1 Delineating multiple salinization processes in a coastal plain aquifer, northern China:

2 hydrochemical and isotopic evidence

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Abstract

11 Groundwater is an important water resource for agricultural irrigation, urban and industrial utilization in the coastal regions of northern China. In the past five decades, coastal groundwater salinization in the 12 Yang-Dai River plain has become increasingly serious under the influence of anthropogenic activities and 13 14 climatic change. It is pivotal for the scientific management of coastal water resources to accurately understand groundwater salinization processes and their causative factors. Hydrochemical (major ion and 15 trace element) and stable isotopic (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) analysis of different water bodies (surface water, 16 groundwater, geothermal water, and seawater) were conducted to improve understanding of groundwater 17 18 salinization processes in the plain's Quaternary aquifer. Saltwater intrusion due to intensive groundwater 19 pumping is a major process, either by vertical infiltration along riverbeds which convey saline surface 20 water inland, and/or direct subsurface lateral inflow. Trends in salinity with depth indicate that the former 21 may be more important than previously assumed. The proportion of seawater in groundwater is estimated to have reached up to 13% in shallow groundwater of a local well field. End-member mixing calculations 22 23 also indicate that highly mineralized geothermal water (TDS of up to 10.6 g/L) with depleted stable isotope 24 compositions and elevated strontium concentrations (>10 mg/L) also locally mixes with water in the overlying Quaternary aquifers. This is particularly evident in samples with elevated Sr/Cl ratios (>0.005 25 mass ratio). Deterioration of groundwater quality by salinization is also clearly exacerbated by 26 27 anthropogenic pollution. Nitrate contamination via intrusion of heavily polluted marine water is evident locally (e.g. in the Zaoyuan well field); however, more widespread nitrate contamination due to other local 28 29 sources such as fertilizers and/or domestic wastewater is evident on the basis of NO₃/Cl ratios. This study 30 provides an example of how multiple geochemical indicators can delineate different salinization processes 31 and guide future water management practices in a densely populated water-stressed coastal region.

32 Key words: Groundwater salinization; Stable isotopes; Coastal aquifers, Water quality

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Coastal regions are key areas for the world's social and economic development. 35 Approximately 40% of the world's population lives within 100 kilometers of the coast (UN Atlas, 2010). Worldwide, these areas have become increasingly urbanized, with 14 of the world's 17 largest cities located 36 37 along coasts (Creel, 2003). China has 18,000 km of continental coastline, and around 164 million people 38 (approximately 12% of the total population) living in 14 coastal provinces; nearly 80% of these people 39 inhabit three coastal 'economic zones', namely Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei, the Yangtze River delta and the 40 Pearl River delta (Shi, 2012). The rapid economic development and growing population in these regions 41 have greatly increased demand for fresh water. Meanwhile, they are also confronted with increased sewage and other wastewater discharge into coastal environments. 42

43 Groundwater resources play crucial roles in the social, economic and ecologic function of global coastal systems (IPCC, 2007). Coastal aquifers connect with the ocean and with continental 44 hydro-ecological systems (Moore, 1996; Ferguson and Gleeson, 2012). As an important freshwater 45 resource, groundwater may be over-extracted during periods of high demand, which are often periods of 46 47 low recharge and/or surface water availability (Post, 2005). Over-exploitation of groundwater can therefore 48 result in seawater intrusion, as well as related environmental issues such as land subsidence. Seawater 49 intrusion has become a global issue and related studies can be found from coastal aquifers around the world, 50 including Israel (Sivan et al., 2005; Yechieli et al., 2009; Mazi et al., 2014), Spain (Price and Herman, 1991; 51 Pulido-Leboeuf, 2004; Garing et al., 2013), France (Barbecot et al., 2000; de Montety et al., 2008), Italy (Giambastiani et al., 2007; Ghiglieri et al., 2012), Morocco (Bouchaou et al., 2008; El Yaouti et al., 2009), 52 53 USA (Gingerich and Voss, 2002; Masterson, 2004; Langevin et al., 2010), Australia (Zhang et al., 2004; 54 Narayan et al., 2007; Werner, 2010), China (Xue et al., 2000; Han et al., 2011, 2015), Vietnam (An et al., 55 2014), Indonesia (Rahmawati et al., 2013), India (Radhakrishna, 2001; Bobba, 2002) and Brazil 56 (Montenegro et al., 2006; Cary et al., 2015). Werner et al. (2013) provides a comprehensive review of 57 seawater intrusion processes, investigation and management.

Seawater/saltwater intrusion is a complicated hydrogeological process, due to the impact of aquifer properties, anthropogenic activities (e.g., intensive groundwater pumping, irrigation practices), recharge rates, variable density flow, tidal activity and effects relating to global climate change, such as sea level rise (Ghassemi et al., 1993; Robinson et al., 1998; Smith and Turner, 2001; Simpson and Clement, 2004; Narayan et al., 2007; Werner and Simmons, 2009; Wang et al., 2015). Understanding the complex 63 interactions between groundwater, surface water, and seawater is thus essential for effective management of 64 coastal water resources (Mondal et al., 2010). Very different salinization patterns may arise as a result of 65 diverse interactions in coastal settings (Sherif and Singh, 1999; Bobba, 2002; Westbrook et al., 2005). Modeling has shown that generally, seawater intrusion is more sensitive to groundwater pumping and 66 67 recharge rates in comparison to tidal fluctuation and sea level rise (Narayan et al., 2007; Ferguson and 68 Gleeson, 2012). However, most models of seawater intrusion require simplification of the coastal interface 69 zone. Relatively few studies have focused on delineating complex interactions among the 70 surface-ground-sea-water continuum in estuarine environments, including the effects of vertical infiltration 71 of seawater into aquifers through river channels, as compared to sub-surface lateral landward migration of 72 the freshwater-saltwater interface. Recent data indicate that such processes may be more important in 73 causing historical salinization of coastal groundwater than previously appreciated (e.g. Cary et al., 2015; 74 Lee et al., 2016; Larsen et al., 2017).

75 Additionally, groundwater in coastal aquifers may be affected by other salinization processes, such as 76 input of anthropogenic contaminants or induced mixing with saline water from deeper or adjacent formations, which may include mineralized geothermal water or brines emplaced in the coastal zone over 77 78 geologic history. The data from China's marine environment bulletin released on March 2015 by the State 79 Oceanic Administration showed that the major bays, including Bohai Bay, Liaodong Bay and Hangzhou 80 Bay, are seriously polluted, with inorganic nitrogen and active phosphate being the major pollutants (SOA, 81 2015). Seawater intrusion in China is most serious in the Circum-Bohai-Sea region (Han et al., 2011, 82 2016a); and due to the heavy marine pollution, the impacts of anthropogenic activities on groundwater 83 quality in future may not simply be a case of simple salt-water intrusion. This region is also characterized 84 by deep brines and geothermal waters (e.g. Han et al., 2014), which may migrate and mix with fresher 85 groundwater under due to intensive water extraction. Depending on the specific processes involved, 86 additional contaminants may mix with fresh groundwater resources in parallel with seawater intrusion, and 87 it is thus likely to be more difficult to mitigate and remediate groundwater pollution.

A variety of approaches can be used to investigate and differentiate seawater intrusion and other salinization processes, including time-series water level and salinity measurements, geophysical methods, conceptual and mathematical modeling as well as geochemical methods (see reviews by Jones et al., 1999; Werner et al., 2013). Geochemical techniques are particularly valuable in areas where the dynamics of saline intrusion are complicated and may involve long-term processes pre-dating accurate water level

93 records, or where multiple salinization processes may be occurring simultaneously. These techniques 94 typically employ the use of major ion ratios such as Cl/Br and Cl/Na, which are indicative of solute origins 95 (Edmunds, 1996; Jones et al., 1999). Other ionic ratios, involving Mg, Ca, Na, HCO₃ and SO₄, and 96 characterization of water 'types' can also be useful in determining the geochemical evolution of coastal 97 groundwater, for example, indicating freshening or salinization, due to commonly associated ion exchange 98 and redox reactions (Anderson et al., 2005; Walraevens, 2007). Trace elements such as strontium, lithium 99 and boron can provide additional valuable information about sources of salinity and mixing between 100 various end-members, as particular waters can have distinctive concentrations (and/or isotopic compositions) of these elements (e.g., Vengosh et al., 1999). Stable isotopes of water (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) are 101 102 also commonly used in such studies, as they are sensitive indicators of water and salinity sources, allowing 103 seawater to be distinguished from other salt sources (e.g., Currell et al., 2015).

104 This study examines the Yang-Dai River coastal plain in Qinhuangdao City, Hebei province, north 105 China, specifically focusing on salinization of fresh groundwater caused by groundwater exploitation in the Zaoyuan well field and surrounding areas. The study investigates groundwater salinization processes and 106 107 interactions among surface water, seawater and geothermal groundwater in a dynamic environment, with 108 significant pressure on water resources. Qinhuangdao is an important port and tourist city of northern China. 109 In the past 30 years, many studies have investigated seawater intrusion and its influencing factors in the 110 region using hydrochemical analysis (Xu, 1986; Yang et al., 1994, 2008; Chen and Ma, 2002; Sun and Yang, 111 2007; Zhang, 2012) and numerical simulations (Han, 1990; Bao, 2005; Zuo, 2009). However, these studies 112 have yet to provide clear resolution of the different mechanisms contributing to salinization, and have 113 typically ignored the role of anthropogenic pollution and groundwater-surface water interaction. This study 114 is thus a continuation of previous investigations of the region, using a range of hydrochemical and stable 115 isotopic data to delineate the major processes responsible for increasing groundwater salinity, including 116 lateral sub-surface sea-water intrusion, vertical leakage of marine-influenced surface water, induced mixing 117 of saline geothermal water, and anthropogenic pollution. The goal is to obtain a more robust conceptual 118 model of the interconnections between the various water sources under the impact of groundwater exploitation. The results provide significant new information to assist water resources management in the 119 120 coastal plain of Bohai Bay, and other similar coastal areas globally.

121 2. Study area

The Yang-Dai River coastal plain (Fig. 1) covers approximately 200km² of the west side of Beidaihe District of Qinhuangdao City, northeastern Hebei Province. It is surrounded by the Yanshan Mountains to the north and west, and the southern boundary of the study area is the Bohai Sea. The plain declines in topographic elevation (with an average slope of 0.008) from approximately 390m above sea-level in the northwest to 1-25m in the southeast, forming a fan-shaped distribution of incised piedmont-alluvial plain sediments. Zaoyuan well field, located in the southern edge of the alluvial fan, approximately 4.3km from the Yang River estuary, was built in 1959 (Xu, 1986) as a major water supply for the region (Fig. 1).

129 **2.1 Climate and hydrology**

The study area is in a warm and semi-humid monsoon climate. On the basis of a 56-year record in Qinhuangdao, the mean annual rainfall is approximately 640 mm, the average annual temperature approximately 11°C, and mean potential evaporation 1469 mm. 75% of the total annual rainfall falls in July-September (Zuo, 2006), during the East Asian Summer Monsoon. The average annual tide level is 0.86m (meters above Yellow Sea base level), while the high and low tides are approximately 2.48m and -1.43m.

The Yanghe River and Daihe River, originating from the Yanshan Mountains, are the major surface water bodies in the area, flowing southward into the Bohai Sea (Fig. 1). The Yang River is approximately 100 km long with a catchment area of 1029 km² and average annual runoff of $1.11 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3/\text{a}$ (Han, 1988). Dai River has a length of 35 km and catchment area of 290 km², with annual runoff of $0.27 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3/\text{a}$. The rivers become full during intense rain events, and revert to minimal flow during the dry season – in part this is related to impoundment of flow in upstream reservoirs.

142 **2.2 Geological and hydrogeological setting**

Groundwater in the area includes water in Quaternary porous sediment as well as fractured bedrock in the northern platform area. Fractured rock groundwater volume mainly depends on the degree of weathering and the nature and regularity of fault zones (Fig. 1). The strata outcropping in the west, north and eastern edge of the plain include Archean, Proterozoic and Jurassic aged metamorphic and igneous rocks, which also underlie the Quaternary sediments of the plain (from which most samples in this study were collected). The basement faults under Quaternary cover are mainly NE-trending and NW-trending (Fig. 1); these structures control the development and thickness of the overlying sediments, as well as the distribution of hot springs and geothermal anomalies. Fault zones are thought to be the main channel fortransport of thermal water from deeper to shallower depths.

152 The Quaternary sediments are widely distributed in the area, with the thickness ranging from approximately 5-80 m (mostly 20-40 m), up to more than 100 m immediately adjacent to the coastline. The 153 154 bottom of the Holocene (Q_4) unit in most areas consists of clay, making the groundwater in the coastal zone 155 confined or semi-confined, although there are no regional, continuous aquitards between several layers of 156 aquifer-forming sediments (Fig. 1b). The aquifer is mainly composed of medium sand, coarse sand and 157 gravel layers with a water table depth of 1-4 m in the phreatic aquifer, and deeper semi-confined 158 groundwater (where present and hydraulically separated from the phreatic aquifer) hosted in similar 159 deposits with a potentiometric surface 1-5 m below topographic elevation (Zuo, 2006).

160 The general flow direction of groundwater is from northwest to south, according to the topography. 161 The main sources of recharge are from infiltration of rainfall, river water and irrigation return-flow, as well 162 as lateral subsurface inflow from the piedmont area. Naturally, groundwater discharges into the rivers and 163 the Bohai Sea. Apart from phreatic water evaporation, groundwater pumping for agricultural, industrial and 164 domestic usage (including seasonal tourism) are currently the main pathways of groundwater discharge.

Geothermal water discharges into shallow Quaternary sediments near the fault zones, evident as geothermal anomalies (Hui, 2009). The temperature of thermal water ranges from 27-57°C in this low-to-medium temperature geothermal field (Zeng, 1991). Deeper thermal water is stored in the Archaeozoic granite and metamorphic rocks; major fracture zones provide pathways into the overlying Quaternary sediments (Pan, 1990; Shen et al., 1993; Yang, 2011).

170 **2.3 Groundwater usage and seawater intrusion history**

171 Shallow groundwater pumped from the Quaternary aquifer occupies 94% of total groundwater exploitation, and is used for agricultural irrigation (52% of total groundwater use), industrial (32%) and 172 173 domestic water (16%) (Meng, 2004). Many large and medium-sized reservoirs were built in the 1960s and 174 1970s meaning that the surface water was intercepted and downstream runoff dropped sharply, even 175 causing rivers to dry up in drought years. With the intensification of human socio-economic activities and growing urbanization, coupled with extended drought years (severe drought during 1976-1989 in north 176 177 China) (Wilhite, 1993; Han et al., 2015), increased groundwater exploitation to meet the ever-growing fresh 178 water demand resulted in groundwater level declines and seawater intrusion (SWI) in the aquifers.

The pumping rate in the Zaoyuan well field gradually increased from 1.25 million m^3/a in the early 179 1960s to 3.5 million m^3/a in the late 1970s, and beyond 10 million m^3/a in the 1980s. During 1966-1989, 180 181 planting of paddy fields became common, resulting in significant agricultural water consumption. This 182 caused formation of a cone of depression in the Quaternary aquifer system. Groundwater pumping in this 183 region mainly occurs in spring and early summer, with typical pumping rates of $7 \sim 80,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{d}$. Pumping 184 from the Zaoyuan well-field occurs in wells approximately 15 to 20m deep. Groundwater levels decline 185 sharply and reach their lowest level during May, before the summer rains begin, and recover to their yearly 186 high in January-February (Fig. 2). In May 1986, the groundwater level in the depression center, which is 187 located in Zaoyuan-Jiangying (Figure S1), decreased to -2 m.a.s.l.(meters above sea level) and the area with groundwater levels below sea level covered 28.2 km². The local government commenced reduction in 188 189 groundwater exploitation in this area after 1992, and groundwater levels began to decrease more slowly 190 after 1995, even showing recovery in some wells. However, during an extreme drought year (1999), 191 increased water demand resulted in renewed groundwater level declines in the region (Fig. 2). Since 2000, 192 the groundwater levels have responded seasonally to water demand peaks and recharge (Fig. 2; Fig. S1).

From 1990, the rapid development of township enterprises (mainly paper mills), also began to cause groundwater over-exploitation in the western area of the plain. The groundwater pumping rate for paper mills reached 55,000 m³/d in 2002, resulting in groundwater level depressions around Liushouying and Fangezhuang (Fig. 1). The groundwater level in the western depression associated with this pumping reached -11.6 m.a.s.l. in 1991 and -17.4 in 2002. After the implementation of "Transfering Qing River water to Qinhuangdao" project in 1992, the intensity of groundwater pumping generally reduced, and the groundwater level in the depression center recovered to -4.3 m.a.s.l. in July 2006.

200 Overall, the depression area (groundwater levels below mean sea level) was recorded as 132.3km² in May 2004 and the shape of the depression has generally been elliptical with the major axis aligned E-W. In 201 202 addition to groundwater over-exploitation, climate change-induced recharge reduction has also likely 203 contributed to groundwater level declines and hence seawater intrusion (Fig. S2). The annual average 204 rainfall declined from 639.7 mm between 1954 - 1979 to 594.2 mm between 1980-2010; a significant 205 decrease over the last 30 years (Zhang, 2012). As indicated in Figure S2, the severity of seawater intrusion 206 (indicated by changes in Cl concentration, and the total area impacted by SWI, as defined by the 250mg/L 207 Cl contour) correlates with periods of below average rainfall - indicated by monthly cumulative rainfall 208 departure (CRD, Weber and Stewart, 2004).

209 Groundwater quality of the area gradually became more saline from the early 1980s, with chloride concentrations increasing year by year. As early as 1979, seawater intrusion was recorded in the Zaoyuan 210 211 well field. The intrusion area with groundwater chloride concentration greater than 250 mg/L was 21.8 km² in 1984, 32.4 km² in 1991, 52.6 km² in 2004 and 57.3 km² in 2007 (Zuo, 2006; Zang et al., 2010). The 212 213 chloride concentration of groundwater pumped from the a monitored well-field well (depth of 18 m, G10 in 214 Fig. 1) changed from 90 mg/L in 1963 to 218 mg/L in 1978, 567 mg/L in 1986, 459 mg/L in 1995, and 215 1367 mg/L in 2002 (Zuo, 2006), reducing to 812 mg/L in July 2007. The distance of estimated seawater 216 intrusion into the inland area from the coastline had reached 6.5 km in 1991, and 8.75 km in 2008 (Zang et 217 al., 2010). In the early 1990s, 16 of 21 pumping wells in the well field were abandoned due to the saline water quality (Liang et al., 2010). Additionally, 370 of 520 pumping wells were abandoned in the wider 218 219 Yang-Dai River coastal plain during 1982-1991 (Zuo, 2006).

3. Methods

In total, 80 water samples were collected from the Yang-Dai River coastal plain, including 58 groundwater samples, 19 river water samples (from 12 sites) and 3 seawater samples, during three sampling campaigns (June 2008, September 2009 and August 2010). Groundwater samples were pumped from 28 production wells with depths between 6 and 110m, including 7 deep wells with depths greater than 60m (Fig. 1). While ideally, sampling for geochemical parameters would be conducted on monitoring wells, due to an absence of these, production wells were utilised. In most cases, the screened interval of these wells encompasses aquifer thicknesses of approximately 5 to 15m above the depths indicated in Table 1.

In this study, sampling focused predominantly on low temperature groundwater; however, geothermal water from around Danihe was also considered a potentially important ongoing source of groundwater salinity. As such, while geothermal water samples were not accessible during our sampling campaigns (as the area is now protected), data reported by Zeng (1991) were compiled and analyzed in conjunction with the sampled wells.

233 Measurements of physico-chemical parameters (pH, temperature, and electrical conductivity (EC)) 234 were conducted in situ using a portable meter (WTW Multi 3500i). All water samples were filtered with 235 0.45 μ m membrane filters before analysis of hydrochemical composition. Two aliquots in polyethylene 236 100mL bottles at each site were collected for major cation and anion analysis, respectively. Samples for 237 cation analysis (Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺) were treated with 6N HNO₃ to prevent precipitation. Water

238 samples were sealed and stored at 4°C until analysis. Bicarbonate was determined by titration within 12 hours of sampling. Concentrations of cations and some trace elements (B, Sr, Li) were analyzed by 239 inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) in the chemical laboratory of the 240 241 Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research (IGSNRR), Chinese Academy Sciences (CAS). Only the Sr data are reported here, as the other trace elements were not relevant to the 242 interpretations discussed (Table 1). The detection limits for analysis of Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ are 0.03, 243 0.05, 0.009, and 0.02 mg/L. Concentrations of major anions (i.e. Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and F⁻) were analyzed 244 using a High Performance Ion Chromatograph (SHIMADZU, LC-10ADvp) at the IGSNRR, CAS. The 245 detection limits for analysis of Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and F⁻ are 0.007, 0.018, 0.016, and 0.006 mg/L. The testing 246 precision the cation and anion analysis is 0.1-5.0%. Charge balance errors were less than 8%. Stable 247 isotopes (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) of water samples were measured using a Finnigan MAT 253 mass spectrometer 248 249 after on-line pyrolysis with a Thermo Finnigan TC/EA in the Stable Isotope Laboratory of the IGSNRR, CAS. The results are expressed in ‰ relative to international standards (V-SMOW (Vienna Standard Mean 250 Ocean Water)) and resulting δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values are shown in Table 1. The analytical precision for δ^{2} H is 251 $\pm 2\%$ and for δ^{18} O is $\pm 0.5\%$. All hydrochemical, physico-chemical and isotope data are reported in Table 1. 252

253 Mixing calculations were also conducted on the basis of Cl⁻ concentrations of the samples under a 254 conservative freshwater-seawater mixing system (Fidelibus et al., 1993; Appelo, 1994). The seawater 255 contribution for each sample is expressed as a fraction of seawater (f_{sw}), using (Appelo and Postma, 2005):

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$$f_{sw} = \frac{C_{Cl,sam} - C_{Cl,f}}{C_{Cl,sw} - C_{Cl,f}}$$
(1)

257 where $C_{Cl,sam}$, $C_{Cl,f}$, and $C_{Cl,sw}$ refer to the Cl⁻ concentration in the sample, freshwater, and seawater, 258 respectively.

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260 **4. Results**

261 4.1 Water stable isotopes (δ^2 H and δ^{18} O)

The local meteoric water line (LMWL, δ^2 H=6.6 δ^{18} O+0.3, n=64, r²=0.88) is based on δ^2 H and δ^{18} O mean monthly rainfall values between 1985 and 2003 from Tianjin station some 120 km SW of Qinhuangdao City (IAEA/WMO, 2006). Due to similar climate and position relative to the coast, this can be regarded as representative of the study area. Surface water samples collected from Yang River and Dai River (n = 19) have δ^{18} O and δ^2 H values ranging from -10.1 to -0.6‰ (mean= -5.4‰) and -71 to-11‰ (mean = -43‰), respectively. Stable isotope compositions for surface water appear to exhibit significant seasonal variation (Fig. S3); for Yang River samples from the relatively dry season (June 2008, n = 3) had mean δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values of -3.0‰ -31‰, respectively; samples from the wet season (August 2009 and September 2010, n = 6) had mean δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values of -6.6‰ -48‰, respectively. Dai River samples showed similar results; the dry season mean δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values (n = 3) were -2.6‰ and -32‰, respectively; wet season samples (n = 7), had mean δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values of -6.6‰ and -49‰, respectively (Fig. 3).

The 56 groundwater samples were characterized by δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values ranging from -11.0 to -4.2% 274 (mean= -6.5%) and -76 to -39% (mean = -50%), respectively. Among these, shallow and deep 275 groundwater samples showed similar mean values, although deep groundwater samples (n = 13) showed 276 relatively narrow overall ranges (-7.8 to -5.1‰ and mean = -6.3‰ for δ^{18} O; -58 to -43‰ and mean = -50‰ 277 for δ^2 H; Fig. 3). Slight seasonal variation was evident in the groundwater isotope compositions; shallow 278 groundwater from the dry season (n = 12) showed δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values from -7.2 to -4.2‰ (mean = -5.7‰) 279 and $\delta^2 H$ values from -56 to -39‰ (mean = -48‰); while during the wet season (n = 31) $\delta^{18} O$ and $\delta^2 H$ 280 values ranged from $-11.0 \sim -5.3\%$ (mean = -6.9%) and $-76 \sim -43\%$ (mean = -51%), respectively. Some 281 282 variability was also evident in deep groundwater compositions, although only three deep samples were 283 collected during the dry season.

From Figure 3, it can be seen that surface water exhibits a much wider range of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values 284 285 relative to groundwater, with shallow groundwater in turn more spatially variable than deep groundwater. Water samples collected in the wet season showed wider ranges of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values relative to the dry 286 287 season. Most water samples of all types plot to the right of (below) the LMWL, with some surface water samples showing similar compositions to the local seawater (Fig. 3). The local seawater plots below (more 288 negative) than typically assumed values (e.g. VSMOW = 0‰) for both δ^2 H and δ^{18} O, and this water 289 290 appears to represent an end-member involved in mixing with meteoric-derived waters in both ground and 291 surface water (Fig. 3).

4.2 Water salinity and dissolved ions

TDS (total dissolved solids) concentrations of surface water samples from Dai River range from 0.3g/L~31.4g/L with Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ comprising 22-78% and 4-56% of total cations and Cl⁻ comprising 36-91% of total anions. The composition changes from Ca•Na•Mg-Cl•HCO₃ to Na-Cl water type from upstream to downstream locations along with increasing salinity; Cl⁻ concentrations vary from approximately 70 mg/L upstream to 16700 mg/L near the coastline, due to marine influence. Similar variation occurs along the Yang River, where samples had TDS concentrations between 0.3-26.1 g/L with increasing concentrations and proportions of Cl⁻ (63.2-14953.5 mg/L) from upstream to downstream locations. Nitrate concentrations also range from 2.8 to 65.2 mg/L in the surface water samples, increasing downstream.

302 In the early 1960s, groundwater pumped from the Zaoyuan well field exhibited Ca-HCO₃ water type 303 and chloride concentrations of 90-130 mg/L; this was followed by rapid salinization since the 1980s (see 304 section 2.3). In this study, shallow groundwater is characterized by TDS concentrations of 0.4-4.8 g/L with Cl⁻ (34-77%), Na⁺ (12-85%) and Ca²⁺ (5-69%) being the predominant major anion and cations, respectively. 305 306 Groundwater hydrochemical types vary from Ca-HCO₃•Cl, Ca•Na-Cl, Na•Ca-Cl to Na-Cl (Figure 4). Deep 307 groundwater has TDS concentrations between 0.3-2.8g/L, dominated by Ca (up to 77% of major cations) in 308 the upstream area and Na (up to 85% or major cations) near the coast, with water type evolving from 309 Ca-Cl•HCO₃ to Ca•Na-Cl and Na•Mg-Cl (Figure 4). At present, the TDS of groundwater from the well 310 field reaches 3.31 g/L with Na-Cl water type (see well G15). The highest observed mixing proportions of 311 seawater occur in shallow well G10 and deep well G2, respectively, with calculated *fsw* values (according 312 to equation 1) of 12.95% and 5.35%, respectively.

313 Hydrochemical features of thermal water from the Danihe-Luwangzhuang area (Fig. 1A) are distinct 314 from the normal/low temperature groundwater. Previous work by Zeng (1991) and Hui (2009) identified geothermal water with high TDS in the fractures of deep metamorphic rock. The geothermal water was 315 316 characterized by TDS values between 6.2-10.6 g/L and Ca•Na-Cl water type, while Cl concentrations 317 ranged from 5.4 to 6.5 g/L and Sr concentrations from 6.73 to 89.8 mg/L. Some normal/low temperature groundwater samples collected in this study from wells G8, G19, and G9 featured by Ca•Na-Cl water type 318 319 with relative high TDS ranges (0.8-1.4 g/L, 1.3-1.6 g/L, and 1.5-2.8 g/L, respectively) and strontium concentrations (1.1-1.9 mg/L, 4.9-7.1 mg/L, and 7.3-11.6 mg/L, respectively), showing similarity with the 320 321 geothermal system. Low temperature groundwater sampled in this study had Sr/Cl mass ratios ranging from 2.4×10^{-4} to 1.6×10^{-2} , with higher ratios in deep groundwater (range: 9.4×10^{-4} to 1.3×10^{-2} , median: 3.7 322 \times 10⁻³) compared to shallow groundwater (median: 3.1 \times 10⁻³), and groundwater generally higher than 323 seawater/saline surface water (range: 3.7×10^{-4} to 5.8×10^{-4} , median: 3.9×10^{-4} ; Table S1). 324

325 Nitrate concentrations in groundwater range from 2.0-178.5 mg/L (mean 90.1 mg/L) for shallow 11

groundwater, and 2.0-952.1 mg/L (mean 232.1 mg/L) for the deep groundwater, respectively, with most
samples exceeding the WHO drinking water standard (50 mg/L).

328 **5. Discussion**

329 5.1 Groundwater isotopes and hydrochemistry as indicators of mixing processes

330 The Quaternary groundwater system in the Yang-Dai River coastal plain may be recharged by 331 precipitation, irrigation return flow, river infiltration and lateral subsurface runoff (e.g. from mountain-front 332 regions). Groundwater geochemical characteristics are then controlled by hydrogeological conditions and 333 mixing processes, including mixing induced by extensive groundwater pumping, as well as natural mixing 334 and water-rock interaction. It is evident from the geochemistry that mixing has occurred between 335 groundwater and seawater in the coastal areas, as well as between normal/low temperature groundwater and geothermal water in the inland areas (e.g. near the Danihe geothermal field). Different sources of water are 336 337 generally characterized by somewhat distinctive stable isotopic and hydrochemical compositions, allowing 338 mixing calculations to aid understanding of the groundwater salinization and mixing processes, as 339 discussed below.

Stable isotopes of O and H in groundwater and surface water fall on a best-fit regression line (dashed 340 line in Fig. 3) with slope of δ^2 H=4.4× δ^{18} O-21.7, significantly lower than either the local or global meteoric 341 water lines. Three processes are likely responsible for the observed range of isotopic compositions: 1. 342 343 Mixing between saline surface water (e.g. seawater or saline river water affected by tidal ingress) and 344 fresher, meteoric-derived groundwater or surface water; 2. Mixing between fresh meteoric-derived 345 groundwater and saline thermal water; 3. Evaporative enrichment of surface water and/or irrigation return-flow, which may infiltrate groundwater in some areas. A sub-group of surface water samples (e.g., 346 347 S1 to S3, S7 and S12; termed 'brackish surface water') show marine-like stable isotopic compositions and 348 major ion compositions (Fig. 3 and Fig. 5). The 'fresh' surface water samples (e.g. EC values $<1500 \ \mu$ S/cm) 349 exhibit meteoric-like stable isotope compositions, with some samples (such as S9 and S10) showing clear evidence of evaporative enrichment in the form of higher δ^2 H and particularly, δ^{18} O values (Fig. 3). 350

Fresh groundwater has depleted δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values relative to seawater and show a clear meteoric origin, albeit with modification due to mixing. Theoretically, the mixing of meteoric-derived fresh groundwater and marine water should result in a straight mixing line connecting the two end members; however this is also complicated in the study area by the possible mixing with geothermal water. The 355 thermal groundwater has distinctive stable isotopic and major ion composition (Han, 1988; Zeng, 1991), 356 allowing these mixing processes to be partly delineated. Stable isotopes of thermal groundwater are more depleted than low-temperature groundwater (e.g. δ^{18} O values of approximately -8‰, Fig. 8), indicating this 357 likely originates in the mountainous areas to the north; Zeng (1991) estimated the elevation of the recharge 358 359 area for the geothermal field to be from 1200 to 1500 m.a.s.l. Based on a bivariate plot of δ^{18} O vs. Cl⁻ with mixing lines and defined fresh and saline end-members, Fig. 5 shows the estimated degree of mixing 360 361 between fresh groundwater including shallow (G4) and deep (G25) groundwater end-members, and saline water, including seawater and geothermal end-members. 362

363 The two fresh end-members were selected to represent a range of different groundwater 364 compositions/recharge sources, from shallow water that is impacted by infiltration of partially evaporated recharge (fresh but with enriched δ^{18} O) to deeper groundwater unaffected by such enrichment (fresh and 365 with relatively depleted δ^{18} O). The narrower range and relatively enriched stable isotopes in shallow 366 367 groundwater samples collected during the dry season compared with the wet season indicate some influence of seasonal recharge by either rainfall (fresh, with relatively depleted stable isotopes) or irrigation 368 369 water subject to evaporative enrichment (more saline, with enriched stable isotopes and high nitrate 370 concentrations; Currell et al., 2010) and/or surface water leakage. While there is overlap in the isotopic and 371 hydrochemical compositions of shallow and deep groundwater (Fig. 3 & Fig. 4), this effect appears to only 372 affect the shallow aquifer.

373 Based on Fig. 5, the shallow groundwater samples (e.g. G15, G10, G11, G14) collected from or around the Zaoyuan well field appear to be characterized by mixing between fresh meteoric water and 374 375 seawater (plotting in the upper part of Fig. 5); while some deeper groundwater samples (e.g. G13, G2, G16, 376 G14) collected from the coastal zone also appearing to indicate mixing with seawater. Groundwater 377 sampled relatively close to the geothermal field (e.g. G9, G19) shows compositions consistent with mixing between low-temperature fresh water and saline thermal water (lower part of Fig. 5). This is more evident 378 379 in deep groundwater than shallow groundwater, which is consistent with mixing from below, as expected 380 for the deep-source geothermal water. Other samples impacted by salinization show more ambiguous 381 compositions between the various mixing lines, which may arise due to mixing with either seawater, 382 geothermal water or a combination of both (e.g., G29).

The estimated mixing fraction (f_{sw}) of marine water for the shallow brackish groundwater ranges from 1.2~13.0% and 2.6~6.0% for the deep brackish groundwater. The highest fraction of 13% was recorded in 385 G10, located in the northerm part of the Zaoyuan well field, which is located near a tidally-impacted 386 tributary of the Yang River (Fig 1). Relatively higher fractions of marine water in relatively shallow 387 samples (including those from the well field) compared to deeper samples may indicate a more 'top down' 388 salinization process, related to leakage of saline surface water through the riverbed, rather than 'classic' 389 lateral sea water intrusion, which typically causes salinization at deeper levels due to migration of a salt 390 water 'wedge' (e.g. Werner et al., 2013); this is consistent with results of resistivity surveys conducted in 391 the region (Fig. 6). The profile of chloride concentrations vs. depth indicates that salinization affects 392 shallow and deep samples alike, with the most saline samples being relatively shallow wells in the Zaoyuan 393 well-field (Fig. 7).

394 In general, brackish and fresh groundwater samples show distinctive major ion compositions, with the more saline water typically showing higher proportions of Na and Cl (Fig. 4). This contrasts with historic 395 data collected from the Zaoyuan well field, which showed Ca-HCO₃ type water with Cl concentrations 396 397 ranging from 130 to 170 mg/L. This provides additional evidence that the salinization in this area is largely 398 due to marine water mixing. More Ca-dominated compositions are evident in the region near the 399 geothermal well field further in-land (e.g., G5, G8, G19, G29, and G24); consistent with a component of 400 salinization that is unrelated to marine water intrusion. Plots of ionic ratios of Na/Cl and Mg/Ca vs. Cl also 401 reveal a sub-set of relatively saline deep groundwater samples which appear to evolve towards the 402 geothermal-type signatures with increasing salinity (Fig. 8).

Stronger evidence of mixing of the geothermal water in the Quaternary aquifers (particularly deep groundwater) is provided by examining strontium concentrations in conjunction with chloride (Fig. 9). The geothermal water from Danihe geothermal field has much higher Sr concentrations (up to 89.8 mg/L) than seawater (5.4-6.5 mg/L in this study), due to Sr-bearing minerals (i.e., celestite, strontianite) with Sr contents of 300-2000 mg/kg present in the bedrock (Hebei Geology Survey, 1987). Groundwater sampled from near the geothermal field in this study has the highest Sr concentrations e.g., G9 with Sr concentrations ranging from 7.4 to 11.6 mg/L, and G19 from 4.9 to 7.1 mg/L.

The plot of chloride versus strontium concentrations (Fig. 9) shows that these samples and others (e.g., G16, G20, G27, G29) plot close to a mixing line between fresh low-temperature and saline thermal-groundwater. Mass ratios of Sr/Cl in these samples are also elevated relative to seawater by an order of magnitude or more (e.g. Sr/Cl > 5.0×10^{-3} , compared to 3.9×10^{-4} in seawater, Table S1). Other samples from closer to the coast (e.g. G4) also approach the thermal-low temperature mixing line, 415 indicating probable input of thermal water. Samples collected from the Zaoyuan well field generally plot 416 closer to the Sr/Cl seawater mixing line (consistent with salinization largely due to marine water – Fig. 9); 417 however, samples mostly plot slightly above the mixing line with additional Sr, which may indicate more 418 widespread (but volumetrically minor) mixing with the thermal water in addition to seawater.

419 5.2 Anthropogenic pollution of groundwater

420 The occurrence of high nitrate (and possibly also sulfate) concentrations in groundwater in both 421 coastal and in-land areas also indicates that anthropogenic pollution is an important process impacting 422 groundwater quality and salinity (Fig. 10; Table 1). Seawater from Bohai Sea is heavily affected by nutrient 423 contamination, showing NO_3^- concentrations of 810 mg/L in this study, and up to 1092 mg/L in seawater 424 further north of the bay near Dalian (Han et al., 2015), primarily due to wastewater discharge into the sea. 425 The historic sampled NO_3^- concentration of groundwater in the well field increased from 5.4 mg/L in May 426 1985 to 146.8~339.4 mg/L in Aug 2010, while the concentration in seawater changed from 57.4 mg/L in 427 May1985 to 810.1 mg/L in Aug 2010. A bivariate plot of Cl⁻ vs. NO₃⁻ concentrations in groundwater (Fig. 428 10) can thus be used to identify nitrate sources and mixing trends, including infiltration with contaminated 429 seawater, and other on-land anthropogenic NO₃-sources (e.g. domestic/industrial wastewater discharge 430 and/or NO₃⁻-bearing fertilizer input through irrigation return-flow).

431 From this plot (Fig. 10) it appears that the major source of NO_3^- in groundwater is on-land 432 anthropogenic inputs rather than mixing with seawater, which would result in relatively large increases in 433 Cl along with NO₃. Samples G10 and G15 (from the well field) are exceptions to this trend, showing clear mixing with nitrate-contaminated seawater. Deep groundwater (e.g. G9, G14) is also extensively 434 435 contaminated with high NO_3^- concentrations; this is likely associated with leakage from the surface via 436 poorly constructed or abandoned wells - a problem of growing significance in China (see Han et al., 2016b; 437 Currell and Han, 2017). According to one investigation by Zang et al. (2010), 14 of 21 pumping wells in the 438 Zaoyuan well field have been abandoned due to poor water quality, and 307 pumping irrigation wells 439 (occupied 2/3 of total pumping wells for irrigation) in the region have also been abandoned. Local authorities have however not implemented measures to deal with abandoned wells, meaning they are a 440 441 future legacy contamination risk - e.g. by allowing surface runoff impacted by nitrate contamination to 442 infiltrate down well annuli.

443 5.3 Hydrochemical evolution during salinization

444 A hydrogeochemical facies evolution diagram (HFE-D) proposed by Giménez-Forcada (2010), was 445 used to analyze the geochemical evolution of groundwater during seawater intrusion and/or freshening 446 phases (Fig. 11). In the coastal zone, the river water shows an obvious mixing trend between fresh and 447 saline end members. Some shallow groundwaters (e.g., G2, G4, G10, G13, G15) are also close to the 448 mixing line between the surface-water end-members on this figure, indicating mixing with seawater 449 without significant additional modification by typical water-rock interaction processes (e.g. ion exchange). 450 Most brackish groundwaters (e.g., G11, G16, G17, G20, G25, G28, G29) have evolved in the series 451 Ca-HCO₃ \rightarrow Ca-Cl \rightarrow Na-Cl, according to classic seawater intrusion. A relative depletion in Na (shown in 452 lower than marine Na/Cl ratios) and enrichment in Ca (shown as enriched Ca/SO4 ratios) is evident in 453 groundwater with intermediate salinities (e.g. Fig. 8; Fig. 11), indicating classic base-exchange between Na and Ca during salinization (Appelo and Postma, 2005). Locally, certain brackish water samples (e.g., G1, 454 455 G12, G26) appear to plot in the 'freshening' part of the HFE diagram (potentially indicating slowing or 456 reversal of salinisation due to reduce in groundwater use), although these do not follow a conclusive 457 trajectory. Water samples from the geothermal field (G5, G8, G9, and G19) plot in a particular corner of the 458 HFE diagram away from other samples (being particularly Ca-rich); a result of their distinctive 459 geochemical evolution during deep transport through the basement rocks at high temperatures.

460 5.4 Conceptual model of salinization and management implications

461 Coastal zones encompass the complex interaction among different water bodies (i.e., river water, 462 seawater and groundwater). The interactions between surface- and ground-water in the Yang-Dai River 463 coastal plain have generally been ignored in previous studies. However, the surface water chemistry data 464 show that the distribution of salt water has historically reached more than 10 km inland along the estuary of 465 the Yang River, and approximately 4 km inland in the Dai River (Han, 1988). The relatively higher 466 proportion of seawater-intrusion derived salinity in shallow samples in this study, along with the evidence 467 from resistivity surveys (Fig. 6; Zuo, 2006) indicate that intrusion by vertical leakage from these estuaries 468 is therefore an important process. The hazard associated with this pathway in recent times has been reduced 469 by the construction of a tidal dam, which now restricts seawater ingress along the Yang estuary to within 4 470 km of the coastline. This may alleviate salinization to an extent in future in the shallow aquifer by 471 removing one of the salinization pathways, however, as described, there are multiple other salinization 472 processes impacting the groundwater in the Quaternary aquifers of the region.

473 A conceptual model of the groundwater flow system in the Yang-Dai River coastal plain is 474 summarized in Fig. 12. This model presents an advance on the previous understanding of the study area, by 475 delineating four major processes responsible for groundwater salinization in this area. These are: 1. 476 Seawater intrusion by lateral sub-surface flow; 2. Interaction between saline surface water and groundwater 477 (e.g. vertical leakage of saline water from the river estuaries); 3. Mixing between low-temperature 478 groundwater and deep geothermal water; and, 4. Irrigation return-flow and associated anthropogenic 479 contamination. Both the lateral and vertical intrusion of saline water are driven by the long-term 480 over-pumping of groundwater from fresh aquifers in the region. The irrigation return-flow from local 481 agriculture results from over-irrigation of crops, and is responsible for extensive nitrate pollution (up to 340 482 $mg/L NO_3^{-1}$ in groundwater of this area) probably due to dissolution of fertilizers during infiltration. The somewhat enriched stable isotopes in shallow groundwater (more pronounced in the dry season) also 483 484 indicate that such return-flow may recharge water impacted by evaporative salinization into the aquifer. 485 The geothermal water, with distinctive chemical composition (e.g. depleted stable isotopes, high TDS, Ca 486 and Sr concentrations), is also demonstrated in this study to be a significant contributor to groundwater 487 salinization, via upward mixing. The study area is therefore in a situation of unusual vulnerability, in the 488 sense that it faces salinization threats simultaneously from lateral, downward and upward migration of 489 saline water bodies.

490 According to drinking water standards and guidelines from China Environmental Protection Authority 491 (GB 5749-2006) and/or US EPA and WHO, chloride concentration in drinking water should not exceed 250 492 mg/L. At the salinity levels observed in this study - many samples impacted by salinization 493 contain >500mg/L of chloride (Table 1) - a large amount of groundwater is now or will soon be unsuitable 494 for domestic usage, as well as irrigation or industrial utilization. So far, this has enhanced the scarcity of 495 fresh water resources in this region, leading to a cycle of groundwater level decline \rightarrow seawater intrusion 496 \rightarrow loss of available freshwater \rightarrow increased pumping of remaining fresh water. If this cycle continues, it is 497 likely to further degrade groundwater quality and restrict its usage in the future. Such a situation is typical 498 of the coastal water resources 'squeeze' highlighted by Michael et al., (2017). Alternative management 499 strategies, such as restricting water usage in particular high-use sectors, such as agriculture, industry or 500 tourism, that are based on a comprehensive assessment of the social, economic and environmental benefits 501 and costs of these activities, warrants urgent and careful consideration.

502 **6. Conclusions**

503 Groundwater in the Quaternary aquifers of the Yang-Dai River coastal plain is an important water 504 resource for agricultural irrigation, domestic use (including for tourism) and industrial activity. Extensive groundwater utilization has made the problem of groundwater salinization in this area increasingly 505 506 prominent, resulting in the closure of wells in the area. Based on the analysis of hydrochemical and stable 507 isotopic compositions of different water bodies, we delineated the key groundwater salinization processes. 508 Seawater intrusion is the main process responsible for salinization in the coastal zone; however this likely 509 includes vertical saltwater infiltration along the riverbed into aquifers as well as lateral seawater intrusion 510 caused by pumping for fresh groundwater at the Zaoyuan wellfield. The upward mixing of highly mineralized thermal water into the Quaternary aquifers is also evident, particularly through the use of stable 511 512 isotope, chloride and strontium end-member mixing analysis. Additionally, significant nitrate pollution 513 from the anthropogenic activities (e.g., agricultural irrigation return-flow with dissolution of fertilizers) and 514 locally, intrusion of heavily polluted seawater, are also evident.

515 Groundwater salinization has become a prominent water environment problem in the coastal areas of 516 northern China (Han et al., 2014; Han et al., 2015; Han et al., 2016a), and threatens to create further paucity 517 of fresh water resources, which may prove a significant impediment to further social and economic development in these regions. Since the 1990s, the local government has begun to pay attention to the 518 519 problem of seawater intrusion, and irrational exploitation of groundwater has been restricted in some cases. 520 The Zaoyuan well field ceased to pump groundwater since 2007, while an anti-tide dam (designed to protect against tidal surge events) established in the Yang River estuary may also reduce saline intrusion in 521 522 future. However, due to the significant lag-time associated with groundwater systems, a response in terms of water quality may take time to emerge, and in the meantime the other salinization and pollution impacts 523 524 documented here may continue to threaten water quality. In this regard, we recommend continued monitoring of groundwater quality and levels, and active programs to reduce input of anthropogenic 525 526 contaminants such as nitrate from fertilizers, and appropriate well-construction and decommissioning 527 protocols to prevent contamination through preferential pathways.

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Figure 1. Location map (A.) for showing geological background and water sampling sites in the study area,
and (B.) hydrogeological cross-section of Yang-Dai River Plain (P-P' in A.) (modified from Han, 1988).

The surface area covered from >250 mg Cl/L contour line to coastline refers the seawater zones.



Figure 2. Distribution of precipitation and dynamics of groundwater table in the study area. Locations ofthe monitoring wells (W1, W2 and W3) can be seen from Fig. 1.



Figure 3. Stable isotope compositions of different water samples collected from the study area

LMWL - local meteoric water line; GMWL – global meteoric water line (Craig, 1961); GWL –
 groundwater line; SWL – surface (river) water line.



Figure 5. Relationship between chloride content and isotopic signature of different water samples as a
means to differentiate mixing processes in the area. The data of thermal water are from Zeng (1991).



Figure 6. Cross-sections showing results obtained from application of geophysical resistivity method(employed in May, 2004, data and methods described in Zuo, 2006)



Figure 7. Chloride concentration vs. well depth for groundwater samples.









Figure 9. Chloride versus strontium concentrations of different water samples ZWF- Zaoyuan well field





Figure 10. Plot of chloride versus nitrate concentrations in groundwater, with seawater and anthropogenic
 pollution mixing trajectories



825 Figure 11. Hydrogeochemical facies evolution diagram (HFE-D) for the collected water samples



835 Figure 12. Conceptual model of groundwater flow system in the Yang-Dai River coastal plain

Explanation: 1- Land surface; 2- Bedrock; 3- Boundary between Quaternary sediments and bedrock;
4-Fault; 5- Permeable fracture zone; 6- Concentrated groundwater pumping zone; 7- Pumping wells; 8Zone affected by upflow of geothermal fluids; 9- Groundwater table; 10- Potential interface between freshand salt-water; 11-Groundwater flow direction in Quaternary aquifers; 12- Groundwater flow in bedrocks;
Geothermal groundwater flow direction; 14- Irrigation return-flow.

WaterType		Sampling	Ele.	WellDepth	WaterTable	EC	pН	т	ORP	DO	Cl	NO ₃	SO42-	HCO ₃	Ca ²⁺	Na ⁺	K⁺	Mg ²⁺	Sr	$\delta^2 H$	$\delta^{18}O$
	ID	Time	m	m	Depth(m)	µs/cm		°C	mV	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	‰	‰
Shallow groun																					
ÿ	G4	Aug.2010	5	15	4.2	741	6.5	20.5	6	3.9	124.3	92.6	89.7	136.9	70.3	69.2	2.3	21.8	0.67	-50	-6.9
	G27	Aug.2010	3	12		1014	6.4	14.8	16	3.8	177.5	163.0	121.0	128.0	122.0	50.6	2.6	33.4	1.22	-50	-6.4
	G12	Aug.2010	8	10		1152	7.2	25.0	9	5.9	276.9	31.9	69.8	148.8	15.8	201.9	11.1	16.2	0.25	-51	-6.8
	G17	Aug.2010	5	25	5.7	624	7.1	19.1	13	3.3	88.8	39.5	58.3	223.3	98.4	41.4	4.3	7.5	0.33	-76	-11.0
	G18	Aug.2010	5	23	1.7	934	7.4	14.9	12	7.1	124.3	137.8	98.7	235.2	133.3	48.3	2.2	23.2	0.71	-55	-8.2
	G1	Sep.2009	6	8	2.4	1673	8.3	19.4			220.1	2.0	148.3	207.9	84.3	119.6	17.1	49.9	0.66	-51	-7.1
	G4	Sep.2009	6	15	4.6	1295	7.9	13.9			124.3	178.5	108.7	92.4	104.4	64.4	2.7	35.9	0.85	-44	-6.9
	G5	Sep.2009	11	16	6.5	1544	7.8	13.3			303.4	162.3	108.2	38.5	124.5	103.7	1.1	39.1	1.14	-47	-6.5
	G23	Sep.2009	15	30	3.0	556	7.9	14.9			88.8	163.4	54.0	51.9	97.4	34.5	0.5	15.6	0.55	-48	-6.6
D.	G7	Sep.2009	17	8	1.7	901	8.4	14.9			81.7	41.2	74.2	69.3	64.0	33.2	1.0	16.5	0.41	-47	-6.4
Fresh Groundwat	G8	Sep.2009	4	13	4.3	1621	7.8	14.0			334.6	85.4	90.1	69.3	132.5	91.9	1.4	38.5	1.19	-44	-5.3
	G11	Sep.2009	4	13		1237	8.6	18.4			222.9	74.5	98.7	30.8	87.4	80.1	1.8	29.0	0.84	-43	-5.5
	G12	Sep.2009	8	10		1114	7.9	15.0			174.0	46.0	76.4	107.8	86.2	73.6	4.3	27.2	0.53	-48	-6.0
	G28	Sep.2009	6	23	6.8	1748	8.2	14.6			127.8	22.5	38.4	107.8	88.2	33.3	1.3	14.0	0.58		
	G18	Sep.2009	9	23	5.5	2850	7.8	13.7			110.1	152.9	/6./	53.9	120.3	23.1	1.1	20.5	0.65	-54	-7.4
	G20	Sep.2009	12	30	7.0	1602	1.1	19.5			246.9	107.1	135.9	107.8	158.2	82.8 105 5	1.7	20.3	3.94	-50	-0.7
	GI/	Sep.2009	0	33	7.9	1570	0.1	14.5			243.5	120.4	141.7	101.7 E4 0	170.3	105.5	1.0	24.0	0.71	-00	-0.9
	G3	Jun.2008	4	20		15/3	7.5	14.5			315.0	75.0	104.4	54.9 60.4	67.3 59.2	152.1	3.0 1.2	33.Z	0.40	-43	-4.2
	G4 G5	Jun 2008	5	11		1455	7.5	14.1			310.0	110.5	03.2	52 2	121.3	45.Z	1.2	20.0	1.43	-40	-4.0
	GS	Jun 2008	1	30		1402	7.4	14.7			340.7	55.0	92.7	95.1	118.0	90.4 88.1	1.2	29.9	1.43	-04	-0.5
	G12	Jun 2008	4	10		1285	7.5	19.3			281.0	29.8	56.8	74 1	9.7	205.7	1.2	13.7	0.19	-40	-4.7
	G17	Jun 2008	6	33		1462	8.1	15.0			227.9	92.6	123.8	175.7	179.2	72 1	11	15.9	0.57	-56	-6.1
	G18	Jun 2008	9	23		1125	7.9	18.8			115.5	144.2	44 4	90.6	103.2	31.8	1.1	13.7	0.41	-53	-6.8
	G20	Jun.2008	12	30		1210	9.1	28.3			234.3	18.2	90.6	230.6	122.0	81.4	2.6	22.4	2.10	-39	-4.4
	G1	Aug.2010	6	11		2750	7.4	17.3	143	1.5	312.4	120.0	337.1	205.4	112.0	294.4	29.9	41.3	0.54	-56	-7.7
	G3	Aug.2010	4	8		2490	5.9	14.7	74	1.4	654.3	106.0	263.7	86.3	128.2	283.6	6.6	78.6	0.97	-47	-5.8
	G15	Aug.2010	4	30		2290	6.6	15.4	3	3.3	435.7	181.3	263.7	244.1	164.3	242.8	6.6	60.8	1.60	-50	-6.3
	G26	Aug.2010	4	18	1.8	4060	6.4	15.2	145	1.3	784.6	339.4	341.4	485.2	192.3	538.2	36.0	72.1	1.20	-46	-6.8
e	G11	Aug.2010	6	13	2.3	3490	6.5	15.0	47	1.3	646.1	414.1	402.7	402.6	204.8	441.8	34.9	76.3	1.51	-52	-6.8
dwat	G20	Aug.2010	12	30		1513	6.7	18.8	4	4.3	596.4	177.9	245.0	184.6	268.6	225.4	2.0	29.2	3.95	-51	-7.0
uno	G5	Aug.2010	5	16	5.4	1500	6.2	15.6	7	5.9	447.3	253.3	304.7	79.3	204.1	188.6	0.8	47.5	0.78	-54	-7.7
Brackish Gr	G8	Aug.2010	4	30	2.1	1563	6.3	15.7	120	4.9	596.4	141.4	188.1	104.2	196.3	220.8	3.2	38.7	1.87	-44	-5.3
	G7	Aug.2010	5	8	0.9	1438	6.8	19.3	24	6.1	299.6	338.3	192.7	128.0	164.2	151.8	0.3	50.0	0.66	-60	-8.9
	G19	Aug.2010	8	11	2.8	2380	6.5	16.1	42	3.2	600.0	211.9	192.1	119.1	241.4	199.5	6.6	42.4	7.10	-52	-6.8
	G24	Aug.2010	4	21		4400	6.8	15.5	4	5.9	646.1	952.1	813.3	223.3	484.1	349.6	3.4	117.4	2.44	-52	-8.1
	G22	Sep.2009	2	20	2.0	2170	8.0	17.8			408.3	2.0	277.5	130.9	109.2	226.8	21.3	54.2	0.70	-48	-6.5
	G10	Sep.2009	3	18		9770	7.5	15.1			2563.1	27.7	25.3	870.2	181.4	1340.0	98.1	123.0	1.92	-44	-5.7
	G14	Sep.2009	2	8.5		1886	8.5	16.6			291.1	109.8	216.4	92.4	117.8	164.7	19.3	46.5	0.82	-55	-7.9

Table 1. Physical, hydrochemical and isotopic data of the water samples collected from the Yang-Dai River coastal plain

	G24	Sep.2009	11	21	5.3	1003	7.8	13.6			454.4	441.5	128.1	115.5	252.3	165.6	0.6	36.2	0.93		
	G19	Sep.2009	12	11	4.7	2560	8.1	14.6			622.0	91.5	115.6	69.3	214.9	180.7	6.0	49.4	4.87	-48	-6.2
	G1	Jun.2008	6	8		3150	8.5	15.0			717.1	87.7	265.6	98.8	9.1	527.4	26.7	26.6	0.17	-54	-7.2
	G11	Jun.2008	6	13		2370	7.2	12.2			451.2		211.3	162.0	145.1	201.2	22.0	52.6	1.00	-49	-6.0
	G14	Jun.2008	3	8.5		2050	7.4	18.6			372.8	267.3	206.1	49.4	136.4	171.3	12.7	49.5	0.93	-48	-6.5
	G15	Jun.2008	4	18		5990	7.5	15.6			1675.6	146.8	110.1	474.9	246.5	764.7	20.2	104.9	2.17	-45	-5.1
Deep Groundy	water sample	95'																			
	G25	Aug.2010	4	95		444	6.6	23.5	41	4.4	68.1	71.0	48.2	89.3	52.5	35.9	 1.1	10.4	0.25	-56	
Fresh Groundwater	G16	Sep.2009	3	110		1214	7.9	19.9			214.4		66.1	100.1	76.3	97.8	2.8	19.5	2.68	-58	-7.7
	G29	Sep.2009	6	60		1291	8.1	20.9			255.6	26.3	57.5	69.3	8.0	205.9	12.3	14.6	0.20	-51	-6.6
	G29	Aug.2010	6	60	6.2	3220	7.2	24.1	12	5.6	803.4	143.0	264.7	178.6	386.8	189.3	4.3	77.6	6.95	-50	-6.5
5	G16	Aug.2010	3	110		1733	7.3	21.5	16	4.8	766.8	5.5	67.1	205.4	246.2	197.8	4.5	37.9	4.00	-56	-7.8
	G9	Jun.2008	9	104		3110	7.8	15.0			823.6	47.4	110.5	85.1	255.1	222.2	5.1	36.7	7.40	-47	-5.3
wat	G9	Sep.2009	9	104		3190	8.5	20.4			917.4	65.8	116.6	61.6	279.8	245.1	5.7	40.6	8.02	-51	-6.2
pung	69	Aug 2010	9	104		4600	6.3	24.3	18	40	1228.3	337.4	296.3	92.3	392.2	455.4	5.5	45.3	11 59	-48	-6.6
Brackish Gro	C14'	Aug 2010	5 F	110	2.1	2950	6.1	27.0	120	1.0	EE2 0	422.7	401.4	124.0	196.0	212.0	52.2	-10.0 06.6	1.00	52	6.0
	014	Aug.2010	2	00	2.1	2000	0.1	10.2	120	1.0	000.0	433.7	431.4	00.0	02.0	412.5	32.5	30.0	0.00	-55	-0.0
	013	Aug.2010	3	90		3230	0.9	19.2	30	2.4	906.0	210.0	201.0	92.3	92.0	413.5	29.0	115.7	0.20	-45	-5.2
	G13	Jun.2008	3	90		3180	7.9	13.5			945.4		122.2	52.2	51.4	351.9	25.0	105.4	0.55	-45	-5.1
	G13	Sep.2009	3	90	2.6	3070	8.1	15.3			882.0		91.9	38.5	36.5	362.9	26.0	105.3	0.35	-43	-5.2
	G2	Jun.2008	2	60		3780	7.7	18.5			1093.4		200.3	96.1	67.3	484.1	25.8	103.1	1.03	-46	-5.1
River water sa	mples:																				,
Fresh water sar	mples																				
Dai River	S9	Aug.2010				511	7.2	22.2	22	5.5	80.3	65.2	107.9	86.3	72.1	29.9	3.7	16.7	0.34	-66	-9.4
Dai River	512	Aug.2010				485	7.5	25.8	18	7.3	71.3	41.9 54.0	83.7	83.4	54.3	27.0	4.0	15.1	0.30	-69	-9.7
Vang River	56	Aug 2010				495 507	7.5	22.1	24 17	3.0 4.5	66 0	51.9	90.0 80.5	107.2	61.6	27.2	4.1	16.8	0.32	-07	-9.0
Yang River	S2	Aug.2010				435	7.3	7.3	6	4.9	63.2	40.2	92.2	101.2	59.3	29.9	4.3	14.0	0.26	-71	-10.1
Yang River	S5	Sep.2009				718	8.4	24.4			85.2	12.9	62.0	107.8	46.1	52.0	6.4	17.4	0.36	-45	-5.8
Yang River	S4	Sep.2009				2630	8.1	24.7			733.1	6.6	142.2	115.5						-42	-5.3
Yang River	S6	Sep.2009				718	8.3	25.6			99.4	6.6	57.5	107.8	44.3	59.8	5.0	16.4	0.30	-43	-7.2
Dai River	S9	Sep.2009			2.0	560	8.0	23.6			88.8	6.8	60.5	92.4	57.2	33.2	3.3	16.7	0.36	-46	-5.8
Dai River	S8	Sep.2009				1013	8.2	23.6			174.0	6.4	82.2	92.4	52.1	98.1	6.0	23.6	0.55	-43	-5.4
Yang River	56	Jun.2008				1166	7.5	12.6			81.7	12.6	71.3	112.5	53.6	47.5	4.9	18.0	0.31	-49	-5.5
Dai River	510	Jun 2008				1200	9.1 7.8	20.0 11.8			206.9	23.1	13.1 52.2	90.6	60.7 54.7	123.2 31.1	3.6	24.2 19.5	0.57	-44 -40	-3.3
Brackish and sa	alt water sam	ples																			
Yang River	S3	Sep.2009				34800	7.8	15.5			11289.4		1684.7	115.5	251.0	5658.7	231.3	690.1	4.29	-21	-2.4
Dai River	S12	Sep.2009				47100	7.5	23.7			16766.3		2416.5	77.0	412.1	10074.3	398.2	1306.0	7.64	-12	-1.2
Dai River	S11	Sep.2009				52500	8.5	23.4			1601.5	2.8	258.7	84.7	79.7	801.4	32.9	102.7	0.93	-41	-5.2
Yang River	S1	Jun.2008				39800	8.7	24.2			14953.5		2035.9	134.5	313.0	7496.0	270.5	928.3	5.55	-15	-1.1
Yang River	S2	Jun.2008				20200	8.8	28.5			8328.3		912.1	189.4	233.4	4094.2	147.9	495.9	3.37	-28	-2.5
Dai River	S7	Jun.2008				49500	8.4	11.5			16677.1		2261.3	113.9	349.0	8730.0	326.4	1084.0	6.36	-11	-0.6
	SW1	Aug.2010				45600	7.8	25.5	83	4.90	14768.3	810.1	4047.0	148.8	312.7	8326.4	293.6	1007.0	5.79	3.8	1.1
Seawater:	SW1	Sep.2009				47700	7.8	24.2			16568.0		2394.3	92.4	352.2	8922.0	322.2	1107.0	6.45	-10	-1.1
	SW2	Sep.2009				39500	7.3	23.2			14484.8		1926.6	107.8	313.2	7214.0	267.9	916.9	5.43	-17	-2.0

Hydrochemical and isotopic evidences for deciphering conceptual model of groundwater
 Delineating multiple salinization processes in a coastal plain aquifer, northern China:
 hydrochemical and isotopic evidence

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Abstract

12 Groundwater is the an important water resource for agricultural irrigation, urban and tourism development 13 and industrial utilization in the coastal regions of northern China. In the past five decades, coastal 14 groundwater salinization in the Yang-Dai River coastal plain has become more increasingly serious than 15 ever before under the influence of natural climate change and anthropogenic activities and climatic change. 16 It is pivotal for the scientific management of coastal water resources to accurately understand groundwater 17 salinization processes and its inducement their causative factors. Hydrochemical (major ion and trace element) and stable isotopic (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) analysis for of the different water bodies (surface water, 18 19 groundwater, geothermal water, and seawater) were applied conducted to provide a betterimprove understanding of the processes of groundwater salinization processes in the the plain's Quaternary aquifers. 20 Saltwater intrusion due to intensive groundwater pumping is the a major aspect-process, and can be caused 21 by either by vertical infiltration along the riverbeds which convey saline surface water inland, at the 22 23 downstream areas of rivers during the tide/surge period, and/or direct subsurface lateral inflow-into fresh 24 aquifer derived from intensively pumping groundwater. Trends in salinity with depth indicate that the 25 former may be more important than previously assumed. The Seawater proportion of seawater in 26 groundwater is estimated to have ean reached up to ~13% in the shallow groundwater of a local well field. 27 End-member mixing calculations also indicate that hHighly mineralized geothermal water (TDS of up to 10.6 g/L) with depleted stable isotope compositions and elevated strontium concentrations (>10 mg/L) with 28 29 the indicator of paleoseawater relics (lower Cl/Br ratios relative to modern seawater) also locally overflows mixes with water into the cold-overlying Quaternary aquifers. This is particularly evident in samples with 30 elevated Sr/Cl ratios (>0.005 mass ratio). Groundwater Deterioration of groundwater quality by salinization 31 32 can is also be also clearly exacerbated by the anthropogenic activities pollution. Nitrate contamination via 33 intrusion of heavily polluted marine water is evident locally (e.g. in the Zaoyuan well field); however, more

widespread nitrate contamination due to other local sources such as (e.g., irrigation return flow with 34 35 solution of fertilizers and/or - domestic wastewater- is evident on the basis of NO₃/Cl ratiosdischarge). Additionally, the interaction between surface water and groundwater can make the groundwater freshening 36 or salinizing in different sections to locally modify the groundwater hydrochemistry. The cease of the well 37 38 field and establishment of anti-tide dam in the Yang River estuary area have effective function to contain 39 the development of saltwater intrusion. This study provides an example of how multiple geochemical 40 indicators can delineate different salinization processes and guide the future water management practices, and provide research approaches and foundation for further investigation of seawater intrusion in this a 41 42 densely populated water-stressed coastal regionand similar region.

43 Key words: Groundwater salinization; Stable isotopes; Coastal aquifers, Water quality

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Coastal regions is are the key areas for the world's social and economic development. 46 Approximately 40% of the world's population lives within 100 kilometers of the coast (UN Atlas, 2010). 47 The wWorldwide, coastal these areas haves become increasingly urbanized, with 14 of the world's 17 48 largest cities located along coasts (Creel-L., 2003). China has 18,000 km of continental coastline, about and 49 around 164 million people (about approximately 12% of the total Chinese population) livinge in 14 coastal 50 provinces₂, and nearly 80% of these people inhabitem distribute in the three coastal <u>'economic</u> 51 zones'economic regions, namely Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei-economic region, the Yangtze River delta economic 52 region-and the Pearl River delta economic region (Shi, 2012). The rapid economic development and the 53 growing population in these coastal regions have greatly increased demands for fresh water., meanwhile 54 Meanwhile, been they are also confronted with the threat from increased waste and sewage and other 55 wastewater discharge into coastal ecosystemsenvironments.

56 Coastal <u>gG</u>roundwater resources play crucial roles <u>on in</u> the social economic and ecologic function in 57 <u>of the global coastal systems</u> (IPCC, 2007). <u>Coastal groundwaterCoastal aquifers-system connect_withs</u> the 58 ocean and <u>with the-continental hydro-ecological systems</u> (Moore, 1996; Ferguson and Gleeson, 2012). 59 <u>Groundwater aAs an important freshwater resource, groundwater could may</u> be over_-extracted <u>due to that</u> 50 the<u>during periods of highest demand, which (e.g., agricultural irrigation and tourist seasons)</u> are often the 51 periods of lowest recharge and/or surface water availability rates (Post, 2005). In addition to occurrence of 52 some environmental issues, such as land subsidence, contaminants transport, the overOver-exploitation of 53 some environmental issues, such as land subsidence, contaminants transport, the overOver-exploitation of 54 some environmental issues, such as land subsidence, contaminants transport, the overOver-exploitation of 55 some environmental issues, such as land subsidence. 63 groundwater can therefore readily result in seawater intrusion in the coastal area, as well as related 64 environmental issues such as land subsidence. Seawater intrusion has become a global issue and the related studies can be found from the coastal aquifers system of different countries around the world, such 65 66 asincluding Israel (Sivan et al., 2005; Yechieli et al., 2009; Mazi et al., 2014), Spain (Price and Herman, 1991; Pulido-Leboeuf, 2004; Garing et al., 2013), France (Barbecot et al., 2000; de Montety et al., 2008), 67 68 Italy (Giambastiani et al., 2007; Ghiglieri et al., 2012), Morocco (Bouchaou et al., 2008; El Yaouti et al., 69 2009), USA (Gingerich and Voss, 2002; Masterson, 2004; Langevin et al., 2010), Australia (Zhang et al., 70 2004; Narayan et al., 2007; Werner, 2010), China (Xue et al., 2000; Han et al., 2011, 2015), Vietnam (An 71 et al., 2014), Indonesia (Rahmawati et al., 2013), India (Radhakrishna, 2001; Bobba, 2002) and Brazil 72 (Montenegro et al., 2006; Cary et al., 2015), etc., Werner et al. (2013) gave an excellent-provides a 73 comprehensive review on of seawater intrusion processes, investigation and management.

A variety of approaches have been used to investigate seawater intrusion, including head measurement, geophysical methods, geochemical methods (environmental tracers combined hydrochemical and isotope data), conceptual and mathematical modeling (see reviews by Jones et al., 1999; Werner et al., 2013).

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77 Seawater/saltwater intrusion is a complicated hydrogeological process, due to the impact of aquifer 78 properties, anthropogenic activities (e.g., intensive groundwater pumping, irrigation practices), recharge 79 rates, variable density flow, between the estuary and adjacent fresh groundwater system, tidal/surge activity 80 and effects relating to global climate change, such as sea level rise (Ghassemi et al., 1993; Robinson et al., 81 1998; Smith and Turner, 2001; Simpson and Clement, 2004; Narayan et al., 2007; Werner and Simmons, 82 2009; Wang et al., 2015). Understanding the complex interactions between groundwater, surface water, and 83 seawater is thus essential for effective management of coastal water resources (Mondal et al., 2010). 84 Brockway et al. (2006) reported the negative relationship between saltwater intrusion length and river 85 discharge. Understanding the complex interactions between groundwater and surface water, groundwater and seawater is essential for the effective management of water resources (Sophocleus, 2002; Mondal et al., 86 2010). There was a vVastlyery different salinization patterns may arise as a result of diverse 87 interactionsresult based on numerical simulations in coastal settings for the additional distance of 88 intrusion in the Nile Delta Aquifer of Egypt and in the Bay of Bengal under the same sea level rise (Sherif 89 and Singh, 1999; Bobba, 2002; Westbrook et al., 2005). Bobba (2002) also employed numerical 90 simulations to demonstrate an apparent risk of saltwater intrusion in the Godavari delta, India due to sea 91 92 level rise. Westbrook et al. (2005) defined the hyporheic transition zone of mixing between river water and
93 groundwater influenced by tidal fluctuations and the contaminant distribution. ___ModellingModeling 94 seawater intrusion in the Burdekin Delta irrigation area, North Queensland (Australia)has shown that 95 generally, seawater intrusion is far-more sensitive to groundwater pumping and recharge rates and recharge than to aquifer properties (e.g., hydraulic conductivity), and compared to the effects of groundwater 96 97 pumping, the effectin comparison to of-tidal fluctuation and sea level rises on saltwater intrusion can be 98 neglected (Narayan et al., 2007; Ferguson and Gleeson, 2012). However, most models of seawater intrusion 99 require simplification of the coastal interface zone. Relatively rare-few studies have focused on delineating 100 the complex interactions among the surface-ground-sea-water continuums in estuarine environments, and 101 including the effects of vertical infiltration of seawater into the off-shore aquifers -through river channels, 102 vs.as compared to <u>the sub-surface</u> lateral landward migration of the freshwater-saltwater interface. Recent 103 data indicate that such processes may be more important in causing historical salinization of coastal 104 groundwater than previously appreciated (e.g. Cary et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2016; Larsen et al., 2017). 105

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 Additionally, groundwater in coastal aquifers may be affected by other salinization processes, such as

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 input of anthropogenic contaminants or induced mixing with saline water from deeper or adjacent

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 formations, which may include mineralized geothermal water or brines emplaced in the coastal zone over

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 geologic history.

109 The data of from China's marine environment bulletin released on March 2015 by the State Oceanic 110 Administration People's Republic of China showed that the major bays, including Bohai Bay, Liaodong 111 Bay and ,-Hangzhou Bay, are polluted seriously polluted, with the inorganic nitrogen and active phosphate 112 being tas the major pollutants (SOA, 2015). Seawater intrusion in China is the most serious around in the 113 Circum-Bohai-Sea region (Han et al., 2011; Han et al., 2016a); and due to the heavy marine pollution, the escalating impacts of anthropogenic activities on groundwater quality seawater intrusion in the future may 114 115 be-not simply be a case of a simple problem related to groundwater salinization simple salt-water intrusion. 116 This region is also characterized by deep brines and geothermal waters (e.g. Han et al., 2014), which may 117 migrate and mix with fresher groundwater under due to intensive water extraction. Depending on the 118 specific processes involved, additional contaminants may mix with fresh groundwater resources in parallel 119 with seawater intrusion, and in this region. iH is thus likely to be more difficult to mitigate and remediate 120 groundwater pollution-caused by the contaminated seawater.

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 A variety of approaches can be used to investigate and differentiate seawater intrusion and other

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 salinization processes, including time-series water level and salinity measurements, geophysical methods,

123 conceptual and mathematical modeling as well as geochemical methods (see reviews by Jones et al., 1999; 124 Werner et al., 2013). Geochemical techniques are particularly valuable in areas where the dynamics of saline intrusion are complicated and may involve long-term processes pre-dating accurate water level 125 126 records, or where multiple salinization processes may be occurring simultaneously. These techniques 127 typically employ the use of major ion ratios such as Cl/Br and Cl/Na, which are indicative of solute origins 128 (Edmunds, 1996; Jones et al., 1999). Other ionic ratios, involving Mg, Ca, Na, HCO₃ and SO₄, and 129 characterization of water 'types' can also be useful in determining the geochemical evolution of coastal 130 groundwater, for example, indicating freshening or salinization, due to commonly associated ion exchange 131 and redox reactions (Anderson et al., 2005; Walraevens, 2007). Trace elements such as strontium, lithium and boron can provide additional valuable information about sources of salinity and mixing between 132 133 various end-members, as particular waters can have distinctive concentrations (and/or isotopic compositions) of these elements (e.g., Vengosh et al., 1999). Stable isotopes of water (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) are 134 also commonly used in such studies, as they are sensitive indicators of water and salinity sources, allowing 135 136 seawater to be distinguished from other salt sources (e.g., Currell et al., 2015).----

137 This study will takeexamines the Yang-Dai River coastal plain in Qinhuangdao City, Hebei province of, north China, specifically focusing on salinization of fresh groundwater caused by groundwater 138 139 exploitation in the Zaoyuan well field and surrounding areas. The study as an example to investigates 140 groundwater salinization processes and interactions among surface water, groundwater and seawater and 141 geothermal groundwater, and in a dynamic environment, with significant pressure on water resourcesthe seawater intrusion caused by groundwater exploitation in Zaoyuan well field. Qinhuangdao is an important 142 143 port and tourist city of northern China. In the past 30 years, many sprevious studies had done to have 144 investigated <u>distribution of</u> seawater intrusion and its influencinge factors in the region using 145 hydrochemical analysis of groundwater (Xu, 1986; Yang et al., 1994, 2008; Chen and Ma, 2002; Sun and 146 Yang, 2007; Zhang, 2012) and numerical simulations (Han, 1990; Bao, 2005; Zuo, 2009). However, these 147 studies have yet to provide clear resolution of the different mechanisms contributing to salinization, and 148 have typically ignored the role of anthropogenic pollution and groundwater-surface water interaction. This study is thus a continuation of previous investigations of the coastal plain aquifers in Qinhuangdaoregion, 149 150 using a range of -h Hydrochemical and stable isotopic compositions of collected water samples were 151 analyzed fordata to making up the knowledge gap of surface, ground and sea water interactions in this region. This study aims to describe the conceptual model of the complex processes for the groundwater 152

153 salinization of the coastal aquifers, to revealdelineate the major aspects processes responsible for the 154 increasing groundwater salinity in the coastal aquifers, including lateral sub-surface sea-water intrusion, vertical leakage of marine-influenced surface water, induced mixing of saline geothermal water, and 155 156 anthropogenic pollution. The goal is to-and to-obtain a more robust conceptual model model for 157 deciphering of the interconnections between groundwater the various water sources under the impact of 158 groundwater exploitation. flow system of the study area. The results will be helpful for the further 159 numerical simulations of coastal groundwater system. It is provide very significant new information for to assist water resources management in the coastal plain of Bohai bay, and other similar coastal areas 160 161 globally.

162 **2. Study area**

The Yang-Dai River coastal plain (Fig. 1) covers approximately 200km² in-of the west side of 163 164 Beidaihe District of Qinhuangdao City, the northeastern Hebei Province. It connects the eastern section ofis 165 surrounded by the Yanshan Mountain-Mountains to the north and west, and and surrounded by mountains. 166 tThe southern boundary of the study area is the Bohai Sea. The plain become low from declines in topographic elevation (with an average slope of 0.008) from approximately 390m above sea-level in the 167 168 northwest to 1-25m in the southeast, forming and a fan-shaped distribution of the incised piedmont-coastal 169 inclined alluvial plain sediments. Elevation ranges from 390 in the west and to 40-100 m in the north, and 170 25-40 in the east, and 25-1m in the south coastal region, with the average slope of 0.008. Zaoyuan well 171 field, located in the southern edge of the alluvial fan, approximately 4.3km from the Yang River estuary, 172 was built in 1959 (Xu, 1986) as a major water supply for this-the region . It is 4.3 km from the southeastern 173 well field to Yang River estuary(Fig. 1).

174 **2.1 Climate and hydrology**

The study area is in a warm and semi-humid monsoon climate. On the basis of a 56-a-year_record in Qinhuangdao-area, the mean annual rainfall is estimated to beapproximately 640 mm, the average annual temperature is aboutapproximately 11°C, and mean potential evaporation of-1469 mm. 75% of the total annual rainfall falls in July-September (Zuo, 2006), during the East Asian Summer Monsoon. The average annual tide level is 0.86m (meters above Yellow Sea base level), while the highest and low tides is-are approximately 2.48m; and the lowest is -1.43m.—

181 The Yanghe River and Daihe River, originateding from the Yanshan Mountains, are the major surface

water bodiesy in theis area, flowing southward into the Bohai sSea (Fig. 1). The Yang River is 182 approximately 100 km long with a catchment area of 1029 km² and average annual runoff of $1.11 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3/\text{a}$ 183 (Han, 1988). Dai River has a length of 35 km and catchment area of 290 km², with annual runoff of 184 $0.27 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^3/a$. The rivers become soared full during when heavy intense rain eventss happened with short 185 186 peak duration, whereas it and revert to became minimal flow or drying during the dry season – in part this is 187 related to impoundment of flow in upstream reservoirs. The Yang River is about 100 km long with the catchment area of 1029 km², and the average annual runoff of 1.11×10⁸ m³/a (Han, 1988). Dai River has the 188 length 35 km and catchment area of 290 km², with annual runoff of 0.27×10⁸ m³/a and average gradient of 189 11.4‰. The two rivers flow into the southern Bohai Sea. 190

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2.2 Geological and hydrogeological setting

192 Groundwater in this the area mainly includes water in Quaternary porous sediment fissure as well as 193 fractured bedrock water in the bedrock and water in the Quaternary porous media. The bedrock fissure 194 water is distributed in the northern platform area. Its water abundance is Fractured rock groundwater 195 volume mainly dependsed on the degree of weathering and the nature and regularity of fault zones (Fig. 1). 196 The strata outcropping in the west, north and eastern edge of the plain includes the Archean gneiss, 197 Proterozoic mixed granite and and Jurassic aged metamorphic and igneous rocks, which also underlie the 198 The ex-Quaternary, which is exposed in the offshore area of the region, is mainly the Archean metamorphic 199 granite, which is widely distributed. The mineral composition includes mainly quartz, feldspar, and biotite. 200 The Quaternary sediments of the plain (from which most samples in this study were collected)are mostly underlain by the Archean gneisses and Proterozoic mixed granites. The basement faults under the 201 202 Quaternary cover are mainly include the NE-trending fault and the NW-trending (Fig. 1) fault; The 203 Quaternary aquifer system of the Yang-Dai River coastal plain is a complete groundwater system from the 204 piedmont to the coast (see P-P' cross section of Figure 2). these Geological technics structures control the 205 development and deformation thickness of the overlying sediments, as well as the distribution of hot 206 springs and geothermal anomalies. Fault zones are also thought to be the main channel for deep-water cycle 207 andtransport of thermal convection water from deeper to shallower depths.

The Quaternary sediments are widely distributed in the area, with the thickness ranging from approximately 5-80 m (mostly 20-40 m), up to more than 100 m immediately adjacent to the coastline. The bottom of the Holocene (Q_4) unit in most areas has clay or consists of clay-layers, which make making the 211 groundwater in the coastal zone under confined or semi-confined status, although .- Tthere are no regional, 212 continuous aquitards between several layers of aquifer-forming sediments (Fig. 21bB)aquifers. The 213 thickness of the Quaternary strata has a range of 5-80 m, mostly 20-40 m, and up to more than 100 m near 214 the coastline. The aquifer is mainly composed of medium sand, coarse sand and gravel lavers with 215 thickness of 10-20 m and a water table depth of 1-4 m in the phreatic aquifer, and deeper semi-confined 216 groundwater (where present and hydraulically separated from the phreatic aquifer) thickness of 10-30 m 217 and hosted in similar deposits with a water table depth-potentiometric surface of 1-5 m below topographic 218 elevation in the confined aquifer (Zuo, 2006).

219 In the yearly peak season of agricultural water, the groundwater level decline sharply and reaches the lowest water table in April-May period, and become highest in January February. The main sources of 220 221 aquifer recharge are from rainfall infiltration, river water and irrigation return-flow, lateral subsurface 222 runoff from the piedmont area. Apart from the phreatic water evaporation, groundwater pumping it the 223 main pathway of groundwater discharge for agricultural, industrial, tourism and sanatorium's utilization. 224 The general flow direction of groundwater is from northwest to south, according to the topography. The 225 main sources of recharge are from infiltration of rainfall, river water and irrigation return-flow, as well as 226 lateral subsurface inflow from the piedmont area. Naturally, groundwater discharges into the rivers and the 227 Bohai Sea. Apart from phreatic water evaporation, groundwater pumping for agricultural, industrial and domestic usage (including seasonal tourism) are currently the main pathways of groundwater discharge. 228

The gGeothermal water discharges into shallow Quaternary sediments near the fault zones, discharges 229 into shallow Quaternary sediments, which is the overlying strata in evident as geothermal anomalous 230 areaanomalies (Hui, 2009). The temperature of thermal water water ranges is from 27-57-°C in this 231 low-to-medium temperature geothermal field (Zeng, 1991). The thickness of the overlying strata is varied 232 from 24.6 to 58.8 m and consists of alluvial sand, gravel, clayey loam, clay and silt. The tDeeper thermal 233 234 water is stored in the Archaeozoic granite and metamorphic rocks, which are composed of migmatite, gneiss, and amphibole plagio-gneiss (Pan, 1990).; mMajor deep-fracture zones are the goodprovide 235 236 pathways passage for the geothermal water movement (Yang, 2011). The heated groundwater in the deep zones could upward transport along the fault and mix withinto the overlying - cold groundwater in the 237 238 Quaternary aquifers sediments (Pan, 1990; Shen et al., 1993; Yang, 2011).

239 **2.3 Environmental issues**Groundwater usage and seawater intrusion history

240 The sShallow groundwater pumped from the Quaternary aquifer occupies 94% of the total 241 groundwater exploitation, and is which is used for agricultural irrigation (accounts for 52% of the total groundwater use), industrial_-(32%) and domestic water (16%) (Meng, 2004). Many large and 242 243 medium-sized reservoirs were built in the 1960s and 1970s and resulted inmeaning that the surface water 244 was intercepted and the downstream runoff dropped sharply, even became causing rivers to dry up in 245 drought years. With the intensification of human socio-economic activities and growing urbanization, 246 coupled with extended drought years (severe drought during 1976-1989 in north China) (Wilhite, 1993; Han 247 et al., 2015), increased groundwater exploitation to meet the ever-growing fresh water demands has 248 resulted in groundwater level declining declines and seawater intrusion (SWI) in the coastal aquifers.

249 The pumping rate in the Zaoyuan well field was-gradually increased from 1.25 million m^3/a in the early 1960s to 3.5 million m³/a in the late 1970s, and beyond 10 million m³/a in the 1980s. During 250 251 1966-1989, the major agricultural planting in this region isof paddy fields became common, with bigresulting in significant agricultural water consumption. This caused formation of a cone of depression in 252 253 the Quaternary aquifer system. The gGroundwater pumping time is in this region mainly occurs from May 254 to Octoberin spring and early summer, -with typical pumping rates of of-7~80,000 m³/d. Pumping from 255 the Zaoyuan well-field occurs in wells approximately 15 to 20m deep. , which was over exploited and resulted in formation of groundwater level declining depression. Groundwater levels decline sharply and 256 257 reach their lowest level during May, before the summer rains begin, and recover to their yearly high in 258 January-February (Fig. 2). In May 1986, the groundwater level in the depression center, which is located in Zaoyuan-Jiangying (Supplementary-Figure S1), was-decreased to below-2_-m.a.s.l.-(meters above sea 259 level) , withand the depression area, which has with groundwater levels below the sea level, covered 28.2 260 km². The local government commenced reduction in groundwater exploitation in this area after 1992, and 261 groundwater levels began to decrease more slowly after 1995, even showing recovery in some wells. 262 However, during an extreme drought year (1999), increased water demand resulted in renewed 263 groundwater level declines in the region (Fig. 32). Since 2000, the groundwater levels have responded 264 seasonally to water demand peaks and recharge (Fig. 2; Fig. S1). 265

Since From 1990, the rapid development of township enterprises in the 1980s (mainly refer to paper mills), also began to cause groundwater over-exploitation in the western area of the plain. (The groundwaterise, the groundwater __pumping rate for paper mills development reached 55,000 m³/d in 2002.) resultinged in the groundwater level depressions around Liushouying and Fangezhuang (Fig. 1). The lowest groundwater level in the western depression centerassociated with this pumping in 1991 was up toreached -11.6 m.a.s.l. in 1991, and -17.4 m.a.s.l. in 2002. After the implementation of "Transfering Qing River water to Qinhuangdao" project since in 1992, the intensity of groundwater pumping generally became slowed downreduced, and the. The depression center moved to Liushouying area. The groundwater level of thein the depression center was-recovered to -4.3 m.a.s.l. in July 2006.

275 Overall, the depression area (groundwater levels below mean sea level) was recorded as 132.3km² in May 2004 and tThe shape of the depression was has generally been elliptical with the major axis of 276 thealigned E-W-direction. The depression area developed to 132.3km² in May 2004. In addition to 277 groundwater over-exploitation, climate change-induced recharge reduction has also likely contributed to 278 279 groundwater level declines and hence seawater intrusion -(Fig. S2). The annual average rainfall declined from 639.7 mm between 1954 - 1979 to 594.2 mm between 1980-2010; a significant decrease over the last 280 281 30 years (Zhang, 2012). As indicated in Figure S2, the severity of seawater intrusion (indicated by changes 282 in Cl concentration, and the total area impacted by SWI, as defined by the 250mg/L Cl contour) correlates 283 with periods of below average rainfall - indicated by monthly cumulative rainfall departure (CRD, Weber 284 and Stewart, 2004).

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286 The gGroundwater quality of theis area has become gradually became more saliniezed since from the early 1980s, with- cehloride concentrations increasinged year by year. As early as 1979, seawater intrusion 287 288 occurred—was recorded in the Zaoyuan well field. The intrusion area with groundwater chloridne concentration greater than 250 mg/L has been developed was to 21.8 km² in 1984, and 32.4 km² in 1991, 289 52.6 km² in 2004 and, 57.3 km² in 2007 (Zuo, 2006; Zang et al., 2010). The chloride concentration of 290 291 groundwater pumped from the a monitored well-field well (depth of 18 m, this well field G10 in Fig. 1) 292 changed from 90 mg/L in 1963 to; 218 mg/L in 1978, 567 mg/L in 1986, 459 mg/L in 1995, and 1367 mg/L 293 in 2002 (Zuo, 2006), reducing to 812 mg/L in July 2007-(this study). The distance of estimated seawater 294 intrusion into the inland area from the coastline had reached 6.5 km inland in 1991, and developed to 8.75 295 km in 2008 (Zang et al., 2010). At-In the early 1990s, 16 of 21 pumping wells in the well field have 296 beenwere abundant abandoned due to the salineized water quality (Liang et al., 2010). Additionally, 370 of 297 520 pumping wells were abandoned has been abundant in the wider Yang-Dai River coastal plain during 298 1982-1991 (Zuo, 2006).

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300 3. Methods

301 Totally-In total, 80 water samples were collected from the Yang-Dai River coastal plain, including 58 302 groundwater samples, 19 river water samples (from 12 sites), and 3 seawater samples, during three 303 sampling campaigns , namely, (June 2008, September 2009 and August 2010). Groundwater samples were 304 pumped from 28 productive production wells with well-depths of between 6 and -110m, including 7 deep 305 wells with, which has well depths greater more than 60m (Fig. 1). While ideally, sampling for geochemical parameters would be conducted on monitoring wells, due to an absence of these, production wells were 306 utilised. In most cases, the screened interval of these wells encompasses aquifer thicknesses of 307 308 approximately 5 to 15m above the depths indicated in Table 1.

The water sampling sites can be shown in Figure.1. In this study, we <u>sampling investigated focused</u> predominantly on low temperatureeold groundwater; <u>from the productive wells</u>. <u>Hh</u>owever, the geothermal water <u>existing from</u> around Danihe <u>cannot be ignoredwas also considered a potentially</u> important ongoing source of groundwater salinity. As such, while geothermal water samples were not accessible during our sampling campaigns (as the area is now protected), <u>The related data can be available</u> and referenced<u>data</u> reported by from Zeng (1991) due to that we cannot obtain the hot water samples from the current geothermal field<u>were compiled and analyzed in conjunction with the sampled wells</u>.

316 Measurements of some physical physical parameters (i.e. pH, temperature, and electrical 317 conductivity (EC)) were conducted in situ using a portable meter (WTW Multi 3500i). All water samples 318 were filtered to-with 0.45-µm membrane filters before collection for analysis of hydrochemical composition. 319 Two aliquots in polyethylene 100mL bottles at each site were collected: for major cation and anion analysis, respectively. Samples for cation analysis (Na[±], K[±], Mg^{2±} and Ca^{2±}) were added-treated with 6-N HNO₃ to 320 prevent precipitation. Water samples were sealed and stored at 4-°C until determinationanalysis. 321 322 Biocarbonates wasere determined by titration within 12 hours hours after of sampling. The eConcentrations 323 of cations and some trace elements (i.e., B, and Sr, Li) were analyzed by inductively coupled plasma-optical 324 emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) on filtered samples in the chemical laboratory of the Institute of 325 Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research (IGSNRR), Chinese Academy Sciences (CAS). Only the Sr data are reported here, as the other trace elements were not relevant to the interpretations discussed 326 (Table 1). The detection limits for analysis of Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} are 0.03, 0.05, 0.009, and 0.02 mg/L. 327

Concentrations of major anions (i.e. Cl^{2} , SO_{4}^{2} , NO_{3}^{2} and F^{2}) were analyzed by ausing a High Performance 328 329 Ion Chromatograph (SHIMADZU, LC-10ADvp) at the IGSNRR, CAS. The detection limits for analysis of 330 Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and F⁻ are 0.007, 0.018, 0.016, and 0.006 mg/L. The testing precision the cation and anion analysis is 0.1-5.0%. The ion Charge balance errors of the chemical results were are less than 8%. The 331 332 hydrochemical and physical data are shown in Table 1. The sStable isotopes ($\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{2}H$) of water 333 samples were measured by-using a Finnigan MAT 253 mass spectrometer after on-line pyrolysis with a 334 Thermo Finnigan TC/EA in the Stable Isotopes Laboratory of the IGSNRR, CAS. The results are expressed 335 in ‰ relative to international standards (V-SMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water)) and of-resulting δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values are shown in Table 1, were expressed in % relative to international standards 336 (V-SMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water)). The analytical precision for δ^2 H is ±2‰ and for δ^{18} O is 337 338 $\pm 0.5\%$. All hydrochemical, physico-chemical and isotope data are reported in Table 1.

339 Saturation indices for common minerals (i.e. calcite, dolomite, and gypsum) were calculated using 340 PHREEQC version 2.8 (Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999) to understand the saturation status of these minerals 341 in the aquifer. Ionic delta values were calculated to further investigate the hydrogeochemical behavior that take place in the aquifer and modify groundwater hydrochemistry. The ionic delta values express 342 343 enrichment or depletion of each ion's concentration relative to its theoretical concentrationMixing 344 calculations were also conducted on the basis of calculated from the CI concentrations of the samples under for a conservative freshwater-seawater mixing system (Fidelibus et al., 1993; Appelo, 1994). The 345 delta values have been used as effective indicators of coastal groundwater undergoing freshening or 346 salinizing processes, accompanied by related water rock interaction (prevailingly cation exchange). Cl-can 347 348 be regarded as a conservative tracer for the calculations mentioned below. The seawater contribution for 349 each sample can be is expressed by as a fraction of seawater (f_{sw}), which can be calculated using (Appelo 350 and Postma, 2005):

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$$f_{sw} = \frac{C_{Cl,sam} - C_{Cl,f}}{C_{Cl,sw} - C_{Cl,f}}$$
(1)

where $C_{Cl,sam}$, $C_{Cl,f}$, and $C_{Cl,sw}$ refer to the CI⁻ concentration in the sample, freshwater, and seawater, respectively. Based on the f_{sw} value, the theoretical concentration ($C_{i,mix}$) of each ion in a water sample can be calculated by:

355
$$C_{i,mix} = f_{sw} \cdot C_{i,sw} + (1 - f_{sw}) \cdot C_{i,f}$$
 (2)

12

356 357 $C_{i,sw}$, and $C_{i,f}$ refer to the measured concentration of the ion *i* in the seawater and freshwater, respectively. The ionic delta value (ΔC_i) of ion *i* can be obtained by:

 $\Delta C_i = C_{i,sam} - C_{i,mix} \tag{3}$

 $C_{i,sam}$ - the measured concentration of the ion *i* in the water sample.

360

359

4. Results

362 4.1 Groundwater dynamics

Due to the different groundwater pumping rate and patterns, the variation trend of groundwater level 363 has been different in the east and west areas of the Yang-Dai River coastal plain. In the east part, owing to 364 365 the intensive exploitation in the Zaoyuan well field, the groundwater level was gradually declined to be 366 lower than the sea level during the 1980s. The center of groundwater level depression was located in Zaoyuan-Jiangying region, with the groundwater level lower than -3 m.a.s.l. The local government 367 commenced to reduce the exploitation after 1992. The groundwater level decreased slowly after 1995, even 368 started to recovery in some wells as a result of pumping reduction. During the extreme drought year (1999), 369 370 the consequential increased water demand made the groundwater level declined again in the east region. In the late 1980s, the groundwater level at the west region was still more than 0 m.a.s.l. But in the late 1990s, 371 due to the fast development of the local paper mills as the big water consumers, the groundwater level 372 dropped year by year and had big falling amplitude after 2000, resulting in the overall transfer of 373 374 groundwater depression center to the western region (Liushouving-Fangezhuang). The groundwater level in 375 this center was up to -14 m.a.s.l. in May 2002.

376 Based on the data from the three monitoring wells, the seasonal variation of groundwater level in this area can be seen from Figure 3. After 2000, the groundwater level in the east of the Yang-Dai River coastal 377 378 plain was mainly affected by the groundwater pumping for agricultural and domestic water use. During 379 March and June of each year, the shallow groundwater pumping as the major water source for irrigation has 380 resulted in the fast dropped water level occurred between April and June, down to the lowest level of water 381 throughout the year. As the rainy season started in July, groundwater pumping began to decrease. Groundwater level rise rapidly with the infiltration of irrigation return-flow and rainfall, lateral subsurface 382 runoff from the surrounding aquifers. After the end of the rainy season (July to September), the water level 383 384 continues to rise gently and reach the annual maximum water level during January and February. With the

amount of recharge is reduced along with the increase of domestic water pumping, water level circularly slow down to the next agricultural peak. In addition to groundwater over exploitation, climate change induced recharge reduction in recent three decades has been also part of the cause of groundwater level declining, resulting in the seawater intrusion. The annual average rainfall varied from 639.7 mm (1954 - 1979) to 594.2 mm (1980-2010). It obviously finds that there is a significant decrease in rainfall over the last 30 years (Zhang, 2012). In general, the groundwater runoff intensity gradually decreases from the piedmont to the coastal region.

392 4.2-1 Water stable isotopes (δ^2 H and δ^{18} O)

The local meteoric water line (LMWL, δ^2 H=6.6 δ^{18} O+0.3, n=64, r²=0.88) is based on δ^2 H and δ^{18} O 393 394 mean monthly rainfall values between 1985 and 2003 from Tianjin station some 120 km SW of 395 Qinhuangdao City (IAEA/WMO, 2006). Due to similar climate and position relative to the coast, this can be regarded as representative of the study area. 19 wSurface water samples collected from Yang River and 396 Dai River (n = 19) have δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values ranging from -10.1 to -0.6‰ (mean= -5.4‰) and from -71 397 to---11‰ (mean = -43‰), respectively. It seems that the sStable isotopes compositions for surface water 398 399 appear to exhibit have significant seasonal variation (Fig. S3);- fFor Yang River, 3-surface water samples from *d* in the relatively dry season (June 2008, n = 3) were characterized by had mean δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values 400 ranging from -5.5 to -1.1‰ (mean=of -3.0‰) and from -49---15‰ (mean = -31‰), respectively; .- Whereas 401 402 6 water samples sampleds in from the wet season (August 2009 and September 2010, n = 6) had mean ve δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values ranging from -10.1 to -2.4% (mean=of -6.6%) and from -71--21% (mean=of -6.6%) 403 -48%), %, respectively. As to Dai River, samples showed similar results; the dry season mean in dry 404 season, 3 surface water samples are characterized by δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values (n = 3) ranging from -3.9 to 405 -0.6‰ (mean - were -2.6‰) and from -44---11‰ (mean - -32‰), respectively; and in-wet season samples 406 (n = 7), 7 surface water samples have had mean δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values ranging from -9.7 to -1.2% (mean=of 407 -6.6%) and from -69--12% (mean = -49%), respectively (Fig. 43). 408

The water samples collected from Yang River and Dai River have similar stable isotopes composition.
The 56 groundwater samples are-were characterized by δ¹⁸O and δ²H values ranging from -11.0 to
-4.2‰ (mean= -6.5‰) and from -76 to -39‰ (mean = -50‰), respectively. Among themthese, shallow
and deep groundwater samples showed similar mean values, although deep groundwater samples (n = 13)
showed relatively narrow overall ranges (43 shallow groundwater samples have δ¹⁸O and δ²H values

414	ranging from -11.0 to -4.2‰ (mean = -6.6‰) and from -7639‰ (mean = -50‰), respectively; 13 deep
415	groundwaters have δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values ranging from -7.8 to -5.1‰ and (mean = -6.3‰) for δ^{18} O; and
416	from -58 to ~-43‰ and (mean = -50‰ for δ^2 H; Fig. 43), respectively). Slight seasonal variation was
417	evident in the groundwater isotope compositions; For the shallow groundwater from, during the dry season
418	(<u>n = , -12</u>) water samples haves have been and δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values ranging from -7.2 to -4.2‰ (mean = -5.7‰) and
419	$\frac{\delta^2 H}{\delta^2 H}$ values from from -56 to39‰ (mean = -48‰), respectively; while during the wet season (n =, 31)
420	water samples are featured by δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values <u>ranged</u> with a range of from -11.0 ~ -5.3‰ (mean =
421	-6.9‰) and -76 \sim -43‰ (mean = -51‰), respectively. Some variability was also evident in deep
422	groundwater compositions, although only three deep samples were collected during the dry season. For the
423	deep groundwater, during the dry season, 3 water samples have δ^{48} O and δ^{2} H values ranging from -5.3 to
424	-5.1‰ (mean = -5.2‰) and from -47~-45‰ (mean = -46‰), respectively; during the wet season, 10 water
425	samples are featured by δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values with a range of -7.8 ~ -5.2‰ (mean = -6.6‰) and -58 ~ -43‰
426	(mean = -51%) respectively

The local meteoric water line (LMWL, δ^2 H=6.6 δ^{18} O+0.3, n=64, r²=0.88) is based on δ^2 H and δ^{18} O 427 428 mean values of the monthly rainfall between 1985 and 2003 at Tianjin station some 120 km SW of Qinhuangdao City. The data were obtained from International Atomic Energy Agency/World 429 430 Meteorological Organization (IAEA/WMO, 2006). Due to the similar climatic and coastal conditions 431 between Tianjin and Qinhuangdao, this meteoric water line can be regarded as the local meteoric water line (LMWL) in this study. From Figure 43, it can be seen that surface water have exhibits a much more wider 432 range of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values relative to groundwater, with shallow groundwater in turn more spatially 433 434 variable than deep groundwater. Water samples collected in the wet season have showed more wider ranges 435 of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values relative to water sampled in the dry season. Most of water samples samples of all types plot to the right of (below) the LMWL, with some surface water samples showing similar 436 437 compositions to the local seawater (Fig. 43). T-he local sSeawater plots below (more negative) than typically assumed values (e.g. VSMOW = 0‰) for both δ^2 H and δ^{18} O, and this water appears to represents 438 439 ann end-member involved in mixing with meteoric-derived waters in both ground and surface water (Fig. 43) enriched in isotopes and plots far below the LMWL. 440

441 4.<u>3-2</u> Water salinity and major-dissolved ions

442

TDS (total dissolved solids) concentrations of the surface water samples from Dai River have a range

443 from of $0.3g/L \sim 31.4g/L$ with $\frac{22-78\%}{22-78\%}$ Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ comprising 22-78% and 4-56-4% Ca²⁺ of total cations and 36-91%-Cl⁻ comprising 36-91% of total anions. The composition changes from, Ca•Na•Mg-Cl•HCO₃ 444 445 to Na-Cl water type from the upstream -to -the downstream locations along with increasing salinity; Cl concentrations vary from approximately 70 mg/L upstream to 16700 mg/L near the coastline, due to marine 446 447 influence. The CI⁻ concentrations varied from about 70 mg/L in the upstream to 16700 mg/L near the 448 coastline. Similar variation occurs along the For-Yang River, the collected waterwhere samples havde TDS 449 concentrations of between 0.3-26.1 g/L with increasing percentages concentrations and proportions (33-91%) of Cl⁻ concentrations (63.2-14953.5 mg/L) from the up-reach stream to the down-reachstream 450 451 locations, with water types changed from Ca*Na-HCO3*Cl*SO4, Ca*Mg-Cl*SO4*HCO3 to Na-Cl. The 452 nNitrate contents concentrations also range from 2.8 to 65.2 mg/L in the surface water samples, increasing 453 downstream.

454 Groundwater hydrochemistry can be modified the comprehensive effects from geological, elimatic, 455 hydrogeological processes and anthropogenic activities. In the early 1960s, groundwater pumped from the 456 Zaoyuan well field was featured by theexhibited Ca-HCO₃ water type and chloride concentrations of 457 90-130 mg/L; this was followed by rapid salinization since the 1980s (see section 2.3). In the early 1970s, 458 individual wells appear slightly salinized. It has been deteriorated rapidly since the early 1980s. The chloride concentration of groundwater from water supply wells was 90mg/L in 1963, 218 mg/L in 1975, 459 460 385 mg/L in 1984, 456.3 mg/L in 1986, 459.5 mg/L in 1995, 928.3 mg/L in 2000, 1367 mg/L in 2002, and 1290.4 mg/L in 2005 (Zang et al., 2010). In this study, the shallow groundwater is characterized by TDS 461 concentrations of 0.4-4.8 g/L with the percentage of Cl⁻ (34-77%), Na⁺ (12-85%) and, Ca²⁺ (5-69%) being 462 463 the predominant major anion and cations, respectively, and waterGroundwater hydrochemical types varied vary from Ca-HCO₃•Cl, Ca•Na-Cl, Na•Ca-Cl to Na-Cl, which can been seen from Piper plot (Figure 54). 464 465 The dDeep groundwater is featured by has TDS concentrations of between 0.3-2.8g/L, which is dominated 466 by Ca (up to 77% of major cations) in the upstream area and Na (up to 85% or major cations) near the coast, with water type distributed in series of evolving from Ca-Cl+HCO₃ to, Ca+Na-Cl and Na+Mg-Cl (Figure 54). 467 468 At present, tFhe TDS of groundwater from the well field reaches 3.31 g/L with Na-Cl water type in the see 469 well G15). The relative high fracture The highest observed-<u>mixing proportions</u> of seawater occurs in the 470 shallow well G10 and deep well G2, respectively, with calculated fsw values (according to equation 1) of 471 12.95% and 5.35%, respectively.

472

Hydrochemical features of thermal water from the Danihe-Luwangzhuang area (Fig. 1A) are distinct

473	from the normal/low temperature groundwater. Previous work by Zeng (1991) and Hui (2009) identified
474	geothermal water with high TDS in the fractures of deep metamorphic rock. The geothermal water was
475	characterized by TDS values between 6.2-10.6 g/L and Ca•Na-Cl water type, while Cl ⁻ concentrations
476	ranged from 5.4 to 6.5 g/L and Sr concentrations from 6.73 to 89.8 mg/L. Some normal/low temperature
477	groundwater samples collected in this study from wells G8, G19, and G9 featured by Ca•Na-Cl water type
478	with relative high TDS ranges (0.8-1.4 g/L, 1.3-1.6 g/L, and 1.5-2.8 g/L, respectively) and strontium
479	concentrations (1.1-1.9 mg/L, 4.9-7.1 mg/L, and 7.3-11.6 mg/L, respectively), showing similarity with the
480	geothermal system. Low temperature groundwater sampled in this study had Sr/Cl mass ratios ranging from
481	2.4 \times 10 ⁻⁴ to 1.6 \times 10 ⁻² , with higher ratios in deep groundwater (range: 9.4 \times 10 ⁻⁴ to 1.3 \times 10 ⁻² ,
482	median: 3.7 \times 10 ⁻³) compared to shallow groundwater (median: 3.1 \times 10 ⁻³), and groundwater generally
483	higher than seawater/saline surface water (range: 3.7×10^{-4} to 5.8×10^{-4} , median: 3.9×10^{-4} ; Table S1).
484	The nitrate Nitrate contents concentrations in groundwater have a range of from 2.0-178.5 mg/L (mean
485	90.1 mg/L) for shallow groundwater, and 2.0-952.1 mg/L (mean 232.1 mg/L) for the deep groundwater,
486	respectively, with most of whichsamples seriously exceedings the WHO drinking water standard (50
487	mg/L).
488	There is a geothermal field around Danihe-Luwangzhuang area (Fig. 1). Hydrochemical features of
489	thermal water <u>Aare very distinct from cold water. The previous investigation has identified the buried</u>
490	geothermal water with high TDS in the fracture/fissure of deep metamorphic rock (Zeng, 1991). Due to the
491	pumping wells for pumping thermal water were protected and not permitted to be sampled, we have to
492	collect some data associated this geothermal field from the previous research. The geothermal field is
493	controlled by the fault distribution under confined state. The thermal water flows along the fault zone and
494	enters the Quaternary aquifer, forming hot salt water distributed around the spill point and expanded
495	towards downstream. It can result in the similar hydrochemical characteristics between Quaternary salt
496	groundwater and deep original thermal waters from bedrocks. The geothermal water is characterized by
497	Ca•Na-Cl water type, 6.2-10.6 g/L of TDS and 7.4-8.7 of pH values. Cl ⁻ -concentrations range from 5.4 to
498	6.5 g/L, Na [±] from 1.7 to 2.0 g/L, Ca ^{2±} from 1.6 to 1.9 g/L, F ⁻ from 3.0 to 3.6 mg/L, Sr from 6.73 to 89.8
499	mg/L, Li from 0.43 to 1.58 mg/L, and SiO ₂ from 44.0 to 48.3 mg/L (Hui, 2009). The groundwater samples,
500	collected from the wells G8, G19, and G9 with different depths, are featured by Ca•Na-Cl water type with
501	relative high TDS ranges (0.8-1.4 g/L, 1.3-1.6 g/L, and 5-2.8 g/L, respectively) and Sr contents (1.1-1.9
502	mg/L, 4.9-7.1 mg/L, and 7.3-11.6 mg/L, respectively).

503 5. Discussions

504 5.1 Groundwater flow systemisotopes and hydrochemical featureshydrochemistry as 505 indicators of mixing processes

506 Generally, The Quaternary groundwater system in the Yang-Dai River coastal plain is may be 507 recharged by precipitation, irrigation return flow, river infiltration and lateral subsurface runoff (e.g. from 508 mountain-front regions). Due to the natural geological function and human pumping activities, there have 509 been interactions between groundwater and geothermal waters around Danihe area or between groundwater 510 and seawater in the coastal area. The gGroundwater geochemical features characteristics are then controlled 511 by the complex hydrogeological conditions and these hydrological mixing processes, including mixing 512 induced by extensive groundwater pumping, as well as natural mixing and water-rock interaction. It is evident from the geochemistry that mixing has occurred between groundwater and seawater in the coastal 513 514 areas, as well as between normal/low temperature groundwater and geothermal water in the inland areas 515 (e.g. near the Danihe geothermal field). The dD ifferent sources of water bodies are generally characterized 516 by somewhat distinctive different of stable isotopic and hydrochemical compositions, allowing mixing 517 calculations to aid understanding of determining the groundwater salinization and mixing processes, as 518 discussed below in this area.

519 The sStable isotopes of O and H in groundwater and surface water can be used to describe the groundwater origin and to identify the mixing processes between different water bodies. The fall on a 520 521 best-fit regression line slope of the best fit regression line for collected groundwater samples (dashed line in Fig. 43) given as with slope of δ^2 H=4.4× δ^{18} O-21.7, which is significantly lower than either the local or 522 523 global meteoric water lines. Three processes are likely responsible for the observed range of isotopic compositions: 1. Mixing between saline surface water (e.g. seawater or saline river water affected by tidal 524 ingress) and fresher, meteoric-derived groundwater or surface water; 2. Mixing between fresh 525 526 meteoric-derived groundwater and saline thermal water; 3. Evaporative enrichment of surface water and/or 527 irrigation return-flow, which may The deviation of groundwater and surface water lines from the LMWL has evidenced evaporative processes occurred during water infiltrateion groundwater in some areas and 528 529 surface runoff. A sub-group of surface water samples (e.g., S1 to S3, S7 and S12; termed 'brackish surface 530 water') show marine-like stable isotopic compositions and major ion compositions (Fig. 43 and Fig. 5). The 'fresh' surface water samples (e.g. EC values <1500 µS/cm) exhibit meteoric-like stable isotope 531 532 compositions, with some samples (such as S9 and S10) showing clear evidence of evaporative enrichment

533 in the form of higher δ^2 H and particularly, δ^{18} O values (Fig. 43).

Fresh groundwater has depleted δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values relative to seawater and show a clear meteoric 534 origin, albeit with modification due to mixing. Theoretically, the mixing of meteoric-derived fresh 535 groundwater and marine water should result in a straight mixing line connecting the two end members; 536 537 however this is also complicated in the study area by the possible mixing with geothermal water. The 538 thermal groundwater has distinctive stable isotopic and major ion composition (Han, 1988; Zeng, 1991), 539 allowing these mixing processes to be partly delineated. Stable isotopes of thermal groundwater are more depleted than low-temperature groundwater (e.g. δ^{18} O values of approximately -8‰, Fig. 8), indicating this 540 likely originates in the mountainous areas to the north; Zeng (1991) estimated the elevation of the recharge 541 area for the geothermal field to be from 1200 to 1500 m.a.s.l. Based on a bivariate plot of δ^{18} O vs. Cl⁻ with 542 mixing lines and defined fresh and saline end-members, Fig. 65 shows the estimated degree of mixing 543 between fresh groundwater including shallow (G4) and deep (G25) groundwater end-members, and saline 544 545 water, including seawater and geothermal end-members.

546 The two fresh end-members were selected to represent a range of different groundwater 547 compositions/recharge sources, from shallow water that is impacted by infiltration of partially evaporated recharge (fresh but with enriched δ^{18} O) to deeper groundwater unaffected by such enrichment (fresh and 548 with relatively depleted δ^{18} O). The narrower range and relatively enriched stable isotopes in shallow 549 550 groundwater samples collected during the dry season compared with the wet season indicate some 551 influence of seasonal recharge by either rainfall (fresh, with relatively depleted stable isotopes) or irrigation water subject to evaporative enrichment (more saline, with enriched stable isotopes and high nitrate 552 553 concentrations; Currell et al., 2010) and/or surface water leakage. While there is overlap in the isotopic and hydrochemical compositions of shallow and deep groundwater (Fig. 3 & Fig. 4), this effect appears to only 554 555 affect the shallow aquifer.34

Based on Fig. 5, the shallow groundwater samples (e.g. G15, G10, G11, G14) collected from or around the Zaoyuan well field appear to be characterized by mixing between fresh meteoric water and seawater (plotting in the upper part of Fig. 65); while some deeper groundwater samples (e.g. G13, G2, G16, G14) collected from the coastal zone also appearing to indicate mixing with seawater. Groundwater sampled relatively close to the geothermal field (e.g. G9, G19) shows compositions consistent with mixing between low-temperature fresh water and saline thermal water (lower part of Fig. 5). This is more evident in deep groundwater than shallow groundwater, which is consistent with mixing from below, as expected for the deep-source geothermal water. Other samples impacted by salinization show more ambiguous
 compositions between the various mixing lines, which may arise due to mixing with either seawater,
 geothermal water or a combination of both (e.g., G29).

566 The estimated mixing fraction (f_{sw}) of marine water for the shallow brackish groundwater ranges from 1.2~13.0% and 2.6~6.0% for the deep brackish groundwater. The highest fraction of 13% was recorded in 567 568 G10, located in the northerm part of the Zaoyuan well field, which is located near a tidally-impacted 569 tributary of the Yang River (Fig 1). Relatively higher fractions of marine water in relatively shallow 570 samples (including those from the well field) compared to deeper samples may indicate a more 'top down' 571 salinization process, related to leakage of saline surface water through the riverbed, rather than 'classic' lateral sea water intrusion, which typically causes salinization at deeper levels due to migration of a salt 572 573 water 'wedge' (e.g. Werner et al., 2013); this is consistent with results of resistivity surveys conducted in the region (Fig. 6). -The profile of chloride concentrations vs. depth indicates that salinization affects 574 575 shallow and deep samples alike, with the most saline samples being relatively shallow wells in the 576 Zaoyyuan well-field (Fig. 77). The composition of stable isotopes in groundwater samples collected in the 577 relatively dry season has been narrower and enricher than that collected in the wet season. It could be 578 resulted from evaporation processes during the infiltration of local irrigation return-flows in the dry season. The composition of stable isotopes for thermal groundwater could be originated from precipitation. 579 however, its ⁴⁴C age dating between 3.4-12.8ka with tritium content of less than 2 TU (Zeng, 1991), 580 indicating thermal waters might be formed under cooler climate condition than present climate. The 581 582 composition of stable isotopes of thermal groundwater are more depleted than that of cold groundwater, 583 even lower than the cold groundwater from mountain-front area, indicating the thermal groundwater could 584 be mainly originated from NW mountain area, where has higher elevation. The elevation range of recharge area for Danihe geothermal field is from 1200 to 1500 m.a.s.l obtained by Zeng (1991). 585

In general, brackish and fresh groundwater samples show distinctive major ion compositions, with the more saline water typically showing higher proportions of Na and Cl (Fig. 54). This contrasts with historic data collected from the Zaoyuan well field, which showed Ca-HCO₃ type water with Cl concentrations ranging from 130 to 170 mg/L. This provides additional evidence that the salinization in this area is largely due to marine water mixing. More Ca-dominated compositions are evident in the region near the geothermal well field further in-land (e.g., G5, G8, G19, G29, and G24); consistent with a component of salinization that is unrelated to marine water intrusion. Plots of ionic ratios of Na/Cl and Mg/Ca vs. Cl also 593 reveal a sub-set of relatively saline deep groundwater samples which appear to evolve towards the
 594 geothermal-type signatures with increasing salinity (Fig. 88).

- Stronger evidence of mixing of the geothermal water in the Quaternary aquifers (particularly deep
 groundwater) is provided by examining strontium concentrations in conjunction with chloride (Fig. 99).
 The geothermal water from Danihe geothermal field has much higher Sr concentrations (up to 89.8 mg/L)
 than seawater (5.4-6.5 mg/L in this study), due to Sr-bearing minerals (i.e., celestite, strontianite) with Sr
 contents of 300-2000 mg/kg present in the bedrock (Hebei Geology Survey, 1987). Groundwater sampled
 from near the geothermal field in this study has the highest Sr concentrations e.g., G9 with Sr
 concentrations ranging from 7.4 to 11.6 mg/L, and G19 from 4.9 to 7.1 mg/L.
- 602 The plot of chloride versus strontium concentrations (Fig. 99) shows that these samples and others 603 (e.g., G16, G20, G27, G29) plot close to a mixing line between fresh low-temperature and saline thermal-groundwater. Mass ratios of Sr/Cl in these samples are also elevated relative to seawater by an 604 order of magnitude or more (e.g. Sr/Cl >5.0 \times 10⁻³, compared to 3.9 \times 10⁻⁴ in seawater, Table S1). Other 605 606 samples from closer to the coast (e.g. G4) also approach the thermal-low temperature mixing line, 607 indicating probable input of thermal water. Samples collected from the Zaoyuan well field generally plot 608 closer to the Sr/Cl seawater mixing line (consistent with salinization largely due to marine water – Fig. 89); 609 however, samples mostly plot slightly above the mixing line with additional Sr, which may indicate more 610 widespread (but volumetrically minor) mixing with the thermal water in addition to seawater.

611 5.2 Anthropogenic pollution of groundwater

The occurrence of high nitrate (and possibly also sulfate) concentrations in groundwater in both 612 613 coastal and in-land areas also indicates that anthropogenic pollution is an important process impacting groundwater quality and salinity (Fig. 1010; Table 1). Fresh groundwater has depleted δ^{48} O and δ^{2} H values 614 615 relative to seawater. Theoretically, the mixing of fresh groundwater and seawater should show a straight 616 line connecting the two end members. Obviously, some surface water samples (e.g. S1, S2, S3, S7, S12) are the mixture with seawater. In this study area, there are three end members (namely, fresh groundwater, 617 thermal groundwater and seawater), which has been evidenced by the previous studies (Han, 1988; Zeng, 618 1991). Thus, the diagram of δ^{18} O vs. Cl⁻ (Fig. 6) can be used to identify the mixing pattern among three end 619 members. Fig. 6 shows the mixing lines between shallow fresh groundwater (G4) and seawater, between 620 621 deep fresh groundwater (G25) and seawater, between shallow fresh groundwater and thermal water, and 622 between deep fresh groundwater and thermal water. The shallow groundwater samples (e.g. G15, G10, G11, 623 G14) collected from or around the Zaoyuan well field are characterized by mixing with seawater. The deep groundwater samples (e.g. G13, G2, G16, G14') collected from the coastal zone are also resulted from 624 mixing with seawater. The sampling site of deep groundwater sample G29 is located between thermal field 625 626 and the coastline and obviously affected by both of mixing processes. The groundwaters (e.g. G9, G19), 627 sampled from the area affected by geothermal field are mixture between fresh cold groundwater with thermal waters. The mixing fraction (fsut) of seawater has a range of 1.2--13.0% for the shallow brackish 628 groundwater, and 2.6~6.0% for the deep brackish groundwater. f_{sw} reaches the highest percentage of 13% in 629 630 the well G10, which is located in the north part of the well field.

At the late 1950s, groundwater pumped from the Zaoyuan well field was characterized by Ca-HCO3 631 632 type water with Cl concentrations ranging from 130 to 170 mg/L. The hydrochemical data investigated in 1986 (Han, 1986) showed that there were mainly five water types in this study area, including Ca-HCO₃ 633 634 type with TDS less than 0.5g/L distributed in the mountain-front area, Ca•Na-Cl•SO₄, Ca•Na•Mg-SO₄•Cl, 635 or Na*Ca-Cl*SO4 type water with TDS 0.4-0.7g/L distributed around the Zaoyuan well field and 636 Wanggezhuang, Ca•Na-Cl type water with TDS 0.4-1.8g/L distributed around the geothermal field 637 (Luwangzhuang) and Duzhai, Na-HCO₃-or Na-HCO₃-Cl type water with TDS 0.5-0.9g/L distributed the SW area close to the coastal zone, and Cl Na type water with TDS 0.4-2.4g/L distributed in the coastal 638 639 zone. Due to the disturbance of human activities, the current groundwater hydrochemitry has become more complex than that before. Compared salty water distributed 2 km away from coastline in the late 1950s, the 640 distance has increased to about 7 km away from coastline. The Cl-Ca•Na or Cl-Ca type water type mainly 641 642 distributed in the area affected by geothermal field, such as G5, G8, G19, G29, and G24, indicating the salinizing process during the mixing between cold groundwater and the thermal waters. In the upstream 643 area, the groundwater samples (e.g. G7, G23, G25) have feature of Ca+Mg+Na-Cl+SO4, Ca-Cl+SO4, and 644 Ca-Cl+HCO₃ type, not the Ca-HCO₃ type in the 1980s. It suggests that the salinized composition has 645 resulted from the anthropogenic pollution. The groundwater samples (e.g. G10, G11, G15, G26) collected 646 from the well field show the feature of Cl-Na• (Ca) type water with TDS 1.2-4.8 g/L. The samples (e.g. G1, 647 G2, G3, G4, G12, G22, G14, G14') collected from the coastal zone show the water type of Na-Cl or 648 649 Na*Ca-Cl*SO4 or Ca*Na*Mg-Cl*SO4, indicating that, apart from seawater intrusion, the anthropogenie 650 pollution also plays important role on modifying the groundwater chemistry.

651

The sSeawater from Bohai Sea has is heavily affected by nutrient contamination, showing relatively

652 higher-NO3⁻ concentrations of (810 mg/L in this study, and up to 1092 mg/L in the coastal-seawater further 653 north of the bay near of Dalian (-Han et al., 20155), primarily due to wastewater discharge into the sea. 654 The historic sampled NO₃⁻ concentration of groundwater in the well field increased from 5.4 mg/L in May 655 1985 to 146.8~339.4 mg/L in Aug 2010, while the concentration of in seawater in this area changed from 57.4 mg/L in May1985 to 810.1 mg/L in Aug 2010. The diagramA bivariate plot (Fig. 7) of Cl⁻ vs. NO₃⁻ 656 657 concentrations of in groundwater (Fig. 1010) can thus -be used to identify nitrate sources and the different 658 mixing trends in this study area, including the mixing process with infiltration with contaminated seawater, 659 and other on-land the anthropogenic NO₃-sources (e.g. domestic/industrial wastewater discharge and/or₅ 660 NO3⁻-bearing fertilizer input through precipitation infiltration and the irrigation return-flow) in the inland 661 area.

It can be seen fFrom Fig. 7this plot (Fig. 910) it appears that that the major source of NO₃ in 662 groundwater is from on-land anthropogenic inputs rather than mixing with seawater, which would result in 663 relatively large increases in Cl along with NO3., with the exception of Samples G10 and G15 (from the well 664 665 field) are exceptions to this trend, mixing showing clear mixing with nitrate-contaminated seawater-in the well field. The dDeep groundwater (e.g. G9, G14²) is also extensively contaminated by with higher NO₃⁻ 666 concentrations; this which is likely associated with leakage from the surface viathe poorly constructed or 667 668 abandoned wells - a problem of growing significance in China (see Han et al., 2016b; Currell and Han, 669 2017). According to one investigation by Zang et al.(2010), 14 of 21 pumping wells in the Zaoyuan well 670 field have been abandoned due to the salinized poor water quality, and 307 pumping irrigation wells 671 (occupied 2/3 of total pumping wells for irrigation) in the region have also been abandoned. However, the 672 <u>+Local department-authorities haves however not made any implemented measures to deal with those</u> abandoned wells, meaning they are a future legacy contamination risk -e.g. by allowing surface runoff 673 674 impacted by nitrate contamination to infiltrate down well annuli.

675 5.2-3 Groundwater salinization processes Hydrochemical evolution during salinization-

A hydrogeochemical facies evolution diagram (HFE-D) proposed by Giménez-Forcada (2010), was
 used to analyze the geochemical evolution of groundwater during seawater intrusion and/or freshening
 phases (Fig. 141). In the coastal zone, the river water shows an obvious mixing trend between fresh and
 saline end members. Some shallow groundwaters (e.g., G2, G4, G10, G13, G15) are also close to the
 mixing line between the surface-water end-members on this figure, indicating mixing with seawater

681 without significant additional modification by typical water-rock interaction processes (e.g. ion exchange). Most brackish groundwaters (e.g., G11, G16, G17, G20, G25, G28, G29) have evolved in the series 682 683 $Ca-HCO_3 \rightarrow Ca-Cl \rightarrow Na-Cl$, according to classic seawater intrusion. A relative depletion in Na (shown in lower than marine Na/Cl ratios) and enrichment in Ca (shown as enriched Ca/SO4 ratios) is evident in 684 685 groundwater with intermediate salinities (e.g. Fig. 88; Fig. 101), indicating classic base-exchange between 686 Na and Ca during salinization (Appelo and Postma, 2005). Locally, certain brackish water samples (e.g., 687 G1, G12, G26) appear to plot in the 'freshening' part of the HFE diagram (potentially indicating slowing or 688 reversal of salinisation due to reduced in groundwater use), although these do not follow a conclusive 689 trajectory. Water samples from the geothermal field (G5, G8, G9, and G19) plot in a particular corner of the 690 HFE diagram away from other samples (being particularly Ca-rich); a result of their distinctive 691 geochemical evolution during deep transport through the basement rocks at high temperatures.-

692

5.2.1 Development of seawater intrusion and associated hydrochemical behavior

The intensively pumping groundwater from the Quaternary aquifer of Yang-Dai River coastal plain 693 has resulted in the development of groundwater depression cones from Zaoyuan well field to Fangezhuang, 694 695 with the aggravation of seawater intrusion in this region. In the 1950s, the seawater intrusion in the study 696 area was only occurred within 2 km distance from the coastline, and it expanded to over 5 km distance in the 1980s. In 1986, the groundwater depression cone centered in the Zaoyuan well field was characterized 697 by 6 meters depths below the sea level, with the water level -3 m.a.s.l. The enclosed area by 0 m.a.s.l water 698 699 level contours covered 10 km². The original Ca-HCO₃-type water changed to Ca+Na-Cl type. Apart from 700 the intensive exploitation fresh groundwater from coastal aquifer, the successive drought (1976-1989) also 701 played important roles on controlling the groundwater recharge and exacerbating seawater intrusion in the 702 coastal area of north China (Wilhite, 1993; Han et al., 2015). In this study area, the annual mean 703 precipitation was 668.7 mm during 1954-1995, the Cl concentrations was ranging from 130 to 170 mg/L in 704 the Zaoyuan well field. Whereas the annual mean precipitation reduced to 559.7 mm during 1996-2011, 705 resulting in Cl concentration in the well field up to 550 mg/L in May 1986, and 812 mg/L in July 2006. It 706 has seriously threatened the safety of water supply in this region. The seawater intrusion in the coastal aquifer shows the wedge shaped body and has vertically characterized by freshwater in the upper part and 707 708 salt water in the lower part of shallow aquifer. Since 2002, with the establishment of anti-tide dam in the 709 Yang River estuary area, it has good effect on preventing the horizontal pouring seawater into riverway.

710 Thus, the seawater intrusion is mainly caused by lateral inflow of seawater in the aquifer.

711 According to the guidelines of drinking water standards from China Environmental Protection Authority (GB 5749-2006) or US EPA or WHO, the guideline of chloride concentration for drinking water 712 is 250 mg/L. Most groundwater distributed in the seawater intrusion area cannot be used for irrigation, the 713 714 source of drinking water and industrial utilization. It has enhanced the scarcity of fresh water resources in 715 this region by vicious cycle of groundwater level decline \rightarrow seawater intrusion \rightarrow groundwater salinization 716 → groundwater level decline again. This will also influence the surface water runoff. How to judge the 717 criterion of seawater intrusion? Generally, 250 mg Cl/L can be regarded as the intruded standard, and more 718 than 1000 mg Cl/L as the serious intrusion (Jiang and Li, 1997; Zhuang et al., 1999). Some studies took the 719 TDS (>1000 mg/L) as the intruded standard (e.g., Xue et al., 1997; Zhang and Peng, 1998). Water type can also be used as the intruded standard, such as Ca Cl type water occurs during seawater intrusion into 720 721 freshwater aquifers, and Na-HCO₃ type water displays during flushing of the mixing zone by freshwater (Appleo and Postma, 1993). Additionally, the multi-hydrochemical ionic ratios can also provide important 722 723 confirmation of hydrogeochemical processes modifying groundwater chemistry during seawater intrusion 724 (Vengosh et al., 1997; Jones et al., 1999). However, the frequent anthropogenic activities modified coastal 725 hydrologic dynamics and hydrogeochemical characteristics to great extent. For instance, with except of modern seawater, the sources of chloride in groundwater system could be derived from paleoseawater relics 726 727 in aquifers, infiltration of agricultural return flow with fertilizer solutions, and discharge of industrial and 728 domestic wastewater.

729 Hydrogeochemical facies evolution diagram (HFE-D) proposed by Giménez-Forcada (2010) can be 730 used to analyze the phase of seawater intrusion or freshening and its dynamics. From Fig. 8, it can be seen 731 that most brackish groundwaters (e.g., G11, G16, G17, G20, G25, G28, G29) have evolved in the series of $Ca-HCO_{2} \rightarrow Ca-Cl \rightarrow Na-Cl$ facies under the intrusion period. Locally, several water samples (e.g., G1, 732 G12, G26) collected from the interfluve area have been characterized by freshening process. Deep 733 734 groundwater G11 sampled from the well field shows being under salinizing period in the relatively dry 735 season, and under freshening period in the relatively wet season. In the coastal zone, the river water has obvious mixing trend between end members. Some shallow groundwaters (e.g., G2, G4, G10, G13, G15) 736 737 are close to the mixing line between end members on this figure, indicating significant mixing with 738 seawater. The groundwaters (G10, G11, G15, G26) collected from the productive wells of the Zaoyuan 739 well field display the different processes occurring in salinizing or freshening stages, indicating that the 740 heterogeneous hydrogeological conditions could be responsible for this distinguished patterns.

The calculated results of saturated indices (Fig. 9) show that that SI_{cal} and SI_{del} have some deviation 741 from equilibrium (-0.4 to +0.5 for SI_{cal}, and -0.5 to +0.5 for SI_{del}). The distribution of SI_{cal} and SI_{del} is 742 related to the sampling period. In the wet season, most of water samples are characterized by SI_{cal} <0 and 743 SI_{dol} <0, suggesting they are under unsaturated for these minerals, while in the dry season, most of water 744 samples are under saturated with respect to these minerals. In contrast, all sampled groundwater had 745 746 negative saturation indices with respect to gypsum (SIgyo <0), indicating that these water samples are under-saturated with respect to gypsum. The plots (Fig. 10 a-f) of ionic molar ratios (Na/Cl, SO4/Cl, Mg/Ca, 747 Ca/(SO₄+HCO₃), Ca/SO₄, and (Ca+Mg)/Cl) can be used to further reveal the groundwater salinized 748 749 processes and dominated hydrochemical behavior. The brackish groundwaters in this study area have an enriched Ca²⁺ (i.e., the ratio of Ca/(HCO₃+SO₄)>1 with low ratios of Na/Cl and SO₄/Cl as the seawater 750 751 proportion in the mixture increases. As shown in Fig. 10a, Na/Cl ratios of brackish groundwater affected by seawater intrusion are usually lower than the ratio (0.86) of modern seawater. The high Na/Cl ratios (>1) 752 could be typical of anthropogenic sources (i.e., domestic waste waters). When seawater intrudes into 753 coastal freshwater aquifers, Ca²⁺ on the clay-bearing sediments can be replaced by Na⁺: 754

755 $\frac{2 \operatorname{Na}^{+} + \operatorname{Ca} - X_2 \rightarrow 2 \operatorname{Na} - X + \operatorname{Ca}^{2+}}{2 \operatorname{Na} - X + \operatorname{Ca}^{2+}}$

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758

This process can decrease the Na/Cl ratios and increase the (Ca+Mg)/Cl ratios. The dolomitization process can be described by the transformation reaction (Appelo and Postma, 2005):

 $2CaCO_{3} + Mg^{2+} = CaMg(CO_{3})_{2} + Ca^{2+}$

759 It can result in Ca-enrichment over Mg in solution and that Mg/Ca ratios decreases. This process may
 760 also be characterized by Ca-Cl water type.

761To explain the enrichment in Ca^{2+} relative to SO_4^{2-} concentrations, observed in most water samples762(Fig. 10e), gypsum dissolution (SIgyp<0) can be coupled by cation exchange reactions under the interaction</td>763with clay stratum and calcite precipitation with incongruent dissolution of dolomite and gypsum.764Additionally, due to the ORP values ranging from 3 to 74 mV for 18 of 22 water samples collected in765August 2010, the sulfate reduction under anaerobic conditions may be responsible for relatively high766Ca/SO4 and low SO4/Cl ratios. Generally, low Na/Cl, SO4/Cl and high Ca/(HCO3+SO4) (>1) ratios are767further indicator of the arrival of seawater intrusion.

ANa is negative in most samples of this area (Fig. 11a and Fig. 12a). The depletion of Na⁺ could be
 caused by the inverse cation exchange taken place with the clay sediments. This exchange produces Ca

release to the solution during the seawater intrusion. The positive \triangle Ca and \triangle Mg may be due to the dissolution of calcite, dolomite and gypsum present in the aquifer strata. Water flushing during aquifer recharge can result in positive \triangle Na and negative \triangle Ca and/or \triangle Mg (Fig. 11a). For some water samples, the Ca enrichment is not accompanied by Na depletion, which could be caused by dolomitization (Ca enrichment with Mg depletion) (Fig. 12b). The excess of SO₄ compared to conservative mixing (Fig. 11d) can be explained by redissolution of the precipitated gypsum along the mixing front.

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5.2.2 Mixing between thermal and cold groundwater

Sea level rose by about 100 m since the end of the last glacial period (18,000 years, 18 ka BP) and 777 778 stabilized around 5 ka BP in the eastern China (Yang, 1996). The marine sediments could not be found in 779 the geothermal field, indicating the transgression in the geologic history did not occur around Danihe area 780 (Zeng, 1991). However, the fracture and structural fissure developed well in this study area became the 781 major subsurface pathway of seawater intrusion. The previous studies have revealed that the geothermal waters in this area are characterized by the features of residual seawater and modern precipitation (Zeng, 782 1991; Hui, 2009). The results of ⁴⁴C age dating for the geothermal waters in this area are ranging from 3.4 783 784 ka to 12.8 ka with lower tritium contents (less than 2TU) (Zeng, 1991). The Piper plot (Fig. 5) shows CaNa-Cl type water for the geothermal waters. It is noteworthy that the geothermal water from Danihe 785 geothermal field has higher Sr concentrations (up to 89.8 mg/L) relative to that in seawater (5.4-6.5 mg/L in 786 787 this study), due to the Sr-bearing minerals (i.e., celestite, strontianite) with Sr contents of 300-2000 mg/kg 788 present in the bedrock (Hebei Geology Survey, 1987). The mixture waters sampled from the geothermal 789 field in this study also have the higher Sr concentrations relative to seawater, i.e., G9 with Sr concentrations 790 ranging from 7.4 to 11.6 mg/L, and G19 from 4.9 to 7.1 mg/L. The diagram of chloride versus strontium 791 concentrations of different water samples (Fig. 13) shows that the groundwater samples (e.g., G9, G19) 792 collected from the geothermal field have obviously been characterized by closing to mixing line between fresh cold- and thermal-groundwater. Some waters (G16, G20, G29) sampled from the downstream area 793 794 also close to this mixing line, indicating the thermal water overflows into the coastal aquifers in different 795 depths. The water samples collected from the well field are located between two mixing lines (Fig. 13), suggesting the groundwater in the well field simultaneously suffered from the mixing with thermal water 796 797 and obvious seawater intrusion. Additionally, the points of water samples (G5, G8, G9, and G19), collected 798 from the geothermal field, mainly occurs on the HFE-D (Fig. 8) in the 12 (MixCa-Cl) and 16 (Ca-Cl) facies 799 zones, indicating these waters have been modified by the reverse base-exchange reactions.-

800 As both Cl and Br are not affected by water rock interactions and usually behave conservatively, the 801 Cl/Br ratio can be used as a reliable tracer to study the processes of evaporation and salinization of water (Edmunds, 1996; Jones et al., 1999). Standard seawater (Cl/Br molar ratio=650.8) may be distinguished 802 803 from relics of evaporated seawater (normally less than 669.3), input of evaporite dissolution (more than 804 2256) and anthropogenic pollution (e.g., sewage effluents, Cl/Br ratios up to 1805; Vengosh and Pankratov, 805 1998) or agricultural return-flows with low Cl/Br ratios (Jones et al., 1999). It can be seen from Fig. 14 that 806 the points of the thermal waters lie lower than the ratio line of standard seawater, indicating that they are affected by mixing with relics of evaporated seawater. The points of cold groundwaters (G9, G19) sampled 807 808 from the geothermal field display between the seawater and the thermal waters, indicating these cold waters 809 are mixture between cold groundwater and the thermal water, which has relics of evaporated seawater. 810 However, it cannot exclude adding the Br inputs into groundwater system through the pesticides 811 application of the pronounced agricultural activity (Davis et al., 1998), this effect could lower the Cl/Br 812 ratios of the groundwaters. The groundwater sample G10 in the well field shows the feature of high Cl/Br 813 ratio in Fig. 14, indicating obvious anthropogenic inputs (e.g., discharge domestic wastewater) occurring in 814 the shallow aquifers around the well field.

814 815 816

5.2.3 Interaction between surface- and ground-water

Coastal zones encompass the complex interaction among different waters (i.e., river water, seawater, 816 817 groundwater, rainfall water). The interaction between surface and ground water in the Yang Dai River coastal plain is usually ignored by the previous studies. However, understanding how surface water 818 819 interacts with the groundwater is essential for managing freshwater resources. Groundwater depression cone below the sea level has formed in the early 1980s. Due to the irrigation supported by transfer of 820 821 surface water from the upper and middle stream of Yang-Dai River, the amount of surface water discharged into the Bohai Sea declined to great extent. Under the tide effects, seawater can be poured into the estuary 822 823 of the downstream section of the rivers, resulting in the river bed filled with saltwater, which can cause 824 mixing between river water and seawater. The results of water chemistry analysis from two river sections 825 show that the distribution of salt water reached more than 10 km above the estuary of the Yang River, and about 4 km above the estuary of the Dai River (Han, 1988). It leaded to that the seawater simultaneously 826 827 intruded into the coastal aquifers through not only the lateral subsurface flow from coastline to the inland 828 but also vertical infiltration from the riverbed to both sides of the river. The hazard caused by the latter 829 pattern had been more serious than the former pattern, before the establishment of anti-tide dam at the

830 estuary of Yang River. Currently, the seawater intruded distance towards inland has been controlled within
831 4 km away from the coastline.

The stable isotope compositions of different water samples (Fig. 4) display that the points of most 832 surface water samples are deviated from the LMWL to the right, indicating that these waters are likely to be 833 834 subject to evaporation to different degrees. The points of surface water samples (S1, S2, S3, and S7) in 835 Fig.4 close to the compositions of local seawater, indicating the pronounced mixing process with seawater 836 for these surface waters. However, the samples S2, S6, S8, and S9 have the depleted compositions of stable 837 isotopes, probably resulting from the exchange between them and local groundwater. S12, located at the estuary area, has variable compositions due to the sampling seasons. HFE-D shows that most of surface 838 839 water samples are close to the mixing line between end members (freshwater and seawater). S9 is significantly characterized by salinization process probably due to the interaction with ambient 840 841 groundwater. It can be seen from the relationship between ionic delta values and seawater proportions for the water samples (Fig. 11) that G1, G11, G12, G14', G26, G29, due to these wells close to the river or 842 843 located at the flat interfluve, may be dominated by the obvious freshening process. While G2, G3, and G16 844 under the salinizing process could be subject to the vertical infiltration of saltwater in the river. The points 845 of surface waters (S1, S2, S3, and S7) on Fig. 4 and Fig. 8 are distributed along the mixing line between fresh- and sea water end members. It is due to the direct mixture occurs in the riverway. S12 sampled from 846 847 the Dai River estuary may be contaminated by the wastewater discharge with higher Sr concentration relative to seawater. By contrast, surface water from the Dai River have higher seawater proportions 848 849 compared with that from Yang River, owing to that the local government did not establish anti tide dam in 850 the Dai River estuary. G1, G2, G3, G10 and G13 collected from coastal zone are obviously mixed with seawater with closing to the mixing line between seawater and freshwater in Fig. 13. 851

852 5.3—<u>4</u> Conceptual model of groundwater flow patternssalinization and management
 853 implications—

Generally, groundwater in this study area is mainly originated from precipitation, river infiltration, lateral subsurface runoff, upflow of geothermal waters and seawater intrusion in the coastal area. The associated hydrological processes driven by the natural (hydrologic, geologic, climatic) changes and anthropogenic activities have resulted in groundwater salinization processes, along with the complex hydrogeochemical characteristics of groundwater system. Groundwater changes from Ca-HCO₃-type water in the piedmont area to the Na-Cl type water in the coastal area.

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Coastal zones encompass the complex interaction among different water bodies (i.e., river water,

862 seawater and groundwater). The interactions between surface- and ground-water in the Yang-Dai River 863 coastal plain have generally been ignored in previous studies. However, the surface water chemistry data 864 show that the distribution of salt water has historically reached more than 10 km inland along the estuary of 865 the Yang River, and approximately 4 km inland in the Dai River (Han, 1988). The relatively higher 866 proportion of seawater-intrusion derived salinity in shallow samples in this study, along with the evidence 867 from resistivity surveys (Fig. X6; Zuo, 2006) indicate that intrusion by vertical leakage from these estuaries 868 is therefore an important process. The hazard associated with this pathway in recent times has been reduced 869 by the construction of a tidal dam, which now restricts seawater ingress along the Yang estuary to within 4 870 km of the coastline. This may alleviate salinization to an extent in future in the shallow aquifer by 871 removing one of the salinization pathways, however, as described, there are multiple other salinization 872 processes impacting the groundwater in the Quaternary aquifers of the region.

873 A conceptual model of the groundwater flow system in the Yang-Dai River coastal plain ean beis 874 summarized in Fig. 15122. This model presents an advance on the previous understanding of the study area, 875 by delineating fFour subsurface major processes responsible for groundwater salinization in this area. 876 These are: 1., including sSeawater intrusion by lateral sub-surface flow; 2. Interaction between saline 877 surface water and groundwater (e.g. vertical leakage of saline water from the river estuaries); 3. 7 878 return-flow of agricultural irrigation, mMixing with between low-temperature groundwater and deep 879 geothermal water; and, 4. Irrigation return-flow and associated anthropogenic contamination-interaction 880 between surface water and groundwater/seawater, could be responsible for the groundwater salinization in 881 this area. Both the lateral and vertical intrusion of saline water are driven by the long-term over-pumping of 882 groundwater from fresh aquifers in the region. The - Two aspects of seawater intrusion, identified by depleted \triangle Na and enriched \triangle Ca with Ca Cl type water and Ca/(HCO₃+SO₄)>1 and lower Na/Cl and 883 884 SO4/Cl relative to these ratios of seawater, can be delineated, namely vertical infiltration of saltwater inflow 885 towards the inland estuary and lateral inflow of seawater driven by over-pumping groundwater from fresh 886 aquifers. il rigation return-flow from local groundwater agriculture can results from over-irrigation of crops, 887 and is responsible for eause groundwater extensive nitrate pollution (up to 340 mg/L NO₃⁻ in groundwater of this area) due to the infiltration and probably due to dissolution of fertilizers during infiltration. The 888 889 somewhat enriched stable isotopes in shallow groundwater (more pronounced in the dry season) also 890 indicate that such return-flow may recharge water impacted by evaporative salinization into the aquifer. The geGeothermal water, with distinctive chemical composition (e.g. depleted stable isotopes, high TDS, 891

892 <u>Ca</u>, F, and Sr concentrations), is also demonstrated in this study to be a significant contributor to
 893 groundwater salinization, via upward mixing. The study area is therefore in a situation of unusual
 894 vulnerability, in the sense that it faces salinization threats simultaneously from lateral, downward and
 895 upward migration of saline water bodies.-

896 According to drinking water standards and guidelines from China Environmental Protection Authority 897 (GB 5749-2006) and/or US EPA and WHO, chloride concentration in drinking water should not exceed 250 898 mg/L. At the salinity levels observed in this study - many samples impacted by salinization 899 contain >500mg/L of chloride (Table 1) - a large amount of groundwater is now or will soon be unsuitable 900 for domestic usage, as well as irrigation or industrial utilization. So far, this has enhanced the scarcity of 901 fresh water resources in this region, leading to a cycle of groundwater level decline \rightarrow seawater intrusion 902 \rightarrow loss of available freshwater \rightarrow increased pumping of remaining fresh water. If this cycle continues, it is 903 likely to further degrade groundwater quality and restrict its usage in the future. Such a situation is typical of the coastal water resources 'squeeze' highlighted by Michael et al., (2017). Alternative management 904 905 strategies, such as restricting water usage in particular high-use sectors, such as agriculture, industry or 906 tourism, that are based on a comprehensive assessment of the social, economic and environmental benefits 907 and costs of these activities, warrants urgent and careful consideration.----

908 -flows into the Quaternary aquifers, mixing with cold groundwater, and transports to the downstream
 909 area of Yang River Basin. Additionally, the interaction between surface and ground-water can cause
 910 seasonal flushing local groundwater in the upstream interfluve or lead to saltwater infiltration affected by
 911 tide/surge along the riverbed at the estuary.

912 **6. Conclusions**

913 It has been recognized that gGroundwater in the Quaternary aquifers of the Yang-Dai River coastal 914 plain is the an important water resource for agricultural irrigation, urban and domestic use (including for 915 tourism) - tourism development and industrial utilization activity. Natural climate change (e.g., continuous 916 drought, overflow of geothermal water) and Extensive groundwater utilization human activities havehas 917 made the problem of groundwater salinization in this area increasingly prominent, even resulting in the 918 closure of the Zaoyuan well field wells in the area. Based on the analysis of hydrochemical and stable 919 isotopic compositions of different water bodies, including surface water, cold groundwater, geothermal 920 water, and seawater, we delineated the key groundwater flow system and groundwater salinization 921 processes. Seawater intrusion is the main aspect process responsible for the groundwater salinization in the 922 coastal zone, zone; however this likely includesing the vertical saltwater infiltration along the riverbed into 923 aquifers, which is affected by the tide/surge process, and as well as the lateral seawater intrusion caused by 924 pumping for fresh groundwater at the Zaoyuan wellfield. The overflow upward mixing of the highly 925 mineralized thermal water into the Quaternary aquifers along the fault zone mixes with the cold 926 groundwater and makes it salinized is also evident, particularly through the use of stable isotope, chloride 927 and strontium end-member mixing analysis. Additionally, significant The thermal water has characterized by lower Cl/Br ratios and higher Sr concentrations relative to seawater. It cannot be ignored that the 928 929 salinization or nitrate pollution from the anthropogenic activities (e.g., agricultural irrigation return-flow 930 with dissolution of fertilizers) and locally, intrusion of heavily polluted seawater, are also evident. 931 Additionally, the interaction between surface- and ground-water can also affect the groundwater salinization in this area. Different approaches of hydrochemical analysis, such as Piper plot, HFE-D, major 932 933 ionic ratios (Na/Cl, SO₄/Cl, Ca/SO₄, (Ca+Mg)/Cl, Ca/(SO₄+HCO₃), Cl/Br) and Sr, were used in this study 934 to identify the different hydrogeochemical reactions and freshening or salinizing processes in the 935 Quaternary aquifers.

937 Groundwater salinization has become a prominent water environment problem in the coastal areas of 938 northern China (Han et al., 2014; Han et al., 2015; Han et al., 2016a), which has caused theand threatens to create further paucity of fresh water resources, which may prove a significant impediment to further social 939 940 941 Since the 1990s, the local government has begun to pay attention to the development problem of seawater 942 intrusion, and the-irrational exploitation of groundwater has been restricted in some cases. The Zaoyuan 943 well field has ceased to pump groundwater since 2007, while an. The anti-tide dam (designed to protect against tidal surge events) has been established in the Yang River estuary area in 2002, may also reduce 944 945 saline intrusion effectively intercepting the seawater pouring into riverway during the tide/surge periodin 946 future. However, due to the significant lag-time associated with groundwater systems, a response in terms 947 of water quality may take time to emerge, and in the meantime the other salinization and pollution impacts 948 documented here may continue to threaten water quality. These actions have made the rate of intrusion slowed down. The joint use of surface water and groundwater with reasonable exploitation program is 949 950 essential and economical for the local water resources management. In this regard, we recommend However,

936

951 the quantitative understanding to the vertical and lateral saltwater intrusion into fresh aquiferscontinued
 952 monitoring of groundwater quality and levels, and active programs to reduce input of anthropogenic

- 953 <u>contaminants such as nitrate from fertilizers, and appropriate well-construction and decommissioning</u>
- 954 protocols to prevent contamination through preferential pathways.
- 955 -should be obtained from further continuous groundwater monitoring and numerical groundwater flow
 956 and transport modeling. This study would be benefit the local agricultural development and groundwater
- 957 resources management.

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Appendix for the paper titled "Delineating multiple salinization processes in a coastal plain aquifer, northern China: hydrochemical and isotopic evidence" by Han and Currell

Fig. S1 Maps showing the distribution of groundwater level contours in shallow aquifer (a) in 1986 (from Han, 1988), (b) in 1998 (from Zuo, 2006), (c) in 2004 (from Zuo, 2006), and (d) in 2010 (this study). The depression area refers to the area enclosed by 0 m.a.s.l. contour line of groundwater levels.


Fig. S2 Graph showing the temporal variation of monthly cumulative rainfall departure (CRD, Weber and Stewart, 2004), monthly precipitation, average concentration of chloride in groundwater (dark blue) and surface area with >250 mg Cl/L (yellow) between 1963 and 2008 (data from Zang et al., 2010).



Fig. S3 Graph showing δ^2 H vs. δ^{18} O of water samples in rainfall and river water. Dry season- July to October; wet season- November to June.

WaterType	ID	Sampling	CI	NO ₃	Sr	NO ₃ /CI	Sr/Cl						
		Time	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L		(×10 ⁻³)						
Shallow groundwater samples:													
	G4	Aug.2010	124.3	92.6	0.67	0.745	5.41						
	G27	Aug.2010	177.5	163.0	1.22	0.918	6.88						
	G12	Aug.2010	276.9	31.9	0.25	0.115	0.90						
	G17	Aug.2010	88.8	39.5	0.33	0.445	3.68						
	G18	Aug.2010	124.3	137.8	0.71	1.109	5.71						
	G1	Sep.2009	220.1	2.0	0.66	0.009	3.00						
	G4	Sep.2009	124.3	178.5	0.85	1.437	6.83						
	G5	Sep.2009	303.4	162.3	1.14	0.535	3.74						
	G23	Sep.2009	88.8	163.4	0.55	1.841	6.17						
-	G7	Sep.2009	81.7	41.2	0.41	0.505	5.01						
vate	G8	Sep.2009	334.6	85.4	1.19	0.255	3.57						
Groundw	G11	Sep.2009	222.9	74.5	0.84	0.334	3.75						
	G12	Sep.2009	174.0	46.0	0.53	0.264	3.06						
sh (G28	Sep.2009	127.8	22.5	0.58	0.176	4.54						
Fre	G18	Sep.2009	110.1	152.9	0.65	1.389	5.94						
	G20	Sep.2009	246.9	107.1	3.94	0.434	15.94						
	G17	Sep.2009	243.5	126.4	0.71	0.519	2.91						
	G3	Jun.2008	315.0	75.0	0.46	4 047	1.47						
	G4	Jun.2008	74.6	75.8	0.47	1.017	6.29						
	G5 CP	Jun.2008	310.9	119.5	1.43	0.384	4.61						
	G8 C12	Jun.2008	349.7	55.9	1.08	0.160	3.07						
	G12 G17	Jun 2008	201.0	29.6	0.19	0.106	0.00						
	G17 G18	Jun 2008	227.9	92.0	0.37	1 240	2.50						
	G20	Jun 2008	234.3	18.2	2 10	0.078	8.95						
	G1	Aug 2010	312.4	120.0	0.54	0.384	1 71						
	63	Aug 2010	654 3	106.0	0.97	0.162	1 /0						
	00	Aug.2010	405.7	100.0	1.60	0.102	0.07						
	GID	Aug.2010	435.7	101.3	1.00	0.416	3.07						
Brackish Groundwater	G26	Aug.2010	784.6	339.4	1.20	0.433	1.53						
	G11	Aug.2010	646.1	414.1	1.51	0.641	2.34						
	G20	Aug.2010	596.4	177.9	3.95	0.298	6.62						
	G5	Aug.2010	447.3	253.3	0.78	0.566	1.74						
	G8	Aug.2010	596.4	141.4	1.87	0.237	3.13						
	G7	Aug.2010	299.6	338.3	0.66	1.129	2.20						
	G19	Aug.2010	600.0	211.9	7.10	0.353	11.84						
	G24	Aug.2010	646.1	952.1	2.44	1.474	3.78						
	G22	Sep.2009	408.3	2.0	0.70	0.005	1.72						
	G10	Sep 2009	2563 1	27.7	1 92	0.011	0.75						
	C14	Sep.2000	2000.1	100.8	0.92	0.077	0.70						
	G14	Sep.2009	291.1	109.8	0.02	0.377	2.01						
	G24	Sep.2009	454.4	441.5	0.93	0.972	2.05						
	G19	Sep.2009	622.0	91.5	4.87	0.147	7.83						
	G1	Jun.2008	717.1	87.7	0.17	0.122	0.24						
	G11	Jun.2008	451.2		1.00		2.21						
	G14	Jun.2008	372.8	267.3	0.93	0.717	2.48						
	G15	Jun.2008	1675.6	146.8	2.17	0.088	1.29						

Table S1. NO₃/Cl and Sr/Cl ratios in water samples

Deep Groundwater samples:										
Fresh Groundwater	G25	Aug.2010	68.1	71.0	0.25	1.042	3.66			
	G16	Sep.2009	214.4		2.68		12.51			
	G29	Sep.2009	255.6	26.3	0.20	0.103	0.77			
Brackish Groundwater	G29	Aug.2010	803.4	143.0	6.95	0.178	8.65			
	G16	Aug.2010	766.8	5.5	4.00	0.007	5.21			
	G9	Jun.2008	823.6	47.4	7.40	0.058	8.98			
	G9	Sep.2009	917.4	65.8	8.02	0.072	8.74			
	G9	Aug.2010	1228.3	337.4	11.59	0.275	9.44			
	G14'	Aug.2010	553.8	433.7	1.06	0.783	1.91			
	G13	Aug.2010	908.8	210.6	0.26	0.232	0.29			
	G13	Jun.2008	945.4		0.55		0.58			
	G13	Sep.2009	882.0		0.35		0.39			
	G2	Jun.2008	1093.4		1.03		0.94			
River water sa	amples:									
Fresh water sa	imples									
Dai River	S9	Aug.2010	80.3	65.2	0.34	0.813	4.20			
Dai River	S12	Aug.2010	71.3	41.9	0.30	0.588	4.14			
Dai River	S8	Aug.2010	68.6	54.9	0.32	0.801	4.67			
Yang River	S6	Aug.2010	66.0	51.9	0.30	0.786	4.53			
Yang River	S2	Aug.2010	63.2	40.2	0.26	0.636	4.10			
Yang River	S5	Sep.2009	85.2	12.9	0.36	0.152	4.27			
Yang River	S4	Sep.2009	733.1	6.6		0.009				
Yang River	S6	Sep.2009	99.4	6.6	0.30	0.067	3.04			
Dai River	S9	Sep.2009	88.8	6.8	0.36	0.077	4.03			
Dai River	S8	Sep.2009	174.0	6.4	0.55	0.037	3.17			
Yang River	S6	Jun.2008	81.7	12.6	0.31	0.154	3.82			
Dai River	S10	Jun.2008	208.9	23.1	0.57	0.111	2.72			
Dai River	S9	Jun.2008	92.3	7.5	0.35	0.081	3.81			
Brackish and salt water samples										
Yang River	S3	Sep.2009	11289.4		4.29		0.38			
Dai River	S12	Sep.2009	16766.3		7.64		0.46			
Dai River	S11	Sep.2009	1601.5	2.8	0.93	0.002	0.58			
Yang River	S1	Jun.2008	14953.5		5.55		0.37			
Yang River	S2	Jun.2008	8328.3		3.37		0.40			
Dai River	S7	Jun.2008	16677.1		6.36		0.38			
Seawater:	SW1	Aug.2010	14768.3	810.1	5.79	0.055	0.39			
	SW1	Sep.2009	16568.0		6.45		0.39			
	SW2	Sep.2009	14484.8		5.43		0.37			

Note: NO₃/Cl and Sr/Cl – mass ratios