

1 **Hotspots and Hot Moments of Metal Mobilization: Dynamic
2 Connectivity in Legacy Mine Waters**

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10 **Abstract.** Monitoring and treatment of contaminated mine water conventionally focuses on end-of-pipe assessment and
11 remediation techniques, at the downstream outlet of mining sites after closure. Conversely, the initial stages of pollutant release
12 and their pathways within abandoned mines have been largely overlooked. This study examines subsurface mining-affected
13 anthropogenic structures and the dynamic hydrogeochemical loadings in terms of temporal increases in concentration and
14 drainage pathways within them, revealing how variable subsurface flow activation impacts metal(lloid) mobilization and opens
15 novel direct mitigation options. We identified complex hydrological patterns through the mine (Reiche Zeche, Ore Mountains,
16 Germany) in which percolation paths were dynamically connected to the drainage based on flow conditions. Using in-situ
17 sensors, hydrogeochemical monitoring and stable water isotopes, we reveal a hydrodynamic regime in which episodic shifts
18 in subsurface connectivity govern metal(lloid) mobilization from localized storage zones, ultimately controlling solute export
19 to surface waters. We use concentration–discharge (C–Q) relationships, the Pollution Load Index (PLI), and hydrological
20 concepts to evaluate metal transport during the annual pattern of flow regimes. Our analyses of event-scale C–Q patterns reveal
21 site- and element-specific shifts in flow path activation in a very short time. Low flow periods are often considered low risk
22 for contaminant mobilization, yet contaminant hotspots within poorly connected hydrological zones can emerge during these
23 times. The resulting high pollution potential and solute accumulation are governed by the sequence and timing of crossing or
24 exceeding a connectivity or flow threshold, as described by fill-and-spill and lotic-lentic cycle concepts. Notably, Zn loads (in
25 terms of flux) during low flow, pre-flush periods reached values up to six times higher than median values. Preceding the
26 flushing events, geochemical and microbial-mediated metal leaching create the spatially distributed contaminant stock,
27 remobilized during reconnection events. With a large proportion of heavy metal loads occurring during low flow and especially
28 just before the high flow (flush) period, source-related, decentralized water treatment structures become much more feasible
29 than end-of-pipe solutions that require higher throughput volumes and multi-element filtering. This work also highlights the
30 need for event-sensitive monitoring and treatment strategy options that prioritize internal system behavior to mitigate pollution
31 risk in abandoned mines and other cavernous hydrological systems.

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1 Introduction

41 Metal mining has left a pervasive global legacy of water contamination, particularly in river basins downstream of historic and
42 active metal extraction zones (Macklin et al., 2023; Sergeant et al., 2022). Mine drainage affects more than 23 million people
43 and thousands of kilometers of rivers globally, with risks that span decades to centuries after mine closure (Macklin et al.,
44 2025). Despite regulatory progress, abandoned mine sites often lack monitoring and management, leaving communities and
45 aquatic habitats vulnerable to pollution pulses triggered by hydrological events or anthropogenic disturbances. Standard
46 monitoring under the European Water Framework Directive (WFD) and conventional water quality assessments (LAWA,
47 2003) typically rely on infrequent, low-resolution measurements providing only limited snapshots of hydrogeochemical
48 processes (Resongles et al., 2015).

49 The consequences are particularly evident in regions with long mining histories, such as the Ore Mountains of Central Europe.
50 Here, as in many former mining areas, legacy pollutants from underground workings pose environmental threats long after
51 extraction has ceased (Huang et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2014) for example in the form of diffuse and point-source runoff of acidic
52 waters bearing high concentrations of metals and sulfates (Bozau and Liessmann, 2017; Haferburg et al., 2022). While much
53 attention has focused on surface water systems downstream former mining sites, the internal hydrogeochemical dynamics of
54 underground mine workings remain poorly understood, especially in relation to episodic contaminant mobilization and non-
55 conservative transport (Hudson et al., 2018; Datta et al., 2016). Addressing these blind spots is critical for understanding
56 pollution behavior in mining-impacted systems and for designing effective remediation strategies.

57 Despite visible surface effects, the contaminant sources and pathways within abandoned underground mines remain largely
58 obscured due to limited accessibility. Seeping waters infiltrate the mining system through complex pathways along
59 underground waste rock deposits. While percolating or flowing through a fractured system of pools and pathways, waters
60 dissolve and transport various elements. This suggests that pollution is not created continuously and diffuse but instead
61 governed by discrete, intermittent and dynamically connective pathways. With hydrologic connectivity (Freeman et al., 2007)
62 and intermittency (Fovet et al., 2021) known to impose specific characteristics on water-mediated transport and turnover in
63 soil and other environments (Turnbull et al., 2018), the hydrological processes underlying contaminant mobilization and
64 dispersal in abandoned mines may be better described using the tools and concepts of fill-and-spill (McDonnell et al., 2021)
65 or lotic-lentic cycles (Schmadel et al., 2018).

66 In natural hydrologic systems, drainage connectivity, which controls water and solute transport, is shaped by catchment
67 topography and becomes activated under specific hydro-meteorological conditions such as antecedent moisture, precipitation,
68 infiltration, and subsurface flow through soil and fractured rock (Knapp et al., 2020; Li et al., 2017; Musolff et al., 2017;
69 Lemenkova et al., 2021). In mining systems, infiltration water often enters deep storage zones where percolation is retarded,
70 As a result, near-surface signals such as rainfall or snowmelt become lagged (delayed before appearing in discharge), low-pass
71 filtered (short, high-frequency variations are damped), and threshold-dependent (hydrological or geochemical responses
72 only occur once storage limits are exceeded). Given the dispersed flow paths through subsurface waste rock deposits and other

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74 anthropogenic preferential flow paths, various fill-and-spill pools overlay. To decipher the diffuse source pattern, the closer
75 the analysis can get to the individual sources and the higher the temporal resolution, the clearer should the mobilization pattern
76 be revealed.

77 Stable water isotopes ($\delta^2\text{H}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) are useful tracers for identifying flow paths, water pool mixing, and water-rock interactions
78 (e.g., Sprenger et al., 2016; Spangenberger et al., 2007; Clark and Fritz, 2007; Kumar et al., 2024). Though widely used in
79 ecohydrology, isotopic tools remain underutilized in mine drainage studies. We suggest that they could provide a promising
80 means of tracing complex contaminant sources and transport processes (Ghomshei and Allen, 2000; Allen and Voormeji, 2002;
81 Hazen et al., 2002). [Similar to surface catchments, mine systems experience episodic flushing during reactivation of subsurface](#)
82 [flow paths, when accumulated contaminants are rapidly mobilized following re-wetting periods. These short-lived first-flush](#)
83 [events produce sharp concentration peaks before dilution or source depletion occurs \(Merritt and Power, 2022; Bryne et al.,](#)
84 [2012\).](#)

85 [Concentration-discharge \(C-Q\) analysis provides a complementary approach to characterize such flow-phase-dependent](#)
86 [behavior and have seen broad application in watersheds \(Shaw et al., 2020; Rose et al., 2018; Godsey et al., 2009; Knapp et](#)
87 [al., 2020; Musolff et al., 2015\). Stable C-Q relationships indicate chemostatic conditions, often linked to proportional](#)
88 [weathering increases \(Godsey et al., 2009; Li et al., 2017\) and homogeneous solute distribution \(Herndon et al., 2015\), whereas](#)
89 [enrichment or dilution patterns \(chemodynamic behavior\) reveal heterogeneity in solute storage and mobilization \(Herndon et](#)
90 [al., 2015\). However, recent work emphasizes that while C-Q tools are widely used, they are often under-contextualized and](#)
91 [over-interpreted in isolation, and their diagnostic value depends heavily on integrating them with additional hydrological and](#)
92 [biogeochemical information \(Knapp and Musolff, 2024\). Despite this, C-Q tools and associated metrics \(e.g., C-Q slope,](#)
93 [hysteresis indices, ratio of the coefficients of variation of concentration and discharge \(\$CV_c/CV_d\$ \)\) remains minimal in](#)
94 [underground systems, where episodic connectivity complicate their interpretation, representing a methodological gap this](#)
95 [study seeks to address.](#)

96 Building on our previous study that identified strong spatial and temporal heterogeneity in contaminant release within the
97 Reiche Zeche mine (Sanchez et al., 2025), [this work investigates how dynamic hydrological and geochemical processes](#)
98 [generate short-lived but critical contaminant release events. We focus on identifying hotspots, defined as spatial zones of](#)
99 [disproportionately high contaminant accumulation, and hot moments, defined as short time periods when mobilization rates](#)
100 [are markedly elevated due to transient changes in hydrological connectivity \(McClain et al., 2003\). The overarching research](#)
101 [question guiding this study is: How can dynamic contaminant mobilization within underground mine systems be effectively](#)
102 [monitored and translated into targeted, in-situ treatment strategies that move beyond conventional end-of-pipe approaches?](#)
103 [We hypothesize that alternating hydrological flow phases control dynamic connectivity and thus metal mobilization, with C-](#)
104 [Q patterns revealing the behavior of localized pools within the mine. To address our research question and hypothesis, our](#)
105 [specific objectives were: \(1\) to characterize the temporal evolution of flow regimes and their influence on metal\(lloid\)](#)
106 [concentrations and loads, \(2\) to determine the geochemical signatures associated with localized storage and release zones](#)

Deleted: we test the capability of high-resolution complementary methods to identify hotspots and hot moments of pollution in fractured, legacy mine water networks. We seek to resolve the internal drivers of contaminant release within the mine, providing the mechanistic understanding required for adaptive, near-source treatment. In the present work, we do this by addressing two central research questions: (1) how can dynamic contaminant mobilization be monitored effectively within an underground mine environment

116 (hotspots) and episodic release events (hot moments), and (3) to evaluate how phase-dependent flow and C-Q relationships
117 can inform adaptive, near-source mine water treatment strategies.▼

118 Therefore, we performed 42 underground sampling campaigns and utilized in-situ sensors across four distinct flow paths for
119 over two years. At one site, we conducted high-resolution and high-frequency monitoring using an in-situ UV-Vis spectrometer
120 to capture transient fluctuations. This multi-scale hydrogeochemical approach integrates complementary event-sensitive
121 methods, extending surface-hydrological tools such as C-Q analyses, and fill-and-spill and hotspot/hot moment concepts to a
122 subsurface mine drainage setting. Ultimately, this study contributes a transferable framework for diagnosing contaminant risks
123 in legacy mine settings and supports the development of adaptive, near-source water treatment strategies.

Deleted: , and (2) how do these dynamics inform treatment strategies beyond conventional end-of-pipe approaches? We hypothesize that alternating hydrological flow phases control dynamic connectivity and thus metal mobilization, with C-Q patterns revealing the behavior of localized pools within the mine.

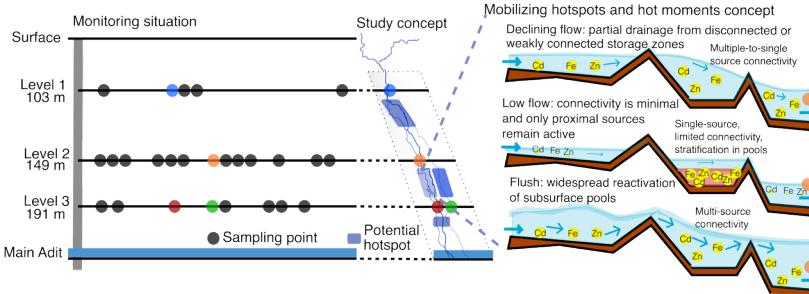
Deleted: Our primary objectives were (1) to characterize the temporal evolution of flow regimes and their influence on contaminants, (2) to determine the geochemical signatures associated with localized pools, and (3) to assess how different flow phases affect C-Q behavior and solute loads. To address our research questions and hypotheses, we integrate

124 2 Methods

125 2.1 Study site and sample collection

126 Situated in the Ore Mountains of Central Europe, the historic Reiche Zeche mine site, 50.928° N 13.357° E, is one of the many
127 old mines whose runoff flows untreated into streams that feed the Elbe river, one of the largest rivers in Europe (LfULG,
128 2014). This site was active in extracting high-grade minerals, specifically silver ore, and processing mine waste rock up until
129 1969. The host rocks comprise mica schist and gneiss intersected by polymetallic sulfide-quartz-carbonate veins containing
130 pyrite, sphalerite, galena, and chalcopyrite, with minor arsenopyrite, barite, and fluorite (Baacke, 2001; Tichomirowa et al.,
131 2010). These sulfide-rich assemblages are key sources of acid generation and metal mobilization, while secondary Fe-
132 (oxyhydr)oxides formed under drainage conditions contribute to local attenuation. Following mine decommission, the lower
133 sections of the adit system, which extend down to 1300 meters, became inundated with water up to the level of the central adit
134 “Rothschorberger Stolln”, which is accessible at approximately 230 meters below the surface at the Reiche Zeche mine shaft
135 (Zhiteneva et al., 2016; Mischo et al., 2021). The mine now represents a flooded, multi-level system with complex subsurface
136 flow pathways. This hydrological complexity, dispersed flow above extraction levels and preferential flow through waste
137 deposits, makes the site ideal for addressing our research questions.

138 This study focuses on a single slanted vertical extraction structure which spans over three levels before reaching the central
139 drainage adit (Fig. 1). These levels include: Level 1 (located 103 meters below the surface); Level 2 (149 meters below the
140 surface); and Level 3 (191 meters below the surface). A total of 26 sites were selected for ongoing sampling, but four specific
141 sites will be in the focus. The four locations, sites 1, 2, 3A, and 3B, were selected due to the presence of continuous and ample
142 amounts of flowing water in comparison to the rest of the locations which were not as great in volume of flowing water (see
143 images of four locations in Fig. S6). In one-to-three-week intervals, we conducted 42 sample campaigns to all sites from
144 February 3rd, 2022 to May 31st, 2024. All data are reported in the B2SHARE Data Repository (Sanchez et al., 2025b).



157
158 **Figure 1:** Conceptual framework and study layout of the abandoned mine system levels above the main adit at Reiche Zeche. Left:
159 monitoring locations across three mine levels, with four sites (1, 2, 3A, 3B) selected for high-frequency sampling. Instrumentation at
160 all four sites included flow loggers, with additional high-frequency sensors and an autosampler deployed at site 2 for a 10-month
161 intensive monitoring period. Middle: concept of site placement along flow path through the mine and associated contaminant
162 hotspots (blueish purple zones). Potential hotspots along the flow paths to sites 3A and 3B are depicted in different color shades to
163 emphasize their distinct source zones, despite spatial proximity to site 2. Right: conceptual model of flow-phase-dependent fill-and-
164 spill connectivity. Blue arrows represent flow direction; shaded red areas indicate stratification. Flow regimes govern activation of
165 solute source zones, resulting in distinct connectivity patterns.

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2.2 Sampling design and conceptualization of site-specific dynamics

To unravel the internal dynamic hydrogeochemical characteristics of the abandoned ore mine and to interpret observed heterogeneity in space and time, we focused on the four sites, enabling a vertical profile of hydrological connectivity within the system (Fig. 1). Over two years of sampling, we measured discharge, isotopic composition ($\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$), and dissolved metal(lloid) concentrations at all 26 locations (Fig. 1 and Table S1). These measurements form the basis for subsequent analyses described later on. Initial observations revealed strong spatial heterogeneity in metal(lloid) concentrations (Fig. S1) and dynamic flow variability, which suggests the presence of transient contaminant hotspots and episodic connectivity. For a process-based interpretation of these patterns, we developed a hotspot connectivity concept grounded in the fill-and-spill paradigm (Fig. 1, right panel).

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The Central European hydrological cycle (wet winters, dry summers) produces three recurring drainage phases in the mine: flush (high flow), declining flow, and low flow. During low flow, hydrological disconnection allows solutes to accumulate in lentic or weakly connected storage zones. Flush events re-establish connectivity, linking multiple pools and triggering contaminant release (Sanchez et al., 2024), while declining flow reflects waning but still active transport. Stratification during

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Deleted: . This framework illustrates how flow-phase-dependent changes in hydrological connectivity control source zone activation. Similar to braiding rivers, we expect parts of the system as being always drained and an increasing number of adjacent pools becoming connected with increasing water flow (Wilson et al., 2024). Permanently spilled sections have rather low metal(lloid) concentrations, while temporarily disconnected sections act as niches for microbially mediated solving and hence elevated metal(lloid) concentrations (Sanchez et al., 2025). ...

194 low and declining flows (Fig. 1) acts as a critical disconnection mechanism that can delay or abruptly initiate solute
195 mobilization.

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196 Although sites 3A and 3B are located on the same mine level, they receive water from distinct source zones shaped by
197 geological structure, mining voids, and fracture networks. These differences lead to divergent C–Q dynamics and phases of
198 the fill-and-spill cycle, reflecting contrasts in pool storage, reconnection timing, and redox conditions. Such site-specific
199 variability underscores the need to analyze contaminant transport at multiple locations within the mine.

200

201 **2.3 Hydrological data collection and analysis**

202 To understand whether surface hydro-meteorological forcing translates into episodic contaminant release underground, we
203 monitored both external conditions and internal mine discharge. Meteorological conditions are monitored in an automated
204 station at the surface next to the central access shaft to the Reiche Zeche research and education mine. To avoid more complex
205 hydrological modelling, a standardized water availability index, i.e. the Self-Calibrating Palmer Drought Severity Index
206 (PDSI), was used to characterize the overall moisture conditions of the system and pre-event wetness levels (Wells et al., 2004;
207 Palmer et al., 2016). The PDSI (adhered to as water availability index) values are determined by using reference potential
208 evapotranspiration (FAO56 Penman-Monteith method) and precipitation data, and a simplified soil water balance model. This
209 accounts for both short-term fluctuations and long-term storage effects with its self-calibrating structure allowing the effective
210 storage capacity to adjust dynamically to the amplitude of the local weather variability. The magnitude of PDSI indicates the
211 severity of the departure from normal conditions. A PDSI value greater than 1 represents wet conditions, while a PDSI value
212 less than -1 represents dry conditions at the surface. The general dry and wet phases from the surface were compared with flow
213 rate measurements from within the mine.

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214 Continuous water level and flow monitoring was conducted at four sites within the Reiche Zeche mine using pressure sensors
215 (Levellogger5, Solinst Georgetown) between February 2022 to March 2024. Sites 1 and 2 were equipped with plastic weirs for
216 discharge measurement, while the existing carved spillways were used at sites 3A and 3B. Site-specific water level-discharge
217 relationships were established (Henderson, 1966) and the resulting flow time series were smoothed using a Savitzky-Golay
218 filter.

219 Additionally, to distinguish between recharge and stored drainage contributions, water stable isotopes ($\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) were
220 analyzed via cavity ring-down spectroscopy (L-2130i, Picarro Santa Clara) to trace water sources (See SI for details on
221 discharge calculations and isotope methods). Comparison with the local meteoric water line (LMWL) and calculation of an
222 offset from the general background concentration (centroid of all samples) and between the stations were used to assess
223 seasonal recharge and drainage contributions and distinguish between precipitation-dominated and older subsurface waters.

224

225 **2.4 Physico-chemical data collection and analysis**

226 To evaluate contaminant concentrations and solute composition, we combined field parameters with laboratory analyses. Acid-
227 washed HDPE bottles, pre-rinsed with deionized water, were used to collect water samples. For all samples, pH and

231 conductivity were measured (pH 340 and Cond 3310 sensors, WTW Weilheim). Prior to conducting analyses for dissolved
232 organic carbon (DOC), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), and metal(lloid)s, we filtered the samples using polyethersulfone
233 filters with 0.45 μm pores (Filtropur S, Sarstedt Nümbrecht). The DIC and DOC concentrations were measured in triplicate
234 for each sample using a total organic carbon analyzer (TOC-L series, Shimadzu Duisburg). For DOC measurements, we
235 employed a high temperature combustion method, categorizing it as non-purgeable organic carbon (NPOC). This involved
236 acidifying and then purging the samples with oxygen to expel inorganic carbon before the analysis. The precision of our data
237 was validated by computing the standard deviation of the triple measurements, ensuring data reliability within the instrument's
238 precision range (coefficient of variation < 2% and standard error < 0.1). We quantified metal(lloid) concentrations using
239 inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES Optima 5300 DV Spectrometer, PerkinElmer Rodgau).
240 For metal(lloid) analysis, we prepared the samples with an addition of 1 mL of 2M nitric acid and included the following
241 metal(lloid)s in our analysis: iron (Fe), zinc (Zn), arsenic (As), copper (Cu), cadmium (Cd), lead (Pb), aluminum (Al), nickel
242 (Ni), and manganese (Mn). These parameters allowed us to assess both geochemical conditions and contaminant levels under
243 varying hydrological phases.

244

245 **2.5 Automated sampling and high-resolution monitoring**

246 To capture short-lived contaminant pulses that campaign sampling might miss, we complemented discrete sampling with
247 automated high-frequency monitoring at site 2. An autosampler (6712 Full-Size portable sampler, ISCO Nebraska) was
248 positioned at this site from May 16th, 2022 to February 14th, 2023 as an approach to avoid missing unseen aspects in the
249 temporal dynamics of mine drainage water quality. The autosampler was calibrated to take a sample daily. 21 out of 24 1-L
250 autosampler bottles were each filled with 10 mL of 2 M HCl prior to each start of the autosampler run to stabilize the metal(lloid)
251 solutions for measurements in the laboratory, while three autosampler bottles (one every seven days) were unacidified to record
252 accurate pH and electrical conductivity measurements. The autosampler was filled every three weeks and 250 mL samples
253 were collected from each bottle in the machine. Samples were filtered in the lab and prepared for further analyses. Prior to
254 each new campaign, all 250 ml autosampler bottles were cleaned in a lab dishwasher and rinsed with deionized water. To
255 complement this daily automated sampling, we submersed an online UV-Vis spectrometer probe (spectro::lyser V3, s::can
256 GmbH Vienna; in the following simply termed spectrolyzer) in the flow channel from May 16th, 2022 to May 23rd, 2023 to
257 record hourly absorbance measurements over a wavelength range of 200 to 720 nm at 2.5 nm increments.

258 To analyze and compare the spectral data obtained from the spectrolyzer with the metal(lloid) concentration data collected by
259 the autosampler at site 2 over time, we employed Quinlan's Cubist modeling (Kuhn and Johnson, 2013). Cubist, a rule-based
260 method using spectrometric measurements, combines decision trees with linear models at the leaves, allowing for the
261 prediction of continuous numerical variables. This approach was suited to our study because it handles non-linear relationships
262 while maintaining interpretability. The modeling framework was applied to all analyzed metal(lloid)s (see SI for details), while
263 here we highlight cadmium as an illustrative example.

264

265 **2.6 Statistical and analytical framework**266 **2.6.1 Hydrological phase classification**

267 To evaluate the influence of hydrological and geochemical drivers on contaminant mobilization, we divided the time series
 268 into three hydrologically defined flow phases: low flow, flush, and declining flow. This classification was informed by
 269 temporal patterns in discharge and water availability index values, observed consistently across the four monitoring sites.
 270 Declining flow was characterized with the onset of dry conditions depicted by the water availability index turning negative.
 271 Low flow marks the phase when the flow remains at very low rates although the surface system has started to recover from
 272 the drying phase. Flush is defined by the onset of high discharge. The hydrological phases will be complemented with
 273 geochemical phases later on.

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274 **2.6.2 Pollution Load Index**

275 We further calculated the Pollution Load Index (PLI) to assess the cumulative level of metal(loid) contamination across the
 276 four flow monitored locations. The PLI provides an aggregated measure of contamination by integration of the contamination
 277 factors (CFs) of individual metal(loid)s, calculated as a ratio of observed metal(loid) concentrations to their respective
 278 background reference values (Jahan and Strezov, 2018):

$$279 PLI = (CF1 \times CF2 \times CF3 \dots \times CFn)^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (1)$$

280 where $CF = C_{\text{metal}}/C_{\text{background}}$, and n is the number of metal(loid)s considered. A $PLI > 1$ indicates pollution, whereas $PLI < 1$
 281 implies no contamination (Tomlinson et al., 1980). Reference concentrations (for all metal(loid)s except Al) were derived from
 282 average values in the Elbe river at the Magdeburg station, located near the midpoint of the river, for the year 2022, obtained
 283 from FGG Elbe Data Portal (Datenportal der FGG Elbe, 2025). This evaluation allowed us to assess relative contamination
 284 levels at specific locations in the mine against a representative background from a major regional river.

285

286 **2.6.3 Concentration-Discharge analysis and indices**

287 Concentration-discharge (C-Q) relationships were analyzed in \log_{10} - \log_{10} space to determine whether certain areas of the mine
 288 disproportionately contribute specific metal(loid)s across the hydrological phases. The equation in \log_{10} - \log_{10} form used to
 289 describe general patterns between discharge and concentration magnitudes is as follows (Knapp et al., 2020):

$$290 \log_{10}(C) = \log_{10}(a) + b \log_{10}(Q) \quad (2)$$

291 with C as the concentration, Q as the discharge, and a and b as the intercept and slope values. The slope (b) value of each C-
 292 Q relationship was used as the primary metric to evaluate site-specific solute behavior (Fig. 2).

293 Negative slopes ($b < 0$) reflect source-limited dilution, as solute sources become insufficient at higher flows (Basu et al., 2010).

294 Positive slopes ($b > 0$) reflect enrichment, pointing to transport-limited mobilization driven by large solute stores and increased
 295 hydrological mobilization of solutes during increased hydrological connectivity (Pohle et al., 2021; Balerna et al., 2021). Flat
 296 or near-zero slopes indicate chemostatic conditions, where concentrations vary little despite any changes in flow.

302 To further distinguish chemostatic from chemodynamic conditions, we calculated the ratio of the coefficients of variation of
303 concentration and discharge (CV_c/CV_q). Following Musolff et al. (2015), chemostatic behavior is characterized by $-0.2 \leq b \leq$
304 0.2 and $CV_c/CV_q \leq 0.5$, whereas chemodynamic behavior corresponds to $-0.2 \leq b \leq 0.2$ and $CV_c/CV_q \geq 0.5$. Completely
305 chemostatic conditions occur only when $b \approx 0$ and $CV_c/CV_q \ll 0.5$. While we adopt conventional thresholds as diagnostic
306 guides, this term is used in our phase scheme to refer to segments whose behavior tends towards chemostatic-like signatures.
307 To capture dynamic transport mechanisms, we additionally evaluated hysteresis in C-Q space using hysteresis index (HI)
308 methods developed by Lloyd et al. (2016), Zuecco et al. (2016), and Roberts et al. 2023. Lloyd et al. (2016) was used as a
309 directional index quantifying whether concentration responds earlier or later than discharge, while Zuecco et al. (2016) is an
310 angle-based method that incorporates both discharge and magnitude of the loop, capturing asymmetry between rising and
311 falling limbs. The HARP (Hysteresis Area, Residual, and Peaks) method from Roberts et al. (2023) provided a multi-
312 component description of hysteresis area, lag symmetry, and peak timing, enabling a more holistic characterization of event-
313 scale transport behavior. metrics for the hysteresis analysis. (Methodological details are included in the SI).

314 Hysteresis patterns reveal time lags between discharge and concentration, offering insights into hydraulic connectivity (Pohle
315 et al., 2021) and mobilization processes at large (Lloyd et al., 2016). HI values typically range from -1 to +1, with positive
316 values indicating clockwise hysteresis and negative values indicating counterclockwise hysteresis (Vaughan et al., 2017).
317 Interpretation depends on the underlying C-Q behavior, whether concentrations rise or fall relative to discharge, and the
318 hydrological context. Thus, hysteresis patterns were evaluated jointly with slope and CV_c/CV_q ratios.

319 Together, these indices support systematic identification of shifts in contaminant sources, mobilization mechanisms, and
320 hydrogeochemical memory, and form the basis for our specific C-Q conceptualization and geochemical phase classification.

322 2.6.4 Conceptualization of site-specific C-Q patterns

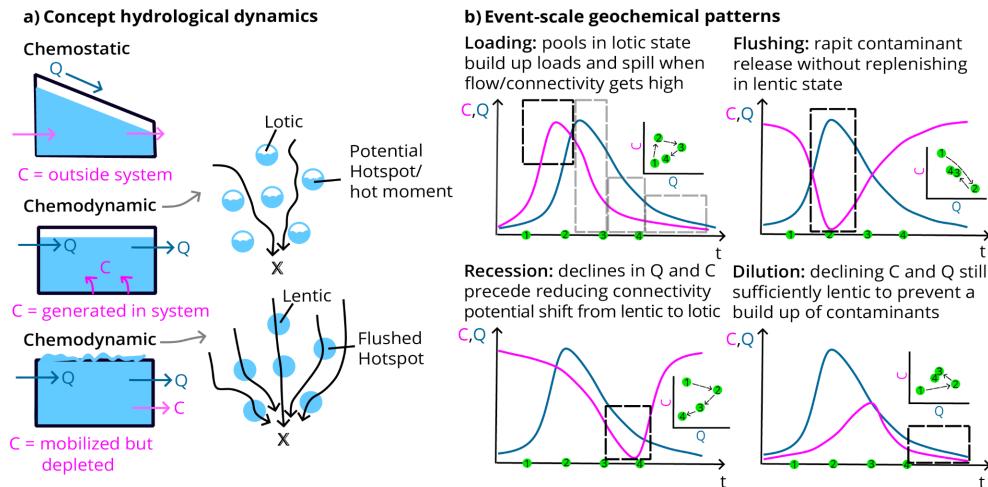
323 In order to interpret the event-scale hydrodynamics in our system, a conceptual basis is needed as flow response analyses alone
324 do not fully capture the mechanistic processes that govern the supply of solutes to flowing waters. Observing C-Q dynamics
325 through a connectivity-mediated lens (Fig. 2a) enables the identification of episodic transitions and characteristics that extend
326 beyond general percolation and link to chemostatic and chemodynamic behaviors. Such transitions are best understood through
327 the fill-and-spill concept in which water accumulates in isolated pools until a threshold is reached, after which overflow
328 activates previously disconnected pathways (McDonnell et al., 2021). In our mine system, this behavior is further influenced
329 by lentic-lotic cycling, where solute accumulation occurs during lotic channelized low flow conditions that maintain prolonged
330 contact with metal-rich surfaces, followed by a transition to lentic, stratified pooling as water backs up behind internal
331 thresholds. When these lentic layers spill, connectivity is abruptly re-established and stored solutes are rapidly flushed from
332 the system, generating short-lived mobilization events (Schmadel et al., 2018). Depending on timing and degree of
333 connectivity, these activation events may or may not coincide with elevated contaminant loads.

Deleted: 2.6.4 Hysteresis analysis[¶]

To capture dynamic transport mechanisms, hysteresis behavior in C-Q relationships was also evaluated using hysteresis index (HI) methods developed by Lloyd et al. (2016) and Zuecco et al. (2016)[¶]

These approaches quantify the direction and magnitude of hysteresis loops observed across different phases. Clockwise hysteresis reflects higher concentrations on the rising limb, suggesting rapid mobilization and proximity of hydrogeochemical sources, whereas counterclockwise hysteresis occurs when concentrations on the falling limb exceed those on the rising limb, indicating that high concentration sources are distant from the sampling location (Pohle et al., 2021).[¶] To compare across events, sites, and solutes, HI values were computed using normalized discharge and concentration values. The Lloyd et al. (2016) method defines HI as the difference in normalized C and Q between rising and falling limbs, while the Zuecco et al. (2016) method interprets the vector angle between these phases to infer transfer behavior. In both approaches, HI values typically range from -1 to +1, with positive values indicating clockwise hysteresis and negative values indicating counterclockwise hysteresis (Vaughan et al., 2017). These indices enable systematic identification of shifts in contaminant availability, transport timing, and hydrogeochemical memory across the mine system. 2.6.5 Geochemical phase classification[¶]

361 Based on a point-to-point analysis of the C-Q dynamics for each solute and site, we observed distinct time dependent
 362 differences of how C-Q patterns evolved (Fig. 2b). Initial observations of hydrological flow and PLI patterns suggested four
 363 recurring sequence-based behaviors: loading, flushing, dilution, and recession. Episodes of chemostatic-like behavior (varying
 364 Q, stable C) also occurred, particularly during recession or periods of sustained connectivity. Here, our objective is not to
 365 assign phases solely from abstract C-Q quadrant patterns, but to identify when in the event sequence these behaviors emerge,
 366 and how they relate to underlying hydrological mechanisms such as threshold activation, lentic-lotic transitions, and fill-and-
 367 spill cycles.



369
 370 **Figure 2:** (a) Conceptual representation of source and pool behavior with three dominant solute conditions. 1. External source input,
 371 where concentrations (C) remain constant across a range of flows (Q). 2. Internal generation, where solutes accumulate within isolated
 372 or weakly connected pools (e.g., lotic compartments). 3. Depleted pools, where previously enriched water masses are mobilized but
 373 concentrations progressively decline as storage is exhausted. (b) Event-scale co-evolution of concentration and discharge. Time-
 374 series patterns show loading, flushing, dilution, and recession patterns emerge during an event. Dark dotted box regions highlight
 375 time windows in which the certain behavior is observed. Light dotted box regions in the first C-Q plot are shown to acknowledge
 376 that other behaviors may also be present throughout different time points. Consecutive observations (green points) illustrate how
 377 these patterns evolve through a hydrological event, and these transitions reflect the interplay of fill-and-spill activation, lentic-lotic
 378 switching, and the spatial distribution of internal solute reservoirs. Together, these panels illustrate how event-driven changes in
 379 connectivity and solute availability produce contaminant export behavior, including short-lived hotspots and hot moments.

Deleted: temporal evolution of contaminant dynamics during event-driven flow phases and their mechanistic interpretations. (a) Concentration (magenta) and discharge (blue) patterns linked with fill-and-spill dynamics:

Deleted: enrichment:

Deleted: Constituent concentrations increase with discharge, consistent with overflow-driven mobilization from previously disconnected sources.

Deleted: Dilution: Concentrations decrease with increasing discharge, reflecting increased water volume with limited solute input or reduced contact time with solute-rich sources.

Deleted: Chemostatic: Concentrations remain constant across a range of flows, suggesting a well-mixed reservoir with stable release conditions. 4. Threshold response: A sudden shift in concentration at a specific discharge value, indicating step-change behavior such as activation of a new flow path or crossing a connectivity threshold.

Deleted: - Q curves represent hydrogeochemical responses in relation to time with the dark dotted box showing where the main pattern is being revealed. 1. Loading: solutes building up under limited connectivity, leading to elevated concentrations before flow activation. 2. Flushing: rapid establishment of hydrological links between source zones triggers increases in discharge and solute export. 3. Dilution: progressive mixing and dilution as storage zones drain, reflected by decreasing concentrations. 4. Recession: declining flow and re-isolation of pools. Insets represent C-Q patterns we observe during several points of each phase (green dots 1-4), signaling the importance of point-by-point dynamics. These phases capture the strongly dynamic hydrogeochemical behavior, illustrating how episodic connectivity controls metal(lloid) mobilization in our subsurface system. ...

415 Applying traditional C-Q relationships in this temporal point-wise manner allows us to reveal how phase transitions structure
416 contaminant export and generate hotspots of locally intensified metal release (Vidon et al., 2010) and hot moments of
417 intensified metal discharge. These event- and site-specific patterns provided a process-based understanding of solute
418 mobilization pathways that complemented the broader hydrological regime which aid in the development of our geochemical
419 phase framework.

Deleted: By using

Deleted: and applying them in a unique way that is more applicable to our study system, we can better reveal how flow-phase transitions and episodic connectivity shape

421 **2.6.5 Geochemical phase classification**

422 In addition to the hydrologically defined phases, we introduced geochemically defined phases to resolve finer-scale temporal
423 variability in contaminant mobilization. To classify these phases, we examined time series trends in water availability index,
424 discharge, PLI, C-Q slope, CV_c/CV_q ratio, and HI behavior using the methods from Lloyd et al. (2016), Zuecco et al. (2016),
425 and Roberts et al. (2023) for each site. This multi-metric approach follows recent guidance by Knapp and Musolff (2024), who
426 emphasize that C-Q tools should not be interpreted in isolation but instead integrated with hydrological and geochemical
427 context to avoid overgeneralization. By manually evaluating these parameters together over time and developing an automated
428 classification algorithm, we identified characteristic patterns that delineate transitions between geochemical phases (Fig. S4).
429 To quantify the instantaneous C-Q behavior, each pair of consecutive observations were evaluated using a point-to-point
430 approach. For each segment, we calculated the C-Q slope and CV_c/CV_q ratio using a five-point rolling window, as well as the
431 hysteresis index values calculated on the time window surrounding each segment. These metrics were integrated into a
432 hierarchical rule-based classification algorithm in which each segment was assigned a confidence score (0-1) based on how
433 strongly its C-Q slope, CV_c/CV_q ratio, and hysteresis behavior matched characteristic patterns for each phase. Phases were
434 evaluated in priority order (flushing, loading, chemostatic, dilution, recession, and variable), with the first phase whose rules
435 triggered being selected as the dominant phase of that segment.

436 These phases were interpreted within the chemostatic-chemodynamic framework of Musolff et al. (2015), in conjunction with
437 the hydrological phase classification and the connectivity-based conceptual model (Fig. 2), ensuring that our phase
438 classifications aid in process-based interpretations of contaminant transport and mobility. From these combined trends, we
439 developed a working hypothesis in which these recurring geochemical phases emerge (Fig. S4):

- 440 1. Loading phase: Segments with increasing PLI values, negative C-Q slopes, and negative hysteresis during which flow is at
441 its low or increasing were classified as loading. These conditions reflect moments where water resides long enough in
442 isolated pools or channelized pathways for solute stores to accumulate. These segments correspond to the filling state before
443 threshold activation.
- 444 2. Flushing phase: Segments with initially high PLI values which lower as discharge increases, positive C-Q slopes, and
445 positive hysteresis were classified as flushing. These are short time windows where solute-rich lentic layers spill and
446 mobilize accumulated solutes as connectivity rapidly expands. This aligns with threshold exceedance and the activation of
447 previously disconnected domains.

452 [3. Dilution phase: Segments with variably high flows and declining PLI values, and relatively high \$CV_e/CV_q\$ ratios with](#)
453 [positive hysteresis were classified as dilution. Here, solute concentrations decrease due to mixing depleted lentic waters](#)
454 [and less solute-rich flow. Connectivity persists but source reservoirs become progressively exhausted.](#)

455 [4. Recession phase: Segments with lowering flow and stable or slightly declining PLI trends, very low \$CV_e/CV_q\$ ratios, and](#)
456 [low water availability index values were classified as recession. These segments typically occurred during periods of](#)
457 [declining flow when connectivity contracts and solute exchange with source zones is limited.](#)

458 [5. Chemostatic: Periods where flow slightly varied but PLI, C-Q slope, and \$CV_e/CV_q\$ ratios remained relatively stable with](#)
459 [low \$CV_e/CV_q \(< 1\)\$ and flat C-Q slopes, and low hysteresis indices were identified as chemostatic. These episodes occurred](#)
460 [during sustained connectivity when reactive surfaces remain buffered and concentrations change minimally.](#)

461 [6. Variable sources: Segments that did not match the characteristic patterns of other phases, typically showing relatively stable](#)
462 [flow and PLI trends with mixed or ambiguous changes in C-Q metrics were classified as variable sources. These segments](#)
463 [indicated solute dynamics driven by processes other than flow magnitude alone.](#)

464 [Finally, points of maximum pollution potential were further identified where high concentrations were reached before](#)
465 [transitioning to a substantial dilution behavior. These points represent the likely onset of a hot moment in contaminant](#)
466 [mobilization. By integrating hydrological flow and PLI trends with point-wise C-Q evolution, fill-and-spill behavior, and](#)
467 [lentic-lotic transitions, this phase classification and framework provides a mechanistic basis for interpreting episodic solute](#)
468 [mobilization in underground mine systems.](#)

469 [2.6.6 Data visualization](#)

470 All figures and data visualizations were produced using Python (v3.12), primarily with the pandas ([McKinney, 2010; pandas](#)
471 [development team, 2020](#)) and plotly ([Plotly Technologies Inc., 2015](#)) libraries, and are reproducible with the code in the dataset
472 [\(see Sanchez et al., 2025b\) and the code for the geochemical phase classification \(Jackisch and Sanchez, 2025\). The conceptual](#)
473 [frameworks outlined in Fig. 1 and 2 further guided our analysis, motivating the structure of the results to follow the dynamics](#)
474 [of flow-phase-dependent connectivity and site-specific contaminant mobilization.](#)

476 [3 Results and discussion](#)

477 [3.1 Spatial and temporal patterns in hydrological and geochemical parameters](#)

478 The hydrological regime of the Reiche Zeche mine system exhibits pronounced temporal and spatial heterogeneity, driven by
479 internal storage thresholds and episodic connectivity. Figure 3 summarizes key surface and subsurface hydrologic indicators,
480 including the water availability index, precipitation, and discharge at the four monitored sites. Based on hydro-meteorological
481 observations, declining flow, low flow, and flush phases of the mine drainage dynamics were identified. The declining phase
482 is informed by the overall moisture regime starting with the landscape shift from wet to dry states and ending when both flow
483 and dryness reach their minimum. These patterns were exhibited for two annual cycles (i.e. in 2022 and 2023). Notably, flush
484 phases occurred in February 2023 – May 2023 and December 2023 – February 2024, marked by sharp increases in discharge

Deleted: By incorporating these quantitative values using Musolff's criteria for chemostatic vs chemodynamic conditions and our conceptual basis diagram, we developed the loading and flushing phase, dilution phase, recession phase, and completely chemostatic phase. The classification algorithm evaluated the direction and magnitude of change in discharge (ΔQ) and concentration (ΔC) relative to their total ranges at each site. To filter out minor fluctuations due to noise, a relative threshold factor of 0.01 (1% of the respective variable's range) was applied and only changes exceeding this value were considered significant. The sign combinations of ΔQ and ΔC then determined the phase category (Fig. 2b): Connectivity ($Q \uparrow C \uparrow$), dispersion ($Q \uparrow C \downarrow$), accumulation ($Q \downarrow C \uparrow$), recovery ($Q \downarrow C \downarrow$), quasi-chemostatic (Q varying, C stable), and source variation (Q stable, C varying), which was occasionally detected but was less predominant.

Each segment was additionally characterized by the C-Q slope and HI value, where slope describes the instantaneous enrichment or dilution rate and HI indicates the temporal offset between discharge and concentration. While these indices retain their conventional interpretations (e.g., positive HI = clockwise, negative HI = counterclockwise), our approach goes beyond their isolated use. Rather than applying slope and HI mechanically, as in typical surface hydrology studies (Rose et al., 2018; Pohle et al., 2021; Spei et al., 2024; Mehdi et al., 2020), we integrated them into a broader geochemical phase framework that merges insights from fill-and-spill, lentic-lotic, and hotspot/hot moment concepts. This integration allows classification of transient processes that may not conform to conventional chemodynamic patterns, reflecting unique internal connectivity and intermittency of underground mine systems. By combining these diagnostic tools with connectivity-informed hydrological concepts, we aim to uncover the mechanisms that govern metal export from abandoned mine systems.

Deleted: Loading with $Q \downarrow C \uparrow$, flushing with $Q \uparrow C \uparrow$, dilution with $Q \uparrow C \downarrow$, chemostatic with varying Q and stable C , recession with $Q \downarrow C \downarrow$ and variable sources with stable Q and varying C . The hysteresis phase classification was based on the direction of the C-Q loop as counter-clockwise (distant sources, delayed response) with negative HI and clockwise (near-stream sources, rapid mobilization) with positive HI. The points of maximum pollution potential were identified when high concentrations were reached in loading or flushing before transitioning to a substantial dilution.

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530 across all four sites. Discharge trends did not align tightly with precipitation inputs, suggesting delayed and non-linear
531 hydrological responses (Milly et al., 2002; Bales et al., 2018). Direct reactions to surface storm events are very rare (Burnt et
532 al., 2025) such that, although surface conditions transitioned from drought to wetter periods in early autumn, increased mine
533 water discharge only became evident months later.

534 This temporal disconnect may reflect both delayed percolation to deeper layers and threshold-based fill-and-spill dynamics
535 within vertically structured storage zones. The more pronounced discharge peaks observed at deeper sites (i.e., sites 3A and
536 3B) compared to shallower sites closer to the surface (i.e., site 1; Li et al., 2022) suggest that connectivity is not continuously
537 active, but rather modulated by threshold exceedance, consistent with a fill-and-spill mechanism. The materials within these
538 contaminant stores are easily entrained once hydrologic thresholds are crossed (e.g., rising water tables or shear stress
539 increases), leading to a sharp but short-lived release pulse (Resongles et al., 2015). This illustrates how flow-phase-dependent
540 changes in hydrological connectivity control source zone activation. Similar to braiding rivers, we expect parts of the system
541 as being always drained and an increasing number of adjacent pools becoming connected with increasing water flow (Wilson
542 et al., 2024). Permanently spilled sections have rather low metal(lloid) concentrations, while temporarily disconnected sections
543 act as niches for microbially mediated solveng and hence elevated metal(lloid) concentrations (Sanchez et al., 2025).

544 To further understand these patterns, we assessed spatial and temporal trends in the pollution load index (PLI) (Jahan and
545 Strezov, 2018), which integrates multiple dissolved metal(lloid) concentrations into a single risk metric (Fig. 3f). The PLI time
546 series reveal clear site- and flow phase dependent variability. Notably, site 3A consistently exhibited the highest PLI values,
547 often exceeding a value of 500, well above the pollution threshold of one (Tomlinson et al., 1980). These elevated PLI values
548 declined sharply early in the flush events, consistent with dilution by low ionic strength water and enhanced mixing (Cánoval
549 et al., 2007), and further suggesting solute buildup during low connectivity followed by rapid export when flow paths are
550 reactivated.

551 We further classified the geochemical response at each site into distinct phases reflecting shifts in source zone activation and
552 storage-release dynamics. These phases, derived from C-Q relationships and aligned with hydrologically defined flow
553 conditions, include loading (characterized by temporal increases in solute concentration during low flow), flushing (rapid
554 contaminant release upon reactivation), dilution (declining concentrations with rising discharge), recession (post-flush declines
555 in both flow and solute levels), and chemostatic (varying discharge with relatively stable concentrations) and variable phases
556 (mixed or unstable transport conditions). This phase-based framework, illustrated by using PLI trajectories (Fig. 3e-f), offers
557 a dynamic perspective on how internal thresholds and subsurface connectivity shifts modulate contaminant export, which is
558 not in phase with the discharge dynamics. This approach challenges traditional drainage-based hypotheses by revealing that
559 solute export is not a continuous seepage process, but rather a sequence of non-linear mobilization events tied to internal
560 storage activation.

561 Site-specific patterns highlight important contrasts in system behavior. While site 1 (located on level 1 at 103 m below surface
562 in our underground mine system) exhibited muted responses with the lowest PLI values, suggesting this point to depict the
563 water entry into the subsurface deposit structures, sites 2, 3A, and 3B exhibited stronger temporal variability, indicative of

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570 reactive source zones. In the lead-up to flushing events, elevated dissolved metal(loid) concentrations suggest slow leaching
 571 or desorption during storage-dominated phases (Pohle et al., 2021; Speir et al., 2024), while post-flush declines point to
 572 transient depletion of pools. CV_e/CV_q ratios (Fig. 3g) reveal mostly chemodynamic behavior at sites 2, 3A, and 3B, with sharp
 573 peaks preceding flushing events and indicating unstable solute supply as connectivity expands. Correspondingly, large HARP
 574 hysteresis areas at these sites (Fig. 3h) reflect repeated short-lived mismatches between concentration and discharge, reflecting
 575 rapid shifts between lentic and lotic states. These sharp fluctuations in PLI and C-Q metrics and synchronized concentration
 576 responses (Fig. S1) highlight the episodic nature of contaminant release and support the view that reconnecting flow paths
 577 mobilize previously isolated geochemical reservoirs.

578



579
 580 Figure 3: Water and metal transport regime in the Reiche Zeche mine. (a) Dryness index as an indicator of the general water
 581 situation on the surface. (b) Weekly precipitation collected from Reiche Zeche, Freiberg weather station. (c) Hydrologically defined
 582 flow phases. (d) Discharge at the four sites in the Reiche Zeche mine. Pink arrows represent time periods when hot moments occur.
 583 (e) Geochemical hysteresis phases of pollution load index (PLI) at the four sites. (f) PLI dynamics, (g) CV_e/CV_q ratios (with a
 584 threshold of 0.5), and (h) Hysteresis Area from the HARP method are shown across the mine system. Individual sites are connected
 585 by black lines and colored lines are monitored flow sites for sites 1, 2, 3A, and 3B.

586

587 **3.2 Trends in metal load patterns and isotopic deviations**

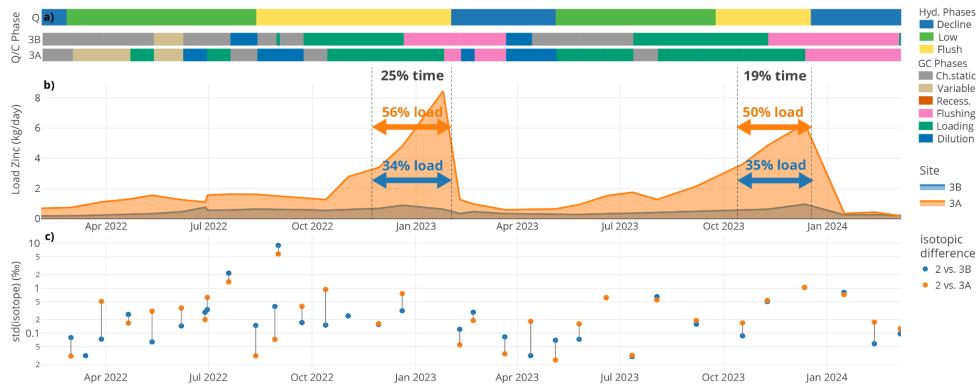
588 While PLI values present a general overview of metal(loid) behavior, looking into metal specific load dynamics (Fig. S3)
589 revealed key insights into the mechanisms controlling contaminant release in legacy mine systems. The daily Zn load ([in terms](#)
590 [of flux, i.e. concentration times discharge](#)) patterns observed at sites 3A and 3B (Fig. 4) exhibit sharp Zn load peaks shortly
591 before major flushing events, despite relatively stable or declining discharge conditions. While these pre-flush peaks occurred
592 during hydrologically low flow phases at both sites, the sites differ in terms of the contribution of each geochemical phase
593 within their fill-and-spill dynamics, [such that this is more pronounced for site 3A than for site 3B. At site 3B, Zn dynamics are](#)
594 [less consistent with threshold-driven mobilization, suggesting that additional processes, such as dilution by younger recharge](#)
595 [waters or stratified storage, may have played a role as well. In contrast, site 3A shows sharper peaks that are better explained](#)
596 [by threshold-exceedance behavior.](#) Once Zn accumulation is at its peak and mobilization begins, Zn loads drop abruptly,
597 reflecting rapid dilution or depletion of accumulated pools. This suggests that site 3A may be a more important target for water
598 remediation.

599 Quantitatively, these short 2-3 month intervals account for 50-56% of the total annual Zn load at site 3A and 34-35% at site
600 3B, despite occupying less than 25% of the time period. This highlights a strong fill-and-spill style signature, where
601 contaminants accumulate gradually under low connectivity and are then exported in intense but brief mobilization events.
602 Importantly, the overlay of flow and geochemical phases emphasizes how metal mobilization is driven by the timing and
603 sequence of hydrological reconnection.

604 To assess whether these mobilization pulses reflect deeper subsurface activation, we examined deviations in stable water
605 isotope compositions ($\delta^{2\text{H}}$ and $\delta^{18\text{O}}$) between deeper sites (3A and 3B) and the shallower reference site 2 (Fig. 4c) as a
606 measure of hydrologic connectivity. Individual samples plotted similarly close to the overall mine water background and the
607 LMWL (Fig. S2), indicating only minor shifts in water sources and weathering interaction at this scale. However, large isotopic
608 differences, predominantly during low flow periods in 2022, support the hypothesis of weak connectivity and more isolated
609 subsurface storage compartments. These differences narrowed considerably during flush phases, indicating reactivation of
610 previously disconnected zones. Shorter distances among standard deviations further point to site 3A (or 3B) being influenced
611 by similar water sources as site 2 during flushing phases. These patterns extend prior applications of isotopic tracers beyond
612 surface water systems (Spangenberg et al., 2007; Hazen et al., 2002), demonstrating their value for characterizing episodic
613 hydrological activation and subsurface connectivity in mining environments.

614 These findings challenge the conventional focus on high-flow conditions as the primary drivers of contaminant export from
615 mining-impacted systems. While prior studies have highlighted the role of high flow in resuspending contaminated sediments
616 or altering water chemistry (e.g., via pH or redox shifts) (Hudson-Edwards et al., 1997; Dawson and Macklin, 1998), our
617 results point to a dominant role of low flow inputs from subsurface or groundwater sources. Unlike classical baseflow, typically
618 low in flow and constant in concentration, these low flow periods exhibited highly variable metal levels, indicating
619 disproportionate contributions to contaminant loads from subsurface pools or intermittently connected sources. Similar
620 conclusions have been drawn in other abandoned mine systems (Bryne et al., 2020), where metal fluxes were sustained or even

621 amplified under low flow regimes, underscoring the need to reconsider assumptions about contaminant risk during non-
 622 flushing conditions.



623
 624 Figure 4: Zn loads and isotopic similarity from February 2022 to March 2024 are shown for sites 3A (orange) and 3B (blue). a) 625 hydrological phases (declining: green, low: yellow, flush: blue) and corresponding geochemical phases (e.g., loading, flushing, 626 recession, dilution, and variable) for sites 3A and 3B (as in Fig. 3). b) Zn loads with peak load contributions labeled as percentages, 627 indicating the proportion of total Zn export occurring in the 2-3 months preceding flushing. c) Standard deviation of isotopic 628 concentrations ($\delta^{2\text{H}}$ and $\delta^{18\text{O}}$) to site 2. Difference between 3A and 3B marked as vertical lines. The relative ratio marks how much 629 the water is similar (strong connection in flow field) or distinct (disperse paths) in the drainage system.

630
 631 The temporal synchronization of contaminant peaks across mine levels reveals a threshold-driven system governed by internal
 632 storage, episodic connectivity, and flow path structure. These processes collectively modulate metal(loid) transport and release,
 633 with site-specific patterns highlighting the role of delayed response and spatial heterogeneity in shaping contaminant export
 634 dynamics.

635 3.3 Dynamics in concentration-discharge relationships

Deleted: and hysteresis

636 Going beyond temporal and spatial trends, C-Q slopes (Table S3) provide insight into solute source proximity, mobilization
 637 timing, and hydrological connectivity (Knapp et al., 2020; [Winter et al., 2021](#)). Figure 5 presents diagnostic C-Q relationships
 638 for Cd, Zn, Fe and PLI at sites 2, 3A, and 3B, integrating hydrologically and geochemically defined phases. C-Q slopes
 639 (calculated for the entire sampling period) revealed very strong dilution patterns ($b < 0$) at sites 3A and 3B for Zn and Cd,
 640 which implies not only decreasing concentrations with increasing discharge but also a reduction in total solute loads compared
 641 to the pre-flushing conditions. This suggests that at sites 3A and 3B incoming event water diluted the system more strongly
 642 than metals were being mobilized, pointing to a depletion of readily exchangeable or previously accumulated solute pools.

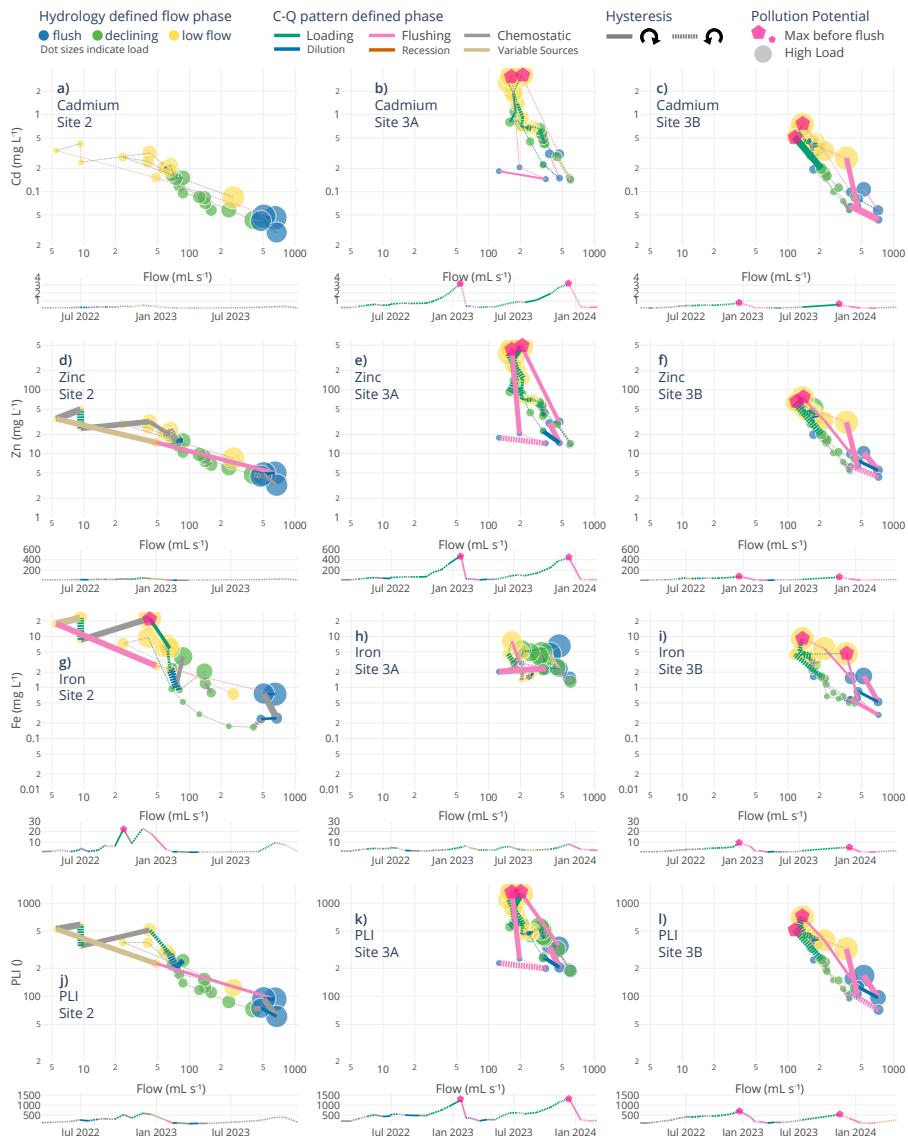
645 One possible explanation is that during preceding low flow periods, metals accumulated locally but were not efficiently flushed
646 out during subsequent events, resulting in net declines in exported mass. In contrast, site 2 displayed a slope of -0.55, still
647 indicative of dilution but less pronounced, consistent with partial mobilization of stored solutes alongside dilution by incoming
648 recharge waters. These differences highlight that while all three sites show dilution-dominated behavior, the deeper sites (3A
649 and 3B) were characterized by stronger depletion, whereas site 2 retained evidence of ongoing solute mobilization events.
650

Within these general behaviors, we identified a “main pollution point”, the moment of peak concentration coinciding with
651 minimal discharge typically seen during the hydrologically defined low flow periods, highlighting a critical window of
652 contaminant risk. Eventually these points are followed by a shift to high flow and low concentration marked by dilution.

653 Segment-scale C-Q analysis further clarified how internal storage and release differ among sites. Across all metals at these
654 main pollution points, CV_e/CV_q ratios generally exceeded 0.5, and HI values consistently exhibited counterclockwise loops,
655 confirming that concentration variability is chemodynamic and governed by time-lagged storage-release dynamics, not
656 discharge magnitude alone. At site 3A, the combination of steep negative slopes and elevated CV_e/CV_q values (up to ~6)
657 indicates deep, isolated pockets of solute-rich water undergoing intense build up during low flow and abrupt depletion upon
658 early stage flushing. Site 3B exhibited similar but less extreme patterns, suggesting pools that accumulate solutes during quiet
659 periods but are shallower or refreshed more frequently. In contrast, site 2 showed the weakest dilution yet remained
660 chemodynamic, supporting the interpretation that this nearer to surface channel receives a continuous supply of water, allowing
661 only partial flushing of stored solutes.

662 When evaluated alongside the timing of pollution potential points, the data reveal that each site expresses hot moments through
663 different mechanisms. At site 3A this is through rapid collapse of deep, enriched pools and at site 3B through more moderate,
664 short-lived spikes, and at site 2 through smaller concentration peaks. Collectively, these site-specific differences underscore
665 how the location, connectivity, and hydrodynamic activation of contaminant-rich zones govern release dynamics, highlighting
666 that standard outlet-based monitoring may overlook episodic contributions from deeper, disconnected compartments. This has
667 direct implications for the design of monitoring strategies and for timing interventions to capture or mitigate short-lived
668 contaminant pulses.

Deleted: This shift suggests a transition from proximal, source-limited mobilization at site 2 to more distal, transport-limited behavior at the deeper sites, where stored contaminants are more effectively diluted during high flow conditions. ¹ Building on the phase-specific C-Q patterns, hysteresis index (HI) values provided additional information on whether, which quantify whether solute concentrations rise responded before or after peak flow, revealing reversals in solute transport dynamics across sites (Table S4). Pronounced hysteresis loops observed during low flow conditions preceding flushing events and HI values calculated on a point-to-point basis using Lloyd et al. (2016) and Zuecco et al. (2016), supported asynchronous activation of flow paths. While we present the hysteresis loops using the method from Lloyd et al. (2016) in Fig. 5, both methods produced very similar counterclockwise hysteresis results, HI values did not help to explain the processes responsible for these time-dependent changes in C-Q dynamics. Within these loops, we did, however, identified By averaging HI values from two methods (Lloyd et al., 2016; Zuecco et al., 2016), dissolved Cd and Zn displayed predominately strong counterclockwise hysteresis and dilution behavior during these main pollution point periods (e.g., at site 3A, Zn: HI = -1.05 and -0.78; Cd: HI = -1.03 and -0.81), suggesting a faster response from concentration than discharge (Pohle et al., 2021), and delayed mobilization from deeper or disconnected zones (Speir et al., 2024). Dissolved Fe exhibited mixed behavior, with relatively weak counterclockwise hysteresis at site 3B (HI = -0.21 and -0.24) and near-zero hysteresis at site 3A, pointing to either complex or spatially uniform source zones (Rose et al., 2018; Zuecco et al., 2016). These patterns imply that individual metals respond differently to evolving hydrological or geochemical conditions, influenced by factors such as redox sensitivity, sorption behavior, and aqueous mobility (Galván et al., 2012). ¹ PLI, which integrates all metal(loid) concentrations into a single risk index, showed similarly dynamic responses. The C-Q analysis revealed predominantly dilution behavior for all sites, but hysteresis was more specifically defined at sites 3A and 3B in comparison to site 2, suggesting a higher importance of observing mobilization transport in deeper areas of the mine after passage through legacy deposits of waste rock material. Therefore, these results highlight that peak alignments and hysteresis patterns primarily reflect dilution-dominated and threshold-driven dynamics, but the strength of the effect varies. These site-specific differences underscore how the location, connectivity, and hydrodynamic activation of contaminant-rich zones govern release dynamics, highlighting that standard outlet-based monitoring may overlook episodic contributions from deeper, disconnected compartments. This has direct implications for the design of monitoring strategies and for timing interventions to capture or mitigate short-lived contaminant pulses.



722 **Figure 5: Concentration–discharge (C–Q) relationships (\log_{10} scaled) for (a–c) dissolved Cd, (d–f) dissolved Zn, (g–i) dissolved Fe,
723 and (j–l) Pollution Load Index at Site 2 (a, d, g, j), Site 3A (b, e, h, k) and Site 3B (c, f, i, l) during the three hydrologically defined
724 phases (flush – blue, declining – green, and low – yellow). Bright pink pentagon-shaped points are the main pollution points (i.e.,
725 moments when high contaminant potential and high load is identified). Dot size represents the respective load. Under each C–Q plot,
726 the dissolved metal concentration and PLI values are shown across a time scale. The geochemically defined phase from the C–Q
727 patterns is represented through the color of the lines connecting each point for the C–Q plots with the line thickness corresponding
728 to absolute hysteresis index (Zuecco et al., 2016) and is distinguished by its direction (negative or near-zero HI dashed, positive HI
729 solid). This phase distinction is also shown for the time series with marked main pollution points.**

730
731 These short-term C–Q transitions observed across the sites map directly into the geochemically defined phases. The strongly
732 negative C–Q slopes observed at sites 3A and 3B occurred during our defined loading phase before the onset of flushing. These
733 segments reflect solute accumulation during low flow followed by a rapid decline in concentrations as connectivity begins to
734 increase, consistent with a system that has accumulated solutes in lotic pathways but is not yet connected enough for flushing.
735 As discharge begins to rise and thresholds are crossed, the system transitions into the flushing phase, marked by rapid release
736 of solute-rich waters from lentic pools. These flushing periods were generally shorter-lived compared to loading periods.
737 Following flushing, the system rapidly enters the dilution phase, where connectivity remains high, but solute stores become
738 limited. Concentrations continue to decrease but with comparably less negative C–Q slopes than those seen during the loading
739 phase, reflecting source-limited dilution in a partially lentic system. During the later portions of events, we anticipated
740 recession phases to emerge, but within our automated classification, chemostatic-like conditions were more prominent at sites
741 2 and 3A, pointing to similar characteristic behavior of these two phases in which the system transitions back toward reduced
742 connectivity.

743 Importantly, while these classifications provide a coherent and mechanistic lens for interpreting short-term hydrogeochemical
744 behavior, we view them as guiding tools rather than fixed or exhaustive categories. This aligns with recent discussions (e.g.,
745 Knapp and Musolff, 2024) emphasizing that C–Q based frameworks, even when combined with additional metrics, cannot
746 capture all processes in complex subsurface environments. Thus, our framework serves as a structured interpretive aid
747 highlighting dominant patterns and the threshold-driven transitions in this mine system, where lotic-lentic and fill-and-spill
748 cycles jointly produce hotspots and hot moments of contaminant release.

749 750 **3.4 Identification of high contaminant potential through spectrometric data**

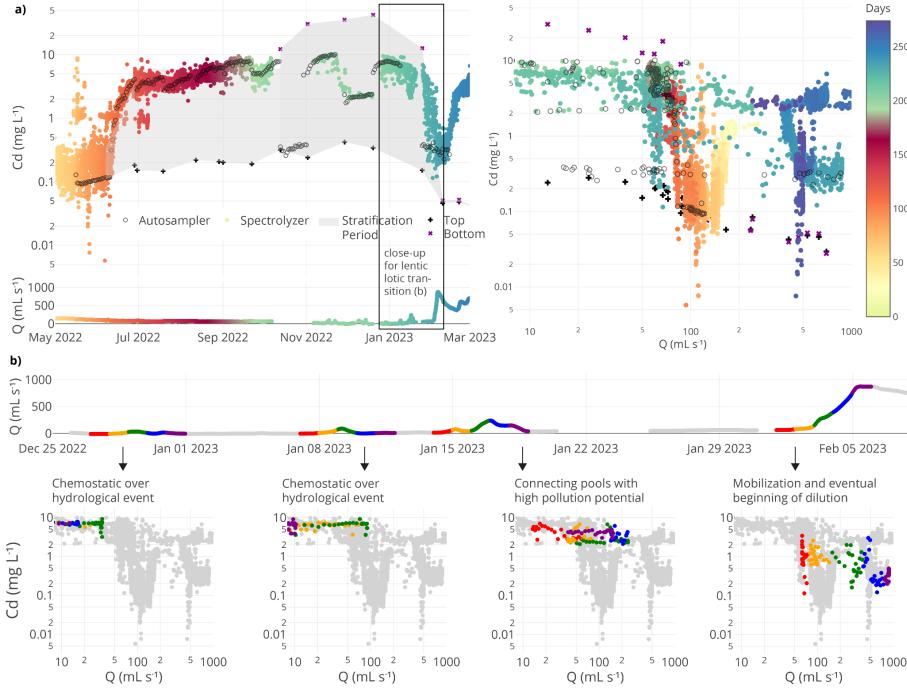
751 To complement this integrative view from the tri-weekly sampling and to zoom into the transition from loading to mobilization,
752 we applied high-frequency monitoring with an in-situ UV-Vis spectrometer (collecting hourly measurements) and daily
753 autosampling at site 2. At site 2, a drainage channel with rough bottom structure creates a specific dynamic flow environment
754 where stratification, density contrasts, and throughflow coexist (Sanchez et al., 2025). This setting created a labile 2-phase
755 system: a low-density surface layer forming a hydraulically connected stream above a dense, metal-enriched bottom pool.
756 Such dual compartments acted as both storage and release zones, with stratification intermittently buffering and then abruptly

Deleted: The geochemically defined phases identified from these C–Q patterns reinforce these interpretations. During loading phases, elevated concentrations and rising discharge mark metal enrichment, while flushing phases show steep declines as flow paths reconnect. Dilution phases emerge when contaminant sources become depleted or overridden by clear inflows, frequently occurring when a main pollution point can be distinctly identified. The alignment of hysteresis moments with these geochemical transitions in the time-series subpanels underscores the threshold-driven and episodic nature of contaminant mobilization in this legacy mine system. In addition, these patterns highlight hysteresis direction and timing, rather than slope alone, are more diagnostic of changing flow path connectivity, source proximity, and depletion dynamics, consistent with fill-and-spill dynamics (Rose et al., 2018; Musolff et al., 2021).

773 mobilizing contaminants. To capture these dynamics, we combined autosampler-based laboratory measurements with high-
774 frequency spectrometric estimates of dissolved Cd (Fig. 6). This dual approach revealed that transitions from solute
775 accumulation to flushing occurred within hours and much more rapid than what can be resolved by sampling alone,
776 highlighting short-lived but significant windows of contaminant export.

777 All monitoring methods consistently showed Cd buildup during low and declining flow (July – December), followed by sharp
778 concentration drops at the onset of flushing conditions. These shifts reinforce the role of threshold-based activation and
779 transient hydrological connectivity in controlling solute mobilization. In addition to these processes, the dynamics are also
780 consistent with gradual solute accumulation under density-stratified conditions followed by abrupt dilution conditions once
781 connectivity is established. Notably, stratification observed visually in mid-October 2022 to late January revealed Cd
782 concentrations in bottom grab samples (positioned near the channel base) more than two orders of magnitude higher than top
783 grab samples (collected at the surface). The grey polygon (i.e., grab sample corridor) in Fig. 6a delineates the concentration
784 range captured by these paired depth-integrated manual grab samples, as well as the spectrolyzer results over the low flow
785 period, providing a window into the presence of density-stabilized, solute-rich bottom waters. These findings suggest
786 temporary solute traps forming during quiescent conditions, a phenomenon also reported in mine systems with intermediate
787 density layering that can be rapidly flushed upon reactivation (Mugova and Wolkersdorfer, 2022; Mugova and Wolkersdorfer,
788 2024).

789 Figure 6b illustrates how phase-specific C-Q relationships for dissolved Cd evolved during a six-week period leading up to
790 the major flushing event in February 2023. Hourly data revealed shifting mobilization regimes, with clear transitions between
791 chemostatic and chemodynamic behavior, just before hydrological shifts. Each C-Q panel corresponds to a high-resolution sub
792 window from the flow time series, capturing short-lived events with discrete geochemical responses. This highlights how
793 although during small or intermediate increases in flow, characteristics of chemostatic conditions may prevail, in a short time
794 span these conditions can change and be initiated from accumulated solute pools, especially under stratified or semi-stratified
795 conditions where density-driven segregation creates temporary storage zones. During low to moderate flow conditions, even
796 minor discharge increases can lead to the buildup prior to contaminant mobilization when residual sources remain available,
797 eroding micro-stratification and reconnecting isolated pools with high pollution potential. In contrast, during high flow
798 conditions, when temporary storages are already exhausted, these pools may be heavily mobilized, such that a variability of
799 dilution, loading, and recession typically dominate the C-Q relationship (Fig. 6b, ‘Mobilization and eventual beginning of
800 dilution’ panel). Solute transport regimes transition within just a few days to weeks as discharge fluctuates, underscoring the
801 dynamic connectivity of source zones and complements the broader patterns seen across sites and metals in Fig. 5. These
802 findings reinforce that episodic hydrological forcing can lead to metal-specific, rapidly evolving export regimes that cannot be
803 captured by temporal sampling alone.



804
805 Figure 6: (a) Top right panel: Dissolved Cd concentrations (\log_{10} scaled) at site 2 measured using an autosampler (daily values in
806 open circles), the spectrometer instrument (hourly values in colored circles), and manual sampling (bottom - purple crosses; top -
807 black crosses). The grab sample corridor (grey polygon) represents the concentration range in which stratification was evident based
808 on all sampling methods (until stratification collapse). The black box with the annotation of close-up for lentic-lotic transition highlights the six-week window analyzed
809 in detail in panel b. Bottom panel: The time series for the water discharge matching with the spectrometer color scheme. Top left
810 panel: C-Q relationship (\log_{10} scaled) for dissolved Cd following the same spectrometer color scheme as the right panel. (b) Top panel:
811 The time series of the six-week window for the discharge matching with the spectrometer color scheme. Bottom panels: Phase-
812 resolved C-Q patterns (\log_{10} scaled) for dissolved Cd over the stratification-collapse and lentic-lotic transition. Each small C-Q panel
813 shows hourly Cd-Q data for a 5-day segment, with points colored by each day (day 1 - red, day 2 - orange, day 3 - green, day 4 -
814 blue, day 5 - purple). C-Q plots highlight progressive phases in the transition between lentic to lotic or fill to spill conditions. After
815 the first two hydrological events showing chemostatic characteristics (2022-12-27 to 2022-12-31 and 2023-01-07 to 2023-01-11), the
816 third event hints to connecting pools with high pollution potential (2023-01-14 to 2023-01-18), which are eventually mobilized in the
817

818 **fourth and strongest breakthrough event mobilization (2023-02-01 to 2023-02-05). These panels are linked to their respective periods**
819 **in the hourly discharge time series.**

820

821 The combined use of autosampler and high-frequency spectrolyzer data offer synergistic insights, such that the former anchors
822 the dataset in analytical accuracy, while the latter captures transient solute behavior and enables time-resolved analysis of
823 flow-phase transitions. This integrated perspective, alongside zooming into small time windows of C-Q responses, is critical
824 for detecting and characterizing hot moments, in which brief but disproportionate pulses of metal export can dominate annual
825 metal loads. Our findings emphasize that stratified pools stabilized during low flow can be rapidly activated within a short
826 window during fill-and-spill (McDonnell et al., 2021) or lentic-lotic cycle transitions (Shaw et al., 2020), reinforcing the need
827 for depth-aware, event-sensitive monitoring to anticipate episodic contaminant risks in complex mining systems.

828

829 **3.5 Implications for contaminant pollution remediation**

830 Our findings highlight that contaminant mobilization in abandoned mine systems is not primarily driven by storm intensity or
831 seasonal high flows, but by internal hydrological thresholds and episodic connectivity between stored contaminant pools and
832 the active drainage network. The observed lag between peak accumulation and flushing, followed by rapid load collapse,
833 suggests that predictive assessments must incorporate not just hydrometeorological variables but also the internal memory of
834 the system.

835 These dynamics expose critical blind spots in current water quality monitoring and regulatory frameworks. Existing
836 benchmarks, such as German sediment quality guidelines (e.g., 800 mg/kg Zn in suspended materials) (Bundesamt für Justiz,
837 2016) and EU background dissolved Zn concentrations (1–35 µg/L) (Munn et al., 2010; Comber et al., 2008) overlook the
838 timing and intensity of short-lived, high-risk release events from underground contaminant reservoirs. Figures 5 and 6 illustrate
839 this clearly. Figure 5 provides a system-scale diagnostic, showing how metals and PLI evolve across sites and flow phases,
840 with highlighted hot moments pinpointing pulses that carry disproportionate contaminant loads. Figure 6 then zooms in at high
841 temporal resolution, capturing the collapse of stratification and lentic-lotic transition that triggered a breakthrough event.
842 Therefore, the hot moments of release, which arise during hydrologically quiet intervals rather than extreme events, may
843 represent important windows of strategic intervention.

844 While this study focuses on the Reiche Zeche mine, the fill-and-spill dynamics we observe are likely widespread across
845 hydrologically complex, mining-impacted systems, especially in porous systems with variable subsurface connectivity,
846 stratified drainage zones, or episodic flow regimes. Similar mechanisms may be active in karst aquifers, tunnel-fed drainages,
847 or engineered infrastructure where discrete contaminant pools are intermittently connected to surface outflows. This shift from
848 peak flow emphasis in such systems toward detecting internal system thresholds supports a more proactive, precise, and
849 strategic path for better timed remediation. Effective mitigation depends on anticipating these moments before widespread
850 flushing, when contaminant concentrations are high but spatially contained.

851 At site 3A, located near the central drainage adit and consistently exhibiting the highest PLI values, we observed Zn loads up
852 to 8.4 kg/day prior to a major flush event (mean 1.9 kg/day). This site contributes only 0.06% of the overall water to the outlet
853 of the overall adit Roths Schönberger Stolln, but 1.3% of the Zn load in average (LfULG, 2014) with the few days before flushing
854 accounting for about 50% of the annual load [from flux-based metrics](#). [While a more detailed monitoring using a spectrometer](#)
855 [at site 3A would have been advantageous](#), this comparison underscores that substantial contaminant fluxes can accumulate and
856 be released from within the mine system itself, often remaining undetected by conventional downstream monitoring. By
857 combining C-Q relationships and hysteresis analysis, our approach pinpoints internal hotspots and identifies hot moments of
858 high mobilization risk, advancing a framework to guide targeted monitoring and early-warning systems. Beyond this study,
859 these findings highlight the broader relevance of upstream diagnostics for understanding contaminant behavior in legacy mine
860 settings and support the need for spatially resolved, phase-sensitive strategies for remediation planning. The latter could include
861 specific small-scale treatment systems near to the actual mobilization hotspots in the legacy mines.

862 [While our results emphasize the value of identifying internal hotspots and hot moments, remediation strategies involve clear](#)
863 [trade-offs. End-of-pipe treatments \(e.g., treatment at mine outlets\) offer practical advantages because they can operate as a](#)
864 [single, accessible location and do not require detailed knowledge of internal connectivity, but they may miss short-lived](#)
865 [contaminant pulses generated upstream. Source-proximal or hotspot-focused interventions can intercept highly concentrated](#)
866 [releases earlier, yet risk overlooking additional, undetected hotspots in hydrologically complex systems. Given that](#)
867 [contaminant mobilization is highly dynamic and rarely captured in current monitoring frameworks, an effective remediation](#)
868 [strategy likely requires combining system-scale and end-of-pipe safeguards with targeted upstream diagnostics to balance](#)
869 [feasibility with responsiveness to episodic release events.](#)

870 4 Conclusions

871 This study demonstrates that contaminant mobilization in abandoned mine systems is controlled not by steady seepage but by
872 episodic shifts in internal hydrological connectivity. Across the Reiche Zeche mine, low flow and pre-flush phases were shown
873 to concentrate dissolved metal(loid)s in poorly connected storage zones, with subsequent reconnection triggering sharp but
874 short-lived contaminant releases. Event-scale C-Q relationships and indices reveal that such hot moments of export account
875 for a disproportionate share of annual metal loads, emphasizing the need to move beyond traditional outlet-based monitoring.
876 Our findings highlight three key insights: First, low flow periods represent high risk intervals of solute accumulation,
877 challenging assumptions that contaminant risk is greatest only during floods or peak flows. Second, site-specific C-Q dynamics
878 demonstrate that contaminant export is shaped by rapid transitions between hydrogeochemical phases, capturing how internal
879 hotspots formed during low flow evolve into hot moments of connectivity-driven release. Third, targeted monitoring of
880 connectivity threshold provides a basis for early warning and site-specific and near-source interventions. By identifying
881 internal hotspots and the timing of mobilization events, this work establishes a transferable framework for diagnosing
882 contaminant risks in legacy mine settings. These insights support a shift toward event-sensitive, near-source remediation

884 strategies that prioritize internal system dynamics, offering more efficient and scalable alternatives to conventional end-of-
885 pipe treatment.

886

887 **Author contributions**

888 **A.A.S.**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation, Writing-original draft, Writing-review
889 and editing. **M.P.L.**: Conceptualization, Supervision, Validation, Writing: review and editing. **S.A.**: Spectral data analysis,
890 online UV-Vis Spectrometer data curation. **S.H.**: Validation, Writing: review and editing. **C.J.**: Conceptualization,
891 Supervision, Hydrological and hysteresis analysis, Data visualization and curation, Original Writing-original draft, Writing:
892 review and editing.

893

894 **Data Availability Statement**

895 The dataset supporting this study is openly available via the B2SHARE data repository under the title LegacyMine_HydroGeo:
896 Dataset on the geochemical and hydrological dynamics in a historic mine system (Sanchez et al., 2025b). It includes high-
897 resolution geochemical, isotopic, hydrological, and spectrometric data collected from the Reiche Zeche mine over a two-year
898 monitoring period. The dataset can be accessed at <https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.32958b4c93284b739182774a18756fdb>
899 and the geochemical phase classification suite is available at <https://github.com/cojacoo/HyGCS>.

900

901 **Competing interests**

902 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

903

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912

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