	12.5	390.2	1	15	30.1	1061	7.49	0.67	4.95	0.005	0.112	2.2	0.0138		10.90	20.38	0.01
37	7.5		2714	36.5	0.49	538.4	0.1	62.5	440.8	19.1	7.7	3.7	519.7	6.4	0.22	2.17	0.4	0.055	2.24	0.1787	-9.79	-29	-4.9	-0.16

Table A1. Hydrogeochemical variables of groundwater samples (mgL⁻¹). The sample number correspond to those in Figure 2.

No.	x	v	7	Δs	Fe	Cu	Ph	s	Sb	Total
1	19.9524	-21.9243	11.4815	0.2736	94.05	0	0.9198	0.3319	0	95.5754
2	19,9941	-21.8759	11.483	0.2872	94.42	0	0.8467	0.2658	0	95,8198
3	20.0208	-21.8734	11.484	0.337	93.71	0.0038	1.0758	0.2707	0	95.3973
4	19.9641	-21.8448	11.4825	0.2436	90.53	0	1.0248	0.4181	0	92.2166
5	12.3774	-23.2334	11.307	0.4774	93.85	0.0144	1.0342	0.3332	0.1963	95.9055
6	12.3303	-23.2619	11.306	0.3322	94.36	0.0109	0.8443	0.3216	0.1228	95.9919
7	12,403	-23.2634	11.3075	0.4172	93.99	0	1.1	0.3575	0.1722	96.0369
8	12.4043	-22.6191	11.312	0.2966	94.34	0	0.9578	0.3692	0.1336	96.0973
9	12.3238	-22.706	11.3105	0.244	94.43	0	0.7825	0.3076	0.1132	95.8774
10	16.8185	-30.1136	11.3585	0.3178	94.53	0.0078	0.8151	0.3371	0.1653	96.1731
11	17.1125	-26.9192	11.385	0.3714	93.75	0.0034	0.9699	0.3267	0.2094	95.6309
12	17.1399	-26.936	11.3855	0.2993	94.68	0.001	0.704	0.3006	0.0962	96.0812
13	17.0666	-26.9314	11.384	0.3596	93.01	0.0074	0.8845	0.2869	0.3464	94.8949
14	16.8589	-27.199	11.3785	0.237	94.44	0	0.7335	0.2854	0.1043	95.8003
15	16.7922	-27.1545	11.378	0.2572	94.43	0.0006	0.8288	0.329	0.1248	95.9705
16	16.7717	-27.1025	11.378	0.2237	94.48	0.0039	0.7259	0.3445	0.0962	95.8743
17	16.2636	-26.9342	11.3675	0.3192	94.44	0.0008	0.8867	0.2888	0.1724	96.108
18	16.1822	-26.9291	11.3645	0.4105	92.4	0.0037	1.0753	0.4153	0.3537	94.6586
19	16.1364	-26.9474	11.363	0.3386	90.61	0	1.0309	0.3825	0.2509	92.613
20	16.1887	-27.0639	11.363	0.419	87.66	0	0.7263	0.4319	1.54	90.7773
21	16.7817	-27.1288	11.377	0.239	94.79	0.0174	0.7669	0.2968	0.1679	96.2781
22	16.7659	-27.1508	11.3765	0.4269	91.63	0.0077	0.9476	0.4102	0.2546	93.6771
23	20.5537	-17.7164	11.5225	0.3729	93.61	0	1.0445	0.3536	0.1749	95.556
24	20.5332	-17.7289	11.5225	0.5731	93.77	0	1.33	0.4094	0.3284	96.4109
25	20.5061	-17.7421	11.521	0.6393	93.52	0	1.22	0.3499	0.3559	96.0852
26	20.4905	-17.7529	11.521	0.3257	94.48	0	0.9278	0.3484	0.1777	96.2597
27	20.469	-17.7633	11.52	0.4551	94	0	1.13	0.3652	0.2311	96.1814
28	21.3781	-16.7883	11.5465	0.4157	93.38	0.0422	1.09	0.3566	0.262	95.5465
29	21.3615	-16.7985	11.546	0.3528	94.4	0	0.9099	0.288	0.1445	96.0953
30	21.3414	-16.8048	11.545	0.3307	94.31	0.0066	0.8655	0.2994	0.1942	96.0065
31	21.3008	-16.8087	11.544	0.3276	94.49	0.0088	0.8338	0.2771	0.1216	96.0589
32	21.5717	-16.9121	11.5505	0.2588	92.16	0	0.9688	0.3878	0.2043	93.9798
33	21.5726	-16.9189	11.5485	0.3044	92.76	0.0027	1.0604	0.3804	0.1878	94.6958
34	21.5705	-16.9268	11.549	0.2592	93.17	0.0083	0.9217	0.3715	0.1307	94.8615
35	21.5645	-16.9462	11.549	0.1934	93.37	0.0143	0.7895	0.4046	0.0807	94.8526
36	10.6006	-17.2541	11.307	0.0981	92.55	0.04	0.7609	0.4584	0.1391	94.0466
37	10.6	-17.245	11.3075	0.2723	92.4	0.0579	0.8196	0.5854	0.1618	94.2971
38	10.6013	-17.2367	11.307	0.3631	93.86	0.0203	0.8488	0.3285	0.1463	95.5671
39	10.598	-17.225	11.307	0.2733	94.07	0.0057	0.8206	0.2748	0.1526	95.5971
40	10.8784	-17.3013	11.3085	0.434	93.75	0 0080	0.8300	0.3497	0.1284	95.4988
41	10.8101	-17.3231	11 2105	0.300	92.07	0.0083	1.15	0.4334	0.2562	93.0287
42	10.7937	-17 29/3	11 3105	0.4094	91.09	0.0022	1.15	0.3003	0.3003	94.1249
43	10.7500	-17 2062	11.3103	0.404	00.22	0.0031	1.10	0.4001	0.5355	02 0292
44	10.7031	-17.3002	11 31/15	0.4703	90.33	0.0130	0.87	0.348	0.3233	96 1705
46	10.901	-17 2643	11 3145	0.7124	93.84	0.0205	0.8774	0.3304	0.2731	96.0017
40	10.9424	-17 2825	11 2125	0.0400	93.04	0.0025	0.0774	0.3400	0.2323	95 8932
48	10.9185	-17.3235	11.312	0.6968	94.13	0	0.8617	0.3461	0.3456	96.3802
49	10.9412	-17.3389	11.313	0.7858	93.52	0	1.26	0.4003	0.4989	96.465
50	11.298	-17.2052	11.322	0.3715	91.78	0	1.0334	0.4095	0.2175	93.812
51	11.2673	-17.1774	11.3225	0.3988	90.63	0.0044	0.9866	0.4587	0.2206	92.6992
52	-27.4566	-20.0172	11.224	0.4566	91.52	0	0.9254	0.4573	0.3006	93.6599
53	-27.4803	-20.0756	11.2245	0.4276	90.59	0.0115	1.0615	0.4169	0.3628	92.8703

771 772 773

Table A2. Results of Electron Microprobe Analysis (EPMA). of goethite (wt %) by