

Differentiating the source and origin of high ammonium, arsenic and boron concentrations in the proximity of a mine site

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ABSTRACT

High ammonium, arsenic and boron concentration affect in part the Niebla-Posadas (NP) aquifer with concentrations locally above drinking water guidelines (WHO) and even for water reuse (USEPA). These high concentrations are generally in proximity to mining activities but in this case these concentrations are due to natural process detected around the groundwater monitoring network but not in neighbouring areas as waters are not useful for watering purpose and no irrigation wells access the target aquifer. This oxyhydroxide has the capacity of arsenic absorb and under reducing conditions the FeOOH dissolves releasing arsenic to groundwater. This process is accompanied for marine organic matter decomposition rich in nitrogen and with high boron content. The strong boron and chlorine correlation allow to determine the marine origin of boron but its exceed respect the seawater indicate that there is another boron sources. The high sodium-boron correlation and the negative relation between boron and calcium confirms that absorption and desorption boron process is controlled by exchange processes in the

27 **organic matter. Based on these results it can be differentiating two groundwater areas of**
28 **different water quality.**

29

30 **1. INTRODUCTION**

31 Groundwater is a major source for domestic, industrial and agricultural uses supplying a third of
32 the world population (Ponce Montes de Leon, 2001). The difficulty of managing this resource
33 lies in its sensitivity to (1) direct anthropogenic pollution (Belkin et al., 2000; Sapek, 2005), (2)
34 indirect pollution due to abstraction induced chemical changes (Cendón et al., 2014; Harvey et
35 al., 2003) and/or to (3) geogenic causes related to water interaction with the host aquifer or
36 along groundwater flows (Swartz et al., 2003; McArthur et al., 2001). Differentiating natural
37 and anthropogenic sources is therefore crucial to ensure a good management of groundwater.
38 However, in some instances can be very difficult to ascertain the origin and cause of
39 contamination as in Chile (Sancha and Castro, 2001), Vietnam (Harms-Ringdahl, 2007) and
40 California (Williams et al., 1998).

41 Numerous aquifers worldwide have groundwater quality problems related to elevated
42 concentration of ammonium, arsenic and/or boron. Often, many of these cases are directly
43 related with human activities such as agriculture and mining, the last generally associated to
44 dewatering processes. High groundwater arsenic concentrations related to mining operations has
45 been identified in many parts of the world as Thailand (Williams et al., 1996; Williams, 1997),
46 Greece (Wilson and Hawkins, 1978), Ghana (Smedly, 1996), Alaska (Welch et al., 1988) and
47 Canada (Azcue et al., 1994) amongst others. In these examples arsenic concentration in the
48 aquifers ranged from $200 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ to $1700 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, 20-170 times above WHO guideline levels for
49 drinking water.

50 Ammonium and boron contamination is often related to agricultural practices such as: water
51 irrigation returns and use of fertilizers (Kohl et al., 1971; Butterwick et al., 1989; Chen et al.,
52 2004; Tang et al., 2004 and amongst many others).

53 However, high ammonium, arsenic and boron concentration can also be due to natural
54 processes. Arsenic can be mobilized by weathering reactions (Manning and Goldberg, 1977b;
55 Wang et al., 2006; Mukherjee et al., 2008; Halim et al., 2010), geothermal processes as reported
56 in Argentina (Nicoli et al., 1989), Japan (Yokoyama et al., 1993), New Zealand (Robinson et al.,
57 1995), Chile (Ellis and Mahon, 1977), France (Criaud and Fouillac, 1989) and the USA
58 (Thompson and Demonge, 1996) or even related to biological activity (Benner, 2008).

59 High boron and ammonium natural concentrations have also been identified in many aquifers
60 worldwide as USA (Roy et al., 2003; Hinkle et al., 2007; Glessner and Roy, 2009), Mexico
61 (Ortega-Guerrero, 2003), Asia (Berg et al., 2001; Jiao et al., 2010), Australia (Linderfelt and
62 Turner, 2001) and Europe (Deak et al., 1993; Lorite-Herrera et al., 2009). Natural high
63 concentration in some instances may be the result of residual seawater or salt water intrusion
64 (BGS, 2001; Hassan et al., 1998; Rahman et al., 2000), decomposition of organic matter
65 (Schilling, 2002; Lorite-Herrera et al., 2009; Halim et al., 2010), cation exchange processes
66 under anoxic conditions (Appelo, 2005; Kroeger et al., 2007), dissolution of evaporites
67 (Ravenscroft et al., 2001), mineral weathering (McArthur et al., 2001; Ravenscroft et al. 2003),
68 geothermal processes and adsorption/desorption processes on mineral surface (Goldberg et al.
69 1993).

70 The Niebla-Posadas (NP) aquifer (S Spain) constitutes an example where ammonium, arsenic
71 and boron levels are high in the confined, deep portion of the aquifer. This aquifer is part of the
72 Guadalquivir Basin, a highly populated area, and constitutes a vital resource for supply of
73 drinking water as well as for the agricultural, industrial and mining activities in southern Spain.
74 Concentrations of these three components exceed in some cases current World Health
75 Organization guidelines for drinking water (WHO 2008) and recommended values by the U.S.
76 Environmental Protection Agency for continuous irrigation (USEPA 2012). High concentrations

77 of these contaminants have alerted the public opinion and numerous environmental groups have
78 placed the main anthropogenic activities of the zone under the spotlight, especially the mining
79 exploitation of Cobre Las Cruces (CLC) and, in near future, Aznalcollar and the (DRS) used
80 around the mine.

81 The CLC complex is the largest copper mine, and one of the largest open pits in Europe. . The
82 mining project has implemented a Drainage and ReInjection System (DRS) for groundwater
83 comprising two rings of wells around the mine perimeter, the internal ring drains the NP
84 aquifer, while the external is used for water reinjection to prevent the decrease of the
85 piezometric.

86 This paper presents a detailed hydrogeochemical and isotopic study that aims to discriminate the
87 origin of high ammonium, arsenic and boron concentrations in the NP aquifer. This will be
88 achieved by: a) characterizing sources of solutes, specially ammonium, arsenic and boron, b)
89 investigating their spatial distribution in relation to sources, local geology and potential
90 mobilization mechanisms and c) identifying the geochemical processes that control the presence
91 of these solutes. The overall research provides an assessment of tools to differentiate natural
92 sources and processes for high concentrations of undesired solutes.

93 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

94 **2.1. Hydrogeological setting**

95 The Guadalquivir Basin with an area of 56.978 km² was formed in a foreland basin developed
96 between the Betic range (active margin) and the Iberian massif (passive margin) during the
97 Neogene (Fig.1).The Niebla-Posadas (NP) aquifer occupies the Northern edge of the basin.

98 The area selected for studding is located about 20 km North of Seville, limited by Sierra Morena
99 (Iberian massif) to the north and the Cortijuelos creek on the southern boundary. The west and
100 east limits are defined by the Guadiamar river and the “Ribera de Huelva” respectively. The

101 Cobre Las Cruces (CLC) open pit mine is located in the central part of the study area (Fig. 1A,
102 B).

103 The climate is characterized as temperate-warm Mediterranean with influences from the
104 Atlantic Ocean and the surrounding main relief units. Current average annual temperatures are
105 9-10 °C in mountainous areas and 15-18 °C in the valley region. The precipitation is
106 characterized by both spatial and temporal irregularity, being the average annual precipitation of
107 500-600 mm/y with an evapotranspiration annual average of 991 mm/y (CHG 2012).

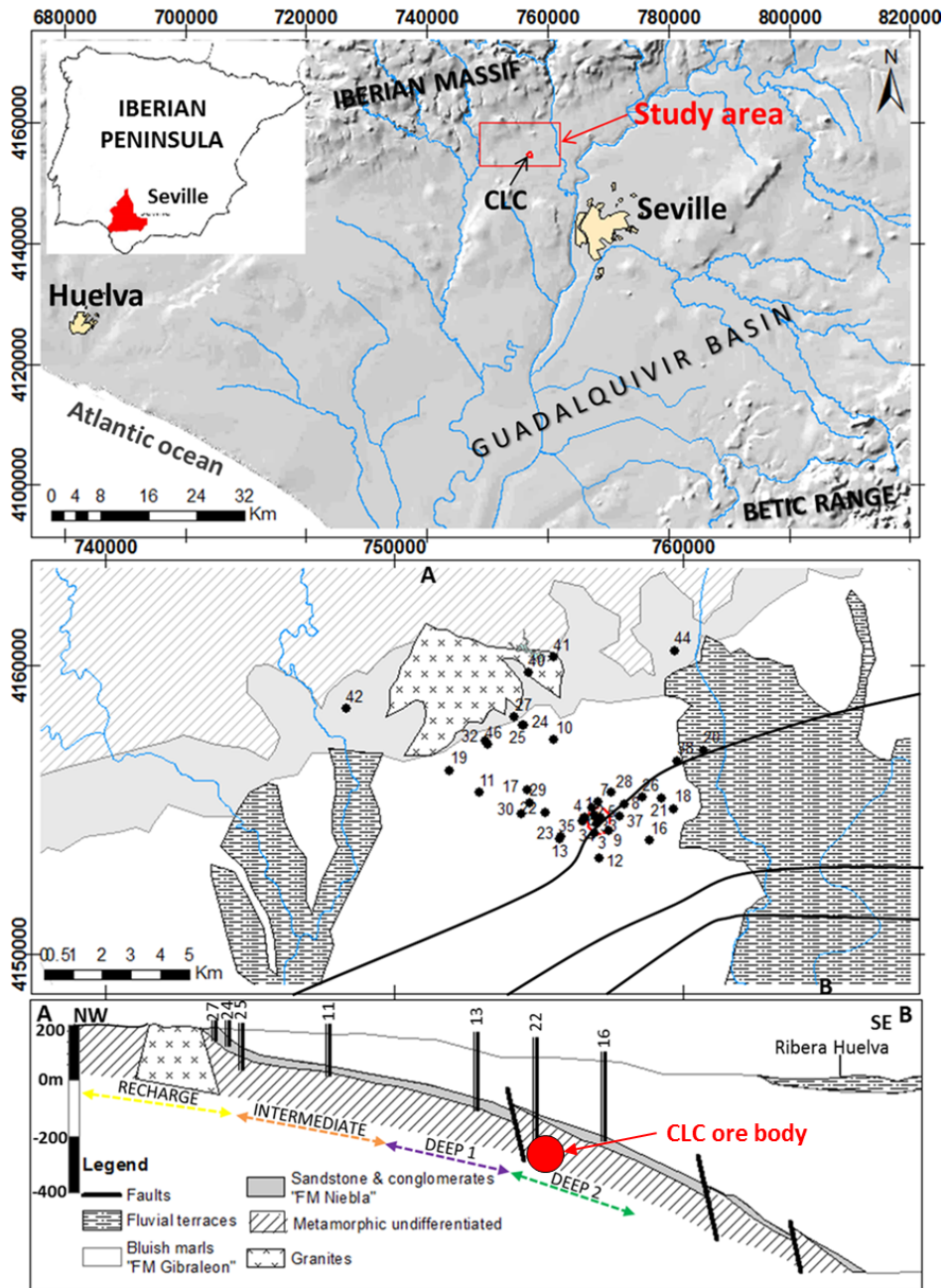
108 The studied area is mainly covered by Quaternary materials associated with river deposits with
109 underlying Cenozoic bluish marls of the Arcillas Gibraleón Formation (Fm). These marls are of
110 marine origin, rich in planktonic, benthic microfauna and organic matter. These form a wedge
111 that thickens southwards from ~50 m near the recharge zone to over 800 m in the south of the
112 CLC mine (Fig.1). Sandwiched between the bluish marls and the underlying Paleozoic
113 basement the, the Niebla Formation hosts the main part of the NP aquifer and is formed by
114 conglomerates, detrital limestone and sandstone with abundant marine microfauna. The Niebla
115 Fm outcrops to the north (recharge area) and dips southward as it is confined by the overlying
116 blue marls. Some gas deposits have been prospected in this formation and in the marls one
117 hundred kilometers South of the studied area. The Paleozoic basement (Culm Fm) is made of
118 quartzite, schists, granite and volcanogenic massive sulfide deposits (Blake, 2008; Capitán
119 Suarez, 2006 and Fernández-Caliani and Galán, 1991). Major faults with a SW-NE orientation
120 and secondary faults with NW-SE orientation affect the basement materials (Fig.1C).

121 The detrital strata of the Niebla Fm jointly with the weathered portion of the upper Paleozoic
122 basement form the NP aquifer. This aquifer is 10 to 30 m thick and gradually dips southward
123 with a 4-6% slope. It is confined in close proximity to the recharge area by the marls with a low
124 transmissivity ($<5 \text{ m}^2/\text{d}$). Transmissivity values of the NP aquifer range between 10 and 500
125 m^2/d and storage coefficient values are of the order of 10^{-2} in the unconfined zone and between
126 10^{-3} and 10^{-5} in the confined areas (CHG, 2012). Recharge of the aquifer is by rainwater

127 infiltration in the outcropping area. Total estimated recharge is 9 hm³/y and the pumping
128 activity is the main discharge estimated at 40 hm³/y (CHG, 2012).

129 The Paleozoic basement outcrops to the north of the recharge area coinciding with increased
130 elevation (up to 500 m). No much information exists on the groundwater potential of the
131 Paleozoic basement or whether a deeper regional system may be possible within the fractured
132 interconnected Paleozoic shales (Gómez de las Heras et al., 2001).

133 Based on groundwater residence times and hydrogeochemical indicators four areas (Recharge,
134 Intermediate, Deep 1 and Deep 2) have been proposed for the NP aquifer (Scheiber et al. 2015).
135 Thus, residence times of xxx, xxx, xxx and xxx years have been obtained from ³H, ¹⁴C and ³⁶Cl
136 dating.



137

138 *Fig. 1: A) Regional map and location of the studied area; B) Geological map of the area, location of*
 139 *the*

140

141 **2.2. Groundwater sampling and analysis**

142 Groundwater samples were collected from a total of 40 wells and pizometres, distributed
 143 throughout the study area but with a higher density of sampling points in the deep aquifer zone
 144 (Fig.1B). Wells were sampled during two field campaigns carried out in February 2012 and

145 September 2013. Wells were purged and samples collected after removing three well volumes
146 or once field parameters had stabilized. The physico-chemical parameters such as temperature
147 ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), pH, Electrical Conductivity (EC, $\mu\text{S}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$), Eh and dissolved oxygen (DO, $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) were
148 measured in situ inside a closed flow cell. Total alkalinity was determined in the field by acid-
149 base titration using an Aquamerck Alkalinity kit.

150 Groundwater samples for general chemistry were collected in high-density polyethylene, 25 mL
151 bottles for anions and 50 mL for cation-trace samples, previously filtered through a $0.22\ \mu\text{m}$
152 nylon filter. Cation-tracer samples were acidified with 1 mL of 20% diluted nitric acid for
153 sample preservation. Anions were analysed by High Performance Liquid Chromatography
154 (HPLC) and cations by Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-AES).
155 The total tracer elements concentrations were measured by inductively coupled plasma and
156 mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). In order to differentiate arsenite (As (III)) from arsenate (As(V))
157 field speciation cartridges were used (Meng et al., 1998). Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC)
158 samples were collected in 30 ml glass bottles previously muffled. These samples were filtered
159 through a $0.45\ \mu\text{m}$ and acidified with 1 mL of HCl (2N). Bottles were sealed with Parafilm[®] to
160 minimize any contact with air. DOC was analysed by the catalytic oxidation method at $680\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$
161 using a Shimadzu TOC-V CSH instrument, with a detection limit of $0.05\ \text{mg/L}$. NH_4^+ and I^-
162 concentrations were analysed with a selective electrode Orion 9512, with an error of $\pm 2\%$.

163

164 Twelve samples for CH_4 and H_2S gas analysis were collected in 250 mL glass bottles with
165 septum cap and stored in an upside-down vertical position according with Capasso and
166 Inguaggiato, (1998). The CH_4 in the gas phase was determined using a Trace GC Ultra
167 ThermoFisher Scientific chromatograph, with a detection limit of $0.58\ \text{mg/L}$ and analytical error
168 from ± 0.001 to $\pm 0.009\ \text{mg}\cdot\text{L}$. The CH_4 dissolved in water was calculated by the liquid gas
169 partition coefficient. The H_2S content in the liquid phase was analysed by ionic chromatography
170 with a DIONEX model IC5000, and with a variable wavelength detector with a detection limit
171 of $0.005\ \text{mg}\cdot\text{L}$ S_2 and an analytical error of 5%.

172 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NH}_4^+}$ were analysed by a diffusion method based on protocols by Sebiló et al., (2004)
 173 and Holmes et al., (1998). The samples were collected in high-density polyethylene bottles of
 174 250 mL capacity, previously filtered through a 0.22 μm nylon filter and preserved by adding
 175 H_2SO_4 (10%) to keep pH below 5.5. Over the water sample a filter-pack is placed by the
 176 ammonia trap. Filter-packs consist a 1 cm-diameter GF/D filter (WHATMAN) acidified with 30
 177 μL of 8N H_2SO_4 , sandwiched between two 2.5 cm diameter 10 μm pore-size Teflon membranes.
 178 Two mL of Na(OH) 5N solution was added in order to increase pH to a value above 12 pH units
 179 causing NH_4^+ to convert to NH_3 . The bottle was quickly sealed and placed in an orbital shaker
 180 during 7 days at room temperature in order to favour the NH_3 diffusion into the headspace. NH_3
 181 was then trapped into the filter and converted to $(\text{NH}_4^+)_2\text{SO}_4$. After one week the filter-pack was
 182 placed in an acid-washed glass bottle and placed in a freezer-drier during 2 hours to remove any
 183 water from the filter. Then the GF/D filter was removed and placed in a silver-cup to
 184 immediately analyze in an EA-IRMS.

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187 3. RESULTS

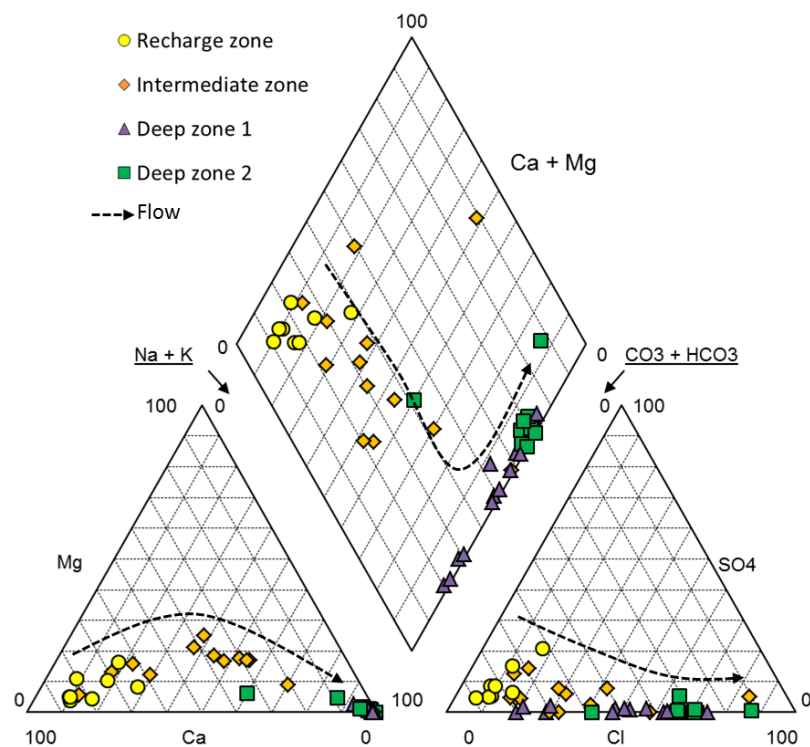
188 A summary of the main hydrochemical parameters measured is shown in Table 1.

	MIN.	MAX.	AVE	MEDIAN	SD	WHO (2008)	USEPA (2012)
pH	6.8	10.6	7.9	7.7	0.9	6.5-8.5	-
C.E. ($\mu\text{S}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	388.0	5940.0	1624.9	1275.0	1074.4	1500	-
T ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	14.7	37.5	25.5	25.1	5.2	-	-
Alk ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ CaCO ₃)	130.0	468.2	296.9	300.0	81.4	-	-
DOC ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.2	15.9	3.5	3.7	3.4	-	-
Cl ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	12.6	1581.3	281.2	151.4	317.9	250	-
NO_3^- ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.1	102.3	11.2	0.1	24.1	50	-
SO_4^{2-} ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.1	115.3	16.9	10.1	24.4	250	-
HCO_3^- ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	158.5	570.9	361.3	365.8	100.3	-	-
Ca ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.6	177.0	46.3	29.0	51.0	200	-
K ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.1	43.4	5.5	4.1	6.6	30	-
Mg ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.001	50.6	7.3	4.0	9.6	150	-
Na ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	14.6	1061.8	238.5	221.1	222.7	200	-
NH_4^+ ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.04	12.8	2.6	2.1	2.8	0.2	-
I ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.007	0.67	0.11	0.06	0.14	-	-
Br ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.09	5.25	0.90	0.46	1.15	-	-
Fe ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.002	0.888	0.211	0.087	0.220	0.3	5
Mn ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.00	0.43	0.03	0.01	0.07	0.5	-
B ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.017	3.48	0.94	0.63	0.95	0.5	0.75
As ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	0.00003	0.18	6.9	1.5	27.1	0.01	0.01

189 **Table 1.** Groundwater parameters of the studied area (concentrations in mg/L) . Recommended limits for drinking water (WHO
190 2008) and for frequent irrigation (USEPA 2012).

191 Groundwater temperatures vary from 14.7 to 37.5 °C with an average value of 26.1 °C. Cooler
192 temperatures are in the recharge zone and increase towards the deeper zone. The pH values
193 range between 6.8 and 10.6, with highest pH values found in the deeper SE zones. Specific
194 conductance (SC) values are between 388 and 5940 $\mu\text{S}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$, also increasing with depth. Eh
195 values ranged between 177 mV in the recharge zone to -300 mV in the deeper ones

196 The major ions compositions (Fig.2) differentiate four main compositional types. Groundwater
197 in the recharge zone is of Ca-HCO₃-type transitioning to Na-(Ca)-HCO₃ in the intermediate
198 zone and Na-HCO₃ within the deep zone 1. The most evolved samples from the Deep zone 2 are
199 of the Na-Cl-type. In general Na and Cl show a high correlation ($R^2= 0.92$) adapting to a
200 seawater mixture line but with sodium excess. This excess has been interpreted as due to the
201 replacement of Na initially present in the exchange complex by Ca-rich water from the
202 recharge.



203

204

Fig.2. Piper diagram showing major ions chemistry of the sampled points. The arrows follow the NW-SE flow direction.

205 Nitrate concentrations are only found close to agricultural and farms areas in the recharge zone
206 with concentrations ranging from 18 to 95 mg·L⁻¹. Nitrite has not been detected but high
207 ammonium concentrations are found in 70% of the wells ranging from 0.043 to 12.8 mg·L⁻¹
208 (Table 1). Sulfate concentrations are generally low ranging from 0.1 mg·L⁻¹ to 115 mg·L⁻¹
209 (Table 1). Concentrations of H₂S range between 0.09 and 0.11 mg·L⁻¹ and are higher at samples
210 site with the lowest sulfate and where a H₂S-smell was identified in the field. Methane
211 concentrations were mostly below detection limit (0.58 mg·L⁻¹) except for one sample with a
212 value of 1.09 mg·L⁻¹.

213 Arsenic is generally found as As (III) with concentrations between 0.03 and 178.72 µg·L⁻¹ and a
214 mean value of 6.87 µg·L⁻¹. Of the 40 points measured, 4 provide As (III) values >10 µg·L⁻¹
215 above the WHO guideline, 6 points have As (III) concentration between 5 and 10 µg·L⁻¹ and the
216 remaining points have concentrations <5 µg·L⁻¹. Boron concentrations in the study area range
217 between 0.017 and 3.48 mg·L⁻¹ with an average value of 0.944 mg·L⁻¹. Approximately 55% of
218 sampled points show boron concentrations above the WHO's standard limits of drinking water
219 and ~50% do not meet the USEPA recommendations for frequent irrigation water (Table 1).
220 Similarly, ammonium concentrations vary between 0.04 and 12.82 mg·L⁻¹ with an average value
221 of 2.61 mg·L⁻¹. This average value is far above the guideline value set by WHO (0.2 mg·L⁻¹) for
222 drinking water and the standard limit is exceeded in 76% of the sampled points (Table 1).

223 To better understand nitrogen sources a limited number of samples (n=8) has been analysed for
224 δ¹⁵N of dissolved ammonium. The δ¹⁵N_{NH4} values range between -3.9 and 0.7 ‰ with an
225 average value of -1.4 ‰.

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228 **4 DISCUSSION**

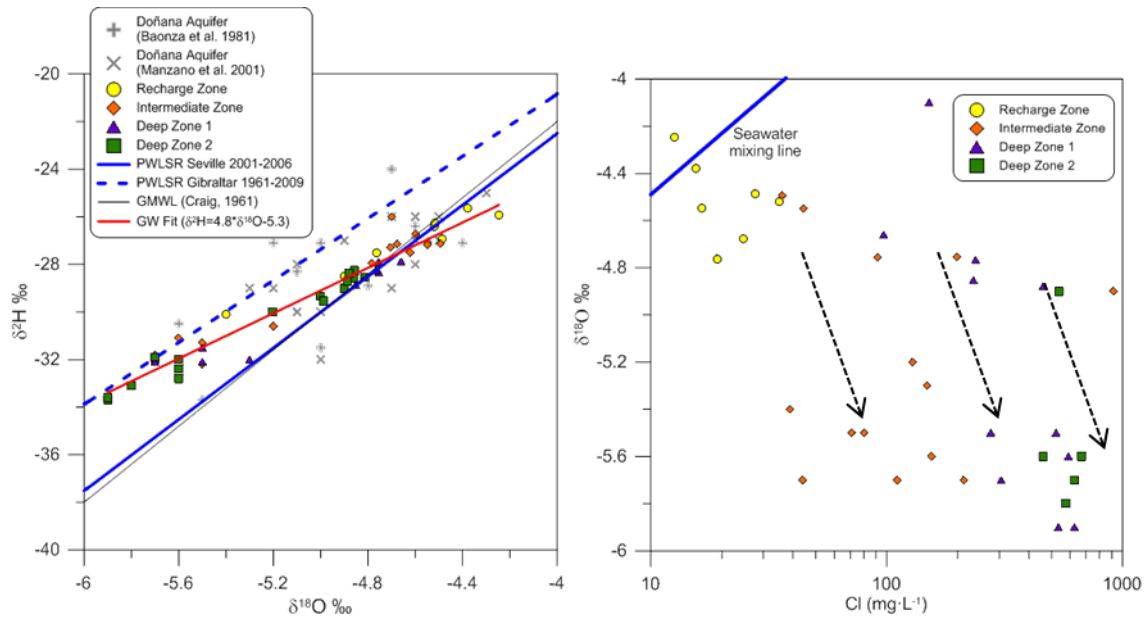
229 **4.1. Major elements hydrochemistry**

230 The NP aquifer has a well-defined recharge area and an overlying confining layer of increasing
231 thickness as the aquifer dips south along the flow direction. Groundwater salinity increases

232 along the flow direction with major ions varying from Ca-HCO₃-type in the recharge area to
233 Na-Cl-type in the deeper samples recovered. The increasing salinity has been interpreted as the
234 result of mixing with relict syndepositional marine water incorporation, with fluids trapped
235 within the porosity during the transgressive Tortonian stage (Abad de los Santos, 2007). The
236 marine origin is supported by Cl/Br ratios with values close to seawater ($R_{Cl/Br} \sim 600$) in the
237 deepest zones.. However, samples with higher chloride concentrations generally show more
238 depleted ²H and ¹⁸O isotopic values, with all groundwater plotting along a line contained within
239 the modern precipitation weighted least square regression lines PWLSR (Hughes and Crawford
240 2012) for Seville and Gibraltar (Fig.3A). Despite the short rainfall water data set available for
241 Seville (6 years), deuterium excess in groundwater samples adjusts better to those expected
242 from rainfall derived from Atlantic fronts and it is similar to that of Gibraltar. Similar deuterium
243 excess values are also observed in groundwater samples with longer residence times either
244 within the field area or in neighboring sites like Doñana (Manzano et al. 2001).

245 The depleted $\delta^2H/\delta^{18}O$ values in the deepest zones could be consistent with paleo-recharge
246 under different climatic and/or topographic conditions. Thus, samples in the study area (Deep 1
247 and 2 zones) residence times, estimated at >30 ky (Scheiber et al. 2015) and generally
248 correspond to the more depleted water stable isotopes values. Temperatures of paleo-recharge
249 calculated in Doñana from nobles gases (Manzano et al., 2001) suggest no major climatic
250 changes since the Pleistocene.

251 Two differentiated data clusters are illustrated by comparing water stable isotopes with Cl (Fig.
252 3B). The Cenozoic portion of the aquifer follows a slightly depleting trend with increasing
253 salinity, probably due to the mixing with deeper Paleozoic groundwater. Consistently, deeper
254 samples within the Paleozoic form a parallel group of samples with lighter isotopes, the scatter
255 of the values suggesting some degree of mixing with shallower groundwater. The Paleozoic
256 outcrops to the north reaching altitudes of up to 500 m. Therefore an altitude effect on rainfall
257 could account for depleted water stable isotopes in the Paleozoic groundwater.



258

259 **Fig.3. A)** $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ vs. $\delta^2\text{H}$ plot; and **B)** $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ vs. Cl^- plot of groundwater samples . **B)**

260

261 A relative increase in Na concentrations with respect to expected seawater ratios is observed
 262 from the intermediate zone and towards deeper portions of the aquifer (Fig.4). This effect can
 263 be explained by a Na-Ca exchange process that takes place within dispersed clay layers in the
 264 aquifer or within neighbouring formations (blue marls). The exchange of Ca for Na can be also
 265 observed in the Piper diagram, where Na increases and Ca decreases while the HCO_3^-
 266 concentration remains constant (Fig.2). This process has been identified in coastal aquifers
 267 when continental waters flush marine pore water (Appelo, 1994; Custodio and Bruggeman,
 268 1980).

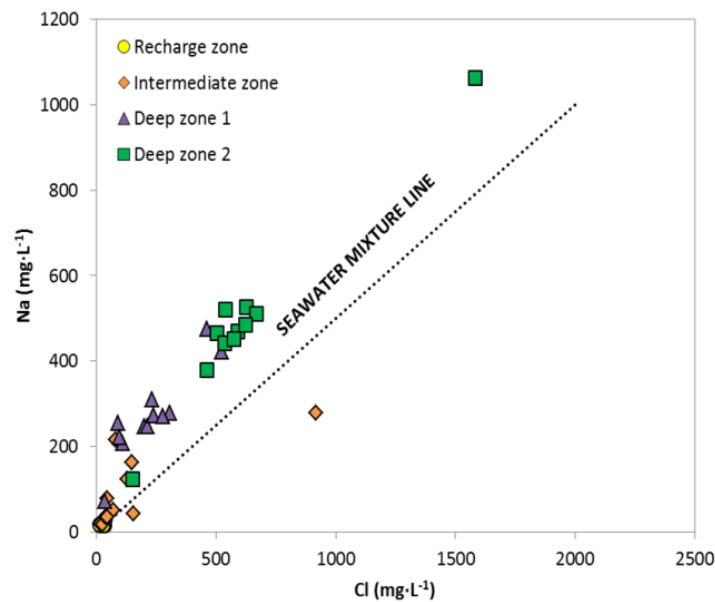
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270 The only major solute of anthropogenic origin detected is NO_3^- with high concentration reaching
 271 up to $98 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ in localized areas of the recharge. These local high NO_3^- concentrations are due
 272 to agricultural practices and a sewage leak from the village. Nitrate in the intermediate and deep
 273 zones is generally below detection limit except for some values in close proximity to the
 274 recharge area (Table A1 of supplementary information).

275 Sulphate in the recharge zone can be as high a 115 mg/L, but decreases dramatically below
276 detection level (0.1 mg/L) in the intermediate and deep zones. In some wells from these zones,
277 H₂S has been measured in concentrations up to 0.11 mg/L, The isotopes of the SO₄ molecule
278 clearly confirm the existence of sulphate-reducing conditions. Thus, the samples from the
279 intermediate and deep zones show a distinct trend towards heavier $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values
280 (Scheiber et al., 2015). Although methane has only been detected in one sample, the possibility
281 of a methanogenesis zone cannot be ruled out with the present data set.

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Fig.4. Plot of Na vs. Cl in groundwater (concentration in mg·L⁻¹).

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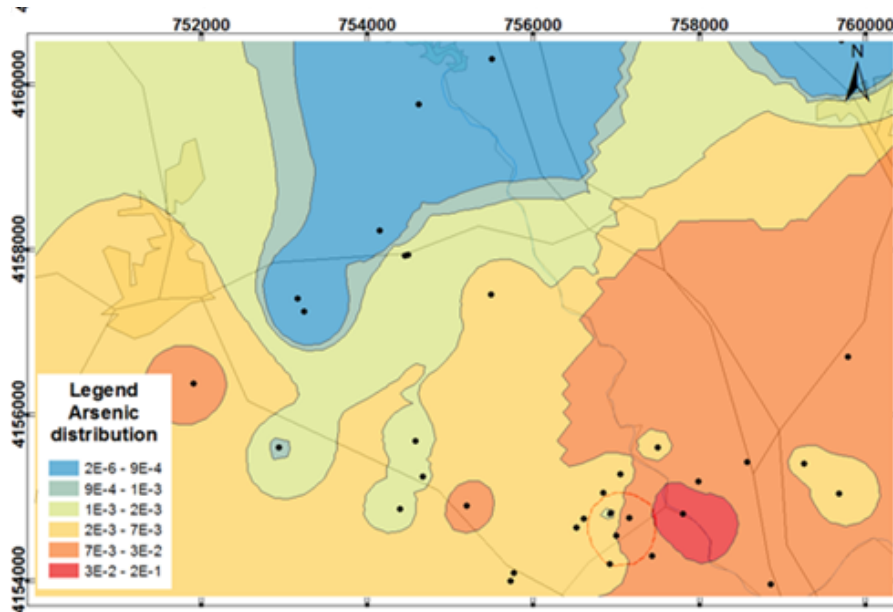
287 **5.2. The origin of As, B and NH₄** Of all analysed minor and trace elements/compounds in
288 groundwater only ammonium, arsenic and boron have anomalously high concentrations and
289 1 order of magnitude higher than those found in surface water averages (Gaillardet et al.,
290 2004). Thus, in the NP aquifer, ammonium concentrations of up to 12.8 mg·L⁻¹ have been
291 found in the Deep Zone 2, with concentrations of 0.18 mg·L⁻¹ for arsenic and 3.48 mg·L⁻¹
292 for boron also reaching higher levels in the deep zone 2.

293 Several sources can explain the high ammonium, arsenic and boron concentrations observed in
294 the groundwater, all interpreted as from a natural origin. The natural origin for the high
295 concentrations is supported by: (1) The recharge zone of the aquifer has low ammonium, arsenic
296 and boron concentrations and high concentrations are found in the deepest zones located to the
297 SW of the study area; (2) the transit to deeper parts of the aquifer is confined by a thick marl
298 layer (> 200 m) with low permeability which seals the aquifer system (Fig.1); (3) groundwater
299 residence times >20 ky have been identified in areas containing the higher concentrations
300 (Scheiber et al., 2015).

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303

304 The arsenic mobilization related to the reductive dissolution of Fe-oxyhydroxids is a well-
305 known natural process observed in reducing aquifers (Berg et al., 2001; 2008; McArthur et al.,
306 2001) . The Fe-oxyhydroxides are characterized by a very high specific surface area and high
307 adsorption capacity capable of adsorbing large amount of arsenic (van der Zee et al., 2003;
308 Wang et al., 2012). Thus, the reductive dissolution of these minerals involves the release of high
309 arsenic concentrations to groundwater. Rather than to mining operations, several observations
310 point to this geogenic origin in the NP aquifer: 1) Goethite gossan deposits are scattered in the
311 surface of Paleozoic series below the NP strata, being the CLC ore deposit the most
312 representative; 2) Goethite contains up to 0.8% As (CLC, unpublished data); 3) Dissolved
313 Organic Carbon concentrations are above the typical values in groundwater (>1 mg·L⁻¹)
314 indicating the important role of organic matter in the hydrogeochemical evolution of these
315 waters 4) Arsenic is mostly As(III), characteristic of reducing environments,; 5) The higher
316 concentrations are found scattered in the studied area, not directly linked to mining (Figure 5);
317 and (6) Historical data obtained before mine activity show As concentrations of up to 0.063
318 mg·L⁻¹ in a survey of local groundwater collected in 1998.



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Fig.5. Result of Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW) interpolation of arsenic concentration (mg/L) The red circle represents the CLC open pit (?)

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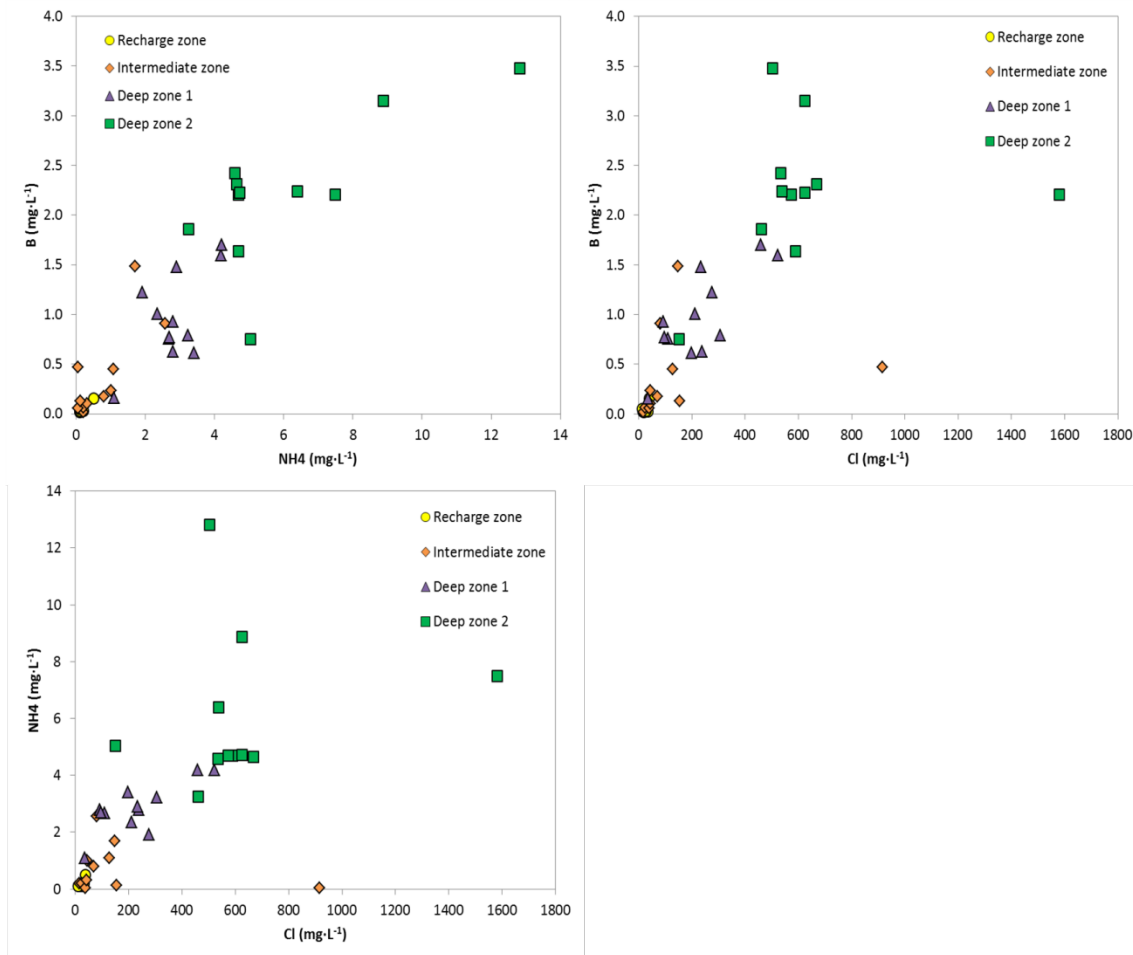
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336

In many studies where the reductive dissolution of FeOOH explains high arsenic concentration a moderate relationship between DOC, As and Fe is observed (Anawar et al., 2003; Ahmed et al., 2004; Halim et al., 2009). However, no correlation is found in the studied area (Table 2 of Supporting Information). Rather than to non simultaneous reduction of As and Fe (Islam et al., 2004), or to re-adsorption of As (Nickson et al., 2000), the reason for this lack of correlation is attributed to the massive precipitation of siderite in the NP aquifer. Indeed thermodynamic calculations with the software PHREEQC and the Wateq database (Appelo et al., 2005), indicates that groundwater in the deep zones 1 and 2 are supersaturated and very near to equilibrium in siderite. Moreover, the goethite-made gossan is massively replaced by siderite ((Yesares et al. 2014). This siderite masses show very light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values typical of C from organic origin, and has been interpreted as largest documented occurrence of recent microbial activity producing an ore assemblage (Tonos al., 2014).

337 The strong correlation B/NH₄ (0.91, Table 2 of Supporting Information) suggests a common
 338 process controlling their concentration in groundwater. Similarly, the weak correlation observed
 339 between As/B and As/NH₄ indicates that these processes are at least in part different from those
 340 concentrating As. Indeed, NH₄ and B show a clear positive correlation with Cl (Figure 6A,B).
 341



342
 343 **Fig.6. Plots of NH₄ (a), B(B) and I (C) versus Cl concentrations**

344
 345 Several samples have boron and iodine concentration higher than seawater (i.e., B around 4.5
 346 mg/L, Rakestraw and Mahncke, 1935, and I 0.6, Truesdall, 1995). Owing to groundwater from
 347 shows mixing with seawater less than 10%, there must be enrichment processes for these
 348 compounds other than seawater mixing.

349
 350

351 High Boron contents in Bangladesh and Michigan aquifers have been attributed to a geogenic
352 origin. Thus, seawater B would be sorbed onto mineral surfaces of sediments. Then, the
353 competitive action of HCO_3/CO_3 as fresh continental water displaces saline pore water in
354 aquifers would drive its desorption from mineral surfaces. A positive B/ HCO_3 correlation is
355 therefore observed (Ravenscroft and McArthur, 2003). No positive correlation between B,
356 HCO_3 and ionic strength has been observed in the studied area. The described process, however,
357 cannot be ruled out because HCO_3 concentration is strongly buffered by the dissolution of
358 calcite and precipitation of siderite in the deep zones of the NP aquifer.

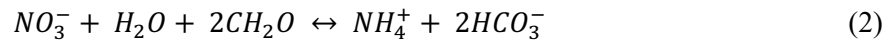
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360 An alternative, although similar, explanation for B origin is to assume sorption into solid marine
361 organic matter. Thus, B sorption in the organic matter of soils has been proved to be one order
362 of magnitude more efficient than in mineral surfaces, such as clays and Fe-oxides (Goldberg,
363 1997). Moreover, oil reservoir brines are commonly enriched in B, and therefore, organic matter
364 maturation is seen as a possible source for B in thermal maturation (Williams et al., 2000). The
365 degradation of organic matter by SO_4 from recharge water would account for the release of B to
366 the pore water. of the NP aquifer.

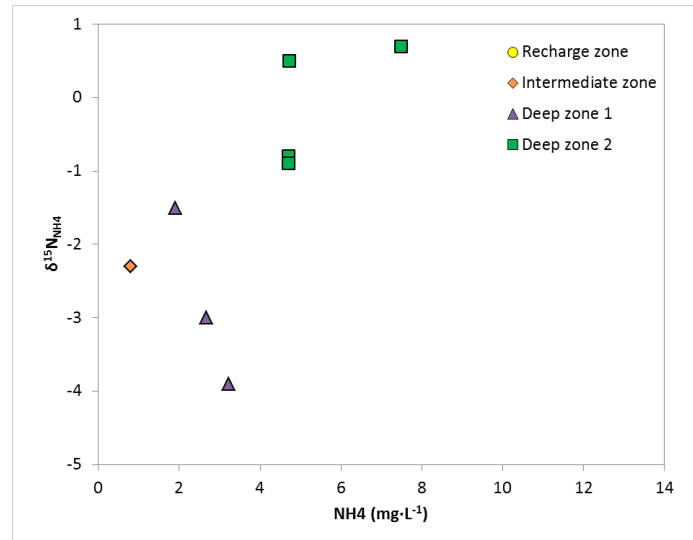
367 A parallel geochemical path would be followed by NH_4 and I. Nitrogen is a fundamental
368 nutrient and constituent of multiple organisms, and forms an essential component of
369 marine organic matter in a N:C proportion of 16:106 (Redfield, 1934). Iodine may also be highly
370 assimilated by marine organisms and for this reason organic matter is an important source of
371 iodine (Price and Calvert, 1973; Kennedy and Elderfield, 1987a,b). The strong correlation of
372 iodine with ammonium ($R^2=0.86$) and boron ($R^2=0.83$) (Table 2, Supplementary Information)
373 links the organic matter and its degradation to an increase of the three components in NP
374 groundwater concentrations. Iodine concentrations higher than seawater and strong correlation
375 between NH_4 and I has been described in the porewater of an aquitard in the coastal aquifer of
376 Pearl River Delta, China (Jiao et al., 2010). These authors attributed the NH_4 concentrations, as
377 high as 390 mg/L to a geogenic origin without further precision.

378

379 The nitrogen in the sedimentary rock comes of organic matter accumulated during the
380 sedimentation process. This nitrogen is incorporated during diagenesis process as ammonium in
381 clay minerals and organic matter (Holloway and Dahlgren, 2002) and under reducing conditions
382 the organic matter degradation release high ammonium concentration (reaction 2).



383 The $\delta^{15}N$ fractionation has been investigated by many authors and especially by Prokopenko et
384 al., (2006) were focus in the sedimentary organic matter. Experimentally has obtained the $\delta^{15}N$
385 values of sedimentary organic matter and the pore water. As result, the pore water $\delta^{15}N$ values
386 ($<0.7 \text{ ‰}$) are lighter than the sedimentary material ($\approx 5 \text{ ‰}$). This fact leads to the conclusion that
387 there is an isotope fractionation associated with the organic matter degradation (Prokopenko et
388 al., 2006). The fractionation factor can vary depend of depth, reservoir, N content, bacterial
389 activity, organic matter degradation degree, etc. These factors, can explain the high ammonium
390 concentration and the light $\delta^{15}N_{NH_4}$ values detected in the deepest samples (Fig.9). The light
391 $\delta^{15}N_{NH_4}$ values obtained of the groundwater are compatible with those $\delta^{15}N$ values found in the
392 study area sedimentary rocks. For example, Rau et al., (1987) determined in marlstones in North
393 Atlantic $\delta^{15}N$ values between -2.68 and 2.27, range very similar than the NP aquifer ($\delta^{15}N_{NH_4}$
394 between -3.9 and 0.7 ‰). This similarity suggests that the high ammonium concentration comes
395 of the organic matter degradation presents in the bluish marls “FM Gibrleon”.



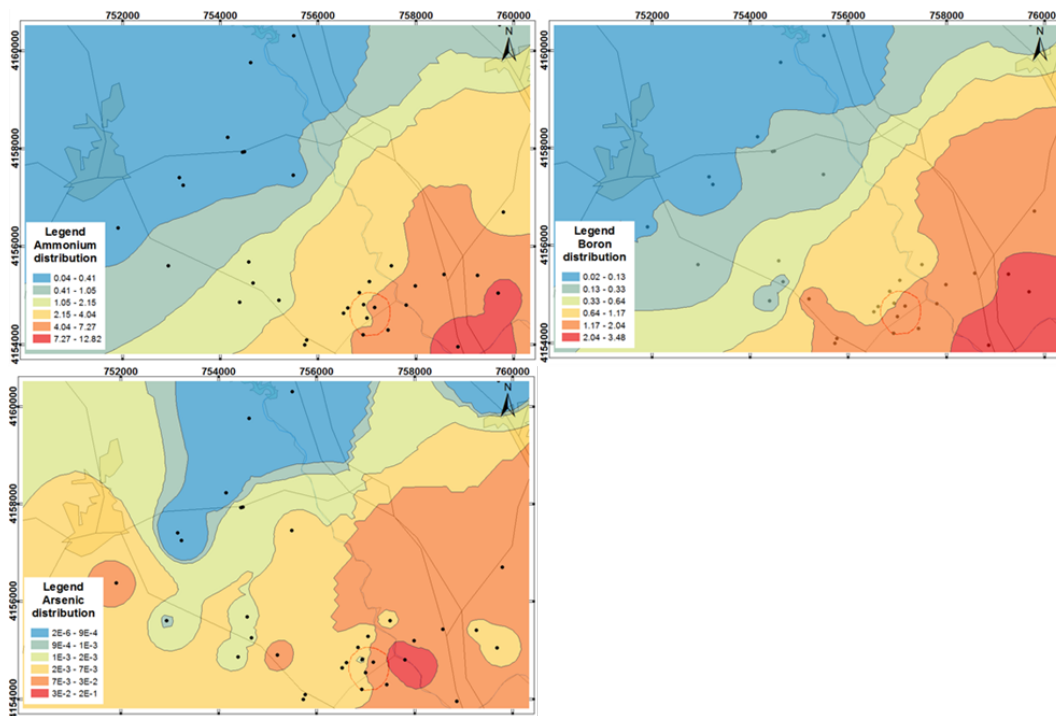
396

397 **Fig.8.** Correlation between $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NH}_4}$ and NH_4 .

398

399 **5.1. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF AQUIFER**

400

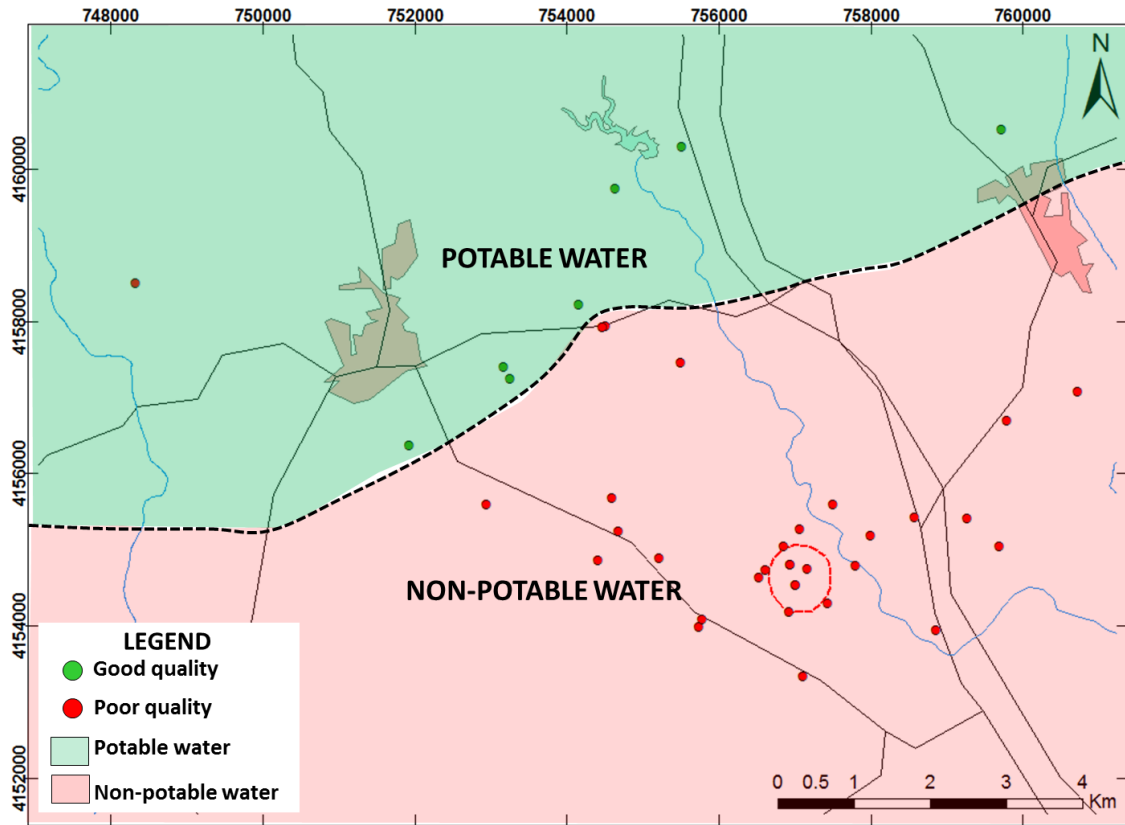


401

402 **Fig.10.** Result of Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW) interpolation of ammonium, arsenic and boron concentration.

403

404 Defining groundwater quality for each defined zones is essential for a good management of the
405 NP aquifer. In addition to mining, the main consumption of the groundwater is for agriculture
406 and drinking water of the villages of the surroundings. Moreover, the aquifer also represents a
407 potable water reserve for the city of Sevilla and conurbation in severe drought events.
408 Therefore, the guideline defined by WHO (2008) for drinking water, and the USEPA
409 recommendations for irrigation have been used to assess the water quality of the aquifer.
410 Groundwater of the studied area presents a clear increase in salinity and loss of quality from
411 NW to SE (Fig .9A, B,C). Recharge area: In generally, the groundwater in this area presents
412 acceptable characteristics for drinking water and irrigation, except in very local cases where has
413 been detected high nitrate concentration related with agriculture. Intermediate zone: Drinking
414 water and quality is found in the NW half of this zone. The deeper SE half, however, show
415 NH₄ concentrations above the drinking water standards. The salinity (Cl and Na) and B
416 concentrations allow their use for irrigation of many types of crops. Deep zones 1 and 2:
417 Groundwater from this zone contains high concentration of ammonium, arsenic, boron and
418 salinity and for this reason is not suitable for drinking or for irrigation use.
419
420 Based on the described quality data three different uses of groundwater can be established:
421 drinking and irrigation, only irrigation and none (Figure 10)



422

423 Fig.11. Map of possible uses of groundwater in the studied area. The triangles are the re-injection wells concentration.

424 What is the impact of the pumping and reinjection system on the hydrochemistry? The CLC
 425 open pit is located in the deep zone of the NP aquifer. Therefore, the pumped water contains
 426 high salinity and NH₄ and B concentrations. When reinjected, this type of water would not
 427 affect the quality of the aquifer in the injection sectors 1 to 5, containing water of similar
 428 quality. However, the reinjection of the pumped water in reinjection sectors 6 and 7, may
 429 dramatically affect the drinking water reserves of the NW half of the intermediate zone, and
 430 should be conveniently treated for NH₄, B and salinity before being reinjected.

431

432 **6. CONCLUSION**

433 The high arsenic, ammonium and boron concentration are found in the deeper zone of the NP
 434 aquifer. None of these solutes is found in the recharge are, but their concentration increases with
 435 depth and residence time of water in the aquifer. Thus, they appear in zones already isolated
 436 from surface by a thick sequence of low permeability marls, and with residence times of water

437 in the aquifer longer than 20000 (?) years. Therefore, rather than anthropogenic, their presence
438 in groundwater is attributed to natural processes.

439 Groundwater flows from NW to SE evolving in chemistry from Ca-HCO₃ to Na- HCO₃ and
440 finally Na-Cl type. Salinity increases with residence time in the aquifer, by mixing up to 10% of
441 marine water trapped within the porosity, as indicated by the clear marine Br/Cl ratio.
442 Ammonium and boron, together with iodide, clearly increase with chloride from NW to SE, and
443 are interpreted as result of the degradation of marine solid organic matter by the sulfate
444 dissolved in the recharge water. The light $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NH}_4}$ values confirm its origin linked to marine
445 organic matter.

446 Arsenic distribution follows a different pattern, not strictly linked to salinity. Arsenic in
447 groundwater is interpreted as originated from the reductive dissolution of the As-bearing
448 goethite by dissolved organic matter. Goethite was formed by the oxidation of sulfides by the
449 Miocene atmosphere and is located evenly on the Paleozoic paleosurface. Arsenic in
450 groundwater depends, therefore, on the location of goethite mineralizations. The lack of the
451 expected correlation between Fe and As is explained by the massive precipitation of siderite.
452 The light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of siderite confirms its origins from organic matter degradation.

453 The NP aquifer contains drinking water quality in the recharge zone and in the shallower zone
454 of the confined aquifer to the NW of the studied zone. The concentration of NH₄, B, and the
455 salinity invalidates groundwater for potable and even for continued irrigation. use. The pumping
456 and reinjection system of the CLC mine affects the deep aquifer. The NW sector of the
457 reinjection system should ensure a drinking water quality in order to preserve the drinking water
458 resources of the NP aquifer.

459

460 Finally, based on all the information obtained has been able to define two groundwater zones
461 with different quality grades (Potable, non-potable). This conclusion is helpful for improve the
462 management of this resource.

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