

# Three-dimensional hydrogeological reconstruction based on geological depositional model: A case study from the coastal plain of Arborea (Sardinia, Italy)



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## ABSTRACT

This study presents a novel approach for the hydrogeological assessment of sedimentary coastal aquifers. Specifically, the methodology is tailored for modeling groundwater flow and nitrates contamination in typical Mediterranean coastal plains with high anthropogenic pressures, as exemplified by the Arborea plain (central western Sardinia, Italy). The study started with development of an updated geological–depositional model based on sequential stratigraphy. Geological and geophysical data, processed in a geographic information system (GIS) environment, supported the definition of a 3D hydrogeological conceptual model and provided a solid basis for the interpretation of groundwater flow directions. The 3D hydrogeological model allowed constraining groundwater circulation, flow paths and distribution of nitrate concentrations in the aquifers. The methodology appears as a valid tool applicable in other coastal areas to determine geological and hydrogeological settings. The definition of a quantitative hydrogeological framework will support the effective management of local water resources.

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## 1. Introduction

The contamination by nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) of groundwater is becoming a ubiquitous problem. The World Health Organization has recommended a threshold of  $50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in drinking water (WHO, 2003), but groundwater concentrations in Europe commonly exceed this level in 22% of cultivated land (Sacco et al., 2007), and similar concentrations occur in arable areas of the USA (Canter, 1997). The concern about the potential pollution of groundwater because of increasing human pressure on the environment has led to the development of an extensive legal framework. Both the 91/676 and 2006/118 Directives, issued by European Commission respectively for the protection of waters from nitrates of agricultural origin and for the protection of groundwater against pollution and deterioration (Groundwater Directive – GWD), have been implemented in Italy. Nitrates Directive states that all areas of land which drain into waters exceeding the concentration of  $50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and which contribute to nitrate pollution must be designated as “Nitrate

Vulnerable Zones” (NVZs). In these areas, farmers are required to comply with specific measures directed to improve water quality. Although the Directive clearly states the criteria for identifying NVZs, the implementation of these criteria has varied from country to country. The designation of an NVZ must take into account all relevant physical and environmental factors (i.e. aquifer characteristics, flows and solute transport in the saturated zone, the behavior of nitrogen compounds in the environment and land use) that may influence the nitrogen dynamics.

Many NVZs worldwide are located in flat lands and in coastal areas where the intense agricultural activity, the high concentration of inhabitants and the seasonal population determine a significant water demand. In those areas, several environmental concerns may occur at the same time. Indeed, in farmed coastal zones the impacts on water resources include pollution due to nutrient and pesticide leaching and seawater intrusion into aquifers (Steinich et al., 1998; Zalidis et al., 2002; Ghiglieri et al., 2012). Groundwater management in coastal aquifers requires the elaboration of a local geological and hydrogeological conceptual model in order to understand the processes determining the quality of water, the hydrodynamic parameters and the productivity of aquifers.

During the last few years, techniques in 3D hydrogeological model reconstruction/visualization have been improved (Wu et al., 2005; Jones et al., 2009; Wycisk et al., 2009; Best and Lewis, 2010; Cox et al.,

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2013; Di Maio et al., 2014) by integrating different sets of data (e.g. geological, hydrogeological, geophysical). The 3D geological approach is routinely used in mineral deposits or hydrocarbon reservoir assessment (Jones et al., 2009). By contrast, for the hydrogeological studies and hydrogeochemical characterization of groundwater this approach is not yet routinely used (Raiber et al., 2012). Different methodologies to develop 3D geological models have been elaborated and tested (Lemon and Jones, 2003; Smirnov et al., 2008; Tremblay et al., 2010). However, currently there are no perfect methods or a comprehensive modeling approach for the reconstruction of sedimentary stratigraphic systems. According to the international literature, one of the main problems is the discontinuous spatial distribution of stratigraphical information, mainly due to the lack of borehole data that can lead to an inaccurate 3D geological conceptual model.

The geology in coastal areas is complex because of the large number of interacting terrestrial and marine processes. Groundwater flow and travel time depend on stratigraphic setting which controls boundary conditions of the aquifers (Edgington and Poeter, 2006). Moreover, in such environments sediment stacking (sand, gravel, clay) is typically repeated many times, allowing for a variety of possible correlations. Therefore, it is not straightforward to reconstruct a realistic geological model.

In order to correlate the sedimentary facies in a reliable and meaningful way, sequence stratigraphy, which describes succession through space and time in various depositional systems (Dalrymple and Choi, 2007), has been employed. For this purpose, the definition of the hydrogeological framework, obtained by integrating geological, stratigraphic and hydrogeological data, represented the basis for predicting groundwater circulation and pollutant diffusion (Di Salvo et al., 2012; Irace et al., 2010). The management of water resources is central to any attempt to conserve both water quality and quantity (Ghiglieri et al., 2009a,b).

The aim of the research was to develop a methodology suitable for sedimentary coastal aquifers for compiling quantitative hydrogeological information. The study was carried out within the framework of the interdisciplinary IDRISK (*Pollution risk and prevention of groundwater degradation*) and KNOW (implementing the Knowledge of Nitrogen in groundwater) Projects (<http://nrd.uniss.it>). It had the twin goal of elaborating a local hydrogeological conceptual model and defining the major groundwater flows, in order to predict the diffusion of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the aquifers.

To achieve these objectives, it was necessary to refine the depositional-geological model of the sedimentary basin underlying the Arborea plain (located on the West coast of Sardinia, Italy). The study then started with a geological characterization of the study area, based on a set of data arising from stratigraphic log wells and vertical electrical soundings (VESs). The data (stratigraphic, geological, hydrogeological and geochemical) were implemented in a Geographic Information System (GIS) and in a conceptual Data Base (DB). This DB was interfaced with several softwares e.g. Move (Midland Valley Exploration), to build a 3D hydrogeological model. A calibration and validation of the hydrogeological framework was obtained from measured  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in groundwater samples.

## 2. Description of the study area

The study area is located in the northern part of the Campidano plain (central-western Sardinia, Italy; Fig. 1a). It is limited to the north and to the east respectively by the volcanic complexes of Montiferru and Monte Arci, to the south by the Mogoro River, Marceddi and San Giovanni lagoons and by the sea of the Oristano Gulf to the west. The Tirso River, the most important river in Sardinia, crosses the northern part of the plain and flows in a SW direction towards the Oristano Gulf. The Arborea plain covers about 60 km<sup>2</sup> portion of the area, lying between the coast and the reclaimed Sassu lagoon (Fig. 1b). It was reclaimed during the 1920s for agricultural purposes and has been

used to produce irrigated crops ever since. It remains one of the most productive agricultural locations on the island, achieving a level of dairy productivity among the highest in Italy. Double cropping of silage maize and Italian ryegrass is practiced on more than 80% of the irrigated area, and the biomass is used to feed about 35,000 dairy cattle raised in intensive systems (Giola et al., 2012); the remaining land is used to grow lucerne and various horticultural crops (Foddìs et al., 2012).

### 2.1. Geological setting

Following the collision between the South European Plate and the Adria Plate during the early Miocene, Sardinia separated from the European continent during the Lower-Middle Miocene (Carmignani et al., 2001; Oggiano et al., 2009). During these major geodynamic events, several basins formed on the island, particularly on its western side. Volcano-sedimentary materials filled the basins aligned in a NNW–SSE direction and bounded by normal faults. During the Plio-Pleistocene, a new extensional phase associated with the South Tyrrhenian opening reactivated a series of NNW–SSE fault lines. Consequently the Campidano trough developed. The general subsidence associated with this extension, combined with climatic oscillations and regressive and transgressive marine variations, produced a landscape characterized by thick sedimentary layers of littoral-marine and fluvial-deltaic material. Seismic surveys and geological logs, conducted in the Campidano plain since the 1960s, provided information on the current state of the local stratigraphy and the geological structure at depth (Casula et al., 2001; Cocco et al., 2013). The Oristanese area is a half-graben bounded by faults arranged in N–S direction, which contributed to a deepening of the basin on its western edge, where the Sinis main fault lies. This structure, easily recognized in seismic cross-sections, was certainly active after the deposition of the basaltic-lava flows in early Pleistocene times (Cocco et al., 2013). In the Arborea plain, the sedimentary succession that fills the Campidano trough is up to 1000 m in thickness and overlies the Miocene volcano-sedimentary succession. During the Quaternary, the deposition of continental and coastal marine sediments related to the Quaternary glacioeustatic cycles affected the littoral and low-lying areas (Lecca and Carboni, 2007). Structural and morphological factors determined the thickness of these deposits, generally arranged in a highstand system geometry (Buttau et al., 2011).

## 3. Materials and methods

### 3.1. Stratigraphic analysis, geological cross sections and 3D hydrogeological model

Fig. 2 reports the conceptual workflow of the methodological approach. The stratigraphic analysis was based on a set of both surface and sub-surface observations.

The geological features of the study area were inferred by the official 1:25,000 map of Sardinia, available in digital form at [www.sardegnaeoportale.it](http://www.sardegnaeoportale.it). The stratigraphic data were gathered from 143 wells, provided by Sardinia Regional Agencies (ARPAS, LAORE) or available from previous projects (CASMEZ, 1976) and from unpublished work (Fig. 1b).

A set of 96 VESs (Casmèz, 1976) evenly distributed across the study area was an important source of additional data (Fig. 1b). The resulting apparent resistivity curves of each VES were interpreted by a computer program, based on the linear digital filtering method (Koefoed, 1972, 1979; O'Neill and Merrick, 1984). Current software packages based on this approach are able to cope with extreme apparent resistivity contrasts and to deal with a large number of layers. The association of a specific lithology with a given resistivity value took into account the stratigraphic log of wells located close to each VES.

A GIS database was populated with the position, elevation, depth, characterization of litho-stratigraphic layering and the top and bottom surface elevations for each well and VES. An ArcGIS tool (ArcGIS eXacto

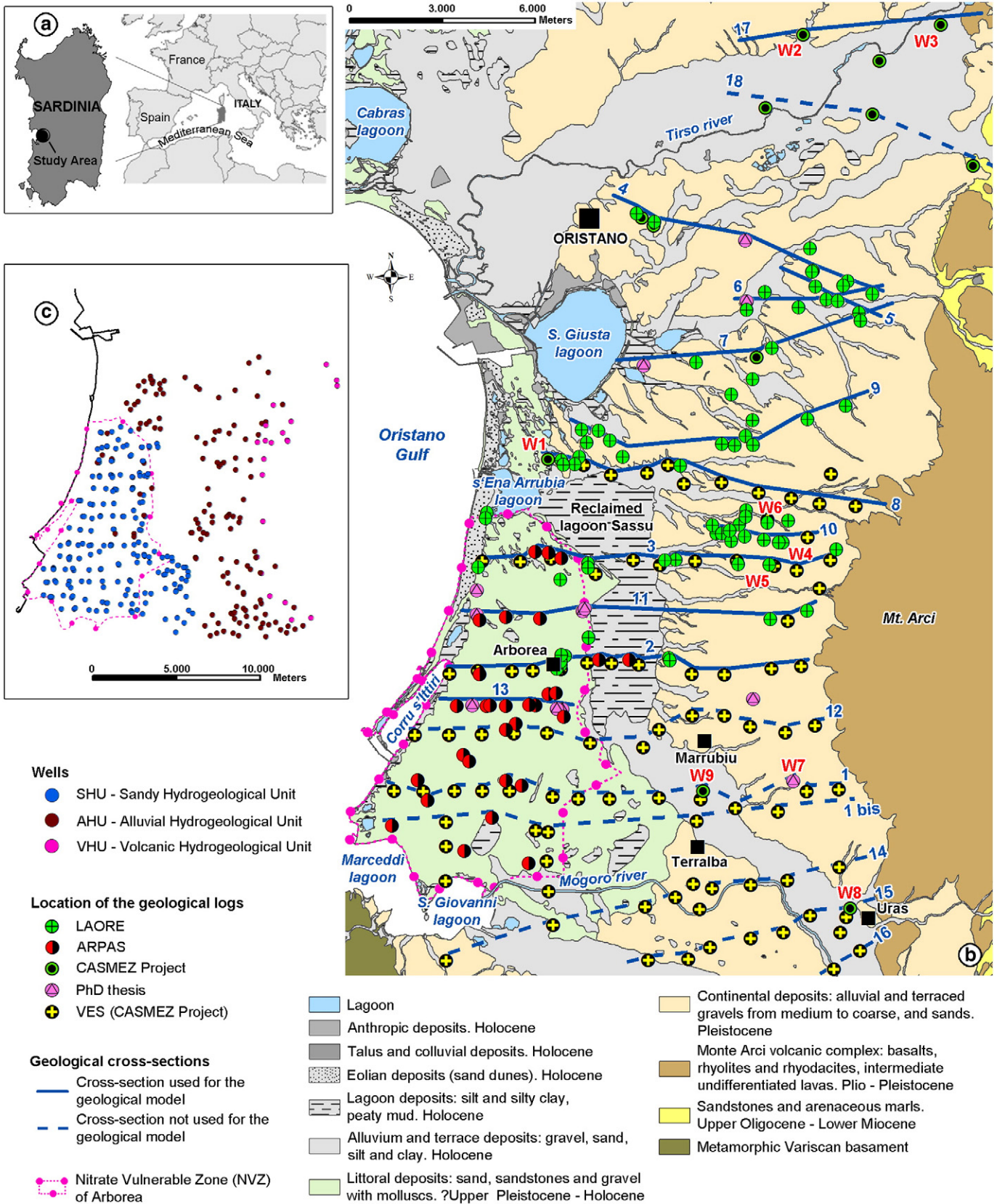


Fig. 1. Geographical map of the study area; b) geological cross-sections, stratigraphic log wells and VES locations; c) locations of wells for the hydrogeological survey.

Section v2.0), developed by the Illinois State Geological Survey, processed each geological cross-section, which was then finalized by a graphic software. The software package Move ([www.mve.com/](http://www.mve.com/)

software/move) was used to verify the three dimensional consistency of the geological model. As a first step, several geological sections were elaborated. Based on the number of stratigraphic logs and VESs

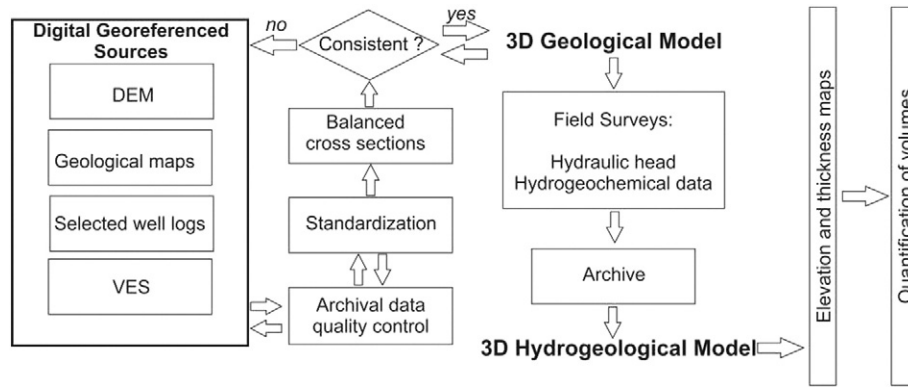


Fig. 2. Flowchart for methodology of 3D hydrogeological model building.

available for their validation, twelve sections were considered of good quality and used for the reconstruction of the geological model (Fig. 1b).

According to the conceptual hydrogeological model described below (Section 4.2), the 3D hydrogeological model identified three main surfaces. These surfaces matched the base of the Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU), the top of the Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU) and the base of the Sandy Hydrogeological Unit (SHU).

Every surface was modeled by interpolation of the contour lines (depths) drawn taking into account the geological cross-sections, the well data and the interpreted VES data. To the south of the Sassu lagoon, where the reconstruction of the geological cross-sections was not possible due to the small number of stratigraphic logs available, the contour lines were drawn based on the surface geology and following the trend of the contour lines modeled in the northern sector of the Arborea plain.

### 3.2. Hydrogeological and geochemical data

Two field surveys were carried out during 2011. In the first one, 354 wells were investigated between March and May (Fig. 1c). At each well, elevation and geographical coordinates (using a differential global positioning system), constructive and technical data of each well and piezometric level were acquired. Groundwater electrical conductivity, pH and temperature were analyzed in situ, using a portable multiparameter probe (WTW pH-cond 340i). During the second survey, carried out in September 2011, measures of piezometric level, pH, electrical conductivity and temperature were repeated. Groundwater were also collected from the well pump outflow for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  analysis, and stored under cool conditions in 100 mL polyethylene bottles until assayed using an ion-selective electrode mounted on an ORION 5 STAR device. For each water point, the data were inserted into a digital database and GIS, using ArcGIS v10.0.

## 4. Results

Table 1 reports the list of the more representative geological logs (wells) employed to reconstruct the geological sections.

On the basis of stratigraphic log interpretation, Quaternary succession is represented by an alternation of generally loose fine and coarse sand, with occasional and discontinuous layers of clay. In some wells (W2 through W7), the Quaternary sequences overlie a basement of volcanic rocks belonging to the Plio-Pleistocene Monte Arci complex (Fig. 1b). At the margin of the basin, the thickness of the sedimentary succession varies from 40 m (W7) to 132 m (W6). The wells in the central part of the plain were drilled to a depth of 200 m, but did not reach the volcanic basement. Only W1 (1800 m) completely penetrated the Plio-Quaternary sedimentary succession (Pomesano-Cherchi, 1971), reaching the underlying volcanic rock at a depth of 304 m. The inference is that the basin deepens progressively from east to west.

The sediments identified in the wells and outcrops in the Arborea and Oristano plains belong to established classes of Quaternary deposits, namely:

- alluvial sediments, formed by sand with some silt and clay, which give way quickly (especially in the Tirso River area) to medium to coarse gravel, more or less clayey (Holocene);
- lagoonal deposits, consisting of silt and clay (Holocene);

Table 1

Stratigraphic log wells and VES resistivity logs used to construct the geological model.

ID_COD	Denomination	Location	Data source	Elevation	Depth
W1	OR_1	Sassu	CASMEZ	4	1802.0
W2	P3 casmez	Solarussa	CASMEZ	10	32.0
W3	P4 casmez	Ollastra Simaxis	CASMEZ	9	98.0
W4	P2 217 III NE	Marrubiu	LAORE	42	186.5
W5	P3 217 III NE	Marrubiu	LAORE	39	176.5
W6	P4 217 III NE	Marrubiu	LAORE	30	190.0
W7	GC78	Terralba	PhD Thesis	33	96.0
W8	P7 casmez	Uras	CASMEZ	16	82.0
W9	P22 casmez	Marrubiu	CASMEZ	7	96.0
W10	P3 217 III NO	Arborea	LAORE	2	30.0
W11	F1	Capo della Frasca	VES	2	64.0
W12	F2	Capo della Frasca	VES	6	758.0
W13	P20	Strada 27 ovest (Arborea)	ARPAS	6	7.4
W15	G14	Arborea	VES	5	260.0
W16	P26	Strada 26 est. (Arborea)	ARPAS	4	16.5
W17	P37 217 III NE	Arborea	LAORE	5	50.0
W18	P26 217 III NE	Arborea	LAORE	4	35.8
W19	G16	Arborea	VES	1	189.0
W20	G17	Arborea	VES	2	376.0
W21	P41 217 III NE	Arborea	LAORE	5	50.0
W22	P36 217 III NE	Arborea	LAORE	8	200.0
W23	G18	Arborea	VES	12	509.0
W24	G19	Arborea	VES	24	605.0
W25	P8 217 III NE	Marrubiu	LAORE	24	143.0
W26	G20	Arborea	VES	42	186.0
W27	G21	Arborea	VES	55	551.0
W28	G23	Arborea	VES	93	231.0
W29	P16 217 III NE	Santa Giusta	LAORE	4	86.0
W30	P19 217 III NE	Santa Giusta	LAORE	4	0.0
W31	P17 217 III NE	Santa Giusta	LAORE	1	140.0
W32	G1	Arborea	VES	2	197.0
W33	G2	Arborea	VES	-1	773.0
W34	G3	Arborea	VES	1	73.0
W36	P27 217 III NE	Santa Giusta	LAORE	11	100.0
W37	G6	Arborea	VES	14	159.0
W38	G7	Arborea	VES	25	742.0
W39	G8	Arborea	VES	39	60.0
W40	G9	Arborea	VES	48	779.0
W41	G11	Arborea	VES	74	330.0

Elevation is in m a.s.l.; depth is in m.

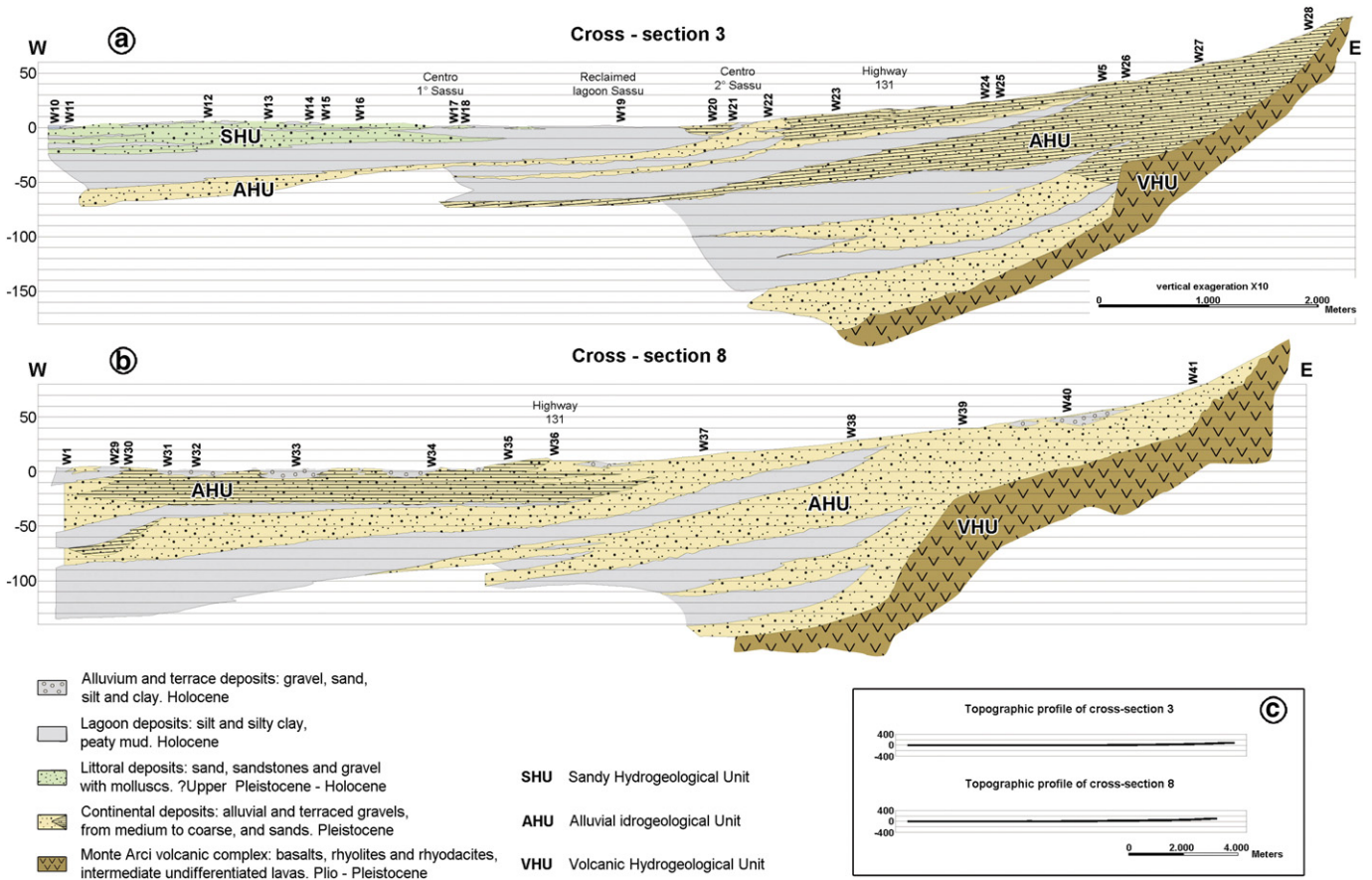


Fig. 3. Geological cross-sections: a) cross-section #3; b) cross-section #8; c) topographic profiles of the cross-sections.

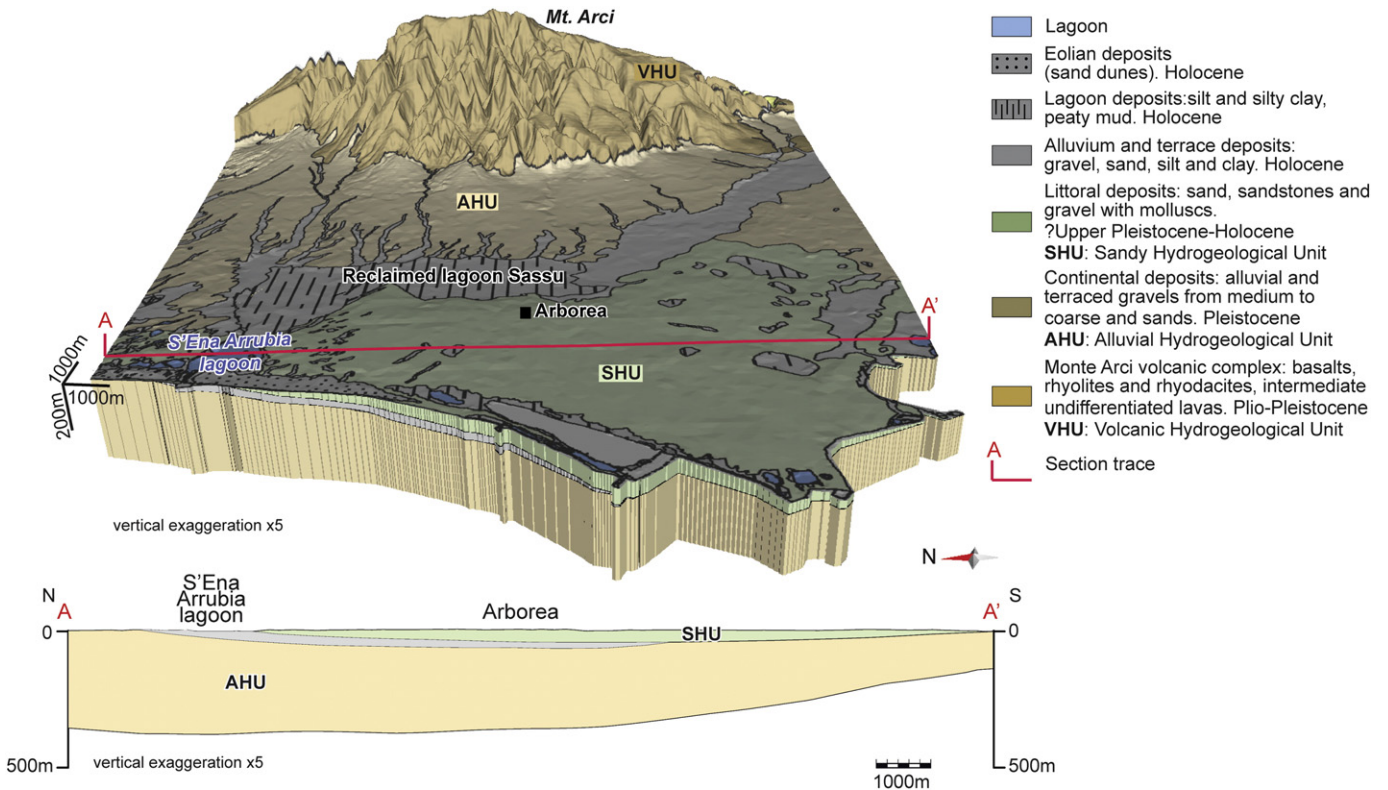


Fig. 4. 3D hydrogeological model.



Table 2 (continued)

ID	HU	Depth	Piez. head	NO <sub>3</sub>	ID	HU	Depth	Piez. head	NO <sub>3</sub>	ID	HU	Depth	Piez. head	NO <sub>3</sub>	ID	HU	Depth	Piez. head	NO <sub>3</sub>
P237	AHU	n.a.	n.a.	5.16	P277	AHU	12.00	n.a.	n.a.	P317	SHU	8.00	2.41	<b>75.50</b>	P357	SHU	7.00	1.20*	<b>123.50</b>
P238	SHU	4.00	0.65*	<b>118.00</b>	P278	AHU	10.00	7.29	<b>151.00</b>	P318	SHU	10.00	2.74	<b>87.00</b>	P358	SHU	4.00	n.a.	n.a.
P239	SHU	9.00	0.29	5.14	P279	AHU	25.00	n.a.	n.a.	P319	AHU	11.00	4.91*	10.70	P359	SHU	5.00	3.48	12.50
P240	AHU	4.00	-1.08	38.20	P280	AHU	9.00	7.63	<b>102.00</b>	P320	AHU	8.00	5.32	12.00	P360	AHU	8.00	5.29	<b>72.10</b>
P241	AHU	60.00	9.03*	15.30	P281	SHU	16.00	3.31*	<b>84.00</b>	P321	AHU	8.00	4.45	<b>73.00</b>	P361	AHU	56.00	3.08*	38.50
P242	AHU	5.00	21.63*	34.80	P282	SHU	12.00	-0.91	<b>184.50</b>	P322	AHU	8.00	1.67	19.00	P362	AHU	10.00	5.58*	28.50
P243	AHU	8.00	n.a.	n.a.	P283	SHU	20.00	3.54*	<b>200.00</b>	P323	AHU	5.00	0.70	<b>52.30</b>	P363	AHU	8.00	n.a.	<b>58.70</b>
P244	AHU	30.00	8.59*	31.80	P284	SHU	12.00	1.58*	37.40	P324	AHU	50.00	-2.10*	<b>191.50</b>	P364	AHU	8.00	n.a.	n.a.
P245	AHU	11.00	16.09*	3.37	P285	SHU	30.00	-0.33*	<b>77.30</b>	P325	AHU	4.00	-0.02	<b>66.00</b>	P365	AHU	5.00	18.19	16.90
P246	AHU	23.00	6.12*	20.10	P286	AHU	50.00	-16.69*	12.50	P326	AHU	8.00	1.87	<b>119.50</b>	P366	AHU	30.00	14.71*	<b>59.60</b>
P247	SHU	5.00	2.76	<b>116.00</b>	P287	AHU	40.00	1.48*	<b>77.80</b>	P327	AHU	9.00	3.18	<b>74.10</b>	P367	AHU	15.00	7.67*	<b>72.50</b>
P248	SHU	35.00	0.42*	<b>126.00</b>	P288	AHU	33.00	2.34*	28.20	P328	AHU	10.00	2.30	14.00	P368	AHU	15.00	n.a.	20.00
P249	AHU	35.00	-0.66	49.55	P289	AHU	5.00	0.77	<b>263.50</b>	P329	AHU	70.00	n.a.	3.55					
P250	AHU	65.00	-1.07	9.39	P290	AHU	8.00	0.57	<b>65.40</b>	P330	AHU	9.00	6.27	13.85					

Hydrogeological units (HU): Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU). Sandy Hydrogeological Unit (SHU). VHU (Volcanic Hydrogeological Unit); depth is in m; Piezometric head (Piez. head) is in m a.s.l.; nitrate concentration (NO<sub>3</sub>) is in mg L<sup>-1</sup> NO<sub>3</sub>. In bold the NO<sub>3</sub> concentrations more than 50 mg L<sup>-1</sup> NO<sub>3</sub> (threshold value); n.a.: not available.

\* dynamic groundwater level

- littoral sediments formed largely by sand and gravel, with some lagoonal silt (Holocene);
- Pleistocene continental deposits, consisting of gravel, with some aeolian sand and alluvial material (Upper Pleistocene).

#### 4.1. Depositional model

In the southern part of the study area (cross-section #3, Fig. 3a), five depositional sequences were recognized. These comprise a typical aggradational stacking produced by a retrogradational step: the base of the sequences consists of an erosional surface covered by terraced alluvial gravels, changing to silty and clayey deposits of lagoonal facies, then sandy deposits of shore face facies, rich in mollusk fossils. These sequences reflect sedimentation in a barrier island–lagoon depositional environment, where eustatic rises have been separated by surface erosion during the subsequent regression phase. During lowstand phases, the base level dropped, so that the deepening river eroded parts of the sediments deposited during the highstand phase, leaving as evidence an erosion surface. The most recent eustatic rise produced the current barrier island–lagoon situation, comprising:

- a sand bar associated with a dune system, represented by the littoral sediments in the Arborea plain;
- a protected lagoon consisting of alluvial clay and loam deposits, represented by the Santa Giusta lagoon in the North and the reclaimed Sassu lagoon in the South;
- an alluvial plain comprising continental deposits and many streams, extending from the Sassu pond eastwards to the Monte Arci volcanic massif.

In the northern part of the Arborea plain, the sedimentary system is complicated by the interference with long-term sediments originating from Tirso River conoids. As is visible in cross-section #8 (Fig. 3b), a system of sand–gravel and discontinuous clay lenses, derived from the Tirso River, is interposed with Pleistocene continental deposits. During the highstand phases, fluvial processes have prevailed in this area. This activity gave rise to a number of sand–gravel bars, and the stream course migrated within the alluvial plain to form a meander. During low water phases, the stream deposited finer sediments as silt and clays, while transporting coarser materials along its bed. Finally, as obtained also with the lowstand phase, the base level dropped, producing the current pattern of deep erosion and channel–straightening. In section, this appears as an irregular stacking of sand–gravel layers in the form of scroll-bars and migrating stream beds, interposed with clay lenses due to the sedimentation of finer materials. Section reconstruction

was not possible in the southern portion of the Arborea plain close to the Sassu lagoon, due to the small number of stratigraphic logs available to properly calibrate the VES resistivity logs. However, surface data and characteristics of the two wells present (W8 and W9) (Fig. 1b; Table 1) were consistent with a model similar to the one obtained for the northern area. Fluvial conoids, interposed with Pleistocene continental deposits, replaced the lagoonal clays, as well as outcrops in the Sassu lagoon. The direction of continental deposition probably proceeded from west to east. A heteropic contact of facies between littoral sands and continental deposits proceeding from west to east can be assumed. The analysis of the current depositional environment in the Arborea plain suggests a wave-dominated barrier island–lagoon system. The presence of a sand barrier island protected the coastal lagoon in the rear, where the finer sediments carried by streams have been deposited. This is a typical highstand sedimentary model, which results in an increase of accommodation in a coastal plain.

Projecting this model into the recent past assumes that the migration of the system environments was in a direction orthogonal to the current coastline. Provided that the vertical changes in the facies profile correspond through the time at the recording of their longitudinal succession, the expectation is that during a eustatic rise, lagoonal clays would have been overlapped continental alluvial deposits, and in turn littoral sands would have overlapped lagoonal clays. Conversely during a eustatic fall, the coastal plain sediments would have become eroded. The erosion could have affected the lagoonal clays and even the underlying alluvial sediments, which constitute the base of the sedimentary sequence. As a consequence, many of the sequences were reduced to a succession of alluvial sediments at the bottom and lagoonal clays at the top. A highly significant and well understood aspect of this class of depositional model is that the same lithology cannot be deposited simultaneously throughout the depositional profile. As a result, the time line does not coincide with the lithological contacts. Thus, similar sandy bodies observed in two distinct geological logs could not have been deposited during the same period.

#### 4.2. The conceptual hydrogeological model

The conceptual hydrogeological model was built on the base of the geological–depositional system. The hydraulic head survey and the hydrogeological parameters inferred from the stratigraphic well logs and from the literature (i.e. permeability, saturated thickness, specific yield) allow to transform the geological information in hydrogeological features. Three Hydrogeological Units (HU) were identified:

- 1) *Sandy Hydrogeological Unit (SHU)*. This unit is represented by a phreatic aquifer hosted in the Holocene littoral sands, cropping out in the Arborea plain and deposited during the most recent marine

transgression. Discontinuous clay lenses of lagoonal origin, which gave rise to perched aquifers (Fig. 3a), characterize the aquifer; therefore, it can be considered locally confined. The aquifer has good porous permeability, with a K value ranging between  $10^{-5}$  and  $10^{-6} \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (Soddu and Barrocu, 2006). Its geometry has been faithfully reconstructed for the part of the plain lying between the s'Ena Arrubia lagoon to the north, the reclaimed Sassu lagoon to

the east and the sea. The aquifer is bounded at its base by a layer of lagoonal clays which reach the surface at ponds (i.e. Sassu Lagoon) lying at an altitude close to 0 m a.s.l., and extend into the sea down to a depth of about 25 m below sea level (Fig. 3a). The thickness of this impermeable boundary is consistently between 25 and 30 m. The sands, which host the aquifer, are 20–25 m deep; depth decreases in an easterly direction to reach zero depth at the lagoons.

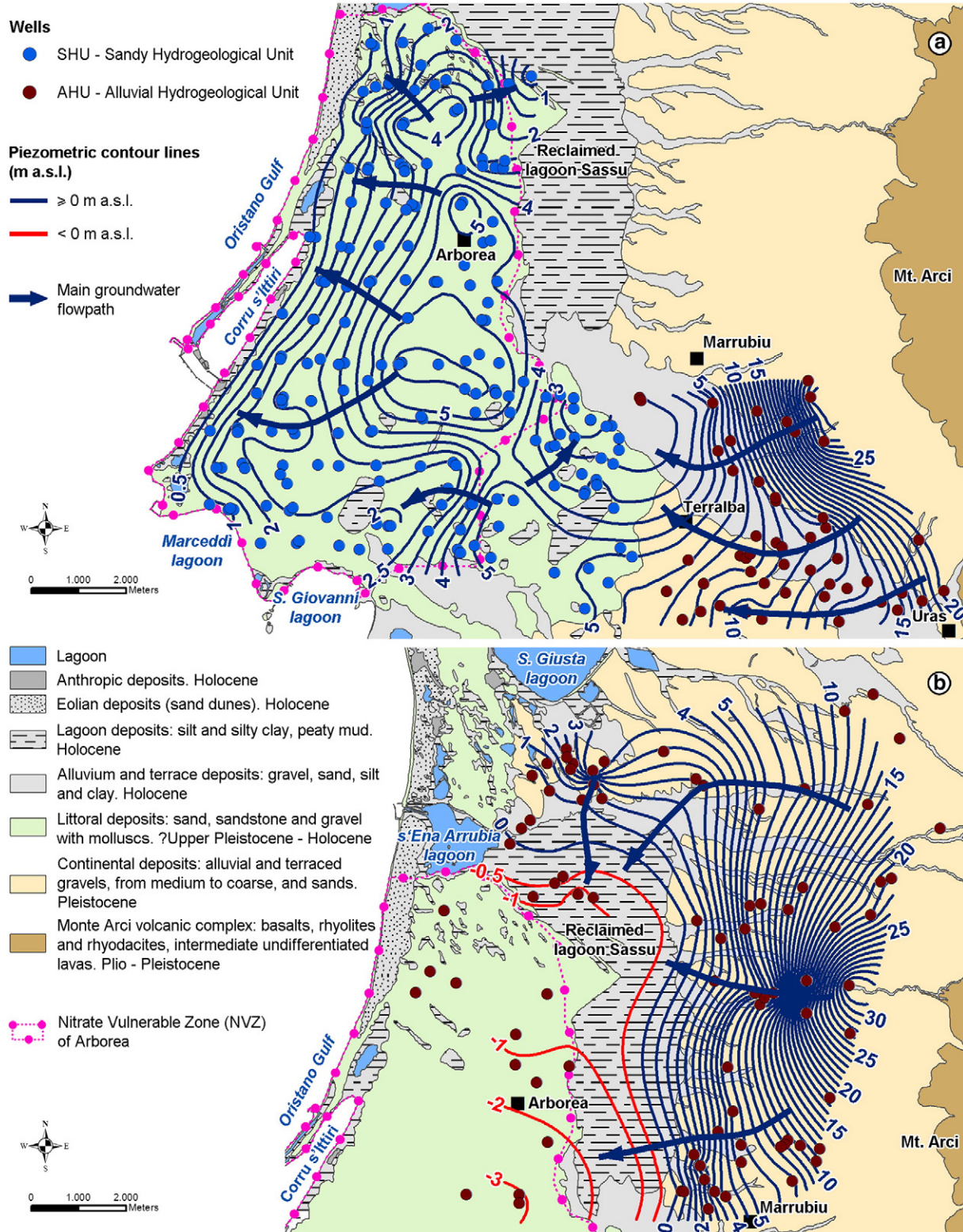


Fig. 5. Piezometric contour lines and main groundwater flow directions in a) the SHU phreatic aquifer; b) the AHU multi-layer aquifer.



Due to the few data available, the aquifer geometry in the southern section of the Arborea plain was reconstructed by the means of the geological–depositional model, which suggested the lack of impermeable boundary (the lagoonal clays) delimiting the bottom of the sandy aquifer. Thus the Holocene sands remain in direct contact with the Pleistocene continental deposits. However, at present it is not possible to determine the depth at which this contact occurs. The implication is that, in this part of the plain, the sandy and alluvial aquifers are in hydraulic communication one to each other.

- 2) *Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU)*. The Pleistocene continental deposits host a multi-layer aquifer. It consists of gravels with some sands or clayey sand outcrops throughout the area surrounding the Arborea plain up to Monte Arci. The maximum thickness of the aquifer can be deduced from the stratigraphic log of well W1 (Pala et al., 1982), which indicates that the depth of the volcanic basement is 300 m below the Quaternary succession. The alluvial aquifer is confined in the Arborea plain because it is bounded at its top by the clay layer, which separates it from the sandy aquifer (SHU). Lagoonal clays represent the impermeable layers, which characterize each depositional sequence (Fig. 3b). In this area, the upper impermeable boundary lies within the range 40–60 m below sea level. Since only a few wells were drilled to a sufficient depth, the aquifer is underexploited (Fig. 3a). This hydrogeological unit also includes good permeability ( $K = 10^{-4}$ – $10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) gravelly-sand formations, deposited by fluvial action and intercalated within the continental deposits. The permeability decreases in the sand-clay layers.
- 3) *Volcanic Hydrogeological Unit (VHU)*. The aquifer hosted in the volcanic formations cropping out at Monte Arci (Plio-Pleistocene) is composed of basalt, rhyolite and rhyodacite, and shows secondary permeability. The volcanic basement drops rapidly in a westward direction, reaching a sufficient depth to escape access from any well in the plain. As a result, the aquifer is exploited only along a strip of about 2 km from Monte Arci.

Fig. 4 shows the 3D hydrogeological model. This model corroborates the hypothesis that in the southern sector of the Arborea plain the impermeable boundary between the Sandy Hydrogeological Unit (SHU) and the Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU) is not present, and that the two aquifers are here hydraulically connected. In fact, as shown in the 3D model, the impermeable layer thins out southward, eventually disappearing completely, so that the base of the Sandy Hydrogeological Unit (SHU) coincides with the top of the Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU).

The volumes of the hydrogeological units have been computed, yielding these results:

- Sandy Hydrogeological Unit (SHU): 1,835,000,000 m<sup>3</sup>,
- Confined Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU): 14,633,000,000 m<sup>3</sup>,
- Not confined Alluvial Hydrogeological Unit (AHU): 55,095,000,000 m<sup>3</sup>,

#### 4.3. Groundwater circulation and flow paths

The region shows a typical Mediterranean climate, with a mean annual rainfall of 600 mm and a mean annual temperature of 15.7 °C (Lai et al., 2012). Aquifer recharge normally occurs from October to December and from February to April. Groundwater flows were reconstructed on the basis of the piezometric data acquired during the first survey (Table 2) creating a contour line map with groundwater flow directions for aquifers SHU and AHU (Fig. 5a and b). According to the geological and the hydrogeological model, hydraulic communication between the two aquifers under the area to the south of the Sassu lagoon was assumed. Therefore, the piezometric data were considered together for the reconstruction of the piezometric surface in this area (Fig. 5a). In the southern part of the study area, the piezometric contour lines

**Table 3**

Summary statistics of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations for samples collected in the Arborea plain.

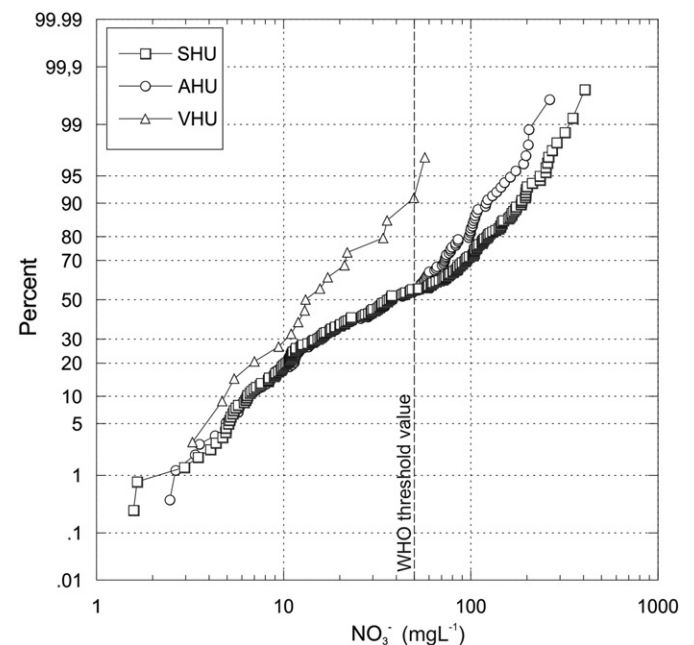
	All samples	AHU	SHU	VHU
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> mg/L				
n	333	126	190	17
Min	1.58	2.47	1.58	3.24
Max	406	263.5	406	56.5
Median	34.8	37.5	36.1	13.0
Mean	62.0	54.5	70.7	19.4
Stand. dev	67.6	51.8	77.2	15.7
Variance	4570	2682	5955	245
25 prcntil	11.6	12.2	11.4	8.2
75 prcntil	93.5	78.1	105.5	27.9
Skewness	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.3
Kurtosis	3.7	2.2	2.6	0.9
Geom. mean	32.9	32.4	35.9	14.4

indicate a general flow from east to west, with a gradient which decreases in this direction showing an increase of the transmissivity. The flow paths suggest a lateral recharge from AHU to SHU.

In the central part of the study area (within the Arborea NVZ), the piezometric surface indicates a zenithal local recharge area for the aquifer hosted in the littoral sands (SHU), with its flow path directed towards the sea. The piezometric contour lines and flow paths related to AHU in the central to northern part of the study area are shown in Fig. 5b. Here, the piezometric surface suggests a general flow direction from east to west, with the exception of the northern sector of the plain, where the direction is more north to south. Around the Sassu lagoon and in the Arborea plain, the piezometric values fall to 3 m below sea level.

#### 4.4. Groundwater NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration

The results of the analytical survey of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations are reported in Table 2. The NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration ranged between 1.58 and 406 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Table 3 reports the summary statistics of nitrates in the identified hydrogeological units. The SHU and AHU waters showed a similar median value, whereas VHU samples showed a lower median concentration (13 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). In this unit, the 95 percentile of the



**Fig. 6.** Cumulate distribution function plot for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations in the SHU, AHU and VHU; WHO threshold value of 50 mgL<sup>-1</sup> is shown.

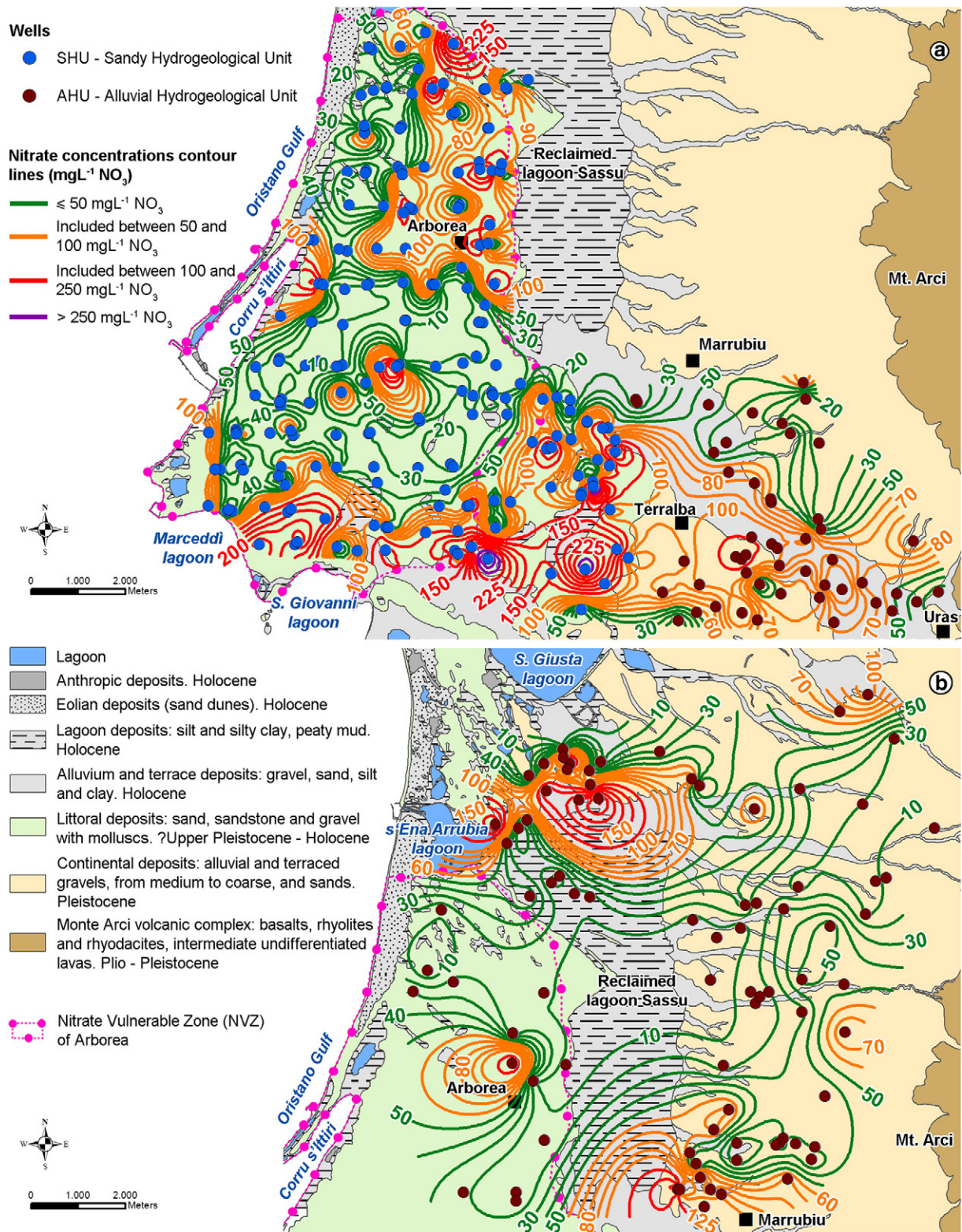


Fig. 7.  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration contour lines in a) the SHU phreatic aquifer; b) the AHU multi-layer aquifer.

population has  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration lower than the WHO threshold value of  $50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (Fig. 6). By contrast almost the 50% of SHU and AHU waters exceeded the  $50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ; the maximum value of  $406 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  was observed in SHU samples.

Concentration contour lines ( $\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{NO}_3$ ) in SHU and AHU are respectively reported in Fig. 7a and b. To reconstruct the distribution of

$\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in the two aquifers, a similar approach as for the assessment of the groundwater circulation was applied.

In the southern part of the study area, the concentrations were almost uniformly above  $50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (Fig. 7a). An increasing trend from east to west in the direction of the main groundwater flow prevailed, highlighting a pollution source located outside the Arborea NVZ.

Contributions from  $\text{NO}_3^-$  sources located within the southern part of the NVZ directly affect SHU. A second highly polluted area was identified in the NE sector of the NVZ. In this zone, the recharge of SHU is local, and there is no contribution from AHU outside of the NVZ. Therefore high  $\text{NO}_3^-$  value derived from the local anthropogenic activities. In the central portion of the NVZ, sub-threshold concentrations were more common, with some exceptions. The distribution of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in AHU is shown in Fig. 7b. This hydrogeological unit is confined below the shallower SHU inside the NVZ, whereas it crops out outside (Figs. 3a, 3 and 4). In this area high concentrations of nitrates were also found, in particular to the north and south-east of the Sassu lagoon. Thus, high concentration of nitrate in the confined AHU may occur both due to improperly installed wells which cause the cross contamination between the two aquifers, and due to solute transport processes from the contaminated recharge areas outside the NVZ.

## 5. Discussion and conclusions

In this paper a simple but robust methodology to deal with a 3D hydrogeological model of sedimentary coastal aquifers has been elaborated and tested. Sequence stratigraphy, which describes succession through space and time in various depositional systems, has been employed to correlate the sedimentary facies in a reliable and meaningful way.

The analysis of sedimentary processes and depositional environments allowed to properly correlate existing stratigraphic and geophysical data. A similar approach, also employed in reservoir geology and oil prospecting, was successfully applied in similar context in Mediterranean coastal area (Aunay et al., 2006). It allows reconstructing the geometries of the aquifers, which are impossible to define only through the simple correlation between layers identified in the stratigraphic logs. The proposed depositional model of the northern part of the Campidano plain represents an improvement in the state of geological and hydrogeological knowledge regarding the Plio-Quaternary sedimentary succession. The derived hydrogeological conceptual model improves and completes that described by Barroccu et al. (1995, 2004) and Soddu and Barroccu (2006).

These results provide a solid basis for the discrimination of recharge and discharge areas, the groundwater flow directions and the interconnection between aquifers. The two identified sedimentary aquifers (SHU phreatic and AHU-multi layer) were interpreted as separated from each other by a layer of lagoonal clays in the north-central part of the Arborea plain, but hydraulically connected in the southern part of the study area. A preliminary assessment of levels of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  pollution in the groundwater showed that much of the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  originates from a part of the plain located outside the Arborea NVZ. Available results show that nitrate pollution in the Arborea area can be attributed mainly to animal manure and secondary to synthetic fertilizers (Pittalis et al., 2014). This finding raises questions regarding the delimitation of the NVZ, which should be enlarged with respect to the monitoring and control activities carried out by the local authorities. Water samples with relatively low nitrate concentrations might be related to denitrification processes (Otero et al., 2009), rather than suggesting a lack of contamination, since land use in this sector is similar to that practiced in other parts of the NVZ. Combining the use of sulfate, boron and nitrogen isotope, Pittalis et al. (2014) observed the occurrence of denitrification and sulfate reduction processes affecting the SHU groundwater of Arborea area both in samples with low and high nitrate concentration. A more detailed study on the hydrogeochemical features of groundwater coupled with isotope techniques and environmental tracers is currently under way to better understand the processes affecting  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in groundwater.

Built on a good sedimentary model, hydrogeological knowledge must be supplemented by long-time series observation (e.g. hydraulic head, hydrochemistry, and isotope). For future prospects, methodology

used in this case could also be applicable to a certain extent to other coastal sedimentary basin.

Finally, the outcomes of the present analyses have provided a firm basis for more detailed studies targeted at groundwater flow modeling, at the identification of recharge areas, and at the characterization of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  pollution mechanisms in the groundwater. Future research activity should seek to identify the various sources of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  contamination through more detailed hydrogeochemical and isotope studies.

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