

Hydrogeological and multi-isotopic approach to define nitrate pollution and denitrification processes in a coastal aquifer (Sardinia, Italy)

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Abstract

Agricultural coastal areas are frequently affected by the superimposition of various processes, with a combination of anthropogenic and natural sources, which degrade groundwater quality. In the coastal multi-aquifer system of Arborea (Italy) – a reclaimed morass area identified as a nitrate vulnerable zone, according to Nitrate Directive 91/676/EEC – intensive agricultural and livestock activities contribute to substantial nitrate contamination. For this reason, the area can be considered a bench test for tuning an appropriate methodology aiming to trace the nitrate contamination in different conditions. An approach combining environmental isotopes, water quality and hydrogeological indicators was therefore used to understand the origins and attenuation mechanisms of nitrate pollution and to define the relationship between

27 contaminant and groundwater flow dynamics through the multi-aquifer characterized by sandy (SHU),
28 alluvial (AHU), and volcanic hydrogeological (VHU) units. Various groundwater chemical pathways were
29 consistent with both different nitrogen sources and groundwater dynamics. Isotope composition suggests a
30 mixed source for nitrate (organic and synthetic fertilizer), especially for the AHU and SHU groundwater.
31 Moreover, marked heterotrophic denitrification and sulfate reduction processes were detected, although,
32 for the contamination related to synthetic fertilizer, the attenuation was inefficient at removing NO_3^- to less
33 than the human consumption threshold of 50 mg L^{-1} . Various factors contributed to control the distribution
34 of the redox processes, such as the availability of carbon sources (organic fertilizer and the presence of
35 lagoon-deposited aquitards), well depth, and groundwater flow paths. The characterization of these
36 processes supports water-resource management plans, future actions, and regulations, particularly in
37 nitrate vulnerable zones.

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40 KEYWORDS: Nitrate, Italy, Coastal aquifers, Denitrification, Groundwater management

41

1. Introduction

Water pollution by agricultural nutrients has been recognized as one of the most important environmental problems in the European Union (EU) (Kallis and Buttler 2001). Through Nitrates Directive 91/676/EEC, EU member countries have identified nitrate vulnerable zones (NVZs), developed protocols of good agricultural practice, and set up action programs for the management of farm wastes. However, the Nitrates Directive is emblematic of asymmetries between its objectives and the effectiveness of its implementation, and nitrate pollution of EU groundwater has not decreased in more than 20 years of Nitrate Directive implementation (Howden et al. 2011).

Nutrient loss pathways between soils and groundwater are complex (Collins and McGonigle 2008) and vary with soil type (van Beek et al. 2009), geology (Meinardi et al. 1995), hydrogeology, climate, and ecological interaction between farmer and environment. Such conditions mean that the Directive cannot consider site-specific occurrence of nitrate groundwater pollution and is not targeting the principal sources of nitrate in groundwater (Sacchi et al. 2013).

This paper considers the case of Arborea, one of the most productive agricultural areas in Italy. It has one of the greatest dairy system productivities in Europe. This area, identified as a NVZ through the Nitrates Directive, has a complexity that is mainly related to geomorphological conditions (because historically it was an insalubrious morass, reclaimed afterwards), frequent nitrate groundwater pollution (Nguyen et al. 2013), and is in proximity to seawater associated with the coastal aquifer (Cau and Paniconi 2007). In an anthropogenic environment within a coastal region, degradation of groundwater quality generally occurs because of the superimposition of more than one process. This often leads to both salinization by seawater intrusion (Pittalis et al. 2016) and strong contamination of groundwater, particularly by nitrate (Rajmohan et al. 2009).

In this complex scenario, the reconstruction of a reliable hydrogeological conceptual model that defines groundwater flow paths and thereby predicts the nitrate (NO_3^-) spatial distribution is necessary to better understand nitrate pollution dynamics and related biogeochemical processes. In this case, chemical and isotopic tracers are useful tools to distinguish sources of nitrate in groundwater (Aravena et al. 1993; Panno et al. 2001; Xue et al. 2009; Baily et al. 2011) and to distinguish between dilution and denitrification

phenomena (Griseck et al. 1998; Mengis et al. 1999; Cey et al. 1999). $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$, taking into account the conservative behavior of nitrate in sub-surface environments, has been widely used for identification of NO_3 sources in groundwater (Pasten-Zapata et al., 2014 and reference therein). However, because $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ values are often modified by isotopic fractionation, their use alone is often inconclusive for identification of the origin of NO_3^- in aquatic systems (Zhang et al., 2015). Combinations of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of nitrate measurements have been utilized to trace (point and nonpoint) N sources. Specifically, by means of $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ measurements it is possible to distinguish nitrate derived from ammonium fertilizers, organic matter, and animal manure/septic waste, whereas use of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ can distinguish the nitrate content derived from N-fertilizers and atmospheric deposition (Vystavna et al., 2017 and reference therein). In addition, nitrate isotope measurements constitute a viable tool to trace nitrate transformation processes such as denitrification (Puig et al., 2017 and reference therein). Notwithstanding this, the use of only $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of NO_3 and nitrate concentrations in areas characterized by multiple sources of nitrogen, may result in inconclusive outcomes. Indeed, to provide a useful means for identifying the origin of NO_3^- and related transformation processes in groundwater, several authors have combined different types of isotope measurements according to multi-isotopic approaches (Aravena and Robertson 1998; Rock and Mayer 2002; Marimon et al. 2007; Urresti-Estala et al., 2015). The isotopes $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of dissolved sulfate, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of dissolved inorganic carbon (Otero et al. 2009; Hosono et al., 2014), can be used because of their involvement in denitrification reactions. Specifically, the contributions of these isotopes allow determination of the role of heterotrophic and autotrophic processes in groundwater denitrification. It is well known that there are two main denitrification reactions in aquifers, i.e., heterotrophic denitrification by oxidation of organic compounds and autotrophic denitrification by oxidation of inorganic compounds such as sulfide (Rivett et al. 2008). In the first case, the denitrification involves an isotopic relationship between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ with $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$. In contrast, autotrophic denitrification implies an isotopic relationship between $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ with $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$. In addition, the application of $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ is a powerful tool for identifying sources of dissolved sulfate and its biogeochemical evolution in groundwater flow systems (Li et al. 2011; Caschetto et al., 2017). In particular, dissolved sulfate in groundwater may originate from dissolution of evaporitic deposits (mainly gypsum), oxidation of reduced S minerals, atmospheric deposition, and seawater intrusion, as well as from anthropogenic sources such as fertilizers, manure, sewage and mine drainage, among others (Puig et al. 2013; Mongelli et al., 2013; Petelet-Giraud et al., 2016).

The present study investigates groundwater dynamics and both sources and processes controlling nitrate contamination of groundwater in an agricultural coastal area of western Sardinia. Environmental isotopes

104 and water quality indicators were combined with hydrogeological observations to characterize the recharge
105 path and trace the sources of nitrate pollution, evaluating chemical reactions related to denitrification
106 processes. The evaluation of redox zonation is critical to understand the key controls on the fate of nitrate
107 pollution in the area.

108 The case study site provides a number of potential insights regarding the following.

- 109 - The dynamics of both groundwater and nitrogen cycles and nitrate pollution, which would ideally
110 support strategies for the mitigation of nitrate pollution in NVZs in the Mediterranean region.
- 111 - Assessment of the state of the aquifer, which apparently is much less polluted than expected from
112 the nitrogen surplus caused by the existing concentration of dairy livestock and associated activities.

113

114 **2. Study Area**

115

116 The study area is in the northern part of the Campidano Plain (central-western Sardinia, Italy). The northern
117 and eastern borders are the volcanic complexes of Montiferru and Monte Arci. The area is bounded on the
118 south by the Rio Mogoro, the Marceddi and San Giovanni lagoons, and on the west by the Oristano Gulf. A
119 portion of this area (~60 km²) is occupied by the Arborea District (Figure 1).

120 Historically, this area was an insalubrious morass, sparsely populated, and largely used for pastoral
121 activities. The first reclamation started in 1812 and continued through 1912, when the Santa Giusta pond
122 (one of the largest in the region) was dredged and the material used to cover marshlands. Because of the
123 reclamation work, drainage of the entire area was regulated by means of addition of sandy soil and a
124 network of channels that convey the water to a dewatering pump system. In 1956, the Assegnatari Associati
125 Arborea (3A) cooperative was established on the Arborea Plain, and soon became the main economic player
126 in the area (Cau and Paniconi, 2007). The cooperative, in fact, manages the rearing of 28,000 bovine
127 livestock units on a 5000 ha irrigated plain, representing one of the most productive agricultural sites in Italy,
128 and the productivity of its dairy system is one of the highest in Europe (Mura et al., 2015; Demurtas et al.
129 2016).

130

131

132

Fig 1

133

134 The forage cropping systems are based on double-cropping silage corn – Italian ryegrass (representing >
135 80% of the irrigated land), and ~35,600 dairy livestock are raised in a narrow area (Giola et al. 2012).
136 Consequently, the Arborea area was identified as a NVZ in 2005 (Ghiglieri et al. 2009).
137 The climate is Mediterranean, and mean annual temperature and precipitation are 16.7 °C and 568 mm,
138 respectively (1959–2012). Some 73% of annual rainfall occurs between October and March (Demurtas et al.
139 2016), and the average annual aridity index (rainfall / reference evapotranspiration) is 0.49 (semiarid area).

140

141 The study area occupies the northern part of the Campidano rift, with a landscape characterized by
142 Quaternary deposits such as littoral-marine (mainly sands) and fluvial-deltaic material (mainly silt, clay, sand
143 and gravel). The former outcrop corresponds with the Arborea Plain and the latter with its eastern side
144 (Ghiglieri et al. 2016).

145 Three hydrogeological units (HU) have been identified:

- 146 • Sandy Hydrogeological Unit (SHU);
- 147 • Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU);
- 148 • Volcanic Hydrogeological Unit (VHU).

149 The SHU is represented by an unconfined aquifer hosted in the Holocene littoral sands. It shows thicknesses
150 of 20–25 m, with depth decreasing eastward (Figure 2). It is bounded at its base by a layer of lagoonal
151 deposits made up of silt clays and peaty mud, which outcrop at the reclaimed Sassu Lagoon (Ghiglieri et al.
152 2016). The local lagoonal clay deposits include perched sandy lenses, in some cases hosting fossil
153 seawater. The thickness of this impermeable boundary is consistently between 25 and 30 m in the central
154 and northern part of the Arborea Plain. The geologic setting dominated by aggradational stacking causes an
155 increase of the thickness and presence of Holocene lagoon deposits toward the sea. However, as reported
156 in Ghiglieri et al. (2016), in the southern part of the plain, lagoonal clays that delimit the bottom of the sandy
157 aquifer are lacking, such that Holocene sands of the SHU and alluvial aquifers of the AHU (Pleistocene
158 continental deposits) are in hydraulic communication with each other.

159 The AHU is a multilayer aquifer hosted in Pleistocene continental deposits (Figure 2). It consists of gravels,
160 with some sands or clayey sand outcrops throughout the area surrounding the Arborea Plain up to the Monte
161 Arci. This aquifer is confined in the plain because of the aforementioned clay layer, which separates it from
162 the sandy aquifer (SHU). The impermeable layers are represented by the lagoonal clays, which characterize
163 each depositional sequence.

164 Finally, the VHU is an aquifer hosted in basalt, rhyolite and rhyodacite of the Monte Arci formations (Plio-
165 Pleistocene). The volcanic rocks sink rapidly westwards, reaching a sufficient depth to prevent access from
166 any well on the plain (Figure 2).

167

168

Fig 2

169

170

171 **3. Methodology**

172

173 Samples for chemical and isotopic characterization were collected in October 2011 from 45 wells in a
174 monitoring network (Figure 2). The wells were distinguished in three groups as a function of SHU, AHU and
175 VHU. Depths range from 2.3 to 52 m below ground (b.g.; median 20 m b.g.; $n = 25$) in the SHU wells, from
176 14 to 100 m b.g. (median 40 m b.g.; $n = 15$) in the AHU wells, and from 60 to 110 m b.g. (median 102 m b.g.;
177 $n = 5$) in the VHU wells. The spatial distribution of the hydraulic head was reconstructed based on 125 data
178 points affiliated to SHU and AHU in September 2011 (Ghiglieri et al. 2016). Temperature, pH, Eh, dissolved
179 oxygen (DO) and electrical conductivity were measured in situ, using a flow-through cell (AP-5000 -
180 Eijkelkamp) to avoid contact with the atmosphere, and sampling was done when values was stabilized.
181 Samples were filtered at 0.2 μm (for the elements that can be influenced by bacteria activity, such as $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
182 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ isotopes), and at 0.45 μm (for the others elements) and transported in 1 L polythene bottles and
183 kept at 4 °C for subsequent chemical and isotopic analyses. Major anions and cations were analyzed
184 according to standard methods (APHA, 1992). Major ions were determined by atomic absorption
185 spectrometry (Perkin Elmer model AAnalyst 200) and ion chromatography (Alltech Allsep anion column 7
186 μm , 100 mm). Nitrate concentration was detected as NO_3^- by ion chromatography. Alkalinity was determined
187 by titration (Titrator Orion 950 - Thermo Scientific) and NH_4^+ , NO_2^- and SiO_2 content by colorimetry (Cary 60
188 UV-VIS, Agilent Technologies). Replicate analyses of water samples and standards allowed estimation with
189 analytical errors within 5 % for both anion and cation contents. Non-purgeable dissolved organic carbon
190 (NPDOC) was measured using organic matter combustion (TOC-5000, Shimadzu Scientific Instruments).
191 Chemical analyses were performed at the laboratory of the Engineering Department of Sassari University,
192 Italy.

193 The isotopic characterization included the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ of H_2O , $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of NO_3^- , $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of
194 SO_4^{2-} , and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC (dissolved inorganic carbon). $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ were analyzed at the University of

195 Málaga (Spain) with Wavelength-Scanned Cavity Ringdown Spectroscopy for isotopic water measurements
 196 with L2120-i Picarro® equipment. Six replicates for each sample were done, although the last three were
 197 selected for statistical treatment. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of dissolved nitrate were determined using a modified
 198 cadmium reduction method (McIlvin and Altabet 2005; Ryabenko et al. 2009). Briefly, nitrate was converted
 199 to nitrite through spongy cadmium reduction and then to nitrous oxide using sodium azide in an acetic acid
 200 buffer. Simultaneous $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analysis of the N_2O produced was done using a Pre-Con (Thermo
 201 Scientific) coupled to a Finnigan MAT-253 Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS, Thermo Scientific). For
 202 $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses, dissolved SO_4^{2-} was precipitated as BaSO_4 by adding $\text{BaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ after acidifying
 203 the sample with HCl and boiling it to prevent BaCO_3 precipitation, following standard methods (Dogramaci et
 204 al. 2001). The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ was analyzed with the Carlo Erba EA - Finnigan Delta C IRMS. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was analyzed
 205 in duplicate using a ThermoQuest high-temperature conversion elemental analyzer coupled in continuous
 206 flow with a Finnigan MAT Delta X IRMS. For $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, carbonates were converted to CO_2 gas by adding a
 207 phosphoric acid solution in a GasBench (Thermo Scientific) and the isotope ratio was measured in a MAT-
 208 253 IRMS (Thermo Scientific) coupled to the GasBench. Isotopic results are expressed in terms of delta (δ)
 209 per mil relative to the following international standards: Vienna Standard Mean Oceanic Water for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and
 210 $\delta^2\text{H}$, Vienna Canyon Diablo Troillite for $\delta^{34}\text{S}$, Air for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$.
 211 Reproducibility (1σ) was calculated using international and internal laboratory standards systematically
 212 interspersed in the analytical batches: $\pm 0.15\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$, $\pm 1\text{‰}$ for $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$, $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$, $\pm 0.5\text{‰}$ for
 213 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$, $\pm 0.6\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$, $\pm 1.0\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$, and $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$. The international and internal
 214 laboratory standards used are: for ^2H and ^{18}O in water isotopic analyses OH13, OH14 and OH15
 215 (Wassenaar et al., 2012); for ^{34}S in sulfate: NBS127 (+20.3‰); UB-YCEM (+12.8‰) and SO-5 (+0.5‰); for
 216 ^{18}O in sulfate: UB-YCEM (+17.6‰); UB-ASC (+13.2‰) and NBS127 (+9.3‰); for ^{15}N in nitrate USGS-32
 217 (+180‰); USGS-34 (-1.8‰); USGS-35 (+2.7‰) and UB-IWS (+16.9‰); for ^{18}O in nitrate USGS-32
 218 (+25.3‰); USGS-34 (-27.9‰); USGS-35 (+57.3‰) and UB-IWS (+28.5‰); and for ^{13}C in DIC: UB-NA (-
 219 4.36‰), UB-NAK (-18.7‰) and UB-K (-29.16‰) calibrated with NBS-18 and NBS-19. Where not otherwise
 220 specified, the preparation of samples for isotopic analyses was done at the laboratory of the Mineralogia
 221 Aplicada i Geoquímica de Fluids (MAG-UB) research group, and the analysis was done at the Centres
 222 Científics i Tecnològics of the Universitat de Barcelona (CCiT-UB), Spain. Bulk isotopic results of the survey
 223 are presented in the Appendix (Tables 1 and 3).
 224

225 4. Results

4.1. Groundwater flow path

The groundwater mainly flows from east to west, confirming the results of previous investigations (Ghiglieri et al. 2016). In detail, the SHU is recharged laterally from the AHU in the southern part of the Arborea Plain and by zenithal infiltration from local precipitation and irrigation. According to the spatial distribution of the hydraulic head within the SHU, a groundwater divide was recognized in the area from Arborea village to the NVZ central area (Figure 2). The SHU can be considered a homogeneous system in which the water table shows subdued adaptation to the topography, from the groundwater divide area westward to the sea and eastward to the Sassu lagoon.

Within the AHU, the groundwater flows: (i) from east to west, i.e., from the volcanic area toward the sea; (ii) from southeast to northwest in the southern portion of the Sassu lagoon, with the hydraulic gradient decreasing at the border of continental deposits with the alluvial one from about 1% to 0.3%.

The AHU is recharged laterally from the VHU and by zenithal infiltration from both precipitation and irrigation return flow, owing to extensive agricultural activities also in the portion of the plain on the eastern side of the Sassu lagoon.

Therefore, groundwater flows in unconfined conditions within the SHU and part of the AHU (specifically from the Monte Arci formation toward the eastern edge of the Sassu lagoon), highlighting the influence of the drainage channels that, intercepting the aquifer, convey the groundwater toward a pumping station (Figures 2 and 3). In addition, in the AHU (Figure 3), the groundwater flows under confined conditions within a deeper heterogeneous subsystem composed of discontinuous aquitards.

Fig 3

4.2. Hydrochemical facies definition

Groundwater samples showed near neutral or slightly alkaline pH (6.4–8.3). Redox potential values ranged from oxidizing to reducing conditions ($E_h = 227$ to -180 mV) and dissolved oxygen varied between 9.2 and < 0.1 mg/L for the complete dataset. Conductivity values were between 537 and 7410 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$. Groundwater with electrical conductivity > 2000 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ generally occurred along the coast, but also inland (> 10 kilometers from the coast) where the hydraulic head is > 10 – 12 m above sea level. In spite of small numbers, VHU samples showed geochemical variability less than that observed in SHU and AHU samples. AHU

256 groundwater showed the greatest variance for almost all considered parameters. Relatively high silica in
257 VHU wells and alkalinity in SHU wells pinpoint the respective contributions of silicate and carbonate minerals
258 in those aquifers.

259 Electrical conductivity, chloride and sodium concentration in SHU and AHU wells strongly revealed the
260 effects of saline sources in a coastal region. At the same time, elevated concentrations of nitrate in the SHU
261 wells (reaching 243 mg/L) and in part of the unconfined AHU (up to 143 mg/L) reflect the influence of
262 anthropogenic activities in the area.

263 Hydrochemical facies was deduced according to the classification of Stuyfzand (2008), modified as indicated
264 in Fig. 4 to consider the nitrate pollution grade. The Stuyfzand classification is well known for its application
265 to coastal areas for the determination of water type and evaluation of geochemical processes
266 (Vandenbohede and Lebbe 2012; Ghiglieri et al. 2012; Mollema et al. 2013), and is useful for systems
267 experiencing excessive application of manure and other fertilizers (Stuyfzand 1986). The classification was
268 based on Cl^- content, alkalinity, major cations and anions, Base Exchange Index (BEX), and NO_3^- content, in
269 order to define water type as a combination of various parameters considered in a hierarchical structure with
270 five levels of subdivision (Figure 4).

271

272 **Fig 4**

273

274 Table 2 of the Appendix shows a synthesis of main water types identified in each aquifer, grouped on the
275 basis of nitrate content. The terms of the classification (Cl^- content, alkalinity, major cations and anions, and
276 BEX) are listed following relative abundances. According to the classification, hydrochemical facies in the
277 study area range from fresh (F) to brackish-salt (b) waters. There was high nitrate content in both fresh-
278 brackish (f) and brackish-salt water (b), with variable alkalinity.

279 Fresh waters show nitrate concentrations < 50 mg/L. When the NO_3^- pollution grade is low (L), these waters
280 show greater alkalinity and a Na mixed character, whereas with nitrate increase (M), groundwater shows a
281 NaCl character.

282 Brackish-salt-water occurrences are limited to a few wells on the coast (SHU) and inland in the AHU.
283 These waters showed a Ca/HCO_3^- ratio > 1 . However, waters on the coast had high chloride and were
284 oversaturated with respect to calcite, whereas inland waters showed SO_4 up to 340 mg/L and
285 undersaturation with respect to calcite.

286 Brackish waters were mainly found in the SHU, in the southern part of the reclamation area. Chemical
287 compositions range from NaCl to CaCl types, with very variable nitrate content (L, M, HH) and high HCO₃.
288

289 **4.3. Isotopic data**

290 The plot in Fig. 5 shows values of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ ranging from -6.7‰ to -4.7‰ and -37.9‰ to -28.1‰ ,
291 respectively (Table 3). Most of the SHU and AHU samples fall on the Local Meteoric Water Line (LMWL, δD
292 $= 7.46\text{‰}^{18}\text{O} + 7.22$), indicating that they are of meteoric origin. In contrast, water isotopic compositions of VHU
293 and some of the AHU samples are more depleted. In this case, recharge may derive from: (i) rainwater
294 affected by an altitude gradient that causes an isotopically depleted precipitation, owing to lower average
295 temperature at higher altitudes (Clark and Fritz 1997; Williams 1997); (ii) rainwater conditions cooler than at
296 present (Edmunds et al. 2003; Zhu et al. 2007).
297

298 **Fig 5**

299
300 Most SHU samples collected from wells drilled to large depths of 30–53 m b.g. showed values similar to the
301 AHU samples, reflecting the likely existence of a link to various aquifer zones (Clark and Fritz 1997).
302 According with the water isotope values of groundwater, no significant influence of seawater intrusion is
303 observed. Also the relationship between chlorine content and water isotopic values points out that seawater
304 intrusion is not occurring in the studied area. Some evaporative processes in the unsaturated zone can
305 explain the displacement of some data from the water meteoric line to the global meteoric line.
306

307 The isotopic composition of $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ was from $+4.3\text{‰}$ to $+43.0\text{‰}$, and $+0.9\text{‰}$ to $+24.6\text{‰}$,
308 respectively (Table 3). In Figure 6, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in dissolved NO_3^- is represented together with the isotopic
309 composition of the main NO_3^- sources, i.e., synthetic fertilizers (NO_3^- , nitrified NH_4^+), soil-N, and animal
310 manure (organic fertilizer) or sewage (Vitòria et al. 2004; Kendall et al. 2007; Xue et al. 2009). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$
311 derived from nitrification of NH_4^+ was calculated following the experimental equation 1 (Anderson and
312 Hooper, 1983):
313

$$314 \quad \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3} = 2/3\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} + 1/3\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{O}_2} \quad (1)$$

315

316 where $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ represents the range obtained from the field survey (-4.7‰ to -6.7‰), and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{O}_2}$ was
 317 assumed to be that of atmospheric O_2 ($+23.5\text{‰}$). Hence, NO_3^- in the study area should have $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ values
 318 between $+3.2\text{‰}$ and $+4.5\text{‰}$. Nonetheless, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in most of the samples from that area were
 319 larger than theoretically expected, suggesting nitrate attenuation processes.
 320 NO_3^- concentration measured in the VHU was from 1.9 to 23.1 mg/L, with median 8.6 mg/L ($n = 5$).
 321

322 Fig 6

323
 324 Samples collected in the AHU show substantial variation in NO_3^- concentration (0.5–143.4 mg/L; mean 31
 325 mg/L). Specifically, samples from the eastern AHU (P146, P331, P264, P165 and P184), adjacent to the
 326 Monte Arci formation, show a lower NO_3^- concentration ($< 25\text{ mg/L}$) related to soil-N (Figure 6) and isotopic
 327 compositions similar to the VHU, possibly representing a natural endmember.
 328 Samples that according to the flow path were located closely up-gradient with reference to Sassu lagoon
 329 (P292, P296, P257, P324, P342, and P361) showed variable nitrate contents, from below the detection limit
 330 (P257) to 134 mg/L (observed in the shallowest well, P296). Finally, samples from the confined AHU below
 331 the reclaimed lagoon (P253 and P293) and below the Arborea NVZ (P85 and P211) showed NO_3^-
 332 concentrations $< 1\text{ mg/L}$. About the SHU, the samples show a wide range of NO_3^- content, between 0.3 and
 333 216 mg/L, with a mean value of 74.1 mg/L.
 334 All samples showed higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values than theoretical values for the sources defined above
 335 (Figure 6). Nevertheless, these heavier values can indicate that some denitrification processes are occurring,
 336 even if an uncertainty about the theoretical values for the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$ of the sources has to be considered.
 337 The increases in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the residual nitrate, in fact, is caused by denitrification and produce a
 338 distinctive isotopic signature recognizable within a range (Figure 6) defined from denitrification studies by
 339 Böttcher et al. (1990) and Aravena et al. (1998). In addition, as detailed below, the presence of a redox
 340 gradient, disappearance of dissolved O_2 and increases in alkalinity (mostly bicarbonate), are usually
 341 associated with significant denitrification (Kendall, 1998).
 342 The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of dissolved sulfate ranges from $+4.3\text{‰}$ to $+43.0\text{‰}$, and $+0.9\text{‰}$ to $+24.6\text{‰}$, respectively
 343 (Table 3). Three sources can be related to SO_4^{2-} (Figure 7): intrusion of marine water and aerosol, influence
 344 of soil-derived SO_4^{2-} content and agrochemical products and manure.
 345

346 Fig 7

347

348 **5. DISCUSSION**

349 Hydrochemical results highlighted a variability in geochemical features reflecting the occurrence of different
350 hydrosomes (water bodies with a specific origin; Stuyfzand 1999) affected by multiple processes. Brackish-
351 salt waters, showing a molar Na/Cl ratio lower than sea water, suggest that Na removing processes
352 occurred. Cation exchange processes between Na and Ca has been reported in other aquifers affected by
353 salinization (Appelo and Postma, 2005). High alkalinity in brackish water may result from denitrification
354 processes (Otero et al. 2009). However, stratigraphic information from boreholes in the SHU in this area
355 have revealed remains of shells and limestone strata interbedded with sands (Ghiglieri et al. 2016).
356 Most groundwater showed a molar SO_4/Cl ratio higher than seawater, indicating additional sulfate other than
357 marine sources. Despite the lack of a strong correlation between NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} , other sources of sulfates
358 could be related to fertilization practice (Mahlknecht et al., 2017). Therefore, the enhanced concentrations of
359 major ions and nitrate indicate that groundwater quality is impaired by both saline sources and pollutant
360 influx from anthropogenic activities. Specifically, nitrate contamination may result from fertilizer, manure,
361 septic tank effluent, municipal and animal waste, and landfill.

362

363 **5.1. Sources of Nitrate**

364 Different sources of nitrate were detected for the groundwater of the study area according to the dissolved
365 nitrate isotopic composition (Fig 6). In detail, VHU samples show a relationship with soil-N (even if influence
366 of NH_4 fertilizer slightly volatilized cannot be excluded), except the sample P166 that, due to the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and
367 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values coupled with low Eh and relatively high NPDOC, suggest the existence of denitrification
368 processes. About the AHU, the samples located up-gradient with reference to Sassu lagoon (P292, P296,
369 P257, P324, P342, and P361) show an isotopic composition attributable to synthetic fertilizers. Denitrification
370 processes may have occurred also in these waters. Some processes can be supposed also for the samples
371 from the confined AHU below the reclaimed lagoon (P253 and P293) and below the Arborea NVZ (P85 and
372 P211) supported by conditions favorable to denitrification (DO ranged from 0.1 to 3.6 mg/L and Eh as low as
373 -138 mV).

374 The isotope composition of SHU samples suggests a mixed source of nitrate. Most samples (P112, P28,
375 P41, P133, P12, P124, P132, P116, P13, P354 and P118) are within the area defined by synthetic fertilizer
376 whereas the samples P14, P205 and P88 showed nitrate isotopic composition attributable to manure or
377 sewage. In contrast, no precise sources of nitrate were recognized in samples P26, P77, P48, P215 and

P283. On the whole, all the SHU samples appear influenced by denitrification processes, even if with different magnitude. Specifically, for the samples affected by synthetic fertilizer the attenuation was not efficient enough to remove nitrate (concentrations from 49 to 202 mg/L). Exceptions were observed in samples P112, P28 and P133 which showed lower nitrate concentration (< 8 mg/L). Instead, for those samples in which organic fertilizer sources have been defined, the denitrification processes have contributed to decrease nitrate concentration below 34 mg/L. Also for the samples with no clear nitrate origin definition (mean nitrate concentration ~ 146 mg/L), a high load of NO_3^- appeared to overcome the natural capacity to promote denitrification. Indeed, the fate of nitrate in SHU is influenced by the sandy soils texture. Lower contents of silt and clay, in fact, can reduce cation exchange capacity, which in turn allows faster nitrate leaching into groundwater (Biddau et al. 2016). In addition, an influence is attributable to the recent change of fertilizer management systems, i.e. higher use of inorganic instead of organic fertilizer in the Arborea NVZ (Demurtas et al. 2016) may have contributed to the isotopic signature.

390

391 **5.2. Sources of Sulfate**

Figure 7 shows that sulfate can be related to different sources. Some samples can be attributed to marine sulfate, with isotopic signature $+20$ ‰ for $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $+9$ ‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ (Utrilla et al. 1992). Specifically, $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ from VHU samples showed values that can be related to seawater sulfate. As shown in Figure 8, this influence was in agreement with the observed $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{Cl}^-$ ratio in VHU samples near the seawater ratio. However, sulfate concentration in these samples was low (< 40 mg/L). Because of this low concentration, the distance from the coast of wells and the meteoric water isotopic values of groundwater without seawater influence, the existence of seawater intrusion related to water extraction can be discarded. One hypothesis explaining a seawater source of sulfate is the presence of some deep saline paleo-waters that could have been recharged during past transgressions, which have evolved through mixing with sulfate-free freshwater (Aquilina et al. 2013, Duriez et al. 2008, Edmunds and Milne 2001, Cary et al. 2015). Another hypothesis is related to dissolution of evaporites present in lagoon deposits. Evaporites may have been precipitated during regression periods when the lagoon was isolated from the sea. Similar evaporitic minerals have been observed in salt marsh environments, because of direct precipitation from seawater (Warren et al. 2006). The presence of evaporite materials in the lagoon deposits could also be responsible for the weak seawater influence on $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ in some AHU and SHU samples (Figure 7). In any case, further research is needed to characterize different sources of sulfate related to seawater in the study area, with the aims of identifying the source of sulfate in groundwater.

Other sources of sulfate (Figure 7) can be ascribed to soil-derived SO_4^{2-} (groundwater with $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ between 0 ‰ and 6 ‰, Krouse and Mayer 2000) and agrochemical and manure products. The latter, considering potential anthropogenic SO_4^{2-} sources, show isotopic compositions with mean $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4} = +5$ ‰ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4} = +12$ ‰ respectively, according to similar environmental conditions reported by Vitòria et al. (2004). Moreover, part of SHU and AHU samples are characterized by sulfate reduction processes, specifically for the samples that have availability of an organic C source.

Fig 8

5.3. Evidence of Denitrification processes

The nitrate isotopic composition confirms the occurrence of denitrification, particularly for the SHU and some AHU samples. Denitrification processes are consistent with other geochemical indicators such as DO concentrations < 2.0 mg/L and low Eh values, indicating conditions suitable for denitrification in the aquifer (Korom 1992). The observed denitrification can be promoted by autotrophic bacteria, which use inorganic compounds such as sulfide as electron donors, or heterotrophic bacteria that use organic carbon as a source of electrons. Denitrification produced by sulfide should increase sulfate concentration, contemporaneous with a shift of sulfate isotopic composition. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ vs. $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ diagram (Figure 9) illustrates that samples affected by strong denitrification ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3} > +15$ ‰) do not show evidence of SO_4^{2-} originating from sulfide oxidation ($\delta^{34}\text{S} < -5$ ‰). An exception is represented by the sample P283 from SHU, located in the southeast of Arborea NVZ. This sample, with $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ values around 0 per mil, is consistent with a sulfate originated from sulfide oxidation that was not able to discard autotrophic denitrification. Nevertheless, neither chemical nor isotopic data confirm the role of sulfide in NO_3^- attenuation observed in the Arborea NVZ.

Fig 9

Alternatively, the presence of peaty mud sediments from Holocene deposits can act as a source of organic matter to develop heterotrophic denitrification in the AHU and SHU. In addition, livestock effluents (mostly slurry) used as organic fertilizer in Arborea constitute large amounts of organic input (Pinna et al., 2014) and,

despite the predominant sandy composition of soils in the study area, their long-term application contributed to greater soil organic carbon in the soil (Cappai 2013).

The relationship between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and bicarbonate concentrations, as well as NPDOC concentration, is typically used to explain the role of organic matter oxidation in denitrification. In the study area, measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ had values from -6.6‰ to -24.6‰ (median -12.4‰). Most samples (Figure 10) had values in agreement with the known range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ for groundwater (-16‰ to -11‰ ; Vogel and Ehhlalt 1963), although the larger values detected could have had some influence from marine carbonates. Hence, chemical equilibria among the dissolved carbonate species mask any chemical and isotopic variation caused by heterotrophic denitrification.

Fig 10

Referring to NPDOC concentration, degradation and leaching of organic matter can increase electron donor availability in water, and may therefore promote denitrification. In the study area, NPDOC concentration varied from a minimum in the VHU (1.4 mg/L) to a maximum in the SHU (22.1 mg/L). High NPDOC concentrations matched large values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ (Figure 11). The variation in NPDOC concentration and denitrification can be attributed to the heterogeneous distribution of both, organic matter, and NO_3^- inputs. If NPDOC contents is the limitation of the denitrification reactions, biostimulation, adding dissolved organic matter to the aquifer, would enhance the nitrate attenuation.

Fig 11

5.4. Evidence of sulfate reduction

As clearly shown in Fig. 7, sulfate reduction processes were detected in some SHU (P8, P10, P65, P72, P83) and AHU (P85, P211, P253, P324) samples that simultaneously showed large values of both $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and low NO_3^- concentrations ($< 1\text{ mg/L}$). These samples had DO ranging from 0.2 to 4.1 mg/L and Eh from +51 to -180 mV . These parameters, with low DO and reducing groundwater conditions, are favorable to sulfate reduction. In general, once NO_3^- is completely removed by denitrification, the excess organic carbon could be used to promote SO_4^{2-} reduction according to reaction 2:



470

471 An exception was the sample P324, which had a nitrate concentration of 110 mg/L. This sample was
472 collected from a fully screened deep well (50 m b. g.), where it is possible that shallow groundwater polluted
473 by nitrate is mixed with deep groundwater.

474 Overall, the AHU and SHU aquifers, composed of alluvial-lacustrine and littoral deposits, may provide a
475 potential reductive environment for SO_4^{2-} consumption in groundwater, although the samples affected by
476 sulfate reduction did not show any sign of depletion in terms of SO_4^{2-} concentration.

477 The effect of net SO_4^{2-} changes on isotopic compositions and concentration can be evaluated by the
478 normalization of SO_4^{2-} to Cl^- in groundwater (Li et al. 2011). In fact, considering the conservative behavior of
479 Cl^- , the decrease of $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{Cl}^-$ ratio can indicate sulfate removal associated with biogeochemical processes
480 (Dogramaci et al. 2001; Berner et al. 2002). As shown in Fig. 8, a decreasing ($\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{Cl}^-$) ratio coupled with an
481 increase of $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ suggests that isotopically light SO_4^{2-} was progressively removed and the residual SO_4^{2-}
482 became enriched in ^{34}S and ^{18}O during sulfate reduction. In general, the samples with smaller $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and
483 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ values and large $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{Cl}^-$ ratios can be linked to an initial SO_4^{2-} pool, such as marine or
484 anthropogenic sulfate.

485

486 **5.5. Spatial distribution of Redox reactions**

487 Denitrification and sulfate reduction processes have been specifically identified for the AHU and SHU. For
488 the AHU, denitrification has not been identified in groundwater collected from the area adjacent to the
489 volcanic massif. On the contrary, moving from the eastern side of the Sassu lagoon toward the Arborea NVZ,
490 denitrification processes have been identified. The occurrence of denitrification, especially when
491 groundwater flows in confined conditions, is supported by indicators such as dissolved oxygen
492 concentrations (3.5 mg/L) and Eh (−180 mV). Samples such as P85 and P211 (within the NVZ) and P253
493 and P293 (corresponding to Sassu lagoon) show evidence of reduction processes, suggesting the
494 availability of an organic C source within the lagoon deposit aquitard. This provides the basis for enhanced
495 reduction of nitrate and sulfate in this area. Also, the geologic setting supports the presence of Holocene
496 lagoon deposits toward the sea, revealing the importance of this material in the control of the attenuation
497 observed in the AHU.

498 In the SHU, the variation in NO_3^- content is related to the heterogeneous nitrate load and the degree of
499 denitrification, the latter being modulated by well depth, the availability of organic C, and the groundwater
500 flow path. In general, a lower content of nitrate in groundwater, imputable to denitrification processes, has

501 been observed when nitrate comes from organic rather than synthetic fertilizers. It is reasonable to assume
502 that the high NO_3^- load from synthetic fertilizer overwhelms the capacity to promote efficient denitrification.
503 This is in line with the situation in the study area over recent decades, in which organic effluents
504 (representing > 50 % of the crop N input source) have been progressively replaced by mineral fertilizer not
505 reducing, *de facto*, nitrate leaching.
506 The wells with depths < 10 m b.g. had higher nitrate concentrations, especially when the origin was clearly
507 attributable to synthetic fertilizers (Figure 12). In addition, those wells showed evidence of sulfate reduction
508 (Figure 13).

509

510

Fig 12

511

512 The SHU groundwater intercepted at depths > 10 m b.g. showed strong variability in terms of redox reaction
513 distribution in the area. Some samples in the southern portion of the area (e.g. P124), located on the flow
514 path down-gradient from the groundwater divide, had high NO_3^- concentrations (up to 123 mg/L) as a result
515 of nitrate loading from sources upstream. Furthermore, the thin and discontinuous layers of Holocene lagoon
516 deposits permit the mixing of SHU and AHU groundwater, limiting the efficiency of denitrification. In contrast,
517 the deepest SHU groundwater, adjacent to the coast (P8, P10, P65 and P83), showed NO_3^- concentrations
518 below the detection limit, with even evidence of sulfate reduction (Figures 12–13). In this case, in addition to
519 the presence of clay lenses of lagoonal origin, this reduction is attributable to the absence of drainage from
520 up-gradient contaminated wells.

521 In the central-east part of the NVZ, near Sassu lagoon, it has not been possible to clearly define reduction
522 process paths. In fact, some SHU deep samples (P219 and P72) showed almost complete nitrate
523 attenuation ($\text{NO}_3^- < 7 \text{ mg/L}$; $\delta^{15}\text{N} > 30 \text{ ‰}$), whereas shallower wells (< 12 m b.g) such as P215 and P77, with
524 large $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (>15.9 ‰ and >12.5 ‰, respectively), had high nitrate concentrations (> 137
525 mg/L).

526

527

Fig 13

528

529 6. CONCLUSIONS

530 This paper presented an analysis of multiple isotopes, water chemistry, and hydrogeologic results to identify
531 the sources and fate of NO_3^- in an agricultural coastal area in western Sardinia. According to the results, the

532 presence of reclaimed lagoons is a key factor in the groundwater flow path, for both the phreatic aquifer and
533 confined conditions within a deeper heterogeneous subsystem composed of discontinuous aquitards.
534 Various groundwater chemical paths were consistent with different nitrogen sources and groundwater
535 dynamics, moving from the mountain area (eastern study area) to the coast. According to $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$
536 groundwater values, in the studied area, groundwater is mainly originating from local precipitation and no
537 significant seawater intrusion is occurring. Groundwater quality is affected by multiple processes associated
538 with saline (sea spray deposition on topsoil and input of sea salts trapped in lagoonal sediments) and
539 anthropogenic sources (linked to agriculture and livestock raising). Nitrate sources were clearly differentiated
540 by the use of $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_3^-$ isotopes in soil-N, mineral, and organic fertilizers. The $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and
541 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ isotopes supported the above results, showing mixing between anthropogenic sources (linked to
542 agricultural and livestock raising activities) and marine sulfate. That sulfate is most likely related to saline
543 paleo-waters recharged during past transgressions, or to the dissolution of evaporites occurring in the lagoon
544 deposits as salt precipitation. In addition, nitrate and sulfate isotopes revealed the existence of denitrification
545 and sulfate reduction processes, in agreement with chemical indicators (i.e., Eh values, dissolved oxygen,
546 and NPDOC concentration). By contrast, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ was not suitable to explain the role of organic matter
547 oxidation in the natural nitrate attenuation. Heterotrophic denitrification was specifically highlighted for the
548 AHU and SHU, owing to the presence of peaty mud sediments from Holocene deposits and organic
549 fertilizers (livestock effluents). Regarding the distribution of nitrate and natural attenuation processes in the
550 study area, the eastern side (reaching the reclaimed lagoon) generally showed lower nitrate concentrations
551 in the VHU and part of the AHU, attributable to soil-N. The AHU samples closely located up-gradient from the
552 reclaimed lagoon pointed to a nitrate origin from synthetic fertilizers and heterotrophic denitrification
553 processes. From that lagoon to the sea, AHU groundwater flow in confined conditions had the lowest NO_3^-
554 concentrations, owing to conditions favorable to heterotrophic denitrification and sulfate reduction processes.
555 In the SHU west of the reclaimed lagoon, a mixed source for nitrate was defined, which in some cases
556 increased according to the flow path. Also in this groundwater, there were heterotrophic denitrification and
557 sulfate reduction processes. However, high nitrate concentrations in samples influenced by synthetic
558 fertilizer indicate attenuation insufficient to remove NO_3^- to below the human consumption threshold. For
559 SHU groundwater, therefore, the change from organic to inorganic fertilizer application did not reduce the
560 nitrate pollution in groundwater. As in the study area natural attenuation processes are taking place, it would
561 be suitable to promote biostimulation to add dissolved organic matter and, consequently, electron donor
562 availability to the aquifer therefore promoting denitrification.

563 In conclusion, the present study demonstrates that the combination of multi-isotope, chemical and
564 hydrogeological approaches facilitates nitrate source identification and the evaluation of nitrate removal via
565 biogeochemical transformation processes in a multi-aquifer system under Mediterranean conditions.
566 However, characterization of potential nitrate and marine source terms as well as the enrichment factor for
567 aquifers should be acquired to better define the evolution of contamination and to implement remediation
568 techniques.
569

570

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576

577 **Appendix 1**

578

579 **Table 1** Hydrochemical data of sampled groundwater in Arborea area, October 2011. Dissolved oxygen (DO), cations

580 and anions are in mg/L; temperature (*T*) is in °C; Electrical Conductivity (EC) in µS/cm; Redox potential (Eh) is in mV

581

582

583

Sample ID	T	pH	EC	Eh	DO	Cl ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	HCO ₃ ⁻	NO ₂ ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	SiO ₂	DOC
SHU																	
P8	20.0	7.7	5030	-180	0.2	1525.0	74.5	181.8	-	1.0	0.10	750.0	27.5	125.0	75.0	26.8	-
P10	19.6	8.0	1243	-49	0.1	269.8	31.3	205.4	-	0.5	0.00	170.0	14.4	40.0	21.0	27.1	-
P12	20.5	7.0	1034	33	3.9	170.2	72.6	144.5	0.20	49.3	n.d.	122.5	28.0	27.0	19.0	41.7	8.0
P13	19.2	7.5	1575	95	0.2	247.8	83.1	245.2	0.20	205.1	n.d.	120.0	7.0	130.0	40.0	29.6	-
P14	23.0	7.3	723	96	3.8	114.6	35.4	181.5	0.00	1.4	0.10	76.0	12.8	48.0	12.0	31.2	8.6
P26	21.3	6.9	3180	160	0.8	647.7	171.4	642.5	0.10	49.9	0.10	310.0	42.0	165.0	105.0	28.0	-
P28	19.6	7.8	1216	152	2.3	217.8	88.2	236.9	0.00	3.7	0.10	190.0	8.1	34.0	17.0	23.0	11.4
P41	19.4	7.5	1483	139	4.1	201.8	97.1	293.1	0.70	136.9	0.10	125.0	6.5	120.0	36.0	28.0	14.9
P48	22.3	7.0	1809	179	6.9	214.8	102.7	481.1	1.40	146.4	0.20	140.0	88.0	132.0	38.0	36.1	21.2
P65	19.6	7.9	1121	-135	2.5	237.9	23.7	237.4	-	0.4	n.d.	150.0	6.7	48.0	17.0	21.7	-
P72	19.4	7.9	1808	8	4.1	406.5	32.0	312.4	-	1.1	n.d.	290.0	11.5	31.0	26.0	28.7	-
P77	20.2	6.9	2000	148	3.0	367.8	155.4	277.0	0.10	168.5	0.10	190.0	12.5	116.0	65.0	22.6	-
P83	19.8	7.5	4060	-33	2.8	1195.0	82.3	177.3	-	0.8	n.d.	500.0	20.3	144.0	80.0	23.0	-
P88	20.8	7.4	2330	144	2.8	384.3	118.9	577.7	0.10	34.1	0.30	245.0	54.0	138.0	50.0	41.4	22.1
P112	18.8	7.7	1518	190	4.1	308.1	47.0	248.7	0.00	7.6	n.d.	170.0	13.8	64.0	40.0	26.6	-
P116	19.3	7.5	1219	162	0.0	199.1	46.2	232.7	-	71.3	n.d.	130.0	8.8	69.0	26.0	29.4	-
P118	19.9	7.1	1560	178	3.5	236.9	77.0	298.1	-	119.4	n.d.	130.0	9.8	128.0	34.0	34.9	-
P124	19.8	7.9	1845	165	4.3	339.6	83.9	212.5	1.20	122.7	n.d.	285.0	8.5	36.0	18.0	21.5	-
P132	21.5	6.9	2100	185	3.3	304.1	108.8	448.3	0.20	202.2	0.10	190.0	15.8	170.0	55.0	32.8	-
P133	20.1	7.7	2140	155	0.3	544.9	64.6	212.8	0.00	4.4	n.d.	220.0	14.5	113.0	50.0	25.0	-
P205	22.0	6.9	537	155	6.2	77.0	26.4	124.9	-	6.4	0.10	54.0	12.2	28.5	10.5	26.2	-
P215	21.1	6.4	2160	160	1.4	370.0	116.9	256.0	0.20	215.8	0.10	200.0	20.0	88.0	70.0	29.8	12.4
P219	20.4	8.0	1344	-75	0.2	270.9	56.5	295.7	-	0.3	n.d.	230.0	6.6	24.0	13.0	25.9	-
P283	21.0	7.5	1464	177	9.2	186.6	108.8	277.4	-	156.3	n.d.	115.0	12.3	126.0	32.0	33.1	-
P354	18.9	6.9	2510	199	1.7	411.7	181.2	477.8	-	147.6	n.d.	280.0	9.0	180.0	47.5	41.9	-
AHU																	
P85	21.9	8.3	1929	-138	3.2	468.0	103.1	172.9	-	0.5	n.d.	350.0	3.5	28.0	11.0	18.9	-
P146	21.1	6.6	1846	174	5.2	446.1	52.4	126.5	-	6.0	n.d.	180.0	14.5	61.0	50.0	97.4	-
P165	20.4	6.8	7410	85	3.6	2260	217.8	374.2	-	27.2	1.20	675.0	41.8	330.0	300.0	76.5	-
P184	19.2	7.1	2700	136	5.0	611.0	123.3	275.1	-	72.3	n.d.	360.0	18.0	82.0	60.0	78.0	-
P211	20.9	7.8	2040	-97	0.3	476.8	92.7	220.0	-	0.5	n.d.	340.0	9.8	44.0	17.0	24.2	-
P253	21.0	7.3	2370	51	0.1	566.8	70.7	182.0	-	0.5	n.d.	320.0	17.5	74.0	30.0	56.9	-
P257	22.2	8.0	836	67	0.7	118.8	25.0	249.8	-	0.6	n.d.	136.0	7.0	14.0	7.0	57.1	-
P264	22.9	6.8	5270	110	4.0	1450.0	256.6	227.8	-	24.9	n.d.	600.0	28.8	196.0	150.0	79.2	-
P292	21.0	6.7	1061	227	1.5	215.5	41.3	146.3	-	14.3	n.d.	140.0	8.2	32.0	18.0	52.2	-
P293	21.0	7.6	1299	125	1.0	238.1	86.3	224.1	-	0.5	n.d.	190.0	9.1	40.0	13.0	40.2	5.5
P296	19.8	6.5	1460	227	1.4	251.8	97.9	135.9	-	143.4	n.d.	185.0	7.8	43.0	30.0	46.1	-
P324	19.3	7.0	6650	25	4.2	1809.9	343.5	222.6	0.10	110.3	0.10	875.0	23.8	218.0	125.0	55.3	4.7
P331	19.8	6.4	751	199	4.6	132.3	49.3	102.2	-	22.3	n.d.	84.0	9.4	20.0	20.0	74.8	7.5
P342	19.8	7.4	1557	180	1.9	245.5	101.7	332.2	-	31.6	n.d.	185.0	9.1	74.0	40.0	34.5	-
P361	19.3	7.4	1245	165	0.9	195.5	60.6	296.8	-	11.2	n.d.	185.0	7.6	27.0	17.0	39.2	1.4
VHU																	
P138	21.2	6.6	743	162	6.2	141.0	27.4	119.3	0.00	23.1	n.d.	90.0	10.6	19.0	16.0	63.3	-
P142	23.6	7.4	1050	141	3.4	223.5	23.9	165.1	-	1.9	n.d.	180.0	8.6	7.0	6.5	97.7	-
P156	21.3	7.4	1692	157	6.5	387.1	41.1	226.1	-	3.1	n.d.	300.0	12.3	25.0	20.0	89.8	4.3
P159	20.7	6.9	1196	170	3.5	264.3	35.7	161.1	-	7.3	n.d.	175.0	12.2	21.0	19.0	96.1	-
P166	21.6	7.8	1073	43	5.1	204.7	32.0	201.4	-	7.8	n.d.	180.0	11.0	20.0	14.0	91.7	-

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Table 2 Synthesis of main water types for the aquifer in Arborea area, grouped on the basis of nitrate content

Hosting aquifer	NO ₃ pollution grade	No. of wells	Water Classification
SHU	HH	11	(f-B)(3-2)(CaMIX-CaCl-NaMIX-NaCl)(+)
SHU	M	3	(B-F)(4-2)(NaCl-CaCl-NaMIX)(+)
SHU	L	11	(f-B-b-F)(2-3)(NaCl-NaMIX)(+ -)
AHU	HH	3	(f-B-b)(2-3)(NaCl)(+ -)
AHU	M	6	(F-b-F)(3-2-1)(NaCl-NaMIX-CaCl)(+ -)
AHU	L	6	(B-F-f)(2-3)(NaCl-NaMIX)(+ *)
VHU	M	1	(F)(1)(Na-Cl)(+)
VHU	L	4	(f-B)(2)(NaCl)(+)

Sample ID	$\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3$	$\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3$	$\delta^{34}\text{S-SO}_4$	$\delta^{18}\text{O-SO}_4$	$\delta^{13}\text{C-DIC}$	$\delta^2\text{H-H}_2\text{O}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O-H}_2\text{O}$
SHU							
P8	-	-	24.3	19.3	-8.4	-29.9	-5.1
P10	-	-	28.4	19.0	-14.2	-30.5	-5.4
P12	10.8	13.6	11.2	10.2	-18.4	-29.9	-5.1
P13	12.5	9.4	8.1	7.7	-12.7	-31.0	-5.2
P14	27.7	14.6	10.8	9.0	-15.7	-31.9	-5.6
P26	29.2	20.8	12.0	12.2	-7.9	-31.3	-5.1
P28	16.2	16.0	11.6	11.6	-6.6	-34.2	-5.6
P41	15.9	15.1	8.2	7.8	-11.4	-31.0	-5.2
P48	24.3	17.0	7.3	7.8	-13.8	-28.1	-4.9
P65	-	-	22.8	16.1	-13.0	-32.3	-5.7
P72	-	-	29.3	18.6	-11.9	-32.3	-5.4
P77	25.7	17.7	10.8	8.8	-10.3	-28.9	-5.0
P83	-	-	21.4	16.4	-11.6	-31.8	-5.4
P88	43.0	15.0	9.1	11.1	-15.5	-28.6	-5.0
P112	19.2	17.6	14.9	15.2	-14.9	-32.1	-5.6
P116	11.7	8.5	13.5	10.9	-13.3	-35.0	-5.9
P118	15.3	11.2	10.2	9.6	-12.9	-32.3	-5.4
P124	10.7	9.5	15.2	13.5	-8.2	-33.6	-5.6
P132	14.7	11.2	9.3	9.0	-7.8	-29.3	-4.7
P133	14.9	14.3	16.8	16.3	-12.5	-32.7	-5.4
P205	30.3	13.7	10.1	7.8	-13.6	-35.7	-5.5
P215	19.4	12.5	8.6	8.1	-9.9	-28.9	-4.7
P219	-	-	18.3	9.7	-13.1	-36.4	-6.1
P283	12.6	7.0	-0.6	8.3	-13.7	-31.2	-5.2
P354	11.6	8.6	11.1	9.8	-13.8	-32.8	-5.5
AHU							
P85	-	-	21.2	15.3	-13.2	-32.9	-5.6
P146	7.1	4.4	18.1	7.2	-15.8	-35.8	-6.4
P165	9.2	5.3	18.5	5.9	-15.6	-33.1	-5.7
P184	13.1	6.9	13.9	8.4	-16.7	-30.7	-5.4
P211	-	-	23.2	14.3	-13.3	-33.4	-5.5
P253	-	-	20.4	11.7	-14.3	-34.8	-5.8
P257	9.6	2.7	18.4	9.2	-10.8	-37.9	-6.3
P264	9.5	5.2	17.6	9.4	-14.3	-33.4	-5.2
P292	8.7	7.1	17.5	9.6	-13.4	-35.7	-5.7
P293	-	-	18.9	10.0	-11.3	-37.8	-6.3
P296	6.8	7.1	13.3	9.5	-14.6	-32.8	-5.4
P324	13.5	10.5	17.3	16.1	-14.2	-30.6	-5.0
P331	9.1	4.9	10.7	7.8	-16.0	-32.1	-5.6
P342	8.6	7.4	7.3	8.8	-16.5	-32.5	-5.3
P361	18.9	13.4	13.6	9.0	-13.0	-34.1	-6.1
VHU							
P138	7.5	4.5	14.9	7.4	-15.8	-37.0	-6.5
P142	6.2	2.6	18.5	7.6	-17.7	-36.1	-6.7
P156	6.7	0.9	18.0	7.7	-17.2	-35.3	-6.5
P159	8.4	5.5	17.7	9.9	-24.6	-35.7	-6.1
P166	14.0	6.8	17.4	9.5	-16.1	-35.8	-6.6

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813 **FIGURE CAPTIONS:**

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815 **Fig 1** Geographic location of the study area

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817 **Fig 2** Piezometric contours, and locations of wells for the hydrogeological survey and for the monitoring
818 sampling of October 2011; in red, position of the geologic cross-section A-A'.

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820 **Fig 3** Hydrogeological cross section and detail of the land west of Sussu Lagoon.

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822 **Fig 4** Hydrochemical facies definition for study area (modified from Stuyfzand, 2008).); c=cations, a=anions

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824 **Fig 5** Plot of ^2H vs. ^{18}O content. The Mediterranean Sea Water (MSW) was defined according to Otero et al.
825 (2011), and the Local Meteoric Water Line (LMWL) was defined following Cidu et al. (2008)

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827 **Fig 6** $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$, together with isotopic composition of the main nitrate sources in the study area: (a)
828 SHU, (b) AHU and VHU

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830 **Fig 7** $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ of dissolved sulfate

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832 **Fig 8** $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ values as a function of $(\text{SO}_4^{2-})/(\text{Cl}^-)$ ratio for samples from the study area

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834 **Fig 9** Denitrification driven by the sulfur oxidation model calculated using extreme values of ϵN (–4 to –30)
835 using initial ^{34}S of +15 and sulfate concentration 90 mg/L

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837 **Fig 10** HCO_3^- concentration vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of studied samples and groundwater range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, represented by
838 dotted lines

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840 **Fig 11** Non-purgeable dissolved organic carbon (NPDOC) concentration vs. $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$ of studied samples

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842 **Fig 12** Variation in nitrate concentration for SHU related to depth and origin. *Vertical and horizontal dashed*
843 *lines* representing the human water supply threshold of 50 mg/L (nitrate) and depth 10 m.b.g., respectively

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845 **Fig 13** Sulfate reduction processes related to depth: (a) $\delta^{34}\text{S}$, (b) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. *Gray areas* represent wells deeper
846 than 10 m.b.g. affected by sulfate reduction

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