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**Submarine groundwater discharge as a source of nutrients and trace
metals in a Mediterranean Bay (Palma Beach, Balearic Islands)**

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ABSTRACT

Submarine Groundwater Discharge (SGD) from a detrital coastal aquifer into the adjacent marine environment was investigated in a Mediterranean bay (Palma Beach, Balearic Islands). In this region, agriculture and tourism are potential sources of groundwater contamination. A survey in the Palma Beach revealed N, Fe and chlorophyll *a* enhancement associated to areas of preferential groundwater discharge from the nearby coastal aquifer. Groundwater sampling from wells and coastal piezometers indicated high concentrations of dissolved inorganic nitrogen and Fe (up to 2800 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and 8200 nmol L^{-1} , respectively). Other nutrients, such as DIP, and trace elements were not particularly elevated, which is attributed to the adsorptive characteristics of the carbonated composition of this detrital aquifer and/or the lack of major sources. Cross-shore gradients of $^{223,224,226}\text{Ra}$ isotopes indicated a diffusive shore-based source of these radionuclides and allowed estimates of a SGD flow of $56000 \pm 13000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ d}^{-1}$. Our results show that SGD is a major pathway for delivering DIN ($1900 \text{ mmol m}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$), dissolved Fe ($4.1 \text{ mmol m}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and, to a lesser extent, DIP ($16 \text{ mmol m}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) into the nearshore waters. This allochthonous input may sustain a substantial phytoplankton biomass resulting in an onshore-offshore gradient ($4.7 - 7.1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ in nearshore seawater as compared with $<1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ in offshore stations). This work emphasizes the relevance of SGD-driven nutrient and trace metal inputs in the regulation of nearshore phytoplankton communities of oligotrophic areas.

Key words: Submarine Groundwater Discharge (SGD), Nitrogen, Phosphorus, iron, metals, Mediterranean, Radium isotopes

1. INTRODUCTION

Submarine groundwater discharge (SGD) includes any flow of water on continental margins from the seabed to the coastal ocean, regardless of fluid composition or driving force (Burnett et al., 2003). Thus, SGD encompasses fresh groundwater and former seawater circulating through the coastal aquifer or the “subterranean estuary” (Moore, 1999). Many coastal ecosystems are suspected to rely to some extent on nutrients and essential micronutrients (e.g. Fe, Co, Zn) supplied by SGD. In particular, SGD has been recognized as an important source of nutrients (e.g. Garcia-Solsona et al., 2010a), dissolved inorganic carbon (Cai et al., 2003) or trace metals (e.g. Beck et al., 2007a) to coastal waters. Major nutrients, and particularly nitrate, are the most studied constituents of SGD in different locations (e.g. Santos et al., 2008; Weinstein et al., 2011) and are considered the principal drivers of ecological changes in coastal communities (Howarth et al., 2000). Supply of these nutrients in the form of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) or dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP) into coastal areas may favor phytoplankton growth, drive short-term changes in the coastal microalgal community composition and result in deleterious effects such as coastal eutrophication or harmful algae blooms (e.g. Garcés et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2010; Valiela et al., 1990). Less is known about the fluxes of other limiting elements, such as trace metals and particularly Fe, through groundwater discharge. A few studies have documented trace metal fluxes into the ocean associated to SGD (e.g. Beck et al., 2007a; Jeong et al., 2012; Windom et al., 2006), and studies reporting SGD-driven fluxes of trace metals into the Mediterranean Sea are nonexistent.

The relevance of SGD as a driver of coastal ecosystem changes may be particularly significant in oligotrophic and semi-arid regions, such as the Mediterranean Sea. In these systems, other external nutrient sources are scarce and surface runoff may be

insignificant for large time periods (i.e. dry season), making SGD a major and stable pathway for freshwater and terrestrial compounds to enter into the coastal ocean (Shellenbarger et al., 2006; UNESCO, 2004). The inputs of nutrients and essential micronutrients supplied by SGD may represent the major source of nutrients sustaining nearshore plankton communities.

Despite the evident importance of SGD in the regulation of coastal biogeochemical cycles, there is a lack of detailed assessments of the relevance of SGD as a source of nutrients and trace metals into oligotrophic seas. This is partially attributed to the fact that SGD is a coastal process that is often patchy, diffuse and temporally variable with multiple driving forces (Burnett et al., 2003). This inherent complexity makes geochemical tracers more suitable than direct methods for the evaluation of SGD fluxes. In this context, Ra isotopes (^{223}Ra , ^{224}Ra , ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra) have been successfully applied as tracers to quantify SGD fluxes (and also turbulent mixing and water residence times), since they are enriched in groundwater relative to coastal seawater and behave conservatively once released in the marine environment (e.g. Beck et al., 2007b; Moore et al., 2006; Rodellas et al., 2012).

In the present study, we determine the magnitude of SGD into Palma Beach (Majorca, Balearic Islands) using Ra isotopes, and associated fluxes of nutrients and trace metals with the aim of evaluating the contribution of SGD to nearshore nutrient pools and establishing potential linkages between SGD and coastal productivity. This study represents a comprehensive study of SGD in a detrital Mediterranean site and it is the first work where the magnitude of trace metal inputs through SGD into the Mediterranean Sea is evaluated.

2. METHODS

2.1. Study area: Palma Beach

Palma Beach is a carbonated sediment beach extending ~5km in the south-east of the Palma Bay, located in the southwestern part of the island of Majorca (Balearic Islands, NW Mediterranean; Fig. 1a). The Palma Bay is the primary touristic resort in the Balearic Islands and one of the main touristic destinations in the Mediterranean Sea. The population in the area is concentrated along the coastal zone ($\sim 450 \times 10^3$ permanent inhabitants), seasonally peaking in summer. The city of Palma, located in the NW area of the bay, accommodates most of this population and also supports the main commercial harbor in the island (Fig. 1b).

Climate conditions in the area are typically Mediterranean with mild winter temperatures (mean ~ 9.3 °C) and dry and warm summers (24.6 °C). Average annual rainfall in the area is 410 mm and surface fresh water flow to Palma Bay is restricted to sporadic events following heavy rains. The inland system (Palma Basin) corresponds to a sedimentary basin filled with marine and continental deposits, from the Miocene to the Quaternary, extending over an area of ~ 370 km² (Candela et al., 2008; Nielsen et al., 2004). There are two main aquifers in the basin: (i) a deep Miocene carbonate aquifer formed by limestones, extending along the north boundary of the basin and not present in the Palma Beach area, and (ii) a shallow unconfined detrital aquifer, from the PlioQuaternary, occupying most of the sedimentary basin (Fig. 1b). This shallow aquifer, which is impacted by human activities (i.e. agriculture, industry or urban activities), mainly discharges through a dune-beach system (now urbanized) located in the Palma Beach, at the southeastern region of the Palma Basin. This sandy area hides a paleo-valley that represents a preferential groundwater flowpath to the sea (N. Courtois, F. Brissaud, D. Crespí, P. Lachassagne, P. Le Strat and P. Xu, unpubl). The shallow

unconfined detrital aquifer could thus represent a major SGD source to the study site.

Coastal circulation is mainly regulated by wind forcing which can result in poor renewal during summer (e.g. Jordi et al., 2011). The tides have a minor influence on coastal waters, as the tidal range is less than 0.3 m. The bathymetry varies smoothly (~1% slope) reaching 15 m water depth at about 2000 m offshore, with the isobaths nearly parallel to the shoreline (Fig. 1b). Environmental monitoring surveys reveal that Palma Beach presents signs of eutrophication related to the availability of nutrients and microalgal accumulation in nearshore waters (PHIB, 2008).

2.2. Sample collection

A detailed survey focused on nearshore waters of Palma Beach was carried out from 17th to 21st of May 2010 to determine the magnitude of SGD, its associated flux of nutrients and trace metals, and the potential connections between SGD and the enhanced coastal phytoplankton biomass. Three detailed transects running perpendicular to the shoreline (T1 to T3) were sampled (Fig. 1c). Each transect consisted of 8 stations at approximately 5, 125, 250, 500, 750, 1000, 1250 and 2000 m from the shoreline. An additional station located farther offshore (~4000 m from the shoreline) was sampled in transect T2 as a reference of open seawater conditions. Surface water samples for Ra, nutrients, trace metals (only in 9 stations) and Chl*a* were collected at each station. Salinity and temperature at different depths were measured in situ using a YSI 556 multiparameter probe. Samples for Ra analysis were stored in 60L containers. Nutrients and trace metals were sampled at 1 m water depth using a peristaltic pump. Seawater was pumped through acid-cleaned Teflon tubing coupled to a C-flex tubing (for the Cole-Parmer peristaltic pump head), filtered through an acid-cleaned polypropylene cartridge filter (0.22 µm; MSI, Calyx®), and collected in a 13

mL PE tubes for nutrients and 0.5 L low-density polyethylene plastic bottle for metals (Tovar-Sánchez, 2012). Water samples of 240 mL for Chl*a* analysis were filtered through Whatman GF/F glass fiber filters. Nutrients and Chl*a* samples were kept frozen until their analysis.

Groundwater was sampled from four coastal wells and five piezometers distributed along the beach shoreline. Each piezometer station was sampled at different depths and slightly different locations. A submersible pump was used to collect samples from wells for Ra isotopes. For trace metals and nutrients a 5 L Niskin bottle was used. A Retractable-Tip piezometer system (AMS, Inc.) connected to a peristaltic pump was used to sample Ra isotopes in porewater. Porewater samples for trace metal and nutrient analysis were collected at several depths using a multi-pore piezometer made of non-metal components (Beck et al., 2007a). Notice that the term “groundwater” is used in this paper for both fresh-water from wells and porewater from piezometers, as it is commonly considered in SGD research. Three sediment samples were collected throughout the Palma Bay to characterize the concentration of long-lived Ra isotopes (^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra) in bay sediments.

In addition to the sampling focused on Palma Beach, in June 2009 a sampling survey covering a grid of 37 stations throughout Palma Bay was conducted to characterize the distribution of trace metals in the study site. Trace metals in this previous sampling were collected as described above.

2.3. Analytical methods

Ra isotopes were measured by filtering large volume seawater samples (10 L for piezometers and 60 L for coastal seawater and well samples) through MnO_2 -impregnated acrylic fiber (hereafter, Mn-fiber) at a flow rate $<1 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ to

quantitatively extract Ra isotopes (Moore and Reid, 1973). In the laboratory, the Mn-fibers were rinsed with Ra-free deionized water, partially dried (Sun and Torgersen, 1998) and placed in a Radium Delayed Coincidence Counter (RaDeCC) to quantify the short-lived Ra isotopes (^{223}Ra and ^{224}Ra ; Moore and Arnold, 1996). Uncertainties in activities of ^{223}Ra and ^{224}Ra were estimated following Garcia-Solsona et al. (2008). Then, the Mn-fibers were ashed (820°C, 16 h), ground and transferred to counting vials to determine the long-lived Ra isotopes by gamma spectrometry using a well-type high-purity Ge detector. Gamma measurements were carried out after aging the samples for a minimum of 3 weeks. ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra were determined using the ^{214}Pb and ^{228}Ac photopeaks at 352 and 911 keV respectively. All Ra activities were decay corrected to the date of collection. To quantify ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra in sediments, samples were dried, crushed and hermetically sealed in calibrated geometries, to be analyzed using a coaxial Ge gamma spectrometer as described above.

Concentrations of dissolved NO_3^- and NO_2^- (DIN) and PO_4^{3-} (DIP) were determined with an autoanalyzer (Alliance Futura) using colorimetric techniques (Grasshoff et al., 1983). The accuracy of the analysis was established using Coastal Seawater Reference Material for Nutrients (MOOS-1, NRC-CNRC; recoveries obtained were $107 \pm 11 \%$, $107 \pm 6 \%$ and $100 \pm 6 \%$ for PO_4^{3-} , NO_3^- and NO_2^- , respectively). Trace-metal samples were acidified to $\text{pH} < 2$ with ultrapure grade HCl (Merck) in a class-100 HEPA laminar flow hood and stored for at least 1 month before extraction. Dissolved ($< 0.22 \mu\text{m}$) metals (Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, Mo, Pb) were preconcentrated by the APDC/DDDC organic extraction method and analyzed by ICP-MS (PerkinElmer ELAN DRC-e) (Tovar-Sánchez, 2012). The accuracy of the analysis was established using Coastal Seawater Reference Material for trace metals (CASS-4 and NASS-5, NRC-CNRC; recoveries obtained ranging from 96.1 % to 112.1 %, for Zn and Fe, respectively). The

194 concentration of Chl*a* in water samples was determined through fluorometric analysis
195 (Parsons et al., 1984). The filters were extracted in 90% acetone overnight and
196 fluorescence was measured on a Turner Designs fluorometer calibrated with pure Chl*a*
197 (Sigma Co.).
198

3. RESULTS

3.1. Palma Beach nearshore water characterization

Seawater salinities were relatively homogeneous (37.5 ± 0.2) throughout the three transects but a very narrow band with lower salinity was observed in the first tens of meters from the shoreline. Salinities at this band were lower at T1 (34.4) and to a lesser extent, at T3 (36.3). Salinity variations in depth (greater than 0.1) were detected at five stations near the shoreline, with fresher salinities at the surface layer than those measured in deeper waters (down to 3 - 4 m depth).

Nearshore waters showed significant enrichments of ^{223}Ra , ^{224}Ra and ^{226}Ra relative to samples offshore (Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to compare nearshore (<250 m) and offshore (>2000 m) samples: $p \sim 0.01$) (Fig. 2). Ra concentrations decreased with distance offshore (Fig. 2), suggesting that most Ra inputs occurred at the shoreline. The three transects surveyed presented comparable patterns and Ra activities suggesting homogeneous Ra inputs along the shoreline and/or rapid homogenization driven by currents flowing parallel to the shore. Onshore-offshore gradients of ^{228}Ra were not evident (Kruskal-Wallis, $p = 0.19$), as nearshore activities ranged from 4.2 to 8.5 dpm 100L^{-1} , which is in the range of ^{228}Ra activities measured offshore (3.2 – 5.7 dpm 100L^{-1}). The fairly constant ^{228}Ra distribution suggests a lack of major inputs of this isotope at the shoreline, most likely due to the low concentrations in ^{228}Ra measured in inflowing SGD (see section 3.4.), thus preventing the use of this radionuclide as a SGD tracer at this setting. Although the tidal cycle could affect the Ra distribution observed (Knee et al., 2011), we considered that the low tidal range of Palma Bay (< 0.3 m) had a minor influence on the Ra concentrations measured in seawater.

Significant differences in DIN concentrations were observed between nearshore and offshore waters (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.01$), suggesting a terrestrial input of DIN

(Fig. 3). Some of the shoreline concentrations were very high ($> 64 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and corresponded to samples with low salinities and high Ra activities. DIP concentrations were higher than $0.05 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in only a few samples, all of them located nearshore and mainly along T2 (Fig.3).

Concentrations of Fe ($3.0 - 6.0 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$), Ni ($2.9 - 5.6 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$), Cu ($5.9 - 13 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$), Zn ($3.3 - 10 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$), Mo ($81 - 160 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$) and Pb ($0.28 - 0.40 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$) were relatively constant in nearshore waters of Palma Beach. No particular spatial distribution of trace metals could be delineated with the limited set of samples we collected ($n=9$). However, the sampling conducted in 2009 allowed us to assess the general distribution of trace metals in the entire Palma Bay (Fig 4). Concentrations of Mo and Ni were homogeneous and showed little contrast between nearshore and offshore waters. Concentrations of Cu, Pb and Zn were remarkably higher in the NW region of the bay, near the harbor and the city of Palma, whereas Fe was enriched at nearshore waters of Palma Beach, at the SE of the bay.

The spatial distribution of phytoplankton biomass along the three transects revealed significant onshore enhancements of Chl *a* ($4.7 - 7.1 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) relative to offshore concentrations ($1.1 - 1.5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ farther than 2000 m offshore) (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p \sim 0.01$) (Fig. 3). These biomass concentrations are high when compared with summer coastal waters of the Majorca island ($0.1-0.7 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) and in the range of the beaches experiencing eutrophication in this region (Basterretxea et al., 2007; 2010).

3.2. Groundwater characterization

Groundwater sampled from wells revealed some exchange between the aquifer and the sea, with salinity values ranging from 2.1 to 3.8. Salinities of porewater samples obtained with coastal piezometers varied widely, showing a notable gradient between

the NW (6.2-19.6) and the SE (24.1 – 31.0) boundaries of the beach. The lower salinities measured at the NW region are consistent with the existence of a Paleocene valley that funnels the outflow from the shallow aquifer in this area (Fig. 1b).

Activities of Ra isotopes measured in groundwater either from piezometers or wells ranged from 2.7 to 23 dpm 100L⁻¹ for ²²³Ra, 23 to 110 dpm 100L⁻¹ for ²²⁴Ra, 3.5 to 61 dpm 100L⁻¹ for ²²⁶Ra, 4.5 to 100 dpm 100L⁻¹ for ²²⁸Ra, most of them exceeding the activities measured in nearshore seawater (Fig. 5). Similar activities of Ra isotopes in SGD have been reported in other studies conducted in Western Mediterranean islands (e.g. Garcia-Solsona et al., 2009; Moore, 2006). The high salinity porewaters collected from the SE area of the Palma Beach showed the highest activities of ²²³Ra, ²²⁴Ra and ²²⁸Ra, whereas the highest activities of ²²⁶Ra were measured in fresher porewaters from the NW region, where the shallow aquifer connects with the sea (Fig. 5). Porewater samples collected from all the shoreline piezometers showed a fairly constant ²²⁴Ra/²²³Ra activity ratio (5.5 ± 0.3 ; $r^2 = 0.833$; $p < 0.001$; Fig. 5a), suggesting that the transit time of porewaters through coastal sandy sediments was long enough to allow the water to be enriched with the Ra desorbed from the sediments. No linear correlation was found between ²²⁸Ra and ²²⁶Ra (Fig. 5b). Indeed, minimal influence of the sediment is expected for long-lived Ra, as the Ra signals acquired from a previous solid matrix (i.e. an aquifer) do not significantly decay and the concentration of long-lived Ra isotopes in the sediments may be low due to their low production rates from their parent isotopes (Hancock and Murray, 1996).

Nitrate concentrations in the aquifer were very high (200 - 1600 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in wells and 0.05 - 2800 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in beach piezometers), with higher concentrations generally measured in fresher waters (Fig. 6). Unlike nitrate, phosphate concentrations were very low in fresh groundwater (either from wells or fresh piezometers) and the highest

phosphate concentrations (up to 5.2 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) were measured in mid-salinity porewater samples from piezometers (Fig. 6).

Concentrations of Fe (20 – 8145 nmol L^{-1}), Ni (5.7 – 15 nmol L^{-1}), Cu (0.6 - 110 nmol L^{-1}), Zn (7.0 – 1600 nmol L^{-1}) and Pb (0.1 – 6.5 nmol L^{-1}) in coastal porewaters and wells markedly exceeded those measured in seawater (Fig. 6). Porewaters were particularly enriched in Fe, with concentrations 1 to 3 orders of magnitude higher than in seawater, suggesting that SGD may be an important source of this metal to the coastal sea, as previously reported for other regions (e.g. Windom et al., 2006; Jeong et al., 2012). In contrast, concentrations of Mo (4.3 - 320 nmol L^{-1}) in porewaters and wells were comparable to those measured in coastal seawater.

3.3. SGD flux estimations

The trend with distance offshore (Fig. 2) displayed by Ra isotopes may be used to estimate the eddy diffusion coefficient (K_h) and the advection offshore (u), following an approach described by Moore (2000a) and modified by Li and Cai (2011). The equations used in this approach are given below:

$$u = \frac{L_1^2 \lambda_1 - L_2^2 \lambda_2}{L_2 - L_1} \quad (1)$$

$$K_h = L_2^2 \lambda_2 + L_2 u = L_1^2 \lambda_1 + L_1 u \quad (2)$$

where L_1 and L_2 are the inverse (1/m) of the slopes from the log-linear fit for ^{223}Ra and ^{224}Ra versus distance offshore respectively, u is the offshore advective velocity (m s^{-1}), K_h is the horizontal eddy diffusivity coefficient ($\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$), and λ_1 and λ_2 are the radioactive decay coefficients of the two short-lived Ra isotopes (s^{-1}). Here, ^{223}Ra and ^{224}Ra are used because their half-lives are comparable to the expected residence time of nearshore waters. This approach assumes that there are no additional inputs of the tracer beyond the coastline. Assuming shore-based Ra sources to the Palma Beach, an

exponential decrease offshore should be observed for the distribution of the $^{224}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ activity ratio (AR), since ^{224}Ra decays faster than ^{226}Ra . However, this AR was constant from the coastline to ~500 m offshore (Fig. 7), suggesting either that Ra inputs are occurring all along the first 500 m (what would violate the initial assumption of the approach) or that there is a fast mixing in this nearshore area (what would imply a higher diffusion/advection in this specific region than in the rest of the bay). Thus, only the samples collected beyond 500 m of the coastline are considered to obtain the diffusion and advection coefficients for the entire bay. The log-linear fit of ^{223}Ra and ^{224}Ra concentrations versus distance offshore allows estimating a diffusive mixing coefficient (K_h) of $2.6 \pm 0.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and a very low advection velocity ($0.0011 \pm 0.0006 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). This almost negligible estimated advection velocity is in good agreement with the bay circulation patterns modeled by Jordi et al. (2011) that resulted in a minor net offshore water current.

If the advection and diffusive mixing coefficients are known, the fluxes offshore of any conservative material can be calculated. As advection in our system has been shown to be negligible, the flux of ^{226}Ra offshore from the Palma bay can be estimated as the product of the offshore ^{226}Ra concentration gradient and the Ra-derived eddy diffusivity constant (K_h) (Moore, 2000a). Since all the three transects conducted perpendicular to the coastline present similar ^{226}Ra patterns, they are integrated in order to obtain a value for the study site. Taking the linear ^{226}Ra gradient (-9.6 ± 1.8) $10^{-3} \text{ dpm m}^{-3} \text{ m}^{-1}$ ($r^2 = 0.817$; $p < 0.001$) and assuming that the tracer was transported offshore in the 3.5 m fresher surface layer, the offshore ^{226}Ra flux is $0.088 \pm 0.020 \text{ dpm m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The ^{226}Ra flux offshore must be balanced by an input in the coastal zone, most likely SGD. Other potential sources of ^{226}Ra can be neglected: surface water inputs to the bay are insignificant during the dry season and ^{226}Ra release from sediments is minimal due to

its low activity in bay sands (0.85 ± 0.21 dpm g⁻¹; n=3) and long regeneration time (Beck et al., 2007b).

This estimated ²²⁶Ra flux may be converted into a SGD flow by characterizing the ²²⁶Ra concentration in SGD. Considering that long-lived Ra isotopes are not significantly decaying on the time scale of nearshore processes, the ²²⁶Ra and ²²⁸Ra concentration in SGD must accomplish the following mixing equations:

$$f_{SGD} + f_{SW} = 1 \quad (3)$$

$$^{226}Ra_{SGD} f_{SGD} + ^{226}Ra_{SW} f_{SW} = ^{226}Ra_{BW} \quad (4)$$

$$^{228}Ra_{SGD} f_{SGD} + ^{228}Ra_{SW} f_{SW} = ^{228}Ra_{BW} \quad (5)$$

where f is the fraction of SGD (SGD) and open sea water (SW) end-members in Palma Beach waters (BW), respectively, and Ra_{SGD}, Ra_{SW} and Ra_{BW} are the average concentration of ²²⁶Ra and ²²⁸Ra in SGD, open sea waters (²²⁶Ra = 9.4 dpm 100L⁻¹ and ²²⁸Ra = 2.3 dpm 100L⁻¹; Moore, 2006) and Palma Beach waters (²²⁶Ra = 13.8 dpm 100L⁻¹ and ²²⁸Ra = 5.7 dpm 100L⁻¹), respectively. Given that there are more unknowns (f_{SGD}, f_{SW}, AR_{SGD} and ²²⁶Ra_{SGD}) than equations, ²²⁶Ra in SGD can be only constrained by evaluating a range of ²²⁸Ra concentrations. As seen from Fig. 5b, only two samples collected present ²²⁸Ra and ²²⁶Ra concentrations in accordance to the requirements imposed by these equations, and thus they were considered as the representative SGD end-member for Ra isotopes. Indeed, these are two porewater samples collected in the NW part of the Palma Beach, where the shallow aquifer connects with the sea (preferential groundwater flow lines in Fig 1). Using the average ²²⁶Ra concentration in these two porewater samples (59 ± 2 dpm 100L⁻¹), the calculated SGD seepage flow 12.8 ± 3.0 m³ m⁻¹ d⁻¹. Assuming that diffusive groundwater discharge occurred all along the Palma Beach coastline (4400 m), the total flow to the Bay is 56000 ± 1300 m³ d⁻¹. This value is almost three times higher than the groundwater discharge derived from the

regional hydrological balance (20000 m³ d⁻¹; PHIB, 2008). This discrepancy likely reflects the fact that the hydrological budget takes into account only the fresh groundwater discharge, while the Ra approach also includes the recirculated seawater, which can also be an important source of terrestrial compounds to the coastal sea.

3.4. Residence time of conservative compounds

An estimation of the time that coastal conservative compounds remained in the study site (i.e. residence time) is needed to evaluate the implications of SGD-driven fluxes on the coastal ecosystem. The residence time of conservative compounds can be calculated using the variation of the activity ratios (AR) between Ra isotopes of different half-lives, based on an approach described by Moore (2000b). This approach assumes that (i) Ra is only added to coastal water in the source region, (ii) there are no losses of Ra aside from mixing and radioactive decay, (iii) Ra entering the system has a uniform AR and (iv) the open sea contains negligible concentrations of Ra. Given that Ra inputs in Palma Beach are likely occurring along the first 500 m from the shoreline (Fig 7), here we define residence time of conservative compounds as the time it takes for them to leave the study site (2000 m offshore) since they were isolated from the source area (0 – 500 m). Following the approach described by Moore (2000b), residence time of conservative compounds (T_R) can be calculated as follows:

$$T_R = \frac{\ln (AR_{2000}) - \ln (AR_{SR})}{\lambda_{224} - \lambda_{226}} \quad (6)$$

where AR_{2000} is the ²²⁴Ra/²²⁶Ra AR at 2000 m offshore (0.14 ± 0.05) and AR_{SR} is the average ²²⁴Ra/²²⁶Ra AR in the source region (0.70 ± 0.09), and λ_{224} (0.189 d⁻¹) and λ_{226} (negligible relative to λ_{224}) are the decay constants of ²²⁴Ra and ²²⁶Ra, respectively. Here, ²²⁴Ra was selected because its half-life is appropriate for the expected residence time of the site and ²²⁶Ra as a normalizing isotope because its decay is negligible and it

374 has lower relative uncertainties than ^{223}Ra . Applying Eq. 6, a residence time for
375 conservative compounds in the study site of 8.4 ± 1.9 days was obtained (Fig. 7).
376

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Nutrient inputs through SGD

The analysis of nutrient concentrations in coastal piezometers and wells suggest that fresh groundwater is a dominant supplier of DIN to Palma Beach (Fig. 6). Porewater samples roughly fall along the mixing line between nutrient-rich fresh groundwater and nutrient-poor seawater end-members, revealing that the mixing with recirculated seawater acts mainly as a dilution agent. However, several samples lie below this conservative mixing line, likely reflecting the complex geochemical behaviour of nutrients in the subterranean estuary. The high DIN pools measured in fresh groundwater samples, largely as nitrate (~ 99 %), agree with other results reported along the island (López-García and Mateos-Ruiz, 2003). These high nitrate concentrations in groundwater are mainly a consequence of intensive irrigation practices based on wastewater reuse and fertilizers use (Candela et al., 2008; López-García and Mateos-Ruiz, 2003). Unlike DIN, DIP concentrations are very low in fresh groundwater (Fig. 6), which is attributed to its rapid removal from groundwater (Slomp and Van Cappellen, 2004) and a minor influence of anthropogenic inputs. The highest DIP concentrations were measured in mid-salinity porewater, most likely due to the mobilization of phosphate in the subterranean estuary by recirculated seawater (Weinstein et al., 2011).

The nutrient fluxes from SGD to the Palma Bay can be calculated by multiplying the amount of SGD derived from Ra isotopes by the concentration of nutrients in inflowing SGD (Table 1). Given that nutrients do not behave conservatively along the groundwater path and concentration in the subterranean estuary are extremely variable, the estimation of the nutrient concentration in the actual SGD end-member becomes particularly difficult (see discussion on nutrient end-member selection in Santos et al.

(2008) and Knee et al. (2010)). To provide a reasonable characterization of nutrient concentrations in SGD a large number of samples along the study site was used, focusing on groundwater sampled just before discharging and in the upper 2 m of the subterranean estuary, considered the most permeable layer where most biogeochemical reactions are occurring (Santos et al., 2008). The range comprised between the 1st and 3rd quartiles of the set of nutrient concentration in groundwater (wells and piezometers; n = 23) was used as a reasonable upper and lower estimate of nutrients in discharging SGD (Table 1). The dissolved nutrient concentrations in these end-members spanned a wide range (e.g. up to two orders of magnitude for DIN; Table 1) and thus result in SGD-driven nutrient fluxes with large uncertainties (Table 1). The contribution of seawater was removed to calculate the nutrient flux derived from SGD (Santos et al., 2008). The resulting flux of nutrients into Palma Beach ranges from 100 to 10000 and from 3 to 31 mmol m⁻¹ d⁻¹ for DIN and DIP, respectively, with a median flux of 1900 mmol m⁻¹ d⁻¹ of DIN and 16 mmol m⁻¹ d⁻¹ of DIP. DIN fluxes are in the upper range of values reported in different coastal areas (Slomp and Van Cappellen (2004) for a compilation), mainly as a consequence of the high DIN concentrations in groundwater (Candela et al., 2008; López-García and Mateos-Ruiz, 2003). Conversely, DIP fluxes are low, as dissolved phosphate is rapidly removed from groundwater through sorption to Fe-oxides or co-precipitation with metal into mineral phases (Slomp and Van Cappellen, 2004). This contrasting behavior translates into ratios of dissolved inorganic N:P in inflowing SGD of 160:1, much higher than the requirements by phytoplankton growth (Redfield N:P ratio of 16:1). Similar ratios in inflowing SGD have been reported in other Mediterranean settings (García-Solsona et al., 2009; 2010). Thus, this SGD input may contribute to P limitation in the area, what is a common situation in the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. Díaz et al., 2001).

The significance of SGD as a source of nutrients into nearshore waters of Palma Beach can be assessed through the comparison of the SGD-derived nutrient inventory (i.e. nutrient flux from SGD multiplied by the residence time obtained from Ra isotopes) and the excess inventory of nutrients in the study site (i.e. average nutrient concentration in nearshore water minus nutrient concentration offshore, multiplied by the volume of the study site). Notice that the study site must be described by the same boundaries used when SGD is estimated (3.5 m depth and 2000 m width) and that constant nutrient concentrations are assumed for the 3.5 m surface layer. This qualitative comparison reveals that the amount of DIN and DIP supplied by SGD would account for 120% and 40%, respectively, of the excess pools of these nutrients measured in nearshore waters (Fig. 8). Although this comparison does not take into account the complex cycling of nutrients in seawater (e.g. transformation, removal or release of nutrients due to biological processes or fluxes from/to bottom sediments), it still provides valuable information on the relevance of SGD as a source of nutrients to the study site. In doing so, we found that SGD is a major source of DIN and can also contribute substantial amounts of DIP to nearshore waters of this Mediterranean bay. Indeed, strong offshore gradients of DIN and, to a lesser extent, DIP concentration, were measured in seawater (Fig. 3), which provides independent evidence of the significant role of SGD as a source of these compounds to the sea.

4.2. Trace metal inputs through SGD

Biogeochemical processes occurring at the subterranean estuary commonly result in non-conservative behavior for trace metals in groundwater (Beck et al., 2010). The distribution of trace metals in piezometers and wells relative to salinities (Fig. 6) could provide some insight about their relative sources and behavior in the subterranean

estuary. Dissolved Cu and Zn show higher concentrations in fresh groundwater (concentrations in wells up to 1 and 2 orders of magnitude, respectively, higher than in seawater) and their removal from solution may be controlled by dilution, redox conditions and by the dissolution or precipitation of Mn oxides (Beck et al., 2010; Charette and Sholkovitz, 2006). Unfortunately, neither Mn concentration nor oxidoreductive potential were monitored in this study. On the other side, distribution of dissolved Mo show higher concentration in high-salinity waters. Indeed, when normalizing Mo concentrations to salinity, only few samples have higher concentrations than those contributed by seawater, revealing that groundwater is not a source of this metal. The other dissolved metals analyzed in this study (Fe, Ni and Pb) are markedly enriched in porewaters compared to fresh groundwater from wells and seawater, most likely as a consequence of the geochemical processes occurring at the subterranean estuary. As an example, dissolved Fe shows low levels in both fresh groundwater and seawater, but it is highly enriched (1 to 3 orders of magnitude) in the high-salinity piezometers. Similar enrichments of dissolved Fe in the subterranean estuary have been attributed to Fe-oxide reduction due to elevated dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations at the freshwater-saltwater boundary (Roy et al., 2010; Snyder et al., 2004). Moreover, Fe-oxides may be reduced as pore water is likely anoxic, what prevents Fe-oxides precipitation and promotes their release to the pore waters (Roy et al., 2010).

The behavior of these trace metals within the subterranean estuary must be taken into account when determining the SGD-driven metal fluxes (Beck et al., 2007a). As detailed earlier, the range comprised between the 1st and 3rd quartiles of the set of metal concentration in groundwater (including wells and piezometers; n = 23) are considered the best characterization of the metal concentration in SGD (Table 1). These metal

concentration ranges are then multiplied by the Ra-derived groundwater discharge and the metal contribution from seawater is subtracted, to obtain the SGD-driven trace metal fluxes to the Palma Beach (Table 1). Although subject to large uncertainties due to the measured variability and complex distribution patterns of trace metal in the subterranean estuary (Fig. 6; Table 1), these estimated fluxes provide valuable information, as this is the first study in the Mediterranean Sea where trace metal fluxes from SGD have been estimated. As expected from the concentration of trace metals in porewaters, the flux of dissolved Fe from SGD (median flux of $4.1 \text{ mmol m}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) is 1 to 3 fold higher than fluxes of other elements (Table 1). All the SGD-driven fluxes of trace metals calculated here are considerably lower (~ 1 order of magnitude) than fluxes reported in coastal areas worldwide (e.g. Beck et al., 2007a; Charette and Sholkovitz, 2006; Jeong et al., 2012), mainly because the magnitude of the SGD in all the other settings is 1-2 orders of magnitude higher than in Palma Bay.

In order to evaluate the significance of the SGD-driven metal fluxes to the coastal seawater pools, the contribution of metals from SGD can be compared with the excess metal inventory measured in the study site (estimated as explained for nutrients; Section 4.1.). The SGD-driven inventory of Fe into Palma Beach represents 0.2 – 9 times (median of 1.9) the inventory of dissolved Fe actually measured in the bay, indicating that SGD is a significant source of dissolved Fe into the study site (Fig. 8)". It may also suggest a significant removal of dissolved Fe due to precipitation, scavenging by particles or biological uptake, as this comparison does not take into account other sources or sinks of trace metals. In contrast, the estimated SGD-driven inventories for all the other measured trace metals are 1-2 orders of magnitude lower than the measured inventories of these metals in seawater (Fig. 8). Similar differences among trace metals were reported in a volcanic island (Jeju Island, Korea) by Jeong et al. (2012). These

authors concluded that SGD is particularly important for the transport of major elements of the earth's crust, such as Fe and Al, to the coastal waters, where they exist at trace levels. Indeed, the distribution of trace metals in the entire Palma Bay (Fig. 4) shows a marked Fe enrichment in nearshore samples from Palma Beach, where the shallow aquifer is directly connected to the sea and where the main SGD inputs are expected. This provides significant independent evidence of the relevance of SGD as a Fe source. This pattern is not observed for all the other trace metals (Ni, Cu, Zn, Mo and Pb; Fig. 4), agreeing well with the comparison of SGD-driven and measured inventories derived in this study (Fig. 8). It is worth noticing that there is an important source of Cu, Zn and Pb to nearshore waters from the NW part of the Palma Bay, close to the city of Palma and the harbor. The high concentration of Cu and Zn measured there could be related to the maritime traffic, as boating traffic is considered an important source of Cu and Zn to the coastal environments (Garcia-Orellana et al., 2011; Matthiessen et al., 1999).

Atmospheric inputs are considered the major supplier of dissolved metals to Mediterranean surface waters on a basin-wide scale, mainly due to Saharan dust deposition events (Bonnet and Guieu, 2006; Guerzoni et al., 1999). Focusing on coastal areas, a comparison between atmospheric inputs of dissolved Fe in the Western Mediterranean during summer time ($0.3 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$; Bonnet and Guieu, 2006) and the Fe supply from SGD obtained in this work ($2.0 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$; Table 1) illustrates the potential significance of SGD as a relevant source of dissolved Fe to Mediterranean coastal areas. SGD could represent a major source of trace metals to the coastal sea and needs to be considered in future studies of trace metal cycling in the coastal Mediterranean Sea.

4.3. Conclusions and ecological implications of SGD

The results obtained in this study reveal that the fluxes of chemical constituents, especially nutrients and dissolved Fe, associated to SGD play a significant role on the coastal budgets of these elements in Palma Beach and may also have a critical impact on the primary productivity. In fact, an onshore-offshore gradients of phytoplankton biomass (Fig. 3) and strong linear relationships between Chl a concentrations and Ra activities in coastal water samples ($r^2 > 0.7$; $p < 0.001$; Fig. 9) suggest a connection between phytoplankton biomass and SGD. The high phytoplankton biomass measured in the region thus seems reasonably sustained by the inputs of chemical constituents derived from SGD. A significant impact of SGD on the coastal productivity of Mallorca Island has been previously suggested by Basterretxea et al. (2010). Further studies (e.g. in situ groundwater addition experiments such as those conducted by Garcés et al., 2011) are needed in order to more thoroughly assess the role of SGD on phytoplankton growth. As the bioproductivity in the Mediterranean Sea is largely limited by phosphate availability (e.g. Díaz et al., 2001), inputs of DIP through SGD may be especially important. However, the high N:P ratio in SGD actually seems to promote P limitation. It is worth noting that SGD inputs of dissolved Fe are also relevant because other major Fe inputs in the study area are nonexistent and dissolved Fe is often a limiting bioactive element for many primary producers and marine organisms, such as *Posidonia oceanica* (Tovar-Sánchez et al. 2010; Marbà et al., 2007) and *Synechococcus* (Garcés et al., 2011).

Inputs of nutrients and other micronutrients via SGD may play an important role in the regulation of nearshore phytoplankton communities, especially in oligotrophic areas such as the Mediterranean Sea. The SGD-driven inputs of terrestrial compounds, together with physical factors (such as summer calm conditions and bay geomorphology), provide an ideal environment for bloom outbreaks and biomass

552 accumulation in nearshore waters (Basterretxea et al., 2007). SGD could thus contribute
553 explaining the high frequency of Mediterranean coastal blooms, an emerging problem
554 with significant ecological and economical implications.

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722 **TABLES**

723

724 **Table 1.** Average concentrations of nutrients (3 transects of 7 samples each one) and trace metal (n=9) in Palma Beach waters. The

725 concentration of nutrients and trace metals in SGD is obtained from both the median and the range comprised between the 1st (Q1) and 3rd (Q3)

726 quartiles of the set of concentrations in groundwater (wells and piezometers; n = 23). The SGD-driven flux of nutrients and trace metals

727 normalized by shore length is estimated from both the median concentration of those compounds in SGD and the range Q1 – Q3. The SGD-

728 driven flux of nutrients and trace metals into the entire bay and normalized by the area of the study site are also shown.

| | | NUTRIENTS | | | TRACE METALS | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------|-------------------------------------|------------|-----------|----------------------------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-----------|----------|------------|
| | | | DIN | DIP | | Fe | Ni | Cu | Zn | Mo | Pb |
| Seawater concentration | Mean | $\mu mol \cdot L^{-1}$ | 2.0 | 0.05 | $nmol \cdot L^{-1}$ | 4.9 | 4.9 | 10 | 7 | 140 | 0.37 |
| | SD | | 0.4 | 0.02 | | 1.0 | 0.9 | 3 | 2 | 30 | 0.04 |
| SGD concentration | Median | $\mu mol \cdot L^{-1}$ | 150 | 1.3 | $nmol \cdot L^{-1}$ | 320 | 38 | 30 | 73 | 49 | 0.69 |
| | (Q1 - Q3) | | 7 - 810 | 0.3 - 2.5 | | 40 - 1600 | 12 - 53 | 10 - 46 | 12 - 120 | 12 - 92 | 0.14 - 1.0 |
| SGD-driven flux | Median | $mmol \cdot m^{-1} \cdot d^{-1}$ | 1900 | 16 | $mmol \cdot m^{-1} \cdot d^{-1}$ | 4.1 | 0.45 | 0.32 | 0.89 | 0 | 0.007 |
| | (Q1 - Q3) | | 80 - 10000 | 3 - 31 | | 0.4 - 20 | 0.13 - 0.65 | 0.07 - 0.53 | 0.1 - 1.4 | 0 - 0.37 | 0 - 0.011 |
| | Median | $mol \cdot d^{-1}$ | 8500 | 71 | $mol \cdot d^{-1}$ | 18 | 2.0 | 1.4 | 3.9 | 0 | 0.029 |
| | Median | $\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$ | 970 | 8.1 | $nmol \cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$ | 2000 | 230 | 160 | 450 | 0 | 3.3 |

729

FIGURES

Figure 1. a) The study area is located at the southeastern part of Majorca Island (Balearic Islands), at the Western Mediterranean Sea. b) The hydrological formations of Palma Basin are represented based on Nielsen et al. (2004) and the preferential groundwater flow lines are also indicated. The location of the study site (Palma Beach), at the south-east of Palma Bay, is also highlighted. c) Sampling stations in Palma Beach on summer 2010. Stations include groundwater from wells (white squares), porewater from piezometers (dark grey triangles) and beach seawater (grey circles). Trace metal samples in beach seawater were collected in those stations highlighted with dark grey.

Figure 2. Ra activities in surface nearshore waters of Palma Beach plotted against distance offshore, for all the three transects. The grey area represents the Ra activity of the offshore sample with its associated uncertainty.

Figure 3. Nutrient (DIN and DIP) and Chl*a* concentrations in nearshore Palma Beach waters as a function of distance offshore, for all the three transects. The grey area represents the nutrient and Chl*a* concentrations measured at the offshore station.

Figure 4. Concentrations of dissolved ($<0.22 \mu\text{m}$) Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, Mo and Pb measured in surface waters from the entire Palma Bay in a previous survey conducted in summer 2009. The range of concentrations for each metal is indicated in parentheses.

Figure 5. (a) ^{224}Ra vs ^{223}Ra and (b) ^{228}Ra vs ^{226}Ra activities in the potential SGD end-members (groundwater from wells and piezometers). The average concentrations of Ra isotopes measured in Palma Beach waters are also shown. The dashed-line in (a) represents the best linear fit to the ^{224}Ra vs ^{223}Ra activities in porewaters. In (b), the dashed line represents the constraint in ^{228}Ra and ^{226}Ra concentrations in inflowing SGD obtained from Eq 3-5. This line is used to select those samples used as SGD end-member for Ra isotopes.

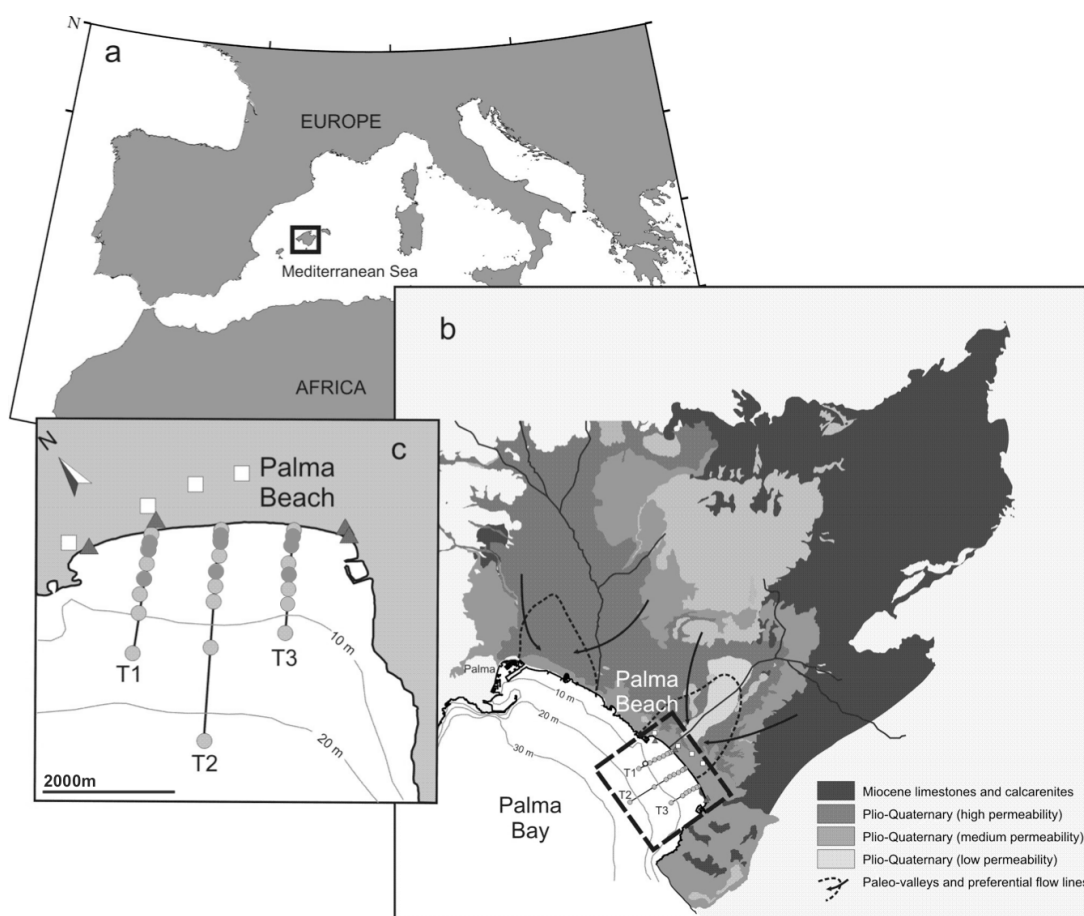
Figure 6. Salinity distribution of nutrients (DIN and DIP; $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and dissolved metals (Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, Mo and Pb; nmol L^{-1}) in groundwater from wells (grey circles) and piezometers (black triangles). The dashed line and the shadowed area, respectively, represent the median and the range comprised between the 1st and the 3rd quartiles of the set of groundwater concentrations. The averaged concentration of Palma Beach waters is also included for comparison (white diamond).

Figure 7. $^{224}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ AR plotted against distance offshore. The three transects offshore were integrated in one as all of them present similar activities and distribution. The dashed line and the shadowed area, respectively, represent the average AR and the standard deviation (1σ) of the samples collected within the first 500 m from the shoreline, values used to estimate the residence time of conservative compounds in the study site.

Figure 8. Ratio of SGD-driven inventories of dissolved major nutrients and trace metals (SGD) to the inventories actually measured in seawater (SW). SGD-driven inventories are obtained from the median of all the concentrations in groundwater with lower and upper limits being the 1st and the 3rd quartiles.

Figure 9. Relations between $\text{Chl}a$ and (a) ^{224}Ra and (b) ^{223}Ra . The dashed line represents the best linear fit to the data.

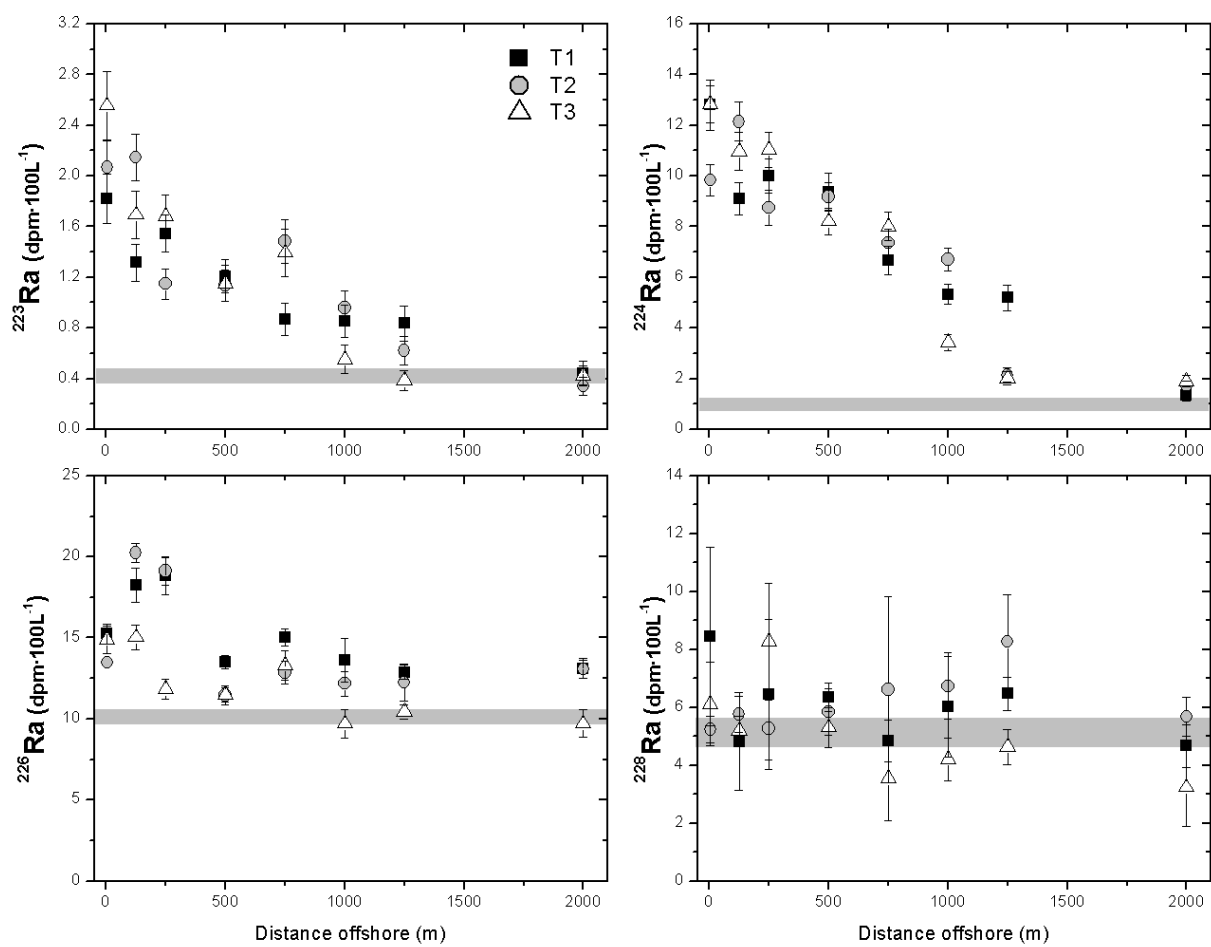
774 **FIGURE 1**



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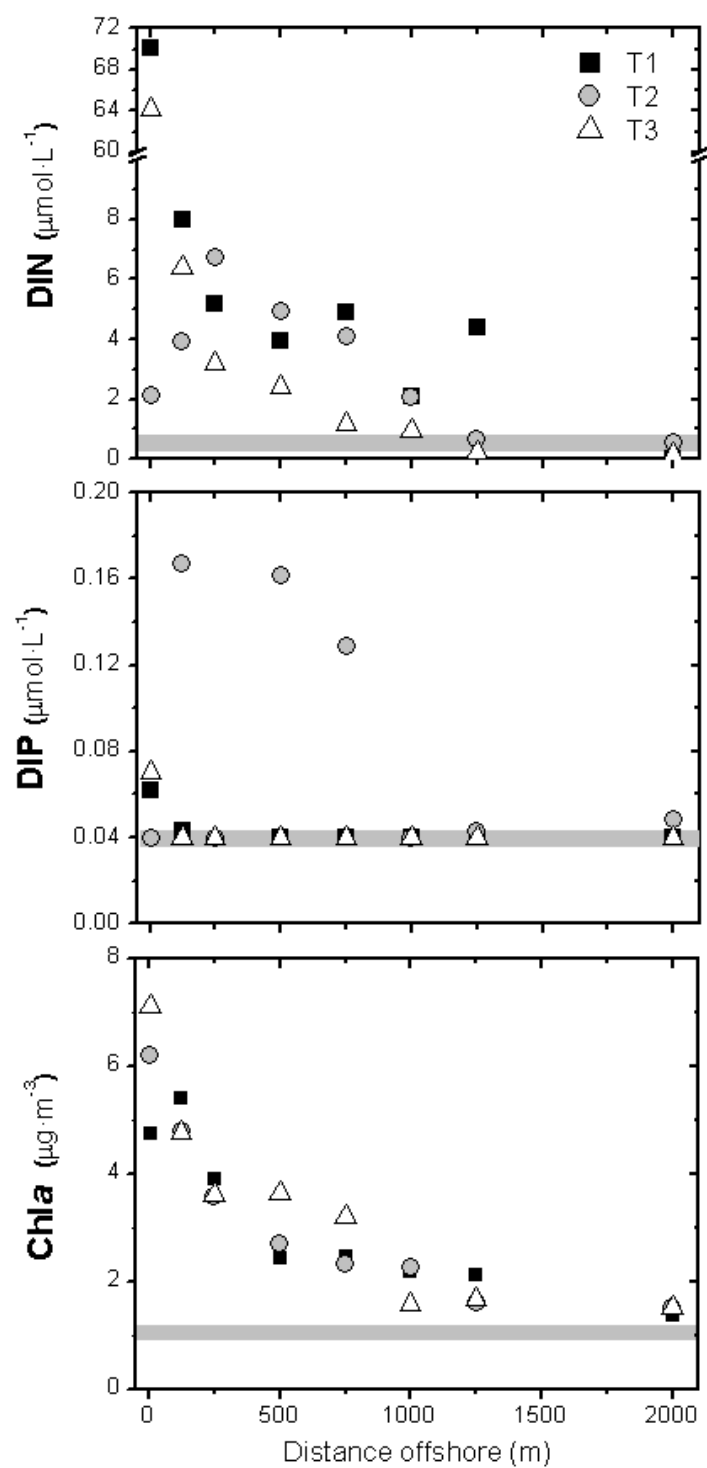
777 **FIGURE 2**



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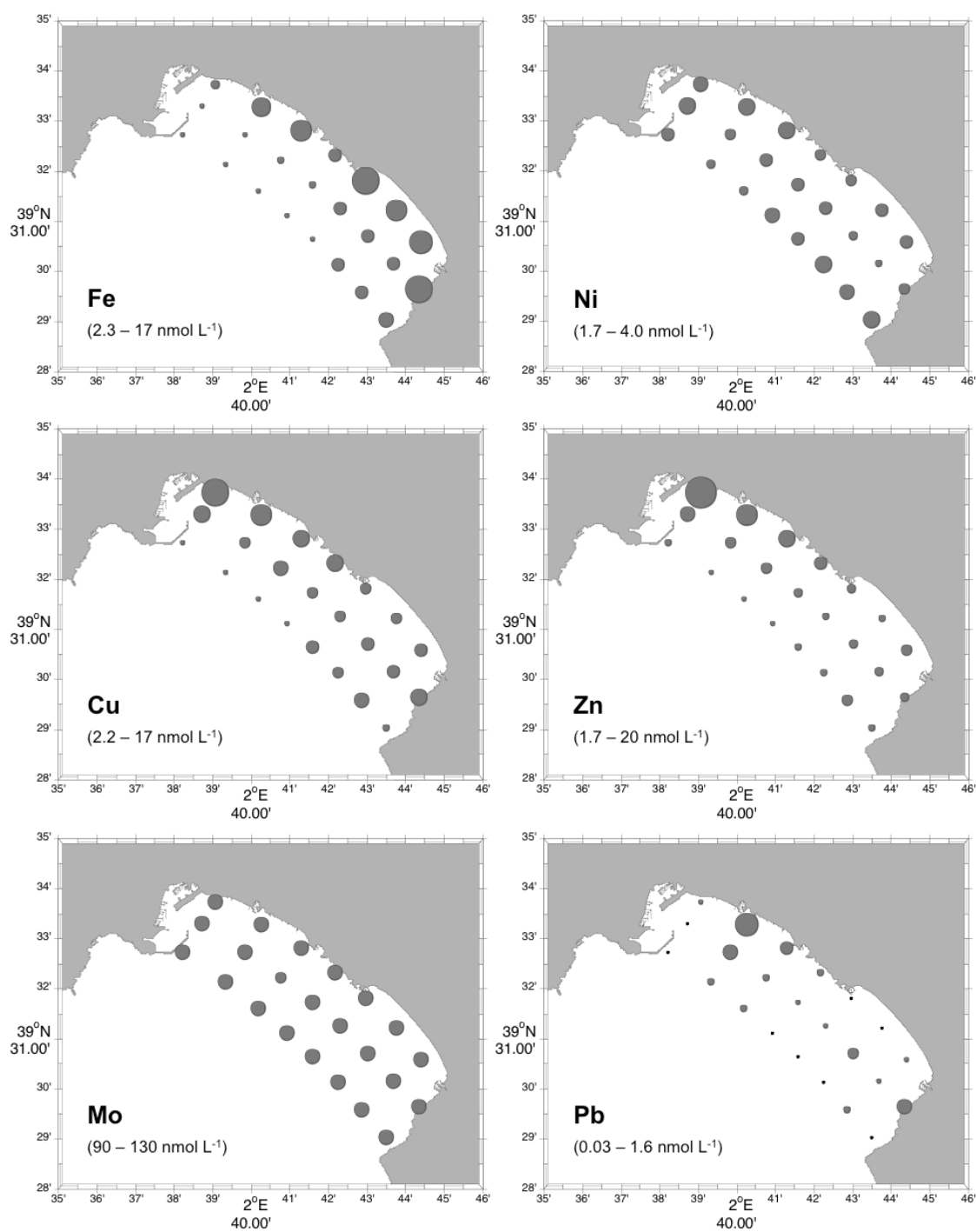
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780 **FIGURE 3**

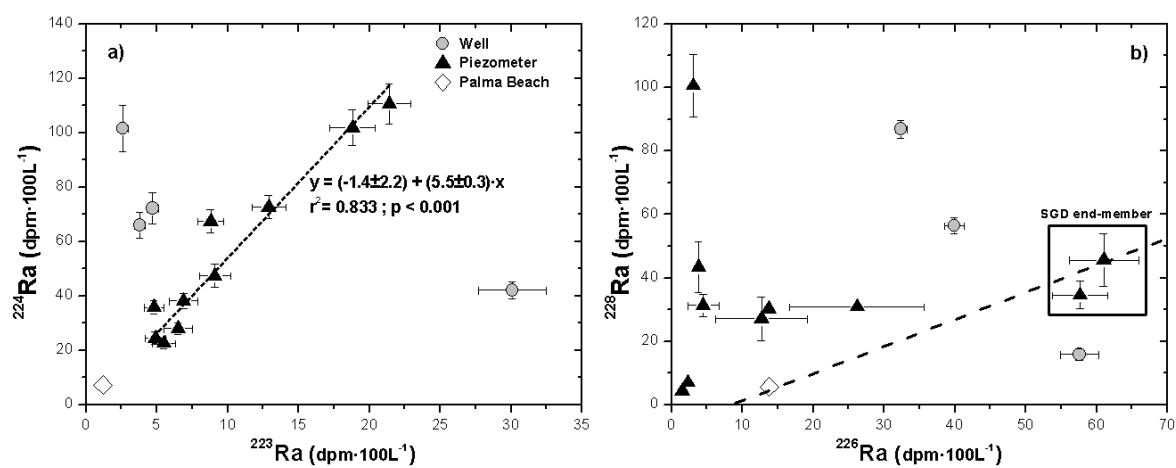


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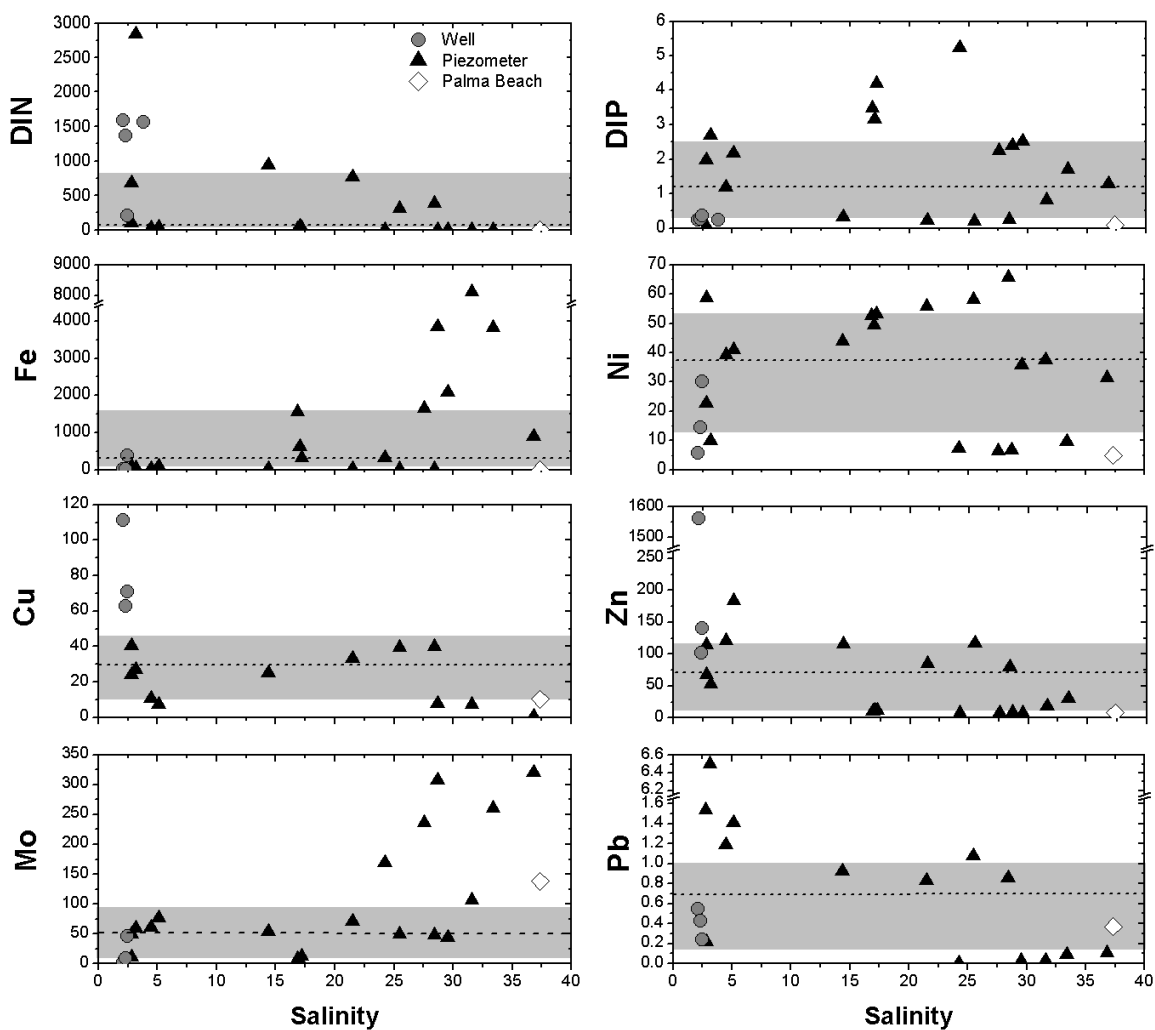
786 **FIGURE 5**



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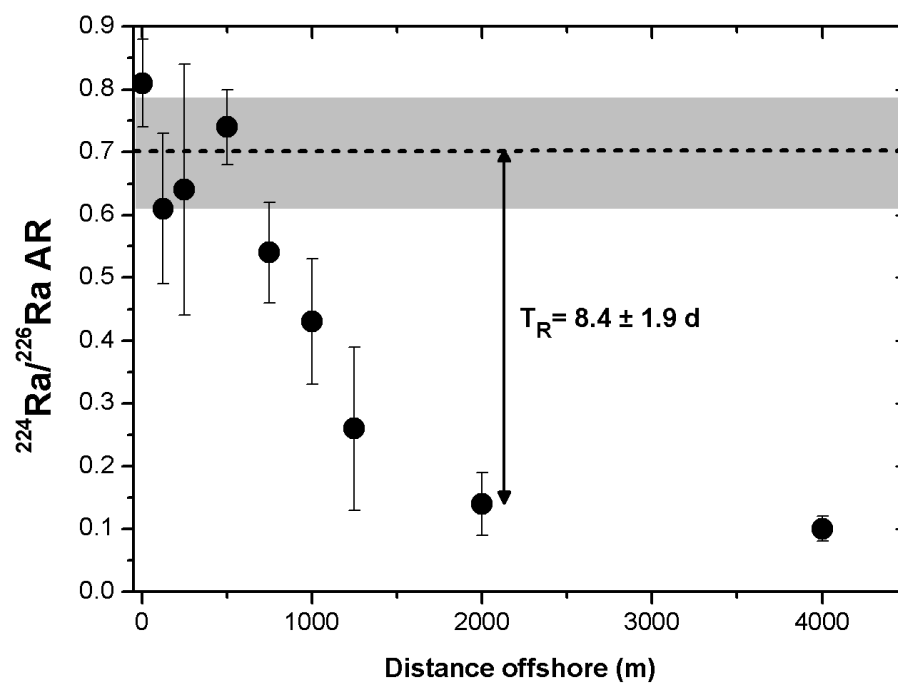
789 **FIGURE 6**



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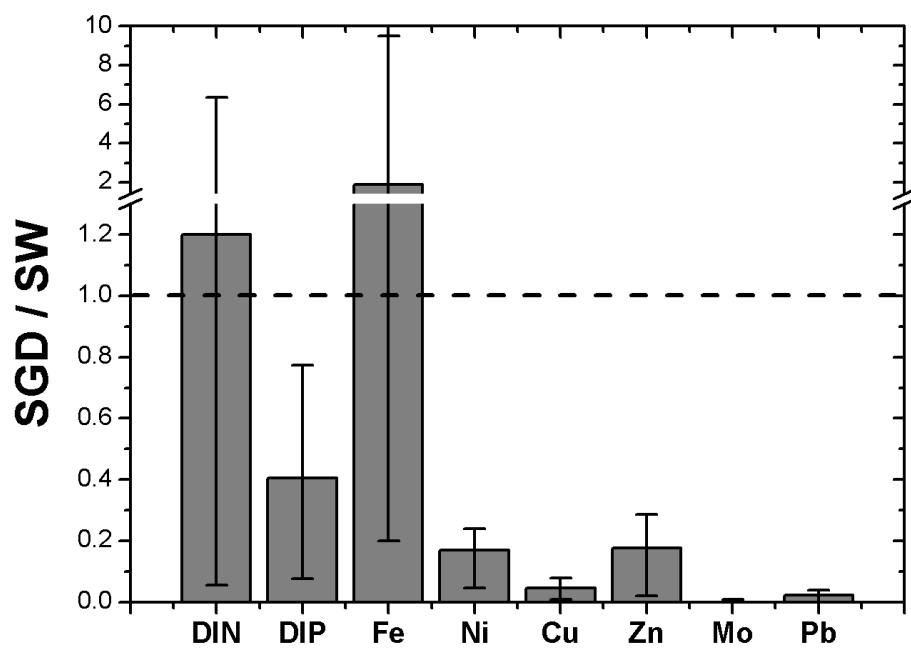
792 **FIGURE 7**



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795 **FIGURE 8**



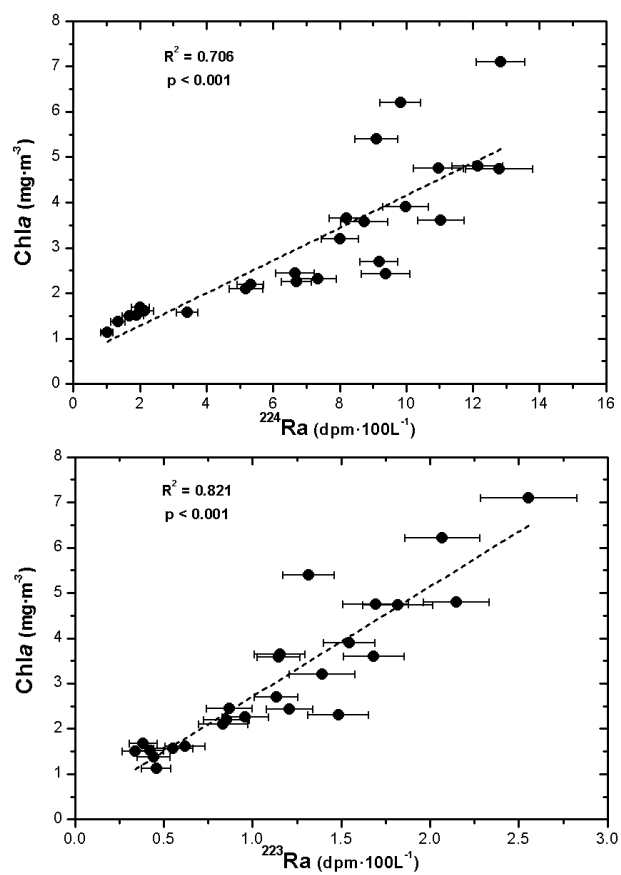
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799 **FIGURE 9**

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