

***A multi-isotopic approach to investigate the influence of land use on nitrate removal in a highly saline lake-aquifer system***

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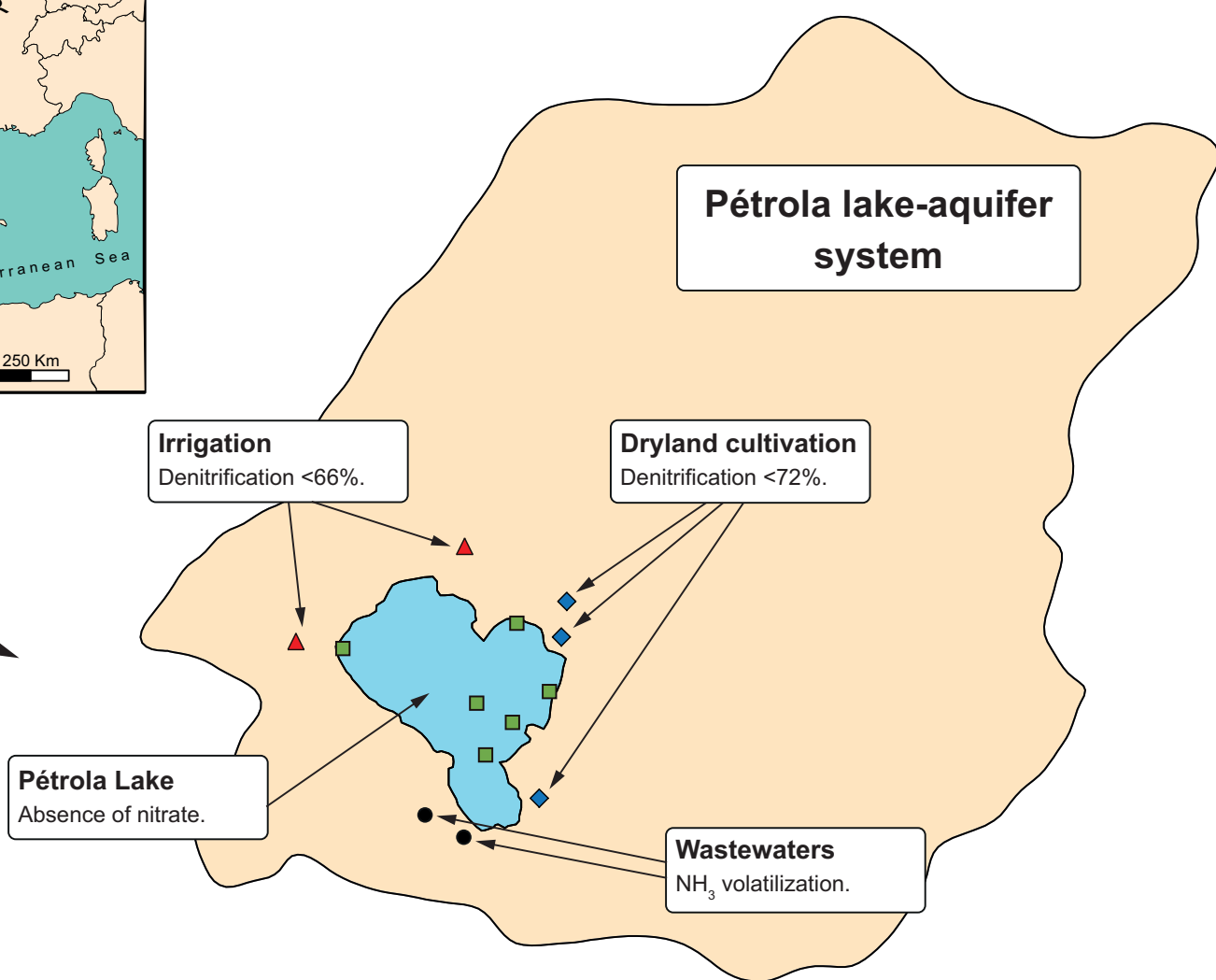
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**Highlights**

Density-driven down flow transports chemicals involved in nitrogen cycling.

Nitrate removal processes are associated to the freshwater-saltwater interface.

The geometry of the freshwater-saltwater interface is influenced by land use.

Natural attenuation of nitrate is mainly linked to agricultural areas.

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2 ***nitrate removal in a highly saline lake-aquifer system***

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22 **Abstract**

23 Endorheic or closed drainage basins in arid and semi-arid regions are  
24 vulnerable to pollution. Nonetheless, in the freshwater-saltwater interface of  
25 endorheic saline lakes, oxidation-reduction (redox) reactions can attenuate  
26 pollutants such as nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ). This study traces the ways of nitrogen (N)  
27 removal in the Pétrola lake-aquifer system (central Spain), an endorheic basin  
28 contaminated with  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (up to 99.2 mg/L in groundwater). This basin was  
29 declared vulnerable to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  pollution in 1998 due to the high anthropogenic  
30 pressures (mainly agriculture and wastewaters). Hydrochemical, multi-isotopic  
31 ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ ,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ ,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ , and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ ) and geophysical techniques  
32 (electrical resistivity tomography) were applied to identify the main redox  
33 processes at the freshwater-saltwater interface. The results showed that the  
34 geometry of this interface is influenced by land use, causing spatial variability of  
35 nitrogen biogeochemical processes over the basin. In the underlying aquifer,  
36  $\text{NO}_3^-$  showed an average concentration of 38.5 mg/L (n=73) and was mainly  
37 derived from agricultural inputs. Natural attenuation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was observed in  
38 dryland farming areas (up to 72%) and in irrigation areas (up to 66%). In the  
39 Pétrola Lake, mineralization and organic matter degradation in lake sediment  
40 play an important role in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction. Our findings are a major step forward  
41 in understanding freshwater-saltwater interfaces as reactive zones for  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
42 attenuation. We further emphasize the importance of including a land use  
43 perspective when studying water quality-environmental relationships in  
44 hydrogeological systems dominated by density-driven circulation.

45

46	<b>Keywords</b>
47	Biogeochemical cycles
48	Groundwater
49	Land use
50	Nitrate attenuation
51	Stable isotopes
52	Variable density
53	

## 54 **1. Introduction**

55 Saline lakes have an important geochemical influence on water resources,  
56 ecological dynamics, and economic activities around the world (Jones and  
57 Deocampo, 2003). The volume of inland saline waters worldwide (about  
58 104,000 km<sup>3</sup>) is similar to the volume of freshwaters (Williams, 1996). Saline  
59 wetlands are mostly located in arid and semi-arid regions associated to  
60 endorheic basins, since these basins are closed drainage areas with no outlet  
61 other than evaporation (Eugster and Hardie, 1978; Yechieli and Wood, 2002).  
62 At the same time, these are environments highly vulnerable to pollution due to  
63 their low precipitation and high evaporation rates (Schütt, 1998).

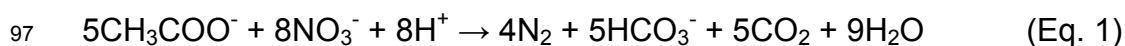
64 The understanding of freshwater-saltwater interfaces in saline wetlands is  
65 important to comprehend shallow hydrogeological processes (Cartwright et al.,  
66 2009). Physical and biogeochemical processes control the chemical evolution of  
67 lakes and the groundwater of the connected aquifer (Castanier et al., 1993;  
68 Güler and Thyne, 2004; Skidmore et al., 2010). Solutes can enter into lakes  
69 through precipitation, surface runoff (e.g. irrigation returns and wastewater  
70 spills) and groundwater. In saline lakes, solutes also can be transported by  
71 density-driven flow (DDF) from the surface lake water to deep zones of the  
72 aquifer through the freshwater-saltwater interface (Wood and Sanford, 1990;  
73 Avrahamov et al., 2014; Colombani et al., 2015).

74 Andersen et al., (2005) and Santoro (2010), among others, have shown that the  
75 freshwater-saltwater interface in estuarine and coastal environments is a  
76 favorable area for oxidation-reduction (redox) reactions using organic carbon as  
77 electron donor, but little is known on the biogeochemical functions of this  
78 interface in saline inland lake systems. In aquatic environments, the redox

79 reactions follow a sequence based on thermodynamic principles that may also  
80 follow temperature gradients (Stumm and Morgan, 1981; Orozco-Durán et al.,  
81 2015; Daesslé et al., 2017). There are, however, also contradictory findings on  
82 this redox sequence as the reduction of different electron acceptors may occur  
83 simultaneously (Postma and Jakobsen, 1996).

84  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is one of the main pollutants affecting surface and groundwater due to its  
85 negative effects on human health (Fraser, 1981; Gulis et al., 2002) and on the  
86 environment. It causes eutrophication of inland waters (Ryther and Dunstan,  
87 1971; Smith, 1998). Under anaerobic conditions,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  can be reduced through  
88 microbial processes. The main natural attenuation process in aquatic  
89 environments is denitrification, which is mainly limited by the electron donors'  
90 availability (Korom, 1992; Rivett et al., 2008). Denitrifiers can obtain metabolic  
91 energy from: i) oxidation of organic compounds (chemoorganotrophic  
92 heterotrophs), or ii) oxidation of inorganic compounds (chemolithotrophic  
93 autotrophs). Heterotrophic denitrification is linked to organic matter oxidation  
94 (Eq. 1), whereas autotrophic denitrification is related to the oxidation of reduced  
95 such as inorganic sulfur compounds (Eq. 2).

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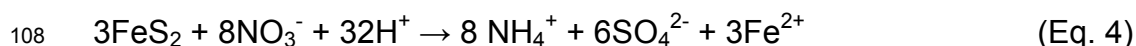
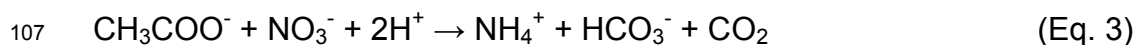
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100 In aquatic environments,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  can be also affected by other processes such as  
101 dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA) (Burgin and Hamilton,  
102 2007). DNRA involves the transformation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) both by



103 heterotrophic organisms, which use organic carbon as the electron donor  
104 (fermentative DNRA) (Eq. 3), and by chemolithoautotrophic organisms, which  
105 use nitrate to oxidize sulfide or other reduced inorganic substrates (Eq. 4).

106



109

110 Contrary to denitrifying bacteria, fermentative bacteria responsible for DNRA  
111 are strict anaerobes (Hill, 1996). Heterotrophic DNRA seems to be promoted  
112 when  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is limited and organic carbon is in excess, whereas denitrification is  
113 the dominant process when organic carbon is the constraining factor (Tiedje,  
114 1988; Korom, 1992; Kelso et al., 1997). The prevalence of one or the other can  
115 be predicted by the organic C:N ratio of available substrates (Tiedje, 1982; Kraft  
116 et al., 2011; van den Berg et al., 2016). Prior studies suggested that DNRA may  
117 be as important, if not more dominant, than denitrification as a sink for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in  
118 reducing environments with high sulfide contents (Brunet and Garcia-Gil, 1996;  
119 Trimmer et al., 1998). The available research recognizes the role of other  
120 microbial processes that remove  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in aquatic ecosystems, such as  
121 anaerobic ammonium oxidation (Anammox; Jetten et al., 1998) and  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
122 reduction coupled to iron and manganese oxidation (Postma et al., 1991; Weber  
123 et al., 2006).

124 The analysis of stable isotopes coupled to hydrochemical investigations is a  
125 widely accepted approach to understand biogeochemical processes in  
126 groundwater. Multi-isotopic analyses have been applied to elucidate  $\text{NO}_3^-$

127 sources (Vitòria et al., 2004; Kendall et al., 2007) as well as to trace major  
128 biogeochemical cycles and their related bacterial-mediated redox reactions in  
129 aquifers and surface water systems (Jurado et al., 2013; Puig et al., 2013;  
130 Hosono et al., 2014; Caschetto et al., 2017).

131 The Pétrola endorheic basin, which was declared a nature reserve in 2005  
132 (Spanish Decree 102/2005, September 13<sup>th</sup>), is located in a zone vulnerable to  
133 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> pollution, where fertilizer use is restricted since April 2011 (Order 2011/7/2  
134 CMA). Previous studies have shown the potential of sediments in the Pétrola  
135 basin to promote NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> attenuation at the laboratory scale (Carrey et al., 2013,  
136 2014a, 2014b). Gómez-Alday et al. (2014) confirmed heterotrophic  
137 denitrification at the field scale, where density-driven flow from surface lake  
138 waters towards the underlying aquifer played an important role in solute  
139 transport. Nonetheless, the main NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction pathway in the Pétrola Lake  
140 remains unknown (Valiente et al., 2016). Previous studies in the Pétrola basin  
141 (Valiente et al., 2017) highlighted the importance of bacterial sulfate-reduction  
142 (BSR) processes in lake sediments and groundwater below the lake. These  
143 BSR processes were carried out, among others, by *Desulfovibrio* spp., which  
144 have also been identified as being responsible for dissimilatory NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction  
145 to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (McCready et al., 1983).

146 The goal of this paper was to identify the unusual ways of nitrogen removal in  
147 the Pétrola saline lake-aquifer system as an example of natural biodegradation  
148 of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> at the freshwater-saltwater interface. The effects of anthropogenic  
149 pressure on geochemical processes and solute transport may be extrapolated  
150 to other systems dominated by density-driven circulation around the world. To  
151 that end, hydrochemical, multi-isotopic and geophysical techniques were

152 applied to trace the redox processes in the Pétrola basin. Hydrochemical and  
153 multi-isotopic techniques are highly suitable to trace pollution sources while  
154 geophysical tools may help to understand the geometry of the freshwater-  
155 saltwater interface.

156

## 157 **2. Study area**

158 The Pétrola Endorheic Basin (PEB) is located in the High Segura River Basin,  
159 in central Spain (Figure 1). The High Segura River Basin includes an important  
160 saline endorheic complex named the Pétrola–Corral-Rubio–La Higuera Saline  
161 Complex (about 275 km<sup>2</sup>), with a total of 19 wetlands (Cirujano et al., 1988).  
162 The main wetland of the complex is the Pétrola lake, with an area of 43 km<sup>2</sup>.  
163 The climate of the study area is Mediterranean, continental, and semi-arid, with  
164 mean annual precipitation below 400 mm, predominantly falling during spring  
165 and autumn. The average monthly temperatures vary from 4.9 °C in January to  
166 24.2 °C in July and the mean annual temperature is 14.3 °C.

167 ----- Fig. 1 near here -----

168 Geologically, the study area consists mainly of Mesozoic materials. The base of  
169 the Lower Cretaceous unit reaches the Barremian and consists of argillaceous  
170 sediments overlain by sands and sandy-conglomerate sediments with  
171 intergranular porosity (Weald Facies). Aptian carbonates cover Barremian  
172 terrigenous deposits. The Utrillas Facies are Albian deposits composed of  
173 siliciclastic sands, sandy conglomerates, and reddish to dark-grey clay to  
174 argillaceous sediments deposited over Aptian sediments. The Utrillas sediments  
175 include sandy-conglomerate sediments interstratified by grey-to-black

176 argillaceous sediments. These sediments are rich in organic matter and sulfides  
177 (mainly pyrite), composing the main part of the aquifer. Sulfides from the Lower  
178 Cretaceous sediments are oxidized to gypsum by weathering processes  
179 (Gómez-Alday et al., 2004). The piezometric level of the Cretaceous aquifer is  
180 close to the topographic surface. Consequently, several springs and streams  
181 drain the aquifer in this area. The lake acts as a discharge zone for these water  
182 flows, which follow a radial pattern towards the lake. Previous research has  
183 shown that the Pétrola lake-aquifer system shows two main flow components:  
184 regional groundwater flow (RGF, up to  $1.01 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ) from recharge areas to the  
185 lake, and a density-driven flow (DDF, up to  $1.29 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ) from surface water to  
186 the underlying aquifer (Gómez-Alday et al., 2014; Valiente et al., 2017).

187 The catchment area of the Pétrola lake-aquifer system supports agricultural and  
188 livestock activities. Two types of farming are present: dryland farming and  
189 irrigation farming (Figure 1). Farming encompasses approximately 75% of the  
190 total area, whereby dryland farming contributes about 58% and irrigated  
191 cropland 17%, based on data from Corine Land Cover 2012 (Soukup et al.,  
192 2016). The remaining area is occupied by semi-natural land cover types, such  
193 as Mediterranean forest and scrubland (19%). The use of inorganic synthetic  
194 fertilizers is the main source of pollutant N in the system. The estimated N load  
195 produced by agricultural activities was about  $10 \text{ t/km}^2 \text{ year}^{-1}$  (year 2000) (ITAP,  
196 2010), in the range of other studies in lake catchments and wetlands worldwide  
197 (Saunders and Kalff, 2001).

198

### 199 **3. Material and methods**

#### 200 **3.1. Sampling**

201 Between March 2013 and July 2015, a total of 119 water samples were  
202 collected from 13 control points located in the Pétrola Lake and near the lake  
203 discharge area, following the groundwater flow direction (including springs and  
204 streams). Hereafter, this zone will be referred as surrounding area. The sample  
205 points were distributed in 4 subzones according to the main anthropogenic  
206 pressure and location: surface lake water samples (Group 1: sites 2635, 2643,  
207 2648, 2649, 2651 and 2652), wastewaters (Group 2: sites 2575 and 2641), dry  
208 farming area (Group 3: sites 2554, 2640 and 2642) and irrigation area (Group 4:  
209 sites 2571 and 2602). The latter three subzones are located in the surrounding  
210 area of the lake (Figure 1).

211 In addition, between September 2014 and July 2015, 13 sediment cores, 5 cm  
212 in depth, were collected from the bottom of the lake using Plexiglas cylinders.  
213 The locations for sampling correspond to control points 2648, 2649, 2651 and  
214 2652. The cores were frozen at -20 °C and freeze-dried for further analysis.  
215 Groundwater levels were measured using a ceramic CTD-Diver stand-alone  
216 sensor installed in a PVC piezometer (GW-12) at 6 meters below ground  
217 surface (mbgs). This piezometer was installed near control point 2635. Thus,  
218 the groundwater level at GW-12 is closely related to the Pétrola Lake water  
219 level and is influenced by precipitation (Gómez-Alday et al., 2014). Groundwater  
220 level data were collected from January 2012 to February 2015, with logging  
221 intervals of 24 h (n=1,151 daily measurements). Precipitation data for the study  
222 period were gathered from the meteorological station AB07 (Ministry of

223 Agriculture and Fisheries, Food and Environment of Spain) situated in Pozo  
224 Cañada village, about 16 km SW from Pétrola Lake.

225

### 226 **3.2. Chemical and isotopic analyses**

227 In all water samples immediately after sample collection temperature (T), pH,  
228 electrical conductivity (EC), total dissolved solids (TDS), redox potential (Eh)  
229 and dissolved oxygen (DO) were measured (n=110) *in situ* using a HQ40d  
230 Portable Multi-Parameter Meter (Hach Company, USA). Accuracy of physico-  
231 chemical determinations was  $\pm 0.3$  °C for T,  $\pm 0.002$  for pH,  $\pm 0.5\%$  for EC and  
232 TDS ( $<200$  mS/cm),  $\pm 0.1$  mV for Eh, and  $\pm 0.01$  mg/L for DO.

233 Water samples were stored at 4 °C in a dark environment for subsequent  
234 analyses. Alkalinity ( $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) was determined by titration in the  
235 laboratory following standard methods (APHA-AWWA-WEF, 1998), with a limit  
236 of detection of 1 mg/L and an accuracy of  $\pm 0.2\%$ . Water samples for major ions  
237 and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were filtered with a 0.20  $\mu\text{m}$  nylon  
238 Millipore® filter. DOC concentration was determined by the high temperature  
239 combustion method using a Shimadzu TOC-V Analyzer at the Institute of  
240 Inorganic Chemistry of the University of Vienna and in the research facilities at  
241 the University of A Coruña, with a detection limit of 0.05 mg/L and a  
242 reproducibility of  $\pm 1.5\%$ . The concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was determined by UV-VIS  
243 spectrophotometry following the Griess reaction assay by cadmium reduction to  
244 nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ) (Wood et al., 1967). The detection limit of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  measurements was  
245 0.3 mg/L.  $\text{NH}_4^+$  contents were determined by distillation and volumetric methods  
246 (Koroleff, 1969), with a detection limit of 0.02 mg/L. Accuracy for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$   
247 determinations was  $\pm 1.0\%$ .

248 The aqueous concentration of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  was obtained by capillary  
249 electrophoresis (CE) using a Waters Quanta 4000 system coupled with a  
250 negative power supply and an indirect UV detection system. For  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$   
251 determinations, the limit of detection was 1 mg/L. The methodology for  
252 separation and measurement by CE is described in Santoyo et al. (2001).  
253 Concentrations of  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  were determined  
254 combining CE and ICP-AES, with limits of detection of 1 mg/L ( $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
255 and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ) and 20  $\mu\text{g/L}$  ( $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ ). Analyses by CE and ICP-AES were  
256 performed in the research facilities at the National Museum of Natural History  
257 (Madrid, Spain), with accuracy values of  $\pm 1.0\%$ .

258 The isotopic analyses included the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of DIC, and  $\delta^2\text{H}$   
259 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . The  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  were measured using a Cd-  
260 reduction method (McIlvin and Altabet, 2005, Ryabenko et al., 2009). Briefly,  
261  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was converted to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  through spongy cadmium reduction and then to  
262 nitrous oxide using sodium azide in an acetic acid buffer. Simultaneous  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$   
263 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  analysis of the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  produced was carried out using a Pre-Con  
264 (Thermo Scientific) coupled to a Finnigan MAT-253 Isotope Ratio Mass  
265 Spectrometer (IRMS, Thermo Scientific). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  was determined from  
266 filtered water samples, which were treated with ortho-phosphoric acid and  
267 shaken for at least 2 hours in order to convert all bicarbonate into  $\text{CO}_2$  and  
268 reach equilibrium between aqueous and gaseous phases, and the isotope ratio  
269 was measured in a Gas-Bench II coupled to a MAT-253 IRMS (Thermo  
270 Scientific). The  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  were measured using  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{CO}_2$   
271 equilibrium techniques, respectively, following standard methods (Epstein and

272 Mayeda, 1953).  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  were measured by dual inlet IRMS on a  
273 Finnigan MAT Delta S.

274 Results are expressed in  $\delta$  (‰) values relative to international standards Vienna  
275 Pee Dee Belemnite (V-PDB) for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , atmospheric  $\text{N}_2$  (AIR) for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , and  
276 Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (V-SMOW) for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ . Analytical  
277 reproducibility by repeated analysis of both international and internal reference  
278 samples of known isotopic composition was  $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ ,  $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$  for  
279  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ ,  $\pm 0.5\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ ,  $\pm 1\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ , and  $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ . Samples  
280 for isotope analyses ( $n=119$ ) were prepared at the laboratory of the Mineralogia  
281 Aplicada i Geoquímica de Fluids research group (Universitat de Barcelona).  
282 Isotope analyses were performed at the Centres Científic Tècnics of Universitat  
283 de Barcelona.

284 In sediment samples ( $n=13$ ), organic matter content was determined as loss on  
285 ignition (LOI) by combustion of dried sediment for 2 h at  $550\text{ °C}$  in a muffle  
286 furnace at the Institute of Inorganic Chemistry of the University of Vienna,  
287 following Nelson and Sommers (1996). The method has a detection limit of  
288  $0.05\%$ . Elemental Analysis was performed to determine the percentage of total  
289 carbon (TC), soil organic carbon (SOC), and total nitrogen (TN). In addition,  
290  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in TC and SOC, and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in TN from lake sediment samples were  
291 determined. For this purpose, the samples were dried and finely ground.  
292 Samples were acidified with concentrated HCl and vacuum-dried overnight  
293 before analysis of organic carbon content. The parameters were measured on  
294 untreated and acidified sediment samples using an elemental analyzer (EA  
295 1110 CE Instruments) coupled to a DELTA<sup>plus</sup> IRMS (Finnigan MAT) in the  
296 SILVER Lab, University of Vienna. C:N ratios were calculated as the ratio of



297 SOC and TN. Reproducibility using soil standards was  $\pm 0.1\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , and  $\pm$   
298  $0.15\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ .

299

### 300 **3.3. Electrical Resistivity Tomography (ERT)**

301 The ERT survey was performed to investigate the geometry of the DDF in the  
302 lake discharge area. It was carried out in June 2012 using a RESECS DMT  
303 resistivity meter equipped with 72 electrodes. The electrode configuration was a  
304 Wenner array, in order to reach the highest signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and  
305 sensitivity to vertical variations in resistivity (Loke and Dahlin, 2002). Electrode  
306 spacing values were 2.5 m (ERT profiles A, D and E) and 5 m (ERT profiles B  
307 and C). Twenty-three research levels were considered, to reach 60 m depth in  
308 the central part of each section. At each measurement section, two injection  
309 cycles were applied, recording 700 electric potential differences and intensity  
310 values, and calculating the Root Mean Square (RMS) error for each apparent  
311 resistivity value.

312 Five sections were measured following a radial pattern, from the lake's margins  
313 to about 350 m far into the basin (Figure 1). Locations were selected based on  
314 streams and springs with potential  $\text{NO}_3^-$  inputs to the lake. The first profile, ERT-  
315 A, was 315 m long and was set up along an irrigated cropland. ERT-B was  
316 parallel to a stream (control point 2571) and was about 350 m long. ERT-C,  
317 about 155 m in length, was situated at the east side of the lake, with control  
318 point 2648 as final point. ERT-D, 235 m long, extended from the lake's margin  
319 to control point 2602. Finally, ERT-E (175 m in length) started from the lake  
320 shore towards control point 2641, passing close to control point 2575. Individual  
321 measurement points were revised taking into account standard deviation, RMS,

322 and spontaneous potential. All values with a standard deviation higher than  
323 20% were removed in order to improve signal/noise ratio. Field data inversion  
324 was performed with Res2Dinv software using the same parameters in the  
325 inversion for all ERT profiles (deGroot-Hedlin and Constable, 1990; Loke and  
326 Barker, 1996). For inversion, a least-squares inversion algorithm was chosen.  
327 Final calculated RMS errors for the five sections ranged between 7.4% (ERT-E)  
328 and 15.8% (ERT-B). Inversion results were exported to absolute XYZ  
329 coordinates in order to compare them with hydrogeological and geochemical  
330 data.

331

## 332 **4. Results**

### 333 **4.1. Hydrochemical data**

334 Chemical data for water samples from the four groups are presented in the  
335 Supplementary Information (Appendix A). Lake water samples (Group 1) had a  
336 mean pH value of 8.6 and a maximum of 9.4. Eh values were between -227 mV  
337 and +451 mV. Dissolved oxygen (DO) values ranged from 0.2 to 13.0 mg/L.  
338 Values of EC and TDS peaked at 83,600  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$  and 50 g/L, respectively.  
339 Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC) concentrations varied between 24.5 mg/L and  
340 289.2 mg/L.  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in most of the samples were below detection  
341 limit ( $<0.3$  mg/L), reaching values up to 1.2 mg/L.  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations ranged  
342 from below detection limit ( $<0.02$  mg/L) to 6.5 mg/L. The concentrations of  
343  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  ranged from minimum values of 4,683 mg/L and 3,253 mg/L,  
344 respectively, to maximum values of 40,678 mg/L and 29,099 mg/L, respectively.  
345  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  concentrations varied between 178 and 507 mg/L, the  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$   
346 concentration from 2.3 to 45.9 mg/L. Peak  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  concentrations were

347 104 µg/L and 400 µg/L, respectively. Nevertheless, a significant percentage of  
348 the samples showed Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Mn<sup>2+</sup> concentrations below the detection limit  
349 (<20 µg/L). Overall the hydrofacies of the lake water can be classified as Mg-  
350 Na-SO<sub>4</sub>-Cl (6 control points, March 2013 to July 2015; n=37) (Figure 2).

351 ----- Fig. 2 near here -----

352 The groundwater samples of the surrounding area (groups 2, 3 and 4) had pH  
353 values of 7.3-8.8. Eh ranged from -192 mV to +484 mV, DO values from 0.2-  
354 19.6 mg/L. EC and TDS values ranged from 975-2,820 µS/cm, and from 0.5-  
355 1.5 g/L, respectively. DOC concentrations ranged from 1.3-22.7 mg/L. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
356 concentrations ranged from below detection limit to 99.2 mg/L. NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
357 concentrations varied from 0.1 to 43.0 mg/L, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> from 139-1,091 mg/L, Cl<sup>-</sup>  
358 from 88-484 mg/L. HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations ranged from 249-769 mg/L, CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>  
359 from 0.4-13.3 mg/L. Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Mn<sup>2+</sup> concentrations were mainly below the  
360 detection limit, reaching values of up to 43 µg Fe<sup>2+</sup>/L and 888 µg Mn<sup>2+</sup>/L,  
361 respectively. The groundwater type in the surrounding area varied between Mg-  
362 Ca-SO<sub>4</sub>-HCO<sub>3</sub> and Na-Ca-HCO<sub>3</sub>-Cl, as shown in Figure 2 (7 control points,  
363 March 2013 to July 2015; n=73).

364

#### 365 **4.2. Isotope data in water samples**

366 The complete record of isotope data in water samples is included in the  
367 Supplementary Information (Appendix B). For Group 1 samples (Pétrola Lake),  
368 δ<sup>2</sup>H<sub>H<sub>2</sub>O</sub> varied from -48.2‰ to +35.4‰ (average +5.8‰; n=40), whereas  
369 δ<sup>18</sup>O<sub>H<sub>2</sub>O</sub> ranged between -6.7‰ and +11.0‰ (average +1.7‰; n=40). δ<sup>15</sup>N<sub>NO<sub>3</sub></sub>  
370 and δ<sup>18</sup>O<sub>NO<sub>3</sub></sub> were not determined for lake samples due to the low NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>

371 concentrations measured.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  values varied between -16.3‰ and -4.8‰  
372 (average of -8.7‰; n=40). In samples from the surrounding area (Groups 2, 3  
373 and 4),  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  varied between -55.1‰ and -12.8‰ and between -  
374 8.7‰ and +0.7‰, respectively.  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  signatures ranged from +6.6‰ to  
375 +21.6‰ and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  from +1.5‰ to +16.9‰.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  values ranged between -  
376 14.3‰ and -6.4‰ (average -10.8‰; n=79).

377

### 378 **4.3. Sediment data**

379 The full data record is included in Supplementary Information (Appendix C). LOI  
380 values ranged from 3.1% to 19.0% (average of 7.2%; n=13). The contents of  
381 TC and SOC, ranged from 2.41% to 13.2% (average 5.70%; n=13) and from  
382 0.68% to 6.10% (average 2.65%; n=13), respectively.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in TC and SOC  
383 ranged from -14.6‰ to -2.3‰ (average -8.6‰; n=13) and from -25.1‰ to -3.1‰  
384 (average -13.0‰; n=13), respectively. TN varied between 0.04% and 0.62%  
385 (average 0.18%; n=13) and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{TN}}$  between +9.2‰ and +14.4‰ (average  
386 +10.6‰; n=13). C:N ratios varied between 4.4 and 57.3, with a mean value of  
387 23.0 (n=13).

388

### 389 **4.4. Groundwater level and ERT data**

390 Between May and October 2012, the groundwater level gradually fell in GW-12,  
391 concurring with a very low precipitation period (Figure 3). Heavy rainfalls in  
392 autumn 2012 increased the groundwater level, which peaked in March 2013.  
393 From January 2013 to May 2014, frequent rainfall sustained groundwater level  
394 depths between 0.15 mbgs and 0.45 mbgs. Little precipitation during spring and

395 summer 2014 caused the groundwater level to fall again, reaching a maximum  
396 depth of 1.43 mbgs on 31 October 2014. Concurring with major precipitation  
397 events during winter 2014 and spring 2015, the groundwater level increased  
398 from November 2014 to the final recording.

399 The ERT survey was conducted in June 2012 and showed a resistivity  
400 distribution related to several parameters such as water content, porosity and  
401 EC. A complete description of ERT profiles is included in Supplementary  
402 Information (Appendix D).

403 ----- Fig. 3 near here -----

404

## 405 **5. Discussion**

### 406 **5.1. Hydrogeochemical and isotopic ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ ) evolution of the** 407 **lake water**

408 ERT profiles A, B, C and E demonstrated a salt-water wedge located around  
409 the lake, indicating the influence of Pétröla Lake on groundwater (Figure 4).  
410 Water samples from the surrounding area are characterized by low EC values  
411 (<2,820  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ) compared to lake waters. ERT-A showed a layer of high  
412 resistivity that swelled to the NNW due to the presence of irrigation return flows.  
413 ERT-B was conducted through a zone with both irrigation and dryland  
414 conditions, pointing to the presence of a saline wedge under site 2571. ERT-C  
415 was performed in an area with no irrigation (dryland, Group 3) but very close to  
416 the lake. The influence of Pétröla Lake on samples from Group 2 (wastewaters)  
417 was observed in ERT-E. Resistivity values throughout this profile had  
418 intermediate values, showing a limited influence of freshwaters. ERT-D was

419 also performed in an area with both irrigation and dryland conditions. This  
420 profile is explained by the influence of irrigation return flows causing an influx of  
421 low salinity (high resistivity) water into the aquifer, contrary to what would be  
422 expected when solute transportation occurs from the lake to the Cretaceous  
423 aquifer. In general, the observed heterogeneity of the freshwater-saltwater  
424 interface can be explained by the different land uses at the basin scale. Our  
425 results suggest that the saline wedge can be displaced by less dense  
426 groundwater in those regions of the aquifer where the influence of irrigation  
427 return flows was significant. The saline wedge is shifted towards areas with less  
428 influence of irrigation (SE of the basin) favored by the compression of the  
429 upward component of the RGF.

430 Other than land use, the effect of climatic conditions on lake and aquifer  
431 hydrochemistry must also be considered. During periods with low precipitation,  
432 the groundwater level in GW-12 fell. Simultaneously, TDS values increased in  
433 lake water as result of both evaporation and solute concentration (Figure 3).  
434 Consequently, the highest concentrations of  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  in lake water  
435 are expected during periods of lowest water level in GW-12, leading to a Mg-  
436 Na- $\text{SO}_4$ -Cl water type during dry periods (Valiente et al., 2017). These  
437 conditions are favorable for DDF to transport solutes from the lake into deeper  
438 aquifer zones. Thus, changes in the water chemistry of lake samples were  
439 reflected in groundwater hydrochemistry. In the lake, DOC derived mainly from  
440 autochthonous (primary productivity) and allochthonous (wastewaters) sources  
441 (Gómez-Alday et al., 2014). Lake water samples showed increasing DOC  
442 concentrations during low precipitation periods (up to 289.2 mg/L), which may  
443 be transported from the lake to the aquifer by DDF. This caused a flux of DOC

444 across the freshwater-saltwater interface, fueling microbial processes in deeper  
445 aquifer zones.

446 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  in water samples showed the influence of precipitation  
447 and evaporation processes on the lake-aquifer system (Figure 4). Samples from  
448 PEB were compared with the local meteoric water line of Madrid (LMWL), its  
449 weighted isotopic composition of monthly average precipitation, and the  
450 regression line for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  values in water samples between 2008  
451 and 2010 (Valiente et al., 2017). Madrid was selected as a reference station  
452 because most of the rainfall events in the study area are influenced by  
453 European Atlantic fronts, which are also dominant in Madrid. Evaporation  
454 processes can be inferred from the slope of plots of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  isotopic  
455 compositions of evaporating water bodies. This is because of the similar kinetic  
456 isotope enrichment in  $^{18}\text{O}$  and  $^2\text{H}$  during evaporation in dry air, whereas the  
457 equilibrium isotope fractionation during condensation differs between hydrogen  
458 and oxygen by a factor of 8. Therefore, evaporation of rainwater causes a  
459 decrease in the slope of the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  plots, from 8‰ towards ~3‰  
460 (Clark and Fritz, 1997). The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  values from lake samples did  
461 not remain constant during the period March 2013 to July 2015 (Figure 4),  
462 showing a mean and standard deviation for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  in measured  
463 samples of  $+1.7\text{‰} \pm 4.8\text{‰}$  and  $-5.8\text{‰} \pm 23.1\text{‰}$ , respectively. Lake samples  
464 showed a slope of 4.7 for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  values ( $R^2=0.98$ ;  $n=40$ ), a typical  
465 slope for evaporation. This slope was significantly lower than the LMWL (6.8)  
466 and only slightly lower than the slope of water samples from previous studies  
467 (5.2 between 2008 and 2010; Valiente et al., 2017).

468 ----- Fig. 4 near here -----

469 The influence of the lake on control points of the surrounding area was also  
470 evident:  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  values here were enriched with reference to the  
471 weighted average precipitation ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = -7.0\text{‰}$ ,  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = -47.8\text{‰}$ ). Water  
472 samples close to the weighted average precipitation value showed the influence  
473 of regional groundwater and a lesser influence of the Pétrola Lake. In contrast,  
474 samples collected in April 2015 from Group 2, Group 3 (except control point  
475 2554) and Group 4 followed a mixing line from meteoric water to lake waters. At  
476 this date, control point 2635 showed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  values of  $+1.5\text{‰}$  and  $-$   
477  $2.7\text{‰}$ , respectively. These findings are in agreement with ERT profiles, showing  
478 the influence of lake waters on sites of Group 2 (ERT-E) and Group 4 (ERT-B).

479

## 480 **5.2. Nitrogen recycling in the lake-aquifer system**

481 Figure 5 shows the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  values in water samples from the  
482 surrounding area together with the range of potential  $\text{NO}_3^-$  sources in PEB  
483 (adapted from Puig et al. (2016) and references therein).  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  values  
484 deriving from nitrification of ammonium fertilizers and sewage/manure (from  
485  $+2.1\text{‰}$  to  $+7.4\text{‰}$ ) were calculated according to Mayer et al. (2001) with the  
486 following expression (Eq. 5):

$$487 \quad \delta^{18}\text{O} = 2/3 \cdot \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} + 1/3 \cdot \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{O}_2} \quad (\text{Eq. 5})$$

488 where  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  includes the range of values for groundwater in samples from  
489 the surrounding area ( $-8.7\text{‰}$  and  $-0.7\text{‰}$ ) and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{O}_2}$  is the isotopic composition  
490 of atmospheric  $\text{O}_2$  ( $+23.5\text{‰}$ ; Horibe et al., 1973).

491 ----- Fig. 5 near here -----



492 Only two samples from 2575 (influenced by wastewaters) had a high enough  
493  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration to be isotopically characterized. Those two samples showed  
494 the lowest  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations, and the variability in isotopic composition can  
495 be explained by partial nitrification under surface conditions. Water samples  
496 ( $n=10$ ) from site 2641 (close to 2575) showed  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  values  
497 clearly in the range of manure and sewage. These results reflect the influence  
498 of wastewaters at control points 2575 and 2641, with strong nitrogen isotope  
499 enrichment due to  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization (Figure 5).

500 Three samples from Group 3 (dryland cultivation, site 2640) were within the  
501 range of soil organic N (between +3‰ and +8‰; Kendall et al., 2007). The  
502 origin of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  for these samples is potentially related to the application of  
503 ammonium fertilizers nitrified to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the unsaturated zone. Volatilization and  
504 nitrification can produce isotopic signatures of ammonium fertilizers similar to  
505 those of soil  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Vitòria et al., 2005). The high  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in samples  
506 from site 2640 suggests a contribution from inorganic fertilizers rather than a  
507 soil nitrate contribution. The  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  values did not negate a  
508 potential contribution of nitrate fertilizers, even though no samples fell in the  
509 range defined by this type of fertilizers (-4‰ to +8‰ for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and +17‰ to  
510 +25‰ for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ; Vitòria et al., 2004). Samples from site 2640 showed a mixing  
511 line between the isotopic composition of fertilizer  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and fertilizer  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . The  
512 contribution of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  fertilizers can be further masked by the mineralization-  
513 immobilization-turnover (MIT) process (Mengis et al., 2001), which can shift the  
514 oxygen isotopic composition of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  fertilizers. During the MIT process, N- $\text{NO}_3^-$   
515 is immobilized in the form of organic nitrogen by microbes, subsequently  
516 converted to inorganic  $\text{NH}_4^+$  by nitrogen mineralization, and finally  $\text{NH}_4^+$  is

517 nitrified to  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . This process changes the oxygen isotope signatures from  
518 fertilizer-like to soil nitrification-related.

519 Samples from control points 2554 and 2642, also in Group 3, showed a different  
520 trend, with both  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  increasing. Denitrification probably  
521 explains the isotopic values of the two samples. Prior studies have already  
522 shown the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  attenuation potential of organic-rich bottom sediments from  
523 Pétrola Lake and sediments from Utrillas Facies, using organic matter as  
524 electron donor (Carrey et al., 2013; Gómez-Alday et al., 2014). A slight  
525 denitrification line is observed in samples from 2554. Nonetheless, the  
526 denitrification line was much clearer in samples from site 2642. In these  
527 samples, the highest  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  values (up to +21.6‰) were coupled to relatively  
528 low  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations (10.4 mg/L), indicating denitrification. In fact, these  
529 samples were fitted to the denitrification line based on Utrillas and recent  
530 organic hypersaline sediments (Figure 5).

531 Finally, samples from Group 4 (control points 2571 and 2602), affected by  
532 irrigation return flows, also revealed an increasing trend in the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  vs  
533  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  plot, showing that denitrification processes were major contributors to  
534  $\text{NO}_3^-$  attenuation. At control point 2602, all samples followed a denitrification  
535 trend starting from  $\text{NH}_4^+$  fertilizers (noted as s2 in Figure 5). Some samples  
536 from control point 2571 also followed the denitrification trend. A possible  
537 explanation for the clear denitrification trend in those samples is that DDF,  
538 which is able to transport solutes involved in attenuation processes, has a  
539 greater influence in zones affected by irrigation, as shown in the previous  
540 section.

541 Despite the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  inputs to the lake from streams, groundwater and  
542 wastewaters, most of Pétrola Lake water samples showed  $\text{NO}_3^-$  below detection  
543 limit. Concerning the sedimentary N isotope signatures from Pétrola Lake, the  
544 mean  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{TN}}$  value at 5 cm depth (+10.6‰) was well above the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  fertilizer  
545 range (from -4‰ to +8‰; Vitòria et al., 2004), but within the range of manure  
546 and sewage (from +5‰ to +20‰; Aravena and Mayer, 2009). The isotope  
547 composition of N in sediments is influenced by the dominant source of N,  
548 microbial recycling and lake productivity (Botrel et al., 2014). This effect may be  
549 even stronger in saline lakes due to the high productivity of these ecosystems  
550 (Hammer, 1981).

551 Our results are in agreement with previous studies (Heaton, 1986; Kendall et  
552 al., 2007), which established a  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{TN}}$  range from +10‰ to +20‰ for human  
553 and animal wastes. Nevertheless,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{TN}}$  signatures can be altered by  
554 microorganisms through remineralization (Hodell and Schelske, 1998) and/or  
555 degradation of organic matter (Lehmann et al., 2002), resulting in an increase of  
556  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{TN}}$ . Furthermore, sedimentary  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{SOC}}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{TN}}$  values showed an  
557 inverse relationship ( $R^2 = 0.74$ ,  $n=13$ ), which can be attributed to selective  
558 removal of C and N compounds during remineralization (Bernasconi et al.,  
559 1997). Thus, our results may reflect a mixed source of synthetic N (ammonium)  
560 fertilizers and wastewaters.

561

### 562 **5.3. Nitrate attenuation processes**

563 Previous studies showed that the natural attenuation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the lake-aquifer  
564 system can be accomplished by heterotrophic denitrification (Gómez-Alday et  
565 al., 2014). For these reactions, DOC is necessary as electron donor. In samples

566 from the surrounding area, DOC is derived mainly from organic matter from  
567 Utrillas facies, wastewater and organic matter transported from the lake towards  
568 the aquifer by DDF. No increase in  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentration was recorded in  
569 samples from the surrounding area. Thus, the enrichment in  $^{18}\text{O}$  and  $^{15}\text{N}$  in  
570 those samples can be attributed mainly to denitrification processes. The isotope  
571 composition and concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  can be used to quantify denitrification at  
572 the field scale (Böttcher et al., 1990). Nonetheless, plots of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$  vs  $\text{Ln}[\text{NO}_3^-]$   
573 using all field samples showed no correlation ( $R^2=0.19$ ), possibly because of  
574 processes such as volatilization or mixing between different groundwater flow  
575 lines and mixing of multiple sources and sinks, as described in the previous  
576 section. However, in the dual isotope plot some samples followed a  
577 denitrification trend. Figure 5 shows  $\epsilon_{\text{N}}:\epsilon_{\text{O}}$  ratios determined in denitrification  
578 experiments using both bottom sediments of Pétrola lake (1.01; Carrey et al.,  
579 2014a) and Utrillas sediments (0.96 and 1.14; Carrey et al., 2013). Using the  
580 enrichment factors for nitrogen and oxygen from hypersaline sediments from  
581 Pétrola Lake ( $\epsilon_{\text{N}} = -14.7\text{‰}$ ;  $\epsilon_{\text{O}} = -14.5\text{‰}$ ) and Utrillas sediments ( $\epsilon_{\text{N}} = -11.6\text{‰}$   
582 and  $-15.7\text{‰}$ ;  $\epsilon_{\text{O}} = -12.1\text{‰}$  and  $-13.8\text{‰}$ ), the percentage of denitrification was  
583 calculated following Eq. (6):

$$584 \text{ DEN}(\%) = \left[ 1 - \frac{[\text{NO}_3^-]_{\text{residual}}}{[\text{NO}_3^-]_{\text{initial}}} \right] \cdot 100 = \left[ 1 - e^{\frac{\delta_{\text{residual}} - \delta_{\text{initial}}}{\epsilon}} \right] \cdot 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 6})$$

585 To quantify denitrification, only the samples with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  values above  $+8.0\text{‰}$   
586 from groups 3 and 4 were considered ( $n=50$ ), to ensure they were above the  
587 range of volatilization and nitrification. Denitrification has been modeled using  
588 two different initial isotopic compositions that reflect the variability in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$   
589 derived from nitrification. The first assumed initial composition (s1 in Figure 5)

590 was  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3} = +7.0\text{‰}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3} = +3.9\text{‰}$ , which belongs to control point  
591 2640 in May 2014 and represents the lower range of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  derived from  
592 nitrification. Some samples from Group 3 (sites 2554, 2640 and 2642) showed  
593 denitrification percentages up to 72% (site 2642 in September 2013, concurring  
594 with the lowest  $\text{NO}_3^-$  measured at this site). Denitrification reached similar  
595 percentages (up to 66% in site 2571) for Group 4 samples. For these samples,  
596 maximum denitrification rates were coupled to minimum  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations  
597 (July-2015). The second assumed initial composition (s2 in Figure 5) had a  
598  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3} = +6.8\text{‰}$  and a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3} = +6.6\text{‰}$ , representing approximately the upper  
599 range of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  derived from nitrification. Several samples from sites 2571,  
600 2602, 2640 and 2642 (n=14) clearly fit the denitrification trend starting from s2.  
601 Considering samples from groups 3 and 4, with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$  values above  $+8.0\text{‰}$   
602 (n=50), the percentage of denitrification reached up to 72% in Group 3 (site  
603 2642) and up to 60% in Group 4 (site 2571), together with lowest measured  
604  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations. Samples of sites 2554 and 2642 did not fit the expected  
605 denitrification trends, fitting to a lower  $\varepsilon_{\text{N}}:\varepsilon_{\text{O}}$  denitrification slope, closer to 2:1.  
606 Such a lower slope has been described in several field studies on denitrification  
607 (e.g. Böttcher et al., 1990). Potential explanations for the discrepancy between  
608 the slope obtained in the batch experiments and the slope at field scale include  
609 mixing processes with wastewater or manure sources, or the presence of  $\text{NO}_2^-$   
610 re-oxidation processes (Wunderlich et al., 2013). During denitrification,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  is  
611 formed as an intermediate species, and can be quickly re-oxidized to  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
612 incorporating atoms of oxygen from ambient water, thus lowering  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ .  
613 Consistent with the literature, turnover of oxygen influences global  
614 biogeochemical processes, including the nitrogen cycle (Mader et al., 2017).

615 Denitrification can also be responsible for the absence of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in lake water.  
616 Nonetheless, the existence of other nitrate reduction processes, such as DNRA,  
617 cannot be discarded at the water-sediment interface of Pétrola Lake. At 5 cm  
618 depth, the lake sediment C:N ratios were between 4.4 and 57.3, and LOI  
619 peaked at 19.0% (Appendix C). These results are consistent with previous  
620 research, which found DNRA dominance in estuarine sediments with C:N ratios  
621 of up to 10.6 (Dong et al., 2011). Song et al. (2013) showed that DNRA coexists  
622 with denitrification and anammox in marine top sediments, with lower average  
623 LOI (%) values (between 3.6% and 6.2%) than found in our study. The large  
624 variability in lake sediment C:N ratios and LOI (%) was due to different sampling  
625 locations within the lake. Considerable concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  were measured  
626 in groundwater below the lake (Gómez-Alday et al., 2014). These  
627 concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  can be related to DNRA in the water-sediment interface,  
628 which are then further transported into the sediment, but also to other potential  
629 sources of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  described above (lake's organic matter mineralization and  
630 ammonium fertilizers). Even though conditions are favorable for DNRA, this  
631 process could neither be confirmed nor rejected. Further research should be  
632 undertaken to investigate these reactions by measuring the isotopic  
633 composition of other N-compounds such as  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  or dissolved organic  
634 nitrogen (Davidson et al., 2003).

635

#### 636 **5.4. Role of organic matter oxidation**

637 Previous studies showed the potential of organic matter present in PEB as the  
638 main electron donor to promote denitrification and DNRA (Carrey et al., 2014a,  
639 b; Gómez-Alday et al., 2014). Most of the  $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  values fall above the range of

640 groundwater  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  (between -11‰ and -15‰; Vogel and Ehhalt, 1963)  
641 (Figure 6). These samples plotted far from fertilizers, considered to range  
642 between -30‰ and -24‰ (Vitòria et al., 2004), and far from the mean isotopic  
643 value for organic matter (-25‰; Hoefs, 1997).

644 Isotope data cannot explain the use of DOC for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction because these  
645 processes would increase  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and decrease  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ . Since part of the  
646 aquifer is formed of Aptian carbonates, a possible explanation for the lack of a  
647 clear correlation may be carbonate dissolution, which would increase the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$   
648 concentration. Anaerobic processes (e.g. denitrification) can trigger the  
649 acidification of the solution, promoting such dissolution (Aravena and  
650 Robertson, 1998; Krumins et al., 2013). Therefore, samples from the  
651 surrounding area seem to be buffered by the aquifer materials and no insights  
652 into this process can be gained using  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ .

653 ----- Fig. 6 near here -----

654 Regarding lake water samples,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  ranged from -16.3‰ to -4.8‰ (Figure 6).  
655 Most of the samples showed  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  values close to the reference value of -8‰  
656 for atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  given by Clark and Fritz (1997). This probably reflects  
657 degassing and  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange with the atmosphere. Moreover, the  $^{13}\text{C}$   
658 enrichment can also be a consequence of discrimination during photosynthesis  
659 (Boutton, 1991). Samples with lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  matched up with high DOC and  
660 low  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations (<4.0  $\text{mgO}_2/\text{L}$ ). Organic matter oxidation with dissolved  
661  $\text{O}_2$  and other electron acceptors ( $\text{NO}_3^-$  or  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) in surface waters can shift the  
662  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  to values close to organic C ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}=-25‰$ ). Nonetheless, this organic  
663 matter oxidation should produce a decrease in DOC. On the contrary, DOC

664 increased in those samples with high EC, and hence this increase can be  
665 related to the evaporation of the lake water.

666

## 667 **6. Conclusions**

668 The current study was designed to identify the unusual ways of nitrogen  
669 removal in a lake-aquifer interface by studying the hydrogeochemical and  
670 isotopic evolution of a highly saline lake. The results showed that the underlying  
671 aquifer is influenced by the Pétrola Lake and by the anthropogenic activities at  
672 the basin scale. The multi-isotopic approach demonstrated that the origin of  
673  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the lake aquifer-system was mainly related to synthetic ammonium  
674 fertilizer applied in the agricultural areas of the basin, but also to the wastewater  
675 inputs into the lake.

676 Denitrification was identified in the surrounding area of the lake, with similar  
677 rates in dryland farming areas (up to 72%) and irrigation areas (up to 66%).  
678 Denitrification in Pétrola basin is related with organic carbon oxidation. The ERT  
679 demonstrated that DDF transported solutes from Pétrola Lake to the underlying  
680 aquifer. These solutes are used by the microbial community at the freshwater-  
681 saltwater interface. Nevertheless, the geometry of the freshwater-saltwater  
682 interface is strongly influenced by land use. As a consequence of this variability,  
683 reducing conditions were more marked in irrigation areas. Regarding lake  
684 water, mineralization and organic matter degradation of lake sediment  
685 apparently play a relevant role in nitrate reduction. In order to clarify the  
686 microbial pathways of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  attenuation at the water-sediment interface, further  
687 research should be undertaken by combining isotope techniques (e.g. isotope  
688 pairing) with molecular biology tools.



689 Our results highlight the importance of freshwater-saltwater interfaces as  
690 reactive zones for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  attenuation. In saline systems, the interaction between  
691 density-driven down flow (DDF) and regional groundwater flow (RGF) is  
692 influenced by anthropogenic activities. Thus, we underline the necessity of  
693 including a land use perspective when studying water quality-environmental  
694 relationships in systems dominated by density-driven circulation around the  
695 world. Further studies should focus on the capacity of these interfaces to  
696 remove other agricultural pollutants (i.e. pesticides), but also on the potential of  
697 water-sediment interfaces to attenuate pollutants.

698

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711

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Figure1  
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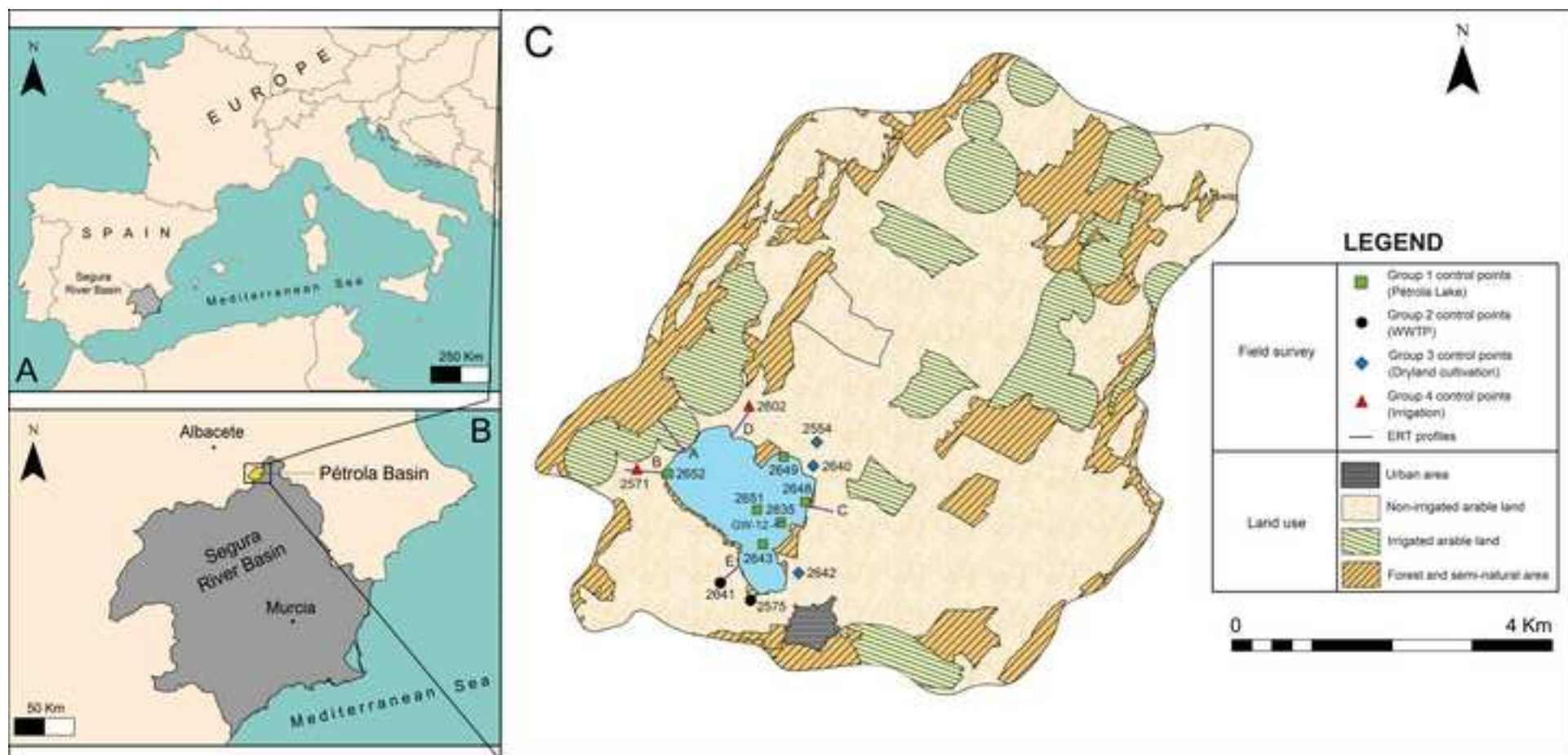




Figure2

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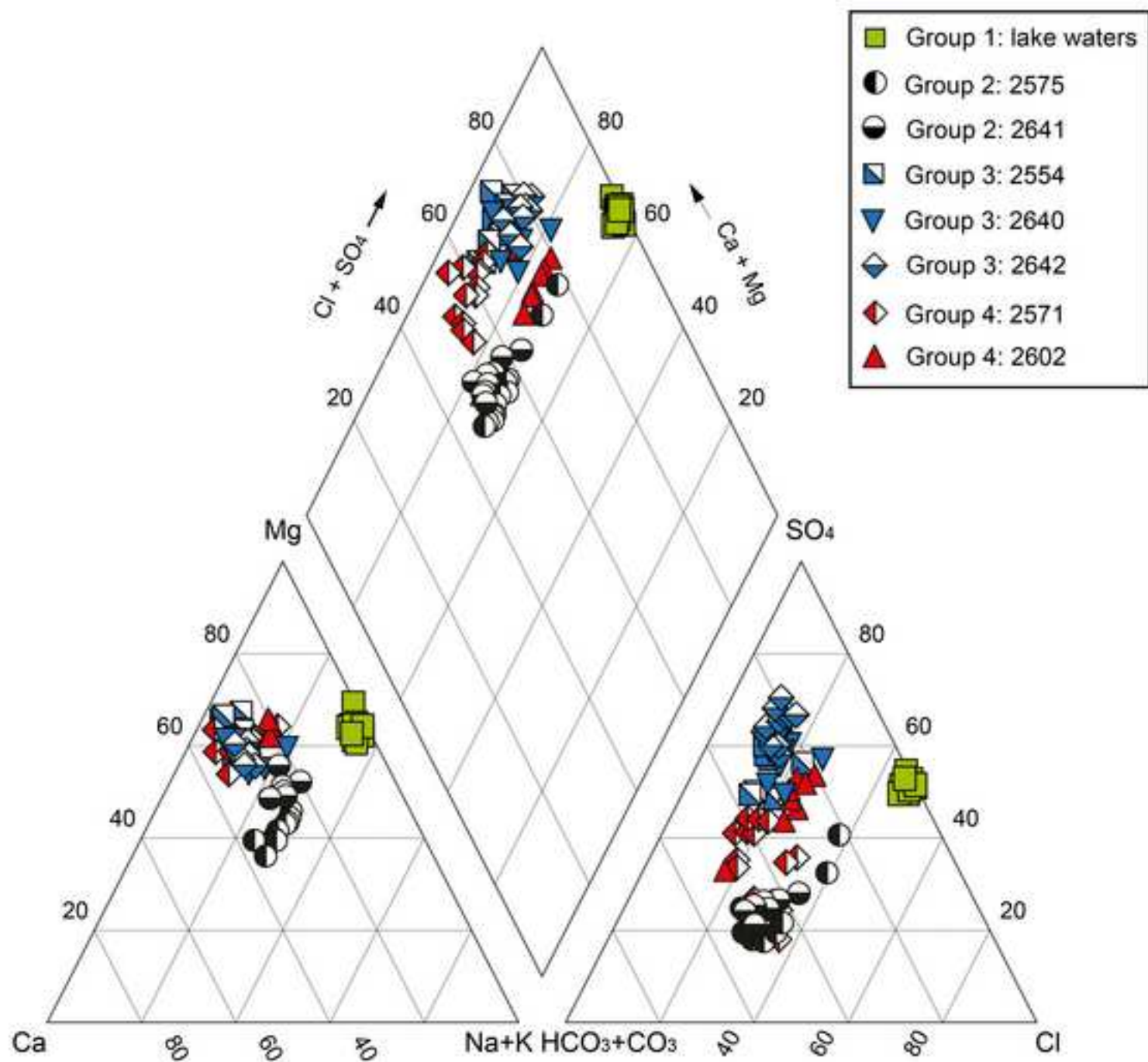


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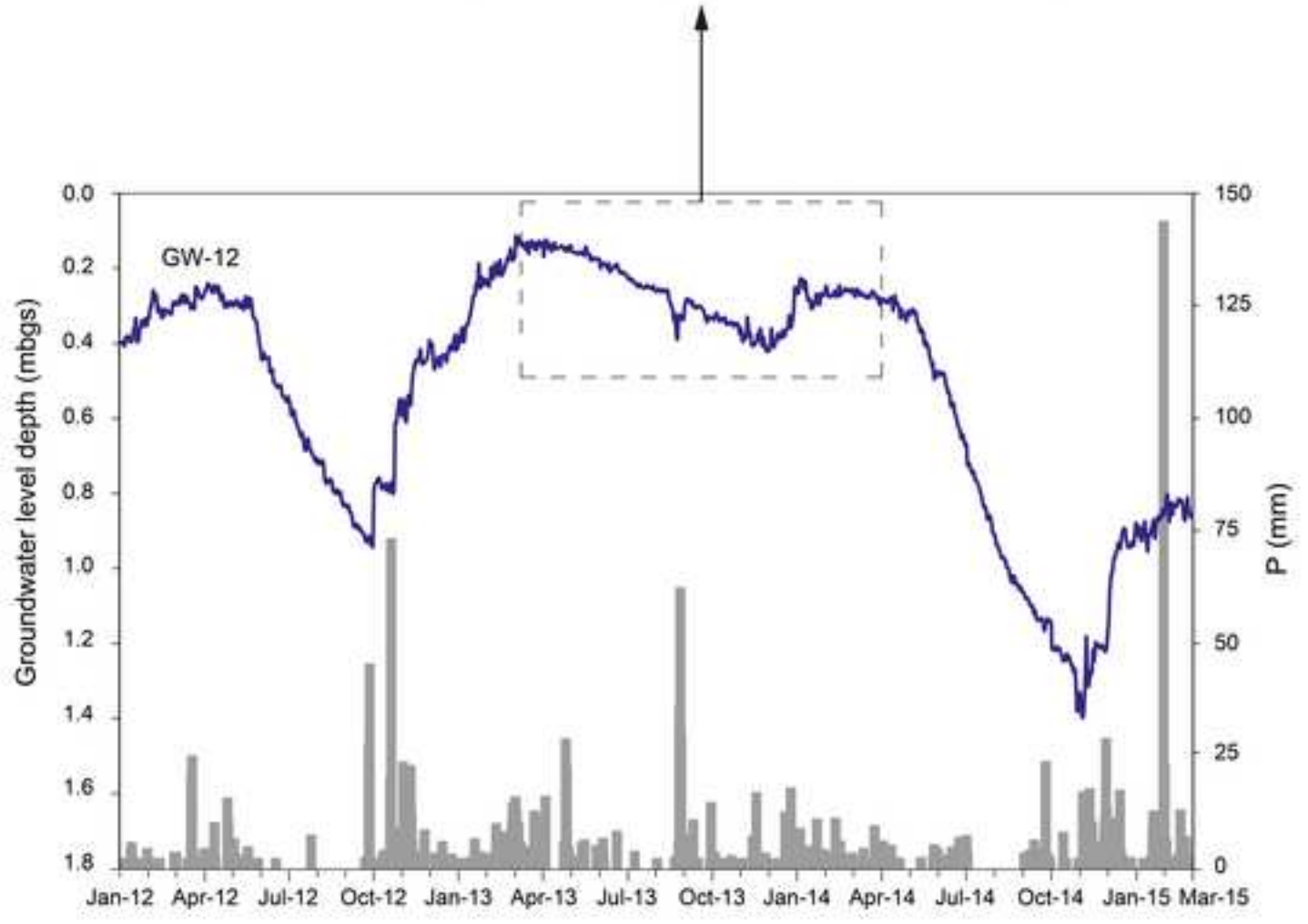
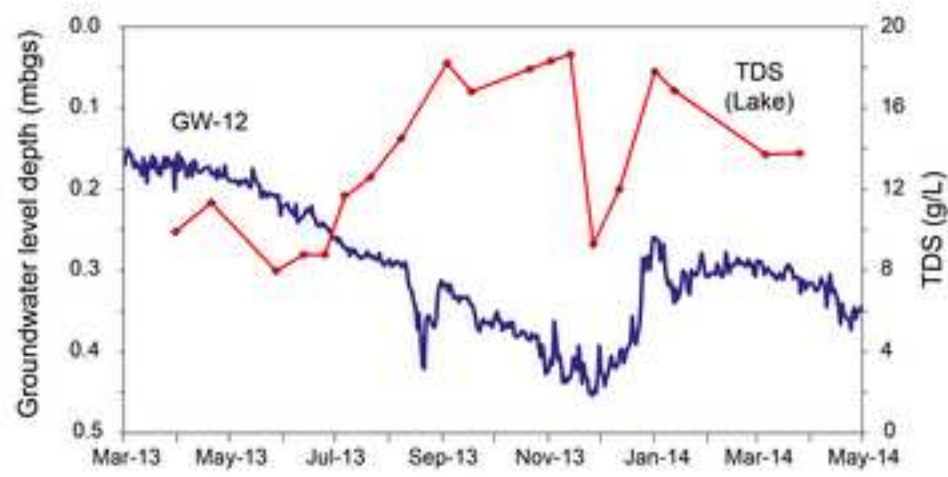


Figure4

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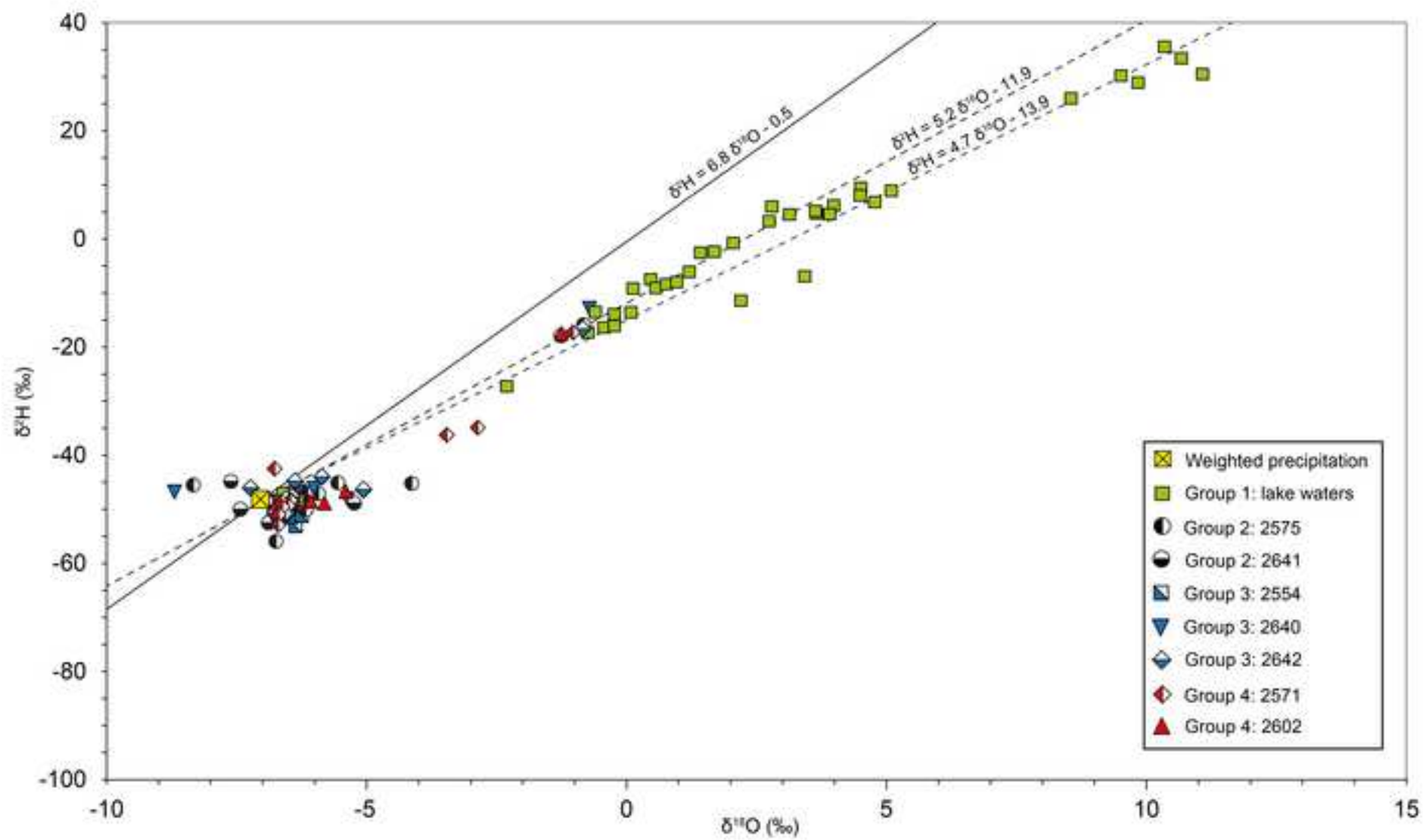


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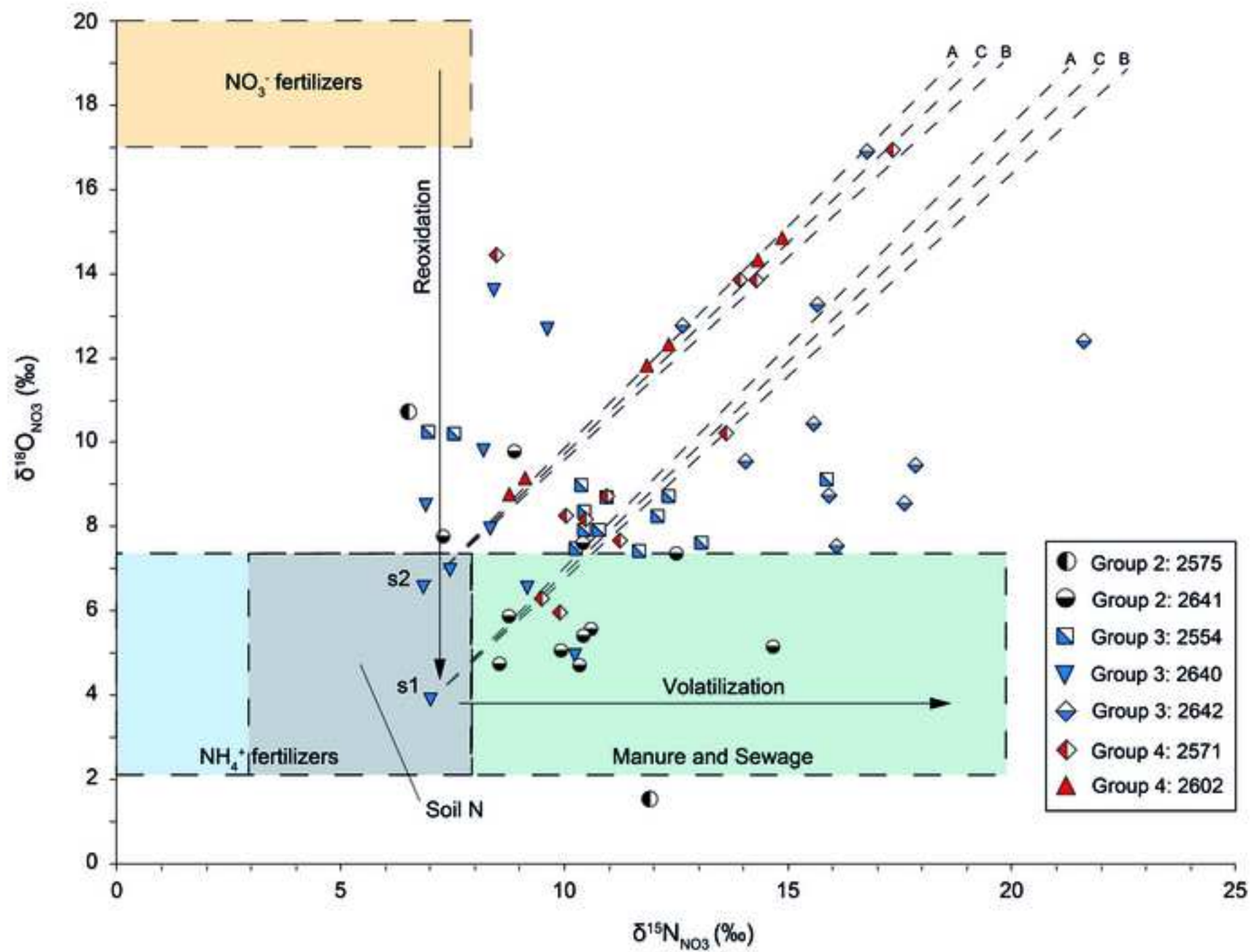
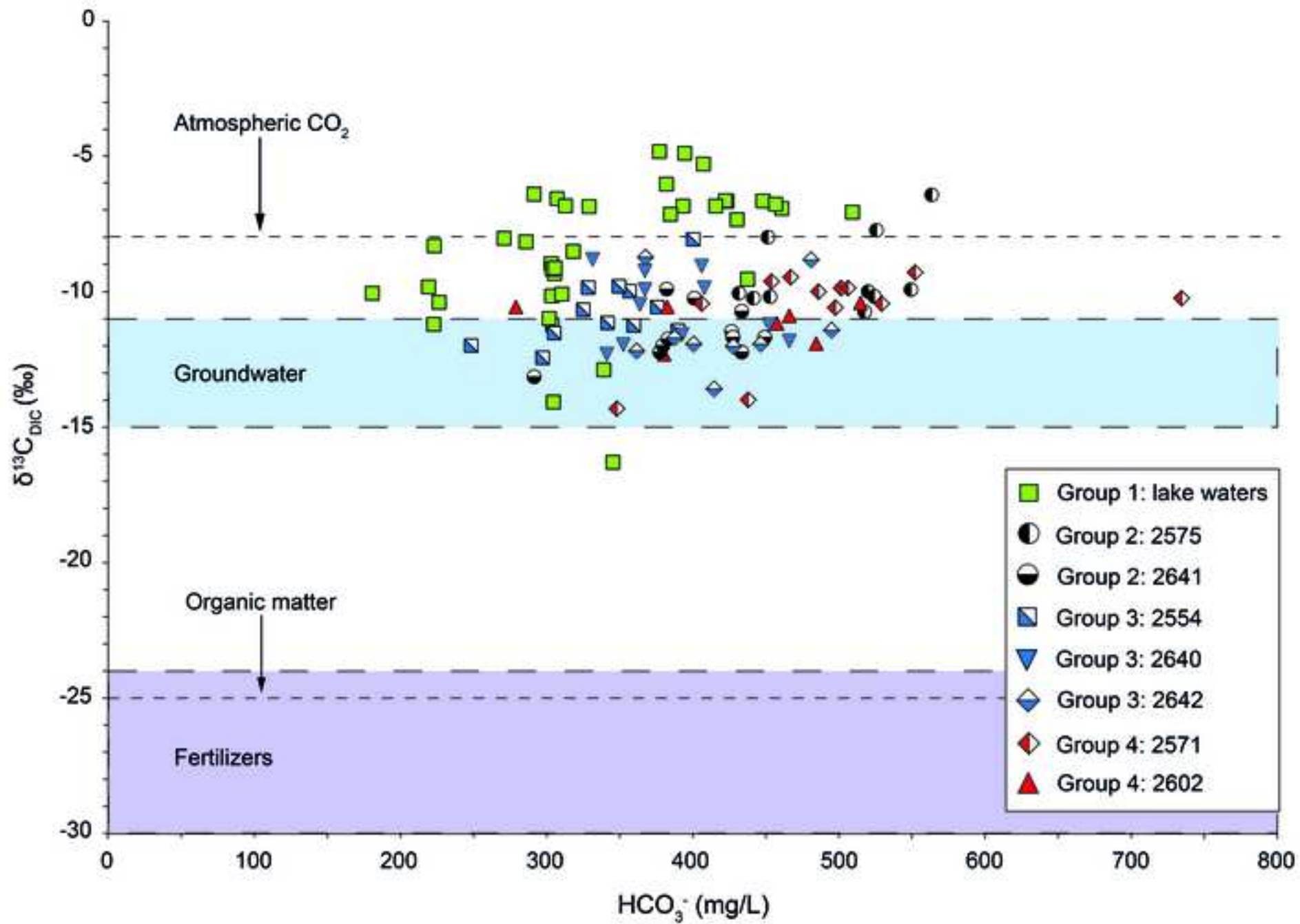


Figure6  
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***A multi-isotopic approach to investigate the influence of land use on nitrate removal in a highly saline lake-aquifer system***

***Figure captions***

Figure	Caption
Figure 1.	A) Location of Segura River Basin in Europe. B) Location of Pétrola basin in Segura River Basin. C) Land use map of Pétrola basin and location of control points from Group 1 (Pétrola Lake, green squares), Group 2 (urban wastewater, black circles), Group 3 (dryland cultivation, blue rhombus), Group 4 (irrigated croplands, red triangles), and ERT profiles (A, B, C, D and E).
Figure 2.	Piper diagram showing the chemical composition of the water samples during the period 2013 to 2015.
Figure 3.	Groundwater depth (mbgs) in GW-12 and precipitation (P) between January 2012 and March 2015. In detail, groundwater depth evolution in GW-12 from March 2013 to May 2014 compared to mean TDS evolution in lake waters.
Figure 4.	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ versus $\delta^2\text{H}$ plot including the weighted average precipitation of Madrid, water samples from Pétrola Lake (Group 1, n=40), and samples from the surrounding area (Groups 2, 3 and 4, n=79). Regression line 1 ( $\delta^2\text{H} = 4.7\delta^{18}\text{O} - 13.9$ ) was calculated for lake water samples and compared with regression line 2 ( $\delta^2\text{H} = 5.2\delta^{18}\text{O} - 11.9$ ) using water samples from piezometers and surface water in previous studies (n=29) collected between 2008 and 2010 (Valiente et al., 2017). Regression line 3 ( $\delta^2\text{H} = 6.8\delta^{18}\text{O} - 0.5$ ) represents the Local Meteoric Water Line of Madrid.
Figure 5.	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of dissolved $\text{NO}_3^-$ in the collected samples from the surrounding area (Groups 2, 3 and 4, n=63). The isotopic composition of the main $\text{NO}_3^-$ sources is represented: ammonium fertilizers, nitrate fertilizers, soil N, and animal manure or sewage (Vitòria et al. 2004; Kendall et al., 2007; Aravena and Mayer, 2009; Puig et al., 2016). Dashed lines represent denitrification (%) using Utrillas sediments (A: $\epsilon_{\text{O}} = -12.1\text{‰}$ , $\epsilon_{\text{N}} = -11.6\text{‰}$ ; B: $\epsilon_{\text{O}} = -13.8\text{‰}$ , $\epsilon_{\text{N}} = -15.7\text{‰}$ ) and recent organic matter from hypersaline sediments (C: $\epsilon_{\text{O}} = -14.5\text{‰}$ ; $\epsilon_{\text{N}} = -14.7\text{‰}$ ). s1 and s2 reflect the sources of dissolved $\text{NO}_3^-$ used for denitrification % calculations.
Figure 6.	$\text{HCO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ analyzed in water samples from Pétrola Lake (Group 1, n=37), and samples from the surrounding area (Groups 2, 3 and 4, n=73). The isotopic compositions of atmospheric $\text{CO}_2$ , groundwater, organic matter and fertilizers are represented (Vogel and Ehhalt, 1963; Clark and Fritz, 1997; Hoefs, 1997; Vitòria et al., 2004).







**AppendixC**

[Click here to download Supplementary material for on-line publication only: AppendixC\\_Valiente\\_STOTEN-D-18-00612.pdf](#)

