- 1 Stratigraphic and structural controls on groundwater
- 2 flow in an outcropping fossil fan delta: the case of Sant
- 3 Llorenç del Munt range (NE Spain)
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Abstract

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Mountain regions provide hydrogeological models and opportunities to understand the role of geological factors on groundwater resources. The effects of sedimentary facies and fracture distribution on groundwater flow and resources exploitation are studied in the ancient fan delta of Sant Llorenç de Munt (Central Catalonia, Spain) by integrating geological field observations (using sequence stratigraphy methods) hydrogeological data (pumping tests, hydrochemistry and environmental isotopes). The comprehensive analysis of data portrays the massif as a single unit, constituted by different compartments determined by specific layers and sets of fractures. Two distinct flow systems, local and a regional, are identified based on pumping test analysis as well as hydrochemical and isotopic data. Drawdown curves derived from pumping tests indicate that the behavior of the saturated layers, whose main porosity is given by the fracture network, corresponds to a confined aquifer. Pumping tests also reflect a double porosity within the system and the occurrence of impervious boundaries that support a compartmentalized model for the whole aguifer system. Hydrochemical data and its spatial evolution show the result of water-rock interaction along the flow lines. In this sense, magnesium concentration derived from dolomite dissolution, is a tracer of the flow-path along distinct stratigraphic units. Water stable isotopes indicate that evaporation (near to 5%) occurs in a wide unsaturated zone within the massif before infiltration reaches the water table. The hydrogeological analysis of this outcropping system provides evidences for the understanding of groundwater flow in similar buried systems where logging and hydrogeological information are scarce.

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1- INTRODUCTION

Groundwater is an important resource in many areas of the world because of its widespread distribution compared to that of surface water. Nevertheless, many areas rely on consolidated sedimentary rock aquifers whose hydrogeological properties are related to secondary processes such as fracturing or dissolution. Their geological architecture is hence highly heterogeneous and, therefore, it controls groundwater flow magnitude and direction along preferential flow paths.

For instance, the studies of alluvial fan aquifers are usually based on limited geological data that simply provide a general description of these systems. Such studies include the Choshui fan-delta in Taiwan (Chen and Liu 2003; 2005; Peng et al. 2014), and the Dead-Sea fan deltas (Yechieli et al. 2010). All these studies are based on subsurface data to describe rock bodies' geometry, permeability, barriers location, and other hydrogeological features. The lateral lithostratigraphic changes and the basement/boundary characteristics of these formations can largely affect groundwater flow and its quality. In this sense, lithological variations may naturally lead to the occurrence of natural substances (i.e, hardness, sulfate, sodium and/or trace elements) that affect the quality of groundwater resources (Li et al. 2014; Mas-Pla et al. 2016).

From a sedimentological point of view, alluvial fans and alluvial fan deltas have been extensively studied (Arenas et al. 2001; Benvenuti 2003; Blair 2000; DeCelles et al. 1991; Harvey et al. 2005; Sohn et al. 1999), as well as their relationship with fossil fuel

and groundwater resources (e.g., Galloway and Hobday 1996). Petroleum geology methods as facies modelling and geostatistics have also been applied to deltaic and alluvial systems such as the one studied in this paper, hence stratigraphic and sedimentological features are well known for these geological system (e.g., Cabello et al. 2011).

In order to contribute to the understanding of the hydrogeological processes in fossil fan deltas as in mountain areas, we present a stratigraphic and hydrogeological study of the Paleogene fan delta of Sant Llorenç del Munt (Barcelona, NE Spain), a well-exposed mountain range massif with extensive and clear outcrops, with numerous springs and some groundwater exploitation wells. Such particularities allow characterizing its hydrogeological system in detail as an example of these groundwater flow systems. Here, we describe a geohydrological conceptual model by integrating geology (tectonic structure, stratigraphy, lateral sedimentary changes, mapping and subsurface data) and groundwater hydrology (pumping tests, major ion hydrochemistry and environmental isotopes). We especially focus on how the overall flow pattern and water resources storage are affected by the less permeable rock types and the structural setting of the massif.

Study area

The study area is located in the SE margin of the geological Ebro Basin, and it is attached to the Catalan Costal Ranges (Fig. 1a, b). The Cenozoic Ebro basin is a foreland basin bounded by three mountain ranges: the Pyrenees to the N and the Catalan Coastal Ranges (CCR) and the Iberian Ranges to SE and SW, respectively. During the middle and late Eocene this basin was connected to the Atlantic and at the basin margin several fan deltas developed, including that of Sant Llorenç del Munt (Maestro 1987; López-Blanco 1996). Sediment source areas from SE fans were the

CCR, which constituted an Alpine fold and thrust belt containing a Varisc basement and a Mesozoic cover (Anadón et al. 1985a; 1985b; López-Blanco 1994; 2006).

The subaerial part of this delta corresponded to an alluvial fan with a proximal area dominated by gravel-size sediments, and in the distal part, sand and mud accumulated. In its submarine part, a sandy delta front and a muddy prodelta also developed. Episodes of carbonate sedimentary deposition on the shelf are also found in the stratigraphic series. Presently, all these sediments are found as cemented rocks, and they constitute an isolated mountain massif (mainly conglomerate and sandstone) of 1104 m of maximum altitude, with nearly 600 m reliefs. The massif undergoes differential erosion depending on the different resistance to denudation of its distinct sedimentary layers and tectonic elements (faults and joints).

Two distinct typologies of factures have been described in the Sant Llorenç del Munt conglomeratic formations: interjoints and megajoints (Andrés et al. 1964; Freixes 1986). Interjoints are preferentially developed in meter-thick layers that show a fragile behaviour under tectonic stress. Megajoints cross the whole conglomerate bodies with thicknesses from tens to hundreds of meters. Lithology, grain size and thickness of each lithofacies type (i.e., the sedimentary facies) define the fracture pattern, and consequently the hydraulic connectivity within each unit, as stated by Alsaker et al. (1996) for the nearby and geologically equivalent Montserrat massif conglomerates. In broad terms, fracture frequency is higher as bedding thickness and grain size decreases, creating a heterogeneous spatial (horizontal as well as vertical) distribution of porosity which is paramount to describe the hydrogeological behaviour and water resources yield of alluvial fan sedimentary formations.

Average climatic conditions in the area, accordding to the three observatories located at altitudes between 321 and 528 m asl, are mean temperature of 13.30°C, 624 mm of rainfall, and an actual evapotransporation of 488 mm, which represent a 78.3% of the

mean precipitation. Population of the municipalities included in the study area is of 58,885 inhabitants (IDESCAT 2016). Water supply relies on water transfer from other bains (Llobregat-Ter), so groundwater resources basically satisfy the 30% of the population needs. No significant agricultural demand exists in the area. Land use in the study area is mainly Mediterranean forestry (89.4%) rather than agriculture (1.2% in 2000; Grau et al. 2007)

2- METHODS

2.1- Geological methods

Acquisition of surface geology consisted in geological mapping and rock characterization. Geological mapping for the central Sant Llorenç del Munt fan delta was mainly conducted at 1:5000 scale (Anglés and Maestro 2010-2011), while for the surrounding areas we redrawed the 1:50.000 geological map (after ICGC 2003; 2010; 2011a; 2011b). The geological map is summarized in Fig. 1c and is it constitutes the basis for drawing distinct cross sections of hydrogeological interest that also include borehole information. Geological mapping and depositional system analysis have provided the identification of the main lithological units. More importantly, they have determined the spatial distribution and geometry of the main lithological units, accounting also for structural elements, such as fractures, to build up a basic geohydrological frame of the system. Field measurements of fracture densities in the sedimentary formations also complement the hydrogeological information.

Field rock description provided parameters such as lithology, conglomerate grain composition, color, texture (grain size, sorting), porosity, internal structure and morphology of rock bodies (morphology and lateral fingering of different rock types)

and the occurrence of fractures and joints. Representative samples from all rock types were used to obtain sixteen thin sections. We applied two staining types, yellow dye to visualize porosity and Alizarin red S and Potassium ferricyanide for the determination of calcite (Lindholm and Finkelman 1972). Two types of porosity are observed in the petrographic microscope: microfractures and, in lesser proportion, intergranular porosity. Percentages of porosity vs particles and cement were evaluated with comparison charts. Based on optical mineralogy the main constituents of the sandy fraction and cement were identified. This provided percentages of silicate minerals, calcite, dolomite and others (see details in Anglés 2013). This characterization is of paramount importance to correlate rock units with hydrogeological and hydrochemical features.

2.2- Hydrogeological methods

Well testing

Three pumping tests were carried out in July of 2012: S.LL-22 (300 m depth), S.LL-31 (335 m) and S.LL-27 (389 m). Data from two previous essays have been revisited: S.LL-24 (51 m) and S.LL-25 (164 m). Tests were conducted once recovery was completed from previous pumping periods. Tests consisted of pumping and recovery time spans lasting between 2 and 4 hours. The hydraulic head during the test was measured manually with water level meter and/or with piezometric pressure probes (Mini-diver, Schlumberger).

Hydrochemical sampling and analysis

The hydrochemical dataset consists of 31 and 38 water samples collected during two field surveys: summer 2011 and spring 2012, respectively, coinciding with periods of drought and rain. Sampling points (Fig. 2) account for twenty eight natural springs and

eleven wells with depths between 4 and 389 m. Five samples of the total are not directly located on the Eocene substrate (S.LL-04, S.LL-09, S.LL.-10, S.LL-28 and S.LL.-38), but they correspond to Quaternary sedimentary deposits, most of them alluvial formations, located along the Sant Llorenç del Munt drainage network. Water stable isotopic data (oxygen-18 (δ^{18} O) and deuterium (δ D)) were only collected during the summer 2011 survey.

Samples for hydrochemical and isotopic analysis were taken from natural springs and active water supply wells. We ensured that at least three casing volumes were removed from each bore prior to sampling, therefore samples are an integration of all productive layers along the borehole. Physicochemical parameters (pH, electrical conductivity, and temperature) were measured in situ using a flow cell to avoid contact with the atmosphere. After filtration (0.45 μ m), samples were processed in the field and stored at 4 °C in a dark environment for subsequent transport and analyses.

In the laboratory, alkalinity (as HCO_3^- , since pH < 8.3; mean $pH = 7.39\pm0.04$ in 2011, and 7.21 ± 0.06 in 2012) was measured by titration (METROHM 702SM Titrino). Anion (NO_3^- , $SO_4^{2^-}$ and CI^-) content was measured by Capillary Electrophoresis (Agilent Technologies) using indirect UV detection; concentrations of Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2^+} were measured by Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES, Perkin Elmer 4300 DV). The quality of the chemical analysis was checked by performing an ionic mass balance, with an error lower than 5%. Water stable isotopes were analyzed in a Finnigan Matt Delta S Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS) coupled to an automated line based on the equilibration between H-water and H_2 gas with a Pt catalyst, and between O-water and CO_2 gas following standard methods (Epstein and Mayeda, 1953). Notation is expressed in terms of δ % relative to the international standards V-SMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Oceanic Water) for δ D and δ 18O. The precision (\equiv 1 σ) of the samples calculated from international and internal

standards systematically interspersed in the analytical batches was $\pm 1.5\%$ for δD and $\pm 0.2\%$ for $\delta^{18}O$.

3-RESULTS

3.1-Geology

Ten distinct rock types (i.e., lithofacies) have been identified in the Sant Llorenç del Munt system (SLMS) on the basis of distinctive lithologic, mineralogical, textural and hydrogeological features which are described in detail in Table 1 and summarized in Figs. 3 and 4. Indeed, the main groundwater flow in the SLMS is basically dependent on fractures (joints and faults, see Andrés 1964; Freixes 1986; Alsaker et al. 1996), since intergranular porosity is very low (<5%).

The following 10 rock types, summarized in Table 1, are ordered from coarser to thinner grain size (i.e, from proximal to distal sedimentary facies):

1-Clast-supported polygenic conglomerate (Cp): this is the most widespreaded lithofacies of the SLMS massif (26% of its surface). The polygenic composition of its grains is due to the different origin of the source rocks, mainly belonging to the Variscan basement (e.g., Paleozoic phyllites and other crystalline rocks). Grains are clast supported, and matrix is sandy. The cement is calcitic. Thin section determinations established a microporosity value around 1-5% of the sample surface (i.e., microfractures plus intergranular porosity). This lithology creates homogeneous packages of massive conglomerate, facilitating the development of penetrative and spaced joints and faults that easily exceed 100 meters of vertical extension.

2-Clast-supported carbonate conglomerate (Cc) account only for the 7% of the SLMS surface, but are of particular hydrogeological importance. The clast-supported carbonate conglomerate is predominantly composed (around 80% of the grains) by carbonate Mesozoic cobbles (mainly derived from Triassic rocks). Matrix is sandy and it has poor clay and silt content. The cement is calcitic. These deposits are widely spreaded throughout the alluvial fan system and each deposit has a maximum thickness of 20-30 m. They are interbedded with type Cp. Microporosity (i.e., microfractures plus intergranular porosity) is between 1 and 5% of the sample surface. Significantly, this type presents a close-spaced fracture net, that represents the sum of interjoints (Andrés 1964), which are restricted to Cc beds, plus background joints (megajoints), and other faults that affect the conglomeratic formation as a whole (Fig. 5a).

3-Grey conglomerate (Cg) has a gravel frame and a sandy matrix with few silts and clays. Its outcropping percentage in the system is around the 7% in areal extension. They are deposited in front of the distal part of all conglomerate types (Fig. 3). Laterally, they are connected to the latter and evolve to sands towards inner basin areas. They may have a dense fracture net. This is a relevant rock type for subsurface water dynamics, since it connects conglomerates with gray sandstone layers (Sg).

4-Matrix-supported polygenic conglomerate (Cmp) accounts for around the 5% of the SLMS and are found as limited layers within Cp conglomerate layers. Their fracturing pattern resembles that of the Cp. Fracture pattern is in continuity with Cp joints, except in the thicker Cmp levels.

5-Matrix-supported carbonate conglomerate (Cmc) accounts for around the 5% of the SLMS, and they are found as limited layers within Cc conglomerates. In both cases, the matrix of the Cmp and Cmc is constituted by sandy/muddy sediments of

siliceous composition. Microporosity is around 1-5%, and fractures are poorly defined (except in the small layers interbedded within Cp or Cc).

6-Breccia of Paleozoic clasts (Bp) has a small surface extension around 2% of the SLMS (Figs. 1c and 4), and, because of this, it is not actually relevant for this study. It has a muddy matrix-supported texture which is responsible for low granular porosity. Also, its internal disorganization contributes to create a poorly developed fracture net. No aquifers have been assigned in this rock type, and it is considered as an aquiclude. Detailed description of these levels is found in Anadón (1978).

7-Red sandstone and mudstone (SMr) is an interbedded type that has a very poor to moderate sorting. Accounts for around the 22% of the SLMS, and they mainly appear in the distal alluvial fan and fan fringe areas (with maximum extent of 1.5 km in front of the alluvial fan). Microporosity is around 1% (mainly microfractures). Fractures are restricted to sandy layers, and they do not propagate into the bounding mudstones.

8-Grey sandstone (Sg) has a moderate to well sorted grain size. It accounts for around the 15% of the SLMS, and these layers are arranged in thickening and coarsening upwards cycles that have a thickness of decametric order. These cycles (Fig. 3) have a succession that begins with marls (Mgb, see below) and progress towards enriched sandstone layers (strictly, Sg) to finally evolve to grey conglomerates (Cg; Fig. 5b). These cycles provide well defined Sg and Cg units vertically isolated between marl layers (Mgb, see below).

9-Grey-blue mudstone (Mgb) shows a marl composition, and it has a bulky appearance. It accounts for around the 9% of the SLMS area. Despite its loose appearance due to weathering, with a badland morphology where it outcrops, the fresh rock is cohesive and it stands as a clear groundwater flow barrier because of its low hydraulic conductivity.

10-Limestone (**LM**) is alternating with marls and has a packstone to grainstone texture. Matrix is micritic and, locally, is a boundstone. Stratification is massive and nodular and it provides tabular rock bodies with thickness of metric to decametric order. It accounts for around the 2% of the SLMS and laterally and basinward evolves to Sg and Mgb, respectively. Microporosity is around 1% and fractures are well developed.

As observed in Figs. 3 and 4, all these rocktypes are arranged as lateral facies changes that grade progressively from proximal alluvial conglomerates (Cp, Cc, Cmp and Cmc) to distal alluvial sandstones and mudstone (fan fringe, SMr), to delta front sandstones (Sg, Cg) and prodelta marls (Mgb). Shallow water limestones (LM) grade laterally both to Mgb and Sg. The obtained correlation based on geological data, defines the architecture of rock types Sg, Cg and Mgb (Fig. 4, cross section A-A') that is the result of the ancient sea level relative fluctuations. Successive regressions and transgressions forced the emplacement of the delta front as a result of relative sea level lowstands and highstands, respectively. As we will see later, the basinwards shift of Cg during maximum progradation episodes will be particularly relevant for the hydrodynamics of the system.

3.2-Hydrogeology

The lack of wells and observations points (piezometers) within the Sant Llorenç Range does not permit neither setting approximate hydraulic head values in the study area, nor defining an approximate potentiometric map for the massif. Indirect knowledge could derive form the altitude of spring occurrence (Tables S1 and S2), yet their location depends on diverse geological factors that impede reporting any reliable cartography.

Manual hydraulic head measurements or using pressure loggers have been conducted at the same supply wells where the pumping tests have been conducted. Well

stratigraphy, screened intervals and test details are given in Table 2, showing that some wells can be understood as exploiting a multilayered aquifer of similar lithological/stratigraphic characteristics in all their depths. Head values represent thus an averaged value of all layers. In this sense, maximum head elevations (a.s.l.) were recorded at 191 m, 325 m, and 455 m for wells S.LL-27, S.LL-22, and S.LL-31, respectively, corresponding to the integrated head among all productive layers crossed by the borehole. Inside the Sant Llorenç del Munt range, stratigraphic layers and discontinuities produce perched aquifers that are the origin of the multiple springs disseminated along the Sant Llorenç del Munt massif.

Continuous head records in S.LL-31 and S.LL-27 wells showed some immediate response to rainfall events with a time lag of few days (1-6 days; Anglés 2013, Figs. S1 and S2). This suggests that pressure variations from the recharge areas are efficiently registered in these wells. Despite the multilayered nature of these boreholes and their daily pumping activity, some interpretations can be made. Thus, the time lag between the rainfall event and the pressure increase is interpreted as the time needed for recharging water to cross the unsaturated zone and treach the water table when the increase of head will be recorded as a pressure increase in the well records. This is consistent with the hydrochemical and isotopic data.

A diagnostic analysis of the pumping tests performed at constant discharge has been conducted based on the logarithmic derivative of the drawdown ($\partial s/\partial \ln t$) as a function of time in the log-log scale (Renard et al. 2008). The logarithmic derivative is sensitive to variations of the shape of the drawdown curve, so it allows to detect behaviors that will otherwise remain unnoticed. In this sense, derivative plots reveal a diminution of the derivative value which is attributed to the effect of a potential double porosity of geological relevance as the derivative value recovers after its former decrease (Fig. 6). Double porosity responses are noticed in wells S.LL-22 and S.LL-31. In particular, well S.LL-22 shows this behavior at early time (5 min), followed by progressive increase of

the derivative value. Conversely, well S.LL-31 shows a complex behavior between 15 and 50 minutes, approximately, that later recovers to a smooth curve. The double porosity effect is associated with the later smooth decrease (40-50 min), while the first unordered decrease (15-20 min) is attributed to the effect of small, local heterogeneities of the media. Pumping test at well S.LL-.27 also shows a decline in its derivative value after 30 min, attributable to a double porosity effect, yet its drawdown and derivative value abruptly increase as a result of the effect of a no-flow boundary.

Theis equation have been used to simulate drawdown at a distance similar to well radiuses, being aware that this assumption represents an approximation to the actual drawdown, reporting the fitted values of T and S using the minimum square difference criteria between observed and simulated data (Figure 6). Early time linear behavior at well S.LL-27, with an approximate slope of 0.5, is associated to a major fault intersected by the well that only influences the early behavior, as after minute 10 the aquifer shows a radial flow according to Theis model. Early time discrepancies at well S.LL-31 are due to a well-storage effect. In each case, Theis equation can thus adequately be used to estimate the hydraulic properties of the aquifer in the vicinity of the well restricted by the short duration of the tests. Nevertheless, it is geologically significant that the double porosity effect and the occurrence of a no-flow boundary (S.LL-27) have been identified throught the diagnostic analysis.

In addition, four pumping tests with variable pumping rate (Table 2, all except S.LL-.27; Fig. 7) were also calibrated using an optimization algorithm that solves Theis equation for variable linear discharge rates based on the formulation by Tsang et al. (1977) that uses Duhamel's superposition integral (Mas-Pla et al. 1999). This procedure allows a simultaneous simulation of drawdown, some of them with variable pumping rates, and recovery data at the borehole radiuses distances, as no observation wells were available nearby these production wells. According to this procedure, storage coefficient values can also be considered for the recovery analysis.

Tests at wells S.LL-22 and S.LL-31 had shorter duration (they lasted 120 and 240 min, respectively), and they were conducted, as already mentioned, under uniform withdrawal rate till the pumping ceased. Recovery was observed during the period lengths at each well. Hydraulic head simulations using fitted T and S values are able to concurrently reproduce the drawdown and the recovery limbs considering Theis assumptions, yet they fail to reproduce the maximum observed drawdown which seemed not to have attained a uniform depth by the time the pump was turned off (Fig. 7, Table 2). Based on the former analysis of drawdown derivatives, such difference between observed and simulated maximum drawdown for the best optimized T and S values at larger times is attributed to double porosity effects. In the SLMS case, it is due to a change of fracture aperture, density or connectivity (as it can be seen in Fig. 5). Fitted values using the whole drawdown ands recovery records (Fig. 7) brings out T and S values consistent with those using Theis equation on the drawdown data only (Fig. 6), indicating that, on the whole, the exploited levels behave as confined aguifers. Pumping tests conducted at variable pumping rates in S.LL-24 and S.LL-25 wells had longer durations (24 h, each), reaching a stabilized drawdown by the end of the pumping period (Fig. 6, Table 2). In the S.LL-24 test, the deep drawdown attained at 200 min, and which seems to persist until the end of the pumping period, is not reproduced by the simulation even though well discharge variations are considered by the algorithm. This fact points out the influence of geological heterogeneity on the hydraulic response of the aquifer system, suggesting the role of discrete elements such as fractures. In the S.LL-25 well, however, the initial high drawdown caused by a pumping rate peak is well reproduced by the model, as well as the overall trend of the drawdown. This indicates that a more homogeneous rock volume is affected by this well depression cone. Its final drawdown was well reproduced in both tests, so the T and S values can be assumed to be representative of these hydrogeological units. Simulated recovery is slower than observed data in both wells.

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S.LL-27 pumping test brings out a clear example of the system's heterogeneity, as already discussed in the diagnostic analysis. Drawdown shows two distinct developed curves under a steady pumping rate (Fig. 8). The increased drawdown rate observed after 70 min points out the occurrence of some impervious boundary that highly controls the flow towards the well, defining thus an aquifer of limited extent. Therefore, it would be inappropriate using Theis approach to solve for the hydrogeological parameters using the entire drawdown record. Contrarily, it is worth noting that both withdrawal segments also achieve clear straight lines in semilog plot (Fig. 8b) that permit the interpretation of the first reach using the Cooper-Jacob method. T value (T=0.70 m²/d) is in the lower rank of those found in the other tests. The second segment indicates the existence of an impervious boundary, and it points out that this multilayer aquifer (Table 2) can be considered, at large, a true confined aquifer as drawdown data lays on a clear straight line. Furthermore, the S value is approximate and, therefore, it must be taken with caution as the S value estimated by the Cooper-Jacob method depends on the radius from the observation well to the withdrawal well, and it has been equaled to the borehole radius. Unfortunately, the pumping test did not last long enough to observe whether if a steady drawdown was finally reached. Moreover, the lack of a true observation well doesn't allow estimating the distance to the impervious boundary using the time at which the break of the slope takes place (e.g., Chapius 1994).

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The highest transmissivity values are found in S.LL-22 well (T \approx 15 m²/d) which is drilled in conglomerates (Cp rock type; Table 2). All other wells show lower values, being the lowest found in sandstone layers (Sg) interbedded within mudstone levels (Mgb) constituting a multilayered aquifer, as in the S.LL-27 well (T \approx 0.65 m²/d). Consolidated strata as conglomerates and sandstones show dense fracture nets, and since their intergranular porosity is low (<0.05) but the fitted storage coefficient values are quite large (\approx 0.25-0.30) we thus deduce that hydraulic conductivity mainly results

from fractures and their interconnectivity. Nevertheless, differences between the observed drawdown data and reproduced drawdown curves based on Theis assumptions reveal the heterogeneity of the system, as 1) the occurrence of impervious boundaries attributed to lateral facies variations, as clearly observed in the S.LL-27 well; and 2) the occurrence of double porosity effects identified in the diagnostic analysis of these test conducted at a constant discharge rate. Despite the importance of the fracture network in the recharge dynamics, these pumping tests also point out that the exploited aquifer levels mostly behave as confined aquifers, underlining the role of low permeability layers (SMr and Mgb types) as confining units.

3.3-Hydrochemistry

Based on the hydrochemical datasets of the field surveys carried out in summer 2011 and spring 2012 (Tables S1 and S2), several groundwater hydrochemical facies are defined according to their major component content and the drilled lithostratigraphic unit, as summarized in Table 3. No major hydrochemical changes are observed in the Pipper plot between both surveys (Fig. 9) suggesting some steadiness in the system dynamics. Five hydrochemical groups are found ('A' to 'E'):

Hydrochemical group 'A' is mainly defined by natural spring samples with a HCO_3 -Ca facies that are hosted in Cp and SMr rock types. This is the dominant group, including 80% of the samples. Two other common characteristics of group 'A' are its relatively moderate temperature (mean T: $14.7\pm0.2^{\circ}$ C in 2011, and $13.7\pm0.4^{\circ}$ C in 201; SM) and electrical conductivity (mean EC: $702\pm16~\mu$ S/cm in 2011, and $694\pm16~\mu$ S/cm in 2012, SM). Despite the considerable percentage of dolomite in Cp layers and Cc (24.2% and 67.3%, respectively; Table 1) groundwater samples in group 'A' have a low Mg content atributed to the low solubility of dolomite with respect to calcite. The low mineralization levels and the absence of dissolved Mg point out a short transit time within these

434 aquifer levels. Also within this group, natural springs as S.LL-06, 04, 15, and 17 show 435 slightly higher values of Na and CI (increments of few units of mg/L) that are attributed 436 to weak cation exchange, as they do not actually stand out in the plots of Fig. 10. 437 These ions cannot either be associated to agricultural practices or human sources as 438 nitrate content is rather low (mean value 3.16±0.52 mg NO₃/L; Tables S1 and S2; 439 Menció et al. 2016). 440 Hydrochemical group 'B' is represented by a single sampling point, the Marina well 441 (S.LL-31), showing a HCO₃-Ca-Mg-Na. This well data, when compared with 'A' group, 442 stands out by its lower Ca content, yet higher Na and Mg (Fig. 9). This fact could result 443 from Na/Ca exchange related to clay occurrence in SMr strata, which are found 444 interlayered within Cp units (Fig. 4; and Table 2), giving a high Na/Ca ratio (Fig. 10). 445 However, the increase in Mg cannot be associated to the hosting lithology as its 446 percentage of dolomite is low (1.0% in SMr; Table 1). Therefore, it must be assumed 447 that a slow flow originated in the saturated zone of the Cp unit provides such Mg 448 enrichment by dolomite dissolution. This hydrochemical composition, involving dolomite 449 dissolution and cation exchange processes, derives then from a larger water-rock 450 interaction and a longer transit time of this sample compared to those of group 'A', 451 which is consistent on the hydraulic properties of a sandstone and mudstone formation 452 (SMr; Fig. 11). 453 Group 'C' samples are generally characterized by HCO₃-Ca-Mg facies which is 454 attributed to the mineralogy of the grey sandstone (Sg) where wells are drilled (Fig.9). 455 Despite the general Mg enrichment shown by the group C samples, the different Mg 456 content in samples S.LL-29 and S.LL-30, justifies gathering them into a new subgroup 457 'C2'. Given the low proportion of dolomite in the grey sandstones (Table 1), it is 458 assumed that Mg content is obtained in preceding up-gradient formations, as Cp or Cc,

and its subsequent flow across the delta front facies. Indeed, Sq rock types display

hexahidrite $(MgSO_4 \cdot 6H_2O)$ and

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surface

efflorescences such as

 $(MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O;\ Mata-Perelló\ 1990).$ Such occurrence of SO_4 , attributed to pyrite oxidation, may enhance dedolomitization of the small dolomite content of the Sg sedimentary rocks, adding some additional Mg to groundwater. Indeed, Otero et al. (2007) studied the Calders and Mura streams (located 4 and 8 kilometers to the northeast) which drain through similar lithologies and concluded that SO_4 originates from the oxidation of pyrite which is found scattered (mineral dissemination) within the marl layers. Thus, dolomite (or Mg-rich calcite) and pyrite hosted in marine rock types can be dissolved by groundwater, enhanced by the occurrence of SO_4 , and provide such high concentrations of Mg and SO_4 .

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Likewise, group 'D' samples actually display a similar significant increase in the amounts of SO₄ and Mg with respect to the former groups (Fig. 9), accompanied by an increase of EC (1251 \pm 265 μ S/cm in 2011, and 1135 \pm 198 μ S/cm in 2012; n=3). This enrichment is due to potential groundwater pathways within the aforementioned rocks enhanced by dedolomitization processes within the sedimentary units of marine origin, rich in SO₄ and Mg. Two distinct subgroups can be envisaged within group 'D': HCO₃-Mg-Ca (subgroup 'D1'), and HCO₃-SO₄-Mg-Ca (subgroup 'D2'; Table 3). 'D1' samples (i.e., S.LL-26 and S.LL-25) are located downgradient from the main recharge area (i.e., the summit of the Sant Llorenç del Munt massif) following the northwest dipping of strata, and they display an increase of the overall solute content (EC = 1050 µS/cm). The 'D2' subgroup is represented by the S.LL-24 well that is located in the Llobregat River valley. The well profile and design, together with its geological setting (Table 2), thrust aside any chance of surface water recharge due to hydraulic connectivity with the Llobregat River. Thus, its higher mineralization (1768 µS/cm in 2011) with respect to 'D1' (888 and 1097 µS/cm) must be result of intense subsurface water rockinteraction with a distinct pathway across the different lithological layers. Large values of SO₄ and CI, and the location of these wells in the hydrogeochemical conceptual scheme (Fig. 13) suggest a longer transit time.

Finally, group 'E' is only defined at the S.LL-27 deep well (389 m). It shows high EC values (1291 μ S/cm in 2011, and 1217 μ S/cm in 2012; n=1) and HCO₃-Na facies. Such sample also presents a high CI content attribuited to clay weathering; Ca depletion is interpreted as a result of the cationic Na/Ca exchange that takes place in clay layers (Mgb layers; Figure 10). Both, the high chloride content and intense cationic exchange, also implies long residence times (Tóth 1995; 2000; Carrillo-Rivera et al. 2007; Folch et al. 2011; Anders et al. 2013). This 'E' group also shows some SO₄ enrichment with respect to group 'A' reflecting the influence of marine rock types in groundwater hydrochemistry.

3.4-Environmental isotopes ($\delta^{18}O$, δD)

Groundwater stable isotope data (especially those of hydrochemical groups 'A' and 'B') cluster together around mean values of $\delta^{18}O$ = -8.17±0.04‰ and δD = -49.05±0.20‰, in an area located above the Global Meteoric Water Line (δD = 8 $\delta^{18}O$ + 10; Craig 1961; Figure 12). The closest local meteoric line was defined at the Montseny Range, about 40 km NE and at an elevation of 700 m (Neal et al. 1992). This local meteoric line (δD = 7.9±0.4 $\delta^{18}O$ + 10.0±3.2, n=29, r²=0.93) assumes a d-excess enrichment as that of the mean Mediterranean Meteoric Water Line (δD = 8 $\delta^{18}O$ + 15) defined by Lambán and Custodio (1999). Indeed, d-excess values of these samples lays in the range between 12 and 18‰, which is also close to the range defined by Plata Bedmar (1994) for the groundwater isotopic content in Iberian Mediterranean basins, and consistent with the mentioned meteoric lines. Altitudinal isotopic gradients defined at nearby areas (Montseny range; Carmona et al. 2000; and eastern Pyrenees; Brusi et al. 2011) indicate that isotopic contents are consistent with the Sant Llorenç del Munt elevations, and that the variation of 1‰ $\delta^{18}O$ rightly covers the altitudinal difference existing between the summit and the surrounding valleys.

Most of the wells have their stable isotopic values arranged along a line of slope of 5 and an approximate origin at $\delta^{18}O = -8.2\%$, $\delta D = -50\%$. This fact indicates that deep groundwater within the massif, pertaining to longer transit times flowlines, has undergone some evaporation processes that have enriched their isotopic water content. Only three springs show a similar tendency. Given the geological setup of the SLMS, it can be conceived that springs respond to local, perched aquifer systems at distinct altitudes with a short residence time within the system. Indeed, the alluvial fan formation can be understood as a stratigraphically and tectonically compartmentalized system (Llopis 1944; Andrés 1964; Freixes 1986), as already deduced from the pumping tests. Contrarily, wells of hundreds of meters depth are recharged by a large scale regional system that, due to the local orography, presents a wide unsaturated zone of hundreds of meters from the land surface to the water table. It is therefore reasonable to assume that some evaporation may occur during rainfall subsurface percolation along the fractures towards the water table. Deviation from the meteoric line cannot be attributed to geographical effects, as continentality, since the distance between the closest and further points from the Mediterranean Sea is just of 10 km. According to Gonfiantini (1986) equations, the most evaporated groundwater sample (that is, S.LL.30) shows an evaporation percentage around 5%, assuming an isotopic composition of the atmospheric vapor of $\delta^{18}O=-12\%$, $\delta D=-86\%$, and an observed mean daily relative humidity of 70.0±0.2% (Rellinars Observatory 2007-2017; RURALCAT 2017). Even though the displacement from the meteoric line shown by evaporated samples seems dramatic when plotted as in Fig. 12, it only stands for a small percentage of water loss through evaporation in the unsaturated zone, even though this 5% loss represents a large volume of water at a regional scale. Although this is quantitatively inconsequential, it supports the interpretation of two distinct

hydrogeological systems within the SLMS from a conceptual perspective: 1) a local one

represented by spring data (mainly, group 'A'), which has not undergone isotopic

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fractionation, determined by the compartmentation of the main aquifers by fractures and low permeability layers, and 2) a regional system that includes the general recharge all over the mountain range. This regional system recharges the deepest aquifer layers by downward percolation through a wide vadose zone. The good alignment of well isotopic data along an evaporation trend line assumes that groundwater is largely homogenized during the infiltration process. The role of distinct fracture systems with different hydraulic behaviors as double porosity, as also observed from field outcrops, contributes to the homogenization of the infiltrating recharge reflected by the isotopic data.

Sample from geochemical group 'E' doesn't show any evaporation trend, suggesting a complex (mixed) circulation flow (see Fig. 13). Its sodium-bicarbonate facies would be caused by water-rock interaction processes occurring within the delta front environment (Sg and Mgb). This geochemical group is based on data from a single well, so complementary data could provide further information.

4- DISCUSSION AND CONCEPTUAL FLOW MODEL

Geological information compiled in the Sant Llorenç del Munt massif (Fig. 4) permits a comprehensive three-dimensional understanding of the lateral and vertical relationships among the ten rock types. Lithofacies characteristics and diversity originated as a result of sediment accumulation in each part of the alluvial fan system. Further diagenetic processes will define the degree of compaction and cementation accordding to their original textural features. Such intrinsic primary sedimentological features, altogether with fracturation pattern (Alsaker et al. 1996), determine the Sant

Llorenç de Munt hydrogeological system final structure; that is, the occurrence of distinct geohydrologic compartments at different scales. Stratigrapical and tectonic elements -namely, lithology, layer geometry and its lateral continuity, tilting and fracturing- become the key features that govern groundwater flow at the SLMS, configuring a compartmental system with two main hydrological dynamics.

Geomorphological evolution widens fracture apertures near the surface due to decompression and weathering, which will also be less intensive in depth. This implies that aquifer transmissivity will decrease in depth. Therefore, structural factors lastly define the geometry of the aquifers within the SLMS as well as its hydraulic parameters (transmissivity and storage coefficient). Indeed, pumping test analysis has pointed out the occurrence of impervious boundaries and the occurrence of different porosities (Fig. 6) in the flow system associated to the depositional units (specially, those with low hydraulic conductivity levels) and to the tectonic features of this mountain massif.

Hydrochemical and isotopic data provide an explanation of the groundwater flow path and of the relative transit times with the SLMS. Different hydrochemical facies illustrate the hydrochemical sequence that takes place within the system (Table 3). In general, most of the natural springs (group 'A') and some few wells present low EC and bicarbonate-calcium facies, which are indicative of low transit times within the system. Other groups show larger proportions of Mg, Na, Cl and SO₄ that are attributed to the effect of groundwater flowpaths through distinct stratigraphic formations, as pointed out by Mg occurrence and distribution. Indeed, Mg and SO₄ enrichment indicate the influence of dolomite dissolution, whereas Na enrichment is caused by cationic exchange (Fig. 10) in clay-rich strata. Given the geological mapping and cross-sections of the area, hydrochemical facies of the well samples are fully justified by the predominant rock type around the borehole and along the regional flow-paths (Fig. 13).

In this sense, meteoric water recharge would be characterized as a group 'A' facies in the initial reach of the downward groundwater flow path. Infiltration through conglomerates mainly generates a bicarbonate-calcium facies, constituting a local hydrological system. As groundwater flows within the system, it becomes enriched in Mg, CI and/or Na; as, for instance, sample of 'B' group, which represents a more evolved water within the alluvial fan area. Moreover, red sandstones and mudstones (SMr), which are laterally between conglomerates (Cp, Cc) and grey sandstones (Sg) layers, act as a low permeability boundary, impeding groups 'A' and 'B' waters to continue its flow towards the Sg sandstones and other down-gradient locations.

Infiltration through megajoints is facilitated by the fracture network which also allows hydraulic connection across low permeability layers. Eventually, bicarbonate-calcium groundwater (group 'A') flows from alluvial fan conglomerates (Cp and Cc types) to delta front conglomerates and sandstones (Cg and Sg types, respectively), generating a second, large scale system. This happens basically in the upper part of the maximum progradation episodes (see before), resulting in an enrichment of Mg, SO₄, Na and Cl (groups 'C' and 'D' samples), and a depletion in Ca due to cation exchange processes, that finally defines group 'E' groundwater samples. Therefore, flow towards the Sg formations is due to the fracture network and some lateral progression of the Cp to Cg types that overcome the low hydraulic conductivity unit represented by SMr layers (Fig. 13). Recharge of the grey sandstone (Sg formation) also occurs by surface water infiltration.

From a hydrochemical perspective, surface water atain (partial) equilibrium with atmospheric conditions, and this may result in a loss of bicarbonate when it infiltrates an mixes with groundwater (group 'D'). Resulting water undergoes further equilibration with the Sg formation lithology through water-rock interaction. Indeed, stream recharge is reinforced in some locations near Talamanca by small dams built to retain water and enhance infiltration.

Isotopic data supports the stated hydrochemical evolution. Groups 'A' and 'B' samples, which include all natural springs and few wells, show a small isotopic variability that may just represent the altitude range of the recharges areas in the SLMS. Hydrochemical and isotopic similarity of all natural springs suggest a fast transit time within the system. The compartmentalized nature of the aquifer system defines meshtype geohydrological units limited by sedimentary discontinuities, as fine sediment strata, and fractures. Given the thick conglomeratic units where they appear, the distinct sets of fractures are visibly responsible for controlling such a local flow fields that discharge in natural springs. Locally, fracture flow may also discharge to eroding streams contributing to surface runoff as baseflow. Isotopic data from deep wells, represented by hydrochemical groups 'C' and 'D', show a clear evaporation trend which has been interpreted to be the result of a long pathway through the unsaturated zone/fracture systems before attaining the water table within the mountain range. Such recharge gets homogenized during its downward flow path as suggested by the allocation of the isotopic data along a single evaporation line. To some extent, the evaporation features of group 'C' samples could also be attributed to some temporary subaerial conditions, yet it is plausible that most of the evaporation (up to 5%) takes place in the unsaturated zone because it implies a longer residence time than the atmospheric exposure.

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The hydrochemical enrichment of major ions, as mentioned for these groups, does not occur in the unsaturated zone. Instead, it takes place within the main conglomeratic fractured aquifer that occupies the central part of the SLMS (Cp and Cc formations), and within the delta front lithologies (Cg and Sg formations) as the flowpath advances. In other words, the final hydrochemical content of samples from deep wells is acquired in the central part of the SLMS, homogenized across the unsaturated zone, and completed within the aquifer, below the water table, in equilibrium with the dominant lithology. Dissolution of Mg-reach minerals, pyrite oxidation, clay weathering, and

cation exchange have been identified as the processes that contribute to their final hydrochemical features. Transitory surface flow and its later reinfiltration to the aquifer modifies the hydrochemical composition of same groundwater samples (group 'D'), specially the carbonate system; although the final composition is clearly related to the hosting rock.

In the distal part of the alluvial fan, the occurrence of mudstone layers imbedded in the red sandstones (SMr) originates low hydraulic conductivity bodies, especially the greyblue mudstone unit (Mgb). In addition to the low permeability of these fine sediment layers, fractures (interjoints) in sandstone are not hydraulically effective since they do not propagate through the more plastic mudstone levels. Locally, the basinward displacement of the sedimentary facies belt in the moment of maximum progradation occasionally permited the sedimentation of conglomerates (Cg) in the marine zones which hydraulically connect the alluvial conglomerates (Cp, Cc) with the marine conglomerates and sandstones (Cg, Sg), providing an effective pathway for groundwater flow. An example of such connection is found in S.LL-27 well, whose discharge is significantly depended on one of the conglomerate Cg layers deposited during a maximum progradation episode (Fig. 4).

More importantly, the distal evolution of Sg sandstones to Mgb mudstones, as well as the interfingering of both rock-types, creates an important permeability barrier. This low permeability boundary, assumed as impervious in a simple conceptual hydrogeological model, impedes a groundwater flow further towards de NW, accordding to the main flow direction controlled by the layer tilting. Such impervious depositional boundary acts as a no-flow boundary and it determines the hydraulic head inside the entire SLMS and, consequently, the groundwater storage of the system (Fig. 13).

5-CONCLUSIONS

The hydrogeological study of the Sant Llorenç de Munt alluvial fan system points out the relevance of detailed, comprehensive geological knowledge to the understanding of groundwater dynamics in this mountain area. In this study, stratigraphical, sedimentological and tectonic data have provided the necessary information to build up a geological scheme that explains recharge processes and flow paths. The key geological features to understand groundwater paths within the system are vertical and lateral sedimentary variability (sedimentary architecture) and specifically the occurrence of low hydraulic conductivity units and no-flow limits, shown by the fracture pattern analysis. In this study case, head levels provide limited, fragmentary information because of the lack of monitoring boreholes in the inner part of the massif and the occurrence of perched aquifers favoured by stratigraphic and tectonic features. Pumping tests have also contributed to the understanding of the system. In addition of the hydraulic parameters, drawdown data provide information about the response of the system under exploitation and recharge. Identifying the occurrence of no-flow boundaries, as in S.LL-27 deep well test, and double porosity within the aquifer layers contributes to identify the main the aguifer geological features that govern groundwater flow, and to figure out the extent of its potential exploitation.

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Natural springs are highly valuable to understand the dynamics of the system and to sample for hydrochemical and isotopic data. On one hand, isotopic data reveals a compartmentalized system that recharges and drains groundwater on separate flow subsystems that originate such springs. On the other hand, they also point out that a significant recharge occurs through a thick unsaturated zone within the massif accordding to the evaporation isotopic evidence found in the deepest wells in contrast to that of natural springs. Furthermore, different hydrochemical facies can be clearly defined accordding to the water chemical equilibrium with the distinct lithology of each sedimentary unit.

Geological information validates the definition, first, of local scale flow systems which result in natural springs; that is, those that flow through compartments or blocks limited by sedimentary facies changes and fractures. Secondly, it also defines a large regional flow system that controls the overall regional groundwater flow to lateral formations and is constrained finally by low permeability units.

Geological formations as the Sant Llorenç de Munt mountain area, where the stratigraphical and tectonic structure outcrops and allows the understanding of its geological features, provide a valuable scheme to be used as reference for a groundwater resources efficient exploitation in similar buried systems. Despite the fracture pattern is important for aquifer connectivity, it should not be expected in unconsolidated fans (i.e, in recent, not lithified formations). In any case, sedimentary sequences mostly control the flow field. In this context, hydrochemical and isotopic data stands thus as a complementary and predictive tool to unveil flow characteristics even where limited logging and geological information is available.

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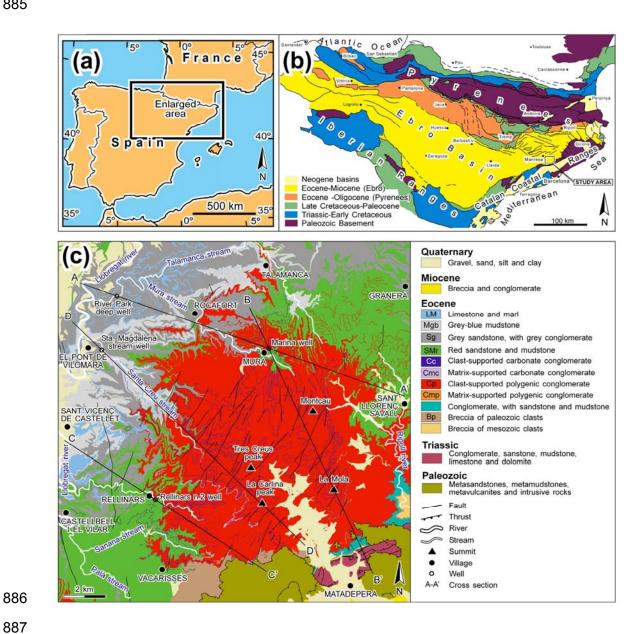


Fig. 1 a, b Geographical and geological setting of the Ebro Basin; c Geological map of the study area.

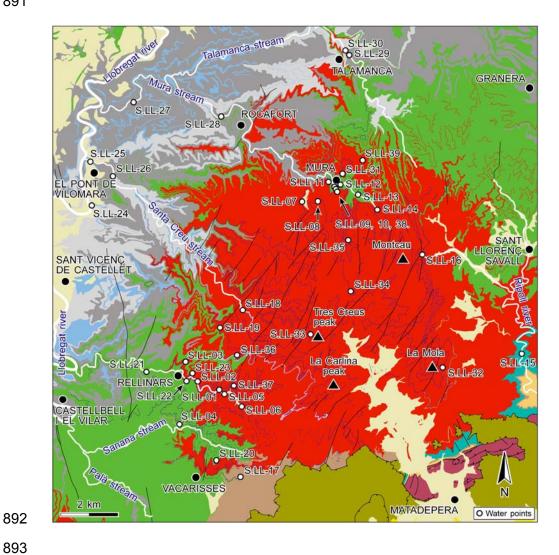


Fig. 2 Location of the water points studied at the Sant Llorenç del Munt fan delta (legend as in Fig. 1c).



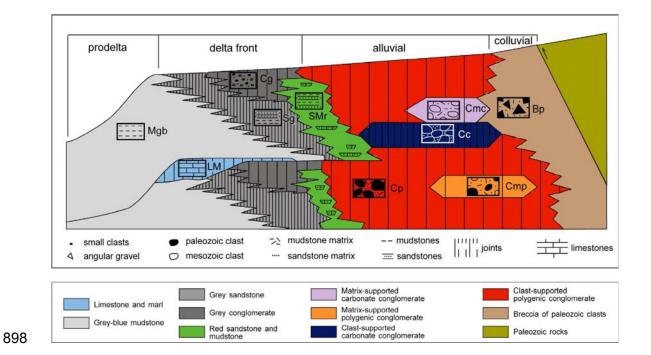


Fig. 3 Depositional environments of the Sant Llorenç del Munt fan delta with the main lithological features of the rock types. Fracture density is represented by differently spaced vertical lines.

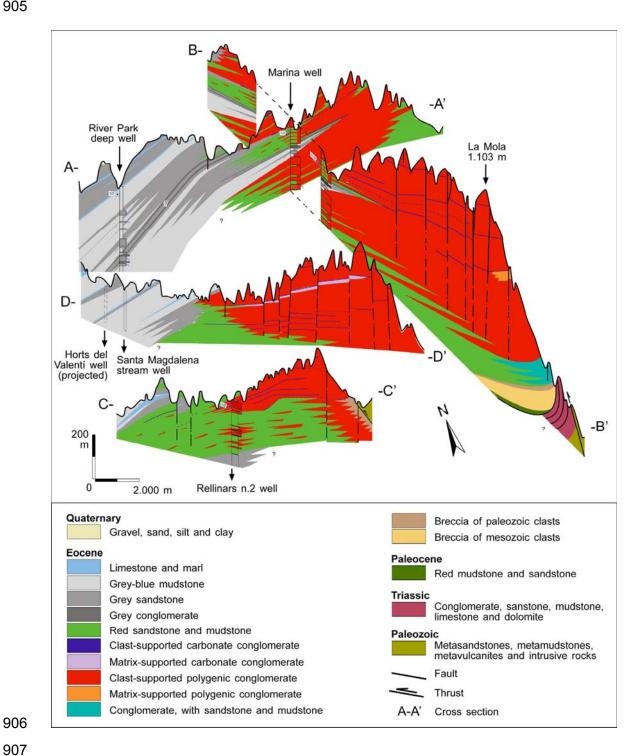


Fig. 4 Cross sections along the Sant Llorenç del Munt fan delta (see location in Fig. 1c).

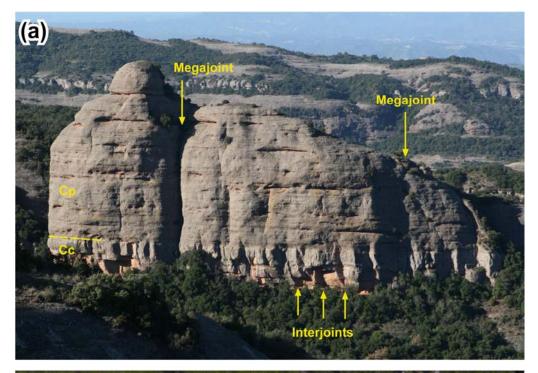




Fig. 5 a The Falconera cliff display megajoints affecting both Cp and Cc, and interjoints affecting solely the Cc bed; **b** The Talamanca stream display the thickening and coarsening upwards front deltaic sequences which show the following order (from base to top): Mgb, Sg and Cg.

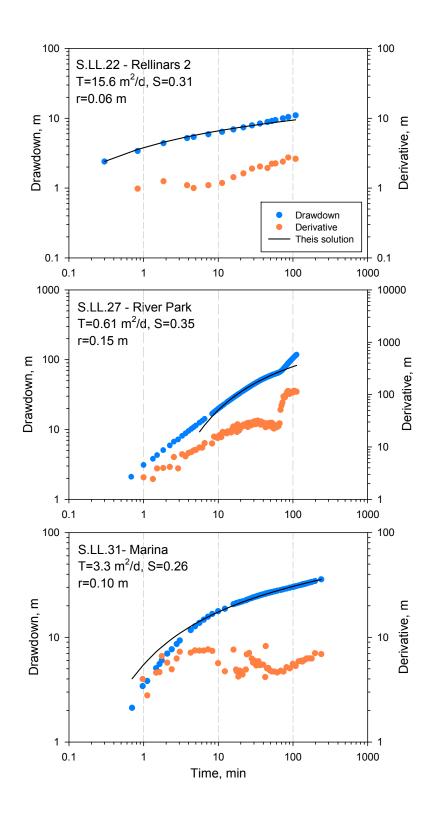


Fig. 6 Diagnostic analysis using log-log plots of the pumping tests conducted at constant discharge rate. Drawdown data are plotted jointly with thir derivatives, and fitted Theis solution.

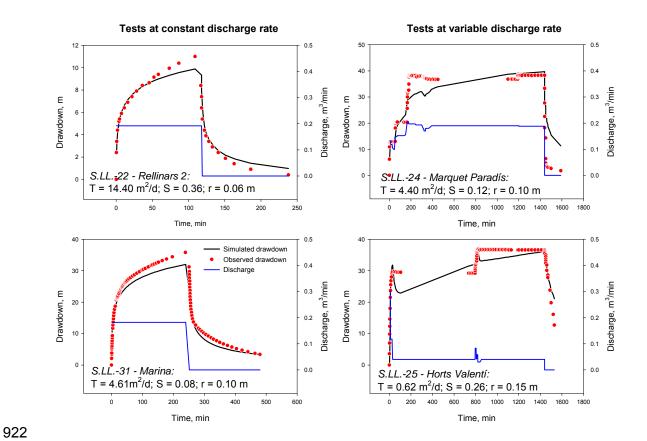


Fig. 7 Pumping tests at wells S.LL-22, 24, 31, 25 using a variable discharge approach (to include pumping rate variations as well as the recovery part) to fit T and S values according to Theis solution (see text).

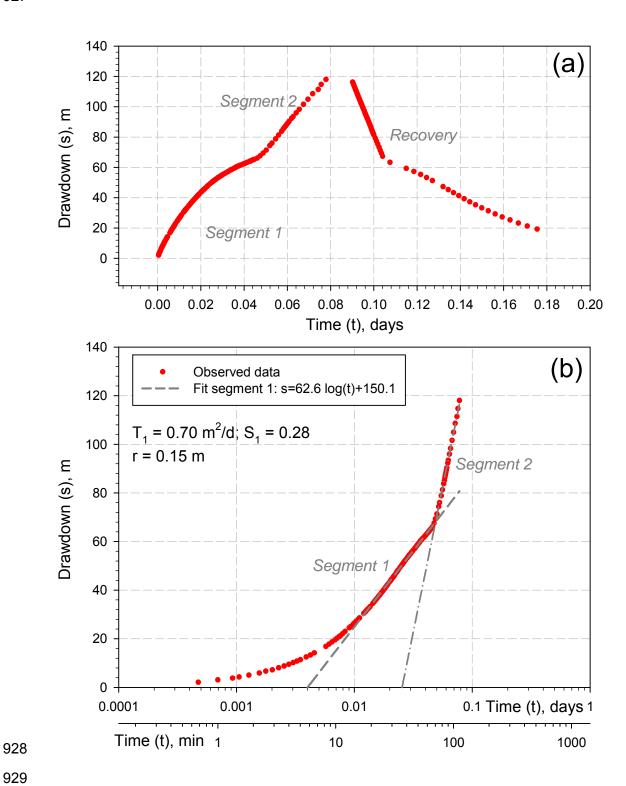
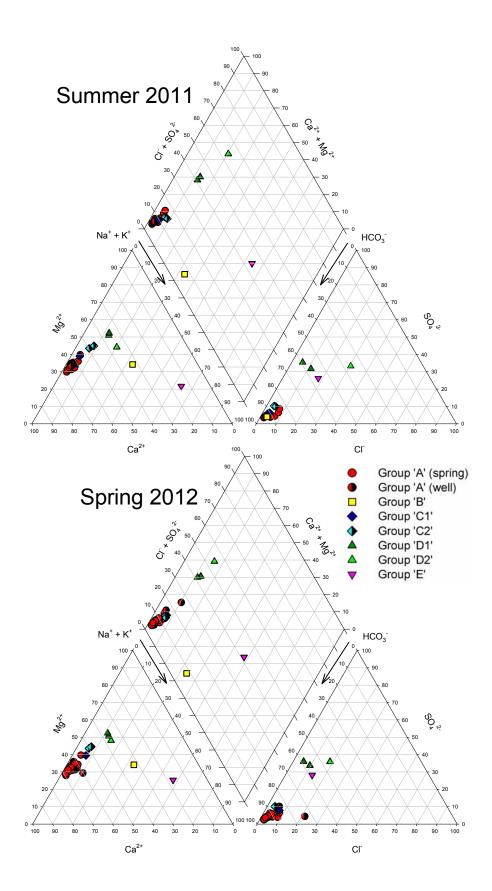


Fig. 8 a Drawdown and recovery data at the S.LL-27 (River Park), and ${\bf b}$ pumping test analysis using the Cooper-Jacob method.



 $\textbf{Fig. 9} \ \text{Piper diagrams from summer 2011 and spring 2012 surveys}.$

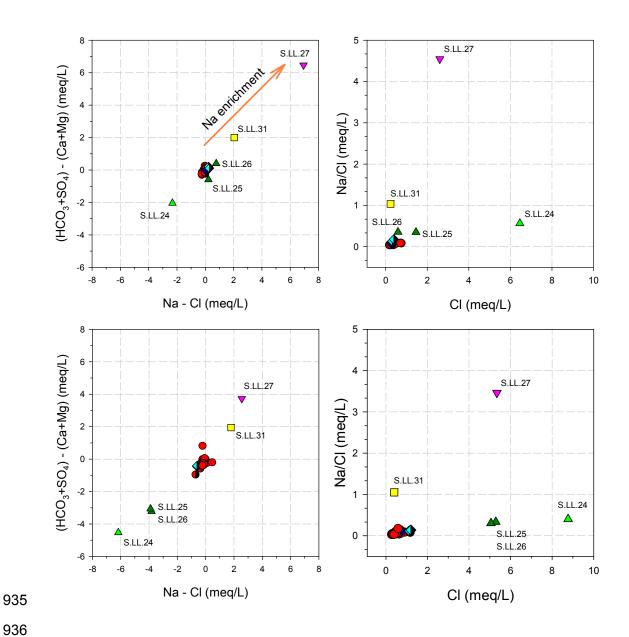


Fig. 10 Binary plots related to the cation exchange Na-Ca, expressed as a difference of the main major constituents, and of the ratio Na/Ca vs Cl for the 2011 and 2012 surverys (up and bottom, respectively).

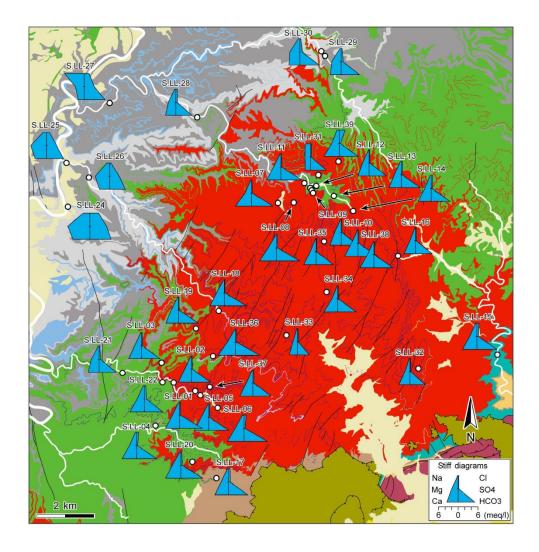


Fig. 11 Stiff diagrams from spring 2012 field campaign (geological legend as in Fig. 1c).

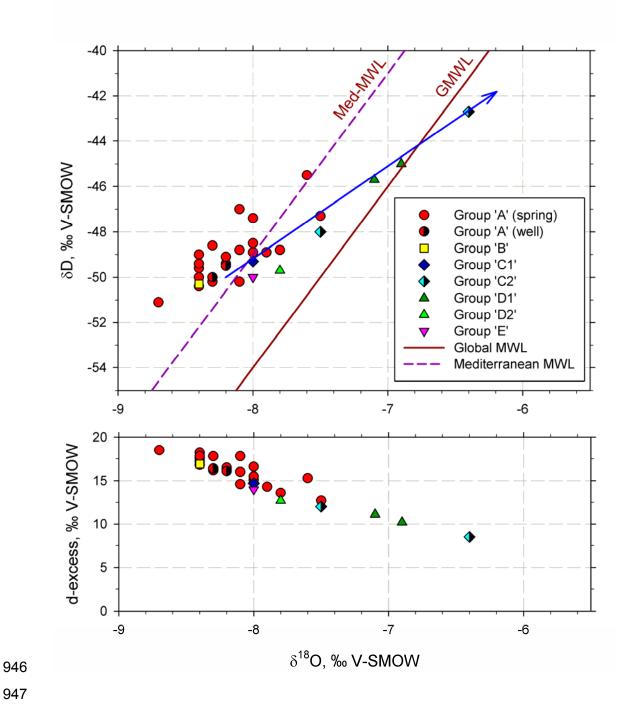


Fig. 12 Relationship $\delta D/\delta^{18}O$ of the summer 2011 field campaign, with the representation of the Global and Mediterranean Meteoric Water Lines (MWL). The blue arrow represents a potential evaporation trend with an approximate origin at $\delta^{18}O$ = -8.2‰, δD = -50‰. Unless indicated (as for Group A), samples belong to wells.

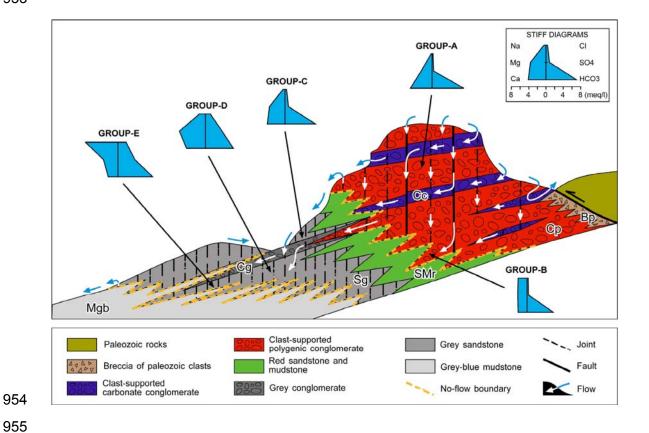


Fig. 13 Conceptual hydrogeological model for the SLMS and evolutionary relationships among the different hydrochemical groups. Mountains to the right represents the main recharge area. Geology has been simplified to show the hydrogeochemical evolution from the conglomerate units towards other lithological formations that modify groundwater composition due to water-rock interactions.

 Table 1 Main lithofacies of the Sant Llorenç del Munt with summarized features.

| ROCK TYPES | LITOLOGY & COLOR | TEXTURE / SELECTION | GRANULOMETRY | PERCENTAGE OF WHOLE ROCK MINERALOGY * | MORPHOLOGY OF SEDIMENTARY BODIES | INTERNAL STRUCTURES | GENETIC INTERPRETATION | DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENT | FRACTURATION (m/ joints) |
|---|---|--|--|--|---|--|---|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Breccia of paleozoic clasts (Bp) | Mudstone and sandstone breccia, dark red or brown | Matrix-supported to clast-supported | Clast: max 20-28 cm. Matrix: mud-sand | SIL: 98.8, CAL: 1.2 | Lenticular. Thickness: dm-m. Continuity: hm | Disorganized or fining upward | Debris flow | Colluvial | Poorly defined |
| Clast-supported polygenic conglomerate (Cp) | Dark red conglomerate | Clast-supported | Clast: max 160 cm. Matrix: sand with little mud | SIL: 69.9, CAL: 5.8, DOL: 24.2, OTHERS: 0.1 | Tabular or channelized. Thickness: max 2,2 m. Continuity: m-dam | Horizontal bedding and cross bedding | Aqueous flow: laminar, braided or with some sinuosity | Proximal and distal alluvial fan | 8.1 35.0 37.3 87.5 |
| Clast-supported carbonate conglomerate (Cc) | Grey conglomerate | | Clast: max 100 cm. Matrix: sand | SIL: 19.2, CAL: 13.4 DOL: 67.3, OTHERS: 0.1 | Tabular or channelized. Thickness: max 1,7 m. Continuity: m-dam | Horizontal bedding and cross bedding | Aqueous flow: laminar to braided | | 5.2 6.2 6.3 8.6 |
| Matrix-supported polygenic conglomerate (Cmp) | Sandstone-mudstone conglomerate, red | Matrix-supported | Clast: max 200 cm. Matrix: sand-mud | SIL: 73.7, CAL: 3.4, DOL:22.2, OTHERS: 0.7 | Tabular or lenticular. Thickness: max 2,6 m. Continuity: m-hm | Coarsening upward, fining upward or disorganized | Debris flow to | Proximal alluvial fan | Poorly defined |
| Matrix-supported carbonate conglomerate (Cmc) | Sandstone-mudstone conglomerate, red- orange | | Clasts: max 380 cm. Matrix: sand-mud | SIL: 42.6, CAL: 8.2, DOL:47.9, OTHERS: 1.3 | Tabular or lenticular. Thickness: max 3,8 m. Continuity: m-hm | Coarsening upward, fining upward or disorganized | hyperconcentrated flow | | |
| Red sandstone and mudstone (SMr) | Sandstone and mudstone, red | Very poorly sorted to moderately sorted | Sand-mud and mud | Sandstone: SIL: 90.9, CAL: 5.1, DOL: 1.0, OTHERS: 3.0 | Tabular, lenticular or wavy sandstone, alternate with mudstone. Thickness: cm-m. Continuity: m-hm | Massive, fining upward, horizontal bedding and cross bedding | Aqueous flow: sheet flood and overflow channel | Distal alluvial fan | 0.4 0.7 1.2 |
| Grey conglomerate (Cg) | Grey conglomerate | Clast-supported or matrix-supported | Clast: cm order. Matrix: sand with little mud | SIL: 68.8, CAL: 8.8, DOL: 20.4, OTHERS: 1.9 | Tabular to lenticular. Thickness: dm-m. Continuity: dam-hm | Cross bedding | Aqueous flow of distributary mouth bar | Delta front | 2.2 2.5 |
| Grey sandstone (Sg) | Grey sandstone | Moderately sorted to very well sorted | Sand | SIL: 55.6, CAL:29.3, DOL:5.1, OTHERS: 10.1 | Tabular, lenticular or wavy. Thickness: cm-m. Continuity: dam-hm | Horizontal bedding and cross bedding | Aqueous flow of distributary mouth bar | | 0.9 2.7 |
| Grey-blue mudstone (Mgb) | Carbonated mudstone or marl, grey-blue | | Silt and/or clay | Highly variable (carbonate and clays) | Tabular | Massive | Decantation | Prodelta | Poorly defined |
| Limestone and marl (LM) | Grey limestone and blue- grey marl | Packstone, grainstone o boundstone | (CIII.) and site (CAII.) where | Limestone: SIL: 13.1, CAL: 84.8, DOL: 0.0, OTHERS: 2.0 | Tabular | Massive, nodular bedding or organic structure | Biochemical carbonate precipitation | Carbonate platform | 2.4 4.8 |

^{*} Mineralogical composition as percentage of: silicate minerals (SIL), calcite (CAL), dolomite (DOL), and opaque minerals and organic matter (OTHERS). After Anglés (2013).

Table 2 Synthesis of the aquifers levels and hydraulic parameters of wells. Aquifer levels refer to the screened intervals in each well.

| WELL | Depth (m) | LITHOSTRATIGRAPHIC UNITS (m deep) | AQUIFERS LEVELS (m depth) | PIEZOMETRIC LEVEL (m deep) | PUMPING DISCHARGE (m³/d) | PUMPING TIME / RECUPERATION TIME (d) | TRANSMISSIVITY (m²/d) | STORAGE COEFFICIENT |
|---------------------------|--------------|--|---|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|-----------------------|---------------------|
| S.LL22 Rellinars n.2 | 300 | 0-30 | 45-54 | 29.60 | 240 | 0.08 / 0.08 | 14.40 - 15.60 | 0.31-0.36 |
| S.LL31 Marina | 335 | 0-51 | 309-320 | 98.28 | 240 | 0.17 / 0.16 | 3.30 – 4.61 | 0.08 - 0.26 |
| S.LL24 Marquet Paradís | 51 | 0-8 Quaternary deposits 8-33 Mgb 33-45 Sg 45-51 Mgb | 12-13 33-36 42-48 | 9.58 | variable | 1/0.10 | 4.40 | 0.12 |
| S.LL25 Horts Valentí | 164 | Sg and Mgb | | 11.13 | variable | 1 / 0.06 | 0.62 | 0.26 |
| S.LL27 River Park | | 0-109 Mgb 109-130 Sg 130-157 Mgb 157-163 Sg 163-190 Mgb 190-196 Sg 196-239 Mgb 239-272 Sg 272-275 Mgb 275-281 Sg 281-312 Mgb + Sg 312-348 Sg + Cg 348-351 Mgb 351-363 Sg 363-389 Mgb | 109-130 157-163 190-196 239-272 275-281 312-348 354-363 | 43.70 | 240 | 0.09 / 0.17 | 0.61-0.70 | 0.28-0.35 |

 Table 3. Main features of hydrochemical groups.

| HYDROCHEMICAL GROUPS | | SAMPLING POINTS | NUMBER OF SAMPLES | HYDROCHEMICAL FACIES | MAIN PRODUCTIVE LITHOFACIES | | DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENT | |
|-------------------------|----|--|----------------------|--|--------------------------------|--|-----------------------------|--|
| А | | All springs, wells Rellinars n.2 and n.3, Comes. | 31 | HCO₃-Ca | Cp + SMr | | Alluvial fan | |
| В | | Marina well | 1 | HCO₃-Ca-Mg-Na | | | | |
| С | C1 | Rocafort well | 1 | HCO₃-Ca (↑Mg) | Quaternary deposits | | | |
| | C2 | Wells Recàrrega, Dipòsit | 2 | HCO ₃ -Ca-Mg | | | | |
| D | D1 | Wells Sta. Magdalena stream, Horts Valentí | 2 | HCO₃-Mg | Sg | | Delta front | |
| | D2 | Marquet Paradís well | 1 | HCO ₃ -SO ₄ -Mg-Ca | | | | |
| E | | River Park deep well | 1 | HCO₃-Na | | | | |