

Risk of clogging in localized irrigation systems caused by irrigation water

Riesgo de obstrucción de sistemas de riego localizado por aguas de riego

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ABSTRACT: This study aimed to assess the quality of groundwater from the Javita River basin in the province of Santa Elena (Ecuador), with an emphasis on hardness and the Langelier Saturation Index (LSI), which are determining parameters in the formation of scale and the obstruction of emitters in localized irrigation systems. The research was carried out through three sampling campaigns conducted in 2024 at 25 wells distributed throughout the agricultural area of the basin, where water samples were collected in accordance with Ecuadorian technical standards and analyzed in the laboratory for variables such as pH, electrical conductivity, cation concentration (Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^{+}) and anions (CO_3^{2-} , HCO_3^{-} , Cl^{-} , SO_4^{2-}) were analyzed in the laboratory, from which the total hardness and LSI were calculated. The results showed that more than 70% of the sources have water classified as hard or very hard, with hardness values above 500 mg/L of CaCO_3 in several cases, while LSI values ranged from 0.20 to 1.35, with an average of 0.60, indicating calcium carbonate supersaturation and a marked tendency to scaling. It is concluded that the combination of hard water and positive LSI represents a high risk of clogging drippers. Preventive measures such as pH correction through acid injection, the use of scale inhibitors, and systematic monitoring of physicochemical parameters are recommended to optimize the sustainability of localized irrigation systems. and pipes, reducing irrigation efficiency and uniformity, and compromising agricultural productivity.

Keywords: Langelier Saturation Index, Water Hardness, Localized Irrigation Systems, Calcium Carbonate Scaling, Emitter Clogging.

RESUMEN: Se evaluó la calidad del agua subterránea proveniente de la cuenca del río Javita, en la provincia de Santa Elena (Ecuador), con énfasis en la dureza e Índice de Saturación de Langelier (LSI), parámetros determinantes en la formación de incrustaciones y en la obstrucción de emisores en sistemas de riego localizado. Se desarrollaron tres campañas de muestreo realizadas en 2024 a 25 pozos distribuidos en la zona agrícola de la cuenca, donde se recolectaron muestras de agua siguiendo las normas técnicas ecuatorianas, analizándose en laboratorio variables como pH, conductividad eléctrica, concentración de cationes (Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^{+}) y aniones (CO_3^{2-} , HCO_3^{-} , Cl^{-} , SO_4^{2-}), a partir de los cuales se calcularon la dureza total y el LSI. Los resultados evidenciaron que más del 70 % de las fuentes presentan aguas clasificadas como duras o muy duras, con valores de dureza superiores a 500 mg/L de CaCO_3 en varios casos, mientras que los valores del LSI oscilaron entre 0,20 y 1,35, con un promedio de 0,60, lo que indica una sobresaturación de carbonato de calcio y una marcada tendencia a la incrustación. Se concluye que la combinación de aguas duras y LSI positivo representa un riesgo elevado de obstrucción de goteros y tuberías, reduciendo la eficiencia y uniformidad de riego, y comprometiendo la productividad agrícola. Se recomienda implementar medidas preventivas como la corrección de pH mediante inyección de ácidos, el uso de inhibidores de incrustaciones y el monitoreo sistemático de los parámetros físicoquímicos para optimizar la sostenibilidad de los sistemas de riego localizado.

Palabras clave: Índice de Saturación de Langelier, Dureza del agua, sistemas de riego localizado, incrustaciones de carbonato de calcio, obstrucción de emisores.

INTRODUCTION

Irrigation water quality conditions the viability and sustainability of agricultural production. In its natural state, water contains soluble salts which, at adequate levels, are essential for crop development; however, high concentrations can be detrimental to plants and soil health. Efficient water-resource management-considering both surface and groundwater-is therefore indispensable, particularly for agriculture, a sector with high water demand.

In semi-arid regions where surface water is limited, groundwater plays a central role in meeting crop water requirements (Benmarce et al., 2024). Assessing water suitability for agricultural use is crucial for system sustainability. Key suitability parameters include salinity (commonly evaluated by electrical conductivity, EC), sodicity risk (Sodium Adsorption Ratio, SAR), residual sodium carbonate (RSC), and potential toxicity from specific ions (e.g., chloride, boron, sodium (Jadhav et al., 2025).

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Additional essential indicators include pH, total dissolved solids (TDS), hardness, sodium percentage (%Na), Magnesium Adsorption Ratio (MAR), Kelly's Ratio (KR), Effective Salinity (ES), Potential Salinity (PS), and the Langelier Saturation Index (LSI) (Anyango et al., 2024; Mirzabeygi et al., 2016; Ouhakki et al., 2024).

Developed by Wilfred F. Langelier in the 1930s (Langelier, 1936), LSI is an analytical tool that evaluates CaCO_3 saturation equilibrium in water.

Water hardness-defined by concentrations of divalent calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}), expressed as CaCO_3 equivalents-is a determining factor in precipitate and scale formation. LSI, in turn, is a predictive index that assesses the tendency of water to form calcareous deposits or to be corrosive (Barceló-Quintal et al., 2023; Shankar, 2014). Table 1 shows a commonly used hardness classification (Almeida, 2011).

Table 1. Water hardness classification

CaCO_3 content (mg L^{-1})	Classification
< 70	Soft
70-140	Moderately soft
140-220	Slightly hard
220-320	Moderately hard
320-540	Hard
> 540	Very hard

LSI is used to anticipate scaling or corrosion in irrigation infrastructure-such as emitter plugging in localized systems-and pipeline degradation, because it objectively indicates whether water tends to be corrosive, at equilibrium, or scale-forming with respect to CaCO_3 saturation.

Emitter clogging is the primary maintenance challenge in localized irrigation, frequently caused by chemical deposits-particularly Ca and Mg precipitates induced by evaporation (Dehghanisanij et al., 2025). High pH and warm ambient temperatures promote CaCO_3 precipitation, a low-solubility salt that can seriously affect system efficiency and durability (Lopes Muniz et al., 2023).

Drip emitters, with narrow flow passages ($\sim 1 \text{ mm}^2$), are especially susceptible (Lopes Muniz et al., 2023). A positive LSI is a strong indicator of CaCO_3 deposition and, consequently, emitter clogging (Mirzaei et al., 2011). Importantly, CaCO_3 clogging is driven by a complex interplay of factors, not LSI alone.

A positive LSI indicates supersaturation and a tendency to scale; a negative LSI indicates undersaturation and a tendency to corrosion; $\text{LSI} \approx 0$ denotes equilibrium (Abbasnia et al., 2019; Almeida, 2011; Ayers & Westcot, 1985; Balkrishna et al., 2024; Faraji & Shahryari, 2024; Hasag Moran et al., 2022; Mirzabeygi et al., 2016).

Positive LSI effects are exacerbated by elevated pH and temperature (Lopes Muniz et al., 2023). Fertilizer compatibility-especially phosphates-can further react with Ca in water to form precipitates, increasing clogging risk

where Ca is high (Mirzaei et al., 2011). Effective LSI management thus requires an integrated strategy spanning water chemistry, climatic conditions, and agronomic practices (e.g., fertigation methods).

Proactive LSI monitoring protects irrigation infrastructure from costly, irreversible damage maintaining operational efficiency and water-application uniformity-critical to crop productivity and water conservation.

Interpreting LSI values is vital for decision-making (Benmarce et al., 2024):

- $\text{LSI} < 0$ (negative): undersaturated with CaCO_3 ; corrosive tendency. Values ≤ -0.31 are often considered aggressive.
- $\text{LSI} = 0$: equilibrium-no significant tendency to dissolve or precipitate CaCO_3 ; generally ideal for most irrigation systems.
- $\text{LSI} > 0$ (positive): supersaturated with CaCO_3 ; scale-forming tendency. Values $\geq +0.31$ indicate a strong precipitation tendency.

Acceptable ranges near zero (e.g., -0.3 to $+0.3$, or up to $+0.5$) are often preferred, with a slight bias toward mild scaling rather than corrosion, since corrosion causes permanent damage, while mild scale is typically manageable (Orenda, 2022). Corrosion and scaling-predicted by LSI-directly affect the performance and service life of irrigation systems. Beyond physical damage, flow reduction and leaks lead to non-uniform water distribution, negatively impacting yield, water-use efficiency, and potentially causing localized soil salinization-underscoring LSI's relevance for productivity and sustainability.

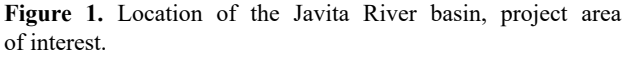
Although LSI focuses on infrastructure, CaCO_3 precipitation in irrigation water can indirectly affect soil chemistry by lowering soluble Ca in soil solution and raising the Na:Ca ratio, impairing drainage and aeration and degrading soil structure. Irrigation with sodic waters can increase soil pH, EC, and soluble Na^+ while decreasing or not altering soluble Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (Peker et al., 2024).

Adjusting irrigation water pH by acid injection directly prevents scaling/corrosion, lowering maintenance costs, enhancing system efficiency, and extending service life-an essential element of sustainable agricultural water management.

Based on the above, the objective of this work was to assess the clogging risk in localized irrigation systems supplied by wells within the Javita River basin, Santa Elena, Ecuador.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study area (Figure 1) is the Javita River basin, located in the parish of Colonche, Santa Elena Canton, Santa Elena Province. It is bounded by the Rio Viejo basin to the north; the Grande, Zapotal, and Daular basins to the south; the Chongón-Colonche range to the east; and the Pacific Ocean to the west.



Relief is undulating and of low elevation. The eastern area near the Chongón-Colonche range is classified as tropical megathermal dry, while the coastal zone is tropical megathermal semi-arid. UTM (WGS-84, Zone 17S) planar coordinates for the SW and NE corners are 525000, 9760000 and 580000, 9800000, respectively.

Sampling followed Ecuadorian Standard NTE INEN 2176:2013 (INEN, 2013b), One-liter amber glass bottles were used. Handling and preservation followed NTE INEN 2169:2013 (INEN, 2013a). Laboratory determinations and techniques are summarized in Table 2.

Determination	Technique
pH	Potentiometry
Electrical conductivity (EC)	Conductimetry
Sodium (Na^+)	Atomic absorption spectrophotometry
Calcium (Ca^{2+})	
Magnesium (Mg^{2+})	
Sulfate (SO_4^{2-})	Turbidimetry
Carbonate (CO_3^{2-})	Volumetry
Bicarbonate (HCO_3^-)	
Chloride (Cl^-)	

$$D = 2,5[Ca] + 4,1[Mg]$$

LSI was determined following [Ayers & Westcot \(1985\), Table 25, p. 103](#), using Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^{+} , CO_3^{2-} , and HCO_3^{-} (all in meq L^{-1}) to compute saturation pH (pHs).

$$pH_s = (pK'_2 - pK'_s) + p(Ca^{2+}) + p(Alk)$$

$$(pK'_2 - pK'_s) = Ca + Mg + Na \text{ in meq/L.}$$

$$p(Ca^{2+}) = Ca \text{ in meq/L.}$$

$$p(Alk) = CO_3 + HCO_3 \text{ in meq/L.}$$

Table 3 lists the average values (three campaigns) of variables used to compute hardness and LSI.

Table 4 presents water hardness values and classification for the 25 wells. Classification follows Almeida (2011).

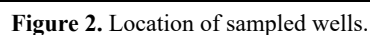


Table 3. Water characteristics in the Javita basin (average of 2024 campaigns) (concentrations in meq L⁻¹ unless noted; pH unitless)

Point	pH _a	Ca	Mg	Na	CO ₃	HCO ₃
meq.L ⁻¹						
P-01	7.70	12.34	5.34	22.15	0.23	3.02
P-02	7.90	8.46	1.88	5.78	0.50	3.20
P-03	8.05	12.23	7.37	33.98	0.24	2.34
P-04	7.70	6.49	1.75	4.66	0.25	1.77
P-05	7.50	11.10	4.46	14.08	0.40	2.71
P-06	7.80	6.93	1.80	4.59	0.40	1.68
P-07	7.90	10.49	2.86	15.48	0.46	2.29
P-08	7.93	13.77	4.05	8.52	0.33	3.00
P-09	7.87	12.57	3.83	6.84	0.27	2.66
P-10	7.80	14.52	4.39	6.98	0.23	2.63
P-11	7.50	20.21	7.61	11.61	0.07	3.02
P-12	7.60	13.65	4.84	9.86	0.30	2.72
P-13	8.05	6.03	1.88	12.26	0.28	2.26
P-14	7.90	5.22	1.33	4.56	0.46	2.00
P-15	8.03	6.04	1.78	5.36	0.29	2.04
P-16	8.23	5.26	1.13	3.43	0.37	1.76
P-17	8.20	4.34	1.46	3.30	0.28	1.88
P-18	8.25	4.68	1.32	2.96	0.29	1.80
P-19	7.93	9.35	2.43	5.85	0.40	2.42
P-20	8.06	5.18	1.04	3.33	0.35	1.57
P-21	8.17	4.86	1.66	3.75	0.31	1.91
P-22	8.14	3.96	1.42	4.59	0.29	1.78
P-23	8.14	4.47	1.17	3.30	0.35	1.57
P-24	8.19	4.48	1.08	3.21	0.36	1.51
P-25	8.25	15.95	5.70	27.16	0.89	3.86

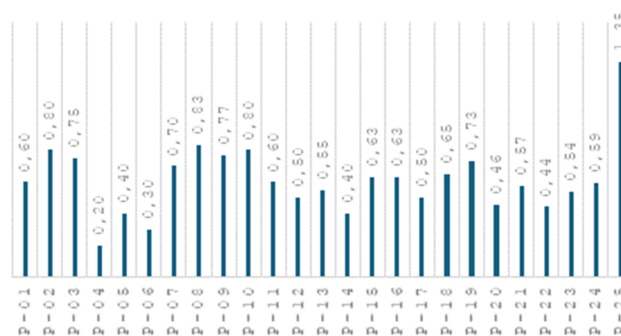
Source: authors, based on laboratory results.

Table 4. Hardness of waters from 25 wells (Aug-Dec 2024), Javita basin

Point	Hardness (mg L ⁻¹ as CaCO ₃)	Classification
P-01	884.53	Very hard
P-02	516.87	Hard
P-03	980.64	Very hard
P-04	412.06	Hard
P-05	778.79	Very hard
P-06	436.42	Hard
P-07	667.39	Very hard
P-08	892.86	Very hard
P-09	819.77	Very hard
P-10	945.89	Very hard
P-11	1308.18	Very hard
P-12	924.94	Very hard
P-13	395.16	Hard
P-14	327.33	Hard
P-15	391.31	Hard
P-16	319.56	Moderately hard
P-17	290.51	Moderately hard
P-18	299.52	Moderately hard
P-19	589.11	Very hard
P-20	310.75	Moderately hard
P-21	326.25	Hard
P-22	268.62	Moderately hard
P-23	281.63	Moderately hard
P-24	277.73	Moderately hard
P-25	1082.97	Very hard

More than 70% of sources were hard or very hard, consistent with the hydrogeological characterization of the Javita and Zapotal basins (Rodríguez Ayala, 2014). This is likely related to geology: part of the basin overlies the Javita Member (calcareous remnants of the San Eduardo Formation-coarse-grained calcarenites interbedded with conglomerates/breccias) (Cornejo Martínez, 2006) and alluvial deposits dominated by sandstones (Instituto Espacial Ecuatoriano & Ministerio de Agricultura, Ganadería, Acuacultura y Pesca, 2012).

Figure 3 shows LSI values (0.20-1.35). This variability is expected and reported elsewhere; it can reflect well depth, aquifer heterogeneity, recharge rates, and local infiltration. The outlier at P-25 (1.35) suggests stronger water-rock interaction or lower recharge, concentrating minerals.

**Figure 3.** Langelier Saturation Index values for sampled waters.

These waters are supersaturated with CaCO₃, indicating high scale potential-especially since >90% of sources exceeded +0.31 (Benmarce et al., 2024). Other Ecuadorian studies report positive LSI in wells-particularly in coastal/calcareous substrates-attributed to aquifer mineralogy and low rainfall recharge (De la Torre Ordoñez, 2018; Montenegro Rodríguez, 2013).

By contrast, García-Ávila et al. (2018) found predominantly negative LSI (−1.22 to −1.68) in Azogues' drinking water system (corrosive trend). The Javita wells show the opposite pattern: positive LSI and higher scaling risk-implying differences in water chemistry (pH, calcium hardness, alkalinity, TDS) between regions. In Tamil Nadu, LSI often exceeds zero in irrigation aquifers and correlates with high salinity and alkalinity (Anyango et al., 2024).

In the U.S., large-scale USGS assessments show spatially mixed patterns-some regions corrosive (negative LSI), others neutral or scaling (positive LSI); about one-third of samples were potentially corrosive by LSI (Belitz et al., 2016). The Javita data align with hard/supersaturated waters (positive LSI). Padilla González et al. (2022) reported LSI from slightly negative to positive (−0.005 to 0.76) and confirmed CaCO₃ scale by SEM/XRD-consistent with our interpretation that positive LSI associates with observable carbonate deposits.

CONCLUSIONS

The interplay between water hardness and LSI is fundamental in evaluating irrigation water quality.

This relationship-expressed mathematically in LSI and manifested physically as scaling or corrosion-largely determines the technical and economic viability of irrigation systems.

Hardness (divalent cation concentration) directly influences saturation pH and thus LSI. Managing both parameters jointly is essential to optimize hydraulic performance and ensure adequate crop nutrition.

Measured LSI values in Javita basin wells were all positive (mean 0.60), indicating a predominant scaling tendency of groundwater in the area. In modern agriculture-where water-use efficiency is imperative-proper monitoring and management of these parameters are indispensable for sustainable irrigation.

System design and management should account for scaling potential to avoid blockages and reduce maintenance costs. We recommend implementing anti-scaling measures (softening, inhibitors, pH control) and routine monitoring of physicochemical parameters to detect seasonal variability.

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