Monitoring induced denitrification during managed aquifer recharge in an infiltration pond

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MONITORING INDUCED DENITRIFICATION DURING MANAGED AQUIFER RECHARGE IN AN INFILTRATION POND

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6 Abstract

7 Managed aquifer recharge (MAR) is a well-known technique for improving water quality and 8 increasing groundwater resources. Denitrification (i.e. removal of nitrate) can be enhanced 9 during MAR by coupling an artificial recharge pond with a permeable reactive layer (PRL). In 10 this study, we examined the suitability of a multi-isotope approach for assessing the long-11 term effectiveness of enhancing denitrification in a PRL containing vegetal compost. Batch 12 laboratory experiments confirmed that the PRL, installed in 2011, was continuing to enhance 13 denitrification. At the field scale, changes in redox indicators along a flow path and below the 14 MAR-PRL system was monitored over 21 months during recharge (RP) and non-recharge 15 (NRP) periods. Our results showed that the PRL was still releasing non-purgeable dissolved 16 organic carbon five years after installation. Nitrate concentration and isotope data indicated 17 that denitrification was occurring under and close to the infiltration area where recharge water and native groundwater mix. Furthermore, longer operational periods of the MAR-PRL 18 19 system increased denitrification. Multi-isotope analysis might be useful in identifying and 20 quantifying denitrification in MAR-PRL systems.

Keywords: managed aquifer recharge, multi-isotope analysis, reactive layer, mixing zone,
 artificial recharge, nitrate isotopes.

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Growing populations with increasing demands for water and potential water shortages 26 require flexible management strategies that replenish aquifers. The artificial recharge of 27 groundwater, commonly known as managed aquifer recharge (MAR), is becoming 28 increasingly important all over the world as a sustainable way of protecting the quality and 29 quantity of groundwater supplies. Recharge ponds are one of the most commonly used 30 approaches for MAR. This approach involves surface infiltration through spreading basins or 31 ponds to introduce surface water into the subsurface environment [Bouwer, 2002; Miller et 32 al., 2006].

Common sources of water for MAR in recharge ponds include wastewater effluents (after different stages of treatment) and effluent-receiving rivers [Díaz-Cruz and Barceló, 2008; Maeng et al., 2011], as well as river water and storm water runoff. These sources of water, mainly those from wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs), might contain high levels of ammonium (NH₄⁺), whereas those resulting from agricultural activity might have high concentrations of nitrate (NO₃⁻) [Schmidt et al., 2011]. Furthermore, oxic conditions promote ammonium nitrification, transforming it to nitrate.

40 The chemical composition of the infiltrating water in MAR changes due to a combination of 41 physical and biogeochemical processes as the water passes from unsaturated to saturated 42 zones, where it mixes with native groundwater. In some circumstances, these changes can 43 lead to an overall improvement in groundwater quality [Bouwer, 2002; Fox et al., 2006]. 44 Several studies have demonstrated that artificial recharge reduces the concentration of 45 nutrients [Bekele et al., 2011], organic matter [Bekele et al., 2011; Vanderzalm et al., 2006], 46 metals [Dillon et al., 2006; Bekele et al., 2011], pathogens [Dillon et al., 2006], organic 47 contaminants [Dillon et al., 2006; Patterson et al., 2011] and pharmaceutically active compounds (PhACs) [Herber et al., 2004; Valhondo et al., 2014]. Massmann et al. [2006], 48 49 investigating changes in redox conditions below an artificial recharge pond in Berlin, found 50 that the level of PhACs in groundwater was controlled by the hydrochemical conditions of

the system. Thus, to increase the quality of recharge water and groundwater, the infiltration pond can be coupled to a permeable reactive layer (PRL), an organic reactive layer at the bottom of the pond [Valhondo et al., 2014, 2015, 2016] that promotes diverse redox conditions along the recharge path to enhance the degradation of pollutants.

55 NO₃⁻ is one of the most abundant pollutants in groundwater [Li et al., 2010; Menció et al., 2016]. Denitrification, a microbe-mediated process in which NO₃ is converted into dinitrogen 56 gas (N_2) , is the main naturally occurring process that decreases NO_3^- concentration in 57 58 groundwater. Dilution and dispersion also decrease groundwater nitrate concentration, but in 59 contrast to denitrification, they do not lead to mass reduction of the contaminant within an 60 aquifer. Denitrification is carried out by bacteria that use NO_3^{-1} as the terminal electron acceptor when dissolved oxygen (DO), which is energetically more favorable, is unavailable 61 62 [Knowles, 1982]. Denitrification can be heterotrophic or autotrophic, depending on whether 63 the substrate is organic or inorganic, respectively (Eq.1 and 2).

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(1)

(2)

Denitrification can be enhanced in MAR pond systems, since the presence of easily degradable organic carbon, as well as an adequate residence time, promotes the activity of heterotrophic denitrifying bacteria. Recent laboratory studies [Grau-Martínez et al., 2017; Gibert et al., 2008] have suggested that low-cost carbon-releasing materials like organic compost, palm tree leaves and wood by-products could induce denitrification. Promoting denitrification by using a reactive layer in a recharge pond requires control mechanisms to test the efficacy of the implemented materials at the field scale.

Multi-isotope analysis, coupled with chemical data, is useful for identifying and even quantifying denitrification processes in aquifers [Mariotti et al., 1988; Aravena and Robertson, 1998; Pauwels et al., 2000, among others]. Denitrification affects the isotope composition of the residual nitrate, resulting in increased levels of the heavy isotopes ¹⁵N and ¹⁸O [Mariotti et al., 1988; Aravena and Robertson, 1998; Fukada et al., 2003; Kendall et al., 2007]. This change in isotope composition, or isotope fractionation (ε), distinguishes

79 denitrification at the field scale from other processes such as dilution, which can also 80 decrease NO₃ concentration, but without changing its isotopic value [Clark and Fritz, 1997; 81 Kendall et al., 2007].

By combining the analysis of ¹⁵N and ¹⁸O isotopes with hydrochemical data as well as with 82 the measurement of isotopes of the ions involved in denitrification reactions (e.g., $\delta^{34} S$ and 83 δ^{18} O of dissolved sulphate and/or δ^{13} C of dissolved inorganic carbon), additional information 84 85 on the mechanisms controlling denitrification can be obtained [Aravena and Robertson, 1998; Pauwels et al., 1998, 2000, 2010; Kendall et al., 2007; Otero et al., 2009; among 86 87 others]. Schmidt et al. [2011, 2012] used nitrate isotope ratios to demonstrate the 88 occurrence of denitrification in the infiltrating water during its passage through the first meter 89 of the soil beneath the base of a MAR pond in central coastal California.

90 In the present work, we monitored denitrification processes in a MAR-PRL system located at 91 Sant Vicenç dels Horts, Barcelona, Spain [Valhondo et al., 2014, 2015, 2016], which has a 92 layer of vegetal compost at the bottom of the infiltration pond. The aim of the present study 93 is to test the usefulness of a combined isotope analysis and depth specific hydrochemical 94 data to: (i) assess the long-term effectiveness of the reactive layer in promoting denitrification 5 years after installation; (ii) identify the denitrification processes occurring at 95 96 different aquifer depths and locations along the saturated zone below the infiltration pond (including the mixing zone between recharge and native groundwater). The field site was 97 98 monitored during 21 months. Laboratory experiments, using two-year-old vegetal compost from the PRL, were performed to estimate the E values and, thus, assess the extent of 99 100 denitrification during MAR. The methods tested here can be applied to assess the efficacy of 101 MAR ponds coupled to reactive layer PRL (MAR-PRL) in promoting denitrification.

102

2. Materials and methods

103 2.1. Site description

104 The field site studied is located 15 km inland from the Mediterranean coast, in the lower 105 valley of the Llobregat Delta (Catalonia, NE Spain). The aquifer consists of Quaternary 106 alluvial sediments, mainly coarse gravel and sand with small clay lenses [Iribar et al., 1997]. 107 The minerals present include quartz, calcite and dolomite, and the solid phase fraction of 108 organic carbon is less than 0.002 (g_{OC}/g_{soil}) [Barbieri et al., 2011]. At this location, the aquifer 109 extends to a depth of 23 to 27 m underground [Valhondo et al., 2014] and is located 110 between 5 and 10 m below the Llobregat river bed, the river and aquifer thus being 111 hydraulically disconnected [Vázquez-Suñé et al., 2007]. The regional groundwater flow 112 direction is from NNW to SSE [Quevauviller et al., 2009], with a natural hydraulic gradient of 113 2.3‰. Previous pumping tests determined the hydraulic parameters of the MAR system of Sant Vicenc to be 1.4×10⁴ m² day¹ for transmissivity and 0.03 for storage coefficient 114 115 [Barahona-Palomo et al., 2011].

The MAR system in Sant Vicenç dels Horts consists of a decantation pond and an infiltration pond (Fig.1). In the decantation pond (\approx 4,000 m²), the sediments are allowed to settle for approximately 2-4 days before the water is transferred by a concrete pipe to an infiltration pond (\approx 5,000 m²). The infiltration rate in the infiltration pond ranges from 0.5 to 2 m d⁻¹ [Valhondo et al., 2014].

121 The infiltration water is surface water from the Llobregat River, which is affected by 122 wastewater treatment effluents [Köck-Schulmeyer et al., 2011]. A reactive layer was installed 123 at the bottom of the infiltration pond in 2011 to create favorable conditions for the 124 biodegradation of the contaminants present in the infiltration water. The reactive layer (≈65 125 cm thick) consists of aquifer sand (49.5% in volume), vegetal compost from gardens and 126 scrap wood (49.5%), clay (\leq 1%) and iron oxide dust (\leq 0.1%). The components were mixed 127 on site with an excavator until homogeneity was visually evident. The layer was covered with 128 approximately 5 cm of sand to prevent the woody material from floating away. The compost 129 in the reactive layer was added to promote microbial growth and redox conditions by 130 providing organic matter to the infiltration water. The sand was added to provide structural 131 integrity to the layer and guarantee high hydraulic conductivity. Finally, iron oxides and clay,

consisting mainly of illite (33 wt%), smectite (16 wt%) and chlorite (9 wt%), were present to
provide extra sorption capacity for cationic and anionic contaminants [Valhondo et al., 2014].

134 The MAR pond of Sant Vicenç undergoes two main operational periods: (1) recharge 135 periods (RPs), when the pond is full of the infiltration water and total saturation conditions 136 are not obtained under the infiltration pond [Valhondo et al., 2015, 2016] and (2) non-137 recharge periods (NRPs), when the pond is emptied for operational redevelopment and/or 138 when the quality of the river water is low. NRPs are implemented when the control parameters of the infiltration water are exceeded, such as when NH₄⁺ concentrations are 139 higher than 1.5 mg L⁻¹, electrical conductivity (EC) is higher than 2000 µS cm⁻¹, river turbidity 140 141 is greater than 100 NTU and input water turbidity exceeds 25 NTU. NRPs are also 142 implemented when the clogged layer needs to be removed or the upper layer of sand has to 143 be cleaned. During NRPs, the groundwater table declines and the bottom of the pond is 144 exposed to the atmosphere.

145 A piezometric network consisting of seven piezometers was installed around the recharge 146 system of Sant Vicenç dels Horts (Fig.1). Piezometer P1 (screened from 6 to 24 m) is 147 located upstream of the infiltration pond and was used to monitor background groundwater. 148 P3 (screened from 5 to 23 m) is located upstream of the infiltration pond, between the 149 decantation and infiltration ponds, while P8 is located in the middle of the infiltration pond 150 and is composed of three piezometers screened at different depths (P8.1 from 13 to 15 m, 151 P8.2 from 10 to 12 m and P8.3 from 7 to 9 m). P8.3 was used to evaluate the behavior of the 152 infiltration water through the vadose zone, while P8.1 was used to monitor the recharge at the deepest point of the saturated zone. P2 (completely screened from 6 to 24 m) and P5 153 154 (screened from 5.5 to 21.5 m) are situated downstream, at the edge of the infiltration pond. Additionally, P9 (9.4-24.4 m) and P10 (6-20 m) are located 190 m and 200 m downstream of 155 156 the infiltration pond, respectively. Therefore, all the monitoring points, except P1 (native 157 groundwater) and P8.3 (infiltration water just after crossing the vadose zone), represent 158 different ratios of recharge water to native groundwater in the aquifer at different travel times.

Travel time of the recharge water to the different piezometers was determined from fluctuations in EC during the infiltration tests [Valhondo et al., 2014]. The results of the infiltration tests were validated by Valhondo et al. [2016] using a numerical model. The results indicated a travel time from the pond to the piezometer of around 18 to 24 hours for P8.3, nearly 2 days for P2 and P5, 10 days for P10 and P8.1, and more than 20 days for P9.

164 2.2. Sampling surveys

165 To assess the long-term effectiveness of the PRL on nitrate removal, four sampling 166 campaigns were performed using the seven piezometers (Fig.1) in June 2013, September 167 2013, July 2014 and March 2015. The monitored period started 5 years after the installation 168 of the PRL and lasted 21 months. The June 2013 and July 2014 campaigns were performed 169 during RPs, and the other two during NRPs. Figure 2 shows the distribution along time of the 170 operational periods and the sampling campaigns. The system was under recharge for a total 171 of 222 days in 2013 and 213 days in 2014. In 2015, before the March 2015 campaign, the 172 system was under non-recharge for almost four months, whereas only two months of non-173 recharge had occurred before the September 2013 campaign.

174 Sampling was carried out using depth-specific samplers (bailers). Bailers are considered 175 suitable for measuring groundwater nitrate concentration (Lasagna and De Luca, 2016). 176 Each piezometer was sampled at three different depths (Fig.1), which were selected according to the stratigraphic profiles. A layer with high transmissivity was identified in the 177 178 middle depth of all the piezometers. This layer is composed of polygenic gravel and large-179 sized gravel with medium fine sandy matrix. Although some sampling protocols (ENSAT, 180 2012) do not deem it necessary to purge piezometers in aquifers with high transmissivity such as that of Sant Vicenc dels Horts $(1.4 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ day}^{-1})$, we still purged the piezometers 181 182 prior to sampling by removing well water three times at each specific depth. During the four 183 sampling campaigns, samples from the Llobregat River were also collected, sometimes 184 more than once on the same day.

Physicochemical parameters (pH, temperature (T) and EC) were measured in situ, using a 185 186 Multi 3410 multi-parameter (WTW, Weilheim, Germany). Samples for measuring major 187 cations were filtered through 0.2-µm Millipore® filters, preserved by the addition of 1% 188 HNO₃⁻ and stored in polyethylene bottles at 4°C until analysis. Samples for the analysis of major anions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻ and SO₄²⁻) and isotope ratios ($\delta^{15}N_{NO3}$, $\delta^{18}O_{NO3}$, $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$, 189 $\delta^{18}O_{SO4}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3}$) were filtered through 0.2-µm Millipore® filters and stored in 190 191 polyethylene bottles. Samples for measuring NO₃⁻ isotopes were kept frozen until analysis, while those for $\delta^{18}O_{H2O}$ and $\delta^{2}H_{H2O}$ measurements were collected in glass flasks and filtered 192 193 through 0.45-µm Millipore® filters. For isotope analyses, samples were taken only from the 194 middle depth of each piezometer. Samples for the analysis of non-purgeable dissolved organic carbon (NPDOC) were collected in muffled (450°C, 4.5 hours) glass bottles, filtered 195 196 through 0.45-µm Millipore® filters, acidified to pH 3 with hydrochloric acid and stored at 4°C 197 until analysis. To measure dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), samples were collected in glass 198 bottles, filtered through 0.45-µm Millipore® filters and analyzed within a day.

199 2.3. Laboratory experiments

200 Batch experiments were performed with material extracted in 2013 from the PRL of the Sant 201 Vicenç dels Horts MAR pond system. The substrate was used within a few hours after extraction without any pre-treatment. Total N and C content as well as the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ of 202 203 the reactive layer material are shown in the Supplementary Material (Table S1). Experiments 204 were performed in triplicate, using 20 g of the PRL material and 400 mL of groundwater from 205 the Llobregat aquifer (from P2) spiked with 0.80 mM of NO₃⁻ to evaluate the denitrification 206 potential of the vegetal compost. The experiments were run in sterilized 500-mL glass 207 bottles previously purged with N₂ for 15 minutes in a glove box in an argon atmosphere to minimize the O₂ level. Experimental oxygen partial pressure in the glove box was maintained 208 209 between 0.1 and 0.3% O₂ and continuously monitored using an oxygen partial pressure detector (Sensotran, Gasvisor 6) with an accuracy of ± 0.1% O₂. Batch experiments were 210 211 manually shaken once a day and aqueous samples (5 mL) were collected daily using

sterilized syringes. A ratio of solution/solid material at 90% of the initial value wasmaintained.

214 2.4. Analytical methods

215 Concentrations of major anions was determined by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) using a WATERS 515 HPLC pump, an IC-PAC anions column and a WATERS 432 216 217 detector. Cation concentrations were determined by inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Perkin-Elmer Optima 3200 RL). NPDOC was measured 218 by organic matter combustion using a MULTI N/C 3100 Analytik Jena carbon analyzer. DIC 219 220 concentrations were analyzed by titration (METROHM 702 SM Titrino). Chemical analyses 221 were conducted at the "Centres Científics i Tecnològics" of the University of Barcelona 222 (CCiT-UB).

The δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O isotopes of dissolved NO₃⁻ were measured using a modified cadmium 223 reduction method of McIlvin and Altabet [2005] and Ryabenko et al. [2009]. Briefly, NO₃⁻ was 224 225 converted into nitrite through a spongy cadmium reduction and then to nitrous oxide using sodium azide in an acetic acid buffer. Simultaneous $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ analysis of the N₂O 226 227 produced was carried out with a PreCon system (Thermo Scientific) coupled to a Finnigan MAT-253 Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS, Thermo Scientific). For δ³⁴S and δ¹⁸O 228 analyses, dissolved SO₄²⁻ was precipitated as BaSO₄ by adding BaCl₂ after acidifying the 229 230 sample with HCl and boiling it to prevent BaCO₃ precipitation, following standard methods [Dogramaci et al., 2001]. δ^{34} S was analyzed with a Carlo Erba elemental analyzer (EA)-231 Finnigan Delta C IRMS, while δ^{18} O was analyzed in duplicate with a ThermoQuest high 232 233 temperature conversion EA (TC/EA) coupled in continuous flow with a Finnigan MAT Delta C 234 IRMS. For $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ analysis, carbonates were precipitated by adding a NaOH-BaCl₂ solution 235 and isotope ratio was measured on a Gas-Bench II-MAT-253 IRMS (Thermo Scientific). $\delta^2 H_{H2O}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{H2O}$ were analyzed by Wavelength-Scanned Cavity Ringdown Spectroscopy 236 (WS-CRDS) using L2120-i Picarro®. Total C, total N, δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C from the PRL material 237

were measured using Carbo Erba EA-Finnigan Delta C IRMS. Isotope ratios were calculated 238 239 using both international and internal laboratory standards. Notation was expressed in terms of δ relative to the international standards (V-SMOW for $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{2}H,$ atmospheric N_{2} for 240 δ^{15} N, V-CDT for δ^{34} S and V-PDB for δ^{13} C). The reproducibility of the samples was ±1‰ for 241 the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_3 , ±1.5‰ for the $\delta^{18}O$ of NO_3^- , ±0.2‰ for the $\delta^{34}S$ of $SO_4^{2^-}$, ±0.5‰ for the $\delta^{18}O$ 242 of SO₄²⁻, ±0.2‰ for the δ^{13} C of DIC, ±0.2‰ for the δ^{18} O of H₂O and ±1‰ for the δ^{2} H of H₂O. 243 244 Samples for isotopic analyses were prepared at the "Mineralogia Aplicada i Geoquímica de Fluids" laboratory and analyzed at CCiT-UB, except water isotopes, which were analyzed at 245 246 the University of Málaga.

247

3. Results and discussion

Results from the batch experiments and the complete chemical and isotopic characterization
of the field samples are detailed in the Supplementary Material (Table S2 and Tables S3,
respectively).

251 3.1. Laboratory experiments

Complete NO_3^- reduction was achieved within eleven days in the batch experiments (Fig. 3), with a slight transient increase in NO_2^- concentration (up to 0.07 mM). Nitrate reduction in previous batch experiments performed with fresh commercial compost was accompanied by a significant initial release of NO_3^- (up to 2.5 mM) and transient NO_2^- production (up to 0.12 mM) [Grau-Martínez et al., 2017]. By comparison, the compost used in the present batch experiments, extracted from the PRL two years after its installation, did not release NO_3^- and produced a lower increase in NO_2^- concentration.

259 Denitrification in both sets of batch experiments followed pseudo-first-order kinetics and an 260 initial lag phase of 6-7 days with a lower degradation rate was observed. The pseudo-first 261 order degradation rate constant (k'), calculated using Eq. 3 (where C_0 and C_t are the initial 262 NO_3^- concentration and the NO_3^- concentration at time t, respectively, in mmol L⁻¹), were 0.21 ± 0.01 and 0.83 ± 0.06 d⁻¹ with the PRL material and 0.17 ± 0.02 and 0.67 ± 0.01 d⁻¹ with the fresh compost for the lag and main phases, respectively. Although highly similar, degradation rates were slightly higher for the PRL material than for the fresh compost. These results demonstrated that the compost from the PRL still had denitrification potential two years after its installation.

269 The isotope fractionation factor α can be obtained [Mariotti et al., 1988; Aravena and 270 Robertson, 1998] according to Eq. (4), assuming a Rayleigh distillation process:

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 $\ln(-)$ (4)

where R_o and R_t denote the ratios of heavy to light isotopes at the initial time and time t, respectively, which are calculated according to Eq. (5).

275 The term (α -1) was calculated from the slope of the regression line in the double-logarithmic 276 plots [ln(R_t/R₀)] vs. [ln(C_t/C₀)], according to Eq. (4), and converted into isotope fractionation 277 (ϵ N and ϵ O) following Eq. (6).

The isotopic fractionations obtained were -10.4‰ for ϵ N and -13.8‰ for ϵ O, with a ϵ N/ ϵ O ratio of 0.75 (Fig. 4). The ϵ N and ϵ O values obtained in this study were similar to those from previous laboratory experiments using fresh commercial compost (ϵ N= -10.8‰ and ϵ O=-9.0‰ [Grau-Martínez et al., 2017]), also falling within the range of laboratory values for heterotrophic denitrification reported in the literature (from -8.6‰ to -16.2‰ for ϵ N and from -4‰ to -13.8‰ for ϵ O [Knöller et al., 2011; Carrey et al., 2013]).

285 The obtained C and N isotope fractionations associated with denitrification induced by the

two-year-old PRL material enables a more accurate quantification of the enhanced reduction in NO_3^- levels in the aquifer.

288 3.2. Field study

289 **3.2.1. Hydrochemical characterisation**

For all the analyzed samples, pH values ranged between 6.98 and 7.60, HCO_3^{-1} concentrations between 223 and 408 mg L⁻¹ and EC from 991 to 1653 μ S cm⁻¹. There were no significant differences in the concentrations of major cations between the piezometers among the four sampling campaigns (Table S3).

Groundwater underneath the infiltration pond can be considered a mixture of recharge water and native groundwater. Samples clustered in the HCO₃-CI-Ca-Na hydrochemical facies, with negligible differences among the sampling campaigns (data not show). The saturation index of calcite, calculated using the PHREEQC code [Parkhurst and Appelo, 2012] and the LLNL.dat database, ranged from -0.35 to 0.6, indicating that calcite was in equilibrium with native groundwater and had a pH buffering role in the hydrochemistry of the aquifer among the Quaternary alluvial sediments.

301 **3.2.2. Sources of groundwater recharge**

 δ^2 H and δ^{18} O values of the infiltration water (river water) and groundwater sampled during 302 303 RPs (June 2013 and July 2014) mostly plotted along the Local Meteoric Water Line (LMWL) 304 (Fig. 5). The LMWL was calculated with data from the Global Network of Isotopes in 305 Precipitation (GNIP) obtained from stations 0818001 and 0818002 in Barcelona 306 (IAEA/WMO, 2017). Isotope ratios are lower than the weighted mean long-term isotopic 307 composition of precipitation in Barcelona (δ^2 H= -31.16‰, δ^{18} O= -5.3‰), but in agreement with the values obtained with the surface water of the Lower end of the Llobregat River 308 [Otero et al., 2008] and samples from the Llobregat aquifer [Solà, 2009]. The results 309 confirmed that river water is the main source of recharge in the aquifer and indicate that 310 311 evaporation is not an important process in the pond and/or the unsaturated zone. Lastly, the range of δ^2 H and δ^{18} O values showed that only one recharge flow system is involved in the aquifer recharge.

314 3.3. Changes in redox sensitive indicators

315 The evolution of the concentration of NO₃⁻ and NPDOC in the saturated zone along the flow

316 path, during both RPs and NRPs, is shown in Figure 6. The results of major anions (Cl⁻,

 SO_4^{2-} , HCO_3^{-}) are shown in the Supplementary Material (Fig. S1).

318 The chemical composition of groundwater collected upstream of the infiltration pond (P1, 319 which represents native groundwater not affected by the recharge) was compared to that of the piezometers affected by recharge water. The concentrations of major anions in P1 320 samples remained almost constant with depth and time, although SO42- and Cl-321 concentrations were slightly lower in June 2013 (Fig. S1). As expected, the influence of river 322 323 water hydrochemistry is clearly observed during RP in the piezometers located closer to the 324 infiltration pond (P8, P2 and P5) and is observed to a lesser extent during NRP. Significant 325 changes with depth are only detected in P8 that showed increasing HCO₃⁻ concentrations 326 with depth, except in July 2014 (RP). Piezometers located furthest from the infiltration pond 327 (P9 and P10) are less influenced by river water chemistry, showing values similar to P1 and 328 P3, and no significant changes with depth were observed during both RP and RNPs.

329 During RPs, NPDOC concentrations at all the piezometers downstream of the infiltration pond generally ranged between those for native groundwater (1.9-4.9 mg L⁻¹) and those for 330 331 river water (3.2-3.7 mg L⁻¹), except the higher values measured in the shallowest part of P5 in June 2013 (4.1 mg L^{-1}) and the deepest part of P2 in July 2014 (5.5 mg L^{-1}) (Fig. 6). 332 During NRPs (September 2013 and March 2015), NPDOC concentration in most of the 333 334 mixed groundwater samples also ranged between those for native groundwater (1.9-3.0 mg L¹) and those for river water (4.3-4.7 mg L¹), being generally lower than the values obtained 335 336 from the RPs. Higher concentrations were detected in September 2013 than in March 2015, especially for the shallowest part of P3 (8.6 mg L^{-1}) and the deepest part of P8 (7.1 mg L^{-1}). 337

These results suggest that the reactive layer was still releasing NPDOC five years after installation. The effects of the PRL was more apparent at P2 and P5 during RPs and especially P3 and P8 during NRPs. Higher levels of organic matter were released from the PRL during September 2013 (two months of non-recharge before sampling) than March 2015 (four months of non-recharge before sampling), indicating that the duration of recharge conditions had a significant effect.

344 During the monitoring period, NO₃ concentration in native groundwater (P1) ranged from 4.1 to 6.4 mg L⁻¹, except the higher values recorded in March 2015 (9.8 mg L⁻¹) and September 345 346 2013 (3.7-6.9 mg L^{-1}) (Table S3). Similarly, NO₃⁻ contents in river water ranged from 6.1 to 347 8.4 mg L⁻¹. It should be noted that NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ concentrations vary considerably in rivers 348 with effluents from WWTPs, even among samples collected on the same day. During the 349 RPs a significant decrease in NO_3^- concentration was observed in the piezometers located close to the infiltration pond (P2 and P5), especially in the June 2013 sampling, which 350 351 showed complete NO_3 reduction at some depths highlighting the ability of the MAR-PRL 352 system to enhance nitrate reduction (Fig.6). Low NO₃⁻ concentration also occurred in the shallowest part of P8 (0.9 mg L⁻¹), increasing with depth probably because P8.3 is more 353 354 affected by the recharge water than P8.2 and P8.1. During the July 2014 RP, although NO₃⁻ 355 concentration in the mixed groundwater was lower than that in the native groundwater, 356 higher values and smaller changes with depth and along the flow path were observed. 357 During NRPs, NO₃⁻ concentrations at the piezometers downstream of the infiltration pond 358 were generally within native groundwater and river water samples, although slightly lower 359 NO₃ concentrations were detected at P2, suggesting that NO₃ reduction was maintained to 360 some extent during NRPs.

361 Fe concentrations in samples downstream of the infiltration pond were generally lower than 362 that in the native groundwater (P1) (data not shown). No significant variations between the 363 sampling campaigns were observed (values ranged from 0.2 to 1.0 μ M at all the 364 piezometers and depths studied), except for an important increase at P5 during the June

365 2013 RP (up to 3.7 μ M) probably arising from more reducing conditions occurring. The 366 solubility of Fe(III)-oxyhydroxides, which usually affects Fe concentration in groundwater, 367 increases under more reducing conditions, thereby increasing aqueous Fe concentration.

368 Overall, the observed changes in redox indicators suggested that the PRL installed in 2011 369 was still releasing organic matter and promoting reducing conditions to varying extents 370 below the infiltration pond.

371 **3.4. Denitrification during artificial recharge**

372 Samples for isotope analyses were taken only from the middle depth of each piezometer. 373 Nitrate isotope composition was measured in a subset of these samples based on NO₃⁻ concentrations. Figure 7 shows the $\delta^{15}N_{NO3}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{NO3}$ values of dissolved nitrate at the 374 piezometers, as well as the isotope composition of the main potential sources of nitrate: 375 376 nitrate fertilizers, ammonium fertilizers, soil nitrate and animal manure or sewage [Vitòria et al., 2004; Kendall et al., 2007; Xue et al., 2009]. The range of δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ for ammonium 377 378 fertilizers, soil nitrogen and manure/sewage plotted in Figure 7 (+1.93‰ to +3.13‰) was 379 estimated according to Eq.7 [Anderson and Hooper, 1983; Kendall et al., 2007], where $\delta^{18}O_{H2O}$ corresponds to the range measured in Sant Vicenc dels Horts groundwater samples 380 and $\delta^{18}O_{O2}$ to atmospheric O₂ (+23.5‰ [Horibe et al., 1973]). 381

Native groundwater (P1) showed δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O values ranging from +13.0 to +17.5‰ and 383 from +2.8 to +9.7‰, respectively. The nitrate isotope ratios of the samples from the 384 385 piezometers located downstream of the pond ranged from +9.5 to +26.7‰ (averaging +18.4‰) for δ^{15} N and from +3.5 to +16.6‰ (averaging +9.5‰) for δ^{18} O (Table S4). All these 386 387 samples presented isotope ratios compatible with those for soil organic nitrogen and sewage/manure. The mixed groundwater samples showed a positive correlation ($r^2=0.55$) 388 between $\delta^{15}N_{NO3}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{NO3}$ and were aligned following a $\epsilon N/\epsilon O$ ratio of 1.5 (Fig. 7), which 389 is consistent with denitrification [Kendall et al., 2007]. The ɛN/ɛO ratio reported in the 390

literature for denitrification in groundwater ranges from 1.3 to 2.1 [Böttcher et al., 1990; Cey
et al., 1999; Mengis et al., 1999; DeVito et al., 2000; Lehmann et al., 2003; Fukada et al.,
2003].

The lowest NO3⁻ concentrations in groundwater were measured in the samples obtained 394 395 during the June 2013 RP, with those recorded in P2 and P5 samples being close to the 396 detection limit at most of the depths studied (Fig. 6), thus suggesting denitrification. For the 397 June 2013 samples in which NO₃ content was high enough for isotope characterization, δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O values were up to +21.0‰ and +9.5‰, respectively (Fig. 7). Whereas the P8 398 and P9 samples followed a trend consistent with denitrification, the samples P2 and P10 do 399 400 not fit to the denitrification trend. These samples likely correspond to denitrification of NO₃⁻ 401 resulting from the nitrification of the ammonium in sewage that had undergone further volatilization. In this sampling campaign, all the piezometer samples, except the middle and 402 403 deepest part of P8, showed lower NO₃ concentrations than native groundwater and river 404 water (Fig. 6). The middle part of P8 showed similar nitrate isotope ratios as P1 and river 405 water (Fig. 7).

Native and mixed groundwater samples from the July 2014 RP campaign gave higher $\delta^{15}N$ 406 and δ^{18} O values than those from the June 2013 RP campaign (Fig. 7). Nevertheless, δ^{15} N 407 and δ^{18} O values (up to +25.3‰ and +16.1‰, respectively) were higher in all the mixed 408 409 groundwater samples than in native groundwater (+18.8‰ and +11.4‰, respectively), which 410 is consistent with denitrification. The exception was the P10 sample (+19.1‰ and +10.9‰, 411 respectively), which showed similar isotope ratios as P1. The highest $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values 412 were measured in P2 (+25.3‰ and +16.1‰, respectively). However, it should be noted that high $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values were also measured in river water. The high variability in NO₃⁻ 413 414 contents in river water samples even on the same day (data not shown) could explain the 415 particularly high isotope ratios measured in September 2013 and July 2014.

416 All the mixed groundwater samples, except P2, collected during the March 2015 NRP (when

417 the pond had been under non-recharge for four months) showed similar isotope ratios as the native groundwater (P1, $\delta^{15}N$ = +13.9‰ and $\delta^{18}O$ = +5.6‰). Those collected in the 418 September 2013 NRP, when the pond had been under non-recharge for a shorter time (two 419 months), showed higher δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O values than P1 (+17.5‰ and +9.7‰, respectively), 420 except P5 and P8 samples (Fig. 7). In both sampling surveys, P2 samples presented the 421 highest isotope ratios (δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O were +17.3‰ and +9.3‰ in March 2015 and +26.7‰ 422 and +16.6% in September 2013, respectively). Thus, differences between the two NRP 423 sampling campaigns indicate that the effect of the RP can take some time to manifest after 424 425 non-recharge conditions.

426 εN and εO values allow quantifying at field scale NO_3^- losses due to denitrification 427 independently of dilution effects on NO_3^- concentrations [Mariotti et al., 1981; Böttcher et al., 428 1990; Fukada et al., 2003; Otero et al., 2009; Torrentó et al., 2011]. With the ε values 429 obtained in laboratory experiments, the percentage of denitrification at the field scale can be 430 calculated according to Eq. 8 using either εN or εO, or both.

431 _____ (8)

Using the ε values obtained in the batch experiments with the two-year-old PRL material (-432 10.4‰ for ε N and -13.8‰ for ε O, with an ε N/ ε O ratio of 0.75) and assuming an initial isotope 433 composition similar to that of the P1 samples collected in June 2013 ($\delta^{15}N_{NO3}$ = +13.0‰ and 434 $\delta^{18}O_{NO3}$ = +2.8‰) (corresponding to the lowest values measured), the extent of denitrification 435 436 ranged from 0% to 50%, except for two samples (P2 in September 2013 and July 2014) showing reductions greater than 60% (Fig. S2). The median percentage of NO₃⁻ reduction in 437 438 groundwater was $36\pm22\%$ (n=19) when using the laboratory-obtained εN and $32\pm19\%$ (n= 439 20) when using εO .

440 A more precise estimation of the extent of denitrification enhanced by the MAR-PRL system 441 in the mixed groundwater samples was determined for each sampling campaign using the

442 isotope composition of the native groundwater (P1) for each campaign as the initial value. It 443 should be noted that P1 and river samples collected in July 2014 (RP) and September 2013 (NRP) showed high values of $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$, indicating the occurrence of natural 444 445 attenuation. High NO₃⁻ concentrations indicate other sources of NO₃⁻ (such as fertilizers from 446 the fields around Sant Vicenç dels Horts). Compared to native groundwater, P9 and P10 447 (located furthest from the infiltration pond) samples, except those collected in the June 2013 448 RP (NO₃ reduction of around 30%), presented the lowest level of denitrification (NO₃ nitrate 449 reduction less than 10%). Denitrification was enhanced in the piezometers located closer to 450 the infiltration pond (P2 and P5). For P5, the degree of reduction in NO₃ concentration was 451 greater in RPs (around 15%) than in NRPs (no denitrification); however, this difference was 452 not so significant for P2 (30-35% vs. 25-45%, respectively). In all the campaigns, the isotope 453 composition of P8.2 was very similar to that of P1, indicating that denitrification was not 454 occurring at this depth. Since isotope values in samples from different depths were not 455 determined, the observed variations in NO₃⁻ concentration with depth at P8 cannot be 456 attributed to denitrification or other process (e.g., mixing).

457 Therefore, denitrification occurred during both RPs, the maximum degree of attenuation (between 30 and 40%) taking place at the middle depths of P2 and P5. Complete 458 459 denitrification at some of the depths of P2 and P5 was observed in samples collected in 460 June 2013 (Fig. 6). Comparing the two RP sampling campaigns, the June 2013 samples 461 presented a slightly higher level of denitrification, probably because the system was under almost continuous operation since January 2012 (except for 30 days in August 2012, 24 462 463 days in February-March 2013 and 5 days in April 2013). The MAR system was stopped from 464 22nd June to 1st July, 10 days before the July 2014 sampling campaign. The longer operational period before the June 2013 campaign could have induced a well-developed 465 466 denitrifying microbial community, with the bacteria being more concentrated in the areas 467 receiving more recharge water, such as P2 and P5. Li et al. [2013], simulating the infiltration 468 zone of a MAR system, showed that microbial communities reached stability after 3-4

469 months of operation.

During NRPs, the percentage of denitrification was very low (<20%) in all the samples, 470 except those from P2 (30-60%), which was one of the areas most affected by recharge 471 472 water (Valhondo et al., 2014) (Fig. 8). All the samples collected in March 2015, including P2, 473 showed the lowest percentage of denitrification among all the sampling campaigns. The 474 September 2013 campaign was performed after a year of almost continuous recharge (Fig. 475 2) followed by less than two months of non-recharge, whereas the March 2015 campaign 476 was undertaken after almost four months of non-recharge. Differences in the percentage of 477 denitrification among the P2 samples collected from both NRPs indicate that the bacteria 478 grow during RPs were still denitrifying even when the MAR pond was under non-recharge, 479 but became less active with time in the absence of a carbon source [Rodríguez-Escales et 480 al., 2016].

481 **3.5. Additional isotope data**

The isotope composition of SO_4^{2-} ($\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{SO4}$) was analyzed to assess the 482 occurrence of sulfate-reducing conditions. The isotope composition of the dissolved SO₄²⁻ in 483 mixed groundwater samples was only analyzed for the June 2013 and September 2013 484 campaigns. Values ranged from +6.7 to +10.6‰ for δ^{34} S and from +9.0 to +11.1‰ for δ^{18} O 485 486 (Fig. 9). Similar values were obtained for the river water and native groundwater samples. Most of the mixed groundwater samples gave values within the range obtained for sewage 487 [Otero et al., 2008] (Fig. 9), indicating that the vast majority of SO_4^{2-} came from sewage, 488 489 which is consistent with the conclusions drawn from the NO₃⁻ isotope results regarding potential NO_3^- sources. 490

491 The narrow range of the $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{SO4}$ values obtained suggests a lack of SO_4^{2-} 492 reduction. Based on these results and those from the NO_3^{-} isotope analysis, it can be 493 concluded that the NPDOC released by the reactive layer produces variable redox 494 conditions in the saturated zone along the flow path, leading mainly to the reduction of NO_3^- , 495 as well as iron under certain conditions, but not of $SO_4^{2^-}$.

496 Due to the lithology of the aquifer, native groundwater contained high concentrations of natural bicarbonate (median value of 325 ± 25 mg L⁻¹ in P1 for the four sampling campaigns) 497 that could buffer any change in the $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3}$ isotope ratio. The $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3}$ values in P1 samples 498 (native groundwater) averaged -13.2±1‰, which is in agreement with the known range of 499 $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3}$ for groundwater (-16‰ to -11‰ [Vogel and Ehhalt, 1963]). Mixed groundwater 500 samples displayed $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3}$ values close to that of P1 samples (between -13.8 and -12.0%), 501 with a median value of -12.7‰), except three samples collected in the June 2013 campaign 502 503 (RP) (that had values ranging from -11.1 to -9.9‰) (Fig. 10). As expected, the role of organic matter oxidation in the observed denitrification processes was not evident from the $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3}$ 504 data due to the buffering effect of the bicarbonate. 505

506 **4. Conclusions**

507 We evaluated the feasibility of a multi-isotope approach for assessing the efficacy of the 508 MAR-PRL system of Sant Vicenç dels Horts in promoting denitrification in the groundwater below the infiltration pond. Similarities in the hydrochemical data (except for NO₃⁻ levels, 509 510 which decreased during recharge periods) of river water, native groundwater and mixed 511 groundwater demonstrated a unique recharge flow system. Changes in the redox indicators 512 with depth and along the flow path during recharge and non-recharge periods confirmed that the reactive layer was still releasing NPDOC five years after installation. NO₃⁻ concentrations 513 decreased during recharge periods especially in the piezometers closest to the infiltration 514 pond, while aqueous Fe concentrations increased in the piezometers with lower NO3⁻ 515 concentrations. However, SO_4^{2-} reduction was not observed. 516

517 Isotope data revealed that denitrification occurred in the area under the infiltration pond. The 518 piezometers closest to the MAR-PRL, P2 and P5, showed higher levels of denitrification

than the other piezometers. Importantly, denitrification was enhanced by a more continuous recharge of the MAR-PRL system, probably because microbial communities become stable after 3-4 months of continuous operation. Although a more detailed field sampling survey is needed to determine the real extent of denitrification at the field scale, the results of this study show the usefulness of a multi-isotope approach in identifying denitrification in MAR-PRL systems.

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1 Figure captions

Figure 1. Upper panel: Schematic location and plan view of the Sant Vicenç dels Horts
recharge system. Lower panel: Cross-section of the transect A-A'. The red diamonds show
the sampling depths.

Figure 2. Operational periods of the Sant Vicenç dels Horts MAR-PRL system between
January 2013 and May 2015: recharge periods (RPs, grey) and non-recharge periods
(NRPs, white). The four sampling campaigns are also shown (red bars).

Figure 3. Changes in NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ concentrations over time in the batch experiments with compost extracted from the PRL (two-year-old reactive layer). Results of previous batch experiments with fresh commercial compost (Grau-Martínez et al., 2017) are also shown for comparison. Values and error bars represent the mean and standard deviation, respectively, for the experiments performed in triplicate.

Figure 4. Isotope analyses of the batch experiments performed with two-year-old PRL
material. Slopes of the regression lines represent (α-1) for N and O.

Figure 5. δ^{18} O-H₂O vs. δ^{2} H-H₂O of samples collected in June 2013 (RP) and July 2014 (RP) from the Llobregat River, native groundwater (P1) and mixed groundwater (all the piezometers, except P1). The Local Meteoric Water Line (LMWL) and weighted mean precipitation (WMP) are also shown, as well as the groundwater samples from the Llobregat aquifer collected in an area close to the MAR pond ("Llobregat aquifer", Solà, 2009) and Llobregat river samples collected in 1998-1999 ("LB", Otero et al., 2008).

Figure. 6. Changes in the concentration of NPDOC and NO_3^- in depth-specific groundwater samples along the flow path under both RPs (a, c) and NRPs (b, d). Values for the Llobregat river samples are also shown. The size of the symbols is proportional to the corresponding concentration value. Concentrations ranged from 0.11 to 8.6 mg L⁻¹ for NPDOC and from 0.01 to 19.4 mg L⁻¹ for NO₃-. Concentration values are given in the Supplementary Material 26 (Table S3).

Figure 7. $\delta^{15}N_{NO3}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{NO3}$ of dissolved NO_3^- in the collected samples, as well as the isotope composition of the main nitrate sources: fertilizers, soil nitrate and animal manure or sewage (Vitòria et al., 2004; Kendall et al., 2007; Xue et al., 2009).

Figure 8. Estimation of the extent of NO_3^- attenuation in all the sampling campaigns, using ε values obtained from the batch experiments with two-year-old PRL material. The isotope composition of the native groundwater was used as the initial value.

Figure 9. $\delta^{18}O_{SO4}$ vs $\delta^{34}S_{SO4}$ for river, native groundwater and mixed groundwater samples 33 collected in June 2013 and September 2013. The isotope composition of potential SO_4^{2-} 34 sources is also shown. Values for SO_4^{2-} derived from sulfide oxidation are from Pierre et al. 35 (1994) for disseminated pyrite in anoxic Tertiary marls that outcrop in the Llobregat River 36 basin. Values for pig manure are taken from Otero et al. (2008) and Cravotta (1997). Soil 37 SO_4^{2-} data are from Krouse and Mayer (2000) and fertilizer data from Vitoria et al. (2004). 38 39 Gypsum values correspond to local gypsum outcrops (Utrilla et al., 1992). Sewage data are 40 from the Igualada sewage plant (Otero et al., 2008).

Figure 10. $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3}$ vs HCO_3^- concentration for native and mixed groundwater samples collected in June 2013, September 2013 and July 2014. The dotted lines represent the range of the $\delta^{13}C_{HCO3}$ values for the native groundwater samples.



Figure 2

















