ORIGINAL PAPER

Hydrogeochemical investigation and qualitative assessment of groundwater resources in Bokaro district, Jharkhand, India

Prasoon Kumar Singh¹ · Poornima Verma¹ · Ashwnai Kumar Tiwari²

Received: 19 January 2017 /Accepted: 13 August 2018 /Published online: 28 August 2018 \oslash Saudi Society for Geosciences 2018

Abstract

The present study is carried out in the Bokaro district of the Jharkhand state to identify the hydrogeochemical characteristic of the groundwater and assess its quality with reference to drinking, domestic, and agriculture purposes. In the study area, 102 groundwater samples were collected during the pre-monsoon season and post-monsoon season (51 samples per season) and analyzed for pH, electrical conductivity (EC), total dissolved solids (TDS), total hardness, F[−], Cl[−], HCO₃[−], SO₄²[−], NO₃[−], Ca²⁺, Mg^{2+} , Na⁺, and K⁺. The analytical results show slightly acidic to slightly alkaline nature of the groundwater in the study area. Ca^{2+} and Na⁺ are the dominant cations, while anion chemistry is dominated by HCO₃⁻ and Cl[−] during both seasons, respectively. The data plotted on the Piper and Gibbs diagram, as well as statistical analysis, reveals that the chemistry of the groundwater in the study area is mainly controlled by rock weathering phenomenon with secondary contributions from anthropogenic sources. The water quality assessment indicated that TDS, hardness, Ca^{2+} , Na⁺, HCO₃⁻, and Cl[−] are the major concern parameters in the study area during both seasons. Sodium adsorption ratio, sodium percent, residual sodium carbonate, magnesium hazard, Kelly's ratio, and permeability index are calculated to identify the suitability of water for irrigation purposes and revealed that most of the groundwater is suitable for irrigation purposes, except few sites. The present study will be useful in the future management of groundwater resources of the area.

Keywords Groundwater chemistry . Hydrogeochemical facies . Statistical analysis . Seasonal variation . Irrigation water

Introduction

Groundwater resources play a crucial role in meeting the water requirements of various sectors like drinking, irrigation, and industrial sectors because it is generally less prone contamination than surface water bodies. But at the present time, a concern about groundwater quality deterioration is increasing day by day, especially in developing countries such as India. In parts of the country, groundwater contamination and overexploitation have resulted from the rapid growth in agricultural activity, industrialization, and urbanization. Poor groundwater quality may cause various problems such as ecosystem degradation, health impacts, treatment costs, and impacts on agriculture, industry, and tourism (Touhari et al. [2015\)](#page-19-0). Each groundwater system under different hydrogeological conditions has unique geochemistry due to the geological and lithological factors such as precipitation, mineralogy of the aquifers, overlying land uses, proximity to the coast, the source of recharge water, soil type, and water flow. Human activities are also responsible for changing the geochemical properties of the groundwater with geogenic factors (Chitradevi and Sridhar [2011](#page-18-0)). Some of the previous studies carried out on hydrogeochemical characteristics and groundwater quality in different parts of Jharkhand state, India (Chatterjee et al. [2010](#page-18-0); Shekhar et al. [2012](#page-19-0); Singh et al. [2012a](#page-19-0), [2013,](#page-19-0) [2014a](#page-19-0), [2014b](#page-19-0); Mondal et al. [2013;](#page-19-0) CGWB [2013;](#page-18-0) Prasad et al. [2014;](#page-19-0) Gautam et al. [2015;](#page-18-0) Tiwari et al. [2016;](#page-19-0) Mahato et al. [2016;](#page-19-0) Tirkey et al. [2017\)](#page-19-0). However, such information is lacking for many other parts of Jharkhand state including Bokaro district. Thus, proper assessment and reporting of groundwater geochemistry and its quality is an

 \boxtimes Poornima Verma poornimaverma2011@gmail.com

Department of Environmental Science & Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology (Indian School of Mines), Dhanbad, Jharkhand 826004, India

² DIATI-Department of Environment, Land and Infrastructure Engineering, Politecnico di Torino, C.so Duca degli Abruzzi 24, 10129 Turin, Italy

important issue. The aim of present study is to determine the hydrogeochemical process, seasonal variation, and quality of the groundwater for suitability of drinking, domestic, and irrigation uses in the study area. This study will help to develop a suitable management plan for groundwater resources of the area.

Study area

The Bokaro district is a highly industrialized coal belt district in Jharkhand state, India. The Bokaro district is bounded by Giridih to the north by Purulia (West Bengal) to the south, Dhanbad to the east and Hazaribagh to the west. The study area covers 2861 sq.km and lies between 23 0 24' 27" N to 23 0 57' 24" N latitude and 85° 34' 30" E to 86° 29' 10" E longitude of Jharkhand state (Fig. [1](#page-2-0)). The study area is drained by the Damodar river and its tributaries and forms a part of the Damodar basin. In the central part of the district, the Damodar river flows from west to east on which are located two important reservoirs: the Tenughat reservoir in the south western part of the district and the Konar reservoir in the north western part of the district. The regional slope of the study area is from the west towards the east.

Rainfall and climate

The average annual rainfall of the study area is 1363.3 mm/ year. Around 95% of the annual rainfall takes place during the monsoon season (i.e., from mid-June until the end of September) and rest of the rainfall takes place during summer and winter seasons. The highest monthly rainfall occurs during the month of July in the Chanadankiyari block and the lowest monthly rainfall is received in the Kasmar and Nawadih blocks of the district.

The climate of the study area is humid subtropical with three diverse seasons, i.e., summer, monsoon, and winter. The winter season occurs from the middle of November to end of February during which January is the coldest month where the average daily temperature from 25.9 to 10.2 °C. The summer season takes place from March to mid-June during which daily maximum temperature varies from 42 to 46 °C. Levels of humidity in the area are higher in July, August, and September than the period of March to June each year (CGWB [2013\)](#page-18-0).

Geology and hydrogeology

The Bokaro district is located in the eastern part of the Chotanagpur Plateau which forms an undulating land surface that covers much of the district. Much of the study area (about

75%) is underlain by granitic gneiss and other metamorphic rocks of Precambrian age and remaining part of the study area is underlain by sedimentary rocks comprising sandstones, shales and coal (Satapathy and Syed [2015](#page-19-0)). A thin layer of alluvial deposits occurs in along the course of the Damodar river.

On the basis of lithology, the study area was categorized into three distinct classes: (1) consolidated rock formation in which groundwater occurs under confined to semi-confined conditions; (2) semi-consolidated formation, where groundwater occurs under confined to semiconfined conditions (mostly in the central part of the study area); and (3) unconsolidated formations where groundwater occurs in unconfined aquifers. Unconfined aquifers cover a major part of the area with recent alluvium deposited mainly by the Damodar, Konar, and Jamunia rivers (CGWB [2013](#page-18-0)). The stratigraphic sequence of various geological formations of the study area is presented in Table [1](#page-3-0) and a hydrogeological map of the study area is shown in Fig. [1](#page-2-0).

Materials and methods

One hundred two groundwater samples (51 samples in the pre-monsoon season and 51 samples in the post-monsoon season) were collected from 51 locations of the Bokaro district during the years 2014–2015 (Fig[.1](#page-2-0)). For sample collection, preservation, and analysis, standard methods (APHA [1998](#page-18-0)) were followed. Before analysis, the water samples were filtered through 0.45-μm Millipore membrane filters to remove suspended particles. The pH and EC of water samples were measured in the field immediately after the collection of the samples by using a multiparameter probe (PCSTestr 35), and the major ions were analyzed using the standard methods suggested by the American Public Health Association (APHA [1998\)](#page-18-0). Major cations $(Ca^{2+}, Na^+, and K^+)$ were analyzed by using Systronics Flame photometer 128. Mg^{2+} was analyzed by the titration method. Total hardness (TH), bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻), and chloride (Cl⁻) were estimated using standard EDTA, HCl, and AgNO₃ as titration solution. Sulfates $(SO₄²)$ −), fluoride (F[−]), and nitrate (NO3 −) were estimated by using the UV-Vis spectrophotometer. Calculated charge balance error (CBE) (Eg.1) is found within the permissible limit of \pm 10% (Freez and Cherry [1979\)](#page-18-0).

$$
CBE = \left(\frac{\sum \text{cations} - \sum \text{anions}}{\sum \text{cations} + \sum \text{anions}}\right) \times 100\tag{1}
$$

The hydrogeochemical facies (Piper trilinear diagram), Gibbs diagram, scatter plots, saturation index (SI), Wilcox plots, sodium percent, and the permeability index were plotted using the AqQA and Grapher software. In this study, the correlation analyses were carried out by using the Statistical

Fig. 1 Groundwater sampling locations and hydrological condition of the study area

Package of Social Studies (SPSS) software to reduce the number of variables in a data set to a smaller number without loss of essential information.

Results and discussions

Chemistry of groundwater

Tables [2](#page-4-0) and [3](#page-7-0) show data of various physico-chemical parameters with descriptive statistical measures, and are compared to drinking water limits established by the World Health Organization (WHO [2006](#page-19-0)) and the Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS [2012](#page-18-0)) to consider the suitability for drinking and domestic uses. The pH values of the samples varied from 5.67 to 8.09 (mean 7.42) and 6.88 to 7.92 (mean 7.44) during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. The pH values indicate that the groundwater is slightly acidic to slightly alkaline nature. The electrical conductivity (EC) values ranged between 520 and 1961 μ S cm⁻¹ (mean 1142.22 μ S cm⁻¹) in the pre-monsoon, while during the post-monsoon, its values varied from 304 to 1620 μ S cm⁻¹ (mean 860.80 μ S cm⁻¹), respectively. Langenegger [\(1990](#page-19-0)) classified water on the basis of EC value (Table [4\)](#page-8-0); the

| Age | Series | Lithology | Hydrogeological conditions | Formation | Groundwater potential |
|---|------------------------------------|--|---|--------------------------------|--|
| Upper carboniferous to middle Jurassic | Gondwana supergroup | Sandstone, shale, grit, coal Seams Amphibolite, epidiorite | Moderately thick regionally extensive confined/unconfined aquifers. | Fissured/Semi- consolidated | Limited yield prospects below 10 Cu m/h |
| Middle to upper proterozoic | Chotanagpur granite gneiss | Granite and granite gneiss, micaschist and phyllite | Groundwater restricted to weathered Fissured/Consolidated residuum and fractured zone down to 125 m . | | Limited yield prospects below 30 Cu m/h |
| Lower to middle proterozoic | Unclassified metasedim- ents | Quartzites, fine to coarse grained sand, silt, clay, recent stream sediments | Moderately thin restricted unconfined aquifers down to 50 m. | Porous/unconsolidated | Limited yield prospects below 30 Cu m/h |

Table 1 Geological succession of the study area (CGWB [2013\)](#page-18-0)

majority of the water samples (55 and 49%) falls within the permissible category in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. Moreover, 17.6 and 23.5% of the samples are under brackish water category and 27.4 and 8.0% of the samples belong to saline water category during the pre- and postmonsoon seasons, respectively. However, 19.5% of the samples belong excellent to good water category in the postmonsoon season (Table [4](#page-8-0)). Higher EC value shows the high volume of dissolved salts in the water samples. TDS of the water samples varied between 414 and 1735 mg/L (mean 961.69 mg/L) in the pre-monsoon and from 258 to 1454 mg/ L (mean 702.96 mg/L) in the post-monsoon season. Davis and Wiest [\(1966\)](#page-18-0) proposed four classes on the basis of TDS concentrations for suitability of drinking and irrigation purposes (Table [5](#page-8-0)). The results, as shown in this table indicate that 12 and 31% of the samples are falls in the desirable for drinking uses, while 47 and 43% of the samples are under the permissible limit in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. Rest of the samples of both seasons are under the suitability for irrigation purposes (Table [5\)](#page-8-0). However, according to desirable limits of TDS established by the BIS ([2012](#page-18-0)) and WHO [\(2006\)](#page-19-0), most of the water samples are beyond the desirable limit in the study area, making unfit for domestic and drinking uses in both seasons, respectively. Total hardness (TH) in the groundwater samples ranged from 172.62–973.72 mg/L and 121.30–817.77 mg/L with the average value of 488.49 and 371.07 mg/L during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, re-spectively. Sawyer and McCarthy ([1967](#page-19-0)) suggested four classes to classify the water on the basis of total hardness (Table [6\)](#page-9-0). Based on this classification, data show that about 74.6% of the samples in the pre-monsoon season and 52.9% of the samples during the post-monsoon season are very hard type of water (Table [6\)](#page-9-0). Moreover, 25.4 and 35.1% of the samples belong hard type of water in the study area during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively (Table [6](#page-9-0)). High TH value causes various problems encrustation on water supply

distribution systems. There is some suggestive evidence that long-term consumption of extremely hard water might lead to an increased incidence of urolithiasis, anecephaly, prenatal mortality, some types of cancer, and cardio-vascular disorders (Durvey et al. [1991](#page-18-0); Agrawal and Jagetia [1997](#page-18-0)).

Major cations chemistry

 Ca^{2+} and Na⁺ are the dominant cations in the groundwater samples of the study area followed by Mg^{2+} and K^+ in both seasons, respectively. Calcium ion in the groundwater samples of the study area varied from 31.80 to 218.74 mg/L with the average value of 101.80 mg/L in the pre-monsoon season and from 24.20 to196.72 mg/L with the mean value of 83.47 mg/L in the post-monsoon season, which accounts 37 and 43% of the total cationic content $(TZ⁺)$ in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. The concentrations of Ca^{2+} exceeded the drinking water acceptable limit of the WHO [\(2006\)](#page-19-0) and BIS ([2012](#page-18-0)) in 60.7% (pre-monsoon season) and 47.0% (postmonsoon season) of the samples in the study area. Magnesium in the groundwater samples ranged from 21.35 to 106.93 mg/ L (mean 56.93 mg/L) and from 13.6 to 87.95 mg/L (mean 39.51 mg/L), which accounts 21 and 20% of the TZ^{+} in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. Mg^{2+} about 84.31% in the pre-monsoon season and 58.82% in the postmonsoon season of the groundwater samples are above the acceptable limits of the WHO [\(2006\)](#page-19-0) and BIS ([2012\)](#page-18-0) for drinking water. Weathering and dissolution of calcium carbonate (limestone and dolomite), calc-silicate minerals (amphiboles, pyroxenes, olivine, biotite, etc.), and magnesium carbonate (dolomite) in sedimentary rock are the most common source of calcium and magnesium in water (Singh et al. $2012b$). Na⁺ concentration in the samples during the preand post-monsoon seasons ranged from 39.7 to 235.9 mg/L (mean 102.56 mg/L) and from 14.2 to 172.8 mg/L (mean 65.57 mg/L), respectively and it accounts for 38 and 34% of

Table 2 Physico-chemical characteristics of the groundwater of the Bokaro district

Table 2 (continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Unit concentrations are in mg/L except EC (μ S cm⁻¹), and _PH

the TZ⁺. A higher sodium intake may cause hypertension, congenial heart diseases, nervous disorder, and kidney problems (Singh et al. 2008). Among the cations, K^+ concentration is very low in the groundwater samples of the study area. The concentrations of K^+ varied between 3.6 and 24.7 mg/L (mean 10.33 mg/L) in the pre-monsoon season and 1.1 to 14.2 mg/L (mean 5.5 mg/L) in the post-monsoon season, respectively. Although Na⁺ and

 K^+ could be associated with NO_3^- and Cl^- in sewage and fertilizer, weathering of silicate minerals such as albite, orthoclase microcline, and muscovite also may be a source (Gaofeng et al. [2010;](#page-18-0) Singh et al. [2012a\)](#page-19-0). Evaporate encrustations of $Na⁺$ and $K⁺$ salts, which develop due to cyclic wetting and drying of the Damodar River and cause the formation of alkaline/saline soils, also serve as a local source of Na^+ and K^+ (Singh et al. [2005](#page-19-0)).

Unit concentrations are in mg/L except EC (μ S cm⁻¹), and _PH

Jnit

concentrations are in mg/L except EC (μ S cm⁻¹), and μ H

Major anion chemistry

In the groundwater samples, HCO_3 ⁻ is the dominant anion among the other anions of the study area. The $HCO₃⁻$ concentrations varied from 155 to 750 mg/L with the mean value of 428.33 mg/L in the premonsoon season and from 138 to 654 mg/L with the mean value 330.92 mg/L in the post-monsoon season, respectively, which contributes 62% in the pre-monsoon season and 65% in the post-monsoon season of the total anionic content (TZ^{-}) . In the groundwater samples, higher concentrations of HCO_3 ⁻ are due to the carbonate weathering as well as the dissolution of carbonic acid in the aquifers and decay of organic matter in the soil zone (Canter [1997](#page-18-0); Jeong [2001;](#page-19-0) Zilberbrand et al. [2001](#page-19-0)). Chloride is second major anion in the groundwater samples of the study area. The concentration of Cl[−] varied from 43.99 to 328.99 mg/L (mean 151.37 mg/L) and from 23.99 to 288.93 mg/L (mean 105.70 mg/L), which accounts 21 and 22% of the TZ^- in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. Concentrations of Cl [−] exceeded the acceptable limits of 7.8 and 3.9% of the samples during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. Nitrate concentrations varied from 5.09 to 103.42 mg/L (mean 38.67 mg/L) in the pre-monsoon season and from 1.44 to 73.4 mg/L (mean 22.92 mg/ L) in the post-monsoon season, which contributing 6 and 5% in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons of the TZ⁻, respectively. About 37.2 and 25.4% of the samples in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons have high NO_3 ⁻ concentrations in the study area. Excessive NO_3 ⁻ in drinking water can cause a number of disorders including methaemoglobinaemia in infants, gastric cancer, goiter, birth malformations, and hypertension (Majumdar and Gupta [2000](#page-19-0)). The chief sources of $NO₃⁻$ and Cl⁻ are atmospheric precipitation, application of fertilizers, and discharges of municipal or domestic sewage (Appelo and Postma [1996](#page-18-0)). Sulphate concentrations in the groundwater of the study ranged between 21.83 and 157.76 mg/L with the mean of 68.03 mg/L and from 10.42 to 125.69 mg/L with the mean of 44.57 mg/L in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively, which accounts for 10 and 9% of the TZ⁻. In both seasons, the concentrations of SO_4^2 are within the respective acceptable limit established by the WHO ([2006](#page-19-0)) and BIS [\(2012\)](#page-18-0) in the study area. Concentrations of fluoride in the study area ranged from 0.34 to 1.89 mg/L and from 0.24 to 1.64 mg/L with the mean of 1.08 and 0.84 mg/L in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. F[−] concentrations exceeded the drinking water acceptable limit in 54.9 and 35.2% of the samples during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively. Excessive intake of F^- can cause various forms of

Table 4 Classification of the groundwater samples according to EC value (Langenegger [1990\)](#page-19-0)

fluorosis (Meenakshi and Maheshwari [2006;](#page-19-0) Tiwari et al. [2017\)](#page-19-0).

Hydrogeochemical facies

The trilinear plots and corresponding diamond-shaped Piper [\(1944\)](#page-19-0) diagram reveal that the groundwater of the study area is the primarily $Ca-Mg-HCO₃$ type and secondarily $Ca-Mg-Cl$ type in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively (Fig. [2](#page-9-0)). The data plot on the trilinear diagram shows that most of the groundwater samples fall into no dominant zone in the cation facies, while the $HCO₃$ zone in the anion facies during both seasons, respectively (Fig. [2\)](#page-9-0). However, few samples fall into no dominant zone in the anion facies and the Ca zone in the cation facies, respectively. The plot of geochemical data of both the years on diamond-shaped field reveals that majority of the plotted points fall in zone 1, 2, 3, 5, and 9 (Fig. [2](#page-9-0)). Most of the groundwater samples fall in the zone 5, suggesting carbonate hardness, while some sample falls in the zone 9, with no dominant cation-anion in the study area.

Statistical analysis

Correlation analysis is an important tool to understand the relationships between individual parameters and various controlling factors of the water samples (Li et al. [2013](#page-19-0)). A high correlation coefficient (near 1 or -1) means a good positive relationship between two variables and its value around zero means no relationship between them at a significant level of $p < 0.05$. A correlation coefficient of > 0.7 exhibits strong correlation whereas r value between 0.5 and 0.7 shows moderate correlation and < 0.5 exhibits poor correlation (Manish et al. [2006\)](#page-19-0). Calculated correlation matrix of the 102 groundwater samples is shown in Table [7.](#page-10-0) In the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, EC and TDS show a high positive and strong correlation with Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^{+} , K^{+} , Cl^{-} , HCO_3^- , F^{-} , and total hardness (TH). A high positive correlation between Ca^{2+} -Mg²⁺ $(0.84 \text{ and } 0.81)$, $Ca^{2+}-HCO_3^ (0.88 \text{ and } 0.89)$, $Mg^{2+}-Na^+$ $(0.72 \text{ and } 0.55)$, HCO_3 ⁻-Mg²⁺ (0.93 and 0.85), HCO_3 ⁻-Na⁺ (0.79 and 0.73), Ca²⁺-TH (0.97 and 0.97), and Mg²⁺-TH (0.94 and 0.93) indicating similar sources and similar geological process during ionic mineralization in the study area. The positive relation between HCO_3 ⁻F⁻ (0.86 and 0.87) in the pre-and post-monsoon seasons indicates that when both calcite and fluorite are in contact with water (Rafique et al. [2008](#page-19-0); Mamatha and Rao [2010](#page-19-0)).

Evolution of rock-water interaction behavior

Rock-water interaction behavior is important to evaluate the weathering, ion exchange process, and dissolved constituent that consequences in the groundwater quality. Gibbs [\(1970](#page-19-0)) proposed a diagram that is widely used to recognize the functional sources of the dissolved chemical element of the water with their relevant aquifer lithologies, such as precipitation dominance, evaporation dominance, and rock–water interaction dominance. Gibbs's diagram representing the ratio of $Na^+ + K^+/(Na^+ + K^+ + Ca^{2+})$ and $Cl^- + NO_3^-/(Cl^- + NO_3^- +$ $HCO₃⁻$ as a function of TDS to understand the functional

Table 6 Categorization of the groundwater based on total hardness (Sawyer and McCarthy [1967\)](#page-19-0)

sources of dissolved chemical constituents. The plot of geochemical data on Gibbs's diagrams (Fig. [3\)](#page-11-0) suggests rock weathering as the major driving force controlling the groundwater chemistry of the area in both seasons. The weathering dominance field indicates the interaction between the rock chemistry and groundwater chemistry. The relationship between Na⁺ and Cl[−] has often been used to identify the mechanism for acquiring salinity in semiarid or arid regions and to quantify the atmospheric contribution (Sarin et al. [1989](#page-19-0); Sami [1992\)](#page-19-0). The observed higher Na⁺/Cl[−] ratio (avg. 1.12 and 1.13) in the groundwater during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons as compared with marine aerosols $(Na^+/Cl^- = 0.85)$ suggests that high levels of major ions are derived most likely by weathering of rock-forming minerals and anthropogenic sources. The higher Na^+/Cl^- ratio (> 1.0) indicate the nonhalite source and suggest silicate weathering as a possible

Fig. 2 Piper trilinear diagram for hydrogeochemical facies of the study area groundwater

source of Na⁺. The lower molar ratio of Na⁺/Cl[−] (< 1.0) in many groundwater samples, probably results from ion exchange of $Na⁺$ for $Ca²⁺$ and $Mg²⁺$ in clays (Fig. [4a](#page-12-0)). The positive correlations between $Na⁺-Cl⁻$ (0.78 and 0.72), $Na⁺$ TDS (0.82 and 0.77), and Cl-TDS (0.94 and 0.95) in the preand post-monsoon seasons indicate that Cl[−] and part of the Na⁺ are derived from anthropogenic sources (Tiwari and Singh 2014) (Table [2\)](#page-4-0). The low levels of K^+ in the groundwater are a consequence of its tendency to be fixed by clay minerals and participate in the formation of secondary minerals. The plot of $(Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+})$ versus $(HCO_3^- + SO_4^2^-)$ will be close to 1:1 line (Fig. [4b](#page-12-0)) which indicates that dissolution of calcite, dolomite, and gypsum is the dominant reaction in the area (Cerling et al. [1989;](#page-18-0) Fisher and Mulican [1997](#page-18-0)). The samples fall above the equiline indicating an excess of Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+} and the potential for the release of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} by silicate weathering in both seasons. However, the plotted points fall along or below the equiline signifying the dominance of weathering and ion exchange processes (Fig. [4b](#page-12-0)).

The plot of $(Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+})$ versus HCO_3^- for the water samples shows that the majority of samples fall above the equiline and suggesting that the excess $(Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+})$ in these water should be balanced by $SO_4^{2-} + Cl^ SO_4^{2-} + Cl^ SO_4^{2-} + Cl^-$ in both season (Fig. 4c). The scatter plot between HCO_3^- versus $Cl^- + SO_4^{2-}$ shows the dominance of HCO_3^- over $Cl^- + SO_4^{2-}$ at higher TDS concentrations in the study area (Fig. [4d](#page-12-0)). The plotted point on $(Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+})$ versus total cations (TZ^+) scatter plot fall much below the equiline and the departure being more pronounced at higher concentration, reflecting an increasing contribution of $Na⁺$ and $K⁺$ with increasing dissolved solids (Fig. [4](#page-12-0)e). The high $(Na^{+} + K^{+})/TZ^{+}$, i.e., 0.33 and 0.29, and low $(Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+})/(Na^+ + K^+),$ i.e., 2.20 and 2.86 ratios during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons suggest that the chemical composition of the water is largely controlled by silicate weathering reactions with limited contribution via carbonate dissolution. The geochemical data plotted on scatter plot $Ca^{2+}/$ $Na⁺$ versus $Mg²⁺/Na⁺$ (Fig. [5](#page-13-0)) relating carbonate and silicate end members also depict the combined influence of carbonate

Fig. 3 Gibbs diagram for controlling factor of the groundwater quality

and silicate weathering in solute acquisition processes (Gaillardet et al. [1999](#page-18-0)). The results, as shown in Fig. [8](#page-15-0), suggest that weathering of alumino-silicate minerals like plagioclase, mica, amphiboles, pyroxenes, etc. is the major lithogenic contributor for Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, and HCO₃⁻ along with minor addition of Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and HCO_3^- from dissolution of carbonates in the groundwater of the study area. Similarly, in previous work by the Mahato et al. [2016](#page-19-0) support that the silicate weathering, carbonate weathering, and ion exchange processes controlling the chemical composition of the groundwater in the East Bokaro coalfield, Jharkhand, India.

Chloro-alkaline indices and saturation index

The chloro-alkaline indices (CAI-I and CAI-II) were used to evaluate the ion exchange process taking place during groundwater movement in the aquifer system. Chloro-indices have been calculated by using the formula given below:

$$
CA-I = CI^{-}-(Na^{+} + K^{+})/CI^{-}
$$
 (2)

$$
CA-II = CI^{-}-(Na^{+} + K^{+})/SO_{4}^{2-} + HCO_{3}^{-} + NO_{3}^{-} (3)
$$

The chloro-alkaline indices (CAI-I and CAI-II) can be either positive or negative depending on whether the exchange of Na⁺ and K⁺ is from water with Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ in rock/soil or vice versa. If Na⁺ and K⁺ are exchanged in water with Mg^{2+} and $Ca²⁺$, the value of the ratio will be positive, indicating a base-exchange phenomenon. The negative values of the ratio will indicate chloro-alkaline disequilibrium and the reaction as a cation-anion exchange reaction. During this process, the host rocks are the primary source of dissolved solids in the water.

In the present case, the chloro-alkaline index (CA-I) values ranged between -1.19 and 0.48 meq/L with the average of $-$ 0.18 meq/L in the pre-monsoon season and from − 1.76 to 0.72 meq/L with the average value of -0.19 meq/L in the post-monsoon season, whereas CA-II index values ranged from -0.37 to 0.29 meq/L (avg. -0.06 meq/L) in the premonsoon season and from -0.39 to 0.47 meg/L (avg. $-$ 0.03 meq/L) in the post-monsoon season, respectively (Table [8](#page-15-0)). The results, as shown in Fig. [6a](#page-14-0), b, indicate that most of the samples (approx 60.66 and 54.94% of the samples) have negative values during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, signifying chloro-alkaline disequilibrium and the reaction as a cation-anion exchange reaction. However, the rest of samples in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons have positive values, indicating a base-exchange reaction in the study area.

The saturation index (SI) is defined as the logarithm of the ratio of ion activity product (IAP) to the mineral equilibrium constant (Ksp) at a given temperature (Freeze and Cherry [1979;](#page-18-0) Stumm and Morgan [1981](#page-19-0)) and is expressed as:

$$
SI = \log (IAP/Ksp)
$$
 (4)

A positive SI indicates that the water is supersaturated with respect to the particular mineral phase and therefore incapable of dissolving the mineral; the mineral phase may precipitate. A negative SI indicates undersaturation and potential for

Fig. 4 Scatter plot between a Na⁺ versus Cl[−], b Ca²⁺ + Mg²⁺ versus HCO₃[−] + SO₄²⁺, c Ca²⁺ + Mg²⁺ versus HCO₃[−], d HCO₃[−] versus SO₄^{2−} + Cl[−], e Ca²⁺ + Mg^{2+} versus total cations (TZ⁺)

Fig. 5 Plot of Ma^{2+}/Na^{+} versus $Ca²⁺/Na⁺$ relating carbonate and silicate end members (mM)

dissolution of the mineral phase, if present. The plot of saturation indices of calcite (SI_c) versus dolomite (SI_d) demonstrates that 91 and 82% of the water samples in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons are supersaturated with respect to dolomite and calcite. The SI_d values are higher than the SI_c values (Fig. [7](#page-14-0)). This supersaturation could lead to the precipitation of Ca and/or Ca-Mg carbonate under suitable physicochemical conditions. This explains the presence of calcareous nodules, which contain a mixture of calcite and/or dolomite in the study area (Singh et al. [2008\)](#page-19-0). About 9 and 18% of the water samples have negative SI indices and are undersaturated with respect to both calcite and dolomite in the pre- and postmonsoon seasons, respectively. Samples plotting in this field come from an environment where calcite and dolomite are depleted or where Ca and Mg exist in other forms would also probably fall in this field.

Suitability of groundwater for irrigation purposes

Electrical conductivity (EC), salinity, sodium absorption ratio (SAR), residual sodium carbonate (RSC), percent sodium (Na %), Kelly's ratio (KR), magnesium hazard (MH), and permeability index (PI) were analyzed to delineate the suitability of groundwater for irrigation purposes which shows in the Table [8.](#page-15-0) Groundwater suitability for irrigation purpose depends on the dissolved ion component and soil drainage is also one of the important factors for plant growth with water quality. Welldrained soil with highly saline water will be good for crop production but in poorly drained areas, the groundwater is not fulfilled even with good water quality (Todd [1980](#page-19-0); Richards [1954\)](#page-19-0).

Sodium absorption ratio

The U.S. Salinity Laboratory ([1954](#page-19-0)) proposed a diagram for studying the suitability of groundwater for irrigation purposes based electrical conductivity and sodium adsorption ratio. High salt concentration (EC) in water leads to the formation of saline soil, while a high sodium concentration leads to the development of an alkaline soil. The sodium or alkali hazard expressed in terms of SAR and estimated by the formula:

$$
SAR = Na / [(Ca + Mg)/2]^{0.5}
$$

concentration in meg/L (5)

In the US salinity diagram, irrigation water is classified as low $(EC = < 250 \text{ }\mu\text{S cm}^{-1})$, medium $(EC = 250 -$ 750 μS cm⁻¹), high (EC = 750–2250 μS cm⁻¹), and very high $(EC = 2250 - 5000 \mu S \text{ cm}^{-1})$, salinity classes (USSL [1954\)](#page-19-0). On the basis of SAR value, water is classified into low $(SAR < 6)$, medium (SAR 6–12), high (SAR 12–18), and very high (SAR.18) alkali waters (Fig. [8\)](#page-15-0). The SAR values in the study area ranged from 0.97 to 4.08 meq/L with the average value of

2.03 in the pre-monsoon season and from 0.45 to 3.46 meq/L with the average value of 1.50 meq/L in the post-monsoon season, respectively (Table [8\)](#page-15-0). According to USSL ([1954\)](#page-19-0) diagram, 19.60 and 47.05% of the samples in the study area during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons are fall in the zone of C2S1 indicating medium-salinity and low-sodium hazards water, such type of water can be suitable for irrigation purposes with little danger of development of exchangeable sodium and salinity. However, about 80.38 and 52.94% in the pre- and post-monsoon seasons of the groundwater samples are falls in the zone of C3S1 category, indicating high salinity and low-sodium hazards (Fig. [8\)](#page-15-0). High saline water cannot be used on soils with the low drained area without any proper management and salt-tolerant plants/crops should be selected for high-saline regions (Todd [1980;](#page-19-0) Hem [1985;](#page-19-0) Karanth [1987;](#page-19-0) Singh et al. [2012b](#page-19-0)).

Fig. 7 Relationship between calcite (SI_c) and dolomite (SI_d) saturation indices

Fig. 8 Classification of the groundwater based on USSL diagram

SALINITY HAZARD

Unit concentrations are in meq/L

the groundwater samples for irrigation purpose of the study

area

Fig. 9 Sodium percentage plot for water quality classification (Wilcox diagram 1955)

Percent sodium

The sodium concentration is usually expressed in terms of sodium percent which is generally used for evaluating the suitability of water for irrigation purposes because sodium reacts with soil to reduce its permeability (Wilcox [1955](#page-19-0)). High Na content can promote the exchange of Na ions in water for Ca and Mg in the soil, which causes the soil to deflocculate and can decrease soil permeability (Singh et al. [2008\)](#page-19-0). Na% is classified into five classes for irrigation uses: excellent (20%) , good $(20-40\%)$, permissible $(40-60\%)$, doubtful $(60-80\%)$, and unsuitable $(>80\%)$ and it can be estimated by the formula:

 $Na\% = Na + K/(Ca + Mg + Na + K) \times 100$ (6) concentration in meq/L.

In the study area, percent sodium (Na $\%$) in the groundwater samples ranged from 18.46 to 51.82% with the average value of 33.8% in the pre-monsoon season. However, Na% during the post-monsoon season ranged from 10.01 to 48% with the average value of 29.17%, respectively (Table [8](#page-15-0)). A plot of the analytical data on the Wilcox ([1955](#page-19-0)) diagram, which relates EC to Na%, indicates that the groundwater water may be used for irrigation without any hazard (Fig. 9).

Residual sodium carbonate

The high concentration of carbonates $(HCO_3^- + CO_3^-)$ in excess of alkaline earths $(Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+})$ is termed as the RSC that affect the suitability of groundwater for agricultural purposes because there may be a chance of high content of sodium ions due to complete precipitation of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} ions (Ragunath [1987](#page-19-0); Eaton [1950\)](#page-18-0) and the residual sodium carbonate (RSC) has been calculated by using formula:

$$
RSC = (CO3 + HCO3) - (Ca + Mg)
$$

concentration in meg/L (7)

Richards ([1954](#page-19-0)) classified irrigation water into three types on the basis of RSC values, if RSC values $\langle 1.25 \text{ meg/L} \rangle$

Fig. 10 Rating of irrigation water on the basis of PI (Doneen [1964](#page-18-0))

(good), it lies between 1.25 and 2.50 meq/L (doubtful), and a value > 2.5 meg/L (unsuitable). In the present study, RSC values in the pre- and post- monsoon seasons ranged from − 8.53 to 0.28 meq/L (mean − 2.74 meq/L) and from − 7.06 to 0.53 meq/L ((mean -1.99 meq/L), respectively (Table [8](#page-15-0)). In the study area, the groundwater samples have RSC value < 1.25 meq/L in both seasons that indicates all water samples are suitable for irrigation purposes without any hazards.

Magnesium hazard and Kelly's ratio

The magnesium hazard and Kelley index are also used to classify water for irrigation. The MH and KI can be determined by the formula:

$$
MH = Mg/(Ca + Mg) \times 100 \tag{8}
$$

$$
KI = Na/(Ca + Mg)
$$
 (9)

concentration in meq/L.

Szabolcs and Darab ([1964](#page-19-0)) proposed a magnesium hazard (MH) value for irrigation water; above 50 meq/L magnesium ratio is recommended for unsafe and unsuitable for agricultural activity. From the analytical data, the MH values ranged from 36.89 to 61.68 meq/L and 24.76 to 60.31 meq/L with the mean value of 48.99 meq/L and 44.79 meq/L during the pre- and post-monsoon seasons, respectively (Table [8\)](#page-15-0). Based on the above criteria, approximately 23.52% of the samples in the pre-monsoon season and 43.13% of the samples in the post-monsoon season are not suitable for agricultural purposes.

Water with a $K1 > 1.0$ contains excessive Na (Kelley [1946;](#page-19-0) Paliwal [1967\)](#page-19-0). The Bokaro district groundwater had KI values from $0.21-1.04$ meq/L with the mean value of 0.49 meq/L in the pre-monsoon season and from 0.10–0.89 meq/L with the mean value of 0.42 meq/L during the post-monsoon season, respectively (Table [8\)](#page-15-0). In both seasons, the groundwater samples of the study area are safe for irrigation purposes based on the KI value.

Permeability index

Permeability index (PI) is another parameter for assessing the suitability of water for irrigation uses. Doneen (1964) classified irrigation waters based on the permeability index (PI). PI can be determined by the formula:

$$
PI = (Na + \sqrt{HCO_3})/(Ca + Mg + Na) \times 100
$$
 (10)

concentration in meq/L.

Soil permeability is affected by long-term use of water rich in Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, and HCO₃. Doneen (1964) classified irrigation water in three PI classes. Class-I and class-II water types are suitable for irrigation with 75% or more of maximum permeability, while class-III type of water, with 25% of maximum permeability, is unsuitable for irrigation. The PI values ranged from 35.38 to 76.89% (mean 51.99%) in the premonsoon season and from 29.32 to 79.58 (mean 53.62%) in the post-monsoon seasons, respectively (Table [8\)](#page-15-0). On this basis of PI classes, the water of the study area is also suitable for irrigation uses without any problem (Fig. [10](#page-17-0)).

Conclusions

The groundwater of the Bokaro district is slightly acidic to slightly alkaline nature and its chemistry is dominated by $Ca²⁺$ and Na⁺ in the cationic concentration and HCO₃⁻ and Cl[−] in the anionic abundances during the pre- and postmonsoon seasons, respectively. $Ca-Mg-HCO₃$ and $Ca-Mg$ -Cl are the dominant hydrogeochemical facies in the Bokaro district groundwater during both seasons, respectively. Most of the groundwater samples (91 and 82%) in the pre- and postmonsoon seasons are supersaturated with respect to dolomite and calcite, signifying the presence of calcareous nodules in the sub-surface soil profile of the area. The results of the present study are suggested that the chemical composition of the groundwater is mainly controlled by the rock weathering phenomena, ion exchange processes with minor contributions from anthropogenic activities of the study area.

The concentrations of TDS, hardness, Ca^{2+} , Na⁺, and Cl[−] are above the drinking water desirable limit established by the WHO [\(2006\)](#page-19-0) and BIS (2012) in the groundwater of the study area during both seasons, respectively. Furthermore, the concentrations of the physico-chemical parameters in the water samples are all higher in the pre-monsoon season than the post-monsoon season, respectively. Most of the groundwater samples of the Bokaro district are good to permissible quality for irrigation uses during both seasons, respectively. However, high salinity and MR values at some locations restrict the suitability for irrigation uses. These findings indicate that the groundwater of the study area is required suitable water

treatment and special management plan before using for domestic and irrigation purposes.

Acknowledgments The authors are grateful to the Director, Indian Institute of Technology (Indian School of Mines) Dhanbad, Jharkhand, India, for his kind support and permission to publish this paper. One of the authors (Poornima Verma) is thankful to ISM/MHRD/Government of India. We are also thankful to Dr. Mukesh Kumar Mahato, Mr. Subhash Chandra, Binay Prakash Panigrahy, and other lab members for their support and encouragement. Our hearty thanks to the editor and anonymous reviewers for their valuable suggestions on how to improve the manuscript.

References

- Agrawal V, Jagetia M (1997) Hydrogeochemical assessment of groundwater quality in Udaipur city, Rajasthan, India. In: Proceedings of national conference on dimension of environmental stress in India, Department of Geology, MS University, Baroda, India
- APHA (1998) Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater, 20th edn. American Public Health Association, Washington
- Appelo CAJ, Postma D (1996) Geochemistry, groundwater and pollution. In: AA Balkema Publ. Rotterdam, The Netherlands
- BIS (2012) Indian standards specification for drinking water 15:10500. Bureau of Indian Standards, New Delhi
- Canter LW (1997) Nitrates in groundwater. Lewis Publisher, New York
- Cerling TE, Pederson BL, Damm KLV (1989) Sodiumcalcium ion exchange in the weathering of shales: implication for global weathering budgets. Geology 17:552–554
- CGWB (2013) Groundwater information booklet, Bokaro district, Jharkhand state, Central Ground Water Board, Ministry of Water Resources, Government of India
- Chatterjee R, Tarafder G, Paul S (2010) Groundwater quality assessment of Dhanbad district, Jharkhand, India. Bull Eng Geol Environ 69(1): 137–141
- Chitradevi S, Sridhar SGD (2011) Hydrochemical characterization of groundwater in the proximity of river Noyyal, Tiruppur, South India Indian. J Sci Technol 4:1732–1736
- Davis SN, De Wiest RJM (1966) Hydrogeology, vol 463. Wiley, New York
- Doneen LD (1964) Notes on water quality in agriculture. Department of Water Sciences and Engineering University of California Davis. In: Water science and engineering
- Durvey VS, Sharma LL, Saini VP, Sharma BK (1991) Handbook on the methodology of water quality assessment. Rajasthan Agricultural University, India
- Eaton FM (1950) Significance of carbonate irrigation water. Soils Sci 69: 123–133
- Fisher RS, Mullican WF (1997) Hydrochemical evolution of sodium sulphate and sodium chloride groundwater beneath the Northern Chihuahuan desert, Trans-Pecos, Texas, USA. Hydrogeol J 5:4–1
- Freeze RA, Cherry JA (1979) Groundwater. Prentice-Hall Inc, Englewood Cliffs
- Gaillardet J, Dupre B, Louvat P, Allegre CJ (1999) Global silicate weathering and CO₂consumption rates deduced from the chemistry of large rivers. Chem Geol 159:3–30
- Gaofeng Z, Yonghong S, Chunlin H, Qi F, Zhiguang L (2010) Hydrogeochemical processes in the groundwater environment of Heihe river basin, northwest China. Environ Geol 60:139–153
- Gautam SK, Maharana C, Sharma D, Singh AK, Tripathi JK, Singh SK (2015) Evaluation of groundwater quality in the Chotanagpur plateau region of the Subarnarekha river basin, Jharkhand State, India. Sustain Water Qual Ecol 6:57–74
- Gibbs RJ (1970) Mechanisms controlling world water chemistry. Science 17:1088–1090
- Hem JD (1985) Study and interpretation of the chemical characteristics of natural water. USGS Water Supply Paper 2254:117–120
- Jeong CH (2001) Effect of land use and urbanization on hydrochemistry and contamination of groundwater from Taejon area, Korea. J Hydrol 253:194–210
- Karanth KR (1987) Ground water assessment: development and management. Tata McGraw-Hill Education
- Kelley WP (1946) Permissible composition and concentration of irrigation waters. Proceeding American Society of Civil Engineering, In
- Langenegger O (1990) Ground water quality in rural areas of western Africa, UNDP project INT/81/026:10
- Li P, Wu J, Qian H (2013) Assessment of groundwater quality for irrigation purposes and identification of hydrogeochemical evolution mechanisms in Pengyang County, China. Environ Earth Sci 69: 2211–2225
- Mahato MK, Singh PK, Tiwari AK (2016) Hydrogeochemical evaluation of groundwater quality and seasonal variation in East Bokaro coalfield region, Jharkhand. J Geol Soc India 88:173–184
- Majumdar D, Gupta N (2000) Nitrate pollution of groundwater and associated human health disorders. Indian J Environ Hlth 42:28–39
- Mamatha P, Rao SM (2010) Geochemistry of fluoride rich groundwater in Kolar and Tumkur districts of Karnataka. Environ Earth Sci 61: 131–142
- Manish K, Ramanathan A, Rao MS, Kumar B (2006) Identification and evaluation of hydrogeochemical processes in the groundwater environment of Delhi. India J Environ Geol 50:1025–1039
- Meenakshi, Maheshwari RC (2006) Fluoride in drinking water and its removal. J Hazard Mater 137:456–463
- Mondal GC, Singh AK, Singh TB, Tewary BK, Sinha A (2013) Hydro geochemistry and quality assessment of mine water of West Bokaro coalfields, Hazaribag, Jharkhand, India. J Mater Sci Eng 3:540
- Paliwal KV (1967) Effects of gypsum application on the quality of irrigation water. Madras Agr J 59:646–647
- Piper AM (1944) A graphic procedure in the geochemical interpretation of water-analyses. Eos, Trans Am Geophys Union 25:914–928
- Prasad B, Kumari P, Bano S, Kumari S (2014) Ground water quality evaluation near mining area and development of heavy metal pollution index. Appl Water Sci 4(1):11–17
- Rafique T, Naseem S, Bhanger MI, Usmani TH (2008) Fluoride ion contamination in the groundwater of Mithi sub-district, the Thar Desert, Pakistan. Environ Geol 56:317–326
- Ragunath HM (1987) Groundwater, 2nd edn. Wiley Eastern Ltd., New Delhi, pp 344–369
- Richards LA (1954) Diagnosis and improvement of saline alkali soils: agriculture. Handbook 60, US Department of Agriculture, Washington DC
- Sami K (1992) Recharge mechanisms and geochemical processes in a semi-arid sedimentary basin, eastern cape, South Africa. J Hydrol 139:27–48
- Sarin MM, Krishnaswamy S, Dilli K, Somayajulu BLK, Moore WS (1989) Major ion chemistry of the Ganga-Brahmaputra river system: weathering processes and fluxes to the Bay of Bengal. Geochim Cosmochim Acta 53:997–1009
- Satapathy I, Syed TH (2015) Characterization of groundwater potential and artificial recharge sites in Bokaro District, Jharkhand (India), using remote sensing and GIS-based techniques. Environ Earth Sci 74:4215–4232
- Sawyer GN, McCarthy DL (1967) Chemistry of sanitary engineers, 2nd edn. McGraw Hill, Sciences 73:3043–3061
- Shekhar S, Pandey AC, Nathawat MS (2012) Evaluation of fluoride contamination in groundwater sources in hard rock terrain in Garhwa district, Jharkhand. India Int J Environ Sci 3(3):1022
- Singh AK, Mondal GC, Singh PK, Singh S, Singh TB, Tewary BK (2005) Hydrochemistry of reservoirs of Damodar River basin, India: weathering processes and water quality assessment. Environ Geol 48:1014–1028
- Singh AK, Mondal GC, Kumar S, Singh TB, Tewary BK, Sinha A (2008) Major ion chemistry, weathering processes and water quality assessment in upper catchment of Damodar River basin, India. Environ Geol 54:745–758
- Singh AK, Mondal GC, Singh TB, Singh S, Tewary BK, Sinha A (2012a) Hydrogeochemical processes and quality assessment of groundwater in Dumka and Jamtara districts, Jharkhand, India. Environ Earth Sci 67(8):2175–2191
- Singh AK, Mahato MK, Neogi B, Tewary BK, Sinha A (2012b) Environmental geochemistry and quality assessment of mine water of Jharia coalfield. India Environ Earth Sci 65:49–65
- Singh PK, Tiwari AK, Mahato MK (2013) Qualitative assessment of surface water of West Bokaro Coalfield, Jharkhand by using water quality index method. Int J Chem Tech Res 5:2351–2356
- Singh P, Tiwari AK, Singh PK (2014a) Hydrochemical characteristic and quality assessment of groundwater of Ranchi township area, Jharkhand, India. Curr World Environ 9(3):804–813
- Singh RBP, Singh A, Choudhary SK (2014b) Impact of opencast coal mining on the quality of surface water, groundwater and vegetation: a case study in Simlong coalfield, Sahibganj, Jharkhand. Int J Emerging Techno 5(2):95
- Stumm W, Morgan JJ (1981) Aquatic chemistry. Wiley Interscience, New York
- Szabolcs I, Darab C (1964) The influence of irrigation water of high sodium carbonate content of soils In Proceedings of 8th international congress of ISSS, Trans, II (pp. 803–812)
- Tirkey P, Bhattacharya T, Chakraborty S, Baraik S (2017) Assessment of groundwater quality and associated health risks: a case study of Ranchi city, Jharkhand, India. Groundwater Susta Develop 5:85– 100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gsd.2017.05.002>
- Tiwari AK, De Maio M, Singh PK, Singh AK (2016) Hydrogeochemical characterization and groundwater quality assessment in a coal mining area, India. Arab J Geosci 9(3):1–17
- Tiwari AK, Singh AK (2014) Hydrogeochemical investigation and groundwater quality assessment of Pratapgarh District, Uttar Pradesh. J Geol Soc India 83(3):329–343
- Tiwari AK, Singh AK, Mahato MK (2017) GIS based evaluation of fluoride contamination and assessment of fluoride exposure dose in groundwater of a district in Uttar Pradesh, India. Hum Ecol Risk Assess 23(1):56–66
- Todd DK (1980) Groundwater hydrology, 2nd edn. Wiley, New York
- Touhari F, Meddi M, Mehaiguene M, Razack M (2015) Hydrogeochemical assessment of the upper Cheliff groundwater (north West Algeria). Environ Earth Sci 73:3043–3061
- United States Salinity Laboratory (USSL) (1954) Diagnosis and improvement of saline and University of Madras, pp 90–91
- W H O (2006) Guidelines for drinking-water quality 4th edition. Switzerland, Geneva
- Wilcox LV (1955) Classification and use of irrigation waters. USDA, Circular 969, Washington, DC
- Zilberbrand M, Rosenthal E, Shachnai E (2001) Impact of urbanization on hydrochemical evolution of groundwater and on unsaturatedzone gas composition in the coastal city of Tel Aviv, Israel. J Contam Hydrol 50:175–208