**RESEARCH ARTICLE**



# **Groundwater chemistry and health hazard risk valuation of fuoride and nitrate enhanced groundwater from a semi‑urban region of South India**

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Received: 27 August 2022 / Accepted: 9 January 2023 / Published online: 20 January 2023 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2023

## **Abstract**

Evaluation of groundwater chemistry and its related health hazard risk for humans is a prerequisite remedial measure. The semi-urban region in southern India was selected to measure the groundwater quality to know the human health risk valuation for diferent age groups of adults and children through oral intake and skin contact with elevated concentrations of fuoride (F−) and nitrate (NO− <sup>3</sup> ) groundwater. Groundwater samples were collected from the semi-urban region for pre- and postrainfall periods and resolute its major ion chemistry. The pH values showed the water is alkaline to neutral in nature. Total dissolved solid (TDS) ranged from 201 to 3612 mg/l and 154 to 3457 mg/l. However, F− concentration ranges from 0.28 to 5.48 mg/l and 0.21 to 4.43 mg/l; and  $NO_3^-$  ranges from 0.09 to 897.28 mg/l and 0.0 to 606.10 mg/l elevating the drinking water standards of F<sup>−</sup> in 32% and 38% samples and for NO<sub>2</sub><sup>3</sup> about 62% and 38% during pre- and post-rainfall seasons, respectively. The fuoride-bearing minerals are the main sources of elevated concentrations of F− and excessive use of chemical fertilizers as the chief source of  $NO_3^-$  concentration in the aquifer regime. Water quality index (WQI) ranged from 18.3 to 233 and 12.97 to 219.14; 20% and 22% showed poor water quality for pre- and post-rainfall seasons with WQI≥200. Piper plot suggests that 46% and 51% of samples signify carbonate water type  $(Ca^{2+} - HCO_3^-)$ , and 32% and 28% of groundwater samples show  $(Ca^{2+} + Na^+ + HCO_3^-)$  type water for pre- and post-rainfall seasons respectively. Gibbs' plot suggests the dominance of water–rock interaction in the aquifer system. Further, the principal component analysis (PCA) revealed three and four components which explain 74.85% and 79.30% of the variance in pre- and post-rainfall seasons with positive loading of EC, TDS,  $Ca^{2+}$ , Na<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> due to mineral weathering and water–rock interactions altering the chemistry for an elevated concentration of F<sup>−</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub> in groundwater. Cluster analyses of chemical variables observed four clusters with a linkage distance of 5 to 25 with a linkage between diferent variables displaying predominant ion exchange, weathering of silicate and fluoride-rich minerals, salinization of the water, and a high value of NO<sub>3</sub> concentration, resulting from fertilizers. The hazard quotient (HQ) through ingestion (HQ<sub>ing</sub>) and dermal (HQ<sub>der</sub>) pathways of F<sup>−</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> was observed higher than its acceptable limit of 1.0 for diferent age groups indicating the non-carcinogenic efect on human health. Efective strategic measures like defuoridation, denitrifcation, safe drinking water supply, sanitary facilities, and rainwater harvesting structures are to be implemented in the area for improvement of human health conditions and also bring awareness to the local community about the health hazard effects of using high concentrated F<sup>−</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub> water for daily uses.

**Keywords** Water quality index (WQI) · Hazard quotient (HQ) · Human health hazard · Health risk assessment · Principal component analyses (PCA)

Responsible Editor: Xianliang Yi

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## **Introduction**

Groundwater is the prime reserve exploited for drinking and irrigation uses in arid and semi-arid regions of the globe. Most of the domestic water is met from groundwater reserves in urban and rural areas of India (Ali et al. [2019](#page-16-0)). Due to anthropogenic exercises like rapid growth in population, urban development, expansion of industrial areas,

additional fertilizers application in the irrigated feld, meager sewage system, dumping of human and animal waste, and due to geogenic processes, groundwater is getting polluted.

F− and NO− <sup>3</sup> contamination in groundwater is a major concern globally and several studies have been conducted to relate irrigation practices and enrichment of NO− 3 pollution in groundwater regimes (Adimalla et al. [2019;](#page-16-1) Kumar et al. [2019;](#page-17-0) Mas-Pla and Menció [2019](#page-17-1); Pérez Villarreal et al. [2019](#page-17-2); Gao et al. [2020](#page-16-2); Zhang et al. [2020\)](#page-17-3). Similarly, a high fuoride content in groundwater was reported in India (Sudheer Kumar et al. [2017;](#page-17-4) Satyanarayana et al. [2017](#page-17-5); Laxmankumar et al. [2019;](#page-17-6) Adimalla and Li [2019;](#page-16-3) Bera and Ghosh [2019;](#page-16-4) Katla et al. [2021](#page-16-5)). The frst fuoride contamination in water was reported in India in the year 1937 in the Nellore district of Andhra Pradesh. Peoples all over the world suffer from a disease called fluorosis due to the ingestion of elevated concentrations of F− water in the absence of an alternative source (Farooq et al. [2018](#page-16-6); Adimalla et al. [2019](#page-16-1)). About nine districts of Telangana state are sufering from high F<sup>−</sup> content in water (CGWB [2018](#page-16-7)). Telangana state is mostly covered by granitic rock, which mainly consists of F−-bearing minerals and is the major cause of F− occurrence in groundwater (Machender et al. [2014](#page-17-7); Satyanarayana et al. [2017](#page-17-5); Laxman Kumar et al. [2019](#page-17-0); Adimalla et al. [2019\)](#page-16-1).

In recent years,  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  contamination in groundwater became a prominent issue throughout the globe and many investigations carried out by various researchers in India and worldwide to recognize a signifcant relationship between irrigation practices and waste disposal practices for the enhancement of NO− <sup>3</sup> concentration levels in groundwater regime (Pérez Villarreal et al. [2019;](#page-17-2) Adimalla [2020](#page-16-8); Gao et al. [2020;](#page-16-2) Zhang et al. [2020\)](#page-17-3). The studies carried out by Pérez Villarreal et al. ([2019\)](#page-17-2) found that the high  $NO_3^-$  concentration was due to agricultural practices and municipal wastewater fowing in the urban region of Mexico. Zhang et al ([2020](#page-17-3)) observed the spread and cause of  $NO_3^-$  in groundwater of urban regions of China and found that the majority of the aquifers contaminated with NO− <sup>3</sup> concentration were due to leakage of domestic sewage and construction regions. Similarly, groundwater in the middle Gangetic plain of India also reported an elevated concentration of  $\overline{NO_3}$ , and it is controlled by excessive use of fertilizers, livestock activity, and seepage from septic tanks (Kumar et al. [2019](#page-17-0)).

Continuous intake of F− and NO− <sup>3</sup> polluted drinking water causes serious health risks to children and adults. Consequently, health risk assessment studies linked with F− and NO<sub>3</sub> are widely studied in different parts of India (Adimalla and Qian [2019;](#page-16-9) Adimalla et al. [2019,](#page-16-1) [2020;](#page-16-10) Adimalla [2020](#page-16-8); Karunanidhi et al. [2020\)](#page-16-11), and in diferent parts of the world like Iran (Qasemi et al. [2018](#page-17-8); Yousefi et al. [2018\)](#page-17-9), Pakistan (Rehman et al. [2020](#page-17-10)), China (Chen et al. [2017a,](#page-16-12) [b;](#page-16-13) Su et al. [2018](#page-17-11); Gao et al. [2020\)](#page-16-2), and Mexico (Pérez Villarreal et al. [2019\)](#page-17-2) have attention on the non-carcinogenic risk for children

and adults. All these studies found that children are at more risk than adults.

Nowadays, there is a growing concern about groundwater quality and its efects on human well-being (More et al. [2021\)](#page-17-12). The studies related to groundwater chemistry for irrigation purposes, assessment of stream water quality and health risk assessment, sediment contamination of stream water, and water quality evaluation by the biological approach have been demonstrated by using geochemical evaluation and multivariate statistical methods (Ustaoğlu and Tepe [2019](#page-17-13); Ustaoğlu et al. [2020](#page-17-14); Aydin et al. [2021;](#page-16-14) Tasa et al. [2019](#page-17-15); Gugulothu et al. [2022a](#page-16-15)). The United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) has established a model, policies, and guiding principle for the human health risk assessment (HRA) (U.S. EPA [2011](#page-17-16)) to assess and understand the signifcance of human health through diverse pathways. It is broadly accepted by diferent researchers all over the world to defne the adversative effects on human health due to intake of high  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^$ contaminated water (Narsimha and Rajitha [2018;](#page-17-17) Karunanidhi et al. [2020;](#page-16-11) Zango et al. [2019;](#page-17-18) Yuan et al. [2020](#page-17-19)).

The present study area is a part of the semi-urban region of Mulugu and Venkatapur mandals of Warangal District, Telangana State, India. Residents of this area mainly depend upon the groundwater for their daily uses due to the lack of a supply water scheme. Intensive and long-term practices of unlimited usage of chemical fertilizers and animal waste infuence groundwater quality. Further, the sanitary facilities and disposal of household waste have poor conditions in the area. These factors are well-known contaminated sources for elevating the groundwater concentrations levels of F− and NO<sub>3</sub> contents, since there is no research study carried out so far, for the assessment of the sources and origin of inferior groundwater quality in the Mulugu and Venkatapur mandals of Warangal district, Telangana State, India. Therefore, the main aims of the present study are the assessment of (a) the sources and origin of the inferior groundwater quality; (b) to assess the groundwater for drinking suitability using Piper's trilinear diagram, rock–water interaction, and identify the sources and factor controlling the groundwater chemistry by principal component analysis; and (c) health risk problems related to consumption of high  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  groundwater through ingestion and dermal pathways for diferent age groups of people viz., 6 to 12 months, 6 to 11 years, 11 to 16 years, 16 to 18 years, 18 to 21 years,  $\geq$  21 years, and≥65 years by applying the recommended method suggested by the USEPA.

## **Study area and its geology**

The study area belongs to Mulugu and Venkatapur mandals of Warangal district, Telangana State. It is located 50 km away to the northeast of Warangal City and covers a

semi-arid zone and comes under Survey of India Toposheet No. 56 N/15 and 56 N/16 with an extent of 453 sq. km (Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0). The area has a moderate slope from NW to SE direction and NE to SE direction. The temperature gradually rises from 30 to 38 °C during the month of February to May and decreases from 8 to 10 °C during the month of June to December. Rains generally occurred during June to October months and the average annual rainfall is 994 mm. About 80% of the rainfall is contributed from the southwest monsoon. The drainage pattern is dendritic and rectangular in nature controlled by uneven terrain. Groundwater occurs in the soil of weathered granite, semi-weathered, fractured hard rock, and in weathered sedimentary formations under the water table in semi-confned conditions. The average depth of groundwater is about 8–10 m. The granite rocks possess negligible primary porosity, but in sedimentary rock the secondary porosity exits by deep fracturing and weathering, they are rendered with porosity and permeability, which locally form potential aquifers in the study area (CGWB [2018\)](#page-16-7).

Geologically, the study area covers a part of the stable Southern Indian shield consisting of the Peninsular Gneissic Complex (PGC) consisting of gneisses, granite and dolerite dykes, Pakhal group, and Mulugu subgroup. The Mulugu subgroup occupies a major part of the study area and comprises



<span id="page-2-0"></span>

Arkose, shale with dolomite quartzite, shale, quartzite, limestone, and sandstone. In the study area, the Archaean peninsular gneissic complex is unconformably overlain by sedimentary rocks of the Middle Proterozoic age, consisting of the Pakhal group of rocks. The reddish-brown soil cover is a result of well-developed residual of weathered granite. The soil is fairly permeable, and the infltration rate can absorb most of the rain except for more intensive rains, which can cause considerable surface fow and erosion (GSI [1995\)](#page-16-16). The geological map of the study area is shown in Fig. [1.](#page-2-0)

#### **Materials and methods**

<span id="page-3-0"></span>**Fig. 2** Groundwater sample locations in the study area

Shallow dug wells, hand pumps, and deep bore wells were selected to collect the water samples following the standards procedures (APHA [2012](#page-16-17)) during pre- and post-rainfall season and their locations are shown in Fig. [2](#page-3-0). Samples were stored in the laboratory at 4  $\degree$ C and filtered with 0.45  $\mu$  Whatman Filter paper before the analyses. Water samples were analyzed at the laboratory of Centre for Materials for Electronics Technology (C-MET), Hyderabad for physico-chemical (pH, EC, TDS, and

TH), and major ions (cations  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ , Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, and anions Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>, F<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub>, and HCO<sub>3</sub>) chemistry. The pH was measured using the digital pH meter of Elico; EC was estimated by the EC analyzer CM 183 model of ELICO; classical methods of analysis were applied for the estimation of  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ , and Cl<sup>−</sup>. Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> were analyzed by flame photometry using CL-345 flame photometer of ELICO.  $SO_4^{2-}$  was estimated by the turbidity method using the Digital Nephelo-Turbidity meter 132 model of Systronics. NO− <sup>3</sup> was analyzed applying the UV–Vis screen method using the UV–Vis spectrophotometer UV-1201 model of Shimadzu. F− was analyzed by the ion selective electrode method using Orion 290A+model of Thermo-electron Corporation. The TDS were estimated by the summation of cations and anions (epm) method (Hem [1985\)](#page-16-18). The charge balance is calculated between cations and anions and is within acceptable limits confrming the reliability of analytical results with precision of  $\pm 5\%$  for all the samples. The quality of the analysis was ensured by standardization using blank, spike, and duplicate samples. Standard titration method was used for bicarbonates (BIS [2012\)](#page-16-19). The statistical summary of major ion of groundwater samples for pre- and post-rainfall seasons is given in Table [1.](#page-4-0)



#### **Groundwater suitability for drinking**

Water quality index (WQI) is a comprehensive method to prompt the complete quality of drinking water in a single measurement (Subba Rao et al. [2020;](#page-17-20) Wu et al. [2020](#page-17-21)). The frst stage is to determine the relative weight (*Wi* ) of each chemical characteristic based on its relative impact on human health after allocating the unit weight  $(w_i)$  (Eq. [1\)](#page-4-1). The next stage is the calculation of the water quality rating  $(q_i)$ , which is done by dividing the concentration of each chemical parameter  $(C_i)$  by the standard for drinking water quality  $(S_i)$  (Eq. [2\)](#page-4-2). In the third stage, assessment of  $SI_i$ by multiplying  $q_i$  with  $W_i$  to the individual chemical parameter (Eq. [3\)](#page-4-3), and in the fnal stage, we get *WQI* by computation of summation of all  $SI<sub>i</sub>$  of individual samples (Eq. [4](#page-4-4)).

$$
W_i = \frac{w_i}{\sum_{n=1}^n w_i} \tag{1}
$$

$$
q_i + \frac{C_i}{S_i} x 100 \tag{2}
$$

$$
SI_i = q_i X W_i \tag{3}
$$

$$
WQI = \sum_{i=1}^{n} SI_i
$$
 (4)

If the WQI value is  $<$  50, it indicates the excellent quality of water; if it ranges between>50 and<100, it indicates good quality water; if it ranges between  $>100$  and  $<200$ , it indicates poor quality water; if it ranges between  $>200$  and  $<300$ , it indicates very poor-quality water; and if it is>300, it recommends unft water quality for ingestion purpose.

#### **Water facies**

The Piper diagram comprises of cation and anion in two triangle parts and a central diamond-shaped part (Piper [1944\)](#page-17-22). A Piper diagram is used to categories the hydrochemical facies involved in controlling the groundwater chemistry.

#### **Rock–water interaction**

<span id="page-4-1"></span>The rock–water interaction which governs the groundwater chemistry can be better understood by comparing the concentration of TDS versus  $(Na^+ + K^+)/(Na^+ + K^+ + Cl^-)$  and TDS versus Cl<sup>−</sup>/(Cl<sup>−</sup> + HCO<sub>3</sub>) using Gibbs' plots (Gibbs [1970\)](#page-16-20). Gibbs' plot has three major categories viz., precipitation, rock, and evaporation dominance. This plot has been widely used in discriminating groundwater chemistry. Gibbs' ratios were estimated by following equations, where all ionic measurements are in meq/l.

<span id="page-4-3"></span><span id="page-4-2"></span>Gibb's ratio I = 
$$
(Na^+ + K^+)/(Na^+ + K^+ + Ca^{+2})
$$
 (5)

<span id="page-4-4"></span>
$$
Gibb's ratio II = Cl^{-}/(Cl^{-} + HCO_{3^{-}})
$$
\n(6)

#### **Principal component analyses (PCA)**

The principal component analysis (PCA) provides a single resolution and reconstruction of novel outcomes for a large

<span id="page-4-0"></span>**Table 1** Statistical summary of major ions concentrations of groundwater for pre- and post-rainfall seasons

Parameters	Pre-rainfall season						Post-rainfall season							
	Min Max Ave			<b>SD</b>	% of samples exceeding the limits	Min	Max Ave		<b>SD</b>	% of samples exceeding the limits	BIS (2012) Acceptable limit			
pН	6.70	8.10	7.30	0.27		6.80	8.0	7.24	0.26	$\overline{\phantom{0}}$	$6.5 - 8.5$			
EC	314.06	5643.75	1947.97	1460.61		240.63	5401.56	1977.21	1456.30	$\overline{\phantom{m}}$	750			
TDS	201.0	3612.0	1246.70	934.79	84	154.0	3457.0	1265.42	937.78	78	500			
$Ca^{2+}$	28.0	203.57	95.16	45.19	66	3.0	541.35	107.29	81.68	68	75			
$Mg^{2+}$	7.40	127.44	56.53	32.48	42	7.63	193.81	67.17	43.46	54	50			
$Na+$	15.98	534.96	149.42	142.05	24	7.05	476.31	135.33	126.78	32	200			
$K^+$	1.10	85.92	10.61	16.85	20	1.0	103.51	10.47	19.53	16	12			
HCO <sub>3</sub>	124.44	758.84	409.72	132.49	84	43.92	630.0	194.66	128.99	32	300			
$Cl^{-}$	7.81	1667.46	354.67	453.67	38	7.63	1089.20	256.69	274.13	38	250			
$SO_4^{2-}$	0.0	1533.03	162.21	296.92	24	5.18	1200.0	146.34	237.05	22	200			
$NO_3^-$	0.09	897.28	123.65	151.45	62	0.0	606.10	120.30	133.10	64	45			
$F^-$	0.28	5.48	1.18	0.89	32	0.21	4.43	1.35	0.95	30	1.5			

all values are in mg/l except EC and pH; EC unit is µS/cm

*Min*, minimum; *Max*, maximum; *Ave*, average; *SD*, standard deviation

Parameters	Unit	$6-12$ months	$6-11$ years	$11-16$ years	$16-18$ years	$18-21$ years	$\geq$ 21 years	$> 65$ years	
Ingestion pathway									
Ingestion rate $(\mathbb{IR}_{\mathbf{w}})$	L/day	1	1.32	1.82	1.78	2.34	2.94	2.73	
Exposure frequency $(E_{\rm fr})$	Days/year	365	365	365	365	365	365	365	
Exposure duration (ED)	Year	6	6	6	6	30	30	30	
Body Weight (BW)	kg	9.1	29.3	54.2	67.6	67.6	78.8	80	
Average time $(AT_r)$	Days	2190	2190	2190	2190	10,950	10,950	10,950	
Concentration of element $(C_{fav})$	mg/l	Present study							
Dermal pathway	Unit	$6-12$ months	$6-11$ years	$11-16$ years	$16-18$ years	$18-21$ years	$\geq$ 21 years	$> 65$ years	
Skin surface area (SA)	$\text{cm}^2$	4500	10,500	15,700	18,000	19,550	19,800	19,400	
Exposure time (ET)	h/event	0.54	0.54	0.54	0.54	0.71	0.71	0.71	
Exposure frequency $(Ef)$	days/year	350	350	350	350	350	350	350	
Exposure duration (ED)	year	6	6	6	6	30	30	30	
Conversion factor (CF)	1/cm <sup>3</sup>	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	
Body weight (BW)	kg	9.1	29.3	54.2	67.6	67.6	78.8	80	
Average time $(AT_r)$	days	2190	2190	2190	2190	2190	2190	2190	
Skin adherence factor $(K_n)$ cm/h		0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	
Concentration of element $(C_{fw})$	mg/l	Present study							

<span id="page-5-0"></span>Table 2 Key parameters for computing the exposure risk of F<sup>−</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup> through ingestion and dermal pathways

dataset (Li et al. 2019b). The principal components (PCs) were taken out of the varimax rotation of loadings for the extreme variance and eigenvalues. PCA was done by considering all ions and various groups of these ions in terms of PCs which can give information on the geochemical processes as well as the sources and origin of the poorer quality of water.

#### **Health risk assessment**

Hazard quotient (HQ) through ingestion  $(HQ_{\text{ing}})$  and dermal  $(HQ_{der})$  for F<sup>−</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> ions for various age groups were estimated by following the guidelines of the United States Environmental Protection Agency's Exposure Factor Handbook (U.S. EPA [2011](#page-17-16)) for pre- and post-rainfall seasons. Chronic daily dose and hazard quotient of *F*<sup>−</sup> and *NO*<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> via ingestion (HQ<sub>ing</sub>) and dermal  $(HQ<sub>der</sub>)$  pathways are calculated using the below equations:

$$
CDD_{\text{ing}} = \frac{C_{\text{fw}} \times \text{IR}_{\text{w}} \times \text{E}_{\text{fr}} \times \text{ED}}{\text{BW} \times \text{AT}}
$$
(7)

$$
CDD_{der} = \frac{C_{fw} \times ESA \times K \times E_{fr} \times ED \times CF}{BW \times AT}
$$
 (8)

$$
HQ_{ing} = \frac{CDD_{ing}}{RfD}
$$
 (9)

$$
HQ_{der} = \frac{CDD_{der}}{RfD}
$$
 (10)

"CDD<sub>ing</sub> indicates chronic exposure dosage (daily) through ingestion pathway (mg/kg/day), CDD<sub>der</sub> indicates chronic exposure dosage (daily) through the dermal pathway (mg/kg day),  $C_{\text{fw}}$  indicates F<sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub> content in a sample (mg/l),  $E_{\text{fr}}$ indicates rate of exposure (days/years), ED indicates exposure period (years), BW indicates body weight (kg), AT indicates average period (days/years), ESA indicates exposed skin area (cm<sup>2</sup>), *K* indicates skin adherence factor, CF indicates conversion factor (l/cm<sup>3</sup>), and RfD indicates reference quantity of F<sup>−</sup> and NO− <sup>3</sup> (0.06 and 1.6 mg/kg/day)". These parameter values for calculating the risk of F<sup>−</sup> and  $NO_3^-$  through different pathways are presented in Table [2.](#page-5-0)

## **Results and discussion**

#### **Groundwater characteristics**

The pH ranged from 6.70 to 8.10 and 6.80 to 8.0 with an average of 7.30 and 7.24 for the pre- and post-rain-fall seasons, respectively (Table [1](#page-4-0)), which specifies that water is slightly neutral to alkaline in nature. All the water samples are within the permissible limit of drinking standards (BIS [2012](#page-16-19)). TDS ranged from 201 to 3612 mg/l and 154 to 3457 mg/l with a mean value of 1246.70 mg/l and 1265.42 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall seasons respectively (Table [1](#page-4-0)). Around 84% and 78% of the samples exceed the drinking water limit of 500 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall season which causes gastrointestinal irritation (BIS [2012\)](#page-16-19). The spatial distribution map of TDS for both seasons is shown in Fig. [3.](#page-6-0)

#### **Cations**

The  $Ca^{2+}$  content ranged from 28 to 203.57 mg/l and 3.0 to 541.35 mg/l with mean values of 95.16 mg/l and 107.29 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall season (Table [1](#page-4-0)).  $Ca^{2+}$  has a permissible limit of 75 mg/l and about 66% and 68% of the sample from pre- and post-rainfall seasons are exceeding the permissible limit respectively (BIS [2012](#page-16-19)). The main source of  $Ca^{2+}$  in water is mainly because of the deterioration and dissolution of plagioclase feldspar minerals (Marghade et al. [2021\)](#page-17-23). The  $Mg^{2+}$  ranged between 7.40 and127.44 mg/l and 7.63 and 193.81 mg/l with a mean value of 56.53 mg/l and 67.17 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall season, respectively (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Around 42% and 54% of samples exceeded the tolerable limit of 50 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall seasons (BIS [2012\)](#page-16-19).  $Mg^{2+}$  is largely accredited for the dissolution of ferromagnesian minerals like olivine, pyroxene, and biotite, existing in the host rocks, and human-induced actions (Subba Rao  $2021$ ). Na<sup>+</sup> ranged from 15.98 to 534.96 mg/l and 7.05 to 476.31 mg/l with an average of 149.42 mg/l and 135.33 mg/l for pre- and postrainfall season (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Only 24% and 22% of samples show  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  more than the prescribed limit (200 mg/l) for pre- and post-rainfall seasons (BIS [2012\)](#page-16-19). Minerals like plagioclase feldspars in the host rocks, household waste, and irrigation return fow are the prime anthropogenic sources for elevated  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  concentration in water (Subba Rao [2021\)](#page-17-24).  $K^{+}$  ranged from 1.10 to 85.92 mg/l and 1.0 to 103.51 mg/l with an average of 10.61 mg/l and 10.47 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall season (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Around 20%

and 16% of the samples for pre- and post-rainfall season exceed the permissible limit (12 mg/l). The primary origin of elevated  $K^+$  content in water is due to the presence of Orthoclase feldspars minerals and potassium composts.

#### **Anions**

HCO<sup>−</sup> <sup>3</sup> Ranged from 124.44 to 758.84 mg/l and 43.92 to 630 mg/l with mean value of 409.72 mg/l and 194.66 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall season (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). The elevated  $HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  concentration was due to the release of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  gases from the decomposition of organic decay. Around 84% and 32% of samples of pre- and post-rainfall seasons, respectively, are beyond the permissible limit (BIS [2012](#page-16-19)). The Cl<sup>−</sup> concentration ranged from 7.81 to 1667.46 mg/l and 7.63 to 1089.20 mg/l with mean values of 354.67 mg/l and 256.69 mg/l (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Cl<sup>−</sup> concentration is more than 250 mg/l in 38% of samples for pre- and post-rainfall sea-sons (Table [1](#page-4-0)). A high content of Cl<sup>−</sup> causes a salty taste and laxative effect. Domestic wastewater, return irrigation flow, etc., are the prime sources of high concentration of Cl<sup>−</sup> in water (Laxmankumar et al. [2019](#page-17-6)). SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> values range from 0 to 1533.03 mg/l and 5.18 to 1200 mg/l with an average of 162.21 mg/l and 146.34 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall seasons (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Around 24% and 22% of water samples for pre- and post-rainfall seasons are above the permissible limit of 200 mg/l (BIS [2012](#page-16-19)). Various farming practices and the excess use of fertilizers to increase soil permeability may be a source of elevated concentration (Katla et al. [2021\)](#page-16-5).



<span id="page-6-0"></span>**Fig. 3** Spatial distribution map of TDS concentration (mg/l) for pre- and post-rainfall seasons

#### **Fluoride and nitrate**

F− concentration was ranged between 0.28 and 5.48 mg/l and 0.21 and 4.43 mg/l with an average of 1.18 mg/l and 1.35 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall seasons (Table [1](#page-4-0)). Around 32% and 30% of samples for pre- and post-rainfall seasons exceeds the desirable limit of 1.5 mg/l (BIS [2012](#page-16-19)). The excess F<sup>−</sup> content in water causes fluorosis and its sources are due to the presence of granitic rock in the area which is rich in fuoride bearing minerals like biotite, fuorite, and hornblende. Also, the dolomite and conglomerate rock in the area leading to the dissolution of calcium-bearing minerals like fuorite can increase fuoride concentration in groundwater (Kechiched et al [2020](#page-16-21)). The spatial distribution of F− concentration for pre- and the post-rainfall seasons is shown in Fig. [4.](#page-7-0) The southwestern, central, and few patches in the northern and eastern part shows high fuoride content for both the seasons.

Similarly, the  $NO_3^-$  concentration ranged from 0.09 to 897.28 mg/l and 0 to 606.10 mg/l with an average of 123.65 mg/l and 120.30 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall sea-sons (Table [1](#page-4-0)). Elevated NO<sub>3</sub> concentration was observed in 62% and 64% of samples beyond its permissible limit of 45 mg/l (BIS [2012\)](#page-16-19). The excess of  $\overline{NO_3^-}$  concentration in water causes a disease called a blue baby syndrome. Sewage waste efects, seepages from the septic tank, and surplus uses of animal waste and fertilizers exceeds the  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  content in water (Gugulothu [2022a](#page-16-15)). The permissible limit of  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  was observed in patches at a few places, while the remaining area shows a high concentration. The distribution

of high NO− <sup>3</sup> content is observed in the southwestern, and central parts of the area for pre- and post-rainfall seasons is shown in Fig. [5.](#page-8-0) The high  $NO_3^-$  content part falls in the cropland area where agricultural practices like excessive use of fertilizer lead to elevation of NO− <sup>3</sup> in groundwater (Subba Rao et al. [2020\)](#page-17-20).

The F<sup>-</sup> and  $NO_3^-$  concentrations in semi-arid regions of Telangana State was compared and found that the F− concentration was similar in range with other studies, while the NO<sub>3</sub> concentration was higher in present study as compare to other semi-arid regions of India and worldwide. The comparative values of  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  are given in Table [3](#page-8-1).

The F− concentration in groundwater was divided into three different categories viz., Category-1 (concentration  $\leq 0.5$  mg/l), Category-2 (concentration  $> 0.5$ ) to  $\leq$  1.5 mg/l), and Category-3 (concentration > 1.5 mg/l) (Table [4\)](#page-9-0). The F− content in Category-1 has 20% of samples for both seasons and ingestion of such water may cause dental caries. Category-2 has 48% and 44% of samples from pre- and post-rainfall seasons, respectively, and is ft for drinking purposes, while Category-3 has 32% and 36% of samples from pre- and post-rainfall seasons and is unft for drinking purposes (Table [4](#page-9-0) and Fig. [6\)](#page-9-1). Intake of such high F<sup>−</sup> content water may lead to dental and skel-etal fluorosis (Ali et al. [2019\)](#page-16-0). Similarly,  $NO_3^-$  concentration in groundwater was also divided into three categories. Category-1 (concentration  $\leq 45$  mg/l), Category-2 (concentration > 45 to  $\leq 100$  mg/l), and Category-3 (concentration > 100 mg/l) (Table [4](#page-9-0)). The  $NO_3^-$  content in Category-1 has 38% and 36% of samples for pre- and



<span id="page-7-0"></span>**Fig. 4** Spatial distribution map of F− concentration (mg/l) for pre- and post-rainfall seasons



<span id="page-8-0"></span>**Fig. 5** Spatial distribution map of NO− <sup>3</sup> concentration (mg/l) for pre- and post-rainfall seasons

post-rainfall seasons and are ft for drinking and irrigation uses. Category-2 has 12% and 20% of samples, and Category-3 has 50% and 44% of samples and is unft for irrigation and drinking purposes (Table [4](#page-9-0) and Fig. [6\)](#page-9-1).

## **Water quality index for drinking purpose**

<span id="page-8-1"></span>**Table 3** Comparative study of  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  concentration (mg/l) in groundwater studies of

India and worldwide

Water quality index (WQI) is a gauge to quantify the drinking water standard (Subba Rao et al. [2020\)](#page-17-20). The calculated WQI ranged from 18.3 to 233 and 12.97 to 219.14 for pre- and post-rainfall seasons. According to the classification of WQI, 12 and 14 samples have WQI  $\leq$  50 and 24% and 28% of samples show excellent water quality for pre- and post-rainfall seasons and are ft for drinking pur-poses (Table [5\)](#page-10-0). WQI  $\geq 50 \leq 100$  shows 22% and 44% of samples shows good water quality for pre- and post-rain-fall seasons (Table[5\)](#page-10-0). WQI  $\geq$  100  $\leq$  200 shows 10 and 11 samples with 20% and 22% shows poor water quality and WQI  $\geq$  200  $\leq$  300; 6 and 3 samples with 12% and 6% shows very poor water for pre- and post-rainfall seasons (Table [5](#page-10-0)).



\* pre-rainfall, \*\*post-rainfall, and \*\*\*sediment sample



<span id="page-9-0"></span>**Table 4**

F− and NO−



<span id="page-9-1"></span>**Fig. 6** Different groups of F<sup>−</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations (mg/l) for preand post-rainfall seasons

No samples show unsuitability for drinking purpose, and the distribution map of WQI for both seasons is shown in Fig. [7.](#page-10-1)

## **Geochemical evolution**

Geochemical evolution of the water quality concerning ion's dominance, Piper trilinear diagram was widely accepted and used (Piper [1944](#page-17-22)). From the Piper diagram, it is detected that 46% and 51% of the water samples for pre- and post-rainfall seasons represents carbonate water type  $(Ca^{2+} . HCO<sub>3</sub>)$ , and 4% of each water sample show non-carbonate water type  $(Ca^{2+}$ .Cl<sup>-</sup>), 12% of each water samples are non-alkali water type (Na+.Cl− ), 32% and 28% water samples show  $(Ca<sup>2+</sup>.Na<sup>+</sup>.HCO<sub>3</sub>)$  type water, and 6% and 5% show mixed water type  $(Ca^{2+}.Mg^{2+}.Cl^-)$  for pre- and post-rainfall seasons (Fig. [8](#page-11-0)). The dominance of the carbonate water types over alkaline earth ( $Ca^{2+}$  and Mg<sup>2+</sup>) and weak acids (HCO<sub>3</sub>) are significantly higher than the alkalis ( $Na<sup>+</sup>$  and  $K<sup>+</sup>$ ) and strong acids (Cl− and *SO*<sup>2</sup><sup>−</sup> <sup>4</sup> ), representing the prevailing conditions of the water–rock interactions (Gugulothu [2022b\)](#page-16-22). The mixed type water with the dominance of  $(Ca^{2+}.Mg^{2+}.Cl^-)$  ions and excess type water with (Na<sup>+</sup>.Cl<sup>−</sup>) dominance and (Ca<sup>2+</sup>.Mg<sup>2+</sup>. Cl−) type water signifes the movement of the carbonate type towards the mixed type water and excess type water, which also evidently agrees with the control of water–rock interactions in the aquifer regime. Further, the geochemical evolution of the

<span id="page-10-0"></span>**Table 5** Classifcation of the WQI scores for pre- and postrainfall seasons



water types is in descending order of carbonate water > mixed water > non-alkali water.

#### **Principal component analyses (PCA)**

## **Rock–water interaction (Gibbs' plot)**

Pre- and post-rainfall chemical analyzed data of the water sample was plotted on the Gibbs' plot showing the three important controlling mechanisms of the water chemistry. The three major mechanism processes are precipitation, rock, and evaporation dominance (Gibbs [1970\)](#page-16-20). The plots are the fraction of cations  $[(Na^+ + K^+)/(Na^+ + K^+ + Ca^{2+})]$ and anions  $[Cl^-/(Cl^-+HCO_3^-)]$  in contrast to TDS. The plots suggest the majority of the samples for pre- and postrainfall seasons were categorized in the evaporation mechanism with few samples are of rock mechanism (Fig. [9a](#page-11-1) and [b](#page-11-1)). The evaporation mechanism was due to an increase of Cl− and Na+ ions which increases the TDS, while rock mechanism samples depend on the factors like arid conditions of the region, low rainfall, high temperature, and residence period in the aquifer.

To decrease the dimensionality space of the larger dataset into smaller clustering, principal component analysis (PCA) was used. A factor analysis was performed on the varimax normalized data to identify the factors infuencing the compositional patterns between the analyzed water samples. The factor loading into three categories: strong, moderate, and weak, with absolute loading values of  $> 0.70$ , 0.50–0.30, and 0.50–0.30, respectively. A total of 12 parameters are explained. PCA revealed those three and four components which explains 74.85% and 79.30% of the total variance for pre- and post-rainfall seasons (Table [6](#page-12-0)). In the pre-rainfall season, PC1 represents 48.60% of the variance with strong positive loadings on EC, TDS,  $Ca^{2+}$ , Na<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>-,  $Cl^-$ , and  $HCO_3^-$  due to mineral weathering and water–rock interactions. PC2 represents 13.48% of the total variance and had high NO<sub>3</sub> loadings and negative  $CO_3^-$ , K<sup>+</sup> loadings, indicating ion exchange and carbonate weathering, as well as anthropogenic infuences. PC3 represents 12.77% of the



<span id="page-10-1"></span>**Fig. 7** Spatial distribution of water quality index (WQI) for pre- and post-rainfall seasons

<span id="page-11-0"></span>

total variance and has high loadings on  $F^-$ , pH, and  $Ca^{2+}$  loading, which indicates weathering reactions involving

<span id="page-11-1"></span>



fuoride-bearing minerals (apatite, hornblende, mica, etc.).

As a result of the four-principal component analysis, 79.30% of the total cumulative percentages in the postrainfall season were explained, and components PC1, PC2, PC3, and PC4 were found to contribute to the variations in groundwater quality, accounting for 39.89%, 20.05.9%, 9.60%, and 9.23% of the total variance. PC1 shows high positive loadings on Na<sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, EC, TDS, Cl<sup>-</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, and  $Mg^{2+}$ . As a result of high  $NO_3^-$  loadings in areas where a great deal of fertilizer has been applied, PC2 has signifcant positive loadings on  $NO_3^-$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ , and Cl<sup>-</sup>, but negative loadings on  $CO_3^-$ , indicating a predominant process of ion exchange and carbonate weathering and leaching from fuoride-rich minerals. PC3 had strong positive loadings on F− and HCO<sup>−</sup> <sup>3</sup> . PC4 had strong positive loadings on pH. The principal component plot in rotated space for pre- and postrainfall seasons is shown in Fig. [10a.](#page-13-0) The grouping of these ions with TDS reproduces the salinity in water indicating the main cause of anthropogenic and human interference contamination in the aquifer regime (Dhakate et al. [2013](#page-16-23); Ustaoğlu and Tepe [2019](#page-17-13); Aydin et al. [2021\)](#page-16-14). This group and positive loading of F− infuences the dissolution and weathering of fuoride being minerals presenting in the rocks rather than the uses of fertilizers (Subba Rao et al. [2020](#page-17-20)). The role of PCA supports the geogenic and anthropogenic activities for variation of water chemical quality.

Cluster analysis (CA) is a linkage used to determine the major ions from the analyzed groundwater samples and grouping for clustering of the Euclidean distance from Ward's method by using software of SPSS version 23. CA is a totally

linkage used to determine the distance between the clusters by the greatest between the examples, as it is a geometric distance in a multi-dimensional space. A graphical representation of the hierarchical clustering or grouping along with the corresponding distance to achieve a linkage is called dendrogram. The CA of chemical variables gives information on geochemical processes controlling the groundwater chemistry, while the group analysis of groundwater sampling sites provides the information, where the geochemical processes cause the variation of groundwater contamination.

The results of CA of chemical variables (pH, TDS, TH,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Na^{+}$ ,  $K^{+}$ ,  $HCO_3^-$ ,  $Cl^-$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and  $NO_3^-$ ) are presented in a dendrogram (Fig. [10b](#page-13-0)). According to the dendrogram, Clusters I, II, III, and IV have a linkage distance of 5 to 25. Pre-rainfall season pH is measured by Cluster I; EC, TDS, Na<sup>+</sup>, and Cl<sup>−</sup> are measured as Cluster II; Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, and HCO<sub>3</sub> are measured by Cluster III; and  $K^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^-$ , and  $F^-$  are measured by Cluster IV (Fig. [10b\)](#page-13-0). In the post-rainfall season, CA is used to measure variables from Cluster I pH; Cluster II represents EC, TDS,  $Mg^{2+}$ , and Na<sup>+</sup>; Cluster III represents  $K^+, SO_4^{2-}$ , Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>−</sup>, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>; and Cluster IV represents HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>,  $F^$ , and  $CO_3^-$  (Fig. [10b\)](#page-13-0). The overall cluster analysis indicates that pre- and post-rainfall seasons display predominant ion exchange, silicate group minerals of weathering, salinization of the water, and a high value of  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  concentration, resulting from fertilizers used in irrigation and fluoride-rich minerals (Subba Rao et al. [2020\)](#page-17-20).

<span id="page-12-0"></span>

bold values>0.70 represent a high positive loading

rainfall seasons

<span id="page-13-0"></span>**Fig. 10** (**a**) Principal component plot in rotated space for pre- and post-rainfall seasons. (**b**) Dendogram using Ward linkage for pre- and post-rainfall seasons



#### **Health risk assessment (HRA)**

Hazard quotient (HQ) through ingestion ( $HQ_{\text{ine}}$ ) and dermal (HQ<sub>der</sub>) related to F<sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> content for various age categories were estimated (U.S. EPA [2011](#page-17-16)) with the  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  content values of the groundwater samples of pre- and post-rainfall seasons from the area. Parameters values used for estimating the risk of exposure to  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  through ingestion and dermal pathways are presented in Table [2.](#page-5-0)

#### **Ingestion pathway**

In pre-rainfall season, the F− hazard quotient values via ingestion pathway  $(HQ_{\text{ing}})$  for above mentioned age category i.e., 6 to 12 months, 6 to 11 years, 11 to 16 years, 16 to 18 years, 18 to 21 years,>21 years, and>65 years ranged from 0.51 to 10.04, 0.21 to 4.11, 0.15 to 3.06, 0.12 to 2.40, 0.16 to 3.16, 0.17 to 3.41, and 0.16 to 3.11 with mean values of 2.17, 0.88, 0.66, 0.51, 0.68, 0.73, and 0.67 (Table [7\)](#page-14-0). For post-rainfall season F− hazard quotient values via ingestion pathway

 $(HQ<sub>ino</sub>)$  for different age group ranged from 0 to 0.04, 0 to 0.03, 0 to 0.025, 0 to 0.023, 0.13 to 2.53, 0.11 to 2.20, and 0.10 to 2.12 with mean values of 0.009, 0.006, 0.005, 0.0054, 0.54, 0.47, and 0.45 respectively (Table [7\)](#page-14-0). The age group 6 to 12 months is observed to have highest risk due to ingestion of such F− water, while 16 to 18 showed the least risk.

The  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  hazard quotient values via ingestion pathway (HQ<sub>ing</sub>) for various age category, i.e., 6 to 12 months, 6 to 11 years, 11 to 16 years, 16 to 18 years, 18 to 21 years,  $>$  21 years, and  $>$  65 years ranges from 0 to 61.62, 0 to 25.26, 0 to 18.83, 0 to 14.76, 0 to 19.41, 0 to 20.92, and 0 to 19.13 with average values of 8.49, 3.48, 2.59, 2.03, 2.67, 2.88, and 2.63 for pre-rainfall season (Table [7\)](#page-14-0). Similarly, for post-rainfall season, the  $NO_3^-$  hazard quotient values ( $HQ_{ing}$ ) for various age groups ranged from 0 to 41.62, 0 to 17.07, 0 to 12.72, 0 to 9.97, 0 to 13.11, 0 to 14.13, and 0 to 12.92 with average of 8.26, 3.33, 2.52, 1.97, 2.60, 2.80, and 2.56 (Table [7](#page-14-0)). The HQ<sub>ing</sub> values for F<sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> are greater than one for almost all age group of people for pre- and postrainfall seasons. Similar to  $F^{\dagger}$ , NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> also showed highest risk for age group 6 to 12 months, and least risk for 16 to 18 years.



#### **Dermal pathway**

Hazard quotient values for  $F^-$  through dermal contact  $(HQ<sub>der</sub>)$  for pre-rainfall season for different age groups 6 to 12 months, 6 to 11 years, 11 to 16 years, 16 to 18 years, 18 to 21 years, >21 years and >65 years ranged from 0 to 0.04, 0 to 0.03, 0 to 0.02, 0 to 0.02, 0.13 to 2.53, 0.11 to 2.20, and 0.10 to 2.12 with average values of 0.009, 0.006, 0.005, 0.005, 0.54, 0.47, and 0.45, whereas for post-rainfall season  $(HQ<sub>der</sub>)$  values ranged from 0 to 0.03, 0 to 0.02, 0 to 0.02, 0 to 0.018, 0.09 to 2.04, 0.08 to 1.77, and 0.07 to 1.71 with an average value of 0.01, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.62, 0.54, and 0.52, respectively (Table [8](#page-15-0)). Similarly, for  $NO_3^-$  in pre-rainfall season water samples through dermal contact  $(HQ<sub>der</sub>)$  for diferent age groups ranged from 0 to 0.26, 0 to 0.19, 0 to 0.15, 0 to 0.14, 0 to 15.55, 0 to 13.51, and 0 to 13.04 with average values of 0.03, 0.02, 0.02, 0.01, 2.14, 1.86, and 1.79 (Table [8](#page-15-0)). For post-rainfall season, the hazard quotient via dermal pathway ( $HQ<sub>der</sub>$ ) for different age groups ranged from 0 to 0.17, 0 to 0.13, 0 to 0.10, 0 to 0.09, 0 to 10.50, 0 to 9.12, and 0 to 8.80 with average values of 0.03, 0.02, 0.02, 0.01, 2.08, 1.81, and 1.74 respectively (Table [8](#page-15-0)). The  $HQ_{der}$  values for  $NO_3^-$  are greater than for the age group of 18–21 years, >21 years, and >65 years for pre- and postrainfall seasons. Hence, from this study, the HQ<sub>ing</sub> values of F<sup>−</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> are more than that of HQ<sub>der</sub> values; hence, the ingestion pathway is more likely to cause non-carcinogenic risk to all the age group of people.

The health risk assessment results show ingestion path way which can cause more risk than the dermal pathway. The children could be at more risk than adults due to inges tion of such high  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  content water. Similarly, such results were also observed by various researchers in India (Adimalla et al. [2019](#page-16-1); Ali et al. [2019](#page-16-0); Adimalla [2020;](#page-16-8) Karu nanidhi et al. [2020;](#page-16-11) Marghade et al. [2021](#page-17-23); More et al. [2021](#page-17-12); Subba Rao et al. [2019](#page-17-25)) and worldwide (Chen et al. [2017b](#page-16-13); Gao et al. [2020](#page-16-2); Li et al. [2019](#page-17-26); Qasemi et al. [2018;](#page-17-8) Rehman et al. [2020;](#page-17-10) Ustaoğlu et al. [2020;](#page-17-14) Yuan et al. [2020;](#page-17-19) Zango et al. [2019](#page-17-18)).

#### **Remedial measures**

<span id="page-14-0"></span>From the present study, few valuable and simple appli cable remedial measures to prevent health hazards due to the intake of high  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  content water were suggested. It is suggested to supply safe drinking water to society to maintain their normal health. Provisions for denitrification and defluorination plant to reduce the  $F^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  contents in the water. Employment of rainwater harvesting structures to dilute the F<sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> contents in the water regime. Facilitate clean and hygienic sanitary conditions in the residential areas and limitations of fertilizer use in agricultural areas.

<span id="page-15-0"></span>Table 8 Hazard quotient (HQ) for F<sup>−</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub> via dermal (HQ<sub>der</sub>) pathway for different age groups for pre- and post-rainfall seasons

Age group	Hazard quotient (HQ) via dermal pathways for $F^-$								Hazard quotient (HQ) via dermal pathways for $NO2-$							
	Pre-rainfall $(HQ_{der})F^-$			Post-rainfall ( $HQ_{der}$ ) $F^-$				Pre-rainfall $(HQ_{der})NO_2^-$				Post-rainfall $(HQ_{\text{der}})NO_2^-$				
	Min	Max	Ave	SD.	Min	Max	Ave	<b>SD</b>	Min	Max	Ave	<b>SD</b>	Min	Max	Ave	SD.
$6-12$ months	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.007	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.007	0.00	0.26	0.03	0.04	0.00	0.17	0.03	0.03
$6-11$ years	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.005	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.005	0.00	0.19	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.13	0.02	0.02
$11-16$ years	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.004	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.004	0.00	0.15	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.10	0.02	0.02
$16-18$ years	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.003	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.004	0.00	0.14	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.09	0.02	0.02
$18-21$ years	0.13	2.53	0.54	0.41	0.09	2.04	0.62	0.44	0.00	15.55	2.14	2.62	0.00	10.50	2.08	2.30
$>21$ years	0.11	2.20	0.47	0.36	0.08	1.77	0.54	0.38	0.00	13.51	1.86	2.28	0.00	9.12	1.81	2.00
$>65$ years	0.10	2.12	0.45	0.34	0.08	1.71	0.52	0.36	0.00	13.04	1.79	2.20	0.00	8.80	1.74	1.93

## **Conclusions**

The present study is an attempt to demarcate high F<sup>−</sup> and  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  content areas and their non-carcinogenic effects on the human health of diferent age groups through ingestion of high contaminated water and dermal contact in the Mulugu-Venkatapur Mandals, Warangal district, Telangana India. Water samples for pre- and post-rainfall seasons were estimated for various physico-chemical parameters. Water samples are alkaline to neutral in nature. The governance of cation in water samples is in the order of  $Na^+ > Ca^{+2} > Mg^{+2} > K^+$  and  $Ca^{+2} > Na^+ > Mg^{+2} > K^+$  for pre- and post-rainfall seasons. Anion dominance in groundwater is of the order of  $Cl^- > SO_4^{2-} > NO_3^-$ ,  $HCO_3^- > F^-$  and  $SO_4^{2-} > Cl^- > HCO_3^- > NO_3^- > F^-$  for pre- and post-rainfall seasons. The  $NO_3^-$  content ranged from 0.09 to 897.28 mg/l and 0 to 606.10 mg/l, while F− content ranged from 0.28 to 5.48 mg/l and 0.21 to 4.43 mg/l for pre- and post-rainfall seasons. The WQI ranged from 18.3 to 233 and 12.97 to 219.14; 24% and 28% of samples showed excellent with WQI $\leq 50$ and ft for drinking purpose, while 44% of samples showed good WQI $\geq 50 \leq 100$  and 20% and 22% shows poor water quality with  $WQI \ge 200 \le 300$  and no samples show unsuitable for drinking purposes for pre- and post-rainfall seasons. From the geochemical evolution, 46% and 51% of water samples represent carbonate type water  $(Ca^{2+}HCO_3^-)$ , 4% each represents non-carbonate type water  $(Ca^{2+}.Cl^-)$ , and 12% of samples are non-alkali type water (Na<sup>+</sup>.Cl<sup>−</sup>), 32% and 28% groundwater samples show  $(Ca^{2+}.Na^+.HCO<sub>3</sub>)$  type water and 6% and 5% show mixed type water  $(Ca^{2+}Mg^{2+}.Cl^-)$  for pre- and post-rainfall seasons. The mixed water type is the dominance of  $(Ca^{2+}.Mg^{2+}.Cl^-)$  ions which clearly specify the dominance of water–rock interaction in the aquifer system. The PCA results explained 48.60% of the total variance with strong positive loading of TDS,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Na^{+}$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and Cl− pertaining to PC1, while strong positive loading of  $NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  pertaining to PC2 and strong positive loading of  $F^-$  pertaining to PC3. The strong positive loading of NO<sub>3</sub>

and F− pertaining to PC2 and PC3 indicates anthropogenic and geogenic contributions for increasing the concentrations in groundwater. According to the dendrogram, Cluster I, II, III, and IV was observed with a linkage distance of 5 to 25. Cluster I measured pH; cluster II measured EC, TDS, Na+, Cl<sup>−</sup> and EC, TDS, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>; cluster III measured Ca<sup>2+</sup>,  $Mg^{2+}$ , HCO<sub>3</sub> and K<sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>-, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>; and cluster IV measured  $K^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^-$ ,  $F^-$  and  $HCO_3$ ,  $F^-$ ,  $CO_3^-$  during pre- and post-rainfall season, respectively, indicating predominant ion exchange, silicate mineral weathering, and high uses of fertilizers.

The non-carcinogenic risk related with F− contaminated water for pre-rainfall through ingestion pathway ( $HQ_{\text{ino}}$ ) for diferent age groups group 6 to 12 months, 6 to 11 years, 11 to 16 years, 16 to 18 years, 18 to 21 years,  $\geq$  21 years, and>65 years are ranged from 0.51 to 10.04, 0.21 to 4.11, 0.15 to 3.06, 0.12 to 2.40, 0.16 to 3.16, 0.17 to 3.41, and 0.16 to 3.11, and for post-rainfall  $HQ_{ing}$  ranged from 0 to 0.04, 0 to 0.03, 0 to 0.025, 0 to 0.023, 0.13 to 2.53, 0.11 to 2.20, and 0.10 to 2.12. The non-carcinogenic risk associated with  $\mathrm{NO_3}^-$  for pre-rainfall through ingestion pathway (HQ $_{\rm ing}$ ) for diferent age groups ranged from 0 to 61.62, 0 to 25.26, 0 to 18.83, 0 to 14.76, 0 to 19.41, 0 to 20.92, and 0 to 19.13 and for post-rainfall, it ranged from 0 to 41.62, 0 to 17.07, 0 to 12.72, 0 to 9.97, 0 to 13.11, 0 to 14.13, and 0 to 12.92.  $HQ<sub>der</sub>$  values for the different age group for pre-rainfall season for F− ranged from 0 to 0.04, 0 to 0.03, 0 to 0.02, 0 to 0.02, 0.13 to 2.53, 0.11 to 2.20, and 0.10 to 2.12 and for post-rainfall season, it ranged from 0 to 0.03, 0 to 0.02, 0 to 0.02, 0 to 0.018, 0.09 to 2.04, 0.08 to 1.77, and 0.07 to 1.71. Similarly,  $HQ_{der}$  values from  $NO_3^-$  for different age groups for pre-rainfall season ranged from 0 to 0.26, 0 to 0.19, 0 to 0.15, 0 to 0.14, 0 to 15.55, 0 to 13.51, and 0 to 13.04 and for post-rainfall season, it ranged from 0 to 0.17, 0 to 0.13, 0 to 0/10, 0 to 0.09, 0 to 10.50, 0 to 9.12, and 0 to 8.80. HQ<sub>ing</sub> values for  $NO_3^-$  and  $F^-$  are greater than one for almost all age group of people for pre- and post-rainfall seasons; hence, there is a more probable human health risk through ingestion

pathway to all age groups of people and proper efective management measures like supply of safe drinking water, defuoridation and denitrifcation plants, rainwater harvesting structures, proper sanitary and waste disposal facilities, limitation use of fertilizers, and proper awareness among the localities for improving and safeguard health measures.

**Acknowledgements** The authors express their sincere gratitude to the Director, CSIR-NGRI, Hyderabad for his continuous support for the research activity. The authors express their sincere thanks to the Editorin-Chief for his encouragement and support. The authors also thank the anonymous reviewers for their constructive and scientifc suggestion for improving the manuscript standard. The manuscript reference no. is NGRI/Lib/2022/Pub-79.

**Author contribution** Ratnakar Dhakate: supervision, methodology, and original draft preparation. Shekhar More: literature collection and editing. Laxman Kumar Duvva: analyses and interpretation and literature collection. Enjamuri Satyanarayana: literature and data collection and draft preparation.

**Data availability** This is not applicable.

#### **Declarations**

**Ethical approval** This is not applicable to this manuscript.

**Consent to participate** This is not applicable.

**Consent for publication** This is not applicable.

**Competing interests** The authors declare no competing interests.

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