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Multi-scale nitrate transport in a sandstone aquifer system under intensive agriculture

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19 **ABSTRACT**

20 Nitrate transport in heterogeneous bedrock aquifers is influenced by mechanisms that operate at
21 different spatial and temporal scales. To understand these mechanisms in a fractured sandstone
22 aquifer with high porosity, a groundwater-flow and nitrate transport model – reproducing multiple
23 hydraulic and chemical targets – was developed to explain the actual nitrate contamination
24 observed in groundwater and surface water in a study area on Prince Edward Island, Canada.
25 Simulations show that nitrate is leached to the aquifer year-round, with 61% coming from
26 untransformed and transformed organic sources originating from fertilizers and manure. This
27 nitrate reaches the more permeable shallow aquifer through fractures in weathered sandstone that
28 represent only 1% of the total porosity (17%). Some of the nitrate reaches the underlying aquifer,
29 which is less active in terms of groundwater flow, but most of it is drained to the main river. The
30 river water quality is controlled by the nitrate input from the shallow aquifer. Groundwater in the
31 underlying aquifer, which has long residence times, is also largely influenced by the diffusion of
32 nitrate in the porous sandstone matrix. Consequently, following a change of fertilizer application
33 practices, water quality in domestic wells and the river would change rapidly due to the level of
34 nitrate found in fractures, but a lag time of up to 20 years would be necessary to reach a steady
35 level due to diffusion. This demonstrates the importance of understanding nitrate transport
36 mechanisms when designing effective agricultural and water management plans to improve water
37 quality.

38

39

40 **1 Introduction**

41 Worldwide, the need to meet increasing food production demand is pushing the agriculture
42 industry to use increasing amounts of nitrogen-enriched fertilizers. Under such circumstances, one
43 of the most important environmental challenges is to prevent nitrate from contaminating
44 groundwater, which is the safest source of drinking water for many rural communities (WHO,
45 2007). From an agronomic perspective, the protection of groundwater involves minimizing excess
46 nitrogen (N) in the root zone to reduce the risks of nitrate transformation to N and nitrate leaching
47 to the aquifer (Keeney and Follett, 1991). This protection is generally implemented through best
48 management practices (BMP), aiming at changing agricultural practices to limit the contamination
49 risks to water in sensitive receivers (e.g., rivers, aquifers). The success of such BMPs depends
50 essentially on the kind of local agricultural methods (e.g., crops grown, crop rotation and fertilizer
51 application) that define the amount of N available to leaching; and site-specific physical factors
52 (e.g., climate, soil and geology) that control the transport of pollutants from the fields to the
53 sensitive receivers. Then, understanding the factors controlling nitrate transformation and transport
54 in their local contexts is essential to the design of effective BMPs (Laurent and Ruelland, 2011).

55
56 Several experimental studies at the plot scale have investigated the sensitivity of various
57 parameters (e.g., climate, soil, crops, farming practices) on the efficiency of BMPs aimed at
58 reducing nitrate leaching (e.g., Blombäck et al., 2003; Beaudoin et al., 2005; Constantin et al.,
59 2010). In these studies, parameters are varied and the amount of nitrate leached below the root
60 zone is monitored and modelled to assess the impact in term of groundwater nitrate contamination.
61 The transferability of small-scale results at watershed scale is however rather limited. Distributed
62 physically-based hydrological models are thus commonly used for a more comprehensive

63 understanding of nitrate contamination at the watershed scale (e.g., [Vaché et al., 2002](#); [Hattermann](#)
64 [et al., 2005](#); [Bracmort et al., 2006](#); [Rode et al., 2009](#)). The representation of aquifers in hydrological
65 models is generally over-simplified, with flow and transport processes modelled through simple
66 transfer functions, which for complex aquifer systems may not be adequate to simulate the spatial
67 and temporal distribution of nitrate contamination in groundwater and its transport to downstream
68 surface-water receivers. For this key task, understanding aquifer dynamics, especially groundwater
69 residence times, is crucial to support agricultural and water management plans, given that the
70 contamination intensity and time needed for water quality to change as a result of BMPs both
71 depend to a great extent on hydrogeological characteristics. Therefore, many researchers have
72 taken into account the dynamics of aquifers using numerical groundwater models (e.g., [Lunn et al.,](#)
73 [1996](#); [Vinten and Dunn, 2001](#); [Molénat et al., 2002](#); [Wriedt and Rode, 2006](#); [Dimitriou et al., 2010](#);
74 [Paradis et al., 2016](#)). Numerical modeling of groundwater flow and nitrate transport in aquifers
75 can provide quantitative insight into water quality sustainability as long as model parameters (e.g.,
76 hydraulic property values and structures) and inputs (e.g., groundwater recharge, nitrate flux) are
77 reasonably well established ([Michael and Voss 2009](#)). Estimation of model parameters and inputs
78 can be difficult, notably for large aquifers with limited data. To narrow the range of model
79 uncertainties, model calibration with multiple data sets is generally proposed, with each data set
80 providing different and complementary constraints on the aquifer model (e.g., [Kim et al., 1999](#)).

81
82 In this paper, the control exerted by the dynamics of a sandstone aquifer on groundwater
83 contamination by nitrate, in a watershed with intensive agriculture, is examined using a
84 groundwater flow and nitrate transport model. The heterogeneous and dual-porosity nature of the
85 aquifer revealed by field and laboratory data were expected to influence water quality, but the

86 magnitude and trends of the contamination still remained unknown. To address this shortcoming,
87 the nitrate transport mechanisms within the aquifer were inferred from the groundwater flow and
88 nitrate transport model using calibrated aquifer parameters on the basis of various types of
89 monitoring data, such as water levels, nitrate concentrations in groundwater and surface water, and
90 nitrate isotopic values ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) in groundwater. Using this model, the study objectives are
91 thus to: (i) better understand the dynamics of nitrate input and leaching through the unsaturated
92 zone into the groundwater saturated system, (ii) reproduce the historical evolution in time and
93 space of nitrate contamination in groundwater, and (iii) assess the potential future evolution of
94 nitrate contamination considering scenarios of nitrate leaching to the aquifer associated with
95 different agro-economic contexts.

96 **2 General methodology**

97 **2.1 Study area**

98 The Wilmot watershed is located in west central Prince Edward Island (PEI), Canada ([Figure 1](#)).
99 The Wilmot River drains an area of about 87 km² and flows southwesterly to Bedeque Bay with
100 watershed dimensions of approximately 17 km long by 5 km wide ([Table 1](#)). Half of the river is
101 tidally influenced and its elevation ranges from sea level in the tidal area, to 90 m in the headwater
102 area. Streamflow data for the Wilmot River collected above the tidally influenced area show a
103 mean annual discharge of 0.92 m³/s (Station 01CB004 in [Figure 1](#); 1972-1999) and a mean
104 monthly discharge ranging from 0.45 m³/s in September to 1.88 m³/s in April, during the spring
105 freshet ([Table 1](#)). The climate of the island is humid-continental, with long, fairly cold winters and
106 warm summers. Mean annual precipitation is 1078 mm (Station Summerside A in [Figure 1](#); 1971

107 to 2000), most of which falls as rain (75%) (Table 2). The mean annual temperature is 5.1°C and
108 monthly mean temperatures range from -8.6°C in January to 18.4°C in July (Table 2).

109

110 The Wilmot watershed area is almost entirely covered by glacial material defined as permeable
111 unconsolidated sandy tills, a few centimeters to several meters thick (Prest, 1973). That layer is
112 underlain mostly (80-85%) by fine to medium-grained fractured sandstone, with some siltstone
113 and claystone forming isolated lenses (Van de Poll, 1983). The sandstone is a fractured porous
114 medium characterized by a well-developed network of fractures and a high porosity matrix (17%
115 on average for sandstone according to Francis, 1989). Groundwater is the only source of fresh
116 water on PEI and most of the drinking water comes from domestic wells withdrawing groundwater
117 from the sandstone aquifer. The water table of this unconfined aquifer is mostly shallow, which
118 results in an unsaturated zone of only a few meters. Analysis of groundwater levels and river stages
119 also suggests that the Wilmot River receives an important amount of groundwater from the
120 sandstone aquifer most of the year.

121

122 The Wilmot watershed is predominantly rural with less than 10% of its surface dedicated to
123 residential uses and agricultural activities covering as much as 76% of the watershed (Figure 1 and
124 Table 1). Potato production is the most important agricultural activity in the watershed. Almost
125 80% of the agriculture is involved in a potato crop rotation with grain and hay for forage. At the
126 time of the field study, a summary of agricultural practices showed that since 2002, 33% of
127 cropland was in a two-year crop rotation, 33% was in a three-year crop rotation (1 y grain, 1 y hay,
128 1 y potato) and 33% was in a two-in-five-year rotation (AAT, 2006). In many areas of the PEI,
129 and in particular in the Wilmot watershed, nitrate concentrations in drinking water coming from

130 groundwater sources exceed background levels and, in some cases, the [Health Canada \(2004\)](#)
131 recommended maximum concentration of 10 mg/L ($N-NO_3$) for drinking water ([Somers, 1998](#);
132 [Somers et al., 1999](#)). In addition to being a concern for drinking water quality, excessive nitrate
133 levels contribute to eutrophication of surface waters, especially in estuarine environments ([Somers](#)
134 [et al., 1999](#)). Several studies that have documented the nitrate problem in PEI groundwater suggest
135 that elevated nitrate levels are often associated with agricultural activities, especially the use of
136 fertilizers for row crop production ([Somers, 1992](#); [Somers, 1998](#); [Somers et al., 1999](#); [Young et](#)
137 [al., 2003](#); [Benson et al., 2006](#); [Savard and Somers, 2007](#); [Paradis et al., 2016](#)). Furthermore, the
138 census of agriculture for PEI has shown that agricultural activities had increased by more than
139 15% over 25 years from approximately 1980, mainly due to an increase by 80% of potato acreage
140 ([AAFC, 2004](#)), which may explain the historical trend toward increasing nitrate levels noted in
141 surface water and groundwater ([Somers et al., 1999](#)). Thus, a comprehensive understanding of the
142 nitrate problem is needed to propose effective solutions tailored to the specific context of PEI:
143 vulnerable aquifer, total dependence on groundwater, strong relationship of rivers to groundwater,
144 and widespread agricultural activities having a vital economic role.

145

146 [Figure 1](#)

147 [Table 1](#)

148 [Table 2](#)

149 **2.2 Hydrogeological characteristics of the Wilmot aquifer**

150 The sandstone aquifer in the Wilmot Watershed is both fractured and porous, which leads to
151 drastically different ranges of values for total porosity (n), effective porosity, and specific yield S_y

152 (the drainable part of “effective” porosity). Fractures control the hydraulic conductivity and
153 groundwater flow whereas the low hydraulic conductivity of the porous sandstone matrix does not
154 allow significant flow. The effective porosity through which flow occurs will thus correspond to
155 the low fracture porosity. However, the significant (non-effective) porosity of the matrix
156 contributes to groundwater storage and impacts mass transport, as mass transported with
157 groundwater flow in the fractures (such as nitrates) will diffuse in the porous matrix (Pankow and
158 Cherry, 1996). On the contrary, fractures only account for a small proportion of the n of the aquifer,
159 so the matrix porosity of the sandstone can be considered almost equivalent to the n of the aquifer.
160 However, the low hydraulic conductivity and large capillary retention capacity of the sandstone
161 matrix implies that the matrix will not drain when the water table fluctuates seasonally during
162 recharge periods. Drainage and infiltration near the water table will rather occur almost exclusively
163 in fractures, who will thus control the S_y (drainage of effective porosity) of the aquifer. The S_y of
164 the aquifer will thus be quite low, corresponding to only part of the porosity of fractures, the porous
165 matrix remaining saturated.

166

167 For the purpose of this study, a numerical groundwater flow and mass transport model was
168 developed using FEFLOW, a proven simulator using finite elements (Diersch, 2004). To support
169 the numerical model development, field work was carried out to evaluate the hydrogeological
170 characteristics of the aquifer. The hydrogeological properties were mainly determined using three
171 sets of three nested piezometers installed along a transverse section through the watershed
172 (monitoring sites WIL-1, WIL-2 and WIL-3 are shown in [Figure 1](#)). The piezometers reach depths
173 between 1 and 85 m below the water table. Before boreholes were converted to piezometers,
174 profiles of horizontal hydraulic conductivity (K_h), hydraulic heads, nitrate concentrations and

175 groundwater ages were obtained at WIL-2 and WIL-3 by isolating discrete intervals of the open
176 boreholes with a dual-packer system straddling a 6 m screen. Within each interval, static water
177 levels were recorded, slug tests were carried out to estimate K_h and groundwater samples were
178 collected with a submersible pump. Results of this field work and comparison with previous
179 analyses in the study area form the conceptual model of the Wilmot aquifer as briefly described
180 below.

181
182 Firstly, the hydraulic head and K_h profiles for boreholes WIL-2 and WIL-3, shown in [Figure 2](#),
183 indicate that the sandstone aquifer comprises a high flow (HF) and a low flow (LF) interval. The
184 HF interval ranges from the water table to a depth of 18 to 36 m, whereas the LF interval extends
185 below the HF interval. K_h in the HF interval is relatively higher than in the LF interval with average
186 values for the tested wells of $1.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and $3.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$, respectively. The higher K_h for the
187 HF interval is likely the result of more important weathering processes and less overburden
188 pressure resulting in increased fracture aperture and frequency. Similar profiles were obtained by
189 [Francis \(1989\)](#) in the Winter River watershed of PEI, which is about 50 km from the Wilmot
190 watershed. Also, the vertical hydraulic conductivity (K_v), estimated from K_h profiles using the
191 geometric mean of K_h (e.g., [Freeze and Cherry, 1979](#)), shows a moderate K_v/K_h ratio (K anisotropy)
192 that varies by 1 to 2 orders of magnitude due to alternating high and low K_h layers. However, slug
193 testing over a 6 m long screen may not capture all the vertical K_h variability and these ratios should
194 be considered as minimum values for the purpose of calibrating the numerical model (e.g., [Paradis
195 and Lefebvre, 2013](#)). In addition, K_h estimates from 23 slug tests in the sandstone aquifer range
196 from 9×10^{-7} to $4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ while those obtained with a laboratory Bernaix type permeameter on
197 undisturbed (without fractures) cores range from 1×10^{-8} to $5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ for sandstone and as low

198 as $5 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ for mudstone (Francis, 1989). Comparison between field and laboratory estimates
199 suggests thus that fractures play an important role in the bulk rock permeability. Cores reveal that
200 horizontal bedding of the sandstone forms the main fracture network above 35 m depth with 82%
201 of all fractures (Francis, 1989). At a larger scale, the weathered HF interval generally provides a
202 typical porous media response to pumping, which suggests a relative homogeneity of the
203 distribution and interconnection of the fractures.

204

205 Secondly, n measurements on undisturbed cores by Francis (1989) show values averaging 17% for
206 the sandstone aquifer. The comparison of the low K_h values for undisturbed cores representing
207 sandstone matrix relative to the much higher values for fractured sandstone suggests that the
208 contribution of the porous matrix to groundwater flow is insignificant. Accordingly, the S_y of the
209 sandstone can be attributed entirely to the fractures that are the only part of the fractured porous
210 medium that seasonally drain. While storage of nitrate in the matrix is possible through advection
211 with dissolved nitrate in the water, diffusion of nitrate between the fractures and the matrix is also
212 likely to occur. Use of the analytical solution of Mutch and Scott (1993), which takes into account
213 diffusion from the fractures to the matrix, reveals that 70% of the sandstone matrix contains nitrate
214 after only 2 to 3 years of contact with nitrate in fractures, and the matrix is full after 10 years. This
215 estimate is based on an average distance between fractures of 0.25 m and an effective diffusion
216 coefficient of $9.8 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ based on the Millington and Quirk (1961) relationship for a
217 temperature of 5 °C. Thus, there is a relatively rapid transfer of nitrate from fractures to the
218 sandstone matrix through diffusion. Then, the sandstone aquifer represents a double porosity
219 system with permeable fractures providing groundwater flow paths and the low-permeability
220 porous matrix providing storage capacity for nitrate through diffusion.

221
222 Thirdly, analysis of groundwater level and precipitation records reveals that the lag time between
223 water table fluctuations resulting from infiltrated precipitation through the unsaturated zone is only
224 a few days (Paradis et al., 2006). This rapid infiltration is due to the large drainage capacity of the
225 soil (<2 m in thickness), mostly composed of loamy sand with 50-65% of sand, and the high
226 permeability of the heavily weathered sandstone (<7 m of unsaturated thickness). Thus, it is
227 expected that much of the nitrate dissolved in water is reaching the water table by advection, and
228 a very low proportion of this nitrate is stored by diffusion in the soil residual water and sandstone
229 matrix. This is also supported by the preservation of seasonally distinct nitrate oxygen isotope
230 characteristics in the groundwater of the Wilmot aquifer (Savard et al., 2007). On the other hand,
231 the piezometric map of the sandstone aquifer shows that the water table follows the topographic
232 relief, with the Wilmot River acting as a groundwater discharge zone (Paradis et al., 2006). This
233 map, based on 243 domestic wells with an average saturated depth of 19 m, is thought to be
234 representative of the HF interval. Also, analysis of streamflow records of the Wilmot River using
235 the hydrograph separation method of Furey and Gupta (2001) shows that the groundwater
236 contribution to the river (baseflow) accounts for 63% of the mean annual streamflow, and that
237 baseflow may be the only source of water to the river during dry summer periods. Moreover,
238 seasonal sampling of water for nitrate, carried out over a period of two years (2003-2005) in
239 domestic wells (107 samples) and in the Wilmot River (17 samples), shows similar average nitrate
240 concentration as well as water and nitrate isotopic properties (Savard et al., 2010). These
241 observations indicate a strong hydraulic connection between the aquifer and the river.

242

243 Finally, analyses on groundwater samples in the HF interval at WIL-3 indicate the presence of
244 tritium (enriched tritium analysis method), which is an indication of the presence of young
245 groundwater recharged less than 50 years ago. Also, hydrogen and oxygen isotopes for
246 groundwater sampled in domestic wells open to the HF interval fall on or near the meteoric water
247 line for the region, indicating that groundwater is likely derived entirely from modern local
248 precipitation (Liao et al., 2005). In the LF interval, no tritium is observed but corrected carbon-14
249 (^{14}C) analyses (of dissolved inorganic carbon) for carbonates dissolution (e.g., Clark and Fritz,
250 1997) provide groundwater age between 2 000 and 3 000 years at depths between 50 and 85 m
251 below the water table. Thus, besides hydraulic data, there is strong isotopic evidence for an aquifer
252 system having two intervals (HF and LF) with significantly different magnitudes of groundwater
253 flow. Also, as nitrate denitrification is unlikely to occur in the aquifer due to the prevailing
254 oxidizing conditions and that no natural geological sources of nitrate are known, nitrate
255 concentration in groundwater is mainly controlled by groundwater recharge leaching to the aquifer
256 the available mass of nitrate in the soil.

257 **2.3 Nitrate sources in groundwater from isotopes**

258 Nitrate $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses were carried out by Savard et al. (2007) to quantify the relative
259 proportions of the different nitrate sources present in groundwater throughout a year. Total nitrate
260 concentration and isotope ratios in groundwater were obtained over the entire watershed from 16
261 domestic wells sampled between June 2003 and May 2005 for 8 consecutive seasons (Figure 1).
262 To derive the proportions of nitrate sources, a geochemical mixing model using the average
263 seasonal nitrate isotope values was developed. Results of this analysis provide the following
264 indications (Figure 3):

265

266 • Total nitrate concentrations ranged from undetected to 14.6 mg/L, with an average of 6.9
267 mg L⁻¹ and a standard-deviation of 4.6 mg L⁻¹ for the 2-year period. The high variability of
268 nitrate concentrations between wells, without a spatial trend, is controlled by variations in
269 land use, field conditions and well locations and installations. However, seasonal average
270 nitrate concentration shows a narrow range of variation between 5.5 mg L⁻¹, in the spring
271 time of the 1st year, to 8.1 mg L⁻¹, in the summer of the 2nd year.

272 • Although seasonal total nitrate concentration remains fairly steady, there is seasonal
273 variability in the proportions of the three nitrate sources making up this concentration:
274 chemical fertilizers and manure have higher proportions during summer (respectively
275 about 50% and 20%), whereas soil organic matter (SOM) is the main source of nitrate in
276 winter and spring. Note that the three nitrate sources represent 95% of the total nitrate
277 concentration; the remaining 5% coming from assumed constant direct atmospheric
278 deposition.

279

280 From an agronomic standpoint, high proportions of chemical fertilizers in summer and fall agree
281 with a unique late spring to mid-summer application at the start of growing seasons ([Somers et al.,](#)
282 [2007](#)). For manure, this single high proportion season is in contradiction with the two known
283 periods of application, one in late spring or early summer and one in the fall. The proportion from
284 soil organic matter is above 30% all year. This suggests that bacterial nitrification occurs before
285 nitrate leaching, even in winter, such as suggested by [Savard et al. \(2010\)](#) for the study area and
286 further discussed in [Section *Groundwater nitrate transfer to river and distribution within the*](#)
287 [aquifer](#).

288

289 [Figure 3](#)

290 **2.4 Description of the numerical models**

291 For this study, the dynamics of the Wilmot watershed aquifer was modelled using the numerical
292 simulator FEFLOW. FEFLOW is a physically-based computer program for simulating
293 groundwater flow and mass transfer in porous media and fractured media ([Diersch, 2004](#)). The
294 program uses the finite elements numerical method to solve the three-dimensional groundwater
295 flow equation of both saturated and unsaturated conditions as well as mass transport. FEFLOW's
296 validity has been checked for a wide range of problems and geological contexts (e.g., [Cui et al.,](#)
297 [2010; 2012](#)). This simulator has been selected for this research because it can also simulate non-
298 point source nitrate contamination using inputs of groundwater recharge and nitrate flux reaching
299 the aquifer.

300 **2.4.1 Model discretization, hydraulic parameters and boundary conditions**

301 For this study, two complementary numerical models were developed. First, a deep model
302 encompassing all the intervals of the Wilmot aquifer was developed to assess the long-term effects
303 of nitrate transport mechanisms on nitrate distribution and future evolution within the system. This
304 model was also used to reconstruct historical nitrate flux. Then, a shallower version of this model
305 with only the uppermost section of the HF interval was used to identify the main nitrate transport
306 mechanisms over shorter time frames through simulation of modified nitrate source inputs. This
307 model also provided insights about seasonal nitrate transformation.

308

309 The deep model was divided into three main zones according to the previous conceptual model
310 (Table 3). First, the HF interval is characterized by higher K_h , especially in its uppermost part, with
311 a strong decrease in values with depth. These changes in hydraulic conductivities with depth are
312 meant to reflect an inferred decrease in fracturing with increasing depth. This zone was then
313 subdivided into four layers to better represent this vertical trend in K_h . The thickness of each layer
314 was fixed (5 to 10 m), except for the first layer whose thickness was allowed to adapt to the position
315 of the water table. Then, the shallow LF interval, which is a less active interval than the HF interval
316 with lower K_h , was subdivided in two layers of 25 and 50 m, respectively. Finally, the deep LF
317 interval, which is the very deep aquifer interval with quasi-static groundwater due to the very low
318 K_h , was subdivided in two layers of 100 m each. Considering the very rapid infiltration of water
319 and dissolved nitrate through the unsaturated soil and weathered sandstone, the unsaturated zone
320 was not explicitly represented in the model. However, unconfined conditions were simulated for
321 the top layer using the movable mesh feature available in FEFLOW. This technique represents the
322 elevation of the water table surface by vertically moving the specified top layers of the numerical
323 grid so that the top surface of the grid is exactly positioned at the water table elevation. To use this
324 movable mesh feature of FEFLOW, S_y values have to be specified for the layers that are allowed
325 to move in order to represent their associated drainage. The resulting three-dimensional numerical
326 grid contained 72,088 six-node triangular elements with an average area of 11,114 m² (≈ 150 m x
327 150 m).

328

329 The K_h values for the first five layers were initially estimated from field testing, whereas values
330 for layers 6 to 8 were based on literature (Domenico and Schwartz, 1998) and from permeability
331 tests on undisturbed rock cores. Hydraulic conductivity anisotropy (K_v/K_h) for each model layer

332 was mainly based on the K_h profiles and the fracture analysis of Francis (1989). As conceptualized,
333 the top of the HF interval (layer 1) and the deep LF interval (layers 7 and 8) can be considered
334 isotropic (K_v/K_h close to 1). The former is due to the highly fractured conditions of the sandstone,
335 while the latter is due to the absence of fractures in unaltered sandstone. The bottom of the HF
336 interval and the shallow LF interval (layers 3 and 6) have the highest anisotropy (lower K_v/K_h) due
337 to the presence of scattered fractures. Those values of K_h and K_v/K_h were then further adjusted
338 during the calibration (Table 3).

339
340 For all simulations, an equivalent porous medium was assumed using different storage properties
341 according to the conditions and scales (temporal and spatial) considered for transient flow and
342 transport simulations in FEFLOW. Since fractures were not explicitly modeled, it implies that an
343 instantaneous diffusion of nitrate between the actual fractures and matrix of the aquifer is assumed.
344 This assumption is justified by the facts that the matrix does not contribute significantly to
345 groundwater flow, and also by the rapid transfer of nitrate from the fractures to the matrix by
346 diffusion (see Section *Hydrogeological characteristics of the Wilmot aquifer*). For the modelling
347 of scenarios representing long-term nitrate leaching and transport at the watershed scale (see
348 Section *Calibration of local-scale seasonal fluxes from nitrate sources*), a fixed n value of 17%
349 corresponding to laboratory measurements of the sandstone matrix was used for all layers to
350 simulate long-term transient nitrate transport as nitrate is present in the entire porous medium.
351 Note that S_y was not specified for those simulations because although transport is transient, it was
352 assumed to occur under steady-state groundwater flow conditions. For the simulation of the
353 seasonal sources of nitrate at the local scale with transient conditions for both flow and transport
354 (see Section *Simulation of flux from nitrate sources*) both S_y and n were defined through

355 calibration. In this case the rapid infiltration of nitrate is inferred to take place mostly through
356 fractures so the values of S_y and n are those of the fracture network. Note that no attempt was made
357 to calibrate specific storage values of deep layers as this parameter was not sensitive to the
358 calibration targets used.

359

360 Boundary conditions used for the model were no-flow and constant head conditions. First, because
361 the groundwater divides of the piezometric map of the sandstone aquifer coincide with the
362 watershed limits (Paradis et al., 2006), the outer boundaries of all layers of the model were imposed
363 as no-flow conditions at locations corresponding to the watershed limits (Figure 1). Also, the main
364 stem of the Wilmot River, including the Bedeque Bay outlet, were set as constant head boundaries
365 with values corresponding to the elevations of the surface water courses. Heads were thus imposed
366 in layer 1 for the Wilmot River, and in layers 1 and 2 for the Bedeque Bay. Imposing constant
367 heads that way is meant to represent the hydraulic connection between the river and the aquifer.

368

369 To reduce the computational burden related of the transient simulations, a modified version of the
370 deep numerical model was used, which represents only the uppermost part of the aquifer
371 corresponding to the thickness of the aquifer penetrated by domestic wells. The same areal mesh
372 size was used for both models. The trend in K with depth for the modeled sub-domain was further
373 refined to better simulate the observed vertical trend in isotopic ratios (Table 4). Finally, as the
374 diffusion processes occurring between the fractures and the sandstone matrix are not necessarily
375 at equilibrium at the time scale considered for the simulations, the fraction of n that plays a role in
376 the nitrate isotopic signatures was adjusted during the calibration process along with the form
377 (magnitude and timing) of each nitrate source flux.

378 [Table 3](#)

379 [Table 4](#)

380 **2.4.2 Groundwater recharge**

381 Recharge is the process by which groundwater is replenished by the infiltration of precipitation
382 that reaches the aquifer. Groundwater recharge used as input for the deep model was obtained from
383 [Paradis et al. \(2016\)](#) that computed daily values with the physically-based quasi two-dimensional
384 infiltration model HELP ([Schroeder et al., 1994](#)) for all of PEI at a 0.25 km² spatial resolution. In
385 this previous study, recharge estimates from HELP were calibrated against baseflow for the major
386 rivers assuming that baseflow is an approximation for the average groundwater recharge over the
387 entire watershed ([Risser et al., 2005](#)). Using weather data, HELP can simulate daily movement of
388 water in the soil and accounts for surface storage, snowmelt, runoff, infiltration,
389 evapotranspiration, vegetative growth, soil-moisture and lateral subsurface drainage. Specifically,
390 annual groundwater recharge values simulated with HELP for the Wilmot watershed are
391 comparable to baseflow values estimated from the analysis of the streamflow components (direct
392 precipitation, runoff, baseflow) of the Wilmot River ($r=0.69$ for the 1972-1999 period). Details
393 about HELP and its application for PEI can be found in [Paradis et al. \(2016\)](#).

394

395 To simulate scenarios of nitrate flux leaching to groundwater with the deep model (see [Section](#)
396 [Calibration of local-scale seasonal fluxes from nitrate sources](#)), the average recharge value of 410
397 mm y⁻¹ obtained by [Paradis et al. \(2016\)](#) for the 1972-1999 period was used, given the fact that no
398 long-term trends were observed in annual recharge values and mean annual water table levels for
399 the available observation period. For the detailed simulation of the nitrate sources with the shallow
400 model (see [Section Simulation of flux from nitrate sources](#)), daily recharge was used for the 2-year

401 period corresponding to the groundwater sampling period (from June 1, 2003, through May 31,
402 2005). Over a year, spring is usually the main recharge period, but here the end of fall also brings
403 a significant amount of water. For these two years of sampling, annual recharge was respectively
404 316 mm y⁻¹ and 237 mm y⁻¹, which is below the historic average value of 410 mm y⁻¹. For the two
405 models, the recharge was applied uniformly over the watershed, given the relative homogeneity of
406 the land use, vegetation, terrain slope, soil type and precipitation. Note that groundwater recharge
407 estimated with HELP was not modified during calibration because of its fairly good correlation
408 with independent estimates of groundwater recharge (baseflow).

409 **2.4.3 Nitrogen available for leaching to groundwater**

410 To reproduce the recent trend in increasing nitrate concentration observed in water ([Somers et al.,](#)
411 [1999](#)) with the deep numerical model, the historical nitrate flux leaching to groundwater needs to
412 be estimated. Since no record of this flux is available for the Wilmot watershed, the mass of N
413 available for leaching to groundwater is used as an index of potential groundwater contamination
414 by nitrate. The N available to leaching is water soluble inorganic N (ammonium and nitrate) spread
415 over agriculture lands, and can leach through the soil to reach groundwater ([De Jong et al., 2008](#)).
416 To reconstruct a representative historical record of nitrate loadings for the watershed, the study
417 used all available information and even some values or trends available in a nearby watershed, as
418 described as follows ([Table 5](#) and [Figure 5](#)):

419

- 420 • The 2000-2005 period: The estimate of the 2000-2005 period mass of N available for
421 leaching was based on the agronomic mass balance made by [Somers et al. \(2007\)](#) for the
422 Wilmot watershed. The calculation uses the quantities, timing and cropping practices
423 associated with various N sources for the main crops throughout the entire watershed. The

424 mass balance takes into account three major N sources: chemical fertilizers, manure and
425 vegetal crop residues (including N fixed by legume plants and direct atmospheric
426 deposition). The agronomic model also provides an estimate of the N available for leaching
427 based on the portion of nitrate input that is harvested. The 2000-2005 period mass of N
428 available for leaching was then estimated at 313,000 kg yr⁻¹ for the watershed.

429 • The 1980-2000 period: The second estimation of N available for leaching is based on the
430 Census of Agriculture for crop areas ([AAFC, 2004](#)). It was shown that the cultivated potato
431 area for PEI was approximately 25,000 hectares in 1981 which increased to almost 45,000
432 hectares in 1996. Estimating an increase proportional to the PEI potato crop area for the
433 Wilmot watershed, it was assumed that the mass of N available for leaching would have
434 gone from approximately 190,000 kg yr⁻¹ in 1981 to 313,000 kg yr⁻¹ in 2000.

435 • The pre-1965 period: The world-wide introduction of chemical fertilizers as a means to
436 increase agricultural production occurred in 1955 ([Galloway and Cowling, 2002](#)). In PEI,
437 it is known from local producers that such fertilizer application practices were introduced
438 around 1965. This information allows estimation of the third historical period related to the
439 pre-1965 agricultural practices. For that period, the authors estimated the mass of nitrate
440 leaching (instead of N available) to groundwater from a steady-state groundwater flow and
441 nitrate transport simulation that represents the background nitrate concentration in the
442 Wilmot River. This concentration was assumed to be less than 2 mg L⁻¹, which is based on
443 the nitrate concentration measured in the Dunk River for the same period. The Dunk River
444 is adjacent to the Wilmot River and shows similar hydrogeological and land use
445 characteristics. The mass of nitrate leaching to groundwater modelled for that period was
446 thus 41,400 kg yr⁻¹.

447 • The 1965-1980 period: Finally, since no relevant piece of information is available for that
448 period, the mass of N available for leaching was linearly interpolated between 1965 and
449 1980 to reflect the gradual intensification of agriculture and chemical fertilizer use during
450 the 1970s.

451
452 This reconstructed historical record was used as a first approximation of the mass of nitrate
453 leaching to groundwater with the deep numerical model, and it was further adjusted during
454 calibration with nitrate concentration measured in surface water (see [Section Calibration of](#)
455 [hydraulic properties](#)).

456
457 [Table 5](#)

458 **2.5 Model calibration**

459 Large uncertainties are generally associated with hydraulic parameters and inputs of numerical
460 flow and transport models because of the incomplete knowledge on the flow system, which is
461 complex in terms of geology and physical processes. Model calibration and sensitivity analysis are
462 thus required to identify the most representative model parameters and inputs, based on the
463 comparison of model outputs with field observations of hydraulic heads, solute concentrations and
464 mass fluxes (water and solute) in the aquifer ([Anderson et al., 2015](#)). The problem of equi-finality
465 associated with the calibration of a model having a large number of parameters was mitigated by
466 constraining parameter values within physically plausible ranges, based on the context of the study
467 area or reported field values. Also, a multi-objectives calibration approach was adopted, using five
468 independent data sets to constrain as much as possible the range of model parameter values.

469 2.5.1 Calibration of model parameters

470 Calibration of the two numerical models involved the use of hydraulic heads measured in domestic
471 wells, groundwater ages derived from isotopic analysis, and baseflow recessions for the Wilmot
472 River observed during low-flow periods. Calibration of the deep model involved the following
473 steps:

474

- 475 • *Static hydraulic heads*: Using steady-state groundwater flow conditions, the hydraulic
476 conductivities used in the numerical model were adjusted by comparing the simulated
477 water table elevation to hydraulic heads measured in 243 domestic wells. Those wells are
478 open boreholes in the sandstone aquifer. The average length of the open sections is 19 m
479 (with a standard deviation of 14 m) and thus measured heads approximately represent the
480 average head for the first two layers of the numerical model. Also, given the non-
481 uniqueness in the paired hydraulic conductivity and recharge values, groundwater recharge
482 was fixed to the average value of 410 mm y⁻¹ corresponding to the 1972-1999 period that
483 was estimated by HELP (see [Section Groundwater recharge](#)).

- 484 • *Groundwater age*: The calibration of the groundwater age profile measured at WIL-2 (see
485 [Section Calibration of hydraulic properties](#)) was especially useful to adjust vertical
486 hydraulic conductivities and thus better constrain nitrate migration at depth. This was
487 carried out using the technique of [Goode \(1996\)](#) that uses an advection-dispersion transport
488 equation to simulate groundwater age with a distributed zero-order source of unit strength
489 corresponding to the rate of aging. In this approach, the dependent variable is the mean age
490 (instead of the solute concentration), which is a mass-weighted average age. The “age
491 mass” is the product of the mass of water and its age, and the age mass is assumed to be

492 conserved during mixing. Boundary conditions include zero age mass flux across all no-
493 flow and inflow boundaries and no age mass dispersive flux across outflow boundaries.
494 The solution of the governing transport equation yields the spatial distribution of the mean
495 groundwater age under steady-state flow conditions, considering the processes of diffusion,
496 dispersion, mixing and exchange. From the previously calibrated steady-state groundwater
497 flow model with heads, a steady-state mass transport problem was defined with the
498 groundwater recharge boundary as a zero-mass age flux and the constant heads as no age
499 mass dispersive flux. The material conditions corresponding to the source term of zero
500 order was set at 17% (equal to n). The effective diffusion coefficient was $1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and
501 longitudinal and transverse dispersion were set respectively at 5 and 0.5 m considering the
502 scale of the system (Gelhar et al., 1992), assuming that dispersions of solutes and dating
503 indicators are the same.

504

505 Calibration of the shallow model involved the following steps:

506

- 507 • *Static hydraulic heads*: While the trend in K with depth for the sub-model was slightly
508 modified with respect to the deep model, the overall transmissivity of the HF interval was
509 kept similar in order not to alter the deep model calibration values.
- 510 • *Baseflow recessions*: A baseflow recession is the decline in streamflow that a river would
511 produce when only groundwater is contributing to the streamflow and the aquifer is under
512 continuous conditions of no recharge (Gburek et al., 1999). For the Wilmot watershed, this
513 condition is often observed during the summer months when evapotranspiration is high
514 and there is no precipitation for several days. Calibration of the numerical model with

515 baseflow recessions provides an estimate of the global S_y of the aquifer, which is an
516 important parameter that controls groundwater residence time. Six baseflow recessions
517 lasting between 14 and 97 days were extracted from the streamflow record of the Wilmot
518 River for the period of 1972 to 1996. To model the recessions, hydraulic heads of the
519 groundwater flow model after calibration with heads and groundwater age were used as
520 initial conditions for a 100-day transient simulation without recharge. S_y was then manually
521 adjusted until simulated baseflow recessions reproduced observations. For this calibration,
522 it is assumed that the hydraulic connection between the aquifer and the river is direct and
523 that bank storage effects are negligible, which is a reasonable assumption for the Wilmot
524 River given that its floodplain is poorly developed with respect to the main river channel.

525 **2.5.2 Reconstruction of the historical nitrate flux leaching to groundwater**

526 Given the large uncertainties in the historical nitrate flux leaching to groundwater, the historical
527 flux of the deep model was adjusted with surface water nitrate concentration records. While only
528 limited data exist for groundwater nitrate concentration in the Wilmot watershed (mostly
529 groundwater records for the 2002-2004 period), nitrate concentration records for the Wilmot River
530 and the nearby Dunk River exist for longer periods (1992 to 2000 and 1973 to 2000, respectively).
531 The close relationship between groundwater and surface water nitrate concentration supported the
532 use of surface water records for the calibration of the historical nitrate flux to groundwater.
533 Moreover, statistical analysis for the overlapping records of the Dunk and Wilmot Rivers showed
534 that they have similar temporal trends, with average nitrate concentration for the Wilmot River
535 being about 1.5 mg L^{-1} higher than for the Dunk River (Figure 5). This allowed the use of the Dunk
536 River nitrate concentration record as a proxy for the Wilmot River after proper scaling. Then, the
537 initial estimate of the historical nitrate flux was manually adjusted to reproduce the trend in nitrate

538 concentration measured in the Wilmot River, while keeping the previously calibrated model
539 parameters unchanged. A n of 17%, an effective diffusion coefficient of $9.8 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, and a
540 longitudinal and transversal dispersion of 5 and 0.5 m were used. Considering that agricultural
541 activities use 76% of the watershed surface, the historical nitrate flux was applied uniformly over
542 the surface of the numerical model.

543 **2.5.3 Simulation of flux from nitrate sources**

544 To model the dynamics of nitrate production and leaching to the aquifer, the shallow model was
545 used to reproduce the total nitrate concentration and the proportion of the three main nitrate sources
546 (chemical fertilizers, manure and soil organic matter) to the load in groundwater, which were
547 determined with nitrate isotopic data over the two-year period of sampling (see [Section Nitrate](#)
548 [sources in groundwater from isotopes](#)). To represent the short-term changes in total nitrate
549 concentration and nitrate source proportions, transient simulations for both groundwater flow and
550 nitrate transport were carried out, using daily groundwater recharge independently derived from
551 the HELP model (see [Section Groundwater recharge](#)).

552

553 Transient transport simulations were carried out for loading from each individual nitrate source to
554 reproduce its measured equivalent seasonal concentration. Daily nitrate fluxes were defined to
555 match the time step of daily recharge provided by the HELP infiltration model. In the numerical
556 model, the mass of nitrate was applied as a Neumann condition (mass flux) at the surface of the
557 model, independent of groundwater recharge, which allows one to take into account the dilution
558 effect of recharge on nitrate concentration. To simplify the calibration process, the form of each
559 nitrate source was defined as step functions ([Figure 6](#)), although gradual changes in nitrate
560 production and leaching are expected in the natural system. The initial nitrate mass flux functions

561 were based on isotopic results of [Savard et al. \(2007\)](#) following a three-step process. First, the
562 nitrate proportion from each nitrate source was used to apportion their respective seasonal loading
563 based on total concentration, thus providing an equivalent concentration. Second, an estimate of
564 the seasonal mass yield for each source was obtained from the product of concentration by the
565 seasonal recharge rate. Third, the nitrate mass flux was obtained from the ratio of total load by the
566 number of days of source application and recharge considered. An automatic time-step control
567 scheme was used for time discretization of both transient simulations.

568 **2.5.4 Calibration assessment**

569 Model calibration performances with the different data sets were assessed with mean difference
570 (M), coefficient of determination (C_D) and correlation coefficient (r), as defined by [Smith et al.](#)
571 [\(1997\)](#). M , the mean difference between measured and simulated values, gives an indication of the
572 bias in the simulation. A null M value indicates that there is no systematic bias. C_D measures the
573 proportion of the total variance in the observed data that is explained by the predicted data. Note
574 that C_D uses the explained sum of squares (instead of the more conventional residual sum of
575 squares) as this representation allows a better comparison between the total variances of the
576 observations and model predictions ([Smith et al., 1997](#)). Thus, C_D can range from 0 to any positive
577 number, and a value greater than 1 indicates that the model describes the measured data better than
578 the mean of the measurements. The r is used to assess whether simulated values follow the same
579 pattern as measured values. The closer r is to 1, the better the model reproduces the trend in the
580 observations. Thus, the calibration process aims at zeroing M and maximizing C_D and r . For semi-
581 quantitative groundwater age data, a visual analysis between simulated and measured profiles was
582 used because the ^{14}C data do not provide precise estimates of groundwater residence time ([Clark](#)
583 [and Fritz, 1997](#)).

584 **2.6 Scenarios of nitrate flux leaching to groundwater**

585 Three different scenarios of future nitrate flux leaching to groundwater were simulated with the
586 deep model to evaluate the potential impact of changes in agricultural practices over the 2000 to
587 2055 period (55 years) on nitrate concentration in groundwater:

588

- 589 • Maintain the 2000 agricultural practices (Scenario 2000): The estimated mass of nitrate
590 reaching the aquifer in 2000 is kept constant until 2055.
- 591 • Maintain current agricultural growing trend (Scenario TREND): A 23% increase in mass
592 for 2050 relative to the 2000 nitrate load. This percentage corresponds roughly to the
593 increase observed in the 10-15 years prior to 2000.
- 594 • Total stop of nitrate flux leaching to the aquifer (Scenario CLEAN): The mass of nitrate
595 applied is abruptly stopped in 2000, which may involve cessation of all agricultural
596 activities or perfectly efficient BMP. This scenario is not realistic but it was simulated to
597 further assess the lag time between reductions in the nitrate load at the water table and
598 lowering of nitrate concentration in the upper part of the aquifer exploited by domestic
599 wells for drinking water.

600

601 Nitrate flux for each scenario was applied uniformly over the entire watershed given the
602 widespread nature of agricultural activities over the Wilmot watershed. The three scenarios were
603 simulated under steady-state flow and transient nitrate mass transport conditions with the year
604 2000 hydraulic heads and nitrate concentrations used as initial conditions. An automatic time-step
605 control scheme was also used for time discretization of the transport simulations.

606 **3 Results and discussion**

607 **3.1 Calibration of hydraulic properties**

608 Under steady-state flow conditions, simulated heads and measured heads in domestic wells with
609 the deep model are in close agreement (Table 6). Calibrated parameters (Table 3) led to high values
610 of r and CD , at 0.93 and 6.3, respectively, but to a moderate bias. Nearly identical calibration
611 performances (not shown) were obtained with model parameters shown in Table 4 for the shallow
612 model simulating nitrate loads from sources (see Section *Simulation of flux from nitrate sources*).
613 Those calibration performances are acceptable, considering that head data are from measurements
614 in domestic wells that were taken at different periods of the year (annual water table fluctuations
615 are generally around 1 m), associated with a drilling period that spanned several decades (from
616 1959 to 2003).

617
618 For the calibration with groundwater ages, Figure 4 compares the groundwater age simulation with
619 indications of age obtained from tritium and ^{14}C analyses at well WIL-2. It was observed that the
620 simulated age with the deep model is in agreement with tritium values suggesting that groundwater
621 is younger than 50 years in the HF interval. Also, the simulated age in the LF interval with values
622 up to 1,500 years is in the same order of magnitude as corrected ^{14}C age, ranging from 2,000 to
623 3,000 years. Thus, while the simulated age appears slightly underestimated with respect to
624 corrected ^{14}C values, the model is reproducing the general trend in groundwater age with modern
625 groundwater in the HF interval and much older groundwater in the LF interval. Sensitivity
626 simulations have shown that K_h , K_v and S_y values of the first two model layers of the shallow model
627 are mostly controlling baseflow recession curves, indicating a hydraulic link between the surficial

628 HF interval and the Wilmot River. Note that the movable mesh feature in FEFLOW allows the
629 specification of unconfined conditions for multiple layers when the water table fluctuations span
630 over many layers. This explains the sensitivity of baseflow recessions with the properties of the
631 top two layers. Note also that storage properties for deeper layers were not calibrated because the
632 volume of water released from these deep layers was too small compared to the top layers, thus
633 storage properties of deeper layers did not impact baseflow recessions that were used to calibrate
634 these properties. Interestingly, the best calibration results (Table 6) were obtained for S_y values
635 close to 1% (Table 4), even though n is as high as 17%. This specific yield, actively contributing
636 to groundwater flow, is attributed to sandstone fractures. Simulated baseflow recessions were in
637 very close agreement with observed recessions in the Wilmot River (high values of r and CD ,
638 Table 6), without systematic bias. This strong agreement is the result of the recharge calibration
639 obtained from the HELP model (see Section *Groundwater recharge*) that made use of baseflow
640 data from all major rivers on PEI (including the Wilmot River). This result shows that the change
641 in model scale from the entire PEI to the watershed scale did not alter recharge estimates
642 significantly.

643 **3.2 Calibration of watershed-scale historical nitrate mass leaching**

644 Transient mass-transport simulations were carried out to achieve nitrate concentration calibration
645 with the deep model (Table 6); these show that 93% of the 2000-2005 period's initial N mass
646 available for leaching in the Wilmot watershed (Somers et al., 2007) is needed to reproduce nitrate
647 concentrations observed in the Wilmot River (Figure 5). This appraisal agrees with an independent
648 estimate suggesting that 87 to 96% of soil-N annually available to leaching as nitrate is reaching
649 groundwater in PEI (De Jong et al., 2008), which suggests a very low denitrification rate in the

650 soil layer. The simulated yearly trend from 1973 to present is in good agreement with nitrate
651 concentrations measured in the Wilmot River (Figure 5). Even though there is only a slight bias in
652 simulated and observed nitrate concentrations, r and C_D are the weakest compared with other
653 calibration parameters. This could be attributed to the nitrate concentration measured in rivers that
654 may show higher variability due to a varying degree of dilution with runoff water at different
655 sampling periods. So, diluted samples would lead to lower nitrate concentration.

656 3.3 Calibration of local-scale seasonal fluxes from nitrate sources

657 Figure 6 shows that total and individual concentrations simulated for each nitrate source with the
658 shallow model nicely compare with observations in domestic wells. Simulated concentrations are
659 averaged for the 5 layers of the model, weighted by layer transmissivities at the 16 observation
660 points where sampled domestic wells are located. These calibrated results were obtained by
661 iteratively adjusting the magnitude and timing of nitrate mass fluxes as well as model parameter
662 values for n and S_y ; the best fit was obtained for n and S_y of 2% and 1.5%, respectively (Table 4).
663 The S_y value used was previously obtained through calibration with baseflow recessions and a
664 modification of this value did not provide a better match. The K_h profile was also modified to
665 better match the nitrate mass flux timing. In comparison with the deep model, the overall
666 transmissivity for the same interval was similar and only the general vertical trend was modified.

667

668 Thus, in spite of simplification of physical processes and uncertainty in hydraulic parameter values
669 and spatial variability, calibration results suggest that the numerical models can be used to
670 adequately represent the main nitrate transport mechanisms in the Wilmot aquifer.

671

672 [Table 6](#)

673 [Figure 4](#)

674 [Figure 5](#)

675 [Figure 6](#)

676 **3.4 Groundwater nitrate transfer to river and distribution within the aquifer**

677 [Figure 7](#) presents particle tracking carried out through the WIL-1 to WIL-3 transect for three
678 different depths within the deep model providing an appreciation of the link between the aquifer
679 and the Wilmot River. Based on the small travel path envelope and the short travel time (less than
680 20 years), it appears that the HF interval (model layer 1; [Figure 7a](#)) is well connected to the Wilmot
681 River and that groundwater mostly flows directly to the river within this interval. The LF shallow
682 interval (model layer 5; [Figure 7b](#)) is also connected to the Wilmot River but it provides much less
683 contribution and takes a travel time of up to 10 000 years to reach the river, while particle tracking
684 for the LF deep interval (model layer 7; [Figure 7c](#)) suggests that the aquifer is draining much
685 farther down-gradient and closer to the estuary. Moreover, the simulated nitrate concentrations for
686 year 2000 within the Wilmot aquifer at a transect crossing WIL-1 to WIL-3 show that the
687 concentrations are homogeneously distributed ([Figure 8](#)), owing to the homogeneous flux and
688 parameters used in the model. The highest concentrations are found in the HF interval (model
689 layers 1-4) with a drastic decrease below that interval. Thus, this suggests that nitrate is transported
690 to the Wilmot River mostly through the HF interval where nitrate contamination is mostly
691 restricted. Also, the limited mass of nitrate transferred to deeper intervals is due to the strong K
692 anisotropy that limits vertical advective nitrate migration.

693

694 [Figure 7](#)

695 [Figure 8](#)

696 **3.5 Watershed-scale simulations of nitrate leaching and transport**

697 [Figures 9a, 9b](#) and [9c](#) show the mean nitrate concentrations simulated for the first five upper layers
698 of the deep numerical model according to the three nitrate leaching scenarios. The simulated nitrate
699 concentration for layers 1 to 4 are representative of the nitrate concentration found in most
700 domestic wells of the region because the total thickness of those layers spans similar depths. The
701 nitrate load applied to the model for each scenario is calculated from the load obtained after
702 calibration (see [Section Calibration of hydraulic properties](#)). As shown, the scenarios have
703 different impacts on the nitrate concentration in groundwater at the scale of the watershed:

704

- 705 • Scenario 2000 maintained the 2000 agricultural practices beyond year 2000 with an
706 estimated nitrate load of 292 000 kg yr⁻¹ and leads to an increase in average nitrate
707 concentration for layers 1 to 4 from 4.8 to 6.6 mg L⁻¹ in 2000 to almost constant values
708 between 7.9 and 8.3 mg L⁻¹ in 2055. Even though the applied nitrate load is constant over
709 the years, average nitrate concentration keeps increasing in drinking water for about 25
710 years beyond year 2000 until an equilibrium in nitrate concentration is reached between
711 fracture flow and mass accumulated in the porous sandstone matrix. For layer 5, the time
712 to reach concentration equilibrium is longer, and average nitrate concentration increases
713 from 0.3 mg L⁻¹ in 2000 to 2.6 mg L⁻¹ in 2055, without yet reaching a constant
714 concentration. This difference in time required to reach equilibrium is explained by the fact
715 that groundwater flow in the shallow LF interval (model layer 5) is much slower than for

716 the upper HF interval due to relative differences in K and depth. Those results show that
717 maintaining the 2000 nitrate loading would seem to provide an apparently safe level of
718 nitrate concentration in groundwater used for drinking purposes because average nitrate
719 concentration would not exceed the health recommendation of 10 mg L^{-1} . However, the
720 numerical model does not represent the spatial variability in nitrate concentration in the
721 watershed. Knowing that, today, over 20% of the wells show nitrate concentration
722 exceeding the health recommendation (Savard et al., 2004), an increase in the average
723 nitrate concentration would lead to a higher proportion of wells exceeding that limit.

724 • Scenario TREND maintained the current agricultural growing trend in nitrate loading
725 beyond year 2000 and shows that a 23% increase (from $292\,000 \text{ kg yr}^{-1}$ in 2000 to $360\,000$
726 kg yr^{-1} in 2055) in the nitrate load would lead to an average nitrate concentration close to
727 10 mg L^{-1} in drinking water in 2055. This increase is the combined effect of increasing
728 nitrate load combined with equilibration of the nitrate concentration. Under such
729 conditions, most wells in the watershed would have nitrate concentration near or exceeding
730 the recommended maximum for nitrate concentration. Groundwater would thus generally
731 be unsafe for drinking without treatment throughout most of the watershed. Moreover,
732 average nitrate concentration for layer 5 is significantly lower than for the upper layers,
733 which makes this part of the aquifer less vulnerable to surface contamination. That is, the
734 migration of the nitrate at depth is relatively slow due to lower K , longer groundwater flow
735 paths and important nitrate diffusion into the sandstone matrix.

736 • Scenario CLEAN involves stopping nitrate flux leaching to the aquifer beyond year 2000
737 and indicates that a time of about 20 years (around year 2020) would be necessary to reduce
738 nitrate concentration to a background level lower than 1 mg L^{-1} in groundwater used for

739 drinking (model layers 1 to 4). The pattern for layer 5 is however very different, with a
740 steady increase in nitrate concentration and a delay of 30 years until a maximum value up
741 to 1 mg L⁻¹ is reached, followed by a very slow decrease thereafter. This illustrates that
742 while the more active groundwater flow interval (model layers 1 to 4) could be cleaned
743 from contamination more rapidly, the contamination at depth in the less active interval
744 (model layer 5) is more persistent. Simulations assumed that diffusion occurs
745 instantaneously, and for cases where the diffusion would not be complete due to
746 groundwater residence times shorter than diffusion times, the clean-up time could only be
747 shorter.

748

749 The simulated scenarios for estimating future nitrate concentration in groundwater demonstrate
750 that even a sharp decrease in nitrate loadings would still lead to continued concentration increase
751 over the next 25 years due to the specific dynamics of the Wilmot aquifer. This means that changes
752 in groundwater quality following a modification of the agricultural practices could only be
753 observed after several years of implementation. Furthermore, to maintain the average nitrate
754 concentration at its current level, it would be necessary to reduce the nitrate load below its 2000-
755 2005 period value.

756

757 Those results have to be compared with the work of [Jiang et al. \(2009\)](#), which provided similar
758 scenarios for the Wilmot aquifer. With their finite-difference hydrogeological model, [Jiang et al.](#)
759 [\(2009\)](#) found lower future nitrate concentrations and faster responses to changes in nitrate
760 loadings. This difference with the present study mainly stems from the higher S_y (6% instead of
761 1% in this study) and lower n (7% instead of 17%) used by [Jiang et al. \(2009\)](#), which results in an

762 aquifer draining more rapidly and storing less nitrate by diffusion in the matrix. Those
763 discrepancies could be attributed to a model calibration approach using less calibration targets than
764 the one applied over the course of the present study. Nevertheless, a wise use of hydrogeological
765 models to design agricultural and water management plans would use all available models to assess
766 uncertainty in model predictions before taking any actions.

767

768 Finally, since the end of this project in 2006, nitrate concentrations in the Wilmot River steadily
769 increased from 2006 to 2017 and have since then slightly decreased. For instance, annual average
770 concentrations have risen to over 7 mg L⁻¹ in the river to finally stabilize at around 6 mg L⁻¹ in
771 2016, which is approximatively 0.5 mg L⁻¹ over the 2000 level (Q. Li and C. Crane, Prince Edward
772 [Island Department of Communities, Land and Environment, personal communication, 2017](#)). A
773 similar trend was also observed with nitrate concentrations in wells.
774 Those observed trends, compared to simulated concentrations, suggest that the agricultural
775 practices over the Wilmot watershed may have involved a slight reduction in N loads or
776 loads similar to the ones applied in 2000, as shown for Scenario 2000 ([Figure 9a](#)). The cause of
777 this change is not well understood, but it potentially results from a better awareness by farmers of
778 the impact of fertilizer application on water quality, the economic demand for agriculture
779 goods, the limited possible further expansion of farmland, and/or variations in climatic and
780 recharge conditions.

781

782 [Figure 9](#)

783 **3.6 Seasonality of nitrate sources and transformation**

784 The similar n and S_y calibrated values (2% versus 1.5%, respectively) obtained by modeling the
785 sources of nitrate using isotopic data with the shallow model (see [Section Simulation of flux from](#)
786 [nitrate sources](#)) suggests that short-term nitrate transport is essentially controlled by the fractures
787 with little influence from the porous matrix. The residence time of the water in fractures pumped
788 out at the domestic wells is likely not long enough for diffusion to occur, as also suggested by the
789 strong seasonality of the isotopic nitrate data which closely matches the fertilizer application
790 practices. Longer residence times would have led to damped isotopic signals. The seasonality in
791 nitrate source inputs could also be explained by the fact that the relatively large annual recharge
792 (277 mm y^{-1} for the 2-year sampling period and 410 mm y^{-1} on average) corresponds to up to twice
793 the S_y of fractures in the HF interval. This condition leads to a rapid substitution of the groundwater
794 present in fractures of the HF interval by recharge, which induces rapid seasonal changes in
795 groundwater nitrate concentration and source proportions according to the variations in nitrate
796 fluxes from chemical fertilizers, manure and soil organic matter. The seasonality is also magnified
797 by the fact that younger waters are entering the aquifer by its more permeable zone at the top of
798 the HF interval. So, when groundwater is pumped, more water is coming from this zone due to its
799 higher transmissivity and thus dominates the isotopic signal.

800

801 [Figure 10](#) compares the agronomic N mass balance for the Wilmot River watershed estimated by
802 [Somers et al. \(2007\)](#) to the proportions of nitrate sources in groundwater estimated with the shallow
803 model. For the development of the N mass balance, [Somers et al. \(2007\)](#) collected data for
804 estimating the proportions of the watershed occupied by specific land uses within the watershed,
805 representative input and output rates for the main N sources and sinks, and the timing and
806 prevalence of the main agronomic practices. The mass balance considered chemical fertilizers,

807 organic sources (manure and domestic sewage), crop residues and direct atmospheric deposition.
808 The mass balance results represent the proportion of the sources of nitrate applied as fertilizers
809 that could have leached to the aquifer, while modeling results represent the proportions of the
810 nitrate mass originating from these sources that have actually reached the aquifer. Comparison of
811 these proportions thus allows inference of the proportions of chemical and manure fertilizers that
812 were integrated into vegetal and organic matter prior to their nitrification and leaching to the
813 aquifer. More than 50% of the nitrate originates from chemical fertilizers, which only represents
814 about 25% of the nitrate found in the groundwater, thus implying a 50% transformation into vegetal
815 and soil organic matter prior to leaching to groundwater (Figure 10). A similar process is inferred
816 to occur for manure. The year-long transformation of soil organic matter (including crop residues)
817 into leachable nitrate, even during winter months, and the large proportion of nitrate originating
818 from this source suggest removal of crop residues or restricting ploughing during spring as two
819 easily applicable practical means for reducing nitrate leaching.

820

821 [Figure 10](#)

822 **4 Summary**

823 The development of groundwater flow and nitrate transport numerical models tracking back
824 historical nitrate loadings to reproduce the 2000 level of nitrate contamination in groundwater and
825 surface water has led to a better understanding of nitrate transport mechanisms in the Wilmot
826 watershed sandstone aquifer. Supported by a combination of field and laboratory measurements,
827 and a comprehensive model calibration approach with multiple complementary datasets, the main
828 nitrate transport characteristics of the Wilmot aquifer were deduced (Figure 11):

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- Nitrate sources applied as chemical fertilizers and manure at the soil surface are transformed in part into soil organic matter (SOM) in the soil before being leached by recharge through weathered sandstone fractures. Most of the leached nitrate reaching the aquifer is then coming from a SOM source. See [Fig 11a](#).
- Seasonal recharge brings nitrate into the shallow part of the aquifer (HF interval). Nitrate-carrying recharge quickly replaces the groundwater present in the permeable but low-porosity fracture system, so that diffusive exchange of nitrate between the porous matrix and fractures does not have time to alter the isotopic signal of nitrate leached from the soil. Nitrate found in domestic wells exploiting the HF interval has the isotopic signal of the nitrate sources leached from the soil by recharge. This makes domestic wells very vulnerable to surface agricultural contamination. See [Fig 11b](#).
- At the scale of the watershed aquifer system, slowly migrating nitrate in the fracture system diffuses into the porous matrix, which retards nitrate migration and leads to a large accumulation of nitrate mass in the porous matrix of the aquifer. The nitrate mass discharging with groundwater into the Wilmot River thus has a large time lag with variations in the nitrate flux from the soil to the aquifer. Nitrate reaching the Wilmot River represents a mixture of nitrate having migrated with groundwaters of various residence times, which have flown through different parts of the aquifer system. However, surface water composition is dominated by groundwater coming from the HF interval due to its higher permeability and direct connection with the River. See [Fig 11c](#).

851 Finally, modeling of the Wilmot aquifer allows a better understanding of the importance of
852 advective and dispersive nitrate transport mechanisms. The findings of this study provide useful
853 guidance to stakeholders responsible for agricultural and water management plans by highlighting
854 the anticipated responses of the aquifer to different practical situations, but especially the lag time
855 to be expected between BMP application and potential improvements in groundwater quality.

856

857 [Figure 11](#)

858 **Acknowledgements**

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1055 **Table 1.** Main characteristics of the Wilmot River watershed (flow rates are for the 1972-1999
 1056 period recorded at the 01CB004 station located above the tidally influenced portion of the river;
 1057 Land uses are based on a LANDSAT image for year 2000).

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Watershed physiography	Wilmot River flow rate	Land use
Area: 87 km ²	Mean annual: 0.92 m ³ s ⁻¹	Agriculture 76%
Average width: 5 km	Minimum monthly mean: 0.45 m ³ s ⁻¹	Forest 11%
Average length: 17 km	Maximum monthly mean: 1.88 m ³ s ⁻¹	Urban and roads 9%
Elevation range: 0-90 masl		Wetland and recreational 4%

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1063 **Table 2.** Weather and water balance for the Wilmot River watershed (precipitation and
 1064 evapotranspiration data are for the 1971-2000 period at the Summerside A station, and runoff
 1065 and recharge data are estimated from the HELP model).

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Watershed parameter	Value
<i>Weather</i>	
Mean annual total precipitation	1078 mm
Mean annual rainfall	809 mm
Mean annual snowfall	269 mm
Mean annual temperature	5.1 °C
Minimum mean monthly temperature	-8.6 °C
Maximum mean monthly temperature	18.4 °C
<i>Water balance</i>	
Mean annual evapotranspiration	438 mm

Mean annual runoff	230 mm
Mean annual recharge	410 mm

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Table 3. Field-based and calibrated hydraulic parameter for the numerical model of the Wilmot aquifer used for the nitrate loading scenarios. K_h and K_v are respectively horizontal and vertical hydraulic conductivity (n.d.: not determined in the field for the deeper portions of the aquifer, but estimated from literature (Domenico and Schwartz, 1998)), n is total porosity and S_y specific yield.

Model Layer (Thickness in m)	Flow Interval	Field K_h ($m s^{-1}$)	Watershed-scale numerical model		
			K_h ($m s^{-1}$)	K_v/K_h (-)	n (%)
1 (3-12)	High Flow (HF)	4.5×10^{-4} to 8.1×10^{-5}	3×10^{-4}	1	17
2 (5)			7×10^{-5}	0.014	17
3 (5)			7×10^{-6}	0.01	17
4 (10)			1×10^{-6}	0.001	17
5 (25)	Shallow Low Flow (LF)	1.7×10^{-4} to 8.4×10^{-7}	7×10^{-7}	0.0014	17
6 (50)		n.d.	1×10^{-7}	0.5	17
7 (100)	Deep LF	n.d.	5×10^{-8}	1	17
8 (100)		n.d.	1×10^{-8}	1	17

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Table 4. Field-based and calibrated hydraulic parameters for the numerical sub-model used to simulate isotopic data, for the High Flow (HF) interval. The bottom of this model falls approximately between layers 2 and 3 of the watershed-scale numerical model described in **Table 3**. The effective diffusion coefficient used is $1 \times 10^{-9} m^2 s^{-1}$, and longitudinal and transverse dispersivities are 5 and 0.5 m, respectively. Acronyms for hydraulic parameter are defined in **Table 3**.

HF: Model Layer (Thickness in m)	Field K_h ($m s^{-1}$)	Numerical Sub-Model			
		K_h ($m s^{-1}$)	K_v/K_h (-)	S_y (%)	n (%)
1 (>1)	4.5×10^{-4} to 8.1×10^{-5}	6×10^{-4}	1	1.5	2 (1 to 3)
2 (>1)		5×10^{-4}	0.1	1.5	2 (1 to 3)
3 (5)		3×10^{-4}	0.1	1.5	2 (1 to 3)
4 (5)		1×10^{-4}	0.01	1.5	2(1 to 3)
5 (5)		5×10^{-5}	0.01	1.5	2(1 to 3)

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Table 5. Estimates of nitrogen available for leaching in groundwater and equivalent nitrate flux and concentration over the farming history of the Wilmot watershed. Note: calculations used a total watershed area of 87 km² and a mean annual recharge of 410 mm (Table 2).

Period	Nitrogen available for leaching	Equivalent nitrate concentration	Wilmot potato farming area	Basis for the estimate
	(kg yr ⁻¹)	(mg L ⁻¹ N-NO ₃)	(hectare)	
2000-2005	313,000	8.8	2000 (in 2000)	Mass balance (Somers <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
1980-2000	190,000 to 313,000	5.3 to 8.8	1114 (in 1981)	After PEI potato area census (AAFC, 2004)
1965-1980	41,400 to 190,000	1.2 to 5.3	-	Interpolation
Pre-1965	41,400	1.2	-	Numerical simulation (this study)

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Table 6. Statistical analysis of model performance on calibration of different independent data sets for the simulation of groundwater flow and nitrate transport in the Wilmot aquifer system.

Calibration Target	Model Performance		
	Correlation Coefficient, <i>r</i>	Mean Difference, <i>M</i>	Coefficient of Determination, <i>C_D</i>
Hydraulic heads	0.93	-3.42 m	6.3
Groundwater ages	Visual concordance		
Baseflow recessions	0.96	0.00 m ³ d ⁻¹	10.6
Nitrate concentration in rivers	0.70	-0.31 mg L ⁻¹	1.49
Nitrate proportions in groundwater	0.89	-0.02 mg L ⁻¹	4.9

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1103 [Figure 1](#). Map of the study area. The inset map shows the locations of Prince Edward Island and
1104 of the Wilmot River watershed. The study area map shows the physiography, land use and
1105 locations of different monitoring stations. Also indicated are the numerical model boundaries used
1106 to represent groundwater flow, nitrate mass transport and groundwater age.

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1109 [Figure 2](#). Profiles of horizontal hydraulic conductivity (K_h) and hydraulic head (h) (relative to the
1110 mean sea level) measured between packers at observation wells (a) near the watershed divide
1111 (WIL-2) and (b) close to the Wilmot River (WIL-3) (locations shown in [Figure 1](#)). High flow (HF)
1112 and low flow (LF) intervals are indicated on the K_h profiles.

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1115 [Figure 3](#). Monitoring of total nitrate concentration in groundwater and proportions of this
1116 concentration related to each nitrate source (chemical fertilizers, soil organic matter and manure)
1117 based on isotopic analyses of nitrate ([Savard et al., 2007](#)). The bars associated with total
1118 concentrations represent the standard deviation of measurements in the 16 domestic wells
1119 seasonally sampled from the summer of 2003 to the spring of 2005. Locations of sampled domestic
1120 wells are shown in [Figure 1](#).

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1124 [Figure 4](#). Simulated groundwater ages at a transect crossing observation wells (WIL-2, WIL1 and
1125 WIL-3) in the Wilmot River watershed compared to qualitative isotopic groundwater ages
1126 measured at WIL-3 (see [Figure 1](#) for the transect location). Isotopic groundwater ages for the top
1127 four samples are based on tritium concentrations in tritium units (TU), whereas ^{14}C was used for
1128 the four deeper sampling points. ^{14}C is expressed in percent modern carbon (pMC). The second
1129 and third sampling points from the surface are inferred to represent mixtures (mix) of modern (<50
1130 years) and old (>50 years) groundwaters.

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1133 [Figure 5](#). Calibration of mean nitrate concentrations imposed on the model surface through time.
1134 The graph compares simulated (black line) and observed (grey squares) concentrations in the
1135 Wilmot River where the nitrate transported in groundwater discharges. Due to limited historical
1136 data for the Wilmot River, normalized nitrate concentrations for the adjacent Dunk River are also
1137 shown (black triangles). Dunk River concentrations were normalized based on their relationship
1138 with those of the Wilmot River for the period for which the data sets overlap. Also shown is the
1139 historical nitrogen available to leaching (dotted blue line) applied over the watershed as evaluated
1140 in [Section Nitrogen available for leaching to groundwater](#) and [Table 5](#), and the calibrated nitrogen
1141 flux reaching the water table (solid blue line) through time obtained in the model. Both nitrogen
1142 available to leaching and nitrogen transformed in nitrate reaching the water table are expressed in
1143 concentration (left y-axis) and flux (right y-axis).

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1146 [Figure 6](#). Calibrated (a) nitrate mass and groundwater recharge through time (2003 to 2005) used
1147 in the numerical model, to simulate the concentrations in shallow groundwater derived from the
1148 three main nitrate sources: (b) soil organic matter (SOM), (c) chemical fertilizers and (d) manure,
1149 whose sum gives the cumulative concentration in groundwater (e). (a) shows the input functions
1150 used for recharge, which were obtained from the HELP infiltration model, and the nitrate mass
1151 productions for each source represented by square functions. For three porosity values ($n=1, 2$ and
1152 3%), the central three graphs compare simulated concentrations to values derived from nitrate
1153 isotopic analyses for each source ([Figure 3](#)). (e) illustrates simulated ($n=2\%$) and observed total
1154 nitrate concentration and the proportions of the total concentration made up of each nitrate source.
1155 A specific storage (S_y) value of 1.5% was used for those simulations ([Table 4](#)).

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1158 [Figure 7](#). Particles tracking for (a) the high flow (HF) interval (layer 1), (b) the low flow (LF)
1159 shallow interval (layer 5) and (c) the LF deep (layer 7) interval. Particles were released from a
1160 transect crossing WIL-1 to WIL-3. The figure shows the envelope of particle tracks and advective
1161 time isochrones for each flow system over the numerical grid shown in background.

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1164 [Figure 8](#). Simulated nitrate concentration for year 2000 within the Wilmot aquifer along a transect
1165 crossing WIL-2 to WIL-3 (see [Figure 1](#) for the transect location).

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1168 [Figure 9](#). Simulated historical evolution of nitrate concentrations ([Figure 5](#)) up to year 2000, and
1169 prediction of the future evolution under three nitrate loadings scenarios showing average nitrate
1170 concentration in model layers 1 to 5: (a) Maintained current agricultural practices (2000) in the
1171 watershed and nitrate loading fixed at the one of year 2000; (b) Maintained current agricultural
1172 growing trend (TREND) with a 23% increase in mass for 2050 relative to the 2000 nitrate load
1173 and; (c) Assumes that nitrate loading is abruptly stopped in 2000 (CLEAN) and remains zero
1174 afterward. The dotted red line is the maximum recommended nitrate concentration in drinking
1175 water by [Health Canada \(2004\)](#).

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1178 [Figure 10](#). Proportions of the sources of leached nitrate applied as fertilizers to soil ([Somers et al.,](#)
1179 [2007](#)) compared to the proportions from nitrate sources found in groundwater according to
1180 numerical modeling of nitrate source proportions derived from isotopic analyses ([Savard et al.,](#)
1181 [2007](#)). This comparison allows the inference of the transformation of chemical and manure
1182 fertilizers into soil organic matter prior to the leaching of nitrate to groundwater.

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1185 [Figure 11](#). Conceptual model of nitrate transport in the Wilmot watershed aquifer system. (a) At
1186 the soil surface, applied nitrate sources (e.g., chemical fertilizers, manure and soil organic matter
1187 (SOM)) are either directly leached or transformed in the soil before being leached by infiltration
1188 through fractures. (b) Seasonal recharge brings nitrate into the shallow part of the aquifer and
1189 replaces groundwater present in the permeable but low-porosity fracture system. The thick
1190 replenished zone and the relatively slow process of diffusive exchange of nitrate between the
1191 porous matrix and fractures with respect to advective flow in fractures explain that nitrate found
1192 in domestic wells has the isotopic signal of the nitrate sources leached from the soil by recharge.
1193 (c) For groundwater having long residence time, which occurs at the scale of the watershed aquifer

1194 system, diffusion of nitrate between the fracture system and the porous matrix occurs. This retards
1195 nitrate migration and leads to a large accumulation of nitrate mass in the porous matrix of the
1196 aquifer. Also, the larger permeability of the shallow aquifer creates a preferential nitrate migration
1197 path that discharge to the Wilmot River, and restrict nitrate transport at depth.

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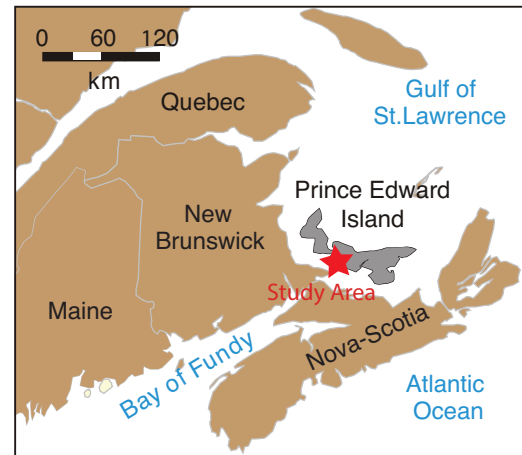
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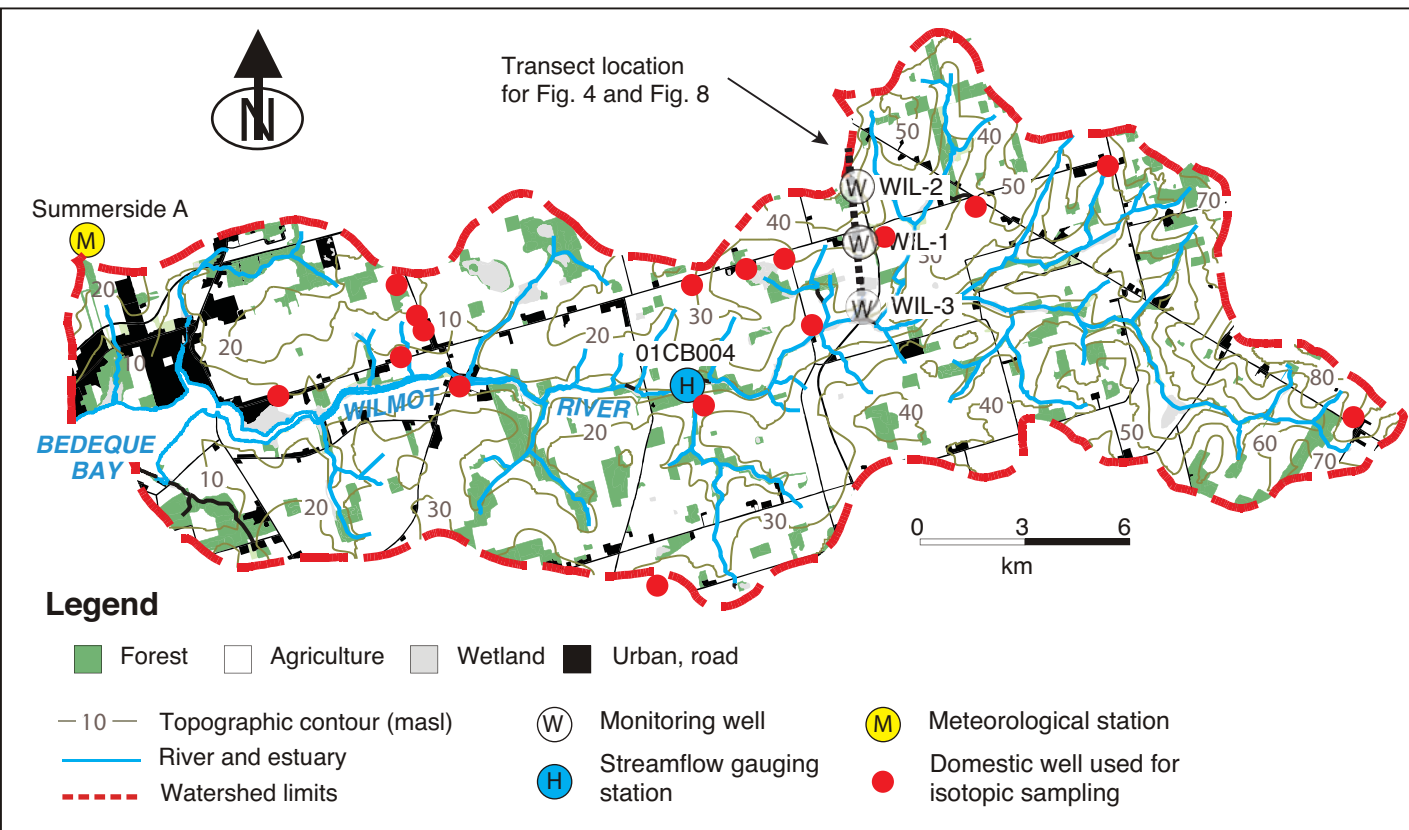
North America

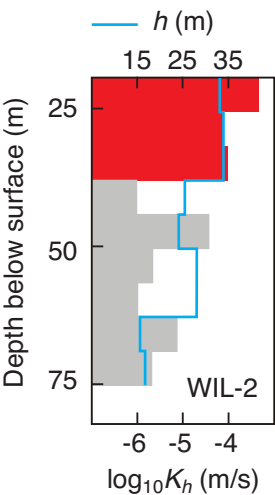


Eastern Canada

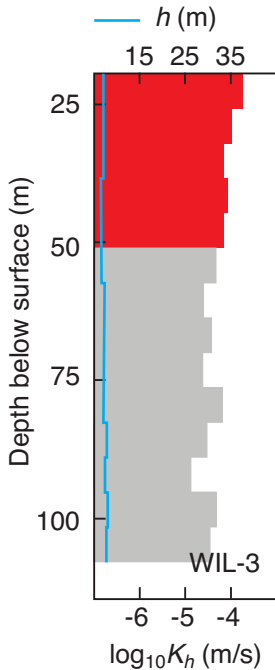


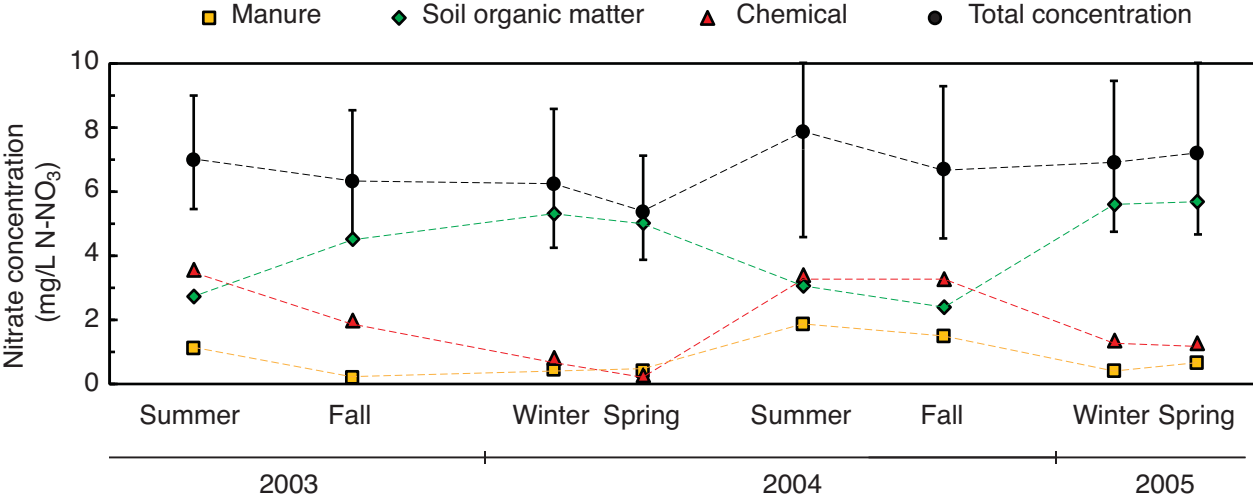
Wilmot River Watershed

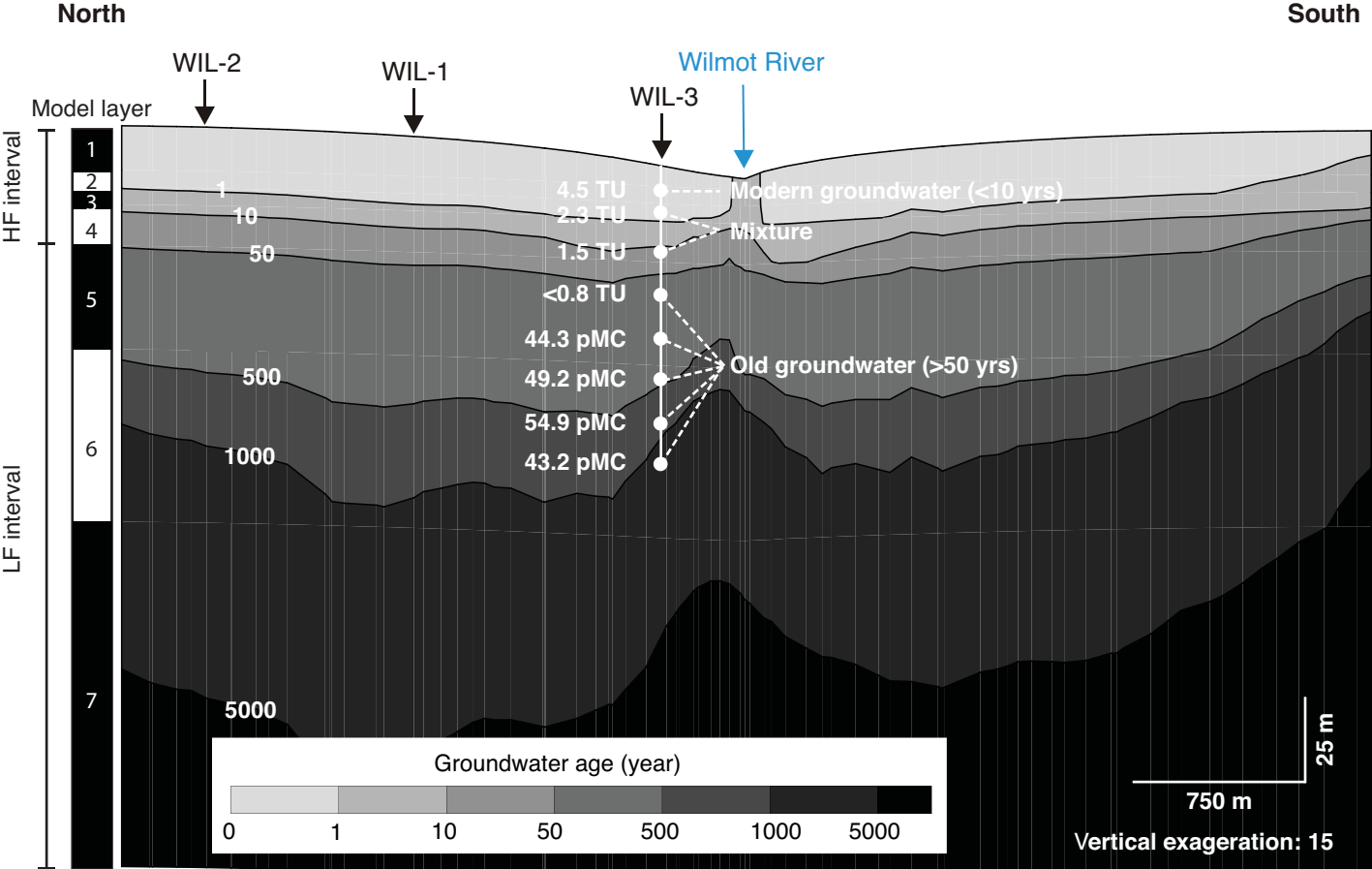


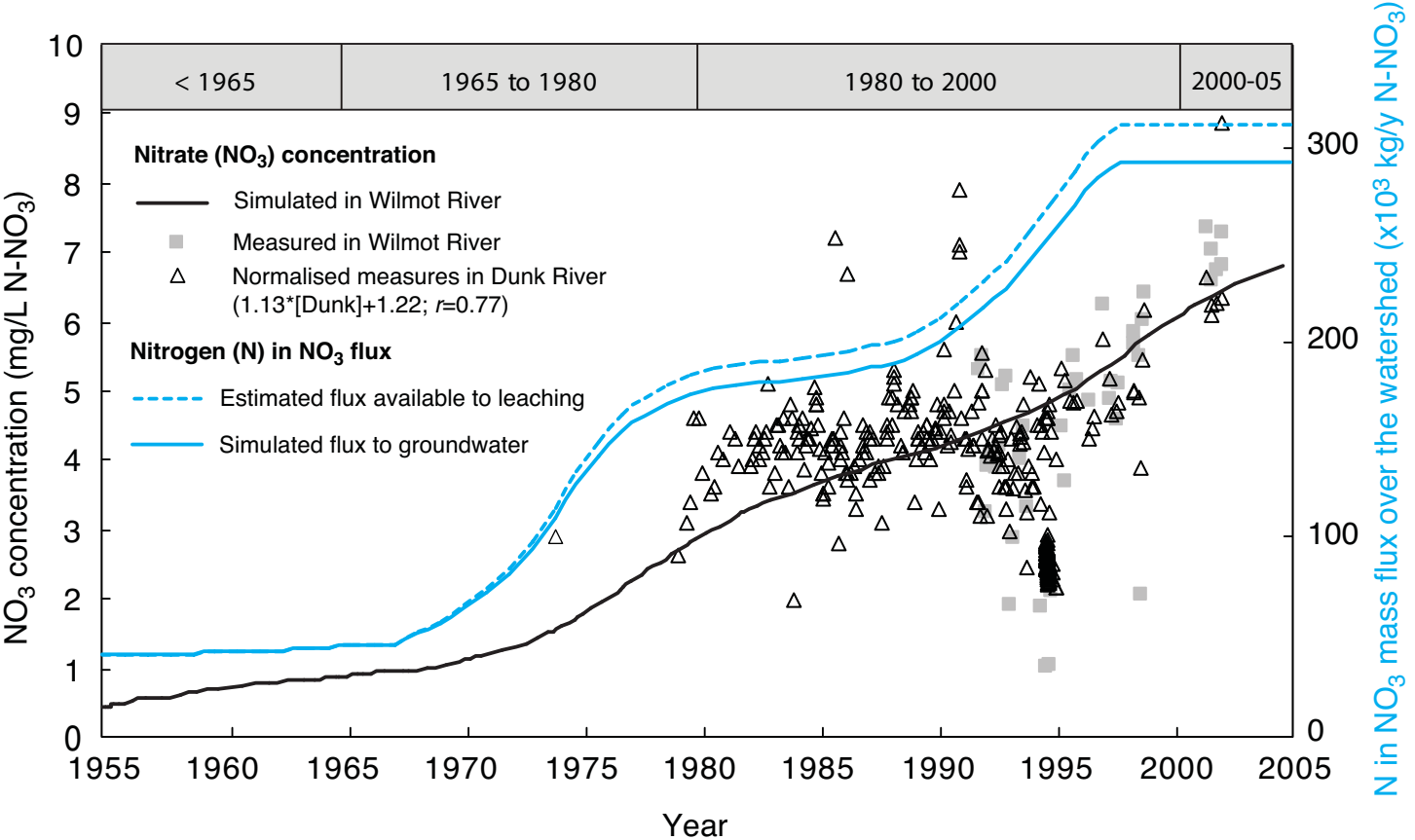


■ K_h for HF interval
■ K_h for LF interval

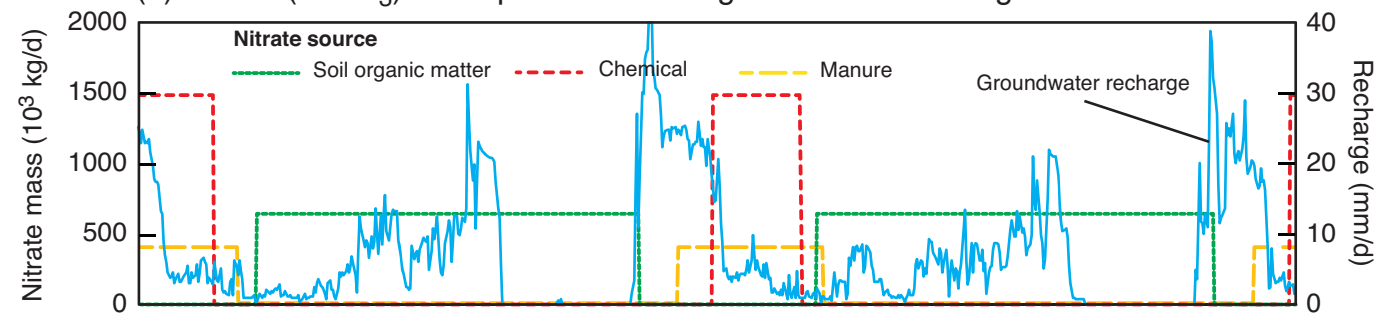




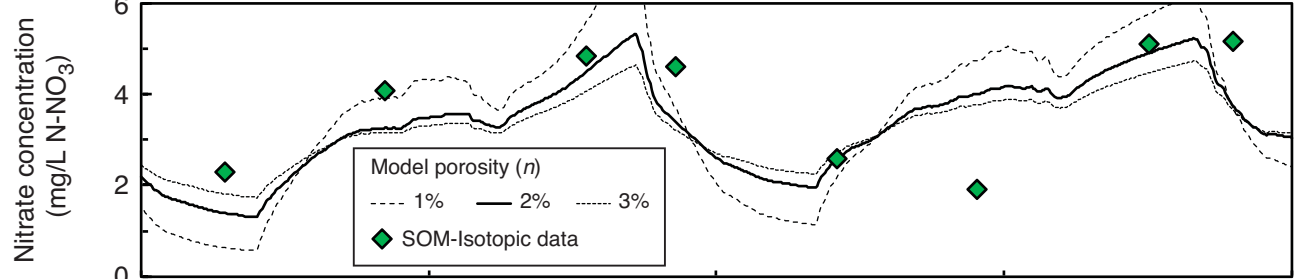




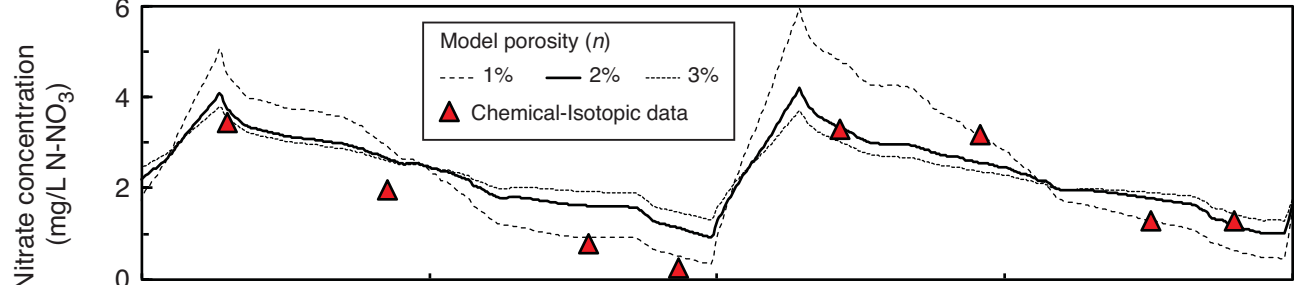
(a) Nitrate (N-NO_3) mass production and groundwater recharge



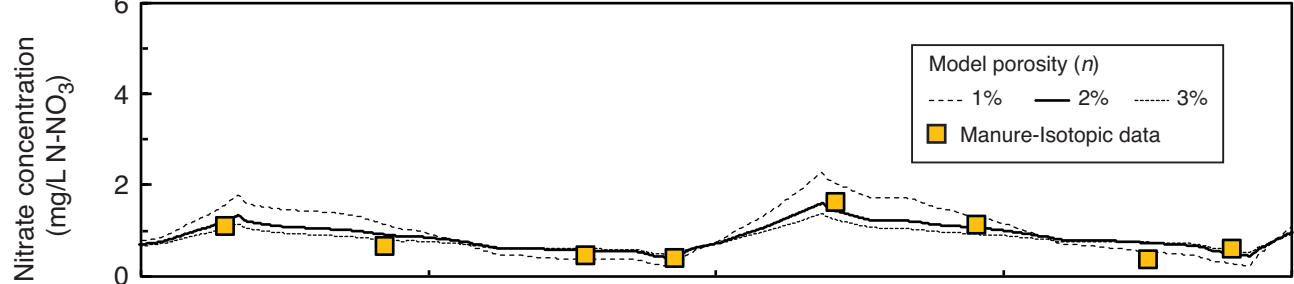
(b) Soil organic matter (SOM)



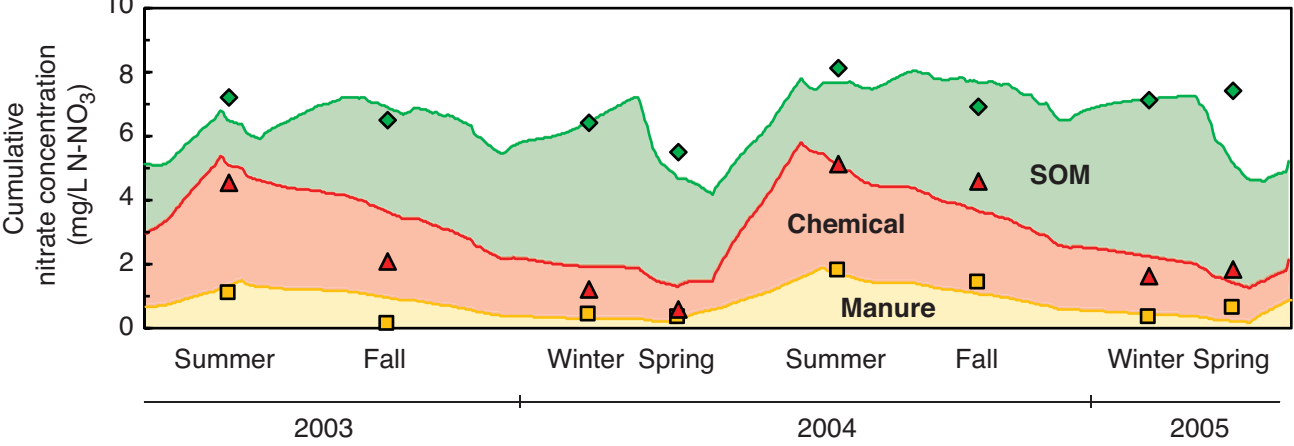
(c) Chemical



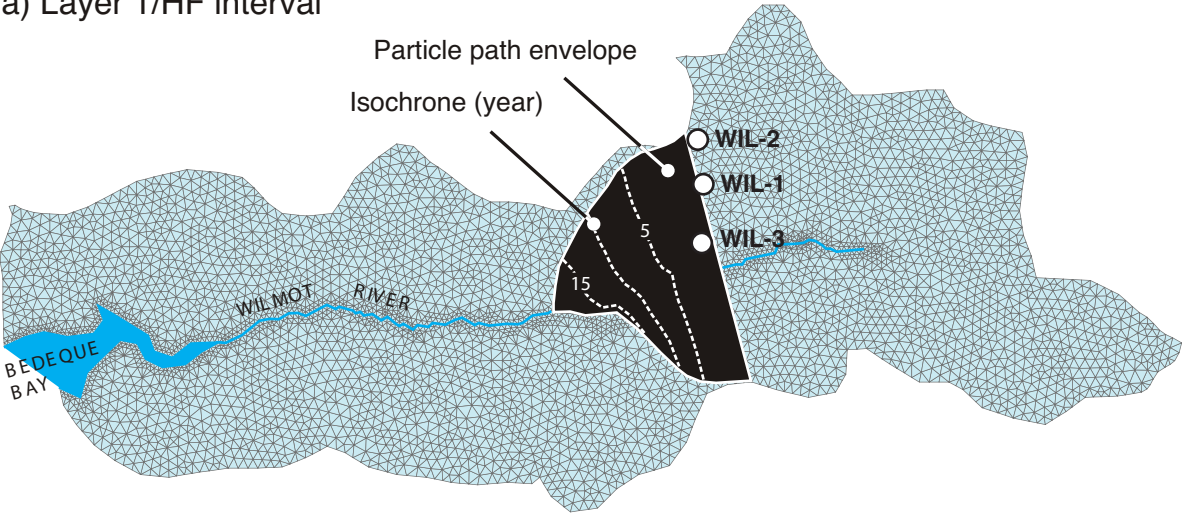
(d) Manure



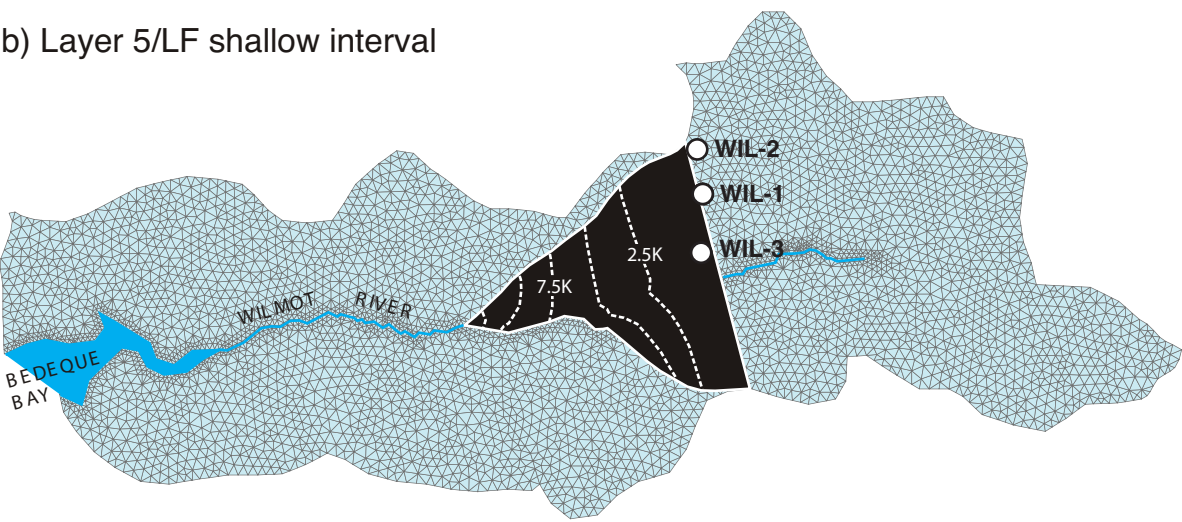
(e) Cumulative nitrate concentration



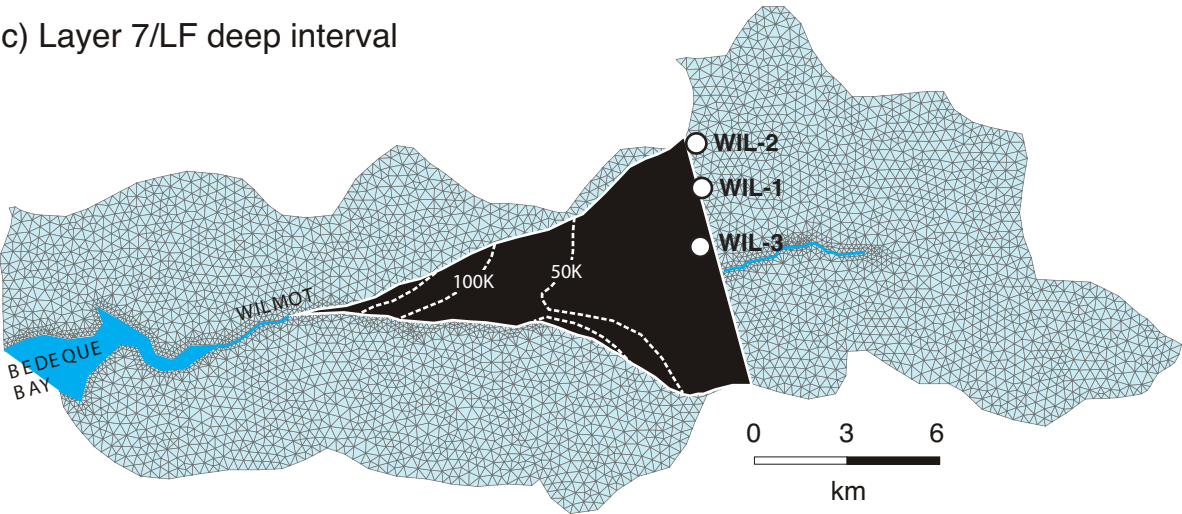
a) Layer 1/HF interval



b) Layer 5/LF shallow interval

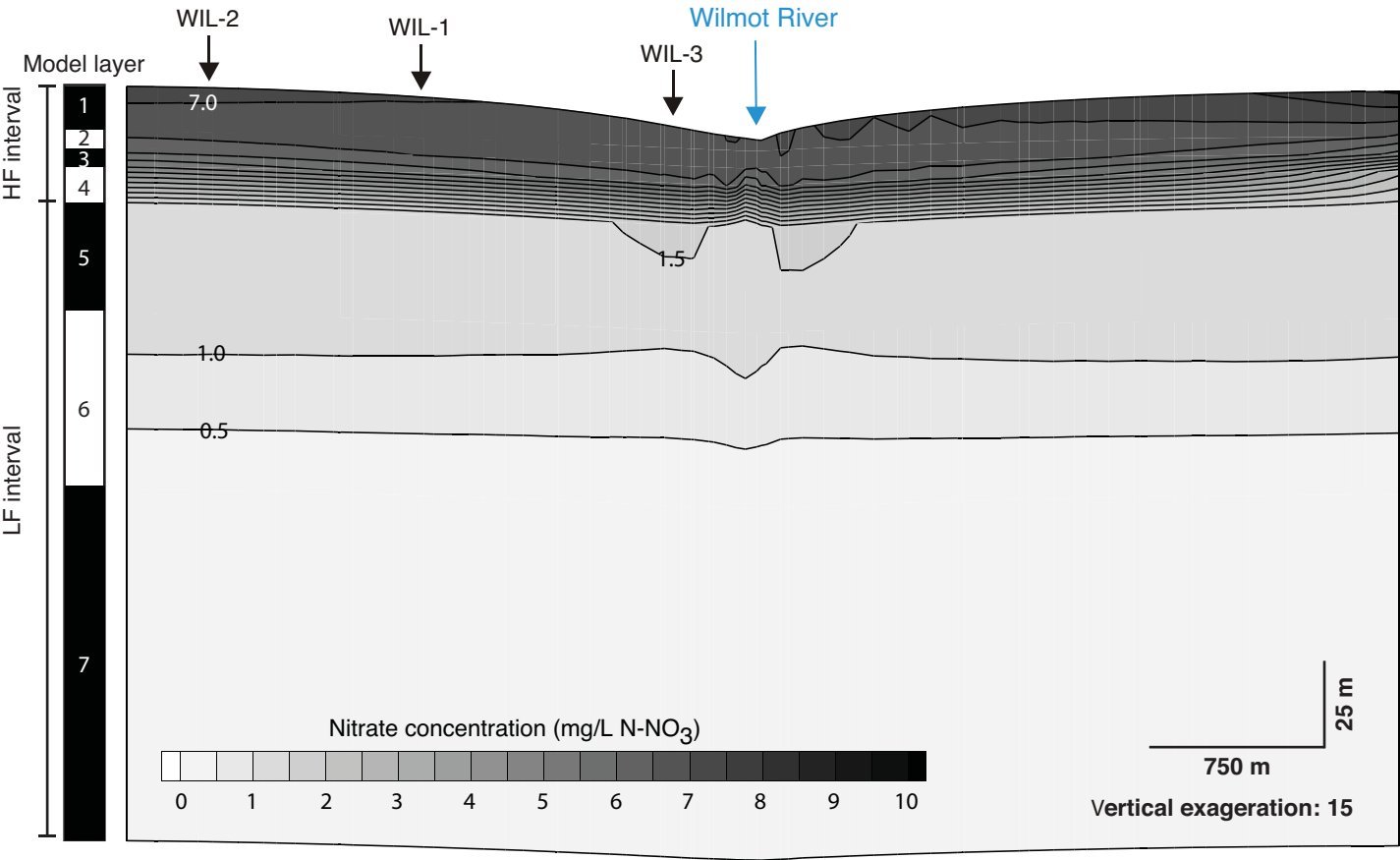


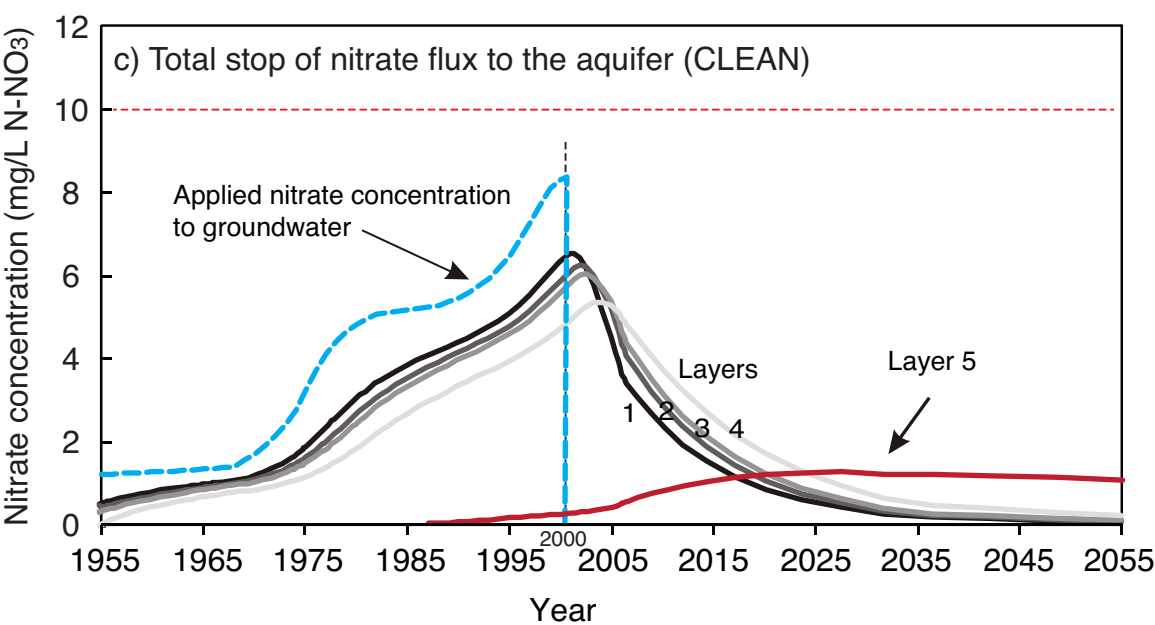
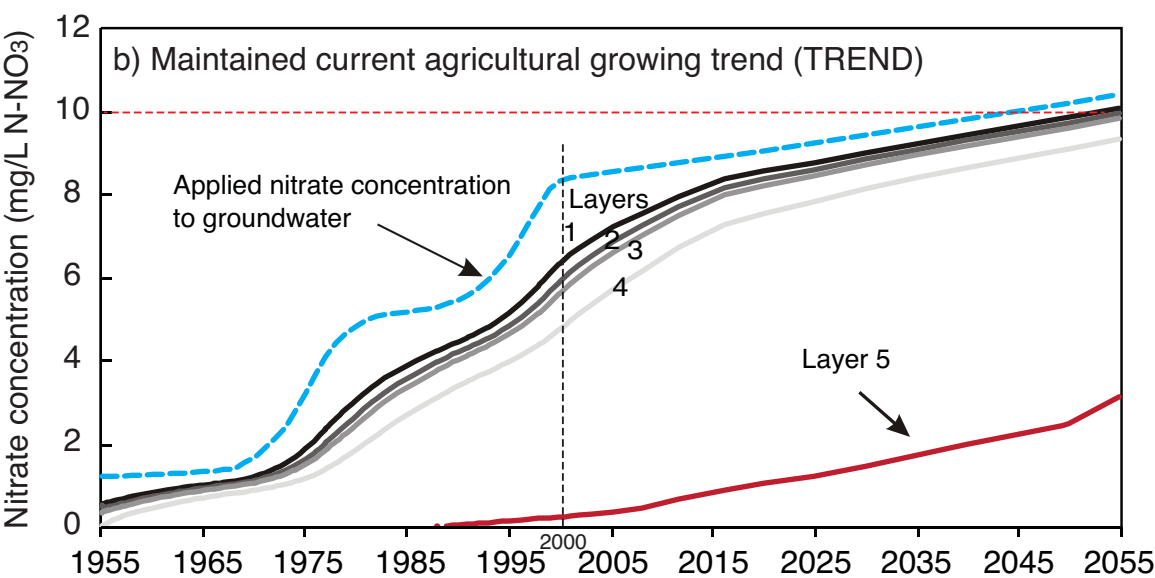
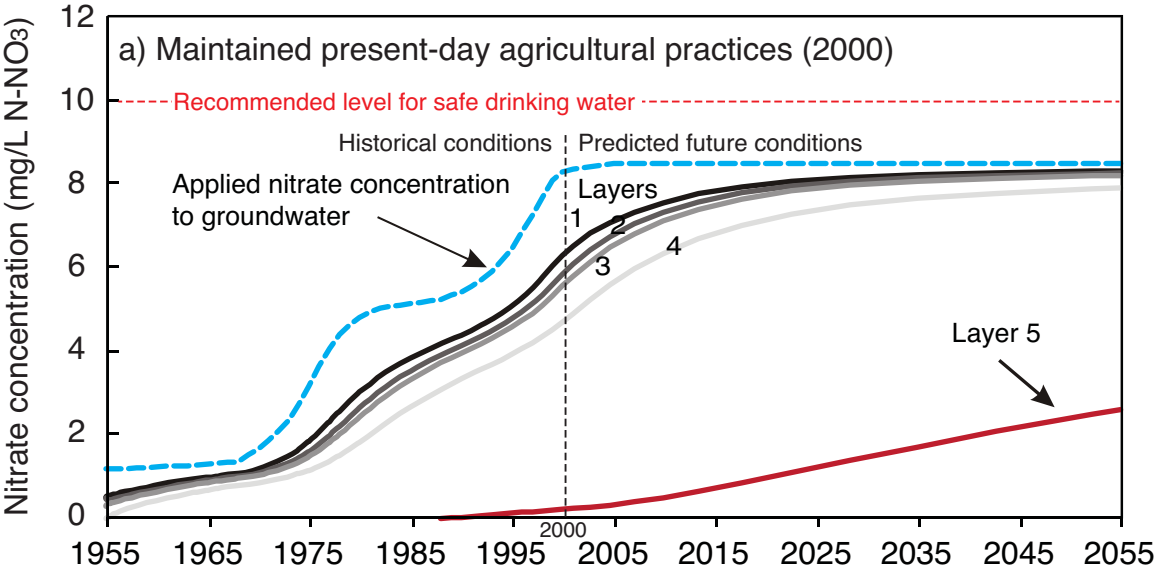
c) Layer 7/LF deep interval

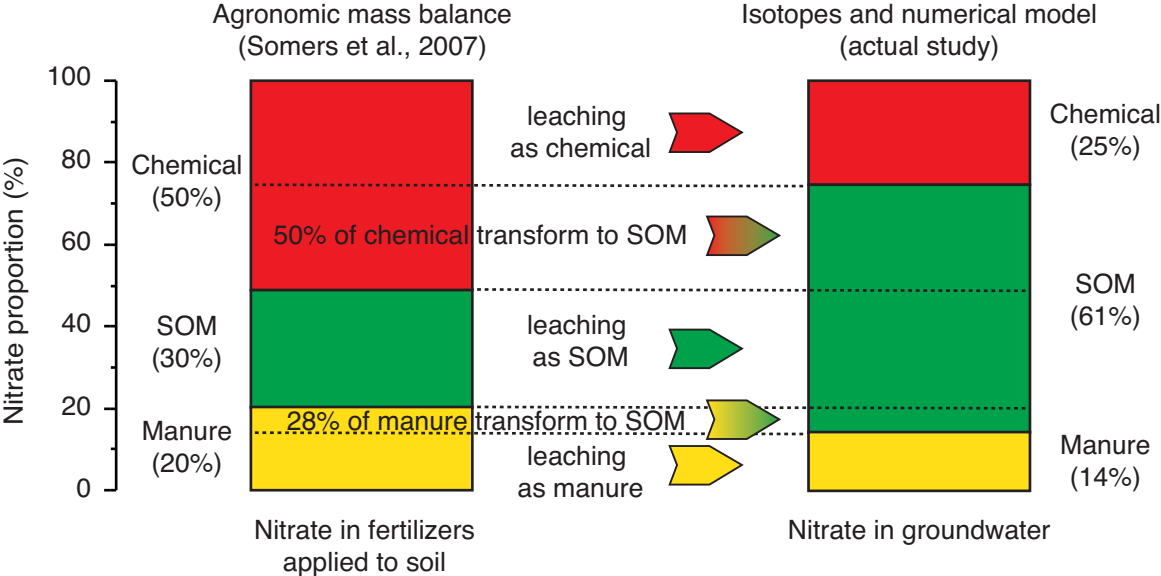


North

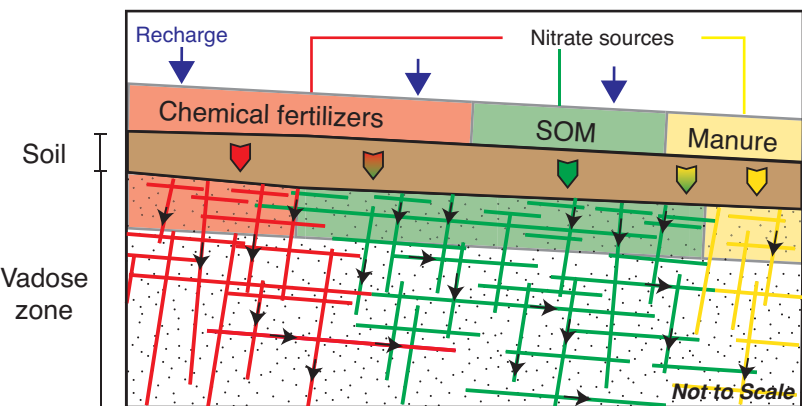
South







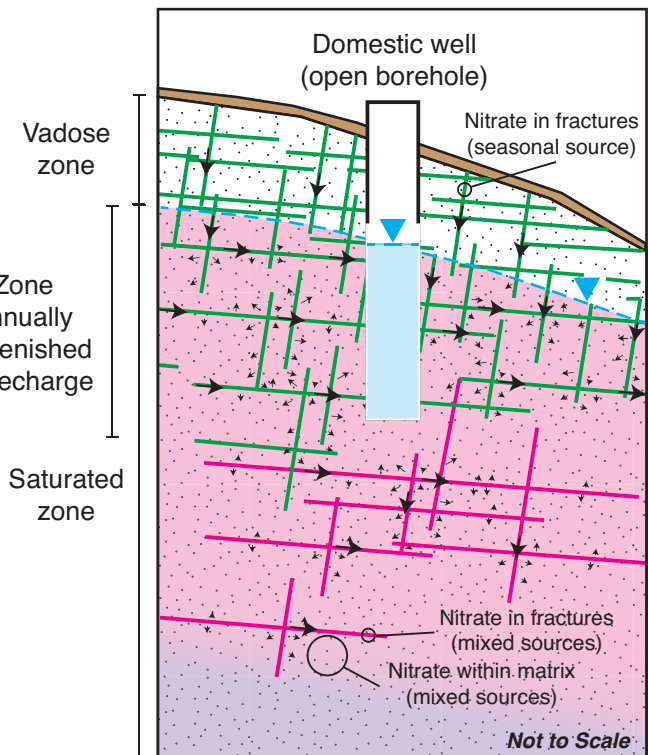
a) Nitrate transformation and emission at the soil surface



Legend

- Nitrate leaching
- Nitrate transformation and leaching
- Advective flow in fractures
- Diffusion in matrix
- Nitrate-impacted groundwater
- Non-impacted groundwater

b) Nitrate transport with recharge to exploited shallow aquifer



c) Nitrate transport at the aquifer system scale

