

1 **Hypothesis on the hydrogeological context of wetland areas and springs related**  
2 **to evaporitic karst aquifers (Málaga, Córdoba and Jaén provinces, Southern**  
3 **Spain)**

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## 26 **Abstract**

27 The northern sector of the External Zone of the Betic Cordillera (S Spain) is formed by an  
28 olistostrome unit known as the Chaotic Subbetic Complexes (CSC). This megabreccia is basically  
29 made of clays and evaporite rocks (gypsum and salt) of Upper Triassic (Keuper) age as well as other  
30 lithologies (dolostones, limestones, marls and calcareous sandstones) belonging to different ages  
31 (Jurassic, Cretaceous and Tertiary rocks). Despite of low permeability has been traditionally  
32 assumed for these materials, water flow and storage through them is possible due to the aquitard  
33 behavior of clays and sandstones and the presence of conduits generated by  
34 dissolution/karstification processes within the evaporite rocks. The lithological complexity of the  
35 CSC determines its hydrogeological heterogeneity, with groundwater flows of different length and  
36 various scales from recharge areas to discharge zones. Thus, wetlands and springs placed at lower  
37 altitudes are associated with large (regional) groundwater flows, of greater residence time within  
38 the aquifer, and they normally drain high salinity waters mostly connected with ascending flow.  
39 This work provides an overview of the main geological and hydrogeological aspects related to  
40 groundwater flow within the CSC on the basis of several case-studies. Conceptual models are  
41 proposed for these cases, since they are the base to carry out a genetic-functional classification of  
42 wetlands potentially useful for their management.

43 **Key words:** Evaporitic (karst) aquifer · Regional flow · Saline spring · Wetland · South Spain

44

## 45 **1. Introduction**

46 During the last decades, research on evaporitic karst areas has been mainly focused on aspects  
47 related to karstology and speleogenesis (Forti and Sauro 1996; Calaforra and Pulido Bosch 1999;  
48 Gutiérrez et al. 2004; Klimchouk and Aksem 2005), natural impacts (Galve et al. 2009; Gutiérrez  
49 et al., 2014) and human-induced geohazards (Johnson, 2008; Cooper and Gutiérrez, 2013). This is  
50 due to the fact that gypsum and halite are much more soluble than carbonate rocks. Consequently,  
51 karst in evaporitic rocks evolves at a much faster rate (even to a human time scale) and often causes  
52 severe problems, frequently fostered by anthropogenic factors. Furthermore, the high salinity of the  
53 groundwater stored in this type of medium has resulted in natural deterioration of water quality in  
54 many rivers and reservoirs (Sanz de Galdeano, 1983; Carrasco, 1986; Memon et al., 1999).  
55 Nevertheless, apart from some cases, such as the Palo Duro Basin in Texas, USA (Kreitler, 1989),

56 or Ebro Valley in Spain (Acero et al., 2013), hydrogeological studies aimed on evaporitic materials  
57 have been scarce, since their water resources are normally low and of poor quality.

58 In Andalusia (southern Spain), in the southern border of Guadalquivir foreland basin (Fig. 1),  
59 a wide extension of terrain constituted fundamentally by Upper Triassic (Keuper) clays and  
60 evaporite rocks (gypsum and salt) exists, including other lithological blocks (olistolites) of Triassic  
61 to Miocene ages (Pérez-López and Sanz de Galdeano, 1994). All these materials appear as a chaotic  
62 mega-breccia highly deformed due to the gravitational collapse and movement of the External Zone  
63 (Subbetic) front towards the Guadalquivir basin, during Miocene (Rodríguez-Fernández et al.,  
64 2013). Outcrops of these rocks constitute a geological unit that has been termed by different authors  
65 as Guadalquivir Olistostromic Unit, Chaotic Subbetic Complexes –CSC- (Vera and Martín-Algarra  
66 2004), or Subbetic Extensional Complex (Rodríguez-Fernández et al., 2013).

67 Traditionally, low permeability has been assumed for the CSC Unit due to the predominance  
68 of clays, marls and sandstones, although no specific data about permeability has been reported. In  
69 fact, it has been commonly considered in literature such as the impermeable base of the carbonate  
70 aquifers, formed by Jurassic dolostones and limestones, existing at the Subbetic Domain (Mudarra  
71 and Andreo, 2011; Barberá and Andreo, 2011; Martos-Rosillo et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the  
72 presence of evaporitic rocks (gypsum and salt), with high solubility increases the development of  
73 secondary porosity and permeability by dissolution/karstification processes. As a consequence,  
74 unstable karst conduits and cavities have been originated giving place to collapse and subsidence  
75 phenomena, sinkholes and surface depressions (Calaforra and Pulido-Bosch, 1999; Gutiérrez et al.,  
76 2008), which are typical features of karst aquifers. Similar processes and subsequent threats to the  
77 population has been described in other evaporitic karst areas of Europe (Parise et al., 2008; Ligouri  
78 et al., 2008), given the frequently outcropping of evaporitic rocks in surrounding areas of  
79 Mediterranean basin.

80 The high solubility of evaporitic materials plays a notable influence in the hydrology and  
81 hydrogeology of CSC outcrops. In general, most of the exokarst features are placed in smooth areas  
82 where a poorly defined drainage network exists, mainly in the hydrographic watershed of rivers.  
83 Consequently, surface depressions and wetland formation have taken place, which development has  
84 been accentuated by the recent elevation of the area, linked to diapiric or halokinetic processes  
85 (Pezzi, 1977; Linares, 2008). On the other hand, the lithological heterogeneity and the geological  
86 processes related to subsidence phenomena confers to the CSC materials a certain hydrogeological  
87 complexity, with groundwater flows of different length, to different scales, from recharge areas to

88 discharge zones (Andreo et al., 2005). This approach to explain the hydrogeological behavior and  
89 groundwater flows through CSC material resembles to the Regional Gravity-Driven Groundwater  
90 Flow Model (GDRGF) proposed by Tóth (1963) and used by others authors in some karst basins  
91 (Memon et al., 1999; Goldscheider et al., 2010; Mádl-Szőny and Tóth, 2015). Nevertheless, in  
92 detail, those models cannot be completely applicable to understand the hydrogeological functioning  
93 of some specific evaporitic karst areas, considering their particularities in the geological and  
94 geomorphological framework (the medium is not strictly isotropic and homogeneous), as a  
95 consequence of karst processes. In fact, Calaforra (2004) proposed a preliminary hypothesis on this  
96 way for the evaporitic karst area of Antequera region.

97 Therefore, the aim of this work is to provide an overview of the main geological and  
98 hydrogeological aspects related to groundwater flows and karstification processes that take place  
99 within the CSC materials, on the basis of several case-studies wetlands and springs placed in three  
100 pilot areas (Antequera, Jarales and Brujuelo) from South Spain, (Fig. 1). With this end, information  
101 and observations compiled in these zones by several authors during the last years have made  
102 possible to improve the hydrogeological knowledge of CSC outcrops, as the basis to establish a  
103 hypothesis on the general hydrogeological functioning of these materials, which will be the starting  
104 point for more detailed researches. This will help for protection, management and if necessary, a  
105 hydrological restoration of some wetlands located in this context.

## 106

## 107 **2. Geological and geomorphological settings**

108 In general terms, the CSC are presented as a large olistostromic unit that covers the northern  
109 edge of the Subbetic Domain, from the province of Cádiz (SW) to Jaén (NE), in an elongated band  
110 of 300 km long and 60 km wide maximum (Fig. 1). This unit is formed by a Middle-Upper Miocene  
111 mega-breccia that is mainly made up of Upper Triassic rocks, although Jurassic (dolostones,  
112 limestones), Cretaceous (marly-limestones and marls) and Tertiary blocks (calcareous sandstones,  
113 marls) are also present in major or minor proportion. Upper Triassic (Keuper) age materials largely  
114 outcrop and confer the CSC an abundant presence of multi-coloured clay, sandstones, subvolcanic  
115 rocks (ophites) and evaporites (gypsum and salt). Small outcrops of limestones (Muschelkalk) and  
116 brecciated dolomites (Keuper) are often found over the above-mentioned materials. Gypsum is  
117 typically massive although it is sometimes found as a polygenic breccia made up by gypsum  
118 fragments and little parts of clays, limestones and dolostones (Calaforra and Pulido-Bosch, 1993).  
119 Despite halite is not present at the surface, due to its high solubility, its existence in depth is certain

120 as can be inferred from groundwater hydrochemistry and boreholes drilled in evaporite outcrops  
121 (Carrasco, 1986; Calaforra, 1998).

122 The internal structure of the CSC is chaotic and disorganized, and the materials are presented  
123 with a significant degree of folding and brecciation as a result of having undergone a major  
124 deformation process during the Alpine orogeny. During the Lower and Middle Miocene, the  
125 olistolites that currently constituted the geological unit suffered gravitational transport processes  
126 and massive movements from the Subbetic Domain towards the Guadalquivir Basin (Vera and  
127 Martín-Algarra, 2004). In detail, the olistolites can be considered to different scales, ranging  
128 gradually from centimeters to hundreds of meters in size; from clayey masses containing little  
129 blocks, clearly encompassed and disorganized, until big masses of Subbetic units formed  
130 fundamentally by Jurassic and Cretaceous materials (Pérez-López and Sanz de Galdeano, 1994).  
131 Some of these Subbetic blocks have kilometers of continuity, constituting authentic tectonic  
132 elements with their internal structure well defined. In general, the smaller the size of the unit or the  
133 blocks that they include, the bigger disorganization degree of Triassic materials is. In some cases,  
134 the postorogenic sediments are included in the tectonic melange whereas in others they appear  
135 discordant on the CSC, showing varied dips.

136 Examples of karst morphologies developed on evaporitic materials are abundant in the CSC,  
137 both exo- and endokarst features: karrenfield, dolines, uvalas, and even poljes; sinkholes, potholes  
138 and caves. Cavities developed in gypsum are common such as Águila Cave and Agua Cave in  
139 Malaga province or Yeso Cave in Cordoba province. In some cases, the existence of diapiric  
140 phenomena, with large domes of subcircular morphology, can determine both the hydrology of the  
141 area and the distribution and typology of the largest karstic forms via its control over the  
142 hydrogeology (Calaforra and Pulido-Bosch, 1999). The diapiric structures emerge abruptly from the  
143 general relief pattern, separated from each other by deep canyons of fluvio-karstic origin. However,  
144 the most common landforms are karst depressions, originated from dissolution processes and  
145 affecting evaporitic rocks (Durán and Molina 1986; Calaforra 1998). The high solubility of gypsum,  
146 and especially halite, produces a rapid geomorphologic evolution, both in depth (endokarst) as in  
147 surface (exokarst). As a result, collapse and subsidence phenomena occur very often and formation  
148 of surface depressions (dolines, uvalas, poljes) take place (Benavente et al., 1992). Some of these  
149 endorreic areas present karst swallow holes which become active during stormy rainfall, keeping  
150 the areas without water or slightly flooded during short or very short periods of time. In contrast,  
151 where no sinkholes exist, dolines and karst depressions can remain flooded during variable periods

152 of time after rainy episodes, or even in a permanent way, depending on their hydrological and  
153 hydrogeological regimes.

154 Therefore, many of the endorreic areas related to CSC materials constitutes wetlands and  
155 ephemeral lakes of variable size but of great environmental value (some of them are listed in the  
156 Ramsar Convention of Wetlands). Most of these wetlands appear grouped in complexes, located at  
157 different geomorphologic position: at watershed divides, near the river beds or at intermediate  
158 positions. Catchment areas normally have a relatively plain topography and runoff is diffuse due to  
159 the lack of a well-organized drainage network, with few minor stream channels that only are  
160 sporadically active during rainfall events. Nevertheless, in certain cases, streams may be more  
161 developed, and under exceptional stormy rainfall conditions, they acquire a torrential character that  
162 allows them to transport a substantial sediment load to the wetlands.

### 164 **3. Hydrogeological context of pilot sites**

#### 165 **3.1. Antequera area**

166 In the northern part of Málaga province, in the upper part of Guadalhorce River Basin, there is  
167 an extensive and elongated outcrop of CSC materials with ENE-WSW direction, known as “Trias  
168 of Antequera” (Fig. 2). These materials are also placed under the Neogene-Quaternary deposits of  
169 Antequera depression. It is one of the more important karst areas developed on evaporitic rocks in  
170 Spain. Fuente de Piedra wetland is situated in this outcrop (Linares, 1990; ITGE, 1998), besides  
171 other wetland complexes such as Campillos, Antequera and Archidona-Los Hoyos (Almécija, 1997;  
172 Rodríguez-Rodríguez et al., 2006; Gutiérrez et al., 2008; Linares, 2008). Some of these wetlands  
173 are features that contribute to recharge subjacent aquifers, whereas others are related to transit  
174 groundwater flows towards saline springs located at discharge areas (base level): Guadalhorce River  
175 and its tributaries. The most remarkable discharge point is Meliones spring (Carrasco, 1986,  
176 Calaforra and Pulido-Bosch, 1999, Gutiérrez et al., 2008) placed at 345 m a.s.l. (Tab. 1), in a canyon  
177 equally named (Fig. 2). By means of discharge measurements and chemical analyses in different  
178 sections of the Guadalhorce River, in the surrounding areas of the spring, the existence of other  
179 saline springs was verified (discharge zone), with a total (mean) discharge rate between 20 and 45  
180 l/s and with average electrical conductivity (EC) values between 90 and 200 mS/cm (Carrasco et  
181 al., 2007). Since 1976, the spring remains flooded due to the construction of a reservoir in the  
182 Guadalhorce River, and the spring is only exposed when the water level in the reservoir decreases

183 (last time was 2005). This causes a severe degradation of the reservoir water used for water supply  
184 Málaga City. Moreover, there are other saline springs (Fig. 2), as Cañaveralejo (400 m a.s.l.) and  
185 Fuente Camacho (705 m a.s.l.), related to the wetland complexes of Campillos and Archidona-Los  
186 Hoyos, respectively. Finally, it is also possible to find springs located at higher altitude, as Cueva  
187 del Agua, La Peña, Montemayor, Las Pilillas, Rodahuevos, Saladilla, etc. (Fig. 2, Tab. 1), whose  
188 waters present lower mineralization.

189 The hydrogeological functioning of Trias of Antequera karst region is associated with  
190 absorption forms (dolines, sinkholes, collapses, caves, surface depressions) that exists in the area.  
191 The position and appearance frequency of these landforms are mainly determined by halokinetic  
192 phenomena (Calaforra and Pulido-Bosch described in 1999 until four large diapiric structures with  
193 subcircular morphology uplifted and inserted into the Triassic series). Once infiltrated, groundwater  
194 flows and, occasionally, is stored in conduits and in permeable zones that are expanded by  
195 dissolution/karstification processes, giving place to a system with superficial and deeper flows.

### 196 **3.2. Jarales area**

197 At the south of Córdoba province, between Genil (to the S) and Anzur (N) rivers (Fig. 3), there  
198 is a CSC plateau with high proportion of gypsum blocks and carbonate olistolites included within  
199 clays and marls. The outcrop is characterized by a smooth landscape, hills, no well-defined drainage  
200 network and the presence of numerous endorreic areas. Poljes and karst depression are well  
201 represented and some of them are often intersected by the water table, hence wetlands appear. The  
202 altitude of these karst features are comprised from 410-430 m a.s.l., at the center of the plateau, to  
203 300 m a.s.l. towards the north, where several endorreic areas exist, aligned according to N-S  
204 direction (along 3 km). Drainage of these zones is produced through swallow holes, sometime  
205 obstructed, causing the temporary flooding of the depressions.

206 The most significant wetlands in the area are Taraje, Jarales, Amarga and Dulce (Moya, 1988;  
207 Andreo et al., 2005). All these conform, together with other ephemeral lakes, a complex of wetlands,  
208 most of them placed at the upper part of the outcrop (between 360-425 m a.s.l. Groundwater  
209 drainage occurs toward the north (where is located the Anzur River), and also toward the south  
210 (Genil River), via springs located beneath the riverbed or by a diffuse way (Fig. 3). The most  
211 important discharge points are named Lower Anzur (258 m a.s.l.) and Upper Anzur (306 m a.s.l.)  
212 springs.

### 213 **3.3. Brujuelo area**

214 The Brujuelo outcrop is located at the Guadalquivir River Basin, in the central-southern part of  
215 the province of Jaén (Fig. 4), in a relatively high plain area corresponding to the watershed between  
216 two tributaries of Guadalquivir River: Arroyo Salado (to the E) and Arroyo de la Cañada de las  
217 Charcas (to the W). Unlike other pilot sites, this area does not show abundant exokarst landforms;  
218 only some karst depressions partially flooded during rainy months and some surface collapses. The  
219 two most significant karst depressions are occupied by the ephemeral Brujuelo and Cirueña  
220 wetlands. The first one is placed to 458 m a.s.l., whereas the second one is to 464 m a.s.l.). No  
221 drainage network exists in the catchment area of wetlands. Nevertheless, both are connected by a  
222 drainage ditch starting from Cirueña wetland. At the same time, Brujuelo wetland is artificially  
223 drained by other trench, which begins in its center and continues towards the northwestern extreme,  
224 where a tunnel connects the wetland with a superficial stream.

225 The Arroyo Salado constitutes the hydrogeological base level of the system, where the main  
226 springs are situated (Fig. 4), and also where salt (halite) extraction is currently exploited due to the  
227 high salinity of the water. These springs appears from 440 m a.s.l. (Don Benito spring) to 375 m  
228 a.s.l. (San Carlos spring). Between both points a significant increase of stream outflow takes place  
229 as consequence of the groundwater contribution (Andreo et al., 2005). Other springs are the ancient  
230 salt exploitation of Brujuelo (425 m a.s.l.) and small discharge points at the proximities of the exit  
231 of the drainage tunnel of Brujuelo wetland, placed to 450 m a.s.l.

## 232

## 233 **4. Results**

### 234 **4.1. Antequera area**

235 Figure 2 and Table 1 shows and summarizes, respectively, the situation and the information of  
236 the main springs associated with the CSC materials belonging to the Trias of Antequera. Most of  
237 them are located in riverbeds of Guadalhorce River (Cueva del Agua, La Peña and Meliones  
238 springs), in stream over the CSC outcrops (Cañaveralejo, Montemayor, Las Pilillas, Rodahuevos),  
239 in the geological contact between these materials and Quaternary deposits of Antequera Basin  
240 (Saladilla, Borbollón, Gandigüela, Pinedilla) or related to wetlands (Molino de los Aguilera and  
241 Fuente Camacho in figure 2). Many of these springs are located in the surrounding of Gobantes  
242 area, at both banks of Guadalhorce River and with altitudes ranging between 345 and 500 m a.s.l  
243 (Tab. 1, Fig. 5). Nevertheless, in general, it is possible to observe an E-W decrease in the altitude

244 values, from 795 m a.s.l. where Molino de los Aguileras spring is situated, to 345 m a.s.l. of  
245 Meliones spring (Fig. 2).

246 Other discharges from CSC materials occur by diffuse way towards the Guadalhorce River in  
247 those canyons where the main river and tributaries cross the CSC outcrops (Figs. 2 and 5). There is  
248 also discharge towards most of the wetlands established into the endorreic areas (Archidona and  
249 some from Campillos wetlands), and towards detritic permeable materials of Miocene and  
250 Quaternary age, principally to the Antequera Basin. Like springs, the altitude of the bottom of  
251 wetlands decreases from E to W, from about 795 m a.s.l. of Archidona wetlands to 450 m a.s.l. of  
252 Campillos wetlands.

253 By sectors, the Archidona Wetland Complex (Calaforra, 1998; Linares, 2004) is formed by  
254 some ephemeral lakes placed to higher altitude and only flooded during short periods of time after  
255 rainfalls, and by other more permanent wetlands such as Grande and Chica (Fig. 2). These have  
256 been developed on a diapiric structure with sub-circular morphology (Calaforra and Pulido-Bosch,  
257 1999; Fig. 2), in which a karst system has been formed, characterized by the presence of a high  
258 number of dolines and small-closed depressions. In the eastern border of the diapiric structure, the  
259 Fuente Camacho hypersaline spring (720 m a.s.l.) appears, draining water with mean values of EC  
260 and temperature of 190 mS/cm and 17.2 °C, respectively (Tab. 1), and showing sodium-chloride  
261 type facies. Nevertheless, the main drainage point of the aquifer is Molino de los Aguileras spring,  
262 with an average outflow of 15 l/s and with lower mean values of salinity and water temperature (3  
263 mS/cm and 16.9 °C). The hydrochemical facies of the spring is calcium-sulphate type facies.

264 On the other hand, wetlands established on the plateau located at the south of Antequera (Caja,  
265 Viso and El Chaparral) are basically fed by superficial run-off and direct rainfall (Andreo et al.,  
266 2005). These are placed between 727 and 732 m a.s.l., at a significantly higher altitude than the  
267 regional piezometric surface defined by the diffuse discharge towards the Guadalhorce Canyon (Fig.  
268 2), situated in the eastern part (approximately to 600 m a.s.l.). In fact, measured water table in nearby  
269 boreholes appears approximately 30 m down the bottom of wetlands (Andreo et al., 2005).

270 Regarding to Campillos Wetland Complex (Almécija 1997), location and altitude of most of  
271 the wetlands reveal a certain groundwater flowpath directed to Cañaveralejo spring (400 m a.s.l.).  
272 This is located approximately 3 km to the E of the wetland complex and constitutes a discharge  
273 point of the aquifer, whose waters present high salinity and temperature with mean values of 144  
274 mS/cm and 19.5 °C (Tab. 1), respectively, and showing sodium-chloride type facies.

275 In the Gobantes sector, Meliones springs drain 20-40 l/s (historic record) of hypersaline waters  
276 with EC until 200 mS/cm and sodium-chloride facies. Before the main spring was flooded by the  
277 reservoir water for the first time, Carrasco (1986) carried out *in situ* measurements of discharge, EC  
278 and water temperature, from August 1974 to December 1976, together with spring water sampling  
279 for posterior chemical determination of Alkalinity,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  in the laboratory.  
280 Figure 6 shows the temporal evolution of this dataset, jointly with the monthly precipitation  
281 recorded in this area during the same period. At the beginning of 1976, an increase in the discharge  
282 rate was clearly observed (maximum of 20 l/s) in response to several months of accumulated  
283 recharge. The increases in discharge rates produced a rise in EC values of more than 40 mS/cm,  
284 which later fell during periods of low flow conditions. These variations in EC were mainly caused  
285 by corresponding changes in  $\text{Cl}^-$  content, which increased progressively at the same time as the flow  
286 rate (Fig. 6).

287 Waters showing calcium-sulphate facies and EC values between 2 and 5 mS/cm are also found  
288 in other springs located in Gobantes sector but at higher altitude (Fig. 5, Tab. 1), such as Gandigüela  
289 (490 m a.s.l.), Pinedilla (505 m a.s.l.) and Borbollón (520 m a.s.l.). Besides, in this area there are  
290 springs such as Rodahuevos (420 m a.s.l.) and Pilillas (470 m a.s.l.) which drain water with an  
291 intermediate saline content (between 5 and 20 mS/cm) but also with sodium-chloride facies. In  
292 general, an exponentially inverse relationship exists between electrical conductivity of water and  
293 the altitude of springs located at this sector (Fig. 7), with a correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) of 0.86.  
294 Therefore, the marked hydrochemical variations observed in this area suggest the existence of a  
295 clear hydrogeological heterogeneity, with groundwater flows of different length, scales and depths,  
296 from recharge areas to discharge zones.

297 Other significant springs that drain the CSC materials belonging to the Trias of Antequera (Fig.  
298 2) are Cueva del Agua (630 m a.s.l.), La Peña (480 m a.s.l.) and Saladilla (470 m a.s.l.). The two  
299 first ones present calcium-sulphate hydrochemical facies, with mineralization values around 2.5  
300 mS/cm (Cueva del Agua and La Peña), whereas Saladilla spring (17.7 mS/cm), located at the lowest  
301 altitude, drains waters with sodium-chloride type facies.

#### 302 **4.2. Jarales area**

303 Figure 3 shows the geographical position and altitude of wetlands and ephemeral pond areas  
304 existing at Jarales region, as well as the main springs and wells. In the southern-central sector are  
305 located Taraje (420 m a.s.l.), Bacalaos (426 m), Molina de Ramírez (423), Canónigo (413 m) and  
306 Jarales (407 m) wetlands. To the northeastern border of Jarales wetland another appears (or an

307 extension of this) at 410 m a.s.l. At the western part Dulce (370 m) and Amarga (360) wetlands are  
308 located, whereas old ponding zones that were dried up by ditches are found at the eastern side (at  
309 374 m a.s.l.).

310 Altitude of these wetlands, together with the measurement of water table elevation at different  
311 points, permits to obtain an illustrative water table contour map of the region (Fig. 3). Thus, water  
312 table seems to be adjusted to the topographical surface. A hydrogeological dome is observed  
313 northward Genil River; from where groundwater flows in a radial way, preferentially northwards  
314 (to Anzur River). This interpretation of the groundwater flow paths is coherent with the position and  
315 altitude of the karst sinkholes responsible of the drainage of the endorheic areas placed at the  
316 northern end of the region (between 353 and 315 m a.s.l.). Therefore, provided information suggests  
317 that both superficial and groundwater flows occurs mainly towards Anzur River, where the most  
318 significant springs are located: Lower and Upper Anzur springs. First one has a mean EC and water  
319 temperature values of 150 mS/cm and 20.4 °C, respectively, and a discharge rate between 1.5 and  
320 100 l/s (Tab. 1). During rainfall events, significant increases in discharge rate, as well as rapid and  
321 sharp falls of up to 40 mS/cm, had been recorded (Gil et al, 2014). The second spring drains waters  
322 with average **electric conductivity** and temperature of 46.4 mS/cm and 20.7 °C, respectively,  
323 whereas the mean flow rate is 2.3 l/s. In the Genil riverbed another spring (Salinillas, JS3 in Table  
324 1) exists, placed approximately at 255 m a.s.l and 4 km to the SO of Jarales wetland (Fig. 3). Its  
325 waters present values of mineralization and temperature of 76.8 mS/cm and 21.4 °C, respectively.  
326 The existence of this outflow confirms that discharge takes also place towards the southern edge of  
327 Jarales outcrop.

328 Piezometric sketch of figure 3 also indicates that groundwater flow and surface drainage  
329 network are in relative concordance. Taraje wetland and Canónigo and Bacalaos ponding areas,  
330 situated at higher altitudes (both topographically and piezometric), are just the first ones in drying  
331 off. On the contrary, Jarales and Amarga would be wetlands associated to the groundwater flow  
332 (transit) from recharge to discharge areas. In fact, the groundwater flow towards the last wetland  
333 can be appreciated in figure 3. Springs placed at Anzur and Genil River would be the final  
334 destination of regional flows.

### 335 **4.3. Brujuelo area**

336 There are no many water points at the Brujuelo study area, except few wells and several springs  
337 located in Arroyo Salado (Fig. 4). Most of the wells are placed near the wetlands, whereas the  
338 significant springs are located SE and N of wetlands. Northern springs are aligned according to SW-

339 NE direction. The water from the outflow area existing near the drainage tunnel end of Brujuelo  
340 wetland, at 450 m a.s.l., presents the lowest mean values of mineralization and temperature (12.5  
341 mS/cm and 16.6 °C, Tab. 1) of the area, although higher than the water from Brujuelo wetland (6.8  
342 mS/cm and 16.2 °C); both showing calcium-sulfate facies. About 1 km northwards, Brujuelo spring  
343 (425 m a.s.l.) has mean salinity and temperature values in its water of 119 mS/cm and 19.9°C,  
344 respectively, and sodium-chloride facies. Finally, waters from San Carlos spring, situated at 375 m  
345 a.s.l. in the Arroyo Salado riverbed, presents the highest values of mineralization and temperature  
346 of the area (194 mS/cm and 20.1 °C) and again sodium-chloride facies. At the SE, Don Benito spring  
347 drains hypersaline and relatively warm waters (170 mS/cm and 22.2 °C) and a mean flow rate of 10  
348 l/s, notably higher than the recorded in the previous springs (about 1-2 l/s). The physic-chemical  
349 characteristics of spring waters suggest the existence of a prominent hydrogeological heterogeneity  
350 in this area, with groundwater flows of different scale and depth.

351 From altitude of wetlands and springs and also water table measurements in wells from the  
352 surrounding area of Brujuelo and Cirueña wetlands, it is possible to estimate approximately the  
353 piezometric surface and the groundwater flow paths (Fig. 4). Both wetlands are placed in the transit  
354 of groundwater from the southern recharge areas, where there are some endorheic landforms which  
355 become flooded during rainy episodes, towards the northern discharge zone, where the main springs  
356 are located. The most local and shallow flows supply Brujuelo wetland (458 m a.s.l.), that is  
357 inundated when the piezometric level intersect the land surface.

## 358

### 359 **5. Discussion**

360 A large number of wetlands in southern Spain are originally and functionally related to CSC  
361 outcrops, which are vastly extended in Andalusia, especially on the left bank of Guadalquivir River  
362 (Fig. 1). On the whole, this unit shows a complex geological structure, due to the presence of  
363 numerous lithologies, among which are particularly important Triassic clays and gypsum. These  
364 formations are the substratum over the detrital materials from the Miocene and Quaternary age lay  
365 on. Triassic clayey and evaporitic rocks (halite and gypsum) determine the geomorphology of these  
366 areas. Karst subsidence phenomena that occur as a consequence of the dissolution of those  
367 evaporites lead to the formation of close depressions where wetlands, favored by endorheism, are  
368 settled down.

369 Clayey-evaporitic sediments are not impermeable, but rather they have a general aquitard or  
370 detrital aquifer behavior with some sectors of low permeability mainly where clayey enclaves are  
371 more abundant and developed. In fact, traditional pumping wells and new boreholes exist for  
372 irrigation in many areas (unique source for water resources at many cases), although unfortunately  
373 without permeability data from them. Results obtained at three different pilot sites prove that  
374 groundwater flow exists from the highest regions (recharge areas, fresh water wetlands, ephemeral  
375 and related to local flows) to the lowest regions (discharge wetlands and spring that drain high  
376 salinity water, eventually of higher temperature, and associated to regional ascending flows),  
377 passing through transit wetlands and springs among the two others (Fig. 8). This general flow model  
378 resembles to the proposed by Tóth (1963) for large sedimentary basins, although including some  
379 variations coming from the heterogeneity and the singularity of the karst media, and from the  
380 particularities observed in each sector. Hence, the three pilot areas selected in this work constitute  
381 examples of the hydrodiversity of wetlands placed in the CSC materials, which are represented in  
382 the general hydrogeological conceptual model shown in Figure 8.

383 The hydrochemical variability observed in the groundwater within the Trias of Antequera  
384 region reflects the hydrogeological complexity existing in these CSC outcrops. Calaforra and  
385 Pulido-Bosch (1999) relate this variability to the halokinetic movements in the Triassic belt of  
386 Antequera, which had a decisive influence on the hydrogeological evolution of the area, with  
387 consequent outcrops compartmentalization in several systems that are more or less independents  
388 from each other. Thus, springs placed at higher altitude and with calcium-sulphate facies would be  
389 linked to the karst in gypsum whereas saline and hipersaline springs had to do with deeper  
390 groundwater that flow through the salt core of the diapire. However, the presence of a base level  
391 corresponding to Meliones springs suggests that the different outcrops of the Trias of Antequera  
392 behave, on the whole, as a regional aquifer with groundwater flows that drain through the point of  
393 lowest altitude (Fig. 9). This is consistent with the discharge rates (between 20 and 40 l/s, as seen  
394 in section 4.1) and physic-chemical characteristics of Meliones spring waters (Fig. 6), with the  
395 highest values of mineralization and temperature of the region (between 80 and 200 mS/cm and  
396 19.6 °C). Carrasco (1986), from the analysis of stable isotopes of water, noticed the possibility that  
397 recharge area of Meliones spring was in a range between 400 and 800 m a.s.l., which is the same  
398 range of the Trias of Antequera outcrops. This author also denoted that the water from the springs  
399 with sodium-chloride facies had tritium concentrations lower than the rainfall occurring after 1957,  
400 although all of them presented tritium with a thermonuclear origin, leading to the conclusion that

401 those waters may had been the result of a mixture of different kind of waters, previous and  
402 subsequent to this year.

403 All this information, jointly with the field observations carried out in the framework of this  
404 research, is coherent with the conceptual cross section for the hydrogeological functioning of the  
405 Trias of Antequera outcrops (Fig. 9). This sketch, that integrate the different groundwater flows  
406 taking place within these materials, at various scales and depth, shows the location of wetlands in  
407 the hydrogeological context of this sector of the CSC. Thus, local groundwater flow paths occur  
408 relatively close to the surface, from recharge areas (diffuse and concentrated) to directly adjacent  
409 discharge zones such as wetlands (mainly transit type) or springs. The water residence time of these  
410 flows within the CSC should be commonly short or very short. This, coupled to the aforementioned,  
411 results on those waters generally presenting the lowest EC and water temperature values and  
412 calcium-sulphate facies. In this context, wetlands such as Caja and Viso and some others placed at  
413 Campillos and Los Hoyos wetland complexes (Fig. 2) would be located above the water table (as  
414 has been observed in adjacent wells), defining recharge features for the aquifer. They only would  
415 receive water inputs from rainfall and runoff of the nearby areas and uniquely during rainy periods.

416 On the opposite end of the sketch proposed in figure 9, regional groundwater flows would  
417 appear with longer periods of residence within the terrain, which reach a greater depth and cover a  
418 greater distance, even from central sector of Trias de Antequera outcrops. Along its way, those depth  
419 flows would be gradually acquiring higher mineralization and slightly high temperature until they  
420 converge in the Gobantes area, from where they are drained through Meliones spring and some  
421 other with similar physic-chemical characteristics. Therefore, Meliones spring is the discharge point  
422 of saline regional groundwater flows. Among these two extremes, an intermediate type of  
423 groundwater flow exists, ranging from a large spectrum of lengths, depths and residence time within  
424 the aquifer. As a result, spring and wetland waters mainly related to these intermediate flows would  
425 show diverse physic-chemical characteristics and hydrochemical facies, ranging from calcium-  
426 sulphate to sodium-chloride type facies, depending on the lithology of materials where water has  
427 flowed and on its residence time. Example of intermediated flows could be the flow trough the karst  
428 conduit between Sima del Águila area and Guadalhorce river (Fig. 10). Besides, wetlands sited in  
429 this context, such as Campillos Wetland Complex or Chica wetland in Archidona-Los Hoyos  
430 Complex (Almécija, 1997; Linares, 2008), present a marked influence of groundwater flows in their  
431 functioning, especially when it comes from variations in the piezometric level, so that these wetlands  
432 are flooded in high water conditions whenever the water table reaches their bottom. On the contrary,

433 during dry periods, water table decreases under the altitude of the bottom of wetlands, resulting on  
434 them being dried up (Andreo et al., 2005).

435 The presence of areas with a higher development of karstification in the Trias of Antequera,  
436 linked to the outcropping gypsiferous rocks at the center of domes, changes locally the general  
437 conceptual model. This is particularly clear in Gobantes area (Figs. 5 and 10), where the abundance  
438 of preferential infiltration features leads in each recharge event the mixing of “young water” with  
439 the water of the regional flow paths described above. This observations was already pointed out by  
440 Carrasco (1986) and Calaforra and Pulido Bosch (1999) as well as several technical reports carried  
441 out in the area with the purpose of managing the saline discharge from Meliones springs to the  
442 Guadalhorce reservoir. As it has been shown in Figure 6, they also noted the existence of obvious  
443 increments of flow, salinity and temperature of the water during rain episodes, with their later  
444 decreasing after precipitations. In other words, every rainfall event provokes the participation of the  
445 whole aquifer, both the shallow unsaturated zone and the deeper saturate zone. Consequently, a  
446 piston effect is produced and it moves towards the spring the water previously stored in the saturated  
447 zone, with a longer residence time within the system, higher EC and water temperature (Fig. 6).

448 The hydrogeological heterogeneity presents in the Trias of Antequera (province of Malaga) is  
449 partially comparable to other CSC outcrops such as the existing in Jarales and Amarga surrounding  
450 areas (province of Cordoba). In this case, it is possible to recognize again the presence of  
451 groundwater flows with diverse scales and depths, convergent towards wetlands, streams and  
452 springs; placed in the Anzur and Genil riverbeds, which define the base level of the system (Fig.  
453 11). Nevertheless, this area also shows several particularities that distinguish it from other CSC  
454 outcrops: occurrence of a high number of humid zones and ponding areas; groundwater drainage  
455 towards the N and S, by means of three springs (Springs JS1 and JS3 placed to the same altitude,  
456 Tab. 1); existence of a SW-NE outcrop where it is possible to observe a significant development of  
457 karst landforms. The fact that most of wetlands are situated at similar altitude range, in the central  
458 part of the plateau, provokes that the bottom of these remains above or nearby the water table. In  
459 this context, piezometric variations, though of slight magnitude, could suppose a significant  
460 alteration in the water regime of wetlands, changing from clear features for aquifer recharge during  
461 most of the time to being integrated into groundwater flows (transit wetlands) and fed by these  
462 waters with short residence time in the system. That is the functioning of Jarales wetland, whereas  
463 the groundwater component is determinant in the hydrological regime of Amarga wetland, situated  
464 at lower altitude (Andreo et al., 2005; Moral et al. 2008; 2013). In fact, Amarga is permanently

465 flooded whereas Jarales remains dry 60% of the time, with alternating multiannual periods of  
466 inundation and drought (Moral et al. 2013).

467 In addition to diffuse flow component, the existence of several endorheic areas with functional  
468 karst sinkholes in the northern sector of Jarales area indicates that a portion of groundwater flows  
469 rapidly through a karst drainage network (Fig. 11). This has been preferentially developed following  
470 an approximate N-S direction, coinciding with a higher presence of evaporitic rocks in this sector.  
471 To the south of the network, Taraje wetland appears, whereas in the northern end the main discharge  
472 of the system is produced through Lower Anzur spring. The rapid responses of this spring to  
473 precipitation events, with sharp, significant increases in discharge rates and with decreased in water  
474 mineralization are typical of conduit flow systems, with rapid drainage and a low capacity for natural  
475 regulation (Gil et al., 2014). However, physico-chemical variations and hydrodynamic response of  
476 Upper Anzur spring are indicative of diffuse flow aquifers. Therefore, in the whole, the  
477 hydrogeological functioning of Jarales study area is defined by deep diffuse and ascending  
478 groundwater flows, with long residence time within the system, high salinity and relatively high  
479 temperature, together with an additional flow component (colder and lower mineralized) that occur  
480 rapidly into the karst network during rainfall events (Gil et al., 2014, Fig. 11).

481 Finally, Brujuelo outcrop shows a hydrogeological behavior marked by a clear hierarchization  
482 of groundwater flows, from short and shallow paths (with low mineralization and residence time  
483 within the system), until the deepest and longer paths (with high salinity and water temperature).  
484 The first ones are responsible of feeding to Cirueña and, especially, Brujuelo wetlands during  
485 rainfall periods, so that the accumulated water in them may be again infiltrated into the subsoil. The  
486 ditch and the drainage tunnel existing in the NW end of Brujuelo wetland contributes significantly  
487 to this purpose. Once infiltrated, water joins to groundwater flows that are drained by the outflow  
488 area located northward the end of the drainage tunnel. These are the second type of flow path (deeper  
489 and with greater permanency into the system) in the conceptual sketch of Figure 12. The third type  
490 of flow path (deeper enough and coming from longer distant recharges areas located at the south)  
491 would be represented by waters drained by Brujuelo spring (clearly with higher salinity and water  
492 temperature). San Carlos spring (with the highest average values of salinity and water temperature  
493 among all the springs in the area) would represent the base level of the system and, consequently,  
494 the convergence point of ascending regional groundwater flows.

495 Unlike Trías of Antequera or Jarales outcrops, no significant development of exo and endokarst  
496 landforms have been identified in Brujuelo area that could contribute to increase the

497 hydrogeological heterogeneity. However, Don Benito spring, with higher mean discharge rate than  
498 Brujuelo and San Carlos springs, as well as also high salinity and water temperature (Tab. 1), could  
499 constitute another discharge point of regional groundwater flows coming from the south; from an  
500 area where numerous carbonate olistolites have been identified, and even a sinkhole (placed to 3.3  
501 km at the south of the wetlands, Fig. 4). Hence, Brujuelo outcrop and, especially, Arroyo Salado  
502 define a preferential zone for groundwater discharge that take place in this part of the CSC Unit.  
503 The hydrological relationships between wetlands and the different types of flows, as well as the  
504 degree of hydrogeological complexity of this zone (and the rest), has not been completely specified  
505 and it is the aim of current researches.

## 506

## 507 **6. Conclusions**

508 In spite of being traditionally considered as impervious rocks, the CSC materials show a certain  
509 hydrogeological behavior. The presence of wetlands, dolines and sinkholes at highland and spring  
510 near rivers are evidence of the hydrogeological functioning of this system. However, the lithological  
511 complexity of the CSC as well as the karst development due to dissolution of evaporites confer to  
512 those materials a considerable hydrogeological heterogeneity. Besides, the lack of hydrological  
513 information related to groundwater within the CSC makes even more complicate to reach a good  
514 understanding of the hydrological functioning.

515 Thus, wetlands and springs placed at lower altitudes normally drain high salinity and  
516 temperature waters, and they are associated with large (regional) and ascending groundwater flows,  
517 of relatively greater residence time within the aquifer. Wetlands located in these contexts turn into  
518 discharge places of groundwater (discharge wetlands), where the period of seasonal flood is  
519 generally prolonged or even permanent. On the contrary, if phreatic groundwater level remains  
520 below the bottom of wetlands, these constitute a recharge component in the water balance of the  
521 aquifer system (recharge wetlands); they are generally ephemeral and with low salinity water.  
522 Finally, wetland areas located in an intermediate position between recharge and discharge zones  
523 (transit wetlands) do not constitute the last destination of groundwater flows, but rather they go  
524 towards other wetlands and springs situated at lower altitudes.

525 The previous approach to explain the hydrogeological relationship between evaporitic karst  
526 wetlands and related aquifers, inspired by Tóth, is appropriate to describe the hydrodiversity and  
527 the general hydrogeological context of wetlands placed in the CSC as a whole. Nevertheless, in

528 detail, this model cannot be completely valid to understand the hydrogeological functioning of some  
529 evaporitic karst areas, taking into account several particularities in the geological and  
530 geomorphological framework.

531 Therefore, further studies are necessary in order to quantified and characterize the direction and  
532 length of groundwater flows, to identify regional discharge point and to establish the age of their  
533 waters using dating techniques, to determine the relationship between wetlands and springs and  
534 where appropriate, to define the limit of aquifers. For instance, Tritium and He isotopes data are in  
535 progress at the Helium Isotopes Laboratory at the University of Bremen. The obtained results will  
536 be useful for the development of a genetic-functional classification of wetlands with an evaporite-  
537 karst origin, allowing their appropriate management, protection and restoration. One of the goals to  
538 achieve are the right delimitation of protection zoning, identification of anthropogenic impacts and  
539 pressures and the proposal of corrective and remediation measures against deterioration of wetlands.

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649

## 650 **Figure and table captions**

651

652 Figure 1: Geological sketch of the main units of the Betic Cordillera located at the south of Andalucia,  
653 showing the spatial distribution of CSC outcrops and the three pilot areas selected in this work.

654

655 Figure 2: Geological-hydrogeological map of Antequera study area and surrounding areas, displaying  
656 the geographical position and altitude of the main springs and wetland complexes.

657

658 Table 1: List of studied wetlands and springs sorted by study areas, indicating altitude, and EC and  
659 water temperature values from previous works as well as new measurements (2013 - 2015).

660

661 Figure 3: Geological-hydrogeological map of Jarales study area and surrounding areas, showing the  
662 geographical position and altitude of wetlands and ephemeral pond areas and springs. Figure also  
663 includes a piezometric sketch and deduced groundwater flow paths.

664

665 Figure 4: Geological-hydrogeological map of Brujuelo study area and adjacent areas, displaying the  
666 geographical position and altitude of Brujuelo and Cirueña wetlands and the main springs. Figure  
667 also includes a piezometric sketch for this area.

668

669 Figure 5: Detailed geological-hydrogeological map of Gobantes area with the geographical position  
670 and altitude of the main springs. Situation corresponds to the green box in Figure 2.

671

672 Figure 6: Temporal evolution of discharge rates, electrical conductivity, temperature and the principal  
673 chemical components, measured in the water drained by Meliones spring, respect to accumulated  
674 monthly precipitation.

675

676 Figure 7: Relationship between electrical conductivity and altitude of springs located at Gobantes  
677 sector.

678

679 Figure 8: General hydrogeological conceptual model of CSC materials and related wetlands and  
680 springs.

681

682 Figure 9: Conceptual sketch of the general hydrogeological functioning of Trias de Antequera study  
683 area.

684

685 Figure 10: Conceptual sketch of the hydrogeological functioning of Trias de Antequera outcrops in  
686 Gobantes area. See location in Figure 5.

687

688 Figure 11: Conceptual sketch of the hydrogeological functioning of Jarales study area. See location in  
689 Figure 3.

690

691 Figure 12: Conceptual sketch of the hydrogeological functioning of Brujuelo study area. See location  
692 in Figure 4.