

Change detection of groundwater level and quality in coastal aquifers of Malabar region in Kerala, India

Abstract

A study was conducted to assess the changes in groundwater level and quality for the period 2005-2020 in the coastal aquifer of the Vatakara-Koyilandy stretch in the Kozhikode district of Kerala. Hydrogeochemical analysis of groundwater quality parameters, irrigation water quality analysis and preparation of spatial variability of groundwater level and salinity were used for the study. The Piper diagram was used to track the change in the hydrochemical parameters of groundwater sources in 2005 and 2020 and identify changes in the chemical facies of the groundwater. The Gibbs diagram was used to identify the source of the dissolved ions present in the groundwater in both years. The United States Salinity Laboratory diagram was used to assess the groundwater's suitability for irrigation. The spatial variation of water table elevation and salinity were compared using the ordinary kriging method of interpolation. An increase in seawater intrusion into the wells and a reduction in irrigation water quality was indicated by the change in the Hydrochemical facies, and the shifting of more groundwater samples in the evaporation dominance zone in the Gibbs plot. The spatial variability of groundwater level indicates a reduction in premonsoon in both years. On the North coast, a 4% increase in the area under groundwater level < 2m. the reduction in the groundwater table on the coast increases the chance of seawater intrusion and thereby increased salinity. Even though the study area receives heavy rainfall during monsoon and recharging of the coastal aquifer, seawater intrusion progressed landward from 2005 to 2020 during the premonsoon and affected the groundwater level and quality over this period.

Keywords: Aquifer characterisation, Hydrochemical analysis, Spatial prediction, Groundwater, Seawater intrusion

1. INTRODUCTION

Groundwater is a dynamic and replenishing natural resource. There has been an increase in groundwater extraction as a result of the sharp rise in demand for agricultural, industrial, and home uses. Both the quantity and quality of groundwater are declining in most of India. The issue appears to be more severe when the land meets the sea, especially coastal aquifers. Unsustainable groundwater extraction brought on by growing urbanisation contributes to ecological and environmental problems such as coastal erosion, ground subsidence, seawater intrusion, and coastal floods. (Michalopoulos and Dimitriou, 2018). Studies of the spatial distribution of groundwater quality and level over time can help identify vulnerable locations and shed light on how the problem's geographic scope varies over time.

Groundwater statistical analysis, spatiotemporal variability of the issue, and the relevance of trends in data with seasonality are all very helpful in identifying changes and predicting projections for the future. Hydrochemical facies, mechanisms

22 governing groundwater chemistry, saltwater intrusion status in agriculture,
23 development of a water quality index, and major cation and anion interpolation are a
24 few frequent analyses to look into the geochemical process, source of contamination,
25 and irrigation suitability of groundwater. Using the Gibbs diagram, it is common
26 practice to thoroughly analyse geochemical processes and the mechanisms that
27 control them.

28 The spatial variability map of groundwater depth and quality indicators for the
29 National Capital Territory of Delhi, India, was created by Dash et al., (2010). The
30 geographic variability of groundwater depth and quality was investigated using
31 ordinary kriging. The semivariogram parameters were found to fit well in both the
32 exponential and spherical models for water depth and water quality parameters.
33 Based on data from 97 wells monitored over 7 years, Arslan, (2012) conducted
34 spatial and temporal assessments of groundwater salinity in Bufra Palin, Turkey.
35 ArcGIS Geostatistical Analyst used an explanatory data analysis, semivariogram
36 model selection, cross-validation, and the generation of a groundwater salinity
37 distribution pattern. Ordinary Kriging (OK) was used to investigate groundwater
38 salinity variations over time, whereas Indicator Kriging (IK) was utilised to investigate
39 groundwater salinity about pollution threshold values. With a total of 123 water
40 samples, including 105 unconfined groundwater samples, Zhang et al., (2012)
41 investigated the hydrogeochemical characteristics of groundwater in the Delingha
42 area, northwest China. Hydrochemical types in groundwater were studied using the
43 Piper diagram. Gibbs diagram was used to identify hydrogeochemical evolution,
44 which involves precipitation, rock weathering, and evaporation–crystallization
45 processes. The findings revealed that groundwater hydrochemistry had a distinct
46 zoning pattern in this location.

47 To determine the suitability of groundwater for irrigation and drinking, a
48 hydrogeochemical analysis was conducted in and around the Veeranam tank region
49 by Sathiamoorthy and Ganesan, (2018). The Sodium Percentage, Wilcox Diagram,
50 Alkalinity and Salinity Hazard, Magnesium Hazard, and Residual Sodium Carbonate
51 are used to determine the irrigation water quality. They categorized the samples
52 according to the Wilcox and USSL classifications. Lanjwani et al., (2021) used ArcGIS
53 10.5 to map the spatial variation of groundwater quality in Larkana of Sindh, Pakistan
54 using the IDW method. The water quality index (WQI) was created to categorise
55 suitability for drinking based on various parameters.

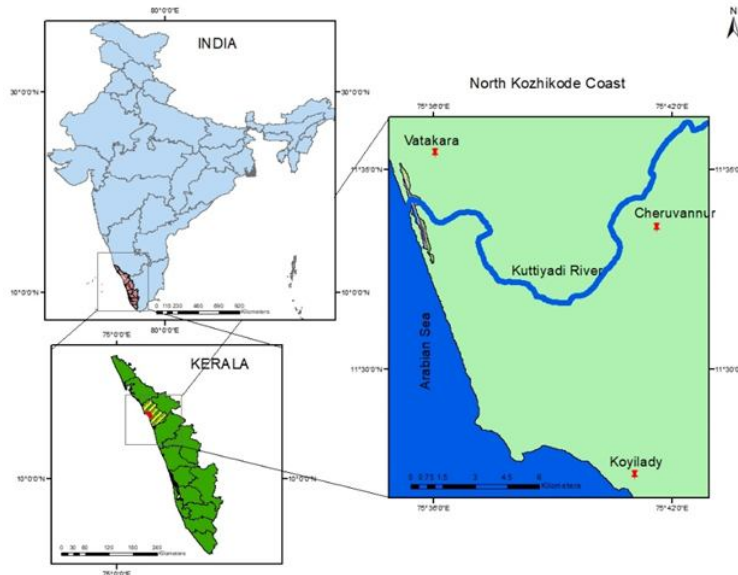
56 The objective of this study is to assess the changes in groundwater level and
57 quality for the period 2005-2020 by analysing the pre- and post-monsoon trends,
58 preparing the spatial prediction maps, studying the hydrochemical types,
59 hydrogeochemical evolution, and preparing the irrigation water quality index.

60 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

61 **2.1 Study Area**

62 The study area is situated in the north part of Kerala's Kozhikode coast, the
63 central part of the Malabar coast in India. The study area lies between 75° 03'-75°
64 02' East longitudes and 11° 02'-11° 06' North latitudes with a total area of 270 km²
65 (Fig.1). the climate of this study area is tropical and humid with an average annual
66 rainfall of 2700 mm out of this, 60 % is received during the South-west monsoon and
67 25% is received during the North-East monsoon. The rest of the rainfall occurs in

68 other seasons. December-January to March-April are the dry months. The study area
69 has a humid tropical climate with an average temperature of 27° C.



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Fig. 1 Study area location map

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2.2 Geology

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The various geological formations in the study area comprise alluvium deposits that are underlain by laterite and sedimentary rocks, mostly charnockites with mafic granulite enclaves. Laterites occur as capping of these rocks which formed as the residue of tropical weathering of crystalline rocks. Groundwater in weathered crystallines is present under unconfined conditions and semi-confined in deep crystalline formations. Groundwater table depth ranges from 0.73 m to 16.11 m below ground level (CGWB, 2013). The well logs of representative wells suggest aquifer consists of three layers namely; the top unconfined layer, an aquitard and a semi-confined aquifer at the bottom.

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2.3 Geomorphology and soil types

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The geomorphology of Kozhikode district can be categorised as a coastal region in the west, midland in the central part and highland in the east. The study area was delineated with elevation within 10 m from MSL extending over the coastal region and midlands. The soil types in the region are coastal alluvial soil in coastal plain and in low-lying areas, riverine alluvial soil along riverbanks, red loam soil and brown hydromorphic soil (KSPCB, 2019; Nair, 1987; Nazimuddin, 1993). The alluvium deposits are underlain by laterite and sedimentary rocks, mostly charnockites with mafic granulite enclaves. The coastal zone is covered by excessively drained to moderately drained sandy deposits, and the alluvium deposits are covered by excessively drained to moderately drained sandy deposits (CGWB, 2013; KSPCB, 2019; Salaj et al., 2018). The soil conditions are ideal for growing coconuts, spices, and plantation crops, and are average for other crops. Coconut, spices, paddy and plantation crops are the most important crops cultivated in the study area.

96 **2.4 Frequency analysis of rainfall**

97 The present study uses 100-year continuous rainfall data acquired from IMD
98 gridded data. The Weibull Plotting position formula was applied to the rainfall data to
99 compute the probability of rainfall's exceedance of rainfall. The probability of
100 exceedance of rainfall is

$$T = \frac{m}{(N + 1)} \quad (1)$$

101 given by,

102 where m is the order or rank and N is the total number of events

103 **2.5 Log-normal distribution**

104 The maximum rainfall for a particular return period was calculated using the
105 log-normal distribution which is a probability distribution of a random variable whose
106 logarithm is normally distributed. The following equation was used to compute the
107 maximum rainfall for a particular return period

$$X_T = X_{av} + k\sigma \quad (2)$$

108 Where X_{av} is the mean value, k is the frequency factor and

109 σ is the standard deviation and N is the sample size and the value of k is

$$\sigma = \left[\frac{\sum(X_i - X_{avg})^2}{N - 1} \right]^{1/2} \quad (3)$$

110 determined considering the coefficient of skewness as zero.

111 **2.6 Hydrogeochemical Analysis**

112 Data on the concentration of major ions such as HCO_3^- , Cl^- , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ ,
113 etc K^+ were used for hydrochemical analysis using the Piper diagram. The trilinear
114 Piper diagram proposed by (Piper, 1944), was applied to plot the concentration of
115 major cations and anions to determine changes that occurred on the chemical facies
116 of the groundwater in 2005 and 2020 to identify the evolution of hydrochemical
117 parameters of groundwater sources in this period. The Trilinear Piper diagram was
118 constructed with the help of Geochemical analyst software version 2015.1.14.

119 Gibb's diagrams are a tool for understanding groundwater chemistry's various
120 mechanisms and processes (Gibbs, 1970). The source of the dissolved ions in the
121 groundwater can be understood by the Gibbs diagram which is a plot of $(\text{Na}^+)/(\text{Na}^+ +$
122 $\text{Ca}^{2+})$ vs TDS and $\text{Cl}^-/(\text{Cl}^- + \text{HCO}_3^-)$ vs TDS. Gibbs diagram was prepared for the
123 years 2005 and 2020 with the help of GRAPHER software.

124 **2.7 Irrigation Water Quality**

125 The United States Salinity Laboratory diagram (USSL diagram) for the suitability of
126 water for agricultural uses was used to determine the suitability of groundwater for
127 irrigation. Sodium percentage determines the ratio of sodium to the total cations viz.,

128 sodium, potassium, calcium and magnesium. The diagram for the years 2005 and
129 2020 were prepared using GRAPHER software.

130 SAR was prepared using the following formulae

$$SAR = \frac{Na^+}{\frac{\sqrt{Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+}}}{2}} \quad (4)$$

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132 Where, the ionic concentrations are expressed in meq/l.

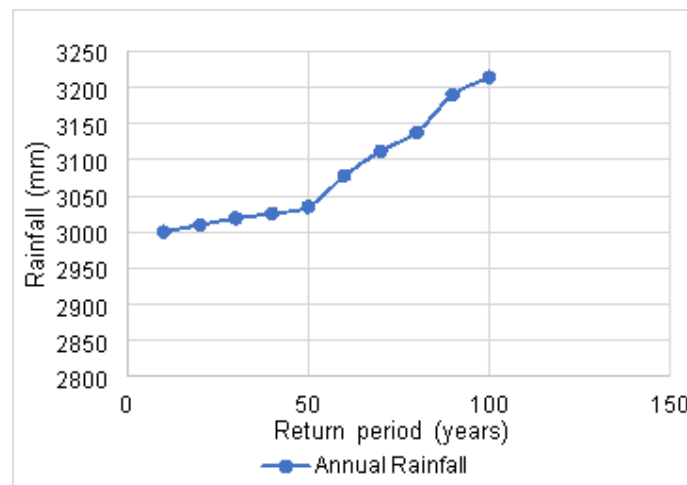
133 2.8 Spatial Variation of Groundwater Level and Salinity

134 Geostatistical tools were used to describe the spatial variability of groundwater levels
135 and salinity. Ordinary kriging was used to plot the spatial variability map of
136 groundwater salinity and levels (Isaaks and Srivastava, 1989).

137 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

138 3.1 Rainfall Extreme Probability Analysis

139 The method of rainfall extreme probability analysis was used to examine the
140 maximum annual rainfall. The maximum rainfall depths for various return periods are
141 presented in Fig. 2, those were calculated using the Plotting Position Formula
142 (Sabarish et al., 2017) and the variation of annual rainfall is presented in Fig. 3.
143 According to the analysis of the annual rainfall for various return periods, the annual
144 rainfall between the 50- and 100-year return periods differs by 180 mm. For the 10-,
145 30-, and 100-year return periods, the annual rainfall values are 3000, 3019, and 3214
146 mm, respectively.

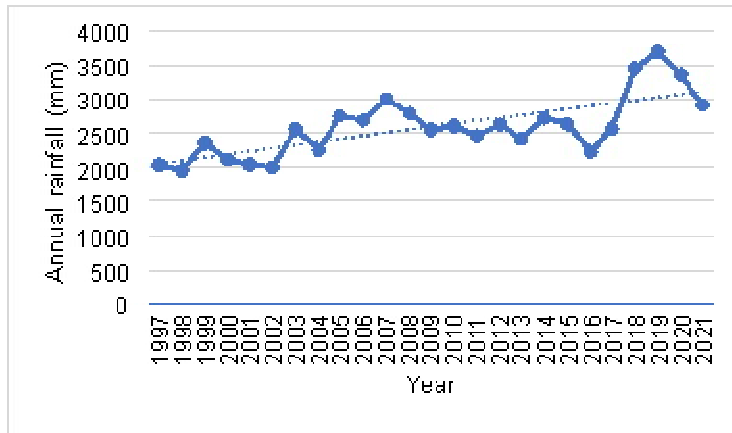


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148 Fig. 2 Maximum annual rainfall Vs Return Period

149 50% of the land in Kerala is hilly or ghat dominated and the west is bounded by
150 the Arabian sea. The results showed that the district is highly vulnerable to heavy
151 rainfall. The heavy rain during the monsoon, or a low-pressure area, and interaction

152 from wind from the sea. Heavy rainfall in the fragile ecosystem with laterite soil will
 153 cause damage to the ecosystem.
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 156 Fig. 3 Variation of annual rainfall during the 15 years

157 **3.2 Statistical summary of groundwater level and salinity**

158 The statistical summary of groundwater level and salinity were given in Table 1. The
 159 minimum groundwater elevation in the study area was -0.23 m in 2005 and reduced
 160 to -0.61 m in 2020. The corresponding EC values were 0.67 dS/m and 0.96 dS/m.
 161 The mean values of EC were 1.96 dS/m in 2005 and 2.61 dS/m in 2020. This
 162 indicates a direct relationship between groundwater salinity with the reduced
 163 groundwater level in the area. The mean value of pH in both years resulted in 7.9.

164 Table 1. Statistical summary of groundwater level and salinity in the study area

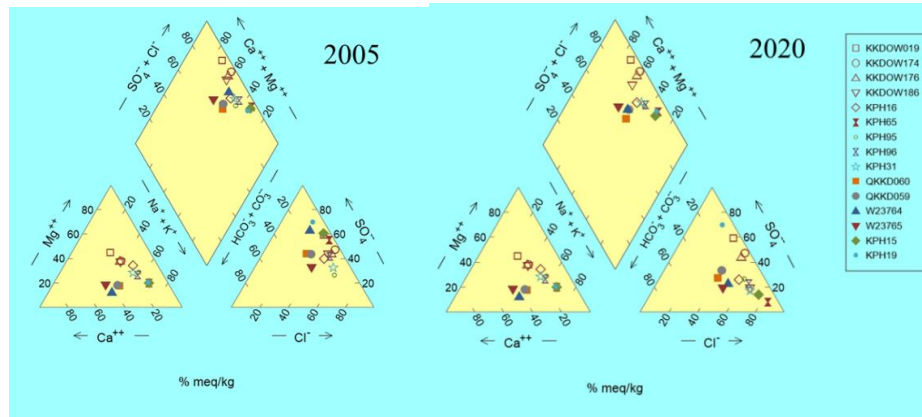
	GW level	TDS	EC	pH
2005				
Minimum	-0.23	0.22	0.67	7.6
Maximum	6.35	2.83	3.18	8.6
Mean	3.73	1.13	1.96	7.9
STDV	1.09	0.48	0.52	0.6
2020				
Minimum	-0.61	0.49	0.96	7.5
Maximum	5.58	2.95	3.96	8.7
Mean	3.01	1.87	2.61	7.9
STDV	1.22	0.47	0.51	0.5

GW level: Groundwater level (m), TDS: Total Dissolved Solids (kg/m³), EC: Electrical conductivity (dS/m)

165 **3.3 Hydrogeochemical analysis**

166 **3.3.1 Piper diagram**

167 The Hill–Piper trilinear diagram (Piper, 1944), consists of triangle and
168 diamond-shaped fields with subdivisions representing the various water types and
169 hydrochemical facies that existed in the aquifer (Ali and Ali, 2018). These
170 hydrogeochemical facies present in the aquifer for the years 2005 and 2020 shed
171 light on the changes that occurred in the geochemical process influencing the
172 groundwater quality in the aquifer (Fig.4).



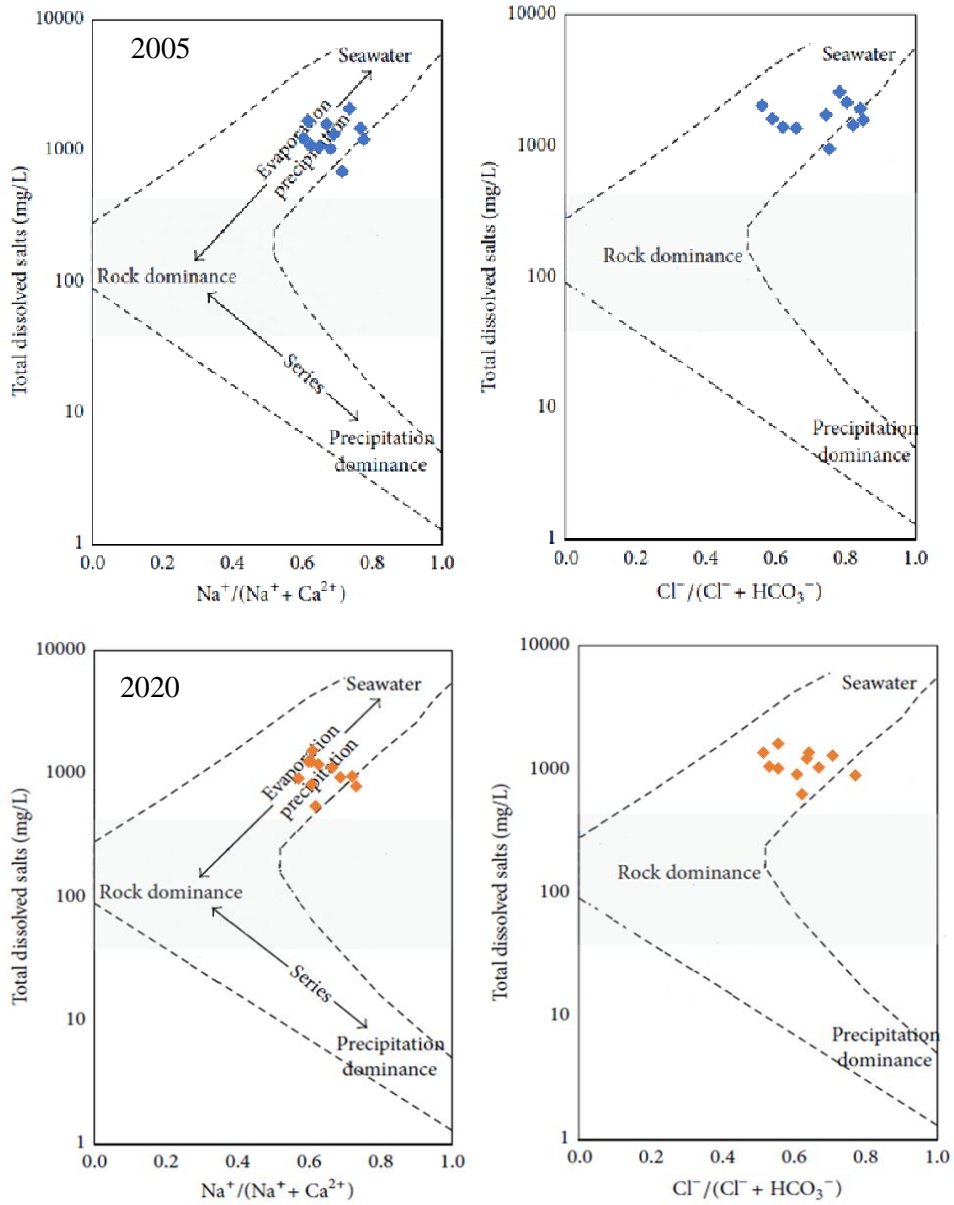
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Fig. 4 Hydrochemical facies in 2005 and 2020

175 From the cationic triangular field of the Piper diagram in 2005, 45% of the
176 samples fall into the no dominant type, conversely, 55% of these groundwater
177 samples fall Sodium or Potassium type. A few samples were under the Ca⁺ dominant
178 type, remaining placed under Na⁺ and K⁺ dominant regions. In the anionic triangular
179 field, 30% of the samples fall into the no-dominant type, and the rest 70 % of the
180 samples are scattered into the chloride type and sulphate type region. In the year
181 2020, the groundwater samples fall in the cationic triangle in a similar pattern as in
182 2005; conversely, most of the samples shifted to chloride type in the anionic triangle.
183 Hydrogeochemical facies in 2020 are Na-Cl followed by Ca-Mg-Cl. This indicated the
184 seawater intrusion in the study area (Alfarrah et al., 2011; Shin et al., 2020).
185 Groundwater samples of no-dominant type were affected by seawater intrusion by
186 2020.

187 **3.3.2 The mechanism governing groundwater chemistry**



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Fig. 5 Gibbs diagram in 2005 and 2020

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The diagram which expressed the mechanism that controls the chemical composition of major dissolved salts in the groundwater was described using the Gibbs Diagram. The chemical data of groundwater from unconfined and semiconfined aquifers were plotted in the diagram (Fig. 5). Most of the aquifer samples, according to Gibb's analysis, were found to be in the evaporation-dominating zone in both the 2005 and 2020 time periods, indicating that evaporation dominance is primarily responsible for the groundwater chemistry in aquifers.

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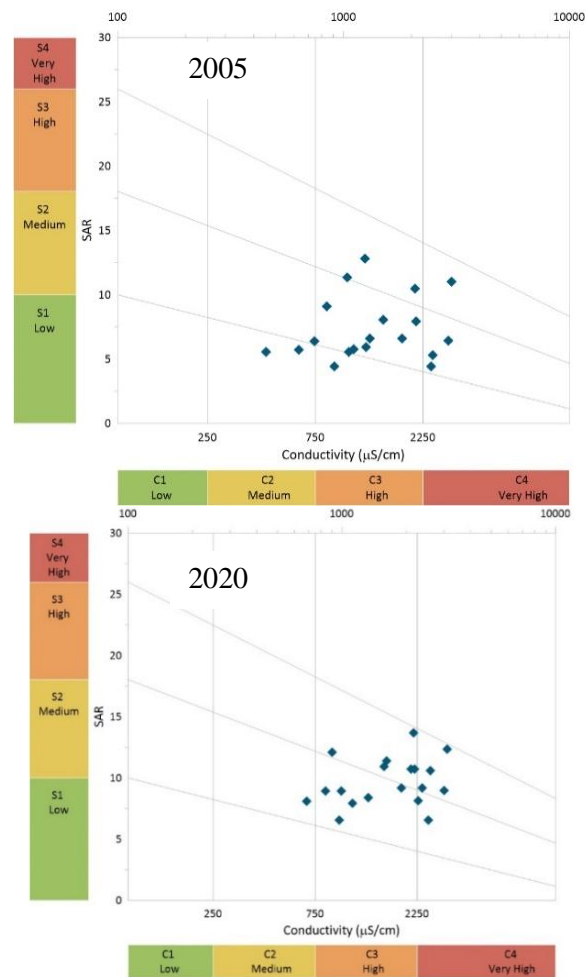
Most of the samples have large quantities of Cl⁻, which suggests that Cl⁻ ions can come from a variety of sources. The distribution of Na⁺ ions is concentrated

200 largely at high proportions, suggesting that all Na⁺ ions are formed from the same
 201 source or by the same geological process(Rao et al., 2017). In the aquifer, saltwater
 202 produces the ions Na⁺ and Cl⁻ and the evaporation dominance on the diagrams
 203 shows seawater intrusion in the aquifer (Lanjwani et al., 2022; Sangadi et al., 2022).

204 3.4 Irrigation water quality

205 United States Salinity Laboratory diagram (USSL diagram) is an approach to
 206 finding the groundwater quality for agriculture purposes, which was applied to realize
 207 the groundwater parameters (Richards, 1954). The results of the USSL diagram (Fig.
 208 6) illustrate that most of the groundwater samples fall in the category of C3S2 (high
 209 salinity with medium sodium followed by C4S2 (very high salinity with medium
 210 sodium). The electrical conductivity ranges from 1.87 to 4.2 dS/cm and SAR values
 211 range from 12 to 18. The result reveals that there is an occurrence of medium
 212 alkalinity and high to very high salinity hazards in the aquifer. The groundwater is not
 213 suitable for irrigation due to the presence of high salinity and little danger of
 214 exchangeable sodium (Ali and Ali, 2018).

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Fig. 6 USSL diagram in 2005 and 2020

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According to the salinity hazard the majority of the samples were identified in the moderate salinity zone in 2005, but just a few samples were identified in this category in 2020. In contrast, the SAR values in 2005 and 2020 indicated that 55% of

221 the samples had low to medium sodium adsorption ratios. Salinity hazard and SAR
 222 estimates were correlated, and the results showed that 65% of the samples were
 223 moderately suitable for agriculture in 2005 and 35% in 2020, whereas 35% of the
 224 samples were deemed unsuitable for agriculture in 2005 and 65% in 2020.

225 3.5 Spatial variability map of groundwater level in the unconfined aquifer

226 One of the spatial interpolation techniques, ordinary kriging, is used to create
 227 the spatial variability maps of water table elevation and salinity that are shown in
 228 Figures 7 to 10. The maps can be used to comprehend the affected areas and rank
 229 them in terms of importance for incorporating various groundwater management
 230 plans into action. Three classes >2m, 2-4m, and >4m were used to define
 231 various groundwater level classes on the spatial maps. Based on the Central
 232 Pollution Control Board's classification, the area was divided into multiple EC classes
 233 (CPCB, 2018).

234 Pre-monsoon groundwater levels in both aquifers in 2005 ranged from -2 m to
 235 3.6 m, and post-monsoon levels ranged from -0.4 m to 5.4 m. In the unconfined and
 236 semiconfined aquifers, a reverse hydraulic gradient is present during both seasons.
 237 This reveals that seawater intrusion has occurred here. In the research region of the
 238 Vadakara stretch, the issue is contained at a 5 km distance from the sea (Northern
 239 coast). The unconfined aquifer's groundwater level fluctuated over this stretch
 240 between -2 m and 0.37 m in the pre-monsoon and -0.43 to 1.2 m in the post-
 241 monsoon. During the pre-monsoon, the area of the semiconfined aquifer's negative
 242 groundwater elevation was 6 km from the sea. In both aquifers, the area covered by
 243 different groundwater elevation classes was listed in Table 2. In the unconfined
 244 aquifer, the area with groundwater elevation of less than 2 m class in 2005 was
 245 24.4% in the pre-monsoon and 18.8% in the post-monsoon; by 2020, it was 28.7%
 246 and 21.5%, respectively. Similar patterns can be seen in the results from
 247 semiconfined aquifers. The recharge in both the aquifers during the monsoon may be
 248 responsible for the increase in groundwater level in the aquifer during post-monsoon.

249 Table 2 The delineated area under different water table elevation ranges

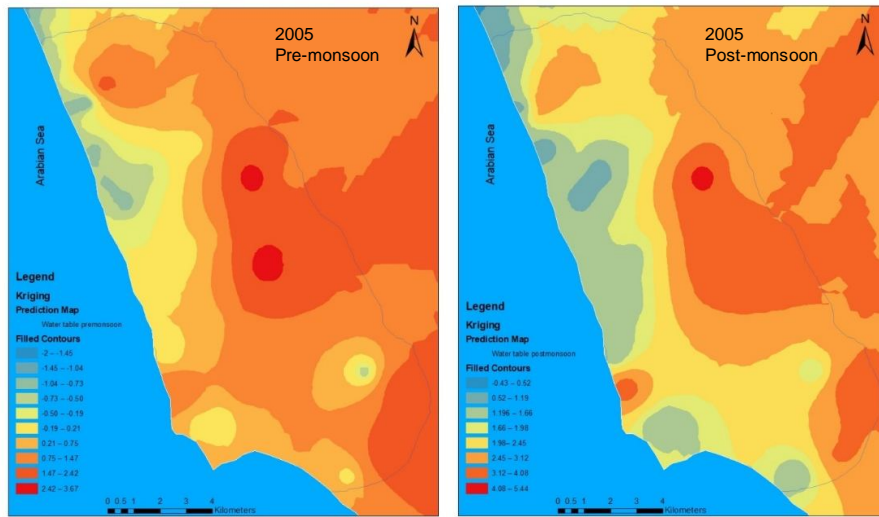
Aquifer	Water table elevation classes (m)	Area (%) 2005		Area (%) 2020	
		Pre-monsoon	Post-monsoon	Pre-monsoon	Post-monsoon
Unconfined	< 2	24.4	18.8	28.7	21.5
	2.0 - 4.0	39.3	51.6	39.1	44.9
	>4.0	36.3	29.6	32.2	33.6
Semiconfined	< 2	29.5	22.7	32.5	30.4
	2.0 - 4.0	38.4	48.8	37.9	44.7
	>4.0	32.1	28.5	29.6	24.9

250 Table 3 Delineated area under different Groundwater EC ranges

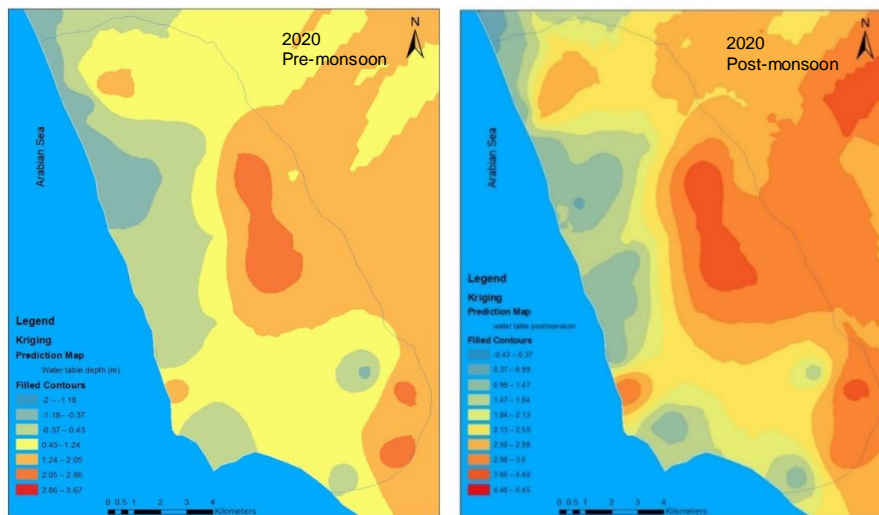
Aquifer	Groundwater EC classes (dS/m)	Area (%) 2005		Area (%) 2020	
		Pre-monsoon	Post-monsoon	Pre-monsoon	Post-monsoon
Unconfined	< 0.75	27	39.5	23.1	31.6
	0.75-2.25	28.2	43.5	31.7	44.5

	2.25-4	26.8	17	20	23.9
	>4.0	18	0	25.2	0
Semiconfined	< 0.75	26.5	41.2	20.1	20.6
	0.75-2.25	25.3	39.6	21.7	45.5
	2.25-4	29.3	19.2	33.6	33.9
	>4.0	18.9	0	24.6	0

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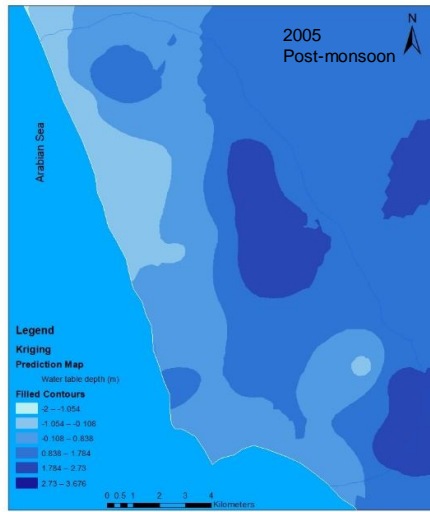
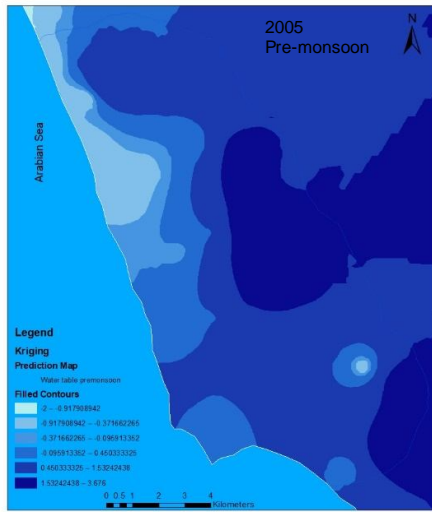
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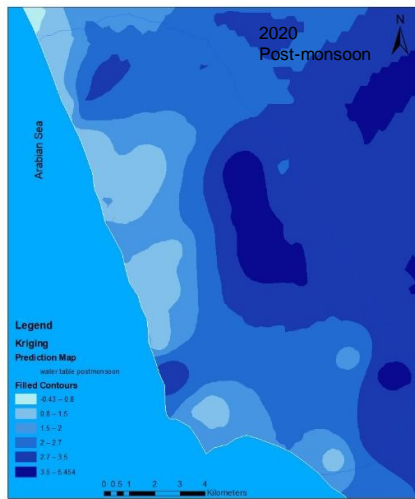
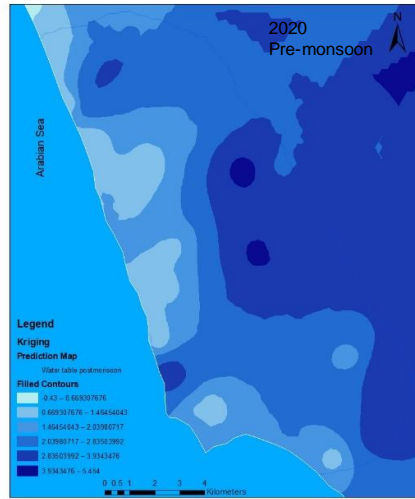
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Fig. 7 Spatial variability map of the water table in the confined aquifer



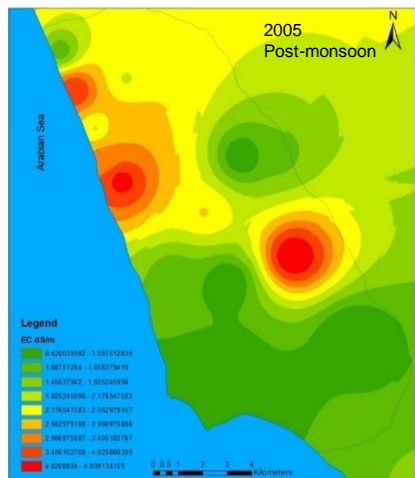
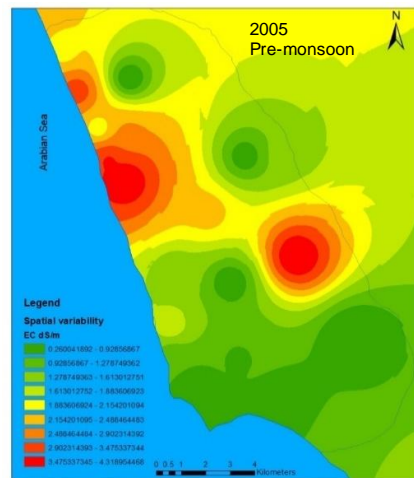
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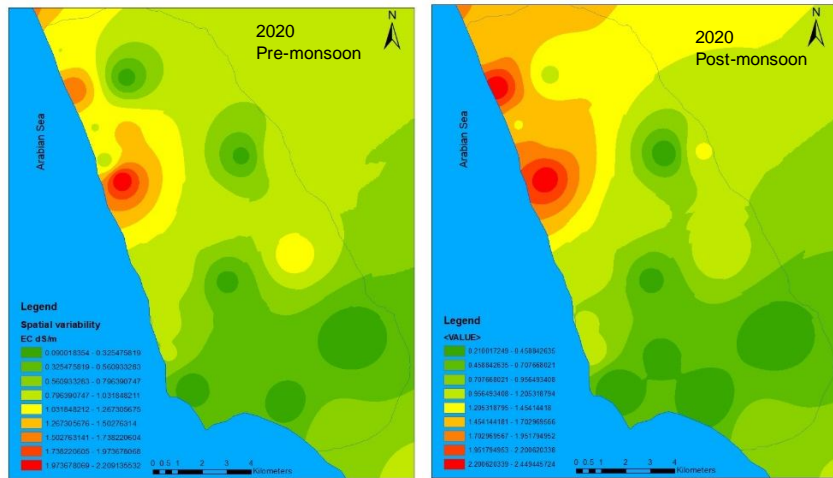
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Fig. 8 Spatial variability map of the water table in the semi-confined aquifer

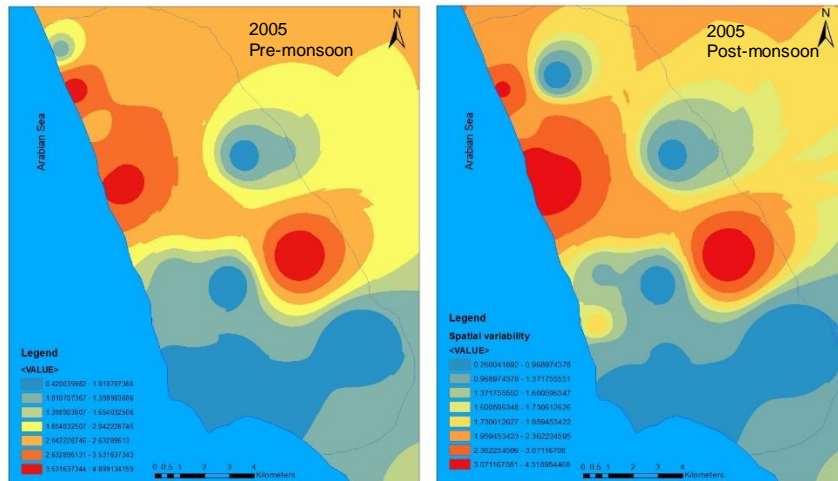


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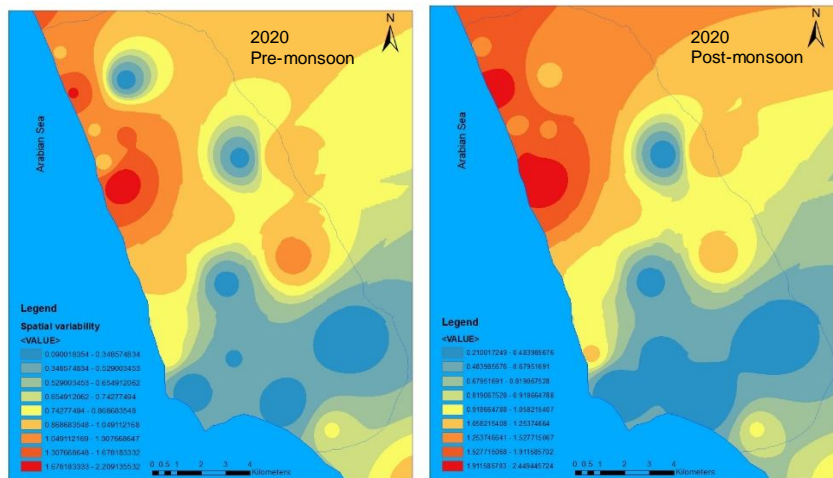


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Fig. 9 Spatial variability map of the EC in the confined aquifer



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Fig. 10 Spatial variability map of the EC in the semi-confined aquifer

265 The spatial variation of salinity (Table 3) reveals that, in 2005, pre-monsoon,
266 the EC of groundwater varies between 0.4 dS/m to 4.9dS/m in both the aquifers and
267 in post-monsoon it varies between -0.2 dS/m to 2.4dS/m. The study area's northern
268 coast shows higher EC than other regions. Along this stretch, the EC variation in the
269 unconfined aquifer was between -2.9 dS/m to 4.8 dS/m in pre-monsoon and 1.5 dS/m
270 to 2.2 dS/m in post-monsoon. Whereas in the semiconfined aquifer it ranges from 2.1
271 dS/m to 4.1 dS/m and in post-monsoon 1.1 dS/m to 2.2 dS/m. The area under
272 various groundwater EC classes in both the aquifers (Table 3) shows that, in 2005,
273 the area under groundwater EC less than 2.25 dS/m class in the unconfined aquifer
274 was 55.2 % in pre-monsoon which increased to 83 % in post-monsoon whereas it
275 was estimated as 54.8% and 76.1 % respectively in 2020. The area under
276 groundwater EC greater than 4 dS/m class in the unconfined aquifer was 18 % in and
277 25.2 % in pre-monsoon in 2005 and 2020 respectively. However, in the post-
278 monsoon, there is no area existing in this class. The recharging in the unconfined
279 aquifer and recharging through the aquitard in the semiconfined aquifer during the
280 monsoon may be responsible for the post-monsoon increase in groundwater quality.
281 This might minimize the aquifer's reverse hydraulic gradient. The percentage of land
282 classified as "unfit for irrigation" increased by 7% over the course of 15 years. The
283 aquifer's declining groundwater level may increase the possibility of salt and
284 freshwater mixing, which could account for the reduction in water quality over time.

285 4. Conclusion

286 The assessment of change in groundwater level and quality in the coastal
287 aquifer of Kozhikode district in Kerala was done based on physical and chemical
288 parameters, hydrogeochemical analysis, and spatial variations in groundwater levels
289 and salinity for the period 2005-2020. Reduction in groundwater level and
290 deterioration of groundwater quality premonsoon season in the study area were
291 identified even though there is an increase in annual rainfall over the period. The
292 change in Hydrochemical facies such as sulphates to chlorides in the anionic triangle
293 and the spatial distribution of groundwater samples in the evaporation dominance
294 zone in Gibbs plots reveal seawater intrusion into the wells. The irrigation water
295 quality of 45 % of the groundwater samples was changed to high to very high salinity
296 hazards in the aquifer during the 15 years. The groundwater level decreased during
297 pre-monsoon thereby the seawater intrusion into the freshwater aquifers reduced the
298 groundwater quality. However, the recharge of the aquifer from the monsoon
299 improves the condition in post-monsoon. The results may be used for planning
300 appropriate management strategies for managing the problem of seawater intrusion
301 during the premonsoon season in this region.

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