1	Use of sterols to monitor surface water quality change and nitrate pollution source
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3	Kei Nakagawa* • Hiroki Amano • Ronny Berndtsson • Yuji Takao • Takahiro Hosono
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5	Kei Nakagawa (⊠) • Yuji Takao
6	Institute of Integrated Science and Technology, Nagasaki University,
7	1-14 Bunkyo-machi, Nagasaki 852-8521, Japan
8	e-mail: kei-naka@nagasaki-u.ac.jp
9	Tel.: +81 95 819 2763; fax: +81 95 819 2763
10	* corresponding author
11	
12	Hiroki Amano
13	Graduate School of Fisheries and Environmental Sciences, Nagasaki University,
14	1-14 Bunkyo-machi, Nagasaki 852-8521, Japan
15	
16	Ronny Berndtsson
17	Division of Water Resources Engineering & Center for Middle Eastern Studies, Lund University,
18	Box 118, SE-221 00 Lund, Sweden
19	
20	Takahiro Hosono

22 Science, Kumamoto University, 23 2-39-1 Kurokami, Kumamoto 860-8555, Japan 24 25 Abstract 26 Coprostanol was tested as ecological indicator to trace domestic and manure effluents and to investigate 27 possible pollution sources in surface water. Pollution assessment was performed by analysing  $NO_3^-$ ,  $NO_2^-$ , 28 coprostanol (5 $\beta$ (H)-Cholestan-3 $\beta$ -ol), and cholestanol (5 $\alpha$ (H)-Cholestan-3 $\beta$ -ol) in water samples from 42 sites along rivers in Shimabara and Unzen City, Japan. NO<sub>2</sub>-N concentration exceeded 0.04 mg L<sup>-1</sup> at two 29 30 sampling sites during winter and six sampling sites during summer. (NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>)-N concentration exceeded 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> at 19 sampling sites during winter and 7 sampling sites during in summer. The 31 highest concentration was 82.4 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in summer. Detectable NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration was observed in 32 northern parts of the study area. Coprostanol concentration exceeded 700 ng L<sup>-1</sup> (Australian Drinking 33 34 Water Standard) at 8 sampling points during winter and 6 sampling sites during summer. At 10 and 5% of 35 the sampling sites, both nitrate and coprostanol concentration exceeded drinking water standard during 36 winter and summer, respectively. The percentage of sampling sites where either concentration was above 37 drinking water standard was 45% during winter and 22% during summer season. However, depending on 38 sampling site, the relationships between nitrate and coprostanol concentrations showed different patterns. 39 The sterol ratio exceeded 0.5 at 17 sampling sites during winter and 14 sampling sites during summer.

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40 Thus, it was confirmed that fecal pollution is present in the studied surface water. A method to distinguish

41	between principal pollution sources was developed by separating four areas in a nitrate concentration and
42	sterol ratio plot. Results show that sampled data could be reasonably classified into appropriate
43	polluted/non-polluted groups. Thus, coprostanol and sterol ratio can be used as indicators to distinguish
44	between different nitrate pollution sources in surface water.
45	Keywords
46	Surface water, Nitrate pollution, Coprostanol, Sterol ratio
47	
48	1. Introduction
49	Many areas in the world experience nitrate pollution in surface and groundwater supplies (e.g.,
50	Nakagawa et al., 2016; Amano et al., 2018; Górsk et al., 2019; Chitsazan et al., 2017; Sorensen et al.,
51	2015; Hansen et al., 2012; Chandna et al., 2011; Ribbe et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2005). Nitrate pollution is
52	related to significant health threats known as cause of blue baby syndrome for infants and cancer
53	occurrence for adults. Thus, World Health Organization (WHO, 2011) has set a maximum nitrate level in
54	drinking water at 50 mg L <sup>-1</sup> . Eckhardt and Stackeberg (1995) considered nitrate concentration above 13
55	mg $L^{-1}$ in groundwater as indicative of pollution by human activity.
56	A common problem is to establish sources for the nitrate pollution. A common method for this
57	is to use isotopes of nitrogen and oxygen in the nitrate (Kendall, 1998). However, when many sources of
58	nitrate overlap, it may still be difficult to separate between them. For this reason, we propose to use
59	coprostanol to improve the source separation (Nakagawa et al., 2017). Coprostanol is a sterol, which is
60	produced by bacterial reduction of cholesterol in gut of higher animals such as humans and livestock.

61	Coprostanol and related sterols can thus, be used as a biomarker of pollution from domestic and manure
62	effluent discharge (Reeves and Patton 2005). Coprostanol has been widely used as an indicator of fecal
63	pollution in the water environment such as river, lagoons, and estuaries (He., 2018; Costa et al., 2018;
64	Rada et al., 2016; Adnan et al., 2010; Froehner et al., 2009; Martins et al., 2007; Reeves and Patton, 2005).
65	This, has been confirmed by comparison with biological indicators such as E. coli. (Albuquerque de Assis
66	Costa et al., 2018). Consequently, coprostanol may be used as a proxy for ecological indicators. Although,
67	problems remain to establish relationships in different environments.
68	For groundwater, the concentration of coprostanol is often quite low. A possible reason for this
69	is adsorption to soil and rock material. Sterols are hydrophobic and thus, coprostanol may be assumed to
70	be associated with particles (Froehner et al., 2010). Thus, it may be expected that surface water displays
71	higher concentrations and more clear relationships between coprostanol and nitrate concentration.
72	However, to improve the pollution source classification, the sterol ratio between cholestanol and
73	coprostanol can be used. Cholestenol is also an isomer sterol that is formed from cholesterol reduction to
74	cholestanol. This occurs preferentially in natural environments. In view of this, we firstly investigated the
75	spatial variation of nitrate, coprostanol, and sterol ratio for the study area. Secondly, we plotted
76	relationships between $\delta^{15}$ N and $\delta^{18}$ O from nitrate as suggested by Kendall (1998). Thirdly, we analyzed
77	relationships between $\delta^{15}N$ from nitrate and sterol ratio to validate initial results. Finally, we propose a
78	general methodology to distinguish between main sources of nitrate pollution in surface water by use of
79	sterol ratio and nitrate. In other words, this study assessed the nitrate pollution in rivers and possibilities
80	to separate between different sources of pollution using several biochemical indicators.

# 82 2. Experimental study area

83	Shimabara is one of the cities on Shimabara Peninsula (Fig. 1) in Nagasaki prefecture, Japan. It
84	is adjacent to the Unzen and Minamishimabara Cities. The city area is 82.8 km <sup>2</sup> , which occupies 18% of
85	the peninsula. Land use is concentrated to forest, upland fields, and urban areas. In the southern part of
86	the city, urban areas are situated on the sloping flat land between Mt. Mayuyama and the Ariake Sea. The
87	sloping flat land is constituted by debris avalanche deposits from the part of Mt. Mayuyama that collapsed
88	in 1792. The northern and central parts of the study area are constituted by agricultural areas.
89	The city is well-known for volcanic activities. The most recent eruptive activity of Mt.
90	Fugendake in the center of the peninsula occurred from 1990 to 1995. Due to the frequent volcanic
91	activities, the geology is mainly constituted by volcanic rock such as Pre-Unzen and Unzen volcanic
92	rocks (Sugimoto, 2006). Pre-Unzen volcanic rock is covered by Unzen volcanic rock. The former is
93	composed of olivine basalt and two pyroxene andesite. The latter is mainly constituted by hornblende
94	andesite to dacite.



95

**Fig. 1** Location of water sampling sites.

97

98 The climate is humid temperate with a mean annual temperature of 17.1°C and annual 99 precipitation of 1989 mm. The precipitation in January, February, and August for each sampling campaign 100 was 56.5, 125.5, and 196.5 mm, respectively. About 41% of the population of 46,437 people are 101 connected to waste water treatment (Nagasaki Prefecture, 2017). Most of the treatment (97.6%) is 102 constituted by septic tanks due to lacking sewage system connections in the city. It is estimated that about 103 224 kg T-N/day are released to the river system through discharge of treated waste water (treated septic 104 tank effluent). Nitrate load to the groundwater from treated waste water is, however, only about 5% of the 105 load from fertilizers and livestock waste (Committee on Nitrate Reduction on Shimabara Peninsula, 106 2016).

107

### 108 **3.** Materials and methods

#### 109 **3.1. Water samples**

110 Water samples were taken at 42 locations in Shimabara City including a part of Unzen City 111 during winter (January 17 and 24 and February 6) and summer (August 21 and 22) 2017. However, 112 during the summer campaign, sampling at site 27 (Fig. 1) was not possible due to dried up river 113 conditions. The reason for sampling during both summer and winter was to better understand the seasonal 114 variation of the biochemical indicators. Water samples of 500 mL and 1000 mL were collected directly 115 from the center section of the river (except for sampling sites 6 and 27) in pre-washed bottles and then 116 stored in refrigerator for analysis of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, coprostanol, and cholestanol. At sites 6 and 27, we 117 used a bailer sampler due to the difficulty to access the water surface. Samples of 30 mL for nitrate 118 isotope ratios were filtered through 0.22 µm membrane filter and kept frozen until analysis.

119

#### 120 **3.2. Analysis procedure**

121 Dissolved oxygen (DO) was determined in situ by use of a luminescence based sensor (HACH 122 HQ30d). NO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> were analyzed by ion chromatography (Metrohm 861 Advanced Compact IC). Nitrate  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{18}$ O were determined by the denitrifier method (Casciotti et al., 2002; Sigman et al., 123 2001; Hosono et al., 2014; Hosono et al., 2013). Analysis of  $\delta^{15}N$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  of induced N<sub>2</sub>O was 124 125 conducted simultaneously. The nitrate isotopes were analyzed in deionized water extracted samples from 126 the cattle manure and excrement of milk and beef cattle. Cattle manure is composed by cattle excrements 127 and sawdust. The cattle manure comes from both milk cattle (cow milking raw milk for dairy products) 128 and beef cattle (cow raised for meat production). Animal waste was collected at Nagasaki Agricultural

129	and Forestry Technical Development Center on September 17 2015. In the extraction, 30 mL of deionized
130	water was added to 3.0 g of dried samples (manure and excrement) in a centrifuge tube and shaken during
131	30 min. The extract was separated using centrifugal separation at 3000 rpm x 10 min. Supernatant liquid
132	was added to a 50 ml volumetric flask through a filter paper. For further details, see Oyanagi et al. (2004).
133	As mentioned earlier, we focused on two sterols: coprostanol and cholestenol. These sterols are
134	isomer and originate from different processes. Coprostanol is produced by bacterial reduction of
135	cholesterol in gut of higher animals (Martins et al., 2007). On the other hand, cholesterol reduction to
136	cholestanol occurs preferentially in natural environment. Coprostanol $(5\beta(H)-Cholestan-3\beta-ol)$ and
137	cholestenol (5 $\alpha$ (H)-Cholestan-3 $\beta$ -ol) were extracted from the water samples according to Hussain et al.
138	(2010) with some modification (Nakagawa et al., 2017). At start, a surrogate was added to 800 mL of
139	water samples to monitor the performance of preprocessing. 1 M HCl was added to samples to modify pH
140	from 2 to 3. After suction filtration of water samples using 0.7 mm and 2.7 mm borosilicate glass fiber
141	filters, the sterols on the filters were extracted with methanol using an ultrasonic bath during three
142	successive times. The extracts with methanol were mixed with the water sample after filtration with 0.20
143	$\mu$ m membrane filter. The sterols were extracted from water samples by liquid-liquid extraction with 60
144	mL dichloromethane in room temperature during three successive times. The extracts were concentrated
145	to near dryness (<1.0 mL) under pure nitrogen gas flow and dehydrated with anhydrous sodium sulfate.
146	The extract was formed to trimethylsilyl using BSTFA (bis-trimethylsilyl trifluoroacetamide) at 80°C for
147	60 min after concentration and dehydration, then quantified by use of 7000A Triple Quadrupole GC/MS
148	(Agilent Technologies). The detection limit for sterols ranged between 0.2 and 3.2 ng $L^{-1}$ . The mean

149 recovery of surrogates was 85.9% with a standard deviation  $\pm 15.3\%$ .

150

### 151 **3.3. Spatial variation of nitrate, coprostanol, and sterol ratio**

152	To accomplish the first aim of the study, to improve the understanding of the spatial variation
153	of nitrate, coprostanol, and sterol ratio, geographical information system (GIS) was applied. Thus, QGIS
154	2.18.21 'Las Palmas' (QGIS development team 2019) was used to map the results. The QGIS is a Free
155	and Open Source Geographic Information System licensed under the GNU General Public License.
156	Maximum permissible nitrate concentration in Japan for drinking water is 10 mg L <sup>-1</sup> . Therefore,
157	this concentration was used as a criteria for nitrate pollution. To evaluate fecal pollution, several
158	coprostanol concentrations have been proposed. In Australia, a maximum of 700 ng L <sup>-1</sup> has been proposed
159	for drinking water (Hussain et al., 2010). In the natural water bodies, according to the relationship
160	between BOD and coprostanol concentration, 500 ng L <sup>-1</sup> has been proposed for indicating fecal pollution
161	(Itoh and Tatsukawa, 1978). In this study, we evaluated fecal pollution based on drinking water standard
162	(proposed in Australia) of coprostanol concentration as same as nitrate concentration.

163

Another method to evaluate fecal pollution is to use the sterol ratio (Matić et al., 2016):

164 
$$S_r = \frac{5\beta}{5\alpha + 5\beta}$$

where  $S_r$  is sterol ratio,  $5\beta$  is concentration of coprostanol (ng L<sup>-1</sup>), and  $5\alpha$  is concentration of cholestanol (ng L<sup>-1</sup>). Depending on sterol ratio, samples are often divided into three pollution classes "certain (> 0.5)", "uncertain (0.3 – 0.5)", and "no pollution (< 0.3)" (Matić et al., 2016). Consequently, these thresholds were used to indicate fecal pollution in the current study.

170	3.4. Relationship between nitrate $\delta^{15}$ N and $\delta^{18}$ O
171	Kendall (1998) suggested a method to investigate pollution sources that can be used together
172	with groundwater sampling (Nakagawa et al., 2017). It builds on a scatter plot using $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$
173	concentrations. The scatter plot will display distinctive ranges depending on nitrate source (e.g.,
174	ammonium fertilizer, soil N, and manure and septic waste). Thus, several studies have used this method to
175	elucidate nitrate pollution source (Baily et al., 2011; Hosono et al., 2011; Kaown et al., 2009).
176	
177	3.5. Relationship between nitrate $\delta^{15}N$ and sterol ratio
178	The relationship between nitrate $\delta^{15}$ N and sterol ratio is plotted in a scatter diagram. The nitrate
179	$\delta^{15}N$ indicates the nitrate source while the sterol ratio displays the risk for fecal pollution. Nitrate
180	originating from manure or septic waste would have a heavier isotopes range compared to ammonium
181	fertilizer and nitrate from soil with a high sterol ratio $(> 0.5)$ .
182	
183	<b>3.6. Relationship between NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>-N and sterol ratio</b>
184	We suggest a general methodology to distinguish between main pollution sources of nitrate by
185	using a scatter plot between $NO_3+NO_2-N$ (x-axis) and sterol ratio (y-axis). In such a plot, four main
186	groups may be distinguished. These groups correspond to drinking water standard regarding $NO_3+NO_2-N$
187	and fecal pollution criteria (group I, NO <sub>3</sub> +NO <sub>2</sub> -N: $< 10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , sterol ratio: $< 0.3$ ; group II, NO <sub>3</sub> +NO <sub>2</sub> -N:
188	$<$ 10 mg $L^{\text{-1}}$ , sterol ratio: $>$ 0.3; group III, NO_3+NO_2-N: $>10$ mg $L^{\text{-1}}$ , sterol ratio: $<$ 0.3; group IV,

189	$NO_3+NO_2-N$ : > 10 mg L <sup>-1</sup> , sterol ratio: > 0.3). Group I indicates no pollution or close to no pollution
190	while other groups indicate pollution. However, pollution sources might be different, as domestic
191	wastewater in group II, chemical fertilizer in group III, and livestock waste in group IV.
192	
193	4. Results
194	4.1. Spatial variation of nitrate, coprostanol, and sterol ratio
195	The spatial variation of nitrate plus nitrite as nitrogen (NO <sub>3</sub> +NO <sub>2</sub> -N, hereafter referred to as
196	nitrate) during winter and summer 2017 is shown in Fig. 2. Descriptive statistics of chemical components
197	are summarized in Table 1. Nitrate concentration exceeded 10 mg L <sup>-1</sup> at 19 sampling locations during
198	winter and 7 sampling locations during summer. Highest concentrations were 27.5 mg $L^{-1}$ (site 31) in
199	winter and 82.4 mg L <sup>-1</sup> (site 32) in summer. High nitrate concentration was observed in northern parts of

200 the study area, especially for Yuegawa and Nishikawa River.



202 Fig. 2 Spatial variation of NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>-N concentration (a)Winter (Jan.-Feb. 2017), (b) Summer

### 203 (August 2017).

			winter	season			summe	r season	
		Average	SD	Maximum	Minimum	Average	SD	Maximum	Minimum
NO <sub>3</sub> -N	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	9.7	6.9	27.5	1.0	7.9	11.3	74.8	1.3
NO <sub>2</sub> -N	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	0.2	0.7	3.5	0.0	0.2	1.2	7.6	0.0
NO <sub>3</sub> +NO <sub>2</sub> -N	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	9.9	6.8	27.5	1.0	7.9	12.4	82.4	1.3
NH <sub>4</sub> -N	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	2.1	7.3	37.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.0
Coprostanol	ng L <sup>-1</sup>	2064.7	10509.2	68340.3	17.9	330.9	438.7	1826.1	2.5
Cholestanol	ng L <sup>-1</sup>	883.3	3267.4	21196.6	30.6	299.0	346.2	1654.7	37.5
Sterol ratio		0.47	0.17	0.77	0.14	0.41	0.20	0.76	0.06
DO	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	10.14	2.49	11.58	0.70	8.08	0.85	10.42	5.26

# **Table 1** Descriptive statistics of analysed chemical components

207	Nitrite (NO <sub>2</sub> -N) was detected at only two locations during winter (site 30 and 32). For summer,
208	nitrite was detected at six locations (site 1, 4, 7, 8, 11, and 32). Although nitrate concentrations meet
209	drinking water standard (10 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) except for site 32 (Fig. 2(b)), nitrite exceeds Japanese drinking water
210	standard at these sites (0.04 mg $L^{-1}$ ). Very high nitrite and nitrate concentration (7.6 mg $L^{-1}$ and 82.4 mg
211	L <sup>-1</sup> , respectively) was detected at site 32 in summer.
212	Ammonium (NH <sub>4</sub> -N) was detected in water samples collected at locations 26, 27, 31 and 32
213	(winter season) and 30 (winter and summer season). The ammonium concentrations ranged between <9.5
214	to 37.0 mg L <sup>-1</sup> for most of the sampling locations, within Nishikawa River Basin (locations 27 and 30-32)
215	and $<1.8 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ for location 26 in winter. The maximum concentration (37.0 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) was detected at site
216	32 in winter. In summer (location 30), ammonium was detected with concentration of 0.6 mg L <sup>-1</sup> , which is
217	significantly lower than in winter season.

The spatial variation of coprostanol concentration in winter and summer 2017 is shown in Fig.

219	<b>3</b> . A total number of 8 and 6 sampling points exceeded the Australian standard of 700 ng $L^{-1}$ during winter
220	and summer, respectively. Site 32 (upstream Nishikawa River) displayed the highest coprostanol
221	concentration, 68340 and 1247 ng L <sup>-1</sup> during winter and summer, respectively. The Nishikawa River is
222	highly affected by fecal pollution from livestock waste. Similarly, as for the nitrate concentration,
223	coprostanol concentration decreased during summer. However, some sites like 2, 3, 4, and 6 (urban area)
224	and 22, 23, 37, 39, and 41 (Yuegawa River) displayed increasing coprostanol concentration during
225	summer.

According to the above, sterol ratios > 0.5 represent "certain" fecal pollution. Values between 0.3 and 0.5 suggest "uncertain" sewage and natural sterol inputs. Values < 0.3 indicate "no pollution". Spatial variation of sterol ratio during winter and summer in 2017 is shown in **Fig. 4**. Based on these criteria, 17 sampling points in winter and 14 sampling points in summer exceeded 0.5, indicating certain fecal pollution. In total, 10 sampling points in winter and 15 sampling points in summer showed a ratio of less than 0.3.



234Fig. 3 Spatial variation of coprostanol concentration (a) Winter (Jan.-Feb. 2017), (b) Summer (August





237

Spatial variation of sterol ratio (a) Winter (Jan.-Feb. 2017), (b) Summer (August 2017). Fig. 4

239 Concentrations of  $NO_3+NO_2-N$  and coprostanol are shown in Fig. 5 to give a direct comparison





250 22% during summer season.

NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>-N and coprostanol concentration depending on sampling site (a) Winter (Jan.-Feb. 252 Fig. 5 253 2017), (b) Summer (Aug. 2017). 254 4.2. Relationship between nitrate  $\delta^{15}N$  and  $\delta^{18}O$ 255The average concentration of nitrate  $\delta^{15}N$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  was plotted in a scatter diagram as shown in 256 257 Fig. 6. Corresponding analyses from livestock waste and manure are also plotted in the figure. From 258 winter to summer, most of the samples somewhat moved towards higher concentrations for both isotopes. 259 It is seen that summer samples are more affected by livestock waste. In other words, winter samples seem

- 260 to be more affected by nitrate from chemical fertilizers. Yet, most of the samples and especially samples
- from Nishikawa and Yuegawa River are located in the vicinity of manure and septic waste (Fig. 6).



262

263 **Fig. 6** Relationship between nitrate  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{18}$ O concentrations (a) Winter (Jan.-Feb.2017), (b) 264 Summer (August 2017). The isotopic range identifying the source was organized according to 265 Kendall (1998).

# 267 **4.3. Relationship between nitrate** $\delta^{15}$ **N and sterol ratio**

In order to confirm the increasing tendency for both nitrate  $\delta^{15}N$  and sterol ratio, the relationship between them was plotted in **Fig. 7**. Symbols that are encircled with a red line indicate that coprostanol concentration exceeded 700 ng L<sup>-1</sup>. In the case of Nishikawa River, at upstream site 30, 31, 271 32, and 27 (winter only), the sterol ratio was higher than 0.5 and nitrate  $\delta^{15}N$  was higher than 10‰. On 272 the other hand, downstream sites 9 and 10 were below 0.5 for the sterol ratio and below 10‰ for the 273 nitrate  $\delta^{15}N$ . In the case of Yuegawa River, most of the sampling sites, except for 22, 23 (winter) and 274 33-36 (summer), displayed a relatively high sterol ratio (> 0.3) and nitrate  $\delta^{15}N$  (> 5‰). Also, the urban 275 area displayed an increasing tendency for both nitrate  $\delta^{15}N$  and sterol ratio.



277 **Fig. 7** Relationship between nitrate  $\delta^{15}$ N and sterol ratio (a) Winter (Jan.-Feb. 2017), (b) Summer

278 (August 2017).

279

#### 280 **4.4. Relationship between NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>-N and sterol ratio**

The relationship between nitrate concentration ( $NO_3+NO_2-N$ ) and sterol ratio is plotted in **Fig.** 8. According to the above, a methodology to distinguish principal pollution sources by separating four principal fields in the plot is proposed. For example, the first field with (group I) indicates small ammounts of pollution because nitrate concentration meets drinking water standard and sterol ratio is below 0.3. Other groups are classified as polluted, but the pollution source may be different. Coprostanol concentration of samples marked in red exceeds 700 ng L<sup>-1</sup>. According to this classification, most samples

display reduced nitrate concentration from winter to summer, and tend to end up in group I or II. Sites located in the upstream of Yuegawa and Nishikawa River such as 31, 32, 38, 39, 40, and 41 are classified into group IV both for winter and summer. All samples from urban areas were classified into group I or II with lower nitrate concentration in both seasons. As shown in **Fig. 3**, nitrate concentrations in urban areas were less than that of other areas, which is obvious in the winter season. Group III obtained a small number of samples for both seasons. In winter season, only five samples (site 13, 22, 23, 24, and 25) were classified into group III. Only site 12 belonged to group III for the summer season.



295

296

**Fig. 8** Relationship between  $NO_3+NO_2-N$  concentration and sterol ratio (a) Winter (Jan.- Feb. 2017),

(b) Summer (August 2017).

298

299 **5. Discussion** 

300 5.1. Spatial variation of nitrate, coprostanol, and sterol ratio

301 The Yuegawa and Nishikawa Rivers are part of an area with intense agriculture. In general,

302 spatial variation of nitrate in surface water displayed similarity to that of the groundwater (see Nakagawa

et al., 2016). Surface and groundwater were generally not polluted in forest and urban areas. Most of the
summer samples, except for sites 6 and 32, displayed smaller concentration as compared to samples from
the winter period. A reason for this is dilution of river water by precipitation during the rainy season.

Site 32 is located at the upstream of Nishikawa River. Here, a pig farm is located close to the sampling site. In winter, although nitrate concentration met drinking water standard ( $8.61 < 10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) at this location, nitrite greatly exceeded the standard ( $3.19 > 0.04 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ). Probably, nitrite was produced by denitrification during the biological treatment process for wastewater, because low DO ( $1.51 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) was observed as nitrification bacteria need more oxygen as compared to heterotrophic bacteria. Ammonium was detected at sites 27, 30, 31, and 32. These sites are located at the upstream of Nishikawa River and probably affected by effluents from the pig farm.

313 A livestock waste water treatment plant is located upstream of the Yuegawa River. Probably, 314 the effluent of this plant affects pollution levels in the river. High coprostanol concentrations were 315 detected at site 1 in the urban area and this is most probably due to domestic waste water. The coprostanol 316 level is usually correlated with occurrence of E. coli.. According to this, a coprostanol concentration of 60 ng L<sup>-1</sup> has been proposed for as threshold of fluvial water quality (Albuquerque de Assis Costa et al., 317 318 2018). In this sense, most of the investigated sites in this study relate to a significant health threat. 319 Measurement of coprostanol concentration makes it possible to detect serious river pollution, even if 320 nitrate concentrations are not high. Thus, observations of coprostanol concentration have an important 321 role to fill in terms of pollution source investigations.

322

The sterol ratio indicates that relatively many sampling points are affected by fecal pollution in

323 the study area. In summer, sites 2, 20, 21, 22, 23, 28, and 29 showed increased sterol ratio. In the urban 324 area (site 2 and 29), domestic waste water caused increased ratio during summer similar to the 325 coprostanol concentration. Downstream Yuegawa River (site 22 and 23) as well displayed increased ratio. 326 On the contrary, southern upstream area of Yuegawa River (site 33, 34, 35, and 36) displayed a decreased 327 ratio. This is probably due to the fact that fecal pollutants are transported from upstream to downstream 328 along the river during flood season. With sterol ratio of 0.7, the coprostanol concentration even higher than 700 ng L<sup>-1</sup> can be classified as "uncertain" or close to no pollution indicators. Consequently, as 329 330 described by Matić et al. (2016), the ratio of 0.5 should be more secure for fecal pollution detection.

331

332 **5.2. Relationships between nitrate**  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{18}$ O

According to documented cultivation procedures of major crops in the study area (Amano et al., 2016), fertilizers are applied on seven out of nine crops from September to January. This is an essential reason why winter samples displayed less isotopic content of  $\delta^{15}$ N. However, the general tendency for both plots was a small difference between winter and summer. Thus, it appears that it is difficult to separate between different pollution sources using these isotopes. The same difficulty has been experienced for groundwater samples (Nakagawa et al., 2017).



area is the livestock waste. A large number of livestock is raised in this area (Nakagawa et al., 2015). It is
estimated that the potential nitrate load from livestock waste is much higher as compared to that from
chemical fertilizers.

346

### 347 **5.3. Relationship between nitrate** $\delta^{15}$ **N and sterol ratio**

According to the above discussion, both Yuegawa and Nishikawa Rivers are affected by livestock waste. In these rivers, results for both nitrate  $\delta^{15}$ N and sterol ratio are quite consistent with fecal pollution.

350 For the urban areas, the results indicate pollution originating domestic sewage water.

351

#### 352 **5.4. Relationship between NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>-N and sterol ratio**

As mentioned above, group I does not indicate pollution. In group II, although nitrate 353 354 concentration meets the drinking water standard, sterol ratio is larger than 0.3. Thus, this group is 355 considered to be polluted mainly by livestock waste or domestic waste water discharge with a low T-N. Site 1-8 and 29 are located in the urban area, indicating that some of these are affected by domestic waste 356 357 water discharge. In group III, although nitrate concentration exceeded drinking water standard, sterol ratio 358 is below 0.3. In this case, chemical fertilizers are considered to be the main source of pollution. As 359 mentioned above, fertilizer application on main crops in the study area is conducted from September to 360 January. This is one of the reason that larger number of samples were classified into group III for the 361 winter season. Finally, for group IV, samples exceeded both criteria and livestock waste is considered to 362 be a main source of nitrate pollution. Some samples from the Yuegawa and Nishikawa River indicate that group IV samples are affected by livestock waste. This is confirmed by the close location of livestock
 waste water treatment plant and pig farm.

365

366 Conclusions

367 In this study, we examined nitrate pollution in two rivers and possibilities to distinguish between different sources of pollution by the use of several biochemical indicators. As a case study, and 368 369 to clarify the surface water pollution in the Shimabara study area, we firstly investigated the distribution 370 of nitrate, coprostanol, and sterol ratio as biochemical indicators. Secondly, we plotted the relationship between nitrate  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{18}$ O according to Kendall (1998) to elucidate the general tendency of the 371 samples. Then, we plotted the relationship between nitrate  $\delta^{15}N$  and sterol ratio to confirm identified 372 373 pollution sources. Finally, we proposed a methodology to indicate the main sources of pollution in the surface water of the study area. As a conclusion, we can summarize major results of our analysis 374 according to the following: 1) Nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub>-N) concentration exceeded 0.04 mg  $L^{-1}$  at 2 sampling 375 376 locations during winter and 6 sampling points during summer. 2) Nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>-N) concentration 377 exceeded 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> at 19 sampling points during winter and 7 sampling points during summer. The highest concentration was 82.4 mg  $L^{-1}$  in summer. 3). Coprostanol concentration exceeded 700 ng  $L^{-1}$  at 8 378 379 sampling points in winter and 6 sampling points in summer. Thus, the study confirmed that fecal pollution 380 of the water occurs. 4) The sterol ratio exceeded 0.5 at 17 sampling points in winter and 14 sampling 381 points in summer. According to the above analysis, coprostanol and sterol ratio have a potential to be used 382 to distinguish between different nitrate pollution sources in surface water.

383	To summarize this study, we showed a potential use of coprostanol and sterol ratio to evaluate
384	pollution sources as biochemical indicators. Also, we proposed a concrete methodology to separate
385	between pollution sources based on these biochemical indicators. Additionally, the use of these indicators,
386	can not only separate between source of nitrate pollution but also display hidden health threats caused by
387	fecal pollution.
388	
389	Acknowledgements This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI under Grant No. JP16KK0014 and
390	JP17H01861.
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