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1 **Editorial:**

2 **Coastal Aquifers: Scientific Advances in the face of Global Environmental Challenges**

3

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10 **Introduction**

11

12 Coastal aquifers embody the subsurface transition between terrestrial and marine systems, and form
13 the almost invisible pathway for tremendous volumes of freshwater that flow to the ocean. Changing
14 conditions of the earth's landscapes and oceans can disrupt the fragile natural equilibrium between
15 fresh and saltwater that exists in coastal zones. Among these, over-abstraction of groundwater is
16 considered the leading man-made cause of seawater intrusion. Moreover, many of the world's largest
17 urban settings, where sources of contamination are profuse, have been built over the freshwater in
18 coastal aquifers. Thus, coastal aquifers are important receptors of human impacts to water on Earth
19 (Michael et al., 2017). This Special Issue on 'Investigation and Management of Coastal Aquifers'
20 contains current scientific advances on the topic, dealing with the storage and quality of water,
21 affected by stressors ranging in scale from point source contamination to global climate change.

22

23 At the time of preparation of this Special Issue, the world appears to be in a transformative phase of
24 human history. An unprecedented number of refugees flee nationwide conflicts, and acts of terrorism
25 are on the rise and instil fear across the globe. New administrations challenge existing governance,
26 international collaboration structures, and sometimes the scientific foundations underpinning strategies
27 for addressing contemporary global challenges. In the meantime, and perhaps less noticeable, the
28 global population continues to grow, and as millions rise out of poverty, consumption levels soar

29 worldwide. In many places, food is available in abundance and with enormous variety, thanks to the
30 global trade of agricultural products, facilitated by trade agreements and high-tech supply chains. Yet
31 at the same time, millions suffer from malnutrition, or face the threat of starvation in regions suffering
32 from drought, war, and/or economic mismanagement. The year 2016 saw the rising of the atmospheric
33 CO₂ concentration above 400 ppm, and was the hottest year since systematic temperature
34 measurements began. Worries are mounting over the effects on sea level of accelerating ice sheet
35 disintegration, and the Great Barrier Reef is experiencing alarming levels of coral bleaching. And yet,
36 despite the overwhelming scientific consensus about human-induced global warming, and the signing
37 of the historical Paris climate treaty in 2015, some governments remain reluctant or even opposed to
38 reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

39

40 The impacts of these global events and developments are amplified in coastal zones, where population
41 densities are highest and where landscape and oceanic changes act in combination. Original coastal
42 landscapes have become unrecognizable in merely a few decades due to the rise of coastal mega-cities,
43 mass tourism, fisheries, harbors, land reclamation, land drainage, coastline protection, and agriculture.
44 The growing demand for natural resources and urban space requirements has severe environmental
45 consequences, to the detriment of precious ecosystems. These stresses, coupled with poor waste
46 management, have led to the degradation of coastal surface and subsurface water bodies.

47

48 The problems in coastal areas of the 21st century are part of a complex global web of migration, trade
49 and environmental fluxes. The accelerated rise of sea level is just one example of an environmental
50 problem caused at a much larger scale than the coastal water management jurisdictions it will be
51 affecting. The global food trade makes that the demand for products in one area can lead to water
52 problems in another, which can be thousands of kilometres away. Fears over terrorism focuses tourist
53 streams to regions being perceived as safe, leading, for example, to record numbers of people visiting
54 Spain in 2016, a country whose coastal zones were already suffering from water shortages in summer.

55

56 Additionally, continental runoff that discharges within coastal zones represents the culmination of
57 processes over significant distances and timescales, and thus coastal freshwater commonly reflects the
58 integration of impacts to surface and subsurface catchments. On top of this, freshwater reserves in
59 coastal areas are particularly vulnerable because of the risk of seawater intrusion, and this requires
60 special forms of water management. The advances of coastal hydrogeology since its inception as a
61 scientific specialization around the end of the 19th century have provided much of the underpinnings
62 that allow sustainable management. Nevertheless, critical challenges remain. This Special Issue brings
63 together a group of 17 papers that provide a sample of the latest scientific advances within the field.

64

65 **Overview of research**

66

67 We categorised the articles into three different categories: (i) research of the fresh-saltwater interface,
68 (ii) natural disasters, and (iii) management and measurement.

69

70 *Research of the fresh-saltwater interface*

71 Werner (2017) proposes three categories for the classification of seawater intrusion: active, passive
72 and passive-active. Parameter combinations are offered to distinguish the transitions from one form to
73 another, and the key characteristics of each type of seawater intrusion (SWI) is described based on the
74 results from numerical simulations. Active seawater intrusion, which arises when the coastal
75 groundwater hydraulic gradient slopes downwards in the inland direction, is the subject of further
76 investigation by Badaruddin et al. (2017). They used numerical modelling to provide the first
77 systematic characterization of active seawater intrusion. Sensitivity analyses highlight the influence of
78 the main hydrogeological parameters on the rate of active SWI, the mixing zone thickness and slope,
79 and SWI response time-scales.

80

81 Walther et al (2017) investigate the effect of the representation of the sea-side boundary slope on
82 numerical model results of variable-density flow in a coastal aquifer. The seaside slope has stronger
83 influence on seawater intrusion, submarine groundwater discharge and residence times in aquifers with

84 higher freshwater discharge or dispersion coefficients. The additional effort to implement a sloped sea-
85 side boundary may thus have a significant impact for assessing coastal water resources with computer
86 models, and its influence may be of a similar magnitude as that of other common uncertainties in
87 numerical modelling.

88

89 Bakker et al (2017) present an update to a previous analytical solution for estimating the offshore
90 extent of fresh groundwater in leaky aquifers beneath the sea. The new solution offers a wider choice
91 of onshore boundary conditions and aquifer types relative to the original formulae. Python scripts are
92 provided for solving the complex mathematics to encourage wider application of the method.

93

94 Levanon et al. (2017) measured the fluctuation of salinity and groundwater level in a coastal aquifer in
95 Israel. They find that the time lag of groundwater salinity with respect to the tide in the open sea is on
96 the same order as the time lag of the water table, but much larger than of the hydraulic head at the
97 same depth. They link the change in salinity to the displacement of water in the capillary fringe, which
98 causes a vertical shift of the water column in the saturated zone.

99

100 *Natural disasters*

101 Gingerich et al. (2017) use data and modelling to investigate the recovery to potable water quality of
102 the groundwater supply on the atoll island of Guam after a flooding event. They focus in particular on
103 the effect of recharge conditions and on management scenarios following ocean overtopping. Artificial
104 recharge of rainwater is found to be an effective measure to shorten the recovery period. Using a
105 similar combination of data and modelling, Post and Houben (2017) investigate a case of seawater
106 inundation on the island of Baltrum (Germany) following a storm event. The salt flux rates were
107 estimated, along with salinization and freshening mechanisms. Density-driven flow is shown to
108 dominate the overall system behaviour, and unlike Gingerich et al. (2017), it is found that the recharge
109 conditions are of secondary importance only.

110

111 Kovacs et al. (2017) report on four years of groundwater level and salinity measurements from cave
112 systems on the Yucatan Peninsula. These are interpreted in the context of climatic drivers and primary
113 controlling factors. Freshwater-seawater mixing is influenced by the scale of precipitation events, with
114 larger storms inducing turbulent mixing. While the tidal signal appears stronger during wet rather than
115 dry periods, tidal pumping effects are suppressed during very large rainfall events. Coutino et al.
116 (2017) also studied Yucatan Peninsula cave systems. They conducted field measurements, laboratory
117 experiments and numerical modelling to explore mixing processes in relation to open sinkholes, and
118 the subsequent propagation of the freshwater-seawater mixture into surrounding cave passages. The
119 mixing that accompanied severe meteorological events (hurricanes) led to unstable salinity
120 stratification for several months. The results indicate that most freshwater-seawater mixing occurs
121 within the open cenotes, rather than within the aquifer system.

122

123 *Management and measurement*

124 Regional mapping of SWI vulnerability was undertaken by Klassen and Allen (2017) for bedrock
125 island aquifers in British Columbia, considering climate-change related hazards, pumping well
126 distributions, and chemical indicators of SWI. The risk was considered a combination of SWI
127 vulnerability and losses accompanying SWI, where economic loss was based on the cost to replace the
128 water supply and on agricultural impacts. Financial and ecological risk were found to be significantly
129 different.

130

131 Goebel et al. (2017) conducted geo-electrical measurements along a 40 km stretch of the Monterey
132 coast and obtained resistivity data up to a depth of nearly 300 m. They interpret the data in terms of
133 groundwater salinity, and provide explanations for the observed variability using known information
134 about geology, groundwater abstraction and recharge. In a similar study, but on a smaller scale, Pauw
135 et al. (2017) used cone penetration test (CPT) data to establish the presence of freshwater in a confined
136 aquifer at the low water line in the intertidal area along the western coast of the Netherlands. The
137 CPTs provide high-resolution vertical data that show the close link between lithological variability and
138 variations in salinity, which illustrates the potential of this technology in studies of beach hydrology

139 elsewhere. Freshwater in the confined aquifer is confirmed at all measurement locations, and its
140 offshore continuation is assessed using the analytical model of Bakker (2006).

141

142 Tal et al. (2017) provide an assessment of the effect of fish ponds on the chemical composition of
143 groundwater along the Mediterranean coast in Israel. Besides conventional hydrochemical tools, they
144 use organic matter fluorescence measurements to trace the water emanating from the ponds. The
145 nutrient load to the sea is found to be suppressed by nitrogen reduction by organic matter degradation.
146 Also focusing on nutrients, Wang et al. (2017) studied the groundwater discharge to Daya Bay, China
147 using the radon mass balance method. To increase the accuracy of their estimates, they measured time
148 series and considered the influence of mixing, atmospheric losses, and sediment and tidal transport.
149 The authors conclude that the influx of nutrients may be higher via subsurface than via surface water
150 pathways, which has important consequences for the ecological management of the bay.

151

152 Geng et al. (2017) used a numerical reactive transport model to test the influence of various
153 parameters on the degradation of benzene in a synthetic, tidally-dominated aquifer. They find that
154 there can be significant degradation of the benzene via aerobic processes in the unsaturated zone if the
155 capillary fringe is larger. The tidal range was particularly important to the residence time and spatial
156 distribution of the benzene plume, and a higher hydraulic conductivity exerted a key control on the
157 rate of benzene degradation.

158

159 The results and interpretations of field measurements from coastal dune freshwater lenses in Northern
160 Italy highlights the impacts of anthropogenic activities (Cozzolino et al., 2017). Comparison of the
161 hydrochemical characteristics of natural and human-impacted lenses shows that lenses are growing in
162 undisturbed sites, while those in areas of fragmented dunes are affected by salinization processes.
163 Replacement of the natural vegetation by pine forest has led to a reduction in recharge and a
164 concomitant decrease of freshwater storage.

165

166

167 Werner et al. (2017) review the available literature to summarise the key processes, investigative
168 techniques and management approaches relevant to atoll island aquifers. The review concludes that the
169 freshwater lenses of atoll islands are particularly challenging to characterise, due to their dynamic
170 nature and often limited available field measurements. Nevertheless, a handful of intensive atoll island
171 investigations, continued over several decades, reveals important insights into freshwater-seawater
172 mixing processes. Difficulties in reconciling field measurements and numerical models, even for well-
173 studied sites, highlights persistent challenges for predicting the future behaviour of atoll island
174 aquifers under increasing threats of over-use, contamination and climate-change impacts.

175

176 **Summary and outlook**

177

178 To a certain extent, the contributions received for this Special Issue are a reflection of the current
179 themes and concerns of our globalized world outlined in the introduction section. For example, a
180 number of the papers deal with natural disasters, such as the effect of hurricanes and storm surges on
181 freshwater resources (Coutino et al., 2017; Gingerich et al., 2017; Kovacs et al., 2017; Post and
182 Houben, 2017), which is related to the mounting concerns over future sea-level and climate. Also, a
183 number of papers study anthropogenic contamination (Geng et al., 2017; Tal et al., 2017; Wang et al.,
184 2017), and thereby interlink with the ongoing land use changes driven by economic development and
185 food production in coastal areas. The growing interest in the management of island aquifers, which are
186 especially vulnerable to environmental change, is reflected by the papers by Klassen and Allen (2017)
187 and Werner et al. (2017).

188

189 A significant number of the submissions present new field data that show how coastal aquifers
190 respond to forcings, such as recharge events and tides (Coutino et al., 2017; Gingerich et al., 2017;
191 Goebel et al., 2017; Kovacs et al., 2017; Levanon et al., 2017; Pauw et al., 2017; Post and Houben,
192 2017). Such studies are invaluable, because while our understanding of the groundwater processes has
193 advanced considerably, the interplay of multiple processes operating at the same time under the
194 influence of natural heterogeneity, remains challenging to unravel. Yet, scientific understanding of

195 aquifer systems at the field scale and forecasting changes at a decadal timescale is what is required to
196 support water management. And this is perhaps where some of the most significant future challenges
197 lie. For example, the system behaviour under the effects of pumping, which disturbs complex density-
198 dependent flow systems, is exceptionally difficult to measure. Assessment of acceptable levels of
199 pumping from a coastal aquifer, where “adverse” (considering economic, social and ecological
200 elements) impacts are avoided, therefore remains an elusive endeavour that is compounded by
201 changing attitudes towards sustainability. It is often unclear if present management practices are
202 sustainable in the long-term, and it might be that for some coastal aquifers tipping points exist, beyond
203 which the resource becomes damaged past the point of restoration at a timeframe relevant to human
204 water supply.

205

206 The question is not only if we understand the processes in coastal zones well enough to forecast the
207 future threats, but also if we can determine the most appropriate management responses. Groundwater
208 is only a piece of the puzzle of environmental and socio-economic issues in coastal zones (Michael et
209 al., 2017). We notice a general lack of articles that combine social and economic factors with
210 biophysical aspects of coastal settings. Similarly, the interaction between the processes in coastal
211 ecosystems with those in aquifers remains an area worthy of further research attention. Fundamental
212 hydrogeological research remains essential, but when conducted in isolation, will not be enough to
213 address future societal needs under projected climate change impacts and population rise, amongst
214 other global stressors.

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