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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Key Points:

- SGD is the dominant source of nutrients to the Maowei Sea
- The SGD-derived nutrients are higher in the Maowei Sea than those estimated in other similar studies
- SGD-derived nutrients could support high-quantity aquaculture (oyster) in the Maowei Sea

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Submarine Groundwater-Borne Nutrients in a Tropical Bay (Maowei Sea, China) and Their Impacts on the Oyster Aquaculture

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Abstract Submarine groundwater discharge (SGD) has been recognized as an important pathway for nutrients into estuaries, coasts, and the adjacent seas. In this study, ²²²Rn was used to estimate the SGD-associated nutrient fluxes into an aquaculture area in a typical tropical bay (Maowei Sea, China). The SGD into the Maowei Sea during June 2016 was estimated to be 0.36 ± 0.33 m d⁻¹ and was associated with SGD-derived dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP), and dissolved silicon (DSi) fluxes (mol d⁻¹) of $(4.5 \pm 5.5) \times 10^6$, $(5.3 \pm 9.1) \times 10^4$, and $(9.4 \pm 9.3) \times 10^6$, respectively. The SGD-derived nutrients (i.e., DIN, DIP, and DSi) were more than 1.9, 0.9, and 3.6 times the amounts in the local river input and served as dominant sources in the nutrient budgets in the Maowei Sea. Moreover, the N/P ratios in the SGD around the Maowei Sea were high (mean: 64), and these ratios likely exceeded the environmental self-purification capacity, thereby enhancing the biomass and changing the phytoplankton community structure. Therefore, SGD processes with derived nutrients may affect the biogeochemical cycles and marine ecological environment in the Maowei Sea. Furthermore, the N/P ratios (~67) in oysters are very close to those in the SGD in the Maowei Sea; this coincidence suggests that the high N/P ratios in the SGD are likely to be one of the most important sources that support oyster aquaculture, which might weaken the burden of water eutrophication in the Maowei Sea.

1. Introduction

Submarine groundwater discharge (SGD) is one of the most important and central processes of land-ocean interaction in coastal zones (LOICZ; Charette et al., 2012; Moore, 2010), and it defined as any or all fluid flow (including both terrestrial fresh groundwater and recirculated seawater) on continental margins from the seabed to the coastal ocean without regard to fluid composition or driving force (Burnett et al., 2003). SGD exhibits different geochemical properties (e.g., pH, Eh, and nutrient components) and can be modified by biogeochemical processes in coastal aquifers (Burnett et al., 2003; Slomp & Van Cappellen, 2004; Smith et al., 2008). Such processes involve the desorption of ions from adsorbed sites; dissolution and precipitation of carbonates; release of carbon, nutrients, and metals due to remineralization of organic matter; and oxidationreduction reactions leading to the release or sequestration of other irons (Moore, 2010). However, nitrogen and phosphorus inputs from rivers and SGD could be enhanced by nutrients and other materials through natural processes or anthropogenic activities (e.g., fertilizer use and sewage discharge) in watersheds and coastal zones (Burnett et al., 1990; X. L. Wang et al., 2014). Generally, the major driving forces of rivers are climate change and human activities (Lu et al., 2011; Dai et al., 2013, 2016). However, the driving forces of SGD include terrestrial driving forces (mainly hydraulic gradients) and marine driving forces (such as tidal pumping, density gradients, waves, storms, and seabed topography; Zhang et al., 2016). These forces drive the groundwater discharge and drive nutrients into the sea. Because groundwater contains high nutrient concentrations, a small amount of SGD may transport a large quantity of nutrients (Boehm et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2013). Thus, SGDderived nutrients may play a significant role in controlling water quality and can lead to associated deleterious effects on marine ecological environments (Ji et al., 2013; Wu, et al., 2013), such as red tide outbreaks (Hu et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2010; Luo & Jiao, 2016), benthic macroalgal eutrophication (Hwang et al., 2005), and hypoxia (McCoy et al., 2011).



Recent research has highlighted the significance of SGD as one of the most important pathways for the transport of dissolved materials from land to the ocean (Burnett & Dulaiova, 2006; Burnett et al., 1990, 2003; Su et al., 2011; Swarzenski et al., 2007). Three methods have been used to quantify the SGD in heterogeneous systems: physical measurements (seepage meters; e.g., Burnett & Dulaiova, 2006; Taniguchi et al., 2006), hydrogeological models (e.g., McCormack et al., 2014), and geochemical tracers (e.g., Burnett & Dulaiova, 2006; Huang et al., 2011; Swarzenski et al., 2007). In particular, naturally occurring radiotracers have been widely used to quantify SGD rates (Burnett & Dulaiova, 2006; Gu et al., 2012; Santos et al., 2015; Swarzenski et al., 2007). The main advantage of using naturally occurring radiotracers is that they present integrated signals related to different groundwater pathways in coastal aquifers (Burnett & Dulaiova, 2006). Radon (²²²Rn, half-life 3.82 days) is a natural tracer that is widely enriched in groundwater relative to coastal seawater and is relatively easy to measure (Cable et al., 1996). Thus, ²²²Rn serves as an excellent qualitative and quantitative tracer for identifying and quantifying groundwater inputs. Furthermore, continuous measurement of ²²²Rn in seawater can be accomplished using a RAD7 electronic radon detector (Durridge Co. Inc., USA) together with a RAD-AQUA accessory (Burnett & Dulaiova, 2003).

Bay regions are the most sensitive land-ocean interaction area in coastal zones. Because of the influences of high human activity levels and high-intensity developments in watershed and coastal zones, bay regions have undergone unprecedented changes (Ge et al., 2014; Dai et al., 2014). The Maowei Sea is a typical tropical bay with high-intensity aquaculture activity where industrialization and urbanization have simultaneously changed the natural ecosystem structure and marine ecological environment (Gu et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2012; Li et al., 2017), especially in the Qinzhou Harbor area. Recently, the nitrogen, phosphate and chemical oxygen demand (COD) concentrations in the Maowei Sea have been reportedly increasing, and the tendency of eutrophication has been gradually aggravated (Lan & Peng, 2011). The abundance of some phytoplankton has reached levels of red tide occurrence in the Maowei Sea. For example, in March 2008, the biomass of *Skeletonema costatum* was 1.16×10^6 to 4.63×10^7 cells L⁻¹ in the Maowei Sea (Zhuang et al., 2012). Nevertheless, our previous work reported that SGD-derived nutrient fluxes could not only support high densities of aquaculture activities but also reduce the impacts of N and P on local marine ecosystems in Sanggou Bay (X. L. Wang et al., 2014). Although environmental monitoring has been routinely conducted in the Maowei Sea since the 1980s (Lan & Peng, 2011; Wei et al., 2002), to the best of our knowledge, SGD and its derived nutrient fluxes have not been reported, which limits the understanding of the biogeochemical processes, environmental policy formulation, and environmental management in the Maowei Sea.

In this study, we combined automated radon and nutrient observations at a fixed station to obtain insight into how to quantify the tidally driven groundwater and nutrient fluxes via SGD in the Maowei Sea. Based on a ²²²Rn mass balance model, we attempted to estimate the SGD by calculating the fluxes of all ²²²Rn sources and sinks (Figure 1). The objectives of this work were to estimate the fluxes of SGD-associated nutrient inputs into the Maowei Sea, analyze the nutrient budgets, and evaluate the possible impacts of SGD-associated nutrient inputs on the coastal ecosystem.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study Area

The Maowei Sea (surface area: ~135 km²) belongs to the enclosed inner bay of Qinzhou Bay, which is located south of Qinzhou, in Guangxi Province and is adjacent to the Beibu Gulf (Figure 2a). The water depth ranges from 0.1 to 5 m, and the total coastline length is ~120 km in the Maowei Sea. As a semienclosed bay, the longitudinal length of this bay is ~15 km, and its mouth length is ~2 km (Figure 2b). The climate of this region is classified as a tropical maritime monsoon with a mean annual temperature of 22.1°C. The mean annual rainfall is 2,140 mm. In addition, the rainy season is between May and September (Tian et al., 2014). An irregular diurnal tide exists in this region, with a mean tidal range of 2.5 m and a maximum of 5.5 m (Editorial Board of China Bay Survey, 1993; Tian et al., 2014).

Two rivers (the Maolingjiang River and Qinjiang River) deliver $2.8 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ of fresh water and $8.6 \times 10^4 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ of suspended sediment into the Maowei Sea (Wang, 2013). A mixed accumulation landform (delta) developed where the two rivers flow into the sea. The sediments gradually become coarser from the bayhead to the mouth of the Maowei Sea, changing from sandy mud near the bayhead to muddy sand in the middle of the bay then to fine sand and medium sand at the mouth of the Maowei Sea (Editorial Board

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Figure 1. Schematic diagram of ²²²Rn processes in the coastal zone (modified from Burnett & Dulaiova, 2003; Moore, 2010; Taniguchi et al., 2002). *Sources*: SGD input (F_{SGD}), river input (F_{riv}), influx during flood tides (F_{in}), ingrowth rate of dissolved ²²⁶Ra in the water column (F_{Ra-226}), and diffusion flux from surface sediment into the water column (F_{sed}); sinks: outflux during ebb tides (F_{out}), atmospheric evasion (F_{atm}), decay loss of ²²²Rn (F_{dec}), and mixing loss with offshore waters of ²²²Rn (F_{mix}).

of China Bay Survey, 1993). The median diameter (D_{50}) of the sediments in the Maowei Sea is 0.334 mm (Wang, 2013).

The Maowei Sea is the largest natural oyster growing area (Wu et al., 2014) and the largest mangrove island in China. The distribution of aquaculture and mangroves in the Maowei Sea is shown in Figure 2c. However, as an important bay in the Beibu Gulf, the Maowei Sea has gradually become polluted because of human



Figure 2. Map showing (a) the study site location, (b) sampling stations, and (c) the distribution of aquaculture and mangroves in the Maowei Sea. activities, such as industrial wastewater discharge, daily municipal life, and agricultural fertilizer pollution (Editorial Board of China Bay Survey, 1993). These contaminants partly enter both the surface water and groundwater systems.

2.2. Sampling Strategy

2.2.1. Time Series Deployments

For continuous ²²²Rn monitoring in seawater, a floating wooden building near the mouth of the Maowei Sea was used as a time series station (water depth: ~5 m; Figure 3a). The water was continuously pumped into the RAD-AQUA system with a submersible pump that was fixed at 0.5 m above the seafloor. Continuous measurements of the ²²²Rn in the seawater were measured in situ (Figure 3b) from 7:40 P.M. on 19 June 2016 to 9:40 P.M. on 20 June 2016. In parallel with the continuous ²²²Rn monitoring, the water temperature and salinity were measured every 15 min using an YSI-EC300A conductivity meter placed near the submersible pump. The wind speed was measured every 15 min with a handheld anemometer. Nutrient samples were taken every 60 min and were subsequently analyzed in the lab. Fifty liters of surface water was collected every 3 h to observe the ²²⁶Ra variation. A RAD7 detector was set up to automatically count every 30 min. The ²²²Rn activity of the water was obtained by multiplying the ²²²Rn activity of the air by the partition coefficient (α) when the ²²²Rn in the air reached equilibrium with the ²²²Rn in the water. The α was described by the Fritz Weigel equation (Burnett & Dulaiova, 2003) as follows:

$$\alpha = 0.105 + 0.405 e^{-0.0502T} \tag{1}$$

where T is the water temperature (°C).



Figure 3. (a) The time series station was conducted in a floating wooden building and continuous ²²²Rn was measured with a RAD7 Detector and RAD AQUA; (b) the salinity and temperature were determined using a conductivity meter.

2.2.2. Groundwater and River Water Observations

Groundwater samples (well water and pore water) along the Maowei Sea in June 2014 were collected from domestic wells and mudflats near the sea. To avoid losses via atmospheric exchange, the well water samples were collected from the bottom aquifers by an organic glass hydrophore. River water was collected from the lower salinity zone of Maolingjiang River and Qinjiang River. Then, the ²²²Rn well water and river water samples were collected into RAD-H₂O 250 mL bottles using the overflow method until they overflowed vertically to approximately half of the bottle volume; then bottles were was quickly covered with the caps. Pore water was slowly collected (approximately 0.5 L min⁻¹) in the RAD-H₂O 250 mL bottles using a push-point piezometer and a peristaltic pump (Charette & Allen, 2006). The ²²²Rn activities of all samples were immediately analyzed using a RAD7 detector. For all groundwater and river water samples, ancillary data (salinity and temperature) were monitored using an YSI-EC300A conductivity meter, and nutrient samples were collected.

2.3. Analytical Methods

2.3.1.²²²Rn Analysis

We measured the ²²²Rn samples with a RAD7 detector that used a continuous ²²²Rn-in-air monitor adapted for ²²²Rn-in-water measurements. The ²²²Rn activities were determined by counting the daughters (²¹⁸Po) in a silicon detector. The samples were analyzed using a RAD7 detector with RAD-H₂O and RAD-AQUA accessories. The RAD-H₂O accessory can aerate ²²²Rn samples for 5 min and deliver the gas into a detector. The counting begins automatically after another 5 min, after which balance is reached between the ²²²Rn and ²¹⁸Po. The RAD-H₂O accessory was used to analyze the well water and pore water samples. One well water or pore water sample was set to 2 h, with 12 recycles of 5 min (Durridge Co., Inc.). The RAD-AQUA accessory was used for continuous measurements of ²²²Rn in the seawater (Figure 3b). The specific operation for the RAD-AQUA accessory was described in section 2.2.1.

2.3.2. ²²⁶Ra Analysis

Fifty liter water samples were filtered through cellulose acetate membranes (pore size: 0.45 μ m) and then a MnO₂-impregnated acrylic fiber column (20 g) using a ~0.5 L min⁻¹ flow rate to collect the dissolved ²²⁶Ra. These fibers were then thoroughly washed with Milli-Q water or purified water to remove all of the salts and were taken to a laboratory for measurement (Gu et al., 2012). The fiber samples were sealed for more than 20 days to allow the ²²²Rn and its daughters to reach secular equilibrium with ²²⁶Ra; then, the ²²²Ra activity was determined using a RAD7 detector (Kim et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2016).

2.3.3. Nutrient Analysis

Polyethylene 250 mL bottles were used to collect water, which was then immediately filtered to approximately 60 mL with 0.45 μ m cellulose acetate filters that had been cleaned with hydrochloric acid and rinsed with Milli-Q water. Then, three to four drops of saturated HgCl₂ were added to the sample and kept away from the light (Ji et al., 2013; Su et al., 2011; X. L. Wang et al., 2014). The nutrients were analyzed using an autoanalyzer (Model: Skalar SANplus146; Liu et al., 2005, 2009).

2.4. Sediment Equilibration Experiments

To estimate the diffusive flux of ²²²Rn from the sediment, five sediment samples (S1–S5 shown in Figure 2) were collected from the seabed. Because the sediments gradually become coarser from the bayhead to the mouth of the Maowei Sea (Editorial Board of China Bay Survey, 1993), we collected five sediment samples from the mouth of the Maowei Sea to near the bayhead. The porosity of the seabed sediments changed from 0.21 to 0.60. The water depth of these sediment sampling stations ranged from ~2 to 5 m. Sediment equilibration experiments were performed to estimate the diffusive flux of ²²²Rn. Each wet sediment sample (approximately 100 g) was sealed in an Erlenmeyer flask with approximately 400–500 mL of seawater for 20 days. Then, the ²²²Rn and ²²⁶Ra activities in the sediments and overlying seawater could be approximated to reach radioactive decay equilibrium. Next, the equilibrated seawater in the RAD-H₂O 250 mL bottles was immediately analyzed using a RAD7 detector. The equilibrium activity (C_{eq}) was calculated using the porosity (φ) and wet bulk density (ρ_{wet}) of the sediments (Cable et al., 1996, 2004). Then, the diffusive flux of ²²²Rn was calculated using the following equation (Martens et al., 1980; Ullman & Aller, 1982):

$$F_{sed} = (\lambda_{Rn-222} \times \varphi \times D_m)^{0.5} (C_{eq} - C_o)$$
(2a)

where C_o is the ²²²Rn activity in the overlying water. The molecular diffusion coefficient (D_m) was described by Peng et al. (1974) as follows:

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Figure 4. The variation of ²²²Rn activities (red squares), salinity (blue dots), and temperature (green down triangles) of seawater versus tidal height (black up triangles) during the time series observation.

$$\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{m}} = 10^{-\left(\frac{980}{\mathsf{T}+273}+1.59\right)} \tag{2b}$$

where the T is the water temperature (°C).

3. Results

3.1. ²²²Rn Activities and Nutrients for Time Series Observations at the TS Station

The continuous ²²²Rn observation, as well as the salinity and temperature in the water column near the mouth of the Maowei Sea, is shown in Figure 4. The seawater temperature varied with diurnal trend dominated by solar radiation, and the temperatures were higher from noon to sunset (Figure 4). The mean temperature was 30.7° C, and a maximum diel variation of 0.5° C was observed during the time series observation. The salinity sharply dropped from 21.4 to 7.4 during the ebb tide and rose from 7.4 to 21.9 during the flood tide. As was expected, the ²²²Rn activity was higher during the ebb tide, with a range from 7.52 to 136 Bg m⁻³. The ²²²Rn activity

changed from 136 to 17.8 Bq m⁻³ during the flood tide. The nutrients (DIN, DIP, and DSi) exhibited similar trends as ²²²Rn, with the DIN, DIP, and DSi concentrations (μ mol L⁻¹) dropping from 64.8, 1.50, and 105 at low tide to 33.0, 0.52, and 22.0 at high tide, respectively (Figure 5). Many studies have used the tidal period cyclicity of the ²²²Rn in seawater to reflect the dilution of offshore waters at flood tide, offshore mixing, and SGD variations (Burnett & Dulaiova, 2003; Kim & Hwang, 2002; Lambert & Burnett, 2003; Tse & Jiao, 2008). Due to tidal pumping, the recirculated seawater drains out during ebb tides and seeps into the seabed sediments during flood tides. Simultaneously, the hydrostatic pressure is lowered and the hydraulic gradient between seawater and groundwater increases, which leads to a large SGD flux at low



Figure 5. Temporal variation of nutrient concentrations (DIN, DIP, and DSi) as well as tidal height during the time series observation.

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tide. Contrarily, it contributes to a smaller SGD or even recharge of groundwater flux at high tide.

3.2. ²²²Rn and Nutrients in the Groundwater and River Water

The groundwater properties (well water and pore water) along the coastal zones of the Maowei Sea are shown in Table 1. The temperature (°C) and salinity of the groundwater ranged from 24.5 to 28.8 and 0 to 20.1, respectively. The ²²²Rn activities (Bq m⁻³) of the groundwater changed from 1.79×10^3 to 3.81×10^4 . The DIN (μ mol L⁻¹), DIP (μ mol L⁻¹), and DSi (μ mol L⁻¹) of the groundwater varied from 2.8 to 1.04×10^3 , 0 to 26.0 and 1.09×10^2 to 6.72×10^2 , respectively. Obviously, the ²²²Rn activities and nutrient concentrations in the groundwater were much higher than those in the seawater, which suggests that groundwater discharge is an important source of ²²²Rn and nutrients in the Maowei Sea. The ²²²Rn activities (Bq m⁻³) of the Maolingjiang River and Qinjiang River were 234 and 160–250, respectively. The DIN (μ mol L⁻¹), DIP (μ mol L⁻¹), and DSi (μ mol L⁻¹) were 62.4, 1.81, and 128 for the Maolingjiang River, respectively.

4. Discussion

4.1. The Mass Balance of ²²²Rn in the Maowei Sea

To determine the ²²²Rn flux that was contributed from SGD, the fluxes of all ²²²Rn sources and sinks should first be estimated. The ²²²Rn sources include SGD input (F_{SGD}), influx during flood tides (F_{in}), ingrowth rate of dissolved ²²⁶Ra in the water column (F_{Ra-226}), and diffusion flux from surface sediment into the water column (F_{sed}). The ²²²Rn sinks include outflux during ebb tide (F_{out}), atmospheric

The Temperature, Salinity, Water Depth, ²²²Rn Activities, and Nutrient Concentrations (DIN, DIP, and DSi) of the Groundwater (Well Water and Pore Water) Collected Along the Coastal Zones of the Maowei Sea in June 2016

Station	Longitude (°E)	Latitude (°N)	Temperature (°C)	Salinity	Depth ^a (m)	Distance from sea (m)	²²² Rn (Bq m ⁻³)	Error	DIN (μ mol L ⁻¹)	DIP (μ mol L ⁻¹)	DSi (μ mol L $^{-1}$)	N/P ratio
G ^b 1	108.5928	21.8524	26.1	0.6	38	nd	38,100	1,400	201	3.07	672	66
G2	108.5786	21.7942	27.7	0.1	4	300	2,070	400	192	0.01	143	17,000
G3	108.4763	21.8323	25.2	0.1	nd ^c	25	3,070	400	156	0	146	nd
G4	108.4972	21.8129	25.5	0	2	150	9,670	470	24.3	0.01	143	2,600
G5	108.4976	21.8136	26.6	0.1	100	100	4,770	480	12.7	0.27	165	48
G6	108.5415	21.7388	26.2	0.3	3.2	nd	6,020	460	1040	26.0	213	40
G7	108.6134	21.8224	25.2	0	1.6	nd	5,010	500	53.5	0.62	115	86
G8	108.5813	21.7763	24.5	0.5	4	250	18,700	900	866	10.6	582	81
G9	108.6053	21.7153	24.5	0.2	>6	600	7,560	600	508	0.27	122	1,900
G10	108.6251	21.7278	25.7	0.2	3.4	800	3,550	400	140	16.2	171	9
G11	108.5445	21.9099	24.5	0.3	6.5	200	1,790	370	262	4.78	281	55
G12	108.4867	21.8244	25.9	0.3	4.5	300	2,310	410	421	0.94	152	446
G13	108.4961	21.8085	28.8	0.1	1.7	600	2,830	390	2.8	0.01	126	284
G14	108.5115	21.7777	27.1	0.1	3	200	2,160	390	38.3	0.04	115	8,674
G15	108.5150	21.7768	24.7	0.2	38	100	5,980	590	83.9	0.02	163	4,910
G16	108.5484	21.7428	25	0	2	180	11,500	800	55.4	0.02	109	2,530
P ^d 1	108.5943	21.7452	nd	17.6	0.7	0	4,340	510	70.8	1.55	195	46
P2	108.5980	21.7393	nd	20.1	0.6	0	1,930	200	47.6	2.01	242	24
P3	108.6046	21.8638	nd	8.8	nd	0	6,310	370	83.2	0.19	309	433

^aWell water depth (well water samples) or the depth below the sediment-water interface (pore water samples). ^bWell water. ^cNot determined. ^dPore water.

evasion (F_{atm}), decay loss of ²²²Rn (F_{dec}), and mixing loss of ²²²Rn with offshore waters (F_{mix}) in the coastal zone.

A ²²²Rn mass balance model, which was improved from Burnett and Dulaiova (2003), was used to estimate the SGD. Based on this model, we obtained the ²²²Rn flux from SGD by calculating the fluxes of all ²²²Rn sources and sinks (Figure 1) in the Maowei Sea. The equation for the ²²²Rn mass balance model can be written as follows (Zhang et al., 2016):

$$F_{SGD} + F_{riv} + F_{in} + F_{Ra-226} + F_{sed} - F_{out} - F_{atm} - F_{dec} - F_{mix} = \Delta F$$
(3)

where ΔF is the difference in the flux of the ²²²Rn inventory between two successive hours, and all of the flux units for the sources and sinks are Bq m⁻² h⁻¹.

After being corrected for other sources and sinks, the ²²²Rn flux attributed to SGD was obtained. Using the ²²²Rn activity in the groundwater end-member entering the system (C_{gwv} Bq m⁻³) and SGD flux (F_{SGDv} Bq m⁻² d⁻¹), the SGD rate (v, m d⁻¹) could be converted using the following equation:

$$=\frac{F_{SGD}}{C_{gw}}$$
(4)

4.1.1. The Major Inputs of ²²²Rn Into the Maowei Sea

For this study, the ²²²Rn from river input (F_{riv}) is also an integral part of ²²²Rn in the Maowei Sea and is estimated by multiplying the river discharge by the ²²²Rn activity in the river water. Here the river discharge rates from the Maolingjiang River (http://www.zwbk.org/MyLemmaShow.aspx?lid=469852) and the Qinjiang River (http://www.zwbk.org/MyLemmaShow.aspx?lid=465957) are 127 and 107 m³ s⁻¹, respectively. Thus, the F_{riv} was calculated to be (1.86 ± 0.34) × 10⁸ Bq h⁻¹ (i.e., 1.38 ± 0.25 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹).

The effects of the tide on the change of ²²²Rn activity cannot be ignored in the surface seawater. Therefore, it is necessary to normalize the ²²²Rn activity to a mean tide level to eliminate the effects of tide level variations on radon when estimating the SGD (Tse & Jiao, 2008; Wen et al., 2014). The ²²²Rn is removed from the bay with the outgoing waters at ebb tide, whereas extra ²²²Rn is added to the bay with incoming waters during flood tide. The input fluxes of ²²²Rn (F_{in}) with incoming water and the output fluxes of ²²²Rn (F_{out}) with outgoing water were determined using the following equations (Zhang et al., 2016):

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$$F_{in} = \frac{h_{t+\Delta t} - h_t}{\Delta t} \left(b\overline{C_w} + (1 - b)C_{off} \right)$$
(5a)

$$F_{out} = \frac{h_t - h_{t+\Delta t}}{\Delta t} C_w$$
(5b)

where h_t and $h_{t+\Delta t}$ are the water depth at time t and $(t + \Delta t)$, respectively; Δt is the time interval (1 h in this study); $\overline{C_w}$ is the mean activity of ²²²Rn in the seawater column; and C_{off} is the mean activity of ²²²Rn in off-shore water. C_w is the seawater activity of ²²²Rn over a time interval at a time series station; b is the return flow factor (the portion of the water that leaves the estuary during ebb tide and returns unmixed during the next flood tide). Thus, we used a 3-end-member mixing model to estimate the return flow factor (Kim et al., 2008; Moore, 2003; Moore et al., 2006):

$$\mathbf{f}_{\mathsf{S}} + \mathbf{f}_{\mathsf{R}} + \mathbf{f}_{\mathsf{G}} = \mathbf{1} \tag{5c}$$

$$S_S f_S + S_R f_R + S_G f_G = S_M$$
(5d)

$$DSi_{S}f_{S} + DSi_{R}f_{R} + DSi_{G}f_{G} = DSi_{M}$$
(5e)

where $f_x (x = S, R, and G)$ is the fraction of seawater (S), river water (R) and groundwater (G) end-members; S_x and DSi_i are the salinity and DSi concentrations in each end-member; and S_M and DSi_M are the salinity and DSi concentrations in the surface water samples. These equations can be solved for the fractions of each end-member in each system. The 3-end-member mixing model estimates the amount of seawater in the study area, which is simply the return flow (Moore et al., 2006). The f_S , f_R , and f_G were 0.58, 0.07, and 0.35, respectively. Thus, we estimated that the return flow factor (b = f_S) was 0.58 in the Maowei Sea. Based on equation (5a), the F_{in} ranged from 0.46 to 15.8 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹ during the time series observation.

The dissolved ²²⁶Ra activity in the seawater (C_{Ra-226}) ranged from 2.01 to 4.86 Bq m³ with a mean of 3.17 Bq m³ at the time series station. The supported flux in ²²²Rn from the dissolved ²²⁶Ra is as follows:

$$F_{Ra-226} = \lambda_{Rn-222} \times C_{Ra-226} \times h \tag{6}$$

where λ_{Rn-222} is the decay constant of ²²²Rn (0.181 day⁻¹). The F_{Ra-226} ranged from 0.09 to 0.16 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹ during the time series observations.

The ²²²Rn diffusive flux from seabed sediments was estimated using equation (2a). According to the sediment equilibration experiments, the mean porosity of the seabed sediments is 0.35, and the mean activity of ²²²Rn in the pore water is estimated to be 7600 \pm 4060 Bq m⁻³. Thus, the ²²²Rn diffusive flux from the seabed sediments ranged from 0.90 to 0.91 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹.

Furthermore, as a very important source, the ²²²Rn fluxes from SGD are calculated in section 4.2 based on the ²²²Rn mass balance model.

4.1.2. The Major Outputs of ²²²Rn From the Maowei Sea

The variations in the inventory of ²²²Rn (Δ F) in the seawater over each time interval (Δ t) were calculated with the following equation (Zhang et al., 2016):

$$\Delta F = \frac{l_{t+\Delta t} - l_t}{\Delta t}$$
(7)

where I is defined as the product of ²²²Rn activity in the water (C_{wv} Bq m⁻³) and the water depth (h, m). Thus, we determined that the Δ F ranged from -232 to 203 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹ during the time series observations. The positive values indicate an increase in ²²²Rn inventory during the time series observation, whereas the negative values reflect a decreasing ²²²Rn inventory.

Based on equation (5b), the F_{out} ranged from 4.9 to 52.8 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹ during the time series observation.

As a slightly soluble gas in water, ²²²Rn always exchanges across the air-water interface when the ²²²Rn in the two phases is in equilibrium, as follows:

$$C_w = \alpha C_{air}$$
 (8a)

where C_{air} is the activity of ²²²Rn in the air (Bq m⁻³); α is the partition coefficient, and C_w is the seawater activity of ²²²Rn, which were mentioned in equations (1) and (5b), respectively. When $C_w > \alpha C_{air}$, the

diffusive flux of ²²²Rn from the water to the air is more than the diffusive flux of ²²²Rn from the air to the water. Then, the seawater ²²²Rn will escape to the atmosphere, and the atmospheric evasion flux can be calculated as follows (MacIntyre et al., 1995):

$$F_{atm} = k(C_w - \alpha C_{air})$$
(8b)

where k is the gas transfer velocity. The gas transfer velocity can be determined with an experimental equation, as follows (Lambert & Burnett, 2003; MacIntyre et al., 1995):

$$k_{600} = \begin{cases} 0.45u^{1.6} \left(\frac{S_c}{600}\right)^{-0.5} (u > 3.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}) \\ 0.45u^{1.6} \left(\frac{S_c}{600}\right)^{-0.6667} (u \le 3.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}) \end{cases}$$
(8c)

where k_{600} is the gas transfer velocity normalized to the Schmidt number of CO₂ at 20°C in freshwater (cm h⁻¹); u is the wind speed (m s⁻¹); S_c (Schmidt number) is the ratio of the kinematic viscosity to the molecular diffusion coefficient (Pilson, 1998); and the kinematic viscosity is the ratio of the absolute viscosity to the density of the water (Zhang et al., 2016).

During the monitoring periods, the wind speed changed from 2.5 and 5.8 m s⁻¹. Based on the above equations, the atmospheric evasion flux for 222 Rn ranged from 0.68 to 8.07 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹.

Based on the decay equation, the flux of decay loss for 222 Rn (F_{dec}) was calculated by the following equation:

$$F_{dec} = \lambda_{Rn-222} \times \left[C_{w} \times (1 - e^{-\lambda_{Rn-222}\Delta t}) \right] \times h$$
(9)

From this equation, we obtained that the F_{dec} ranged from 6.9 \times 10⁻³ to 3.6 \times 10⁻² Bq m⁻² h⁻¹.

The net ²²²Rn flux (F_{net}) represents the observed fluxes of ²²²Rn into the coastal water column with all necessary corrections (such as tidal effects, ²²⁶Ra support, decay loss of ²²²Rn, sediment diffusion, and atmospheric evasion) except for losses via mixing with lower activity waters offshore. Figure 6 shows the temporal variations of the net flux of ²²²Rn with a histogram after correction, where the cyan line represents the mixing loss. Therefore, the net ²²²Rn flux is described as (Zhang et al., 2016):

$$F_{net} = \Delta F - F_{riv} - F_{in} - F_{Ra-226} - F_{sed} + F_{out} + F_{atm} + F_{dec}$$
(10)

The net ²²²Rn fluxes should maintain a balance between the SGD supply and mixing loss, and the fluxes ranged from -246 to 258 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹ during the time series observation. Since the conservative estimates of the mixing loss provide estimations of the minimum SGD flux, we selected the maximum negative net ²²²Rn fluxes (-246 to -1.75 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹) as the mixing loss fluxes. The mixing losses ranged from 1.75 to 246 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹ during the time series observation.



4.2. SGD and Its Derived Nutrient Fluxes Into the Maowei Sea 4.2.1. SGD Into the Maowei Sea

According to the ²²²Rn mass balance model, the net ²²²Rn flux is a balance between SGD and mixing loss into the open sea. Thus, SGD-derived ²²²Rn fluxes (F_{SGD}) were obtained as follows:

$$F_{SGD} = F_{net} + F_{mix}$$
(11)

As mentioned in section 4.1, we selected the maximum negative net 222 Rn fluxes as the mixing loss fluxes. Therefore, the SGD-derived 222 Rn fluxes ranged from 0 to 260 Bq m $^{-2}$ h $^{-1}$ during the time series observation. Here the zero fluxes are the results of using the maximum negative net 222 Rn fluxes as a conservative estimate of mixing loss.

The mass balance of 222 Rn in the Maowei Sea is shown in Figure 7. In terms of the 222 Rn sources, the SGD input, influx during flood tides, river input, sediment diffusion, and ingrowth of dissolved 226 Ra accounted for 86%, 11%, 2%, 1%, and 0.1% of the 222 Rn sources,

Figure 6. Net ²²²Rn flux (rectangles) and mixing loss of ²²²Rn (cyan line) versus time based on continuous ²²²Rn observation at the TS station.



Figure 7. The ²²²Rn sources (+) and sinks (-) (all in Bq m⁻² h⁻¹) during June 2016 in the Maowei Sea (here the SGD input is a conservative estimate and the others are mean values).

respectively. The ²²²Rn sinks, including the mixing loss with offshore waters, outflux during ebb tide, atmospheric evasion, and decay loss of ²²²Rn accounted for 70%, 26%, 4%, and 0.02% of the ²²²Rn sinks, respectively.

The SGD-derived ²²²Rn fluxes were estimated by multiplying the SGD rate by the ²²²Rn activity in the groundwater end-members. Commonly, the selection of an appropriate end-member is the main source of uncertainty in SGD estimates (Burnett et al., 2008; Cerdà-Domènech et al., 2017; Cho & Kim, 2016). Thus, the option of groundwater end-members is very important for estimating the SGD-derived nutrients. In the present study, the ²²²Rn activities in the well water varied widely, ranging from 1,790 to 38,100 Bq m⁻³, and the ²²²Rn activities in the pore water ranged from 1,930 to 6,310 Bq m⁻³. The large variability of the ²²²Rn activity in the groundwater along the coast of the Maowei Sea is likely associated with the distance from

the coastal line, sampling depth, heterogenic geological matrix, and highly dynamic aquifer system. Generally, many previous studies selected the well water or pore water near the shore as the groundwater endmembers (e.g., Hwang et al., 2016; Peterson et al., 2009; Santos et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2017). Here we selected the well water samples that were collected from the shallow water wells closest to the coastal line (the maximum distance from the coastal line is approximately 200 m) and the pore water samples as the groundwater end-members (such as G3, G4, G11, G14, G16, P1, P2, and P3). If it is assumed that these stations represent the ²²²Rn activity in groundwater in only the point-source of groundwater discharge (Peterson et al., 2009), the mean ²²²Rn activity in the groundwater end-members can be estimated to be $5,100 \pm 3,490$ Bq m⁻³. Based on equation (4), the SGD rate in the Maowei Sea was calculated to be 0-1.22 m d⁻¹ with a mean of 0.36 ± 0.33 m d⁻¹. Thus, the SGD flux in the Maowei Sea was 4.9×10^7 m³ d⁻¹. The SGD is the mixture of terrestrial fresh groundwater and recirculated seawater and is not only freshwater discharge. In many cases, the percentage of recirculated seawater is greater than 85% (e.g., Liu et al., 2017; Santos et al., 2009; Taniguchi et al., 2005; X. Wang et al., 2015).

The total SGD flux in each specific subterranean estuary is driven by different forces (e.g., tides, waves, freshwater gradients, density gradients, and seasons; Michael et al., 2011). Table 2 summarizes the typical SGD fluxes into bays in different regions around the world, which shows that the SGD rate in the Maowei Sea is within the range of SGD rates in bay systems around the world. The SGD fluxes in these bay systems may be influenced by precipitation, tidal range, etc. The input of rainwater into the highly permeable aquifers could increase the discharge of terrestrial fresh groundwater into coastal bay systems. During this process, terrestrial hydraulic gradients play important roles in the discharge of terrestrial fresh groundwater (Wang & Du, 2016). Because SGD includes both terrestrial fresh groundwater and recirculated seawater, the increase in local precipitation will increase the SGD flux in each subterranean estuary. For example, the tidal ranges of the bays along the Chinese coasts are approximately the same and vary from 0.9 to 1.1 m (Table 2; i.e., G. Wang et al., 2014; Tse & Jiao, 2008; Wang et al., 2017; X. L. Wang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016). We found that the SGD rates are positively correlated with the local precipitation in these bay systems (r = 0.58, p > 0.05). It appears that precipitation may affect the SGD in some subterranean estuaries. For example, the SGD flux in the Jiulong River estuary (China) in the summer (rainy season) was significantly higher than that in other seasons, which indicates that the SGD flux rapidly responds to precipitation (G. Z. Wang et al., 2015). The impacts of tidal ranges and aquifer recharge on the hydraulic gradient have been extensively reported (e.g., Bokuniewicz et al., 2008; Gonneea et al., 2013; Michael et al., 2011; Moore & Wilson, 2005). The SGD rates were found to be higher at low tides than high tides in many bays (e.g., Bokuniewicz et al., 2008; Tse & Jiao, 2008; Wang & Du, 2016; Zhang et al., 2016). However, the interaction between SGD and tides was nonlinear, indicating that a higher tidal range could drive the recirculation of seawater into the coastal sediments at much wider temporal and spatial scales. This physical process could also cause a hydraulic gradient that could drive coastal pore water (including recirculated seawater and terrestrial fresh groundwater) into the seawater of the bay systems (Bokuniewicz et al., 2008). As a physical force, the tidal range is relevant to the determination of freshwater-seawater mixing in most coastal areas. However, the tidal influences are diverse in different coastal aquifer systems (Cerdà-Domènech et al., 2017; Charette,

A Comparison of the SGD Rates, the Local Precipitation, and Tidal Ranges for Bay Systems Worldwide

Study area		SGD rate (cm d^{-1})	Precipitation (mm yr ⁻¹)	Tidal range (m)	Reference
North America					
Indian River Lagoon, FL,	USA	1–12	1,110–1,300	0.02-0.05	Cable et al. (2006)
Florida Coastal Lagoon,	USA	3–20	1,230–1,340	0.1	Cable et al. (2004)
Waquoit Bay, USA		2.3	1,260 ^a	1.1	Michael et al. (2011); Gonneea et al. (2013) ^a
South America					
Patos Lagoon, Brazil		0.54		0.5	Niencheski et al. (2007)
Patos Lagoon coastal zo	ne, Brazil	0.54–2.2		0.5 ^b	King (2012); Niencheski et al. (2007) ^b
Mangueira Lagoon, sout	hern Brazil	25	696		Santos et al. (2008)
Flamengo Bay, Brazil Europe		5–400	1,200	0.7–1.2	Bokuniewicz et al. (2008)
, Marn Menor, Spain		0.08-3.86	300	0.02-0.03	Baudron et al. (2015)
Lesina Lagoon, Italy		1.76	840	0.05	Rapaglia et al. (2012)
Venice Lagoon, Italy		2.8–16.6	332.7	1	Ferrarin et al. (2008)
		6.0-8.2		0.3-1.2	Rapaglia et al. (2010)
North Venice, Italy		0.71-4.29	766.4	0.65	Garcia-Solsona et al. (2008)
Southern Venice, Italy		0.75-2.45	532.4	0.8	Gattacceca et al. (2011)
Bay of Puck, Southern Ba Oceania	altic Sea	0.3–2.2	560		Szymczycha et al. (2012)
Queensland, Australia	Welsby	3.4	1,420	1.3 ^b	Sadat-Noori et al. (2016);
	South Welsby	7.3	1,420	1.3 ^b	Knight et al. (2008) ^b
	Mermaid	2.6	1,420	1.3 ^b	
North Creek, Australia		48.9–64.5	1,800		Atkins et al. (2013)
Rarotonga, Australia		16.7	2,100	0.56	Cyronak et al. (2014)
Heron Island, Australia		29.7	1,028	2.1	
Korogoro creek, Australi Asia	a	24–68	1,490		Sadat-Noori et al. (2015)
Eastern Laizhou Bay, Chi	ina	6.93	630	0.9	Zhang et al. (2016)
Sanggou Bay, China	1–14	816.24ª	1.1	X. L. Wang et al. (2014); ^a Wang (2017)	
Sanya Bay, China	25-44	1,417	0.94	G. Wang et al. (2014)	
Daya Bay, China	28.2-30.9	1,700	0.9	Wang et al. (2017)	
Tolo Harbour, Hong Kon	7.8–63	2,214	0.97	Tse and Jiao (2008)	
Xiangshan Bay, China	23–69	1,500	3.18	Wu et al. (2013)	
Bangdu Bay, Korea	33–49	1,900		Hwang et al. (2005)	
Western India		5-280	3,000		Rahaman and Singh (2012)
Maowei Sea		36 ± 33	2,140	2.5	This study

^aThe references supply only precipitation in the relevant study areas. ^bThe references supply only the tidal range in the relevant study areas.

2007; Kim & Hwang, 2002; Michael et al., 2003); they play minor roles in microtidal environments such as the Mediterranean Sea (Cerdà-Domènech et al., 2017; Garcia-Solsona et al., 2010), the Baltic Sea (Szymczycha et al., 2012), and the Caribbean Sea (Gonneea et al., 2014). However, these microtidal coastal aquifers are highly influenced by precipitation (Cerdà-Domènech et al., 2017). Because the Maowei Sea is characterized by a larger tidal range (2.5 m) and higher precipitation (2,140 mm; Tian et al., 2014), the SGD flux in the Maowei Sea may be mainly controlled both by the tide and precipitation. Many other factors (e.g., seasonal sea level changes (Moore, 2010), seabed topography (Konikow et al., 2013), and water-sediment regulation (Xia et al., 2016)) could also influence the SGD, and they deserve further study.

4.2.2. Groundwater-Borne Nutrients in the Maowei Sea

The groundwater-borne nutrient fluxes into the bay were estimated by multiplying the SGD rates by the nutrient concentrations in the groundwater end-members. In this study, the concentrations of DIN, DIP, and DSi (μ mol L⁻¹) in the groundwater (well water and pore water) had wide ranges of 2.8–1,040, 0–26, and 109–672 (n = 19), respectively. The nutrient concentrations in groundwater are variable and depend on the soil and aquifer characteristics, aquifer permeability, groundwater recharge rate and climate (Slomp & Van Cappellen, 2004). In addition, anthropogenic activities (e.g., fertilizer use and sewage discharge) are also

one of the most important sources of nutrients in groundwater. To avoid overestimating the nutrient fluxes from SGD, we selected the well water samples that were collected from the shallow water wells closest to the coastal line (the maximum distance from the coastal line was approximately 200 m) and the pore water samples as the groundwater end-members of the nutrients (such as G3, G4, G11, G14, G16, P1, P2, and P3), which were 24.3–262, 0–4.78, and 109–309 μ mol L⁻¹ for DIN, DIP, and DSi, respectively. In the present study, the TS station is close to the open sea, and the SGD rate is commonly smaller at TS station. If the SGD rate at the TS station is assumed to be conservative and representative of the entire Maowei Sea, the SGD-derived nutrient fluxes (mol d⁻¹) into the Maowei Sea would be equivalent to (1.2–13) × 10⁶ (mean: (4.5 ± 5.5) × 10⁶), (0–2.3) × 10⁵ (mean: (5.3 ± 9.1) × 10⁴), and (5.3–15) × 10⁶ (mean: (9.4 ± 9.3) × 10⁶) for DIN, DIP, and DSi, respectively.

The river nutrient fluxes were estimated by multiplying the river discharge by the nutrient concentrations in the river water. The DIN, DIP, and DSi input fluxes (mol d^{-1}) from the rivers around the coast of the Maowei Sea were $(2.3 \pm 0.7) \times 10^6$, $(6.0 \pm 5.1) \times 10^4$, and $(2.6 \pm 0.1) \times 10^6$, respectively. The SGD-derived nutrients (i.e., DIN, DIP and DSi) were at least 1.9, 0.9, and 3.6 times the local river input in June in the Maowei Sea. In many cases, the fluxes of SGD-derived nutrients are also larger than the fluxes from the local rivers, as was observed in Sanggou Bay, China (X. L. Wang et al., 2014), Eastern Laizhou Bay, China (Zhang et al., 2016), and Maalaea and Kuau, USA (Bishop et al., 2015). The nutrient fluxes from atmospheric wet deposition (mol d^{-1}) were estimated by $C_{rain}PS$, where C_{rain} , P and S were the nutrient concentrations of rainwater, the monthly rainfall (the rainfall was 385.1 mm in June 2016 in the Maowei Sea; http://www.gxwater.gov.cn/Web/report/ YL_LntqCompare.aspx) and the area of the Maowei Sea, respectively. Therefore, the nutrient fluxes from atmospheric wet deposition (mol d⁻¹) were (10 \pm 5) \times 10⁴, (3.7 \pm 3.7) \times 10², and (3.6 \pm 1.1) \times 10³ for DIN, DIP, and DSi, respectively. Here the nutrient fluxes from atmospheric dry deposition (mol d^{-1}) were the mean values along the coast of China (Bi, 2006; Chen et al., 2010; Han, 2013; Zhu, 2011; Zou et al., 2011), which were $(3.0 \pm 1.2) \times 10^4$, $(2.4 \pm 2.8) \times 10^2$, and $(7.4 \pm 2.8) \times 10^2$ for DIN, DIP, and DSi, respectively. Compared to the atmospheric deposition, the nutrient fluxes from SGD were 2–3 orders of magnitude higher than those from atmospheric deposition. It is obvious that SGD-derived nutrients are an important pathway for nutrients into estuaries and along coastlines.

4.3. Nutrient Budgets in the Maowei Sea

The Maowei Sea is the largest oyster growing area with the largest mangrove forest of China (Wu et al., 2014). Approximately 1.84×10^8 kg yr⁻¹ of oysters are produced in the Maowei Sea (statistical data from the Fisheries Technology Extension Station in Qinzhou City: Web Interface, http://qinzhou0675.11467.com/). The inputs of DIN and DIP include SGD input, river inputs, atmospheric deposition, sewage outfalls, sediment diffusion and aquaculture. The removals of DIN and DIP include mixing losses, aquaculture harvests, organic debris deposition, and mangrove absorption and primary productivity.

4.3.1. DIN and DIP Sources in the Maowei Sea

The DIN and DIP fluxes in the Maowei Sea from SGD, rivers and atmospheric deposition in June 2016 are shown in Table 3. The DIN and DIP fluxes from sewage outfalls into the Maowei Sea were reported to be 3.9 $\times 10^7$ and 2.8 $\times 10^6$ mol month⁻¹, respectively (statistical data from the Guangxi Marine Environmental Monitoring Center: Web Interface, http://www.beihai.gov.cn/3650/intro.htm). The DIN and DIP fluxes from aquaculture wastewater into the Maowei Sea were reported to be 3.1 $\times 10^6$ and 2.2 $\times 10^5$ mol month⁻¹, respectively (Long et al., 2012). The DIN flux (DIN_{SED}) and DIP flux (DIP_{SED}) from sediment diffusion can be estimated using the following equation (Wu, 2005):

$$DIN_{SED} = R_{SED_DIN} \times exp(K_{SED_DIN} \times T) \times S$$
(12a)

$$DIP_{SED} = R_{SED_DIP} \times exp(K_{SED_DIP} \times T) \times S$$
(12b)

where $R_{SED_{DIN}}$ (41.1 mmol m⁻² month⁻¹) and $R_{SED_{DIP}}$ (0.6 mmol m⁻² month⁻¹) are the diffusion rates from the sediment for DIN and DIP, respectively. $K_{SED_{DIN}}$ (0.04°C⁻¹) and $K_{SED_{DIP}}$ (0.04°C⁻¹) are the temperature coefficients. T (°C) and S (m²) are the temperature and area of the Maowei Sea, respectively. The DIN and DIP fluxes from the sediments were 1.9×10^7 and 2.8×10^5 mol month⁻¹, respectively.

4.3.2. DIN and DIP Sinks in the Maowei Sea

The Maowei Sea has a mangrove area of 23 km² (Zhao, 2011). According to the mean monthly absorption of DIN and DIP per square meter of mangrove (Lin, 1989), the absorptions of DIN and DIP by mangroves were 2.9×10^6 and 1.4×10^5 mol month⁻¹ in the Maowei Sea, respectively, and these values were based

The DIN and DIP Budgets During June 2016 in the Maowei Sea

Sources and sinks	DIN flux (mol month ⁻¹)	Percentage to total DIN sources/sinks (%)	DIP flux (mol month ⁻¹)	Percentage to total DIP sources/sinks (%)
Sources				
SGD input	$1.3 imes10^{8}$	50.2	$1.6 imes10^6$	23.6
River input	$6.9 imes 10^7$	25.7	$1.8 imes10^{6}$	26.7
Sewage outfall	$3.9 imes10^7$	14.4	$2.8 imes10^6$	42.0
Diffusion from sediment	$1.9 imes10^7$	7.1	$2.8 imes10^5$	4.1
Aquaculture	$3.1 imes10^{6}$	1.1	$2.2 imes10^5$	3.3
Atmospheric deposition	$3.9 imes10^6$	1.5	$1.8 imes10^4$	0.3
Sinks				
Mixing loss	$8.8 imes10^7$	32.7	$2.0 imes10^{6}$	30.1
Absorption by primary productivity	$3.4 imes10^7$	12.8	$2.1 imes10^{6}$	32.0
Organic debris deposition	$6.3 imes10^{6}$	2.3	$5.4 imes10^4$	0.8
Mangrove absorption	$2.9 imes10^{6}$	1.1	$1.4 imes10^{5}$	2.0
Harvest from aquaculture	$1.4 imes10^{8}$	51.1	$2.3 imes10^{6}$	35.0

on the area of mangroves and the mean monthly absorption of DIN and DIP per square meter of mangrove. The primary productivity was 671.3 mg (C) m⁻² d⁻¹ in the summer in this region (Yang et al., 2015). According to the Redfield ratio (C:N:P of 106:16:1), we calculated that the absorptions of DIN and DIP by primary productivity were 3.4×10^7 and 2.1×10^6 mol month⁻¹ in the Maowei Sea, respectively. The deposition rates of dissolved organic nutrients mainly depend on the abundance of phytoplankton. Although there is no report on the deposition rate of organic debris in the Maowei Sea, the abundance of phytoplankton in the summer is approximately 10^7 cells L⁻¹ (Wei & He, 2008), which is the same magnitude in Sanggou Bay (Wang et al., 2008). The deposition rate of organic debris in a bay with similar aquaculture practices (Sanggou Bay) in China was 4.7×10^{-2} mol month⁻¹ m⁻² for DIN and 4.0×10^{-4} mol month⁻¹ m⁻² for DIP (X. L. Wang et al., 2014). Therefore, we used this value to calculate that the DIN and DIP fluxes from the deposition of organic debris were 6.3×10^6 and 5.4×10^4 mol month⁻¹ in the Maowei Sea, respectively. Furthermore, the mixing losses of DIN (E_{DIN_OUT}) and DIP (E_{DIP_OUT}) with offshore water outside the bay can be determined using the following equations (Wu, 2005):

$$E_{DIN_OUT} = (DIN - DIN_{OUT}) \times S \times H/T_{f}$$
(13a)

$$E_{DIP_OUT} = (DIP - DIP_{OUT}) \times S \times H/T_{f}$$
(13b)

where DIN and DIP are the concentrations of DIN and DIP in the Maowei Sea. DIN_{OUT} and DIP_{OUT} are the concentrations of DIN and DIP in the offshore water outside the bay. H is the mean depth of the Maowei Sea. The mean flushing time, T_{fr} was calculated by the classical tidal prism method (Dai Dyer & Taylor, 1973; Sanford et al., 1992). Based on equations (13a) and (13b), the mixing losses of DIN and DIP were 8.8×10^7 and 2.0×10^6 mol month⁻¹, respectively.

Given the values above, the DIN and DIP budgets for the Maowei Sea can be constructed based on a box model (Gordon et al., 1996; Wang & Du, 2016), which has been widely used to construct the DIN and DIP budgets in estuarine and coastal ecosystems (Liu et al., 2009; Wang & Du, 2016; X. L. Wang et al., 2014). Assuming that the systems were in a steady state, the DIN and DIP sources and sinks were estimated. According to this box model for nutrients, the DIN and DIP fluxes from aquaculture harvest were estimated to be 1.4×10^8 and 2.3×10^6 mol month⁻¹, respectively. All of the sources and sinks of DIN and DIP in the Maowei Sea are shown in Table 3. Based on the DIN and DIP budgets in the Maowei Sea, we found that the DIN and DIP removals from aquaculture harvest accounted for 51% and 35% of the total removals in the Maowei Sea, respectively (Table 3). To avoid overestimating the DIN and DIP fluxes from aquaculture harvest, the conservative DIN and DIP fluxes from SGD were selected in this study to calculate the DIN and DIP fluxes from aquaculture harvest.

4.4. Eco-Environmental Impacts of SGD-Derived Nutrients in the Maowei Sea

Previous studies have evaluated the eutrophication in the Maowei Sea, and the origins of the eutrophication processes were attributed to the nutrient inputs from rivers (Lan & Peng, 2011; Yang et al., 2012).

SGD Rates and SGD-Derived Nutrient Fluxes From Previous Studies for Bay Systems Worldwide

		SGD rate	DIN flux	DIP flux	DSi flux	
Study area	Tracer	$(10^{-2} \text{ m d}^{-1})$	$(10^{-3} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$	$(10^{-5} \text{ mol } \text{m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$	$(10^{-4} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$	References
Bangdu Bay, Korea	²²² Rn and ^{224,226} Ra	33–49	21	16	460	Hwang et al. (2005)
Tampa Bay, USA	²²² Rn and ^{223,224,226,228} Ra	0.22–1.5 ^a	0.13-0.87	1.9–14	8.7-60	Swarzenski et al. (2007)
Tolo Harbour, Hong Kong	²²² Rn	7.8–63	12-25	27–55	18–37	Tse and Jiao (2008)
Concepcion Bay, Mexico	²²² Rn	0.4-43.9	1.6	na ^b	na	Santos et al. (2011)
Jiaozhou Bay, China	²²² Rn	6.38-8.29	0.128-0.132	16	0.42-0.47	Guo et al. (2013)
Xiangshan Bay, China	²²² Rn	23-69	230-680	120-360	32	Wu et al. (2013)
Sarasota Bay, USA	²²² Rn	0.7-24	2.1-8.3	40-250	na	Mwashote et al. (2013)
Sanggou Bay, China	^{223,224,226,228} Ra	13–14	18–21	6.3-7.5	9.6–11	X. L. Wang et al. (2014)
Jiulong River Estuary, China	²²⁶ Ra	3.7–20	12–68	0.63-3.4	200-1,100	G. Z. Wang et al. (2015)
Obama Bay, Japan	²²² Rn	0.61	0.54	2.1	5.6	Sugimoto et al. (2016)
Laoye Lagoon, China	^{223,224,226,228} Ra	9.4	3.3	89	14,000	Wang and Du (2016)
Xiaohai Lagoon, China	^{223,224,226,228} Ra	4.1	36	190	5,800	Wang and Du (2016)
Geoje Bay, Korea	²²² Rn	5.0	2.0	3.0	59	Hwang et al. (2016)
Eastern Laizhou Bay, China	²²² Rn	6.93	13	na	na	Zhang et al. (2016)
La Paz Bay, Mexico	²²² Rn	10–18	2–52	4–94	70–1,640	Urquidi-Gaume
						et al. (2016)
Maowei Sea, China	²²² Rn	36 ± 33	33 ± 41	39 ± 67	695 ± 688	This study

^aBold and italic font represent the maximum and minimum SGD rates or nutrient fluxes, respectively. ^bNot available in the studies.

However, the results from the present work indicate that the SGD-derived nutrients (i.e., DIN, DIP, and DSi) were at least 1.9, 0.9, and 3.6 times greater than the river inputs, respectively. Table 3 indicates that the mass balance estimations suggest that SGD-derived nutrients are other dominant sources in the Maowei Sea. This result means that the nutrient contributions to water eutrophication in the Maowei Sea should be reevaluated, and the nutrients derived from the SGD should receive more attention in the Maowei Sea. In the coastal ecosystems of other bay systems worldwide (Table 4), the SGD-derived DIN, DIP and DSi fluxes ranged from (0.13 to 68) $\times 10^{-3}$, (0.63 to 250) $\times 10^{-5}$, and (0.42 to 13,900) $\times 10^{-4}$ mol m⁻² d⁻¹, respectively. Compared to these regions, the SGD-derived nutrient fluxes to the Maowei Sea were (33 ± 41) $\times 10^{-3}$, (39 ± 67) $\times 10^{-5}$, and (695 ± 688) $\times 10^{-4}$ for DIN, DIP, and DSi, respectively, which are within the ranges of the high input levels.

Significant increases of nitrogen and phosphorus loading into the bay could result in increases in the phytoplankton biomass (Hagy et al., 2004; Harding et al., 2015) or ecosystem impairments, such as the depletion of dissolved oxygen (Hagy et al., 2004; McCoy et al., 2011), red tide outbreaks (Hu et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2010; Luo & Jiao, 2016), adverse human health conditions (Townsend et al., 2003), and eutrophication (Hwang et al., 2005) as well as impacts to global nutrient cycling (Galloway et al., 2008; Slomp & Van Cappellen, 2004). In this study, we observed that the N/P ratios in the groundwater around the Maowei Sea were high (mean: 64; Table 5). This phenomenon has also been observed in other bay systems, including ratios of 43 observed in Daya Bay (China), 78 in Hampyeong Bay (Korea), 134 in Bangdu Bay (Korea), and 191 in Xiangshan Bay (China; Hwang et al., 2005; Waska & Kim, 2011; Wang et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2013). In the Maowei Sea, the mean N/P ratios were 45 in the surface seawater and 28 in the river

Table 5

The Nutrients and N/P Ratios in Groundwater, River Water, Surface Seawater, and the Seawater Column (108°33'22"E, 21°45'18"N) at Different Depths in the Maowei Sea

Туре		DIN	DIP	N/P ratio	DSi
Groundwater (n = 19)		224	3.5	64	219
River water $(n = 3)$		98	3.5	28	132
Seawater (surface, $n = 10$)		53	1.2	45	84
Seawater column ($n = 1$)	Water depth: 0.5 m	56	1.3	42	81
	Water depth: 4 m	52	1.4	37	60
	Water depth: 8 m	45	1.3	34	56

water (i.e., the Maolingjiang River and Qinjiang River; Table 5). In the water column, the N/P ratios were 42, 37, and 34 at the water depths of 0.5 m (surface layer), 4 m (middle layer), and 8 m (bottom layer), respectively (Table 5). Although the N/P ratios in the bottom layer were lower than those in the surface and middle layers, all N/P ratios in the seawater column were obviously higher than those in the river water. That is, the N/P ratios followed an order of groundwater > seawater > river water. This result clearly reflects that the seawater N/P ratios were the result of the mixing between riverine inputs (low N/P ratios) and SGD (high N/P ratios). Since the N/P ratio is often used to evaluate the potential limitations of primary production, high N/P ratios in the groundwater could force the primary production conditions to change from N-limitation to P-limitation; thus, affecting the ecology (Lapointe et al., 1990; Slomp & Van Cappellen, 2004; Su et al., 2011) and changing the microalgal community composition (Lee et al., 2010; Su et al., 2011) of the coastal waters. Thus, we suggest that the high nutrient levels and N/P ratios in the SGD around the Maowei Sea likely exceed the limits that would allow for environmental self-purification. This condition would strongly affect this coastal ecosystem by changing the biomass and community structure of the phytoplankton, such as by gradually intensifying eutrophication events and increasing the occurrence of red tide outbreaks.

Furthermore, the N/P ratios in oysters were reported to vary from 57 to 76, with an average of 67 (Niu, 2014), which is very close to the N/P ratios (64) in the SGD in the Maowei Sea. At the same time, the nutrient budgets in the Maowei Sea exhibited DIN and DIP removals during aquaculture harvest and these removals accounted for 51% (1.4 \times 10⁸ mol month⁻¹) and 35% (2.3 \times 10⁶ mol month⁻¹) of the total DIN and DIP removals in the Maowei Sea, respectively (Table 3). Based on the estimated DIN and DIP removals from oyster aquaculture harvest, the N/P ratio of the removal from oyster aquaculture harvest was estimated to be 61, which was within the range of the N/P ratios (57-76) in oysters. In addition, the results in the present work indicate that the SGD-derived DIN and DIP were at least 1.9 and 0.9 times the local river inputs, respectively. Thus, we inferred that the SGD-derived nutrients with high N/P ratios could support oyster aquaculture in the Maowei Sea. At the same time, the harvest of oyster aquaculture can remove a large of amount of nutrients, especially DIN. A number of studies have also suggested that SGD-derived nutrients are very important and can support the production of oyster farming (e.g., Hwang et al., 2010, 2016). These observations indicate that high-density oyster aquaculture seems to lighten the burden of water eutrophication in the Maowei Sea. Nevertheless, more intensive studies are needed to prove the direct relationship between SGD and oyster aquaculture in the future, especially for the N/P ratio of SGD and N/P ratio in oysters. Therefore, it is urgent and important to strengthen environmental protection and rationally manage aquaculture, especially for oyster growth.

5. Conclusions

The Maowei Sea is a highly productive oyster aquaculture farm that is based in the Beibu Gulf. The Maowei Sea has become one of most important economic development regions in the Beibu Gulf because of its fruitful resources and strategic location. However, the marine ecological environment in the region is deteriorating due to rapid industrialization and urbanization. In this study, the SGD and nutrient fluxes into the Maowei Sea were estimated for the first time via continuous ²²²Rn monitoring. We can draw the following conclusions:

- 1. The SGD rate in the Maowei Sea was estimated to be 0.36 ± 0.33 m d⁻¹ in June 2016. The estimated nutrient fluxes (mol d⁻¹) via SGD were (1.2–13) × 10⁶ (mean: (4.5 ± 5.5) × 10⁶), (0–2.3) × 10⁵ (mean: (5.3 ± 9.1) × 10⁴), and (5.3–15) × 10⁶ (mean: (9.4 ± 9.3) × 10⁶) for DIN, DIP, and DSi, respectively, which were more than 1.9, 0.9, and 3.6 times the fluxes from the local river inputs.
- 2. The high nutrient levels and N/P ratios of SGD in the Maowei Sea likely exceeded the values that would allow for environmental self-purification, which may lead to increases in the biomass and the phytoplankton community structure. These processes could affect the biogeochemical cycles and marine ecological environment in the Maowei Sea.
- Oyster aquaculture removes a large of amount of nutrients, especially DIN, from the Maowei Sea, and appropriate aquaculture practices can mitigate the environmental harm caused by the high N/P ratios in SGD.

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