2	Isotopic and trace elements evolution of the Naica aquifer (Chihuahua,
3	Mexico) over the past 60,000 years revealed by speleothems
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27 ABSTRACT

28

The "espada" speleothems of Cueva de las Espadas (Naica Mine, Chihuahua, Mexico) 29 30 comprise a high-purity selenite core overlain by successive deposits of calcite, gypsum and aragonite. We reveal how these speleothems serve as a new proxy that provide a 31 32 record of palaeohydrogeochemical changes as a response of the Naica aquifer to Late Glacial-Holocene climate conditions. Gypsum precipitated under water from a 33 hydrothermal solution (\approx 55°C) when the water table was above the cave level over the 34 Late Glacial and some intervals of the deglaciation and the Holocene. Aragonite layers 35 formed at lower temperature ($\approx 26^{\circ}$ C) in a perched lake that occupied the lower cave 36 37 level when the water table fell below the cave depth, in consequence to decreased 38 aquifer recharge during brief dry intervals that occurred over the last deglaciation (14.5 ka BP) and the Early Holocene (7.9 ka BP). The isotopic composition of gypsum 39 40 hydration water shows that the deglaciation-Early Holocene aquifer water was enriched 41 in deuterium by 12.8 - 8.7% relative to the Last Glacial stage as a consequence of increased contributions of relative moisture source from the Gulf of Mexico over the 42 Holocene compared to the Late Glacial. These results suggest wetter conditions 43 occurred in the Naica setting at around 57 ka BP than during the Holocene. 44 Furthermore, trace element contents in gypsum have served to track the regimen of 45 circulation of the Naica aquifer over the past 60,000 years, also suggesting higher 46 47 aquifer recharge over the Late Glacial period. 48 **Keywords:** cave minerals, gypsum hydration water, gypsum speleothems, Naica caves, 49 50 palaeogroundwater, selenite. 51

53 Introduction and geological setting

55	Since the middle of the nineteenth century the Naica mining district, located in
56	Chihuahua State, Northern Mexico, has been one of the most important lead and silver
57	exploitations in the World (Fig. 1A). At the Naica mine, zinc and lead sulfides enriched
58	in silver are extracted (Alva-Valdivia et al., 2003). The regional stratigraphy comprises
59	limestone and dolostone with interbedded clays and silts (Albian and Cenomanian)
60	(Franco-Rubio, 1978). Intrusive magmatic activity during the Tertiary is evidenced by
61	felsic dikes in the carbonate series (Megaw et al., 1988) (Fig. 1A). In fact, this part of
62	the North American subcontinent is characterized by felsic dikes some 26.0-30.2 Myr
63	old occurring within the carbonate sequences (Alva-Valdivia et al., 2003). In the case of
64	the Sierra de Naica, the intrusions penetrate an old northwest-southeast fracture. The
65	dikes consist of both calc-silicates with disseminated sulfides and massive sulfides with
66	sparse calc-silicates (Ruiz et al., 1985).
67	The contact between the groundwater and these igneous bodies created a hydrothermal
68	system containing brines, which flowed along the alignment of the dikes that follow
69	lines of weakness (Ruiz et al., 1985). The oxidation of sulfide minerals gave rise to
70	sulfates and metals in solution. Meanwhile, acidification due to this mechanism
71	produced corrosion of the carbonate sequence and the genesis of cave (Forti, 2010).
72	The early conditions of ore deposition were estimated by using fluid inclusion
73	constraints to be about 400–500 °C and 100–270 MPa (Megaw et al., 1988), whereas
74	the current temperature of the aquifer is 52-54 °C. The gradual cooling of the aquifer
75	resulting from the progressive decrease of the magmatic activity under the Sierra de
76	Naica, produced the precipitation of low-temperature hydrothermal minerals in
77	subaqueous conditions such as quartz, calcite, aragonite, anhydrite, and eventually
78	gypsum (Erwood et al., 1979; Marín-Herrera et al., 2006).

- 79 From a hydrogeological point of view, the Naica aquifer consists of a subhorizontal
- 80 carbonate sequence up to 3,000 m deep, which thickness decrease toward the nearby

81 mountains of Pajarillos (south), Camargo (south-east) and el Alamillo (north), all of

- 82 them around 20 km far from the Sierra de Naica (Giulivo et al., 2007). Previous
- 83 hydrogeological works suggest that allogenic feeding to the Naica aquifer from the
- 84 nearby Rio Conchos and Rio San Pedro, 40 km far from the Sierra de Naica are
- 85 presumably low (Giulivo et al., 2007). The current water table at the Naica mine is
- 86 below 800 m deep, as a result of the depression cone induced by the mine dewatering,
- 87 necessary for the exploitation of the deep ore bodies, whilst the natural groundwater
- 88 (without water pumping) would be around 130-140 m deep below the mine entrance
- 89 (Fig. 1A) (Giulivo et al., 2007).
- 90 Highly interesting speleothems occur in many caves within this hypogenic karst system,
- 91 such as in "Cueva de los Cristales" (Crystals Cave) (Marín-Herrera et al., 2006; García-
- 92 Ruiz et al., 2007; Forti, 2010), "Ojo de la Reina" (Queen's Eye Cave) (Forti, 2010;
- 93 Badino et al., 2011) and "Cueva de las Velas" (Sails Cave) (Bernabei et al., 2007) (Fig.
- 94 2) all of them -290 m level below the mine entrance (170 m below the current natural
- 95 groundwater level; Fig. 1A). The "Cueva de los Palacios" (Palace Cave) was the last
- 96 cave discovered in the Naica mine, at -90 m below the mine entrance (40 m above the
- 97 natural groundwater level; Beverly and Forti, 2010). In this cave, there is no trace of
- 98 euhedral gypsum crystals; however gypsum crust flowers and gypsum-hair do occur.
- 99 This is evidence that this cave lay only a few meters above the water table, thus
- 100 allowing capillary uplift and evaporation of water into its atmosphere.
- 101 The Cueva de las Espadas (Cave of the Swords), lying at -120 m below the mine
- 102 entrance (Foshag, 1927; Rickwood, 1981; Gázquez et al., 2012), hosts a rare kind of
- 103 speleothem, the espadas (Fig. 1B, C and Fig. 2A), which are the focus of this paper.

The entrance to the Cueva de las Espadas follows a subvertical fractures connected to the Mountain Fault. The difference in height between the cave entrance and its bottom is 20 m; when it was discovered in 1910, the cave entrance was completely covered by selenite crystals up to 2 meters long (Foshag, 1927; Rickwood, 1981). Uncontrolled visits and pillaging mean that, today, many of these crystals are held in private collections or in museum exhibits.

110 The presence of water in the Cueva de las Espadas is currently quite scarce and limited 111 to condensation water on the walls and surfaces of the speleothems. Nonetheless, the 112 presence of euhedral selenite crystals and subaqueous aragonite concretions in the 113 deepest part of the cave is clear evidence of phreatic conditions that occurred in the past 114 as suggested by Forti (2010) and Gázquez et al. (2012), and also discussed in the current

115 paper. In fact, Gázquez et al. (2012) proposed a model addressing the genesis of these

116 speleothems in which gypsum precipitated in phreatic conditions, when the cave was

117 totally below the water table. On the contrary, during certain periods vadose conditions

118 took place in the upper part of the cavity as a result of the fell of the water table below

119 the cave level. In such circumstances, subaqueous aragonite precipitation occurred in a

120 cave pool that occupied the lower level of Cueva de las Espadas.

121 In the current article, the mineralogy and the geochemistry (stable isotopes and trace122 elements) of the espada speleothems have been examined in order to shed light on their

123 origin. In addition, geochemical data provide a discontinuous record of changes in the

124 characteristics (temperature and salinity) of the Naica aquifer water over the past 60 ka,

125 linked to climate changes that took place in northern Mexico over the Late Glacial-

126 Holocene boundary.

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128

130 Methodology

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132	Sam	pling	method
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134	Subsamples for mineralogical and geochemical analyses were extracted from an espada
135	speleothem that was already broken and which was collected from the floor of the
136	Cueva de las Espadas. No speleothem was taken from the cave walls for conservation
137	purposes. Therefore, preservation of this unique cave and its speleothems was
138	considered as mandatory throughout our investigation.
139	A slice of the espada speleothem was cut perpendicular to its principal growth axis
140	(plane 010) and perpendicular to the exfoliation plane of gypsum, 10 cm from its upper
141	tip. The rest of the espada was cut longitudinally to the main crystallographic axis of
142	the gypsum crystal. Powdered subsamples were then drilled using a Dremel drill with a
143	0.8 mm diameter bit, as displayed in Fig. 3.
144	19 carbonate subsamples were analyzed for δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O, in addition to 33 gypsiferous
145	subsamples in which δD of hydration water and trace element content were determined.
146	Two powdered subsamples of the aragonite layers of the espada speleothem were dated
147	by means of U-Th dating method. Furthermore, one powdered gypsum subsample was
148	extracted from selenite core of the speleothem. Note that up to 10 g of gypsum were
149	necessary for the U-Th analysis. To obtain such a gypsum amount, the crushing of
150	practically the whole gypsum core was necessary (Fig. 3).
151	
152	Raman spectroscopy and EDX mapping
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- 154 The mineralogy of the espada speleothems was determined by micro-Raman
- 155 spectroscopy on a polished lamina (100 µm) longitudinal to the main crystallographic

156 axis of the inner gypsum crystal (Fig. 4A). This technique has enabled thin mineral layers of the speleothems to be analyzed. The spectrometer used was a KOSI HoloSpec 157 f/1.8i model from Kaiser. Microanalyses up to a 5 µm diameter spot were undertaken 158 159 with a Nikon Eclipse E600 microscope (Gázquez et al., 2012). The Raman vibration bands overlap with those identified in previous work on gypsum (Berenblut et al., 160 161 1971), calcite (Rutt and Nicola, 1974) and aragonite (Frech et al., 1980). Raman analyses were performed at the Unidad Asociada UVA-CSIC-CAB of the University of 162 Valladolid (Spain). EDX (Energy-Dispersive X-ray spectroscopy) was used for sulfur 163 mapping acquisition on the same polished lamina as described by Gázquez et al. (2012). 164 165 166 Isotope analyses methods

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168 δD of gypsum hydration water

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170 Powdered gypsum subsamples (0.6 mg) were analyzed for δD of hydration water using

171 the silver encapsulation method (Sauer et al., 2009), consisting of high-temperature

172 pyrolysis (1450 °C) of the samples in a graphite reactor, and isotopic measurement of

173 the H₂ generated. Previous to the analysis, hygroscopic water was removed by pumping

174 on the sample in vacuum for three hours at room temperature with a liquid nitrogen trap

175 fitted on the pumping line to remove absorbed water from the gypsum. This low-

176 vacuum pumping (10^{-3} mbars) was found to be effective at removing absorbed water

- 177 with no detectable loss of hydration water (Playa et al., 2005). The δD values of the
- 178 gypsum samples were measured using a TC/EA coupled to an IRMS (Isotopic Ratio
- 179 Mass Spectrometer) Delta Plus XL (Thermo Finnigan). Samples were prepared and
- 180 analyzed in triplicate. This method, unlike others previously utilized to analyze isotopes

- 181 in gypsum hydration water (Sofer, 1978; Pradhananga and Matsuo, 1985; Hodell et al.,
- 182 2012) allows for the analysis of small gypsum samples in order to obtain higher spatial
- 183 sampling resolution.
- 184 The internal standards used were hexatriacontane (EEZ-24; $\delta D = -207$ ‰), polyethylene
- 185 foil (PEF; $\delta D = -100.3$ %) and coumarin (CUM; $\delta D = 65$ %). These standards were
- 186 utilized to estimate analytical reproducibility, and their δD values are relative to the
- 187 international V-SMOW (Vienna-Standard Mean Ocean Water) standard. Analytical
- 188 reproducibility of δD was better than $\pm 1.5\%$, relative to the standard measurements.
- 189 The analyses were performed in the Stable Isotope Biogeochemistry Laboratory at the
- 190 CSIC Experimental Station at Zaidín (Granada, Spain).
- 191
- 192 δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C in carbonate
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The carbonate bands of the speleothem were analyzed for δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O. This was done 194 by reacting 1.2 mg of sample with high-purity anhydrous H₃PO₄ at a constant 195 temperature of 50°C for 5 hours. Carbonate analysis used Gas Bench II coupled to an 196 IRMS Delta Plus XL (Thermo Finnigan). This instrumentation allowed $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ 197 198 (V-PDB) to be measured simultaneously with a reproducibility of $\pm 0.2\%$ in both cases, bases on the standard measurements. Values of the standards (EEZ-1, EEZ-5 and EEZ-199 10, all pure carbonate and repeatedly calibrated with respect the international standards 200 NBS-19 and Carrara), varied from -2.57‰ to -21.57‰ for δ^{18} O and 2.59‰ to -37.21‰ 201 for δ^{13} C, compared to the international V-PDB (*Vienna-PeeDee Belemnite*) standard. 202 The analyses were performed in the Stable Isotope Biogeochemistry Laboratory at the 203 204 CSIC Experimental Station at Zaidín (Granada, Spain).

207

Trace elements in powdered gypsum samples were analyzed using a Thermo iCAP 208 DUO 6300 Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometer installed in the 209 Department of Geology at the University of Oviedo (Spain). The powdered samples (1 210 mg) were dissolved in high-purity 2% HNO₃. Major elements were measured in radial 211 mode and trace elements in axial mode. Calibration employed international standards 212 prepared to match typical ratios of trace and major elements in samples, and was 213 conducted offline using the intensity ratio method described in previous work (de 214 215 Villiers et al., 2007). The representative wavelength recommended by the fabricant of 216 the instrument was utilized to calculate the concentration of each element in the 217 samples. All trace elements data are reported in mmol trace/mol Ca. Analytical errors based on repeated measurements of the standards ranged between 1% for Sr/Ca and 11 218 219 % for Cu/Ca.

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221 230 Th - 234 U dating method

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The age of the espada speleothems was revealed using 230 Th $^{-234}$ U dating. 10 g of 223 224 gypsum and 0.1 g of aragonite were dissolved in 600 ml and 15 ml of ultrapure 1M 225 HNO₃, respectively. Actinides are selectively retained using Eichrom TRU resin, 226 directly from solution. Further information about the analytical method for actinides separation of these samples can be found in Sanna et al. (2010). 227 Isotopic measurements were performed on a Nu Plasma HR multicollector ICP-MS 228 229 with a U-Pb collector block at the Department of Geology, University of Oslo. Analyses were done in dry plasma using a DSN-100 desolvating nebuliser. The reproducibility of 230 231 each measured 234 U/ 238 U ratio was 0.11% (2 σ) (Sanna et al., 2010). Data reduction,

error optimization and propagation were done using tailored software (Lauritzen and
Lundberg, 1997) which has been rewritten for the Windows environment. Correction
for detrital ²³⁰Th contamination was needed due to the relatively low ²³⁰Th/²³²Th ratios
found in the samples. Correction was done assuming "world mean" initial ²³⁰Th/²³²Th of
1.5 (Richards and Dorale, 2003).

237

238 Results

239

- 240 Within Cueva de las Espadas, gypsum crystals cover the cave walls, in particular at the
- 241 lower level, from the cave bottom to approximately the height of 6 meters (-140 to -135

²⁴² m below the mine entrance). Meanwhile, at the upper cave level (at the depth between -

243 135 m and -120 m) there are evidences of gypsum crystals dissolution and carbonate

244 walls corrosion by condensation water. Currently, dissolution of gypsum speleothems is

245 still active, particularly close to the cave entrance.

246 It is worth noting that the gypsum crystals placed at the lower level appear covered by

247 whitish and brownish carbonate concretions, whilst the crystals displayed above 2 m

248 from the cave bottom are totally clear and transparent.

249 Examination of a longitudinal polished section of the espada speleothem indicated up to

250 seven distinct phases of mineral growth, both by mico-Raman and EDX mapping (Fig.

251 4A). The speleothem core consists of a high-purity euhedral selenite crystal (G₁) as

252 revealed by typical Raman signals for gypsum. The selenite crystal is overgrown by

253 several alternating layers of carbonate and microcrystalline gypsum. First, a one-

- 254 millimeter-thick layer of aragonite appears on the selenite core (A1). Subsequent
- 255 alternating layers are composed of gypsum (G_2 and G_3) and aragonite (A_2), whereas the
- 256 final brownish layer is made of calcite and cemented clay (C_1) . The sulfur concentration
- 257 in the EDX images also reveals this gypsum-carbonate alternation (Fig. 4A). In

- 258 addition, solid Zn-Mn-Pb inclusions in aragonite have been observed in the espada
- 259 speleothems, at the junction between the gypsum and aragonite layers.
- $260 \quad {}^{230}\text{Th}/{}^{234}\text{U}$ dating method suggests that the innermost aragonite layer (A₁) of the
- 261 espadas dates back 14.5 \pm 4 ka BP, whilst the outermost aragonite layer (A₂) is 7.9 \pm
- 262 0.1 ka old (Table 1). The selenite crystal core (G₁) is dated to 57 ± 1.8 ka BP (Sanna et
- al., 2010). Note that this data represents the average age of a large part of the gypsum
- 264 crystals as a consequence of the large gypsum amount necessary for the U-Th analysis
- 265 (Fig. 3) (Sanna et al., 2010).
- 266 With regards to isotopes in carbonate samples, $\delta^{13}C$ (V-PDB) ranged between -2.7 and -
- 267 1.0 ‰, whilst its mean value was -1.6 \pm 0.5 ‰ (n=19). As for oxygen isotopes, the δ^{18} O
- 268 values of the carbonate layers ranged between -7.0 ‰ and -10.9 ‰, with a mean of -9.5
- 269 $\% \pm 1.4$ (Table 2). No correlation has been observed between $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ (R²= 0.1).
- 270 Hydrogen isotopes (δD) of gypsum samples were also studied and three groups were
- 271 identified (Fig. 4C and Table 3). The first corresponds to the selenite core of the espada
- 272 (G₁), with a δD of -73‰ ± 2.5 (n=18). The second gypsum group corresponds to layer
- 273 G₂ and has a mean δD of -60.1‰ ± 2.2 (n=5). The third group corresponds to the
- 274 outmost gypsum layer of the speleothem (G_3) , and has an intermediate isotope value of -
- 275 $64.6\% \pm 0.9$ (n=8). Regarding the trace elements contained in the gypsum, two different
- 276 groups of samples were distinguished. The first group of samples, taken from the
- 277 selenite core (G1), is enriched in trace elements (Table 3), in contrast to those extracted
- 278 from the external gypsum layers (G_2 and G_3). The depletion ranges between 1.7% for
- 279 Na/Ca and -84.7% for Cd/Ca (Fig. 8). The detailed results of the trace element analysis

280 in the gypsum layers have been reported in Table 3.

281

282 Discussion

284 Mineralogy and genesis of the espada speleothems

285

286 The precipitation of selenite speleothems in the hypogenic caves of Naica is a 287 consequence of upward flow of thermal water in the system (García-Ruiz et al., 2007). 288 During the first hypogenic stages, oxidation of metal sulfides enriched the groundwater 289 in sulfates, resulting in precipitation of anhydrite at high temperature. In later phases, anhydrite started to dissolve as the aquifer temperature gradually decreased to around 58 290 291 °C, as revealed by fluid inclusion analyses (Garofalo et al., 2010). At this temperature, 292 the solubility of anhydrite and gypsum are the same, whereas at lower temperatures, 293 gypsum is the predominant mineral phase (Hardie, 1967) and so it precipitates as 294 selenite crystals. 295 The incredible size of the speleothems in the Naica mine is a consequence of the 296 extremely slow nucleation and growth rate resulting from the constantly low level of saturation over a long period (García-Ruíz et al., 2007). In fact, the selenite crystals of 297 298 the Naica caves have been recently identified as the natural crystals with the slowest 299 growth rate so far described to date $(1.4 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ nm/s}, \text{ by Van Driessche et al.},$ 300 2011). The espada speleothems of Cueva de las Espadas comprise a high-purity selenite core 301 overlain by successive deposits of calcite, gypsum and aragonite. While the 302 303 precipitation of the selenite crystals in this shallower cave was similar to the generation of the huge selenite crystals in Cueva de los Cristales (García-Ruiz et al., 2007; Forti, 304 305 2010) (Fig. 5A and 6A), the outer alternating gypsum and carbonate layers require a 306 more complex explanation.

- 307 These thin mineral layers appear covering the selenite crystals precipitated during
- 308 previous stages, but only overlay the speleothems placed at the cave bottom, below the

- 309 height of 2 m from the floor. This fact suggests that during certain phases the cave was
- 310 intercepted by the water table of the Naica aquifer and a cave pool, which surface lay
- 311 around two meters from the cave bottom, occupied the lower level of the Cueva de las
- 312 Espadas. Consequently, the upper part of the caves was in vadose conditions and the
- 313 subaqueous precipitation of gypsum was interrupted. Nevertheless, mechanisms of
- 314 minerals precipitation, in this case carbonate, continued to occur in the lake placed at
- 315 the cave bottom (Fig. 5B).
- 316 When vadose and oxic conditions prevailed in the upper part of the cave, the
- 317 precipitation of polymetallic oxyhydroxides also took place in the lake, that in the
- 318 espada speleothems is revealed by the presence of polymetallic inclusion observed in
- 319 the aragonite layers (Fig. 4A and Fig. 6B) (Gázquez et al., 2012).
- 320 As described above, in the Cueva de las Espadas carbonate minerals (aragonite and
- 321 calcite) were deposited during certain phases, in addition to gypsum (Fig. 1C). In this
- 322 case, the presence of aragonite layers covering selenite crystals only at the lower cave
- 323 levels strongly suggests that aragonite (A₁) precipitated underwater, when the upper part
- 324 of the cave was in vadose conditions and a cave pool occupied the cave bottom, as a
- 325 result of the drop in the water table (Fig. 5B and 6C).
- 326 During this vadose stage, the upper part of the cave, unconnected to the thermal water,
- 327 started cooling more rapidly, while the lake maintained a slightly higher temperature.
- 328 As a consequence, considerable evaporation from the lake surface took place and
- 329 condensation occurred on the cooler cave walls and roof (Fig. 5B). Nevertheless, the
- 330 cavity was practically sealed and condensation water laden with CO₂ was returned to
- 331 the cave lake. Dissolution of the gypsum crystals placed at upper cave levels occurred,
- 332 producing supersaturation of the water lake in calcium carbonate.
- 333 Accordingly, it can be deduced that at 14.5 ± 4 ka BP, and later at 7.9 ± 0.1 ka BP,
- 334 when the aragonite layers precipitated (Sanna et al., 2010; 2011), the bottom of the

335 Cueva de las Espadas became a perched underground lake, unconnected to the thermal aquifer as a result of the water table fall (Fig. 5B and 6C). This assertion is also 336 supported by the temperature at which a ragonite precipitation occurred in the Cueva de 337 338 las Espadas, which was lower than for gypsum generation, as it will see below. During this period, due to partial disconnection of the main phreatic level, no CO₂ could 339 340 reach the lake carried by the aquifer water and the only possible source of additional CO_2 was the cave atmosphere, where a continuous CO_2 supply was assured from the 341 vapors rising through conduits that link the cave to deep thermal reservoirs (Gázquez et 342 al., 2012). Deposition of calcium carbonate was induced by direct diffusion of carbon 343 344 dioxide present in the cave atmosphere into the lake water or, more probably, by 345 solution of CO₂ in the cave atmosphere into the condensing water that later dripped into the lake. In such circumstances of high Ca²⁺ concentration in lake water and alkaline 346 environment (regarding that the cave is placed in a marine carbonate), aragonite could 347 easily precipitate, only conditioned by the pH of the solution. Although the CO_2 input 348 349 into the Cueva de las Espadas lake should cause slight acidification of the water, this 350 could have been controlled by the buffering effect of the dolomite host rock that also supplied Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} to the solution. Precipitation of aragonite is typical of solutions 351 with high Mg/Ca ratio, because the Mg^{2+} ion inhibits the crystallization of calcite and 352 favors the precipitation of its polymorph (Burton and Walter, 1987). 353 354 This mechanism of carbonate precipitation arising from diffusion of CO₂ in saturated 355 gypsum-rich waters has been reported previously in gypsiferous environments (Forti, 356 2003) and also in a carbonate environment (Onac and Forti, 2011). This mechanism was proved to be currently active at the -590 m level in the Naica mine (Forti et al., 2008), 357 358 and was the cause of aragonite and calcite precipitation in the Ojo de la Reina Cave (Badino et al., 2011) at the -290 m level. 359

360 Subsequently, the water table rose resulting in further phreatic conditions, in which the cave was totally underwater, thus gypsum started precipitating again but in a different 361 framework. The degree of saturation of the lake water with respect to gypsum was 362 363 higher than during the previous selenite precipitation stage, so the precipitation of microcrystalline gypsum occurred (Fig. 5C and 6D). This stage of faster gypsum 364 365 precipitation (G_2) was probably resulted of the enhanced dissolution of the older gypsum crystals on the walls and roof of the cave by the condensing water during the 366 previous vadose stage at the upper part of the cave in which the crystals were exposed to 367 the cave atmosphere. In fact, partial dissolution of gypsum crystals by condensation 368 369 water was proved to induce opening of the large fluid inclusions inside selenite crystals 370 in other cavities of the Naica Mine, such as Ojo de la Reina Cave, which produced high 371 to extremely high saline content in the drip water (Badino et al., 2011).

372 Speleological evidence, such as the corroded and dissolved selenite crystals in the upper

373 part of the cave (Forti and Sanna, 2010) also suggest this part of the cavity was in the

374 vadose zone above the water table during some periods.

Another source of calcium sulfate was the widespread presence of anhydrite in the host rock, which provided an additional supply of calcium sulfate into solution, given to the solubility disequilibrium with respect to gypsum (García-Ruiz et al., 2007). As a result, when the phreatic conditions were restored, gypsum saturation was high enough for gypsum deposition to restart immediately in Cueva de las Espadas, whilst aragonite precipitation stopped (Fig. 5C).

381 The relatively high salinity of the fluid inclusions in the gypsum layer that were

- 382 precipitated during this stage (G₂) (7.7 eq. wt.% NaCl) and higher than those analyzed
- 383 in the gypsum core (G1) (5.3 eq. wt.% NaCl) (Garofalo et al., 2010) provide clear
- 384 evidence that the above-mentioned key mechanism which led to higher saturation in

385 gypsum of the solution than in previous stages is correct, producing the precipitation of386 microcrystalline gypsum in Cueva de las Espadas (Fig. 5C).

After this stage, a further lowering of the water table led again the upper part of the cave 387 388 to vadose conditions and a cave pool occupied the lower part of the cavity. In this 389 situation, gypsum precipitation ceased and aragonite (A₂) precipitation began again, 390 caused by CO₂ diffusion from the cave atmosphere into the lake water (Fig. 6E). Later, the water table rose again and allowed precipitation of a new gypsum layer (G_3) (Fig. 391 392 6F). Finally, a thin calcite layer was precipitated, probably at cooler temperature (C_1) after the main phreatic level had abandoned the cave, during a more recent period (Fig. 393 394 6G). Finally, when the cave was intercepted by mining operations, mining activity 395 generated particles in suspension that were deposited over the espadas (Fig. 6H).

396

397 Palaeohydrogeochemical evolution of the Naica aquifer

398

399 In the previous section we showed how variations in groundwater characteristics led to precipitation of gypsum, aragonite or calcite depending on each situation. In this section 400 we deduce the palaeohydrochemistry of the Naica groundwater from the espada 401 speleothem geochemistry. Stable isotopes of gypsum (δD) and carbonates ($\delta^{18}O$ and 402 403 δ^{13} C) were studied, as well as trace element content in gypsum. 404 Classic studies of light isotopes in gypsum demonstrate that the δD of gypsum water is 405 around 19‰ lower than the solution water from which it derives (Fontes and Gonfiantini, 1967; Pradhananga and Matsuo, 1985). Isotope fractionation of hydrogen 406 isotopes ($\alpha D_{gyp-H2O}=0.985$) is virtually independent of temperatures below 58 °C 407 408 (Fontes and Gonfiantini, 1967; Hodell et al., 2012). By using this fractionation 409 coefficient we found that the δD of the aquifer water, which we assume to be equal to the solution from which gypsum precipitated in Cueva de las Espadas, ranged between -410

411 43.5 and -65.3‰ (Fig. 4B) from the δD of gypsum (Table 3). These values are typical of meteoric water at the Naica setting (Cortés et al., 1997), and suggest that the saline 412 solution that generated the espadas consisted of meteoric water that infiltrated in the 413 414 Naica aquifer and underwent changes in chemical composition and temperature. 415 The isotopic value of deuterium in the current Naica groundwater ($\delta D = -57.5 \pm 0.7 \%$, according to García-Ruiz et al., (2007)) is within the range obtained in our study (-65.3 416 to -43.5‰). On the other hand, the estimated δ^{18} O values from the LMWL in 417 Chihuahua ($\delta D = 7 \delta^{18}O + 1.9$ by Cortés et al., (1997)) using the δD data inferred from 418 gypsum are between -9.6 ‰ and -6.8 ‰, respectively. These values accord with those 419 reported by García-Ruiz et al. (2007) ($\delta^{18}O = -7.65 \pm 0.15$ %) for current aquifer water. 420 In particular, the isotopic composition (δD) of the Naica aquifer at around 57 ka BP 421 (from G₁) was around -58.6 ‰, whilst the value for δ^{18} O was -8.6 ‰, estimated from 422 the LMWL in this area. Meanwhile, the inferred mean values of δD and $\delta^{18}O$ of the 423 aquifer over the deglaciation and the Holocene (from G₂ and G₃) was around -48.6 ‰ 424 425 and -7.2 ‰, respectively (Fig. 4B and C).

The δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values in carbonate speleothems usually record the oxygen isotope 426 427 composition of water and the carbon isotope composition of dissolved inorganic carbon species, respectively (Fairchild et al., 2006). In particular, the δ^{13} C value of precipitated 428 429 carbonate in caves usually depends on the provenience of CO₂ as well as the intensity of the CO₂ degassing into the cave atmosphere. The δ^{13} C values (-1.59 ± 0.51 ‰) found in 430 the espada speleothem are relatively elevated with respect to the typical values of 431 carbonate speleothems placed in other caves (Fairchild et al., 2006) in which soil and 432 vegetation are the main sources of CO₂. The extremely weak correlation between δ^{13} C 433 and $\delta^{18}O$ in carbonate of the *espadas* ($R^2 = 0.1$) points to intense CO₂ degassing 434 accompanied by high evaporation rate did not play a main role during the aragonite 435

- 436 precipitation, unlike the mechanism of isotopic enrichment observed in speleothems of
- 437 other caves (e.i. Baker et al. 1997). This suggests that CO₂ coming from dissolution of
- 438 the marine limestone in the hypogenic aquifer of Naica is the main carbon source. ¹³C
- 439 contribution from host rock has been also proposed as cause of high δ^{13} C values in
- 440 speleothems of other caves (Spötl and Mangini, 2007).
- 441 In regard to oxygen isotopes in carbonate, Patterson et al. (1993) calculated δ^{18} O
- 442 fractionation during aragonite precipitation from dissolved inorganic carbon in water:
 443
- 444 $\Delta \delta^{18}O_{A-W} = 18.56 (\pm 0.319) \cdot 10^3 \times T^{-1} 33.49 (\pm 0.307)$
- 445
- 446 Where $\Delta \delta^{18}O_{A-W}$ is the isotopic fractionation between an argonite and the inorganic
- 447 carbonate species dissolved in water during precipitation (V-SMOW) and T (K) is the

448 water temperature at equilibrium.

- 449 Regarding the δ^{18} O data and applying this equation, the δ^{18} O of the aragonite layers of
- 450 the *espadas* (\approx -7 to -10 ‰ V-PDB) (Table 2) suggests that the values of δ^{18} O in the
- 451 aquifer water were similar to those expected for carbonate precipitation from meteoric
- 452 water in this area (\approx -7 to -8 V-SMOW according to Cortés et al. (1997)) and also to the
- 453 current aquifer water (-7.6 \pm 0.1 % V-SMOW according to García-Ruiz et al., (2007)).
- 454 This is considering that the aragonite precipitation occurred in a perched lake

455 unconnected to the aquifer when the water table was below the Cueva de las Espadas, so

- 456 the water temperature had to be lower than during gypsum precipitation. Isotopic
- 457 equilibrium has been also assumed.
- 458 In contrast, the influence of juvenile water during the genesis of the espada speleothems
- 459 was almost minimized, since magmatic water could have negative δD values but not
- 460 negative δ^{18} O values (Hoefs, 2004).

- 461 Once the isotopic composition of the Naica aquifer over the deglaciation and the
- 462 Holocene had been inferred for gypsum hydration water, these δ^{18} O values could be
- 463 utilized to estimate the temperature at which carbonate precipitated in the Cueva de las
- 464 Espadas by means of the equation obtained by Patterson et al. (1993) for isotopic
- 465 fractionation during aragonite precipitation.
- 466 The mean δ^{18} O value of aragonite (-9.5 ± 1.4 ‰ V-PDB) was used to calculate the
- 467 water temperature during the precipitation under two different settings for δ^{18} O of
- 468 water: (1) the δ^{18} O of the aquifer water estimated from hydration water gypsum younger
- 469 than 14.5 ± 4 ka BP (G₂ and G₃) (-7.2 ± 0.4 ‰ V-SMOW) and (2) the current aquifer
- 470 water (-7.6 \pm 0.1 ‰ V-SMOW). Due to such similar δ^{18} O values observed between the
- 471 palaeogroundwater estimated from gypsum and the current aquifer water we assume
- 472 that δ^{18} O of the solution from which aragonite precipitation did not differ too much
- 473 from these isotopic values.
- 474 The water temperature obtained for the deglaciation and the Holocene at the lake of
- 475 Cueva de las Espadas was 27.8 ± 6.2 °C, whereas the calculations based on current
- 476 aquifer yields a temperature of around 25.7 ± 5.9 °C (Fig. 7). In both cases, the water
- 477 temperature deduced was considerably lower than during the phase of selenite crystal
- 478 precipitation, which was estimated from fluid inclusion analyses (\approx 55 °C; Garofalo et
- 479 al., 2010). These data strongly support the assertion that the Cueva de la Espadas was a
- 480 perched lake located above the water table and unconnected from the deep thermal
- 481 circulation of the Naica aquifer during the phases of carbonate precipitation at around
- 482 14.5 \pm 4 ka BP and 7.9 \pm 0.1 ka BP.
- 483 On the other hand, in this study, the δD of gypsum hydration water and the trace
- 484 elements coprecipitated in gypsum have been useful indicators of different
- 485 hydrogeological regimens occurred in the Naica aquifer during the formation of the

espada speleothems. The negative covariation of δD composition and Pb/Ca ratios in
gypsum during the formation of successive stages of the *espadas* (Fig. 4C) suggests
changes in the source of meteoric water (Pacific Ocean/Gulf of Mexico), which were
coupled to changes in the circulation of the Naica aquifer (deeper aquifer circulation/
shallower aquifer circulation).
Water-rock interaction under thermohaline conditions extracts higher concentrations of
heavy and transition metals due to the highly stable Cl⁻ and SO4²⁻ complexes (Irving and

493 William, 1953; Gardner and Nancollas, 1970; Sherman, 2010). Therefore, the Pb/Ca

494 ratio in the gypsum of the espada speleothems might have been higher when

495 precipitation occurred from deeper thermal water placed at the Naica aquifer over the

496 Last Glacial. During this period, groundwater circulation in the aquifer increased as a

497 result of higher recharge of the aquifer, and extraction of metals from the ore bodies

498 placed in the host rock was enhanced, as revealed by higher trace elements content in

499 the gypsum core of the *espadas* (≈57 ka BP).On the contrary, gypsum formed during

500 later stages (14.5 \pm 4 to 7.9 \pm 0.1 ka BP and after 7.9 \pm 0.1 ka BP) formed from shallower

501 water, depleted in dissolved metals, as a result of limited groundwater circulation in the

502 aquifer due to lower recharge conditions occurred during the deglaciation and the Early

503 Holocene (Fig. 4C).

504 Like Pb, a broad array of heavy and transition metals reveal strong enrichment in the

505 selenite core compared to the subsequent gypsum layer, confirming the greater

506 influence of the deeper aquifer circulation in the earliest phase of the *espada* growth

507 (Fig. 8).

508 The depletion in trace elements of the first gypsum layer (G₂) compared to the gypsum

509 core (G₁) varied between 1.7% for Na and -84.7% for Cd (Fig. 8). Earlier works of Lu

510 et al., (1997) demonstrated that the presence of fluid inclusions might affect the

511 determination of trace elements in gypsum, in particular Na and Mg which

512 concentrations are usually high in fluid inclusions. On the contrary, these authors found

513 that other elements which are present in low concentration in fluid inclusions are not

514 affected by the proportion of fluid inclusions in gypsum. Thus, enrichment of the fluid

515 in transition and heavy metals (Pb, Cd, As, Fe, Zn) compared to lighter metals (K, Sr)

516 reflects the greater complexation affinity of the heavy and transition metals with Cl⁻ and

517 SO₄⁻, which significantly increases their solubility in saline thermal waters (Irving and

518 William, 1953). This mechanism of metal mobilization was more effective under

519 greater and deeper circulation of the Naica aquifer occurred over the Late Glacial than

520 during the deglaciation-Holocene period, when the aquifer circulation was lower.

521

522 Palaeoenvironmental record of the espada speleothems

523

On the basis of the age of the central gypsum core of the speleothems (around 57 ka BP 524 525 of G₁) we can assert that greater recharge conditions prevailed in the Naica aquifer 526 during the Last Glacial stage suggesting wet climate. During this period, the water table 527 level lay below -90 m (Cueva de los Palacios, where no traces of euhedral gypsum crystals have been found and only gypsum speleothems formed in vadose conditions 528 529 have been described), and above 120 m depth, where the Cueva de las Espadas is located. The selenite core of the espadas formed from a δD depleted solution (-58.6 ‰ 530 on average), when the cave was affected by the deep circulation of the Naica aquifer 531 532 over the Late Glacial. 533 The deglaciation-Early Holocene was a period of intermediate to lower aquifer recharge when the water table fell, during some intervals below the cave level, and a perched 534 535 lake occupied the lower part of the cavity, whereas vadose conditions took place at the 536 upper levels. Conditions of lowest recharge of the aquifer due to a dryer period 537 prevailed for brief intervals during the deglaciation and the Holocene which, within the

538 band of certainty of the U-Th ages of the aragonite layers (A_1 and A_2), could be

539 coincident with the beginning of the Bolling/Allerod transition (14.5 ± 4 ka BP) and the

540 8.2 ka event $(7.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ ka BP})$.

When gypsum precipitation resumed (14.5 to 7.9 ka BP and after 7.9 ka BP) due to the 541 water table rising and the cave was totally underwater, the gypsum layers (G₂ and G₃) of 542 543 the *espadas* precipitated but, in this case, the hydration water of gypsum enriched in deuterium (-45.7 ‰ and -49.9 ‰ on average). The cave was influenced by the 544 545 shallower aquifer circulation, as a result of lower effective recharge of the aquifer in a 546 dryer and probably warmer climate occurred during these intervals than over the Late 547 Glacial. 548 Broadly speaking, the gypsum growth stages of the *espadas* indicate rising levels of 549 thermal water coinciding with relatively humid period in Northern Mexico, particularly 550 around 60 ka BP, as revealed by the maximum speleothem growth periods recorded in other caves in nearby Texas (Musgrove et al., 2001) and New Mexico (Brook et al., 551 2006). Recent studies on lacustrine sediments of the Babicora paleolake (also in the 552 Chihuahua State) argue this area of Northern Mexico received more than average 553 precipitation during 79-58 cal ka BP (Metcalfe et al., 2002; Roy et al., 2012). Chávez-554 Lara et al. (2012) also found wetter climate prevailed at 57 cal ka BP in the Chihuahua 555

- 556 Desert by studying lacustrine ostraecods, so corroborating the assertion increased
- 557 recharge to the Naica aquifer during this stage of the Late Glacial.
- 558 On the other hand, the isotope record of the *espadas* shows that the aquifer water during
- 559 the delglaciation-Holocene was enriched in deuterium by 12.8 8.7% relative to the
- 560 Last Glacial stage. Such isotopic shift in the Naica's groundwater responded to
- 561 variations in the moisture source (Pacific Ocean/Gulf of Mexico) contributions to
- 562 precipitation, which have been demonstrated to have an effect on the isotopic
- 563 composition of rainfall in Northern Mexico. The oxygen and deuterium composition of

modern summer monsoon precipitation in the Gulf of Mexico are isotopically higher
than winter Pacific precipitation (Hoy and Gross, 1982; Yapp, 1985; Higgins, 1997;
Asmerom et al., 2010).

567 In this area, recharge responds most strongly to changing precipitation delivery from the568 North American summer monsoon. Currently the region receives precipitation from

569 Pacific winter cyclones, but the majority (>70%) is derived from the summer monsoon

570 system in the Gulf of Mexico (Hoy and Gross, 1982; Yapp, 1985; Douglas et al., 1993).

571 Thus, the observed shift towards higher δD values in the Holocene portion of our

572 espada sample is consistent with the greater importance of summer monsoon

573 precipitation, which strongly indicates warmer and probably drier conditions compared

574 to the Late Glacial that was wetter and likely colder. Such circumstances played a main

575 role in effective moisture in this area of North America. Probably, lower temperatures

576 during the Last Glacial resulted in less evaporation, and even if annual precipitation was

577 the same for the Last Glacial and the Holocene, the effective precipitation would be

578 greater during the Glacial period, as also revealed by paleohydrological studies in lakes

579 of central New Mexico (Allen and Anderson, 2000).

580 During deglaciation and the Holocene, summer monsoon precipitation is documented to

581 have been significantly reduced by cold North Atlantic sea surface temperatures at

582 several times, such as the 8.2 ka event and the Bølling/Allerød transition (Lachniet et

583 al., 2004; Rohling and Pällke, 2005; Kageyama et al., 2005). These intervals were

584 characterized by a significantly reduced thermohaline circulation in the North Atlantic

585 and were potentially dry period in the North Atlantic region.

586 These dry events or others with similar characteristics in the Naica setting could

587 produced a declining water table at around 7.9 ± 0.1 ka and 14.5 ± 4 ka BP in the Naica

588 aquifer, resulting in the upper part of the Cueva de las Espadas was in vadose conditions

589 and a perched lake occupied the lower part of the cave where aragonite precipitated.

590 Conclusions

591

The complex gypsum-carbonate espada speleothems from Cueva de las Espadas at 592 593 Naica are a compelling new palaeoenvironmental proxy which, by offering information 594 on relative water table position, recharge rates of the aquifer and moisture sources, complement existing palaeoclimate records from carbonate speleothems. Alternations of 595 596 gypsum and carbonate layer in the espada speleothem are linked to water table 597 oscillation of the Naica aquifer over the Last Glacial and the Holocene. Meanwhile, the 598 differences observed in the trace element content between gypsum precipitated at 599 around 57 ka BP and gypsum younger than 20 ka BP reveal that the circulation of the 600 aquifer was more active during the Last Glacial than during the deglatiation and the Holocene, as a result of wetter conditions and greater aquifer recharge occurred over the 601 602 Late Glacial stage in the Naica setting. In addition, the stable isotopic composition of deuterium in the gypsum provides information on the moisture source of past 603 604 precipitation, without the temperature effects on isotopic partitioning that occur with oxygen isotopes in carbonate speleothems. The record from the espada speleothems 605 distinguishes a relatively humid glacial period dominated by Pacific winter precipitation 606 607 and a drier Early Holocene dominated by summer monsoon precipitation from the Gulf 608 of Mexico. By the early deglaciation, the summer monsoon was the dominant source of precipitation, and this appears to have increased the vulnerability to drought, as the only 609 610 exceptionally and probably brief arid intervals occurred during the deglaciation (14.5 \pm 4 ka BP) and the Early Holocene (7.9 \pm 0.1 ka BP). In consequence, the aquifer 611 recharge decreased during these dry periods, the water table fell below the Cueva de las 612 Espadas level, giving rise to vadose conditions in the upper part of the cave, whilst a 613 cave pool occupied the cave bottom, in which the precipitation of carbonate took place. 614

615 On the basis of these results, it can be hypothesized that the isotopic composition of 616 other phreatic gypsum speleothems over the World such as those from the Giant Pulpí Geode (Spain) (García-Guinea et al., 2002), the El Teniente Mine (Chile) (Klemm et al., 617 618 2007) or the Cupp-Coutunn Cave (Turkmenistan) (Maltsev, 1997; Bottrell et al., 2001) might be used to reconstruct the geochemical characteristics of aquifer 619 620 palaeogroundwater. Gypsum speleothems in hypogenic caves like those of Naica are very limited worldwide. These places must be conserved due to their natural 621 622 environmental value as well as for their potential for use in future palaeoclimatic 623 research.

624

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626

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850

851 FIGURE CAPTIONS

852

853 Fig. 1. Location of Cueva de las Espadas within the Naica mine complex. A. Sketch

854 of the Naica mine with the locations of the main natural caves discovered. The natural

855 groundwater level of the Naica aquifer (130-140 m below the mine entrance) and that

856 induced by the mine dewatering at the current time (800 m below the mine entrance)

857 have been represented; **B**. The *espadas* consist of a prismatic gypsum crystal covered by

858 several layers of carbonates and microcrystalline gypsum; C. The speleothem, already

859 broken through vandalism, was taken from the floor of Cueva de las Espadas.

860

861 Fig. 2. The three main caves in the Naica mine. A. Cueva de las Espadas (-120 m),

862 gallery from which the speleothems were sampled; B. Cueva de los Cristales (-290 m)

863 with selenite crystals up to 11 meters in length (Photo by La Venta Exploring Team); C.

864 Cueva del Ojo de la Reina (-290 m) which houses gypsum crystals with hydromagnesite

865 and calcite alteration crusts (Note: depths relative to the mine entrance level).

866

Fig. 3. Sampling along a longitudinal section to the axis of an espada speleothem (A),and along a perpendicular section (B). The composition in trace elements was analyzed,

869 as well as the isotope composition (δD) in each spot. Spatial resolution of the samples

870 was 5 mm. The samples shown in red indicate gypsum; those in blue indicate carbonate,

871 and those in yellow, a mixture of both minerals. Red squares indicate the place where

872 U-Th dates were obtained (G: in gypsum, A: in aragonite).

873

874 Fig. 4. Mineralogical and geochemical composition and longitudinal section of an espada speleothem A. Photograph and micro-stratigraphical scheme showing the 875 876 selenite core (G₁), two layers of microcrystalline gypsum (G₂ and G₃) and two layers of aragonite intercalations (A_1 and A_2). The outer layer is of cemented clays (C_1). sulfur 877 878 content mapping was elaborated by microprobe EDX analysis and revealed the 879 aragonite-gypsum contact; **B.** Isotopic evolution (δD) of the water from which the 880 gypsum of the *espada* was precipitated, obtained from the isotope composition of the hydrogen in the water of crystallization of gypsum from gypsiferous samples (extracted 881 882 from a 5 cm longitudinal segment taken along the main growth axis of the speleothem). Question marks represents the growth hiatuses of unknown age (re-dissolution or no 883 884 precipitation) that could have occurred between gypsum and aragonite precipitation 885 stages; C. $\delta D \$ (V-SMOW) and Pb/Ca ratio (mmol/mol) of the gypsiferous samples 886 extracted from a 5 cm longitudinal segment taken from along the main growth axis of the speleothem. Analytical reproducibility of Pb/Ca was ± 7 % and is smaller than the 887 888 symbol. Note the logarithmic scale of the X axis.

889

890 Fig. 5. Evolutionary diagram of the water table position in the Cueva de las

891 **Espadas.** A. Precipitation of gypsum crystals when the cave was totally under water

892 conditions and deeper circulation of the Naica aquifer; B. Precipitation of aragonite in a

- 893 pool that occupied the cave bottom as a result of the drop of the water table. The upper
- 894 part of the caves was under vadose conditions and condensation on the cave walls took

- 895 place, giving rise to dissolution of gypsum precipitated during previous stages and
- 896 carbonate host rock corrosion; C. Precipitation of microcrystalline gypsum under

897 phreatic conditions and shallower circulation of the Naica aquifer. Less stable

- 898 conditions took place than during the previous stages of selenite crystals precipitation
- 899 (topography provided by La Venta Exploring Team).
- 900

901 Fig. 6. Evolutionary diagram of an espada speleothem in the Cueva de las Espadas.

902 A. Precipitation of the selenite core (G_1) under phreatic conditions and deeper

903 circulation of the aquifer during the Last Glacial stage (see Fig. 5A); B. Precipitation of

- 904 Zn-Mn-Pb solid inclusions under oxygenic conditions; C. Precipitation of the first layer
- 905 of aragonite (A₁) in a pool placed at the cave bottom at intermediate temperature, when
- 906 vadose conditions prevailed in the upper part of the cave due to the drop of the water
- 907 table during brief periods of the deglaciation and the Early Holocene (see Fig. 5B); D.
- 908 Precipitation of microcrystalline gypsum (G₂) when the cave was totally under phreatic
- 909 conditions and shallower circulation of the Naica aquifer during periods of the
- 910 deglaciation and the Early Holocene (see Fig. 5C); E. Precipitation of a second
- 911 aragonite layer (A₂) under lowest recharge conditions at intermediate temperature; **F**.
- 912 Precipitation of a second microcrystalline gypsum layer (G₃) under phreatic conditions
- 913 during the Holocene; G. Precipitation of calcite (C1) under vadose conditions with
- 914 falling temperature; H. Mining aerosols and cemented clays deposition under
- 915 atmospheric cave conditions in a recent period.
- 916
- 917

918 **Fig. 7.** Estimated water temperature during aragonite precipitation obtained from the 919 mean δ^{18} O value of aragonite (V-PDB) and the mean δ^{18} O of the aquifer water in two 920 different frameworks: (1) inferred mean δ^{18} O value from hydration water of gypsum

921	precipitated during the deglaciation and the Holocene (G_1 and G_2) and (2) the current
922	mean δ^{18} O value of the groundwater in the Naica Mine (García-Ruiz et al., 2007). The
923	geothermometric equation obtained by Patterson et al. (1993) has been used. The STD
924	of the estimated water temperature was calculated on the basis of the STD of $\delta^{18}O$ in
925	carbonate obtained from the <i>espadas</i> $(\pm 1.4\%)$, as well as the STD of the current water
926	of the Naica aquifer (± 0.15 %, García-Ruiz et al., 2007) and the STD of the estimated
927	water of the Holocene ($\pm 0.4\%$).

928

- 929 Fig. 8. Depletion (%) of several trace elements (((Tr/Cagyp core-Tr/Cainner gyp layer)/Tr/Cagyp
- 930 core) x100) for G_2 compared to G_1 . This factor was calculated for the mean of the ratio
- 931 Tr/Ca for each element in samples of the selenite core (G_1) and the inner gypsum layer
- 932 (G₂). They are represented as a function of the atomic weight of each trace element.

933

- 934
- 935 **Table 1.** Uranium concentration, measured U and Th activity ratios and ages of
- 936 subsamples from the espada speleothem of Cueva de las Espadas.

937

Table 2. Results of isotopic analysis in the carbonate samples represented in Fig. 3.

- 940 Table 3. δD in gypsum hydration water and trace elements composition (Tr/Ca in
- 941 mmol/mol) of the gypsum samples. The δD of the original water from which gypsum
- 942 derived have been also calculated. Nomenclature of the samples refers to Fig. 3.