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**Probabilistic assessment of spatial heterogeneity of natural background concentrations in
large-scale groundwater bodies through Functional Geostatistics**

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17 **Abstract**

18 We propose and exemplify a framework to assess Natural Background Levels (NBLs) of
19 target chemical species in large-scale groundwater bodies based on the context of Object Oriented
20 Spatial Statistics. The approach enables one to fully exploit the richness of the information content
21 embedded in the probability density function (PDF) of the variables of interest, as estimated from
22 historical records of chemical observations. As such, the population of the entire distribution
23 functions of NBL concentrations monitored across a network of monitoring boreholes across a
24 given aquifer is considered as the object of the spatial analysis. Our approach starkly differs from
25 previous studies which are mainly focused on the estimation of NBLs on the basis of the median or
26 selected quantiles of chemical concentrations, thus resulting in information loss and limitations
27 related to the need to invoke parametric assumptions to obtain further summary statistics in addition
28 to those considered for the spatial analysis. Our work enables one to (i) assess spatial dependencies
29 among observed PDFs of natural background concentrations, (ii) provide spatially distributed
30 kriging predictions of NBLs, as well as (iii) yield a robust quantification of the ensuing uncertainty
31 and probability of exceeding given threshold concentration values via stochastic simulation. We
32 illustrate the approach by considering the (probabilistic) characterization of spatially variable NBLs
33 of ammonium and arsenic detected at a monitoring network across a large scale confined
34 groundwater body in Northern Italy.

35
36 Keywords: Natural background level; groundwater quality; chemical status; Kriging; probability
37 density function; uncertainty quantification.

1. Introduction

Robust characterization of the natural chemical signature of a given groundwater system is a key component of modern environmental analysis. Critical aspects associated with this step include the identification of values of sampled concentrations of target chemicals that could be related to geogenic contributions. In this context, it is recognized that markedly high Natural Background Levels (NBLs) of chemical species/compounds of interest can potentially be linked to petrographical (e.g., Hinsby and Condesso de Melo, 2006) or lithological and sedimentological site-specific characteristics (e.g., Redman et al., 2002; Molinari et al., 2013 and references therein) rather than being attributable to anthropogenic actions. Relating high values of sampled concentrations to an anthropogenic rather than a natural contribution may sometimes yield misleading assessments of environmental risks, improper classification of the chemical status (e.g., in terms of a good status, as defined by the European Water Framework Directive, WFD 2000/60/EC GWDD 2006/118/EC Directive 2014/80/EU) of aquifer bodies, as well as setting remediation goals which can be unattainable and/or unsustainable. In this context, modern regulatory frameworks at the European level highlight the need for an appropriate assessment of baseline concentrations, i.e. those that can be ascribed to geogenic effects and are not caused by anthropogenic activities.

Identification and implementation of a complete (generally multicomponent) geochemical model accounting for the complexity of processes driving flow and transport in porous media in the presence of the various sources of uncertainty associated with the ubiquitously heterogeneous subsurface is not always feasible. A series of investigations are then keyed to the development of procedures leading to embedding information within a management framework upon relying on a limited amount of data. The latter typically comprise monitored temporal series of concentration samples (Edmunds et al., 2003, Wendland et al., 2005, Panno et al., 2006, Walter, 2008, Urresti-Estala et al., 2013, Kim et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2017, 2018, 2019).

65 As an example, one of the main outcomes of the EU funded project BRIDGE (2007),
66 Background cRiteria for the IDentification of Groundwater thrEsholds, is a guideline that allows
67 assessing the natural status of a groundwater body through a Pre-Selection methodology. The latter
68 is based on the identification of pristine groundwater samples within an available collection of
69 observations. This procedure typically yields the estimate of a unique (or bulk) NBL value, which is
70 then assigned to the groundwater body under investigation. According to this approach,
71 concentration values of a chemical species of interest exceeding such a threshold are then ascribed
72 to anthropogenic activities. A notably weak point of such an approach is that it renders a unique
73 NBL value, disregarding spatial variability, this aspect being critical when considering large scale
74 heterogeneous (in terms of petrographic and hydrogeologic characteristics) aquifers. As a further
75 evolution, some authors suggest that the NBL of a natural groundwater system should be expressed
76 in terms of a range of values (e.g., Reimann and Garrett, 2005; Hinsby et al., 2008; Li et al., 2014)
77 rather than being constrained to a single one.

78 Studies related to characterizing the spatial variability of NBL concentrations include, e.g.,
79 the work of Ducci et al. (2016) and Dalla Libera et al. (2017). While the former relies on indicator
80 kriging to demarcate regions associated with given probability of exceeding a target NBL value, the
81 latter authors propose a zonation approach leading to piece-wise uniform NBL concentration maps.
82 The analysis of Molinari et al. (2019) starts from values of the 90th percentile of concentration
83 samples observed at a set of monitoring boreholes. These are then subject to standard variography
84 upon considering alternative variogram models which are then employed in a multimodel context to
85 provide kriging-based spatial distributions of estimates of NBL concentrations. The resulting kriged
86 values are used jointly with the ensuing estimation variance to evaluate spatial distributions of the
87 probability of exceeding predefined threshold values of NBL concentrations, the latter being
88 assumed to be characterized by a log-normal distribution. We emphasize that all of these works rely
89 on the representation of observed temporal series of natural background concentrations by way of
90 through scalar summaries (e.g., the 90th percentile), which are then projected onto a set of locations

91 of interest where data are not available. Doing so results in a loss of information and requires
92 resorting to additional hypotheses, such as assuming a log-normal distribution for NBL values
93 which is parametrized according to the results of the kriging analysis (as in, e.g., Molinari et al.,
94 2019). The general concept underlying these studies is also consistent with approaches treating the
95 characterization of spatial heterogeneity of aquifer systems within a probabilistic context (e.g.,
96 Winter et al., 2003; Short et al., 2010; Perulero Serrano et al., 2014; Bianchi Janetti et al., 2019 and
97 references therein).

98 Our study rests on the concepts underpinning Object Oriented Data Analysis (Marron and
99 Alonso, 2014). Doing so enables us to consider the information content included in the entire
100 distribution function of NBL concentrations monitored at a given observation borehole as the object
101 of the spatial analysis, instead of being limited to selected moments or quantiles. Such a framework
102 renders (a) predictions of the complete distribution of NBL concentrations in a non-parametric
103 setting together with the associated uncertainty, and (b) joint assessment of all summary quantities
104 of interest of the distribution (including desired quantiles and probability values). Accordingly, the
105 NBL distributions are embedded in a mathematical space whose elements are probability density
106 functions (Egozcue et al., 2006, Van den Boogaart et al., 2014). Our distinctive objective is to
107 leverage on key elements of Object Oriented Spatial Statistics (O2S2, Menafoglio and Secchi,
108 2017) to (i) quantify spatial dependencies among observations, (ii) provide spatially distributed
109 kriging predictions, and (iii) yield a robust quantification of the uncertainty associated with NBL
110 spatial distributions through stochastic simulation. As detailed in the following, we first illustrate
111 the theoretical framework, and then demonstrate it to characterize spatial variability of NBL
112 distributions of target chemical species by relying on an extensive set of hydrochemical data
113 collected across a large scale confined groundwater body in Northern Italy.

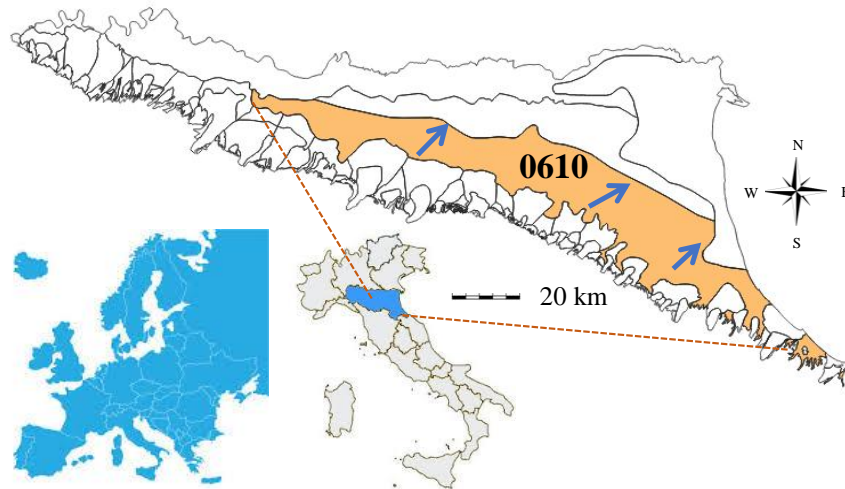
114 **2. Materials and methods**

115 *2.1. Study area and data-set*

116 As a test bed to demonstrate the breadth and potential of our approach, we focus on a
117 groundwater body located in the Emilia-Romagna Region (Northern Italy) and demarcated on the
118 basis of both geological/sedimentological information and anthropogenic impact analyses (Regione
119 Emilia-Romagna, 2010). The area is a portion of the Po Basin fill, a syntectonic sedimentary wedge
120 (Ricci Lucchi, 1984) forming the infill of the Pliocene-Pleistocene fore-deep.

121 Sedimentological and hydrogeological studies are available in the region (Amorosi et al.,
122 1996; Regione Emilia-Romagna-ENI-AGIP, 1998, Regione Emilia-Romagna, 2010), identifying
123 three main hydrogeological complexes: Apennines alluvial fans, Apennine alluvial plain, and
124 alluvial and deltaic Po plain. The complete aquifer system is characterized by a multilayered
125 confined or semiconfined configuration. The thickness of fine deposits increases towards the
126 northern portion of the plain (Regione Emilia-Romagna, 2010; Farina et al., 2014), where
127 conditions of increased confinement are documented.

128 Additional information regarding the hydrogeological setting of the region are available in
129 Molinari et al. (2012) and Farina et al. (2014). Our study is keyed to one of the large scale
130 groundwater bodies located in the upper confined portion of the aquifer system, within the
131 hydrogeological complex named as Apennine alluvial plain. Figure 1 depicts limits and planar
132 extent of the groundwater body considered, denoted with the identifier 0610 and characterized by
133 an average depth of 75 m, average thickness of 130 m and area of about 2930 km².



134
 135 *Figure 1. Planar extent of groundwater body 0610 within the Emilia-Romagna Region. Blue arrows*
 136 *correspond to the overall regional-scale groundwater flow direction.*
 137

138 The groundwater body under study is considered to be significantly vulnerable, given its
 139 stratigraphic location within the aquifer system and the anthropogenic stresses associated with
 140 intensive exploitation for agricultural and civil purposes (Regione Emilia-Romagna, 2010). Being
 141 located in the upper confined portion of the complex aquifer system described, its southern limit is
 142 in continuity with the recharging areas of alluvial fans. A relevant amount of monitoring boreholes
 143 is set within its considerable planar extent, thus yielding a remarkable amount of available chemical
 144 data. As evidenced in prior investigations (Molinari et al. 2012, 2019), data about groundwater
 145 quality suggest the need to considering regional-scale, spatially heterogeneous distributions of NBL
 146 values.

147 The analyzed data set includes time series of concentrations recorded at several monitoring
 148 stations managed by the “Agenzia Regionale per la Prevenzione e l'Ambiente dell'Emilia-
 149 Romagna” (ARPAE - Regional Agency for Environmental Protection, Emilia-Romagna). We select
 150 monitoring boreholes where 20-year historical records of observations (1987-2008, collected at a
 151 six-month interval, albeit not continuously for some wells) are available. We focus on ammonium
 152 (NH_4) and arsenic (As), whose documented concentrations locally exceed the limit set by current
 153 Italian regulations (also corresponding to the European Drinking Water Standards) set at 0.5 mg/l

154 and 10 µg/l, respectively, and are seen as critical elements for the achievement of a good chemical
155 status according to Italian Regulation (D. Lgs. 30/09, i.e., Decreto Legislativo n. 30, 16 March
156 2009) and GWDD 2006/118/EC. A total number of 90 monitoring stations was initially considered
157 by ARPAE to characterize groundwater body 0610. Some of these were associated solely with
158 quantitative measurements of piezometric level. On the basis of a subsequent detailed analysis,
159 monitoring stations that could not be attributed with certainty to the target groundwater body
160 (essentially on the basis of the screen depth) were excluded from the original collection of locations.
161 This has reduced the initial number of monitoring stations attributed to groundwater body 0610 to
162 62, with a total of 1428 observations. Exclusion of monitoring stations where observations are
163 associated with a temporal window spanning less than 3 years leads to retain 57 monitoring stations
164 with a total of 1354 observations available (among these, ammonium and arsenic have been
165 measured in 1343 and 1193 samples, respectively). Concentrations below detection limit were set
166 equal to half the detection limit. After application of PS, monitoring stations where less than 10 data
167 points are available are further excluded from our analyses. As such, we use 1234 (associated with
168 44 monitoring stations) for ammonium (see Section 3.1) and 1096 data (related to 43 monitoring
169 stations) for arsenic (see Section 3.2).

170 *2.2 Methodology for Data analysis*

171 *2.2.1 NBL estimates*

172 Concentration records are subject to a Pre-Selection (PS) procedure (BRIDGE, 2007) to
173 identify NBL values. This approach enables us to remove samples exceeding certain concentration
174 values, considered indicative of anthropogenic contamination, from the original record of
175 observations. Typically employed criteria for the exclusion of samples deemed as influenced
176 include: (a) chloride concentrations > 1000 mg/l, denoting salinity; and (b) nitrate (NO₃)
177 concentrations > 10 mg/l, as a signature of anthropogenic influence caused by e.g., fertilizers.
178 Additional criteria (redox conditions, dissolved oxygen, sulfate concentration) can be considered for

179 sample exclusion (e.g., Hinsby and Condesso de Melo, 2006; Hinsby et al., 2008). For the purpose
180 of our analyses, we follow Molinari et al. (2019) and apply the exclusion criteria listed above.

181 Data resulting from filtering the raw dataset through PS are considered as observations of
182 naturally occurring NBL concentrations at diverse observation times across the analyzed window.
183 Our analysis rests on monitoring wells which exhibit a time series with more than ten records. We
184 note that the procedure which is then employed for the evaluation of the NBL (e.g., Wendland et al.,
185 2005) relies on (a) estimating the median value for the concentrations of the target chemical species
186 identified at each monitoring well via PS, and (b) assessing the unique value of NBL associated
187 with the whole water body in terms of a selected percentile (typically the 90th, 95th, or 97.5th).

188 As illustrated in details in Section 2.2.3, we adopt here a diverse perspective and fully
189 account for the functional nature of the data. The latter are thus analyzed as functional random
190 fields. In this context, the subject of our analysis is the collection of probability functions of NBLs
191 obtained by applying the PS procedure at each monitoring station. By doing so, we go beyond the
192 limitation of relying solely on selected percentiles of such probability functions and take advantage
193 of the complete information content embedded in the entire probability function of NBL
194 reconstructed from the observations at each well.

195 We structure our study through the following main steps:

- 196 1. perform sample selection for historical records at each observation borehole following the
197 adopted exclusion criteria, as indicated in the original BRIDGE (2007) methodology;
- 198 2. evaluate the (empirical probability) distribution function of NBLs of (log-transformed)
199 concentrations of the selected chemical species at each observation well;
- 200 3. perform spatial prediction and uncertainty quantification of NBL probability density
201 functions (PDFs) at unsampled locations using an object-oriented geostatistical approach
202 (Menafoglio et al., 2014).

203 We describe the main theoretical elements and the ensuing implementation workflow
204 associated with these steps in the following sections.

2.2.2 *Data pre-processing*

Data pre-processing aims at extracting an estimate of the NBL PDFs from each temporal series of NBL observations. Each temporal series is considered separately (observations associated with the series being used to build a corresponding histogram) neglecting temporal autocorrelation (additional comments on this choice are given in Section 3). The resulting histogram is then smoothed to yield a continuous estimate of the underlying PDF, as advocated by Machalová et al. (2016) and consistent with the modeling framework employed for the following analysis steps (detailed in Sections 2.2.3-2.2.4). Note that the length of the time-series can have an effect on the accuracy of the PDF estimation, i.e., the longer the time series, the lower the uncertainty in the data-preprocessing. Here, we include all monitoring stations where at least 10 records are available. This is seen as a minimum threshold value to maintain the ability of estimating a density function from the sampled data with a non-parametric approach. In general, the choice of such a threshold should attain a balance between the ability of estimating the PDF with sufficient accuracy, and the need to retain as many measurement sites as possible. This choice is case-specific and depends on the stability of the time-series, the data quality, possible missing data, the density of the measurement locations and their spatial distribution.

2.2.3 *Notation and background: geostatistics for PDFs*

The smoothed PDF data are considered as the objects of the geostatistical analysis. In the following we denote by s_1, \dots, s_n the n locations in the spatial domain D where the PDFs of NBL are observed, and by X_{s_1}, \dots, X_{s_n} the n smoothed PDFs available at the sampling locations. Here, X_{s_i} denotes the PDF at location s_i , which is a positive function defined on an interval of (log-)concentrations $I = [a, b]$, common to all data. We consider these PDFs as a partial observation of a *functional* random field $\{X_s, s \in D\}$, that is a collection of random functional elements (the PDFs of NBL) indexed by a spatial variable s in D . The goal of the analysis is to provide a kriging prediction of the random field (i.e, the entire PDF, X_{s_0}) at unsampled locations (s_0) in D , based on

230 the observations available at the monitoring stations. Two key challenges need to be tackled to
231 solve the kriging problem: (i) the curse of dimensionality (due to the virtually infinite
232 dimensionality of PDF data, which would need an infinity of point evaluations to be fully
233 characterized), and (ii) the data constraints (positivity and unit integral).

234 To jointly face these challenges, we follow the approach of Menafoglio et al. (2014, 2016a,
235 2016b), who provide a class of geostatistical methods to analyze datasets of geo-referenced PDFs.
236 These methods are based on the idea of defining an appropriate mathematical space where data are
237 embedded, and use the geometry of the space to perform prediction and stochastic simulation. For
238 instance, if the NBL data were represented through their median (i.e., a scalar summary statistics),
239 the data could be embedded in the space R of real numbers, and analyzed through a typical scalar
240 geostatistics approach. If the NBL data were represented through a set of k summary indices (e.g.,
241 mean and standard deviation), a k -dimensional Euclidean space R^k could be used to perform
242 analyses through multivariate geostatistical methods (e.g., Chilès and Delfiner, 1999). Considering
243 functional and constrained data, Menafoglio et al. (2014, 2016a, 2016b) propose to consider a
244 Bayes space (Egozcue et al., 2006; Van den Boogaart et al., 2014), whose elements are PDFs, for
245 embedding and analyzing the data. Bayes spaces provide the generalization to the functional
246 framework of the so-called Aitchison simplex (Aitchison, 1986). In Bayes spaces, appropriate
247 notions of operations between PDFs (e.g., sum (+), or product by a constant (\cdot)) as well as of inner
248 product ($\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$) are defined, allowing for the development of a proper theory of kriging and stochastic
249 simulation. For the purpose of this study, we do not present all details of these mathematical
250 constructions and introduce only the key concepts and notation. We refer to Menafoglio et al.
251 (2013, 2014, 2016a, 2016b) for an in-depth introduction to the mathematics underpinning the
252 methods we employ.

253 2.2.4 Modeling spatial dependence and kriging

254 As a first step of the geostatistical analysis of the dataset X_{s_1}, \dots, X_{s_n} of PDFs, we model the
 255 spatial dependence among data. We assume that (a) data are elements of the Bayes space B^2 , that is
 256 the space of positive functions, whose natural logarithm is square integrable, and (b) the field
 257 $\{X_s, s \in D\}$ is stationary. This enables us to consider the generalization of the classical variogram to
 258 the functional context, which is termed *trace-variogram*. In B^2 , the trace-variogram is defined as
 259 the function $2\gamma(s_1, s_2)$ that associates with a pair of locations s_1, s_2 (in D) the expected square
 260 distance (in B^2) between the NBL PDFs (X_{s_1}, X_{s_2}) at such locations, i.e.,

$$261 \quad 2\gamma(s_1, s_2) = \mathbb{E}[d_{B^2}^2(X_{s_1}, X_{s_2})] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{2(b-a)} \int_a^b \int_a^b \ln\left(\frac{X_{s_1}(t)X_{s_2}(s)}{X_{s_1}(s)X_{s_2}(t)}\right) dt ds\right]. \quad (1)$$

262 Interpretation and properties of the trace-variogram for PDF data are very similar to their scalar
 263 counterpart. In particular, under stationarity, the trace-variogram depends only on the increment
 264 among locations $(s_1 - s_2)$, stabilizes at a horizontal asymptote (*sill*), and the distance at which the
 265 variogram attains the sill determines the range of association among elements of the field (*range*).

266 Variogram modeling can be performed in two steps: (i) estimating a binned trace-variogram

$$267 \quad 2\gamma(h) = \frac{1}{|N(h)|} \sum_{s_i, s_j \in N(h)} d_{B^2}^2(X_{s_i}, X_{s_j}), \quad (2)$$

268 $|N(h)|$ being the number of pairs of sampled sites (approximately) separated by h ; and (ii) fitting a
 269 valid model (e.g., spherical, exponential, matérn) to the empirical estimate (1).

270 Once the variogram model is estimated, the *functional* kriging prediction for a PDF of NBL at
 271 a target location s_0 is based on the best linear unbiased (functional) predictor in the Bayes space B^2 .
 272 This is defined as the predictor $X_{s_0}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^* \cdot X_{s_i}$, where symbols denote the linear combination in
 273 the Bayes space, and are explicitly written as

$$274 \quad X_{s_0}^*(t) = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n X_{s_i}^{\lambda_i^*}(t)}{\int_a^b \prod_{i=1}^n X_{s_i}^{\lambda_i^*}(s) ds}, \quad (3)$$

275 $\lambda_1^*, \dots, \lambda_n^*$ being scalar weights to be optimized through minimization of the variance of prediction
 276 error under unbiasedness. From a practical viewpoint, having estimated the trace-variogram model

277 2γ , finding the kriging weights reduces to the solution of the very same kriging system associated
278 with scalar geostatistics (see, e.g., Menafoglio and Secchi, 2017, for details).

279 2.2.5 Stochastic Simulation

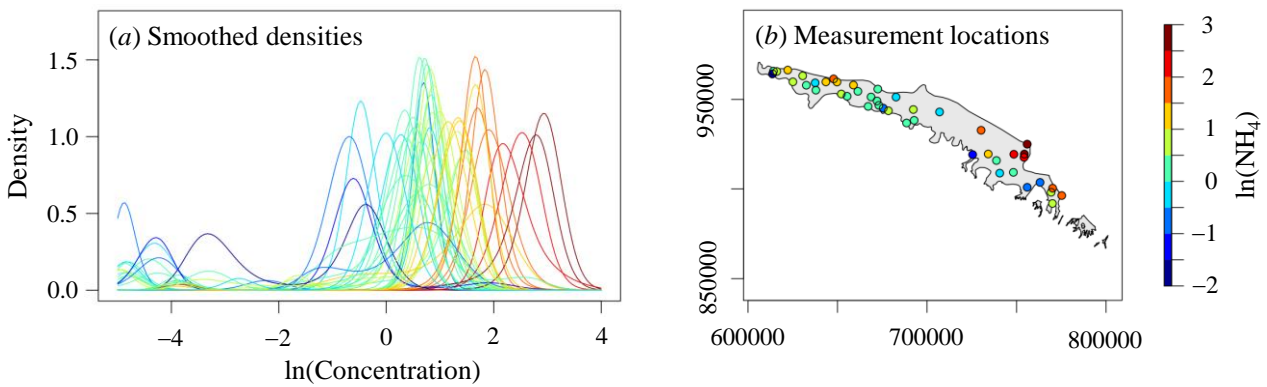
280 Uncertainty quantification for functional kriging can be performed by using conditional
281 stochastic simulation, as originally proposed in Menafoglio et al. (2016b). For this purpose, one
282 necessarily needs to reduce the dimensionality of the data, as it is hardly possible to produce
283 realizations of an infinity of point evaluations of the PDF. Dimensionality reduction can be
284 performed through functional principal component analysis in the Bayes space B^2 (SFPCA, Hron et
285 al., 2016). The SFPCA analysis allows identifying the main directions of variability (e_1, e_2, \dots) of
286 the dataset X_{s_1}, \dots, X_{s_n} . The elements e_1, e_2, \dots are the analogue of the loadings (i.e., the
287 eigenvectors) in multivariate principal component analysis. In particular, loadings e_1, e_2, \dots form an
288 orthonormal functional basis of space B^2 . Projecting the data along the first K principal components
289 enables one to represent the PDF X_{s_i} through a vector of K coordinates $\mathbf{x}_{s_i} = (x_{s_i,1}, \dots, x_{s_i,K})$, thus
290 reducing to K the formerly infinite dimensionality of the PDF. Stochastic simulation of the PDF can
291 be then performed by simulation of the vector of coordinates along the truncated basis e_1, e_2, \dots, e_K
292 at the target location $\mathbf{x}_{s_0} = (x_{s_0,1}, \dots, x_{s_0,K})$, based on the coordinate vector available at the sampled
293 sites. Such simulation can be performed through the aid of well-known multivariate methods, such
294 as those based on sequential Gaussian co-simulation (e.g., Chilès and Delfiner, 1999; Kim et al.,
295 2019).

296 **3. Results and discussion**

297 *3.1. Ammonium*

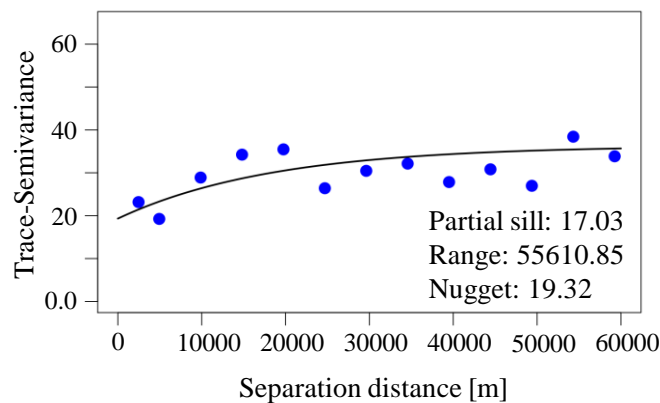
298 As stated in Section 2.1, a total of 1234 historical records collected at 44 monitoring stations
299 were available for ammonium concentration after PS, characterized by a number of 12 to 42
300 observations per monitoring well (with an average of about 28). A preliminary analysis of the data
301 reveals that most locations (41 out of 44) do not display any autocorrelation in the time series of

302 NBL concentrations (level 1%, as obtained through a Durbin-Watson test on each time series, the p-
 303 value of single tests being corrected via Holm's method). Autocorrelation within the temporal series
 304 was thus neglected in the data preprocessing. The PDF of NBL log-concentrations (hereafter termed
 305 NBL densities or NBL PDFs for ease of illustration) were then estimated at each borehole upon
 306 neglecting temporal autocorrelations. The ensuing results are depicted in Figure 2 in terms of
 307 smoothed data.



308
 309 *Figure 2. Smoothed data for ammonium log-concentration values and corresponding spatial*
 310 *locations in the investigated aquifer system. Colors are assigned according to the value of the mean*
 311 *related to the corresponding smoothed density. Spatial coordinates are in meters.*
 312

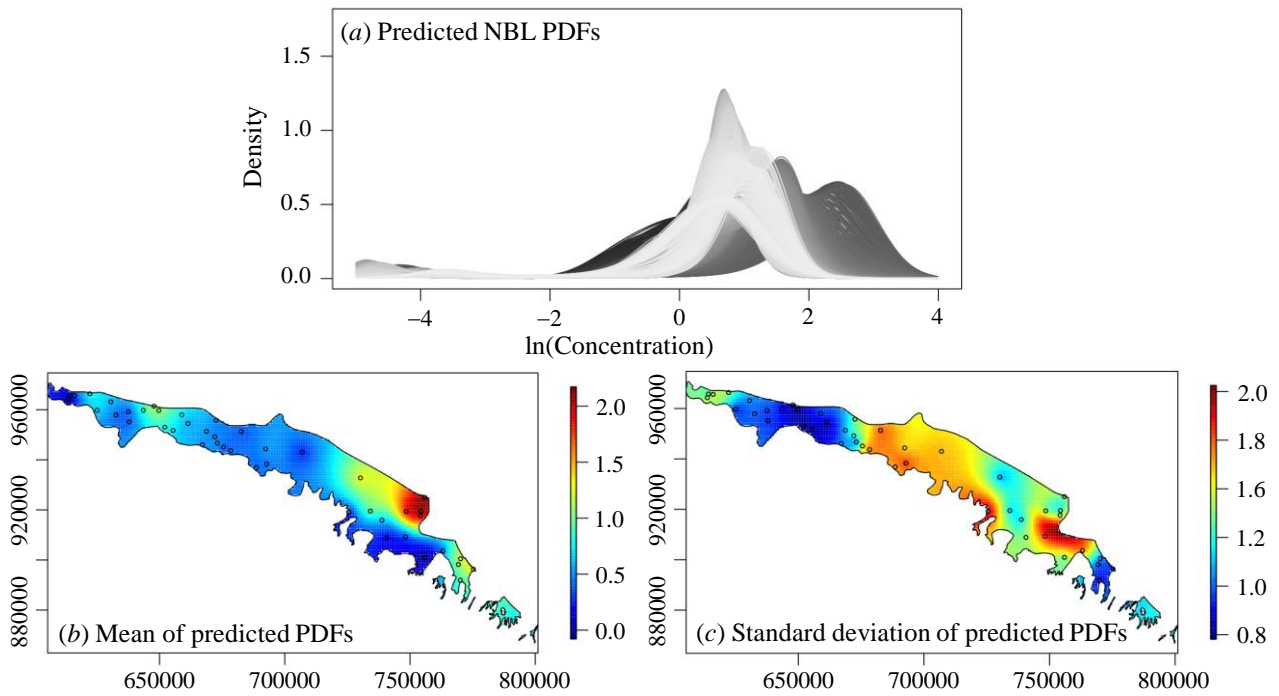
313 Visual inspection of Figure 2 suggests that the highest mean values are associated with the
 314 distal portion of the domain, mainly close to the coastal area where water is characterized by high
 315 chloride concentrations. A global stationarity assumption of the functional data appears to be
 316 supported by the sample trace-semivariogram depicted in Figure 3, which is characterized by a clear
 317 asymptote for increasing spatial distances.



319 *Figure 3. Sample trace-variogram estimated from the smoothed functional data for ammonium log-*
320 *concentrations and interpreted model with estimated parameters.*
321

322 An exponential model with nugget was calibrated to the empirical variogram, estimated
323 values of its parameters being included in Figure 3. One may notice the presence of a relevant
324 nugget effect in the structure of spatial dependence, which provides an indication of possible spatial
325 discontinuities in the field of NBL densities. Point Kriging was then performed across a regular grid
326 of 2824 points (of side 983 m and 1048 m along the horizontal and vertical directions, which are
327 taken to correspond to the West-East and South-North directions, respectively). Such a grid
328 encompasses the full aquifer body domain, grid spacing being consistent with the spatial density of
329 the available monitoring network and corresponding to a discretization of the variogram range
330 (Figure 3) with about 50 points. Figure 4a depicts the resulting kriging-based predictions of PDFs
331 of NBL of (log-transformed) ammonium concentrations. We note that, while point Kriging results
332 do not depend on the cell size, the latter can be otherwise influential to the graphical representation
333 associated with the color scale in Figure 4, which can nevertheless capture the overall spatial pattern
334 of the quantities of interest. Cross-validation results (Appendix A) fully support the satisfactory
335 performance of the prediction method.

336 Figures 4b and 4c illustrate the mean and standard deviation of the predicted NBL densities,
337 respectively. The highest mean values are mostly located in the eastern portion of the domain, close
338 to the coastal groundwater body, with moderate values of standard deviation. These results are
339 consistent with the observation that raw concentration data collected from this area tend to exhibit
340 large NH_4 values that persist over time (see also Figure 2), a finding which is possibly linked to
341 ammonium being more soluble in saline environments as compared to freshwater bodies.



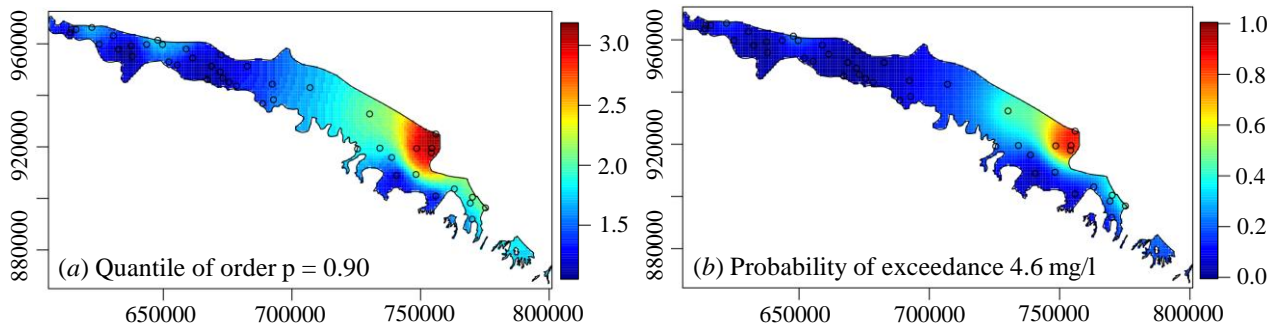
342

343 *Figure 4. Kriging prediction of NBL densities for ammonium log-concentrations: (a)*
 344 *kriged/predicted densities; (b) mean values, and (c) standard deviation estimated from the kriged*
 345 *densities.*
 346

347 A sector characterized by low mean and high standard deviation values is visible in the
 348 south of this area. This result is consistent with the documented pattern associated with
 349 experimental data in this region, which are characterized by a temporal evolution displaying high
 350 concentration values within a collection of otherwise low values. The central portion of the domain
 351 is characterized by modest mean concentration values with high standard deviations. Low mean
 352 values and low to moderate values of standard deviation are found within the western area. It is
 353 noted that demarcation of zones linked to differing behaviors of the target chemical species is one
 354 of the key advantages of the functional analysis approach we employ. Local high values of
 355 ammonium are consistent with the documented natural occurrence of paleo-peats (Amorosi et al.,
 356 1996; Cremonini et al., 2008) in sample cores collected at other locations across the area of interest,
 357 with an overall tendency of ammonium concentrations to increase with depth and with increasing
 358 thickness of the fine deposits that confine the aquifer. Further large scale sampling campaigns
 359 would be required for a detailed assessment of correspondences with specific local conditions.

360 Figure 5a depicts the predicted spatial variability of the 90% quantile of the NBL
361 concentration. These results are complemented by Figure 5b, where we depict the spatial
362 distribution of the probability of exceeding the reference NBL value of 4.6 mg/l, which was
363 suggested by Molinari et al. (2012) as representative of the global chemical status of the system
364 upon relying on the classical PS procedure, as proposed by Wendland et al. (2005) and described in
365 Section 2.2.1. The stark variability displayed by the 90th percentile across the domain documents the
366 presence of sectors within which the target chemical species shows differing behavior and suggests
367 the need for considering spatially variable local NBL values. Our results indicate that the
368 probability of exceeding the reference NBL value of 4.6 mg/l is very low across most of the
369 domain, high probability of exceedance being confined within a limited portion of the system.

370 We note that our results are in general agreement with the findings of Molinari et al. (2019),
371 where areas where such probability was evaluated above 80% are slightly wider than in our
372 findings, while being located in the same sector. We remark that the approach employed by these
373 authors (*i*) is based solely on summary statistics and not on the entire PDFs and (*ii*) relies on a
374 Gaussian assumption to represent (log-transformed) NBL concentrations. Additionally, it is noted
375 that data associated with boreholes with less than 10 records (after PS) were excluded from our
376 analysis to allow for PDF reconstruction and interpretation, while some of these were retained by
377 Molinari et al. (2019). Finally, we highlight that our approach is fully compatible with the
378 possibility of resorting to a multimodel analysis to comprise uncertainty about the choice of the
379 functional format for the variogram model (see e.g., Molinari et al. (2019)). While this element can
380 be of interest, we focus here on the main innovative aspect of our study, which is related to the
381 treatment of the data within the context of a functional geostatistical approach.



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Figure 5. Spatial distributions of predicted (a) quantile of order 90% and (b) probability of exceedance of an ammonium concentration threshold of 4.6 mg/l.

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The approach illustrated in Section 2.2.5 was then applied to the smoothed density data projected on the basis generated by the first $k = 8$ principal components (explaining 99.99% of the total variability) to generate a collection of random realizations of spatial distributions of NBL log-concentration values. The scores $x_{s_1, k_1}, x_{s_2, k_2}$ were modeled as uncorrelated for $k_1 \neq k_2$ and $s_1 \neq s_2$ in the domain, as supported by visual inspection of cross-variograms (not shown). An exponential model was calibrated to the empirical variogram for each spatial field of scores. Conditional Gaussian simulations were performed to yield a Monte Carlo (MC) collection of 100 realizations. The practical implementation relies on the adoption of sequential Gaussian simulation (Abrahamsen and Benth, 2001) as implemented within the R package gstat (Pebesma, 2004), and setting a local neighborhood of 60 km to reduce computational burden. The collection of NBL distributions was then built from the MC ensemble of scores.

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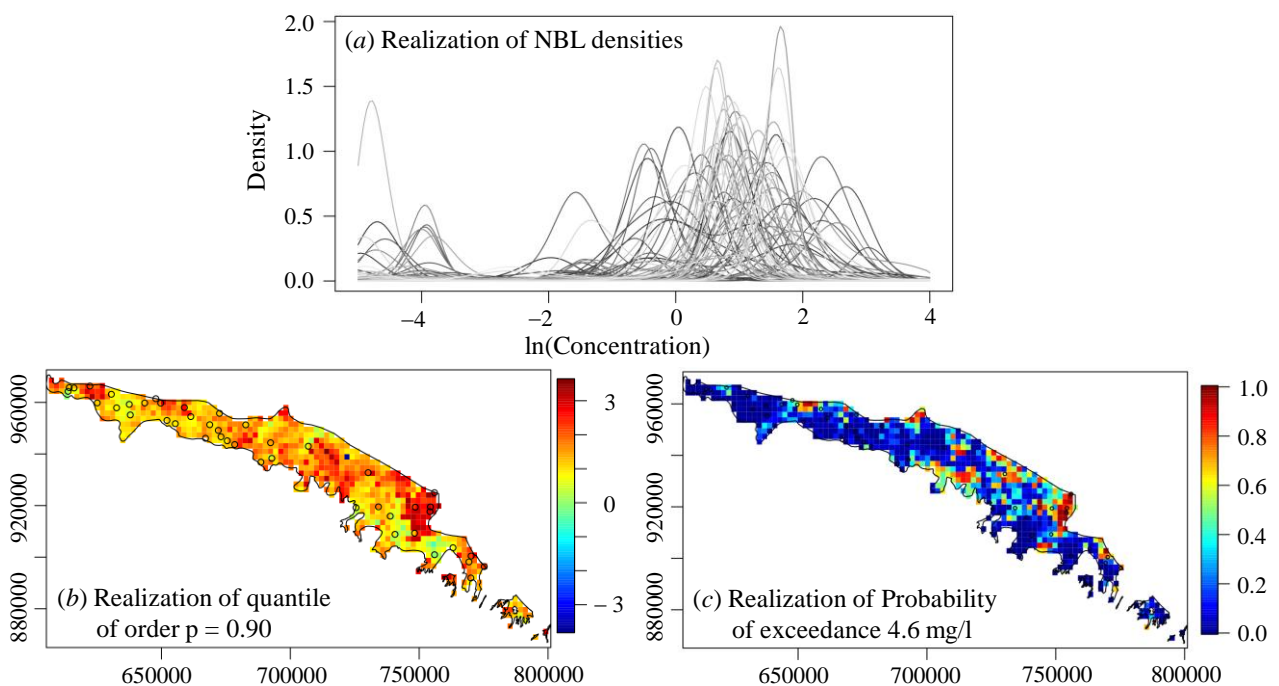
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Figure 6 depicts a realization of the spatial field of NBL densities (Figure 6a), the spatial distributions of the 90% quantile (Figure 6b) and the probability of exceeding the threshold value of 4.6 mg/l (Figure 6c). Similar to what we observed in Figure 5, the overall spatial pattern in Figures 6b, c is generally consistent with the results presented by Molinari et al. (2019) (see their Figure 2) and reinforces the concept that assigning a unique NBL value for a given chemical species to a large scale groundwater body can conceal the possibility of identifying regions with high (or low) geogenic contribution. These could in turn be ascribed to low (or high) anthropogenic activity, thus

404 potentially biasing expectations about results of groundwater protection measures. We recall that
 405 Molinari et al. (2019) (a) rely on the stringent assumption that the probability density of
 406 (log)concentrations can be described through a Gaussian model, and (b) parametrize the latter on
 407 the basis of kriging results relying solely on summary statistics evaluated from the available data.
 408 Rather, we are not limited by any assumption about the specific functional format of probability
 409 densities, which are entirely data-driven and are the object of the geostatistical analysis. As such,
 410 the tools and implementation workflow we propose is conducive to evaluations of the spatially
 411 heterogeneous field of NBL values in a probabilistic context upon maximizing the use of the
 412 amount of information embedded in the available data. This is seen as a critical element of a
 413 modern decision-making approach grounded on a firm environmental risk assessment practice.
 414 Future integration of these findings with other types of (hydro)geological and geochemical
 415 information can then yield a complete picture of the natural signature of the system analyzed.

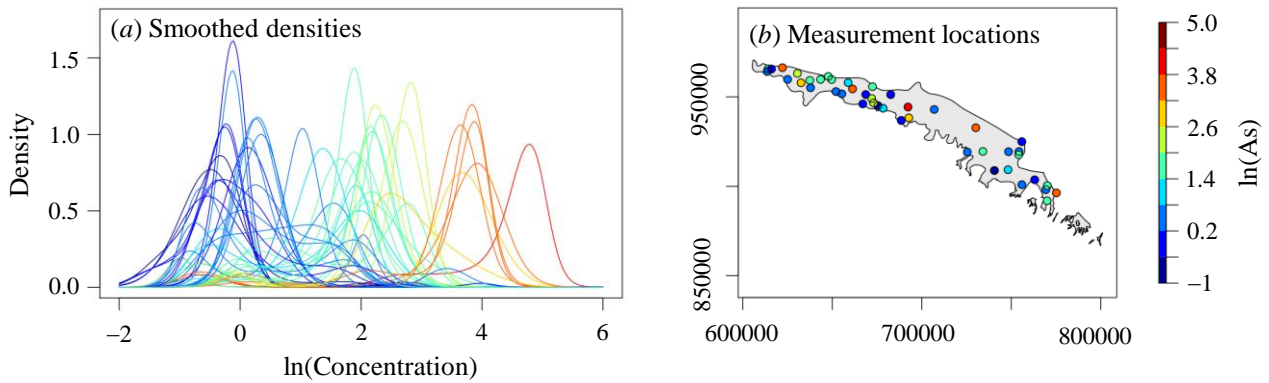


416
 417 *Figure 6. Example of a realization obtained from the (conditional) stochastic simulation of NBL*
 418 *distributions of ammonium log-concentrations. (a) Simulated NBL densities and corresponding*
 419 *spatial distributions, (b) 90% quantiles, (c) probability of exceeding a threshold value of 4.6 mg/l.*
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3.2. Arsenic

422 A total of 1096 data collected at 43 monitoring station were available for arsenic after PS
423 (see Section 2.1), with a number of observations per sampling point ranging between 11 to 38 (with
424 an average of about 25). Estimation of the PDF of the NBL concentrations is performed at each
425 borehole location consistently with the approach exemplified in Section 3.1. The resulting smoothed
426 data are depicted in Figure 7.



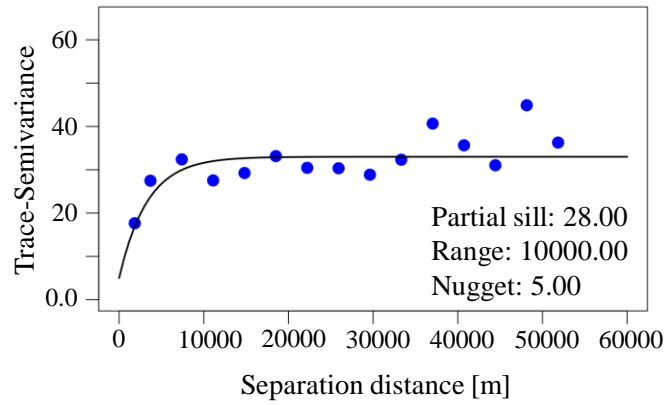
427

428 | *Figure 7. Smoothed data for arsenic log-concentrations (a), and corresponding spatial locations in*
429 *the investigated aquifer system (b). Colors are assigned according to the value of the mean related*
430 *to the corresponding smoothed density.*
431

432 Visual inspection of Figure 7 suggests a significant spatially heterogeneous behavior. The
433 highest mean values are scattered across the whole domain, suggesting that these could be
434 associated with local conditions. These types of results are consistent with the behavior of arsenic,
435 that is typically documented to display a remarkably high degree of spatial variability within a
436 given groundwater body (e.g., Duan et al., 2017; Pi et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2003; Liang et al.,
437 2017, 2018, 2019).

438 The sample trace-variogram associated with the available densities is depicted in Figure 8,
439 its pattern supporting a global stationarity assumption. An exponential model with nugget was
440 calibrated to the empirical variogram, its estimated parameters being listed in Figure 8. The
441 contribution of the nugget to the total variance is equal to 15%, suggesting the occurrence of
442 variability between sample pairs separated by short distance.

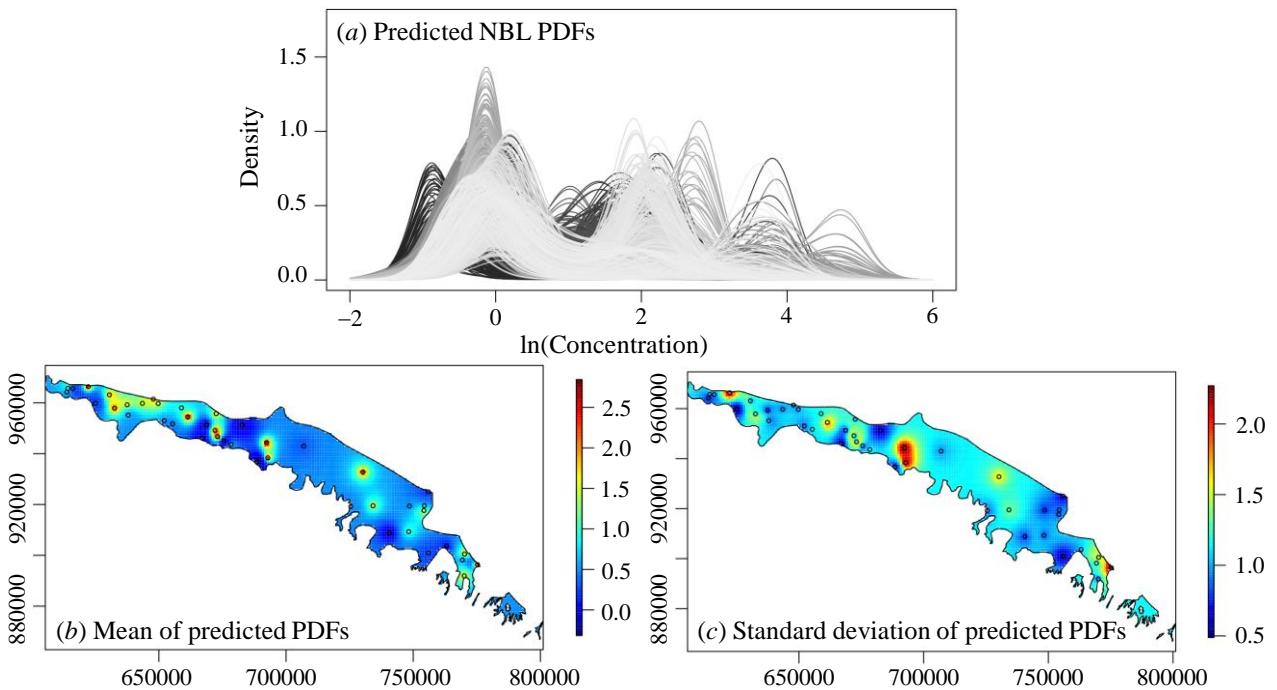
443 The available smoothed densities were then estimated through Kriging at the same set of
 444 unsampled locations considered in the ammonium case, grid spacing corresponding to a
 445 discretization of the variogram range (Figure 8) with about 10 points. Cross-validation results
 446 (Appendix A) fully support the satisfactory performance of the approach.



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448 *Figure 8. Sample trace-variogram estimated from the smoothed functional data for arsenic log-*
 449 *concentrations and interpreted model with estimated parameters.*

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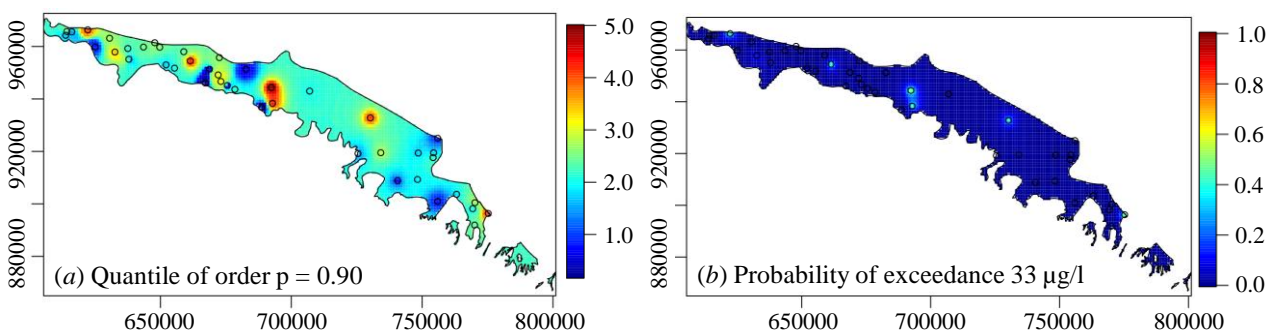
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452 *Figure 9. Kriging prediction of NBL densities for arsenic log-concentrations: (a) kriged/predicted*
 453 *density functions; (b) spatial distribution of mean values, and (c) standard deviation estimated from*
 454 *the kriged densities.*

455

456 Figure 9a depicts the predicted (i.e., based on functional Kriging results) PDFs of NBL log-
457 concentrations of arsenic. Figures 9b and 9c depict the estimates of mean value and standard
458 deviation of NBL densities, respectively. Moderate to high mean values are mostly located in the
459 north-western and central portions of the domain. The associated standard deviation varies from
460 moderate to high values. Areas characterized by high values of the mean value of predicted PDFs
461 appear to be localized in the surrounding of some measurement stations rather than being spread
462 across extended sectors of the domain. This finding is also consistent with possible occurrences of
463 lateral variations of arsenic concentrations, similar to other documented studies across several
464 regions worldwide.

465 Figure 10a depicts the spatially heterogeneous distribution of the predicted quantile of order
466 90% of the NBL As log-concentrations. To complement these results, Figure 10b shows the
467 probability of exceeding the reference NBL value of 33 $\mu\text{g/l}$, which had been evaluated by Molinari
468 et al. (2012) as representative of the global chemical status of the system through the classical PS
469 procedure (Wendland et al., 2005). We found that the probability of exceeding such a threshold
470 value is very modest throughout the system, with the exception of some localized spots where it
471 attains moderate values. This has a clear consequence on the assessment of the chemical status of
472 the system, which would have been (deterministically) classified as requiring attention on the basis
473 of such a performance metric.

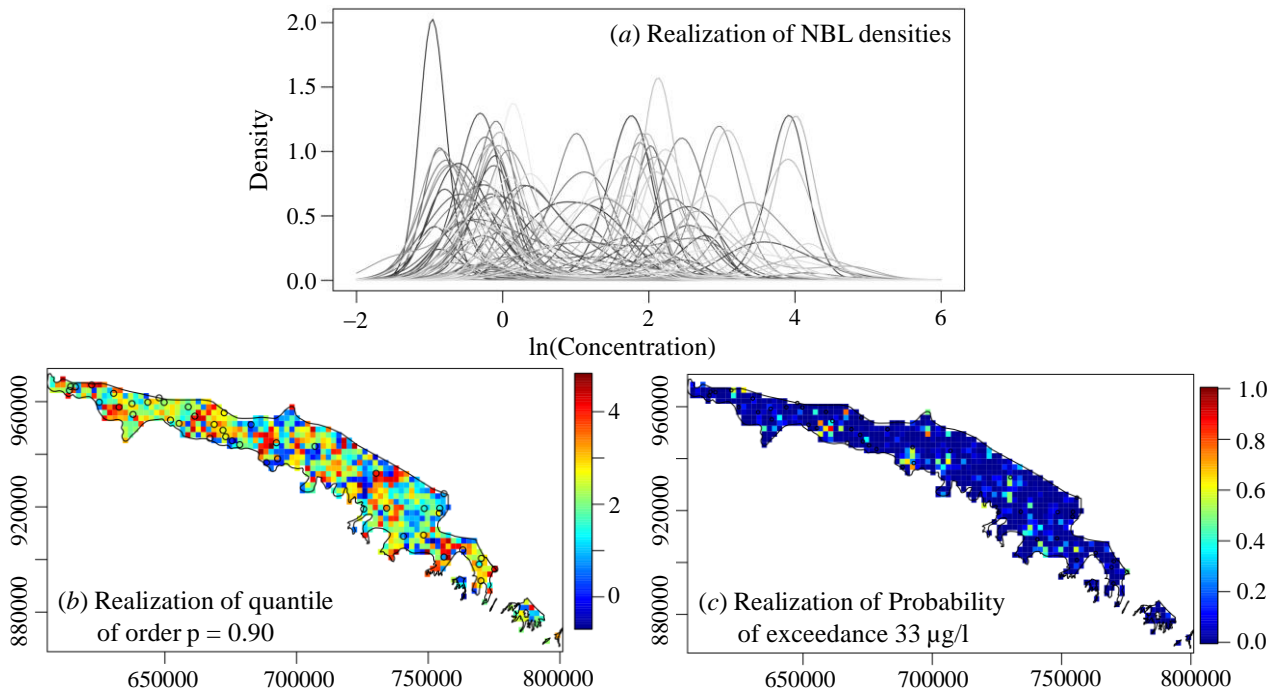


474

475 *Figure 10. Spatial distribution of predicted (a) 90% quantile and (b) probability of exceedance of*
476 *an arsenic concentration threshold of 33 $\mu\text{g/l}$.*
477

478 We note that Molinari et al. (2019) could not provide spatial maps of exceedance
479 probabilities, because their analysis, grounded solely on summary quantities, resulted in a pure
480 nugget semivariogram. Our results suggest that considering a functional analysis approach might
481 enable one to observe the emergence of some degree of spatial correlation when the complete
482 density associated with observations is embedded in the methodology.

483 Similar to the case of ammonium, we applied the stochastic simulation approach described in
484 Section 2.2.5 to the smoothed density data projected on the basis generated by the first $k = 8$
485 principal components (explaining 99.99% of the total variability). Modeling of the scores and of the
486 ensuing empirical variogram is performed as described in Section 3.1 for ammonium, conditional
487 Gaussian simulations being then performed to yield a collection of 100 MC realizations. The same
488 stochastic generation methodology described in Section 3.1 has been employed, a local
489 neighborhood of 60 km being set to alleviate computational time. Figure 11 depicts a selected
490 realization of the spatial field of NBL densities (Figure 11a), the corresponding spatial distributions
491 of quantiles of order 90% (Figure 11b), and the probability of exceeding the threshold value of 33
492 $\mu\text{g/l}$ (Figure 11c). The occurrence of localized spots associated with significant probability of high
493 natural arsenic concentrations are consistent with the documented presence at some depths in the
494 aquifer system of sediments whose composition includes a vegetal-rich fraction (see, e.g., Molinari
495 et al., 2013, 2014). These types of solid matrices are prone to potentially adsorb significant arsenic
496 amounts that can then be mobilized by variations of redox conditions (see, e.g., Molinari et al.,
497 2013, 2014, 2015). A detailed analysis to evaluate possible relationships and consistency with local
498 conditions would require additional large scale sampling campaigns which can be subject of future
499 studies.



500

501 *Figure 11. Example of a realization obtained from the (conditional) stochastic simulation of NBL*
 502 *distributions of arsenic. (a) Simulated NBL densities and corresponding spatial distributions of (b)*
 503 *90% quantiles, and (c) probability of exceeding the threshold value of 33 µg/l.*

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4. Conclusions

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We propose and apply a theoretical framework and the ensuing operational workflow to obtain a rigorous (probabilistic) assessment of Natural Background Levels (NBL) of concentrations of target chemical species in large-scale groundwater bodies, which are usually characterized by a high degree of heterogeneity of sedimentological and hydrogeochemical conditions. Our approach enables one to fully consider the richness of information embedded in the available historical records of routinely monitored concentrations which are then typically employed (e.g., by Environmental Agencies) to assess the chemical status of a groundwater body. On these bases, we suggest a change of perspective in the way one should consider evaluating NBL concentrations in a modern probabilistic risk assessment context. Rather than focusing on selected (statistical) moments or percentiles (i.e., summary statistics) evaluated on the basis of sample probability distributions of concentrations at individual boreholes, we associate with each monitoring station the entire distribution of NBL concentrations. The latter is represented through its (estimated) density

518 function, which we model as a random point in a Bayesian Hilbert space and then analyze in the
519 context of Object Oriented Data Analysis. The merits of the approach are exemplified through an
520 application targeting the evaluation of the main characteristics of the spatial variability of the NBLs
521 of two selected chemical species (ammonium and arsenic) within a large scale groundwater body in
522 Northern Italy.

523 Our study leads to the following major conclusions.

- 524 1. The approach enables one to identify local trends within a given groundwater body, as
525 quantified in terms of spatial heterogeneity of NBL concentrations, in a probabilistic
526 context, without being limited to relying solely on selected quantiles of the distribution of
527 concentrations extracted from historical records. As such, it is possible to demarcate sectors
528 where distinct NBL spatial patterns emerge from an average system behavior, to be then
529 integrated within a decision-making activity.
- 530 2. The approach is fully consistent with modern requirements of tailoring the objective of
531 environmental actions to spatially varying conditions. This forms the platform to set
532 appropriate and cost-effective remediation goals and actions for deteriorated groundwater
533 bodies which account for the complete set of information embedded in the historical records.
534 Relying on rigorously assessed spatial distributions of probabilities of exceeding given NBL
535 concentration thresholds hampers the risk of assigning exceedingly high values of natural
536 background concentrations to areas subject to anthropogenic activities or otherwise setting
537 very low background levels within regions where the geogenic contribution can be
538 significant. Lack of consideration of these elements could lead to setting unrealistic
539 remediation goals.
- 540 3. Having the ability to generate multiple conditional spatial realizations of NBL densities
541 enables a complete uncertainty quantification (see our exemplary results in Section 3) which
542 would be otherwise impossible with standard methods of analysis currently adopted in
543 practical applications targeting large scale groundwater bodies. These elements are markedly

544 relevant in such systems, whose hydrogeologic, lithologic, and geochemical characteristics
545 can be associated with large spatial heterogeneity.

546 Key values of the study are methodological as well as operational. From a methodological
547 standpoint, the workflow we propose includes elements of innovation which go beyond limitations
548 of other typically used approaches, including the possibility of effectively using the full information
549 content embedded in data which are routinely monitored by local authorities and public
550 environmental agencies. From an operational standpoint, it provides an appraisal of the probability
551 that a given threshold value of concentration of geogenic origin can be exceeded in the exemplary
552 areas considered. The ability to provide a robust and data-driven quantification of probability of
553 exceedance provides an important element of flexibility in decision-making under uncertainty. The
554 nature of the approach allows accounting for specific local needs, as viewed in the broad regional
555 context, as well as the possibility of updating the results of the analysis as data become available.
556 As such, it enables one to structure corrective actions according to levels of priorities related to
557 target concentration thresholds and associated probability distributions linked to specific areas,
558 which might be characterized by distinct local requirements. In this sense, our results can provide a
559 support to identify localized areas where detailed hydrogeological studies can be promoted with the
560 aim, e.g., to constrain uncertainty associated with predicted NBL values and associated probability
561 of exceedance.

562

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Appendix A

564 The performance of the proposed approach is assessed through a leave-one-out cross-
 565 validation (LOO CV) analysis. Here, for each site s_i in D , the PDF of the NBL PDF X_{s_i} is left out of
 566 the sample and a training set built upon all of the other NBL PDFs, $\{X_{s_j}, j \neq i\}$, is considered for
 567 calibration of the geostatistical model, following the same steps and parameter settings as in Section
 568 3. Kriging is then used to predict the left-out NBL PDF X_{s_i} , yielding a prediction $X_{s_i}^{*(-i)}$. The
 569 prediction error for each site is evaluated through the sum of squared errors (SSE) as

$$570 \text{SSE}(X_{s_i}) = d_{B^2}^2(X_{s_i}, X_{s_i}^{*(-i)}) = \frac{1}{2(b-a)} \int_a^b \int_a^b \ln \left(\frac{X_{s_i}(t)X_{s_i}^{*(-i)}(s)}{X_{s_i}(s)X_{s_i}^{*(-i)}(t)} \right) dt ds. \quad (A1)$$

571 Table A1 lists the summary statistics of SSE, as assessed via LOO CV for ammonium (first
 572 row) and arsenic (second row). It is noted that the LOO CV analyses for these chemical species are
 573 performed separately. Overall, the order of magnitude of the errors is fully consistent with the
 574 estimated sills of the trace-variograms (estimated sills: 36.35 and 33.00 for ammonium and arsenic,
 575 respectively).

Chemical Species	Min	Q1	Median	Mean	Q3	Max
Ammonium	8.81	18.16	26.58	29.97	40.01	109.08
Arsenic	9.84	19.91	26.96	35.43	36.32	134.37

576 *Table A1: Summary statistics for SSE (A1).*

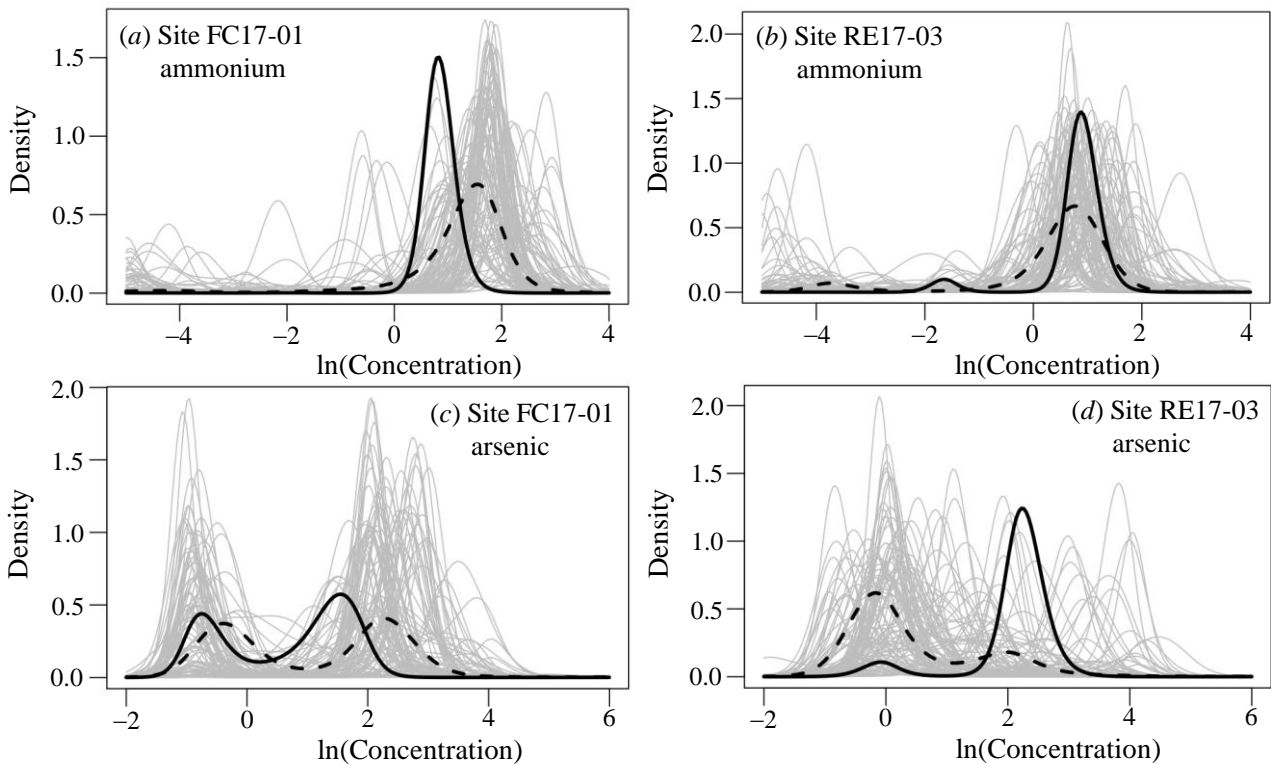
577 The LOO CV analysis is additionally used to evaluate the ability of our conditional simulation
 578 theoretical approach and operational workflow to represent prediction uncertainty. As an example,
 579 Figure A1 depicts the results obtained at two locations (denoted as FC17–01 and RE17–03) for
 580 ammonium (top panels) and arsenic (bottom panels). Predicted NBL PDFs at these locations are
 581 depicted with dashed black curves, whereas grey curves correspond to the $B = 100$ conditional
 582 simulations at the site. The observed PDFs are represented as thick black curves. Visual inspection
 583 of Figure A1 suggests that conditional simulations well represent the uncertainty associated with the

584 predictions for both chemical species. For instance, one can observe that, even as the kriging error
 585 for arsenic at location RE17-03 appears to be quite high, the conditional simulations at the site
 586 suggest that a high uncertainty is associated with the prediction. Note that here, the test NBL PDF is
 587 well captured by the simulated collection of realizations.

588 To quantitatively assess the performance in terms of uncertainty quantification, we then
 589 compute the distance between the test curve and the ensemble of Monte Carlo simulations as

$$590 \text{SSE}_{\text{sim}}(X_{S_i}) = \min \left\{ d_{B^2}^2(X_{S_i}, X_{S_i}^{b(-i)}), b = 1, \dots, B \right\} \quad (\text{A2})$$

591 where $X_{S_i}^{b(-i)}$ denotes the b -th conditional simulation when the i -th observation is left out of the
 592 sample. In practice, the smaller $\text{SSE}_{\text{sim}}(X_{S_i})$, the closer the ensemble is to the test observation X_{S_i} .
 593 For instance, values of $\text{SSE}_{\text{sim}}(X_{S_i})$ for ammonium at locations FC17-01 and RE17-03 are 5.96 and
 594 7.56, respectively, their counterparts corresponding to arsenic being 16.46 and 10.28, respectively.
 595 Table 2 lists the summary statistics associated with SSE_{sim} for both chemical species. One can note
 596 that the ensemble is typically quite close to the test observation, with an average SSE_{sim} of 10.67
 597 and 9.02 for ammonium and arsenic, respectively.



598

599 *Figure A1. Leave-one-out cross-validation results at sites FC17-01 and RE17-03. Dashed black*
 600 *curves correspond to predicted NBL PDFs, whereas grey curves correspond to the $B = 100$*
 601 *conditional simulations at the site; observed PDFs are represented as thick black curves.*

Chemical Species	Min	Q1	Median	Mean	Q3	Max
Ammonium	2.30	5.70	7.88	10.67	13.15	41.92
Arsenic	1.05	5.31	7.14	9.023	10.56	30.38

603 *Table A2: Summary statistics for SSE_{sim} (A2).*

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Credit Statement

All Authors have contributed to the study and preparation of the manuscript.