### 1 Highlights

- 2 Dominant nitrate sources are chemical fertilizer and livestock wastes.
- 3 It is difficult to distinguish pollution sources using  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{15}$ N from NO<sub>3</sub>.
- 4 Coprostanol showed potential for source identification of nitrate pollution.
- 5 A methodology using coprostanol is proposed to identify source of nitrate pollution.

1	On the use of coprostanol to identify source of nitrate pollution in groundwater
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#### 19 Abstract

20Investigation of contaminant sources is indispensable for developing effective countermeasures against 21nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>) pollution in groundwater. Known major nitrogen (N) sources are chemical fertilizers, livestock waste, and domestic wastewater. In general, scatter diagrams of  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{15}$ N from NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> can 2223be used to identify these pollution sources. However, this method can be difficult to use for chemical fertilizers and livestock waste sources due to the overlap of  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{15}$ N ranges. In this study, we 2425propose to use coprostanol as an indicator for the source of pollution. Coprostanol can be used as a fecal 26contamination indicator because it is a major fecal sterol formed by the conversion of cholesterol by 27intestinal bacteria in the gut of higher animals. The proposed method was applied to investigate  $NO_3^{-1}$ 28pollution sources for groundwater in Shimabara, Nagasaki, Japan. Groundwater samples were collected at 2933 locations from March 2011 to November 2015. These data were used to quantify relationships between 30  $NO_3$ -N,  $\delta^{15}N$ -NO<sub>3</sub>,  $\delta^{18}O$ -NO<sub>3</sub>, and coprostanol. The results show that coprostanol has a potential for source identification of nitrate pollution. For lower coprostanol concentrations (<30 ng  $L^{-1}$ ) in the 3132nitrate-polluted group, fertilizer is likely to be the predominant source of  $NO_3^{-}$ . However, higher 33 concentration coprostanol samples in the nitrate-polluted group can be related to pollution from manure. 34Thus, when conventional diagrams of isotopic ratios cannot distinguish pollution sources, coprostanol 35may be a useful tool.

# 38 Key words

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### Groundwater, Nitrate pollution, Stable isotopes, Coprostanol

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### 41 **1. Introduction**

42	Nitrate contamination in groundwater as a consequence of intensive agricultural activities is a
43	severe problem. In order to establish effective countermeasures against nitrate contamination
44	identification of the nitrate source is crucial. Statistical methods such as correlation between nitrate and
45	characteristic ions (e.g., $SO_4^{2-}$ , $Ca^{2+}$ , and $Mg^{2+}$ ) have been successfully used to locate and understand
46	nitrate sources. Positive correlation with such ions means that the nitrate source originates from chemical
47	fertilizer (Babiker et al., 2004). In a similar manner, stable isotopic ratios of nitrate ( $\delta^{15}N$ ) have been
48	applied as a powerful tool (e.g., Williams et al., 1998; Rivers et al., 1996). Although, $\delta^{15}$ N from nitrate
49	sources shows a distinct range (e.g., -15 to +15‰ in atmospheric NO <sub>3</sub> , -4 to +4‰ in inorganic fertilizer,
50	+2 to +30‰ in organic fertilizer, and +10 to +20‰ in animal waste; Kendall, 1998), it is often difficult to
51	distinguish pollution sources due to overlapping ranges. The $\delta^{18}$ O from nitrate, however, is an additional
52	tool for determining nitrate source and reactions. Kendall (1998) illustrated the usefulness of scatter
53	diagrams of $\delta^{18}$ O and $\delta^{15}$ N for interpreting dominant nitrate sources. He showed that different ranges
54	could be explained by the diverse origins of nitrate (NO3 in precipitation, desert NO3 deposits, NO3

55	fertilizer, NH <sub>4</sub> in fertilizer and rain, manure and septic waste, and soil N). Moreover, dual isotopic data
56	are useful for judging if denitrification occurs because this process increases the $\delta^{18}$ O and $\delta^{15}$ N of residual
57	nitrate. Although, nitrate originating from nitrate fertilizer or atmospheric sources are distinguishable
58	from ammonium fertilizer, soil N, and manure containing $\delta^{18}$ O, it is still difficult to distinguish different
59	sources of chemical fertilizer and livestock waste sources because of overlapping $\delta^{15}N$ ranges. To
60	overcome this problem, isotopic data combined with a Bayesian mixing model is a reliable way for
61	quantifying proportional contributions of potential nitrate sources (Matiatos, 2016; Kim et al., 2015).
62	However, precaution is required because the model resolution is significantly affected by the temporal
63	variability of the isotopic composition of nitrate in the mixture and uncertainty of the isotopic
64	composition of different nitrate sources (Xue et al., 2012).
65	Shimabara City, Nagasaki, Japan, utilizes groundwater for agriculture, industry, and domestic
66	water including drinking water. However, due to intensive agricultural activities, the nitrate level in
67	groundwater has increased to above the Japanese drinking water quality standard (10 mg L <sup>-1</sup> ). According
68	to Nakagawa et al. (2016), 38% (15 out of 40 groundwater wells) exceed the permissible $NO_3-N + NO_2-N$
69	concentration. The nitrate pollution in groundwater has been shown to be related to chemical fertilizer
70	and livestock waste by use of the correlation matrix for major dissolved ion components. However, the
71	identification of specific nitrate sources could not be accomplished in the above study. For this reason, we
72	herein propose an easy-to-use approach involving coprostanol to identify the main nitrate source.

73	Coprostanol (5 $\beta$ (H)-Cholestan-3 $\beta$ -ol, CAS No. 360-68-9) is one of the sterols, which is produced by
74	bacterial reduction of cholesterol in the gut of higher animals (Martins et al., 2007). It has been widely
75	used as an indicator of fecal contamination in lagoons and estuaries (Martins et al., 2007; Reeves and
76	Patton, 2005). In this paper, NO <sub>3</sub> -N, coprostanol, $\delta^{18}$ O, and $\delta^{15}$ N from nitrate were investigated to
77	evaluate the feasibility of the proposed methodology to identify the source of nitrate groundwater
78	pollution. For this purpose, three kinds of relationships were developed and analyzed; (i) $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{15}N$
79	from nitrate derived from Kendall (1998), (ii) $\delta^{15}N$ from nitrate and coprostanol, and (iii) NO <sub>3</sub> -N and
80	coprostanol levels.
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82	2. Study site
83	Shimabara City is located on the northeastern Shimabara Peninsula, covering 82.8 km <sup>2</sup> (Fig. 1).
84	In the northern part of the city, an alluvial fan is formed from Mt. Fugen located on the apex center of the
85	peninsula. Volcanic deposits such as tuff breccia, tuff, and volcanic conglomerate constitute and are
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	distributed around the mountain. Upland areas and paddy fields are concentrated in the northern parts of
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87 88 89	distributed around the mountain. Upland areas and paddy fields are concentrated in the northern parts of the city. Areas above an altitude of 200 m are generally occupied by forest. Above an elevation of 300 m, hornblende-andesite is distributed. Due to the collapse of Mt. Mayu in 1792, Mayuyama avalanche debris deposits are distributed in the eastern area of the city. The urban area lies on these deposits. The climate is

temperature between 16.9°C and 17.2°C (2013-2015). Although it rains throughout the year, the rainfall is
particularly abundant from June to August.

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#### 94 **3. Materials and methods**

95Groundwater samples were collected at 33 locations from March 2013 to November 2015 (Fig. 96 1). Sampling locations were constituted by 5 shallow wells, 21 deep wells, 1 unknown well depth, and 6 97 springs. Shallow well is defined as <30 m deep and deep well as >30 m deep. Collected water samples for 98analysis of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and coprostanol were filled in prewashed bottles and stored in refrigerator. Samples for 99 nitrate isotope ratios were filtered through 0.22  $\mu$ m membrane filter and kept frozen until analysis. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> 100 was analyzed by ion chromatography of suppressor type (Metrohm 861 Advanced Compact IC).  $\delta^{15}$ N and 101  $\delta^{18}$ O of nitrate were determined by the denitrifier method (Casciotti et al., 2002; Sigman et al., 2001) for 102samples collected on November 4 and 20 2014 and November 20 2015. Denitrifying bacteria lacking N2O reductase convert NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to N<sub>2</sub>O. Analysis of  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{18}$ O of induced N<sub>2</sub>O were implemented 103 104 simultaneously. Dual isotopes of nitrate can be analyzed accurately for samples that are affected by 105denitrification and with low nitrate level (1 µM) (Sigman et al., 2001; Hosono et al., 2011). Since 106 coprostanol is produced in the digestive tracts of mammals by microbial reduction of cholesterol, 107 livestock waste is likely to be a main contaminant source for samples with high coprostanol contents. The 108 extraction method of coprostanol for the groundwater samples was implemented according to the below

109	and referring to Hussain et al. (2010), though with some modification. In total, 800 mL of the water
110	samples were acidified with 1.0 N HCl to pH 2-3. Groundwater samples were filtered through two
111	borosilicate glass fiber filters with 0.7 and 2.7 $\mu$ m. The coprostanol was extracted from the filters with
112	methanol to collect adsorbed coprostanol on suspended particles such as organic matter and fine fractions
113	of soil (coprostanol has low water solubility and tends to be associated with suspended particles (Hussain
114	et al., 2010)). The extracted methanol was mixed with the water sample that passed through the filters.
115	The coprostanol was extracted from the water samples by liquid-liquid extraction with dichloromethane
116	under room temperature during three successive times. The extract was concentrated to near dryness
117	(<1.0 mL) under pure nitrogen gas flow and dehydrated with anhydrous sodium sulfate. It was formed to
118	trimethylsilyl ether using BSTFA (bis-trimethylsilyl trifluoroacetamide) at 80°C during 60 min to increase
119	resolution for chromatography, and then quantified by 7000A Triple Quadrupole GC/MS (Agilent
120	Technologies).
121	For each sampling location, all measurement components (NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , coprostanol, $\delta^{15}$ N, and $\delta^{18}$ O)
122	were averaged to describe the analytic results. Samples with undetected coprostanol were treated as 0.
123	The detection limit was 1.4 ng L <sup>-1</sup> . Analyses results were classified into four groups (Nakagawa et al.,
124	2016) and plotted in the same diagram depending on nitrate concentration. The groups were determined
125	through cluster analysis using major ion concentrations from our previous study (Nakagawa et al., 2016).
126	According to this analysis, water samples can be classified into four spatial groups. The water chemistry

of Group 4 is influenced by nitrate pollution and ion dissolution. Most samples of Group 1 are influenced
by only ion dissolution. Group 2 is influenced by mixed effects of the ion-dissolution and
nitrate-pollution. There is no significant influence on Group 3 (Nakagawa et al., 2016).

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#### 131 **4. Results and discussion**

132 **4. 1. NO<sub>3</sub>-N pollution in groundwater** 

133Averages and standard deviations for NO<sub>3</sub>-N at respective location are shown in Fig. 2. The red line represents Japanese maximum permissible level of NO<sub>2</sub>-N + NO<sub>3</sub>-N for drinking (10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). NO<sub>3</sub>-N 134135levels ranged from 0.1 to 23.3 mg  $L^{-1}$ . Standard deviations varied from 0.02 to 4.4 mg  $L^{-1}$  with an average 136 of 1.2 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration in shallow wells were relatively high as compared to the deep wells. 137Temporal variation was relatively small, although concentrations decreased due to dilution by rainfall, 138depending on the well (Nakagawa et al., 2016). About 39% of all locations displayed a higher 139concentration than the permissible level for drinking purposes. Shimabara City represents mainly three 140kinds of land use, namely forest, agricultural field, and urban area. NO<sub>3</sub>-N levels for water samples 141 collected from agricultural areas all tend to exceed the Japanese permissible level for drinking water 142(Nakagawa et al., 2016). NO<sub>3</sub>-N contamination in the groundwater extended down to 50 m depth from the 143soil surface at the sampling sites O-1 and 2 (Amano et al., 2016). Therefore, identification of nitrate 144sources in groundwater is important in order to preserve water resources for the future.

## **4. 2. Coprostanol in groundwater**

147	Averages and standard deviations of coprostanol concentrations for respective location are
148	shown in Fig. 3. Coprostanol levels ranged from 0.0 (N. D. = Not Detected) to 172.1 ng $L^{-1}$ . Standard
149	deviations varied from 0.0 to 384.9 ng $L^{-1}$ with an average of 79.1 ng $L^{-1}$ . The highest coprostanol
150	concentration was found at site W-2. This site is located downstream of a potentially high nitrate loading
151	district of livestock waste. As coprostanol is mixed with organic colloids, it is highly likely to be
152	incorporated into sediments (Reeves and Patton, 2005). Coprostanol has a low solubility in water and
153	tends to adsorb to suspended particles and sediments (Hussain et al., 2010). In general, sterols are
154	hydrophobic, thus, coprostanol may be assumed to be associated with particles (Froehner et al., 2010).
155	These processes indicate that coprostanol levels in the groundwater may be lower than those in sediments.
156	Writer et al. (1995) suggested that sedimentary coprostanol concentrations higher than 100 ng g <sup>-1</sup> should
157	be a result of sewage release. González-Oreja and Saiz-Salinas (1998) stated that coprostanol levels
158	greater than 500 ng g <sup>-1</sup> may be an indication of sewage contamination. Considering adsorption
159	characteristics of coprostanol as mentioned above, the sediment contents in the study area might be higher
160	than these criteria. To confirm this hypothesis, contents of adsorbed coprostanol in the sediments should
161	be measured in future studies.

# **4.3. Nitrogen and oxygen isotopes of nitrate**

164	The method suggested by Kendall (1998) was used to investigate pollution sources. Thus, the
165	averaged concentrations of $\delta^{15}$ N and $\delta^{18}$ O from NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> were plotted in a scatter diagram as shown in Fig. 4.
166	The data were classified into the four cluster groups according to the above and colored depending on
167	coprostanol level. All sampled data are confined between 3.3 and 8.4‰ for $\delta^{15}N$ , and -0.4 and 3.1‰ for
168	$\delta^{18}$ O except for the site W-19. According to Hosono et al. (2013), the isotopic composition corresponds to
169	the range of chemical fertilizers which is a potential nitrate source in the study area. However, a large
170	number of livestock (approximately 1,000 milk cattle, 23,000 pigs, and 1,000,000 chickens in 2015) are
171	raised in the Shimabara study area. Although, the number of beef cattle and broilers is not known, there
172	are 62 and 2 livestock farmer associations for the respective livestock in the study area. The potential
173	nitrate load from livestock waste is thus much higher than that of chemical fertilizer (Nakagawa et al.,
174	2015). For this reason, livestock waste is expected to be an important nitrate source in the study area. As
175	mentioned above, except for the sampling site (W-19) where denitrification occurred, the plotted results
176	are concentrated to an overlapping region of both chemical fertilizer and livestock waste sources. The site
177	W-19 shows at least 1.5 times the concentration for $HCO_3^-$ induced by denitrification processes as
178	compared to the other sites (Nakagawa et al., 2016). The samples with higher levels of coprostanol did
179	not display a relatively high isotopic constituent from livestock waste but instead showed a low isotopic
180	level. Samples with no detected coprostanol are located in the higher isotope area. Therefore, it is still

difficult to distinguish the contaminant source. Some samples classified into non-polluted groups 1-3

- 182 (lower nitrate and coprostanol levels) are also located in this overlapping region. These results indicate
- 183 that the source of nitrate in non-polluted groups are soil  $NH_4^+$  and/or septic waste sources because the
- 184 location of these groups corresponds to forested and urban area.
- 185
- 186 **4. 4. Relationship between**  $\delta^{15}$ N of nitrate and coprostanol
- As a further analysis, we plotted averaged coprostanol and  $\delta^{15}$ N in a scatter diagram (Fig. 5). 187 The classification of the groups and coprostanol levels are the same as in Fig. 4. As can be seen, also here 188 189no clear relationship can be observed. However, coprostanol concentrations can be used to divide the 190 polluted samples from the non-polluted group. This indicates that heavily polluted groundwater samples are related to livestock waste in the study area. Relatively high level coprostanol ( $\geq 30$  ng L<sup>-1</sup>) samples 191192correspond to the polluted sample group 4 (Nakagawa et al., 2016). These results correspond to the 193 potential nitrate load from livestock waste load (Nakagawa et al., 2015), which is much higher than that 194of chemical fertilizers, based on calculations from the Census of Agriculture and Forestry (Ministry of 195Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, Minister's Secretariat Statistics Bureau, 2012). 196
- **4. 5. Relationship between NO<sub>3</sub>-N and coprostanol**
- 198 According to the above, it appears difficult to identify nitrate sources using isotopes only. For

199	this reason, averaged nitrate and coprostanol concentrations were plotted in a scatter diagram (Fig. 6).
200	The four characteristic water quality groups according to Nakagawa et al. (2016) are also plotted in the
201	same diagram. As seen from the diagram, high coprostanol concentrations coincide with the polluted
202	group 4. However, also sampling locations with high NO <sub>3</sub> -N concentration (10 mg $L^{-1}$ ) and classified into
203	polluted group 4 include samples containing lower levels of coprostanol (<30 ng $L^{-1}$ ). Chemical
204	fertilizers are likely to be the predominant source of $NO_3^-$ for this lower level area. In recent sampling
205	campaigns, it was difficult to detect coprostanol in our study area. The predominant nitrate source may
206	therefore be shifting from livestock waste to chemical fertilizer. Some sampling sites that showed lower
207	levels of both coprostanol and $NO_3^-$ were located in the urban area, indicating that coprostanol originates
208	from septic waste (human excrement). In any case, coprostanol has a clear potential for source
209	identification of NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> pollution for nitrate-polluted samples. As indicated in the figure, most samples
210	containing lower level of coprostanol (<30 ng L <sup>-1</sup> ) drop below 10 mg L <sup>-1</sup> NO <sub>3</sub> -N concentration. Probably,
211	these samples do not contribute to the pollution. Therefore, we propose this value as a criteria of identify
212	predominant pollutant source. On the other hand, according to the distribution of sampling locations (Fig.
213	1), sampling points with a concentration below 70 ng L <sup>-1</sup> coprostanol appear to gather into a specific
214	location. This means that 70 ng L <sup>-1</sup> is another possibility for the criteria. In any case, the above suggested
215	criteria should be further elaborated on in future research.

### **5.** Conclusion

218	In this study, a methodology based on coprostanol concentrations was tested to identify the
219	source of nitrate pollution in groundwater. Using the method proposed by Kendall (1998), the data were
220	seen to be concentrated in an overlapping region of chemical fertilizer and livestock waste sources.
221	Therefore, it is difficult to distinguish pollution sources based on stable isotopes alone. To arrive at a
222	clearer picture, we plotted the relationship between coprostanol concentration and $\delta^{15}N$ . Also, in this case
223	it was difficult to discern clear relationships. The relationship between nitrate and coprostanol
224	concentrations displays a clearer picture. Higher concentration coprostanol samples (>30 ng $L^{-1}$ )
225	corresponded to the polluted sample group obtained from cluster analysis (Nakagawa et al., 2016).
226	However, this polluted-cluster also included samples containing low levels of coprostanol. Chemical
227	fertilizer is likely to be the predominant source of nitrate in these low coprostanol concentration samples
228	(Hosono et al., 2013). According to the above analysis, coprostanol has potential for source identification
229	of nitrate pollution. When pollution sources cannot be distinguished by conventional diagrams of isotopic
230	ratios proposed by Kendall (1998), coprostanol analysis may be a useful tool, even if results do not
231	correspond to the isotopic analysis. More feasibility studies are necessary to refine the use of coprostanol
232	as an identifier of nitrate source.

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- 301
- 302 Figure Captions
- 303 **Fig. 1** Location of sampling sites.
- 304 Fig. 2 NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration depending on sampling location; \*Shallow well, \*\*Deep well,
  305 \*\*\*Unknown well depth.
- 306 Fig. 3 Coprostanol concentration depending on sampling location. N. D. denotes not detected;

307 \*Shallow well, \*\*Deep well, \*\*\*Unknown well depth.

- 308 **Fig. 4** Relationship between  $\delta^{15}$ N nitrate and  $\delta^{18}$ O nitrate concentrations. The isotopic range 309 identifying the source was organized according to Kendall et al. (1998).
- 310 Fig. 5 Relationship between  $\delta^{15}N$  nitrate and coprostanol concentrations. The isotopic range
- 311 identifying the source was organized according to Kendall et al. (1998). Groups were organized
- 312 according to Nakagawa et al. (2016).
- 313 Fig. 6 Relationship between coprostanol and NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations. Groups were organized
- 314 according to Nakagawa et al. (2016).













