



Groundwater fluoride and nitrate contamination and associated human health risk assessment in South Punjab, Pakistan

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Abstract

Consumption of high fluoride (F^-) and nitrate (NO_3^-) containing water may pose serious health hazards. One hundred sixty-one groundwater samples were collected from drinking wells in Khushab district, Punjab Province, Pakistan, to determine the causes of elevated F^- and NO_3^- concentrations, and to estimate the human health risks posed by groundwater contamination. The results showed pH of the groundwater samples ranged from slightly neutral to alkaline, and Na^+ and HCO_3^- ions dominated the groundwater. Piper diagram and bivariate plots indicated that the key factors regulating groundwater hydrochemistry were weathering of silicates, dissolution of evaporates, evaporation, cation exchange, and anthropogenic activities. The F^- content of groundwater ranged from 0.06 to 7.9 mg/L, and 25.46% of groundwater samples contained high-level fluoride concentration ($F^- > 1.5$ mg/L), which exceeds the (WHO Guidelines for drinking-water quality: incorporating the first and second addenda, WHO, Geneva, 2022) guidelines of drinking-water quality. Inverse geochemical modeling indicates that weathering and dissolution of fluoride-rich minerals were the primary causes of F^- in groundwater. High F^- can be attributed to low concentration of calcium-containing minerals along the flow path. The concentrations of NO_3^- in groundwater varied from 0.1 to 70 mg/L; some samples are slightly exceeding the (WHO Guidelines for drinking-water quality: incorporating the first and second addenda, WHO, Geneva, 2022) guidelines for drinking-water quality. Elevated NO_3^- content was attributed to the anthropogenic activities revealed by PCA analysis. The high levels of nitrates found in the study region are a result of various human-caused factors, including leaks from septic systems, the use of nitrogen-rich fertilizers, and waste from households, farming operations, and livestock. The hazard quotient (HQ) and total hazard index (THI) of F^- and NO_3^- showed high non-carcinogenic risk (> 1) via groundwater consumption, demonstrating a high potential risk to the local population. This study is significant because it is the most comprehensive examination of water quality, groundwater hydrogeochemistry, and health risk assessment in the Khushab district to date, and it will serve as a baseline for future studies. Some sustainable measures are urgent to reduce the F^- and NO_3^- content in the groundwater.

Keywords Nitrate · Fluoride · Groundwater quality · Water–rock interaction

Introduction

Groundwater is an essential source of fresh water in arid and semi-arid regions worldwide, but different pathogens and chemical contamination frequently challenge water

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safety (Jat Baloch et al. 2022a; Zhang et al. 2022a, b). Almost 2.5 billion people depend heavily on groundwater for their daily needs, particularly for drinking (Ghani et al. 2022; Huq et al. 2020; McDonald et al. 2011; Rashid et al. 2018). Groundwater demand is increasing daily due to population growth and the lack of alternative water sources for various utilities (Sajjad et al. 2022; Tariq et al. 2022). Due to environmental changes and human activities, groundwater quality is drastically declining, which directly affects human health and causes serious problems (Dilpazeer et al. 2023; Jat Baloch et al. 2022b; Kamruzzaman et al. 2020; Zhang et al. 2018). Human use of high levels of F^- and NO_3^- containing groundwater has been linked to non-carcinogenic concerns worldwide (Qasemi et al. 2019; Rao et al. 2021; Tran et al. 2021). Long-term ingesting of polluted groundwater (inorganic or organic) may endanger the local population's health (Baloch et al. 2020; Su et al. 2016, 2021).

For the past two decades, contamination of groundwater by F^- and NO_3^- has been a significant public health concern (Qasemi et al. 2023). Many studies on the groundwater quality related to elevated F^- have been conducted in arid and semi-arid regions around the world (Alam and Ahmad 2014; Khattak et al. 2022; Lanjwani et al. 2022; Mwiathi et al. 2022; Su et al. 2013, 2015). The World Health Organization (WHO 2022) recommends a permissible level of 1.5 mg/L of F^- in groundwater for human consumption. Prolonged consumption of geogenic pollutants, such as F^- , can lead to fluorosis (a condition affecting the teeth and bones), characterized by symptoms such as stiffness, osteoporosis, calcification of ligaments, limbs, and arthritis (Aurrecoechea et al. 2009; Qasemi et al. 2022; Rao et al. 2022b; Subba Rao et al. 2020). Fluorosis is a highly prevalent condition, affecting 260 million people in 25 countries around the world, with 100 million of them in Southeast Asia, including India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka (Mridha et al. 2021; Rasool et al. 2018). Human health has been linked to elevated NO_3^- levels in drinking water (Rao et al. 2022b; Ward et al. 2018). Due to the risk of infant methemoglobinemia, the US Environmental Protection Agency established a maximum contaminant limit (MCL) of 10 mg/L for NO_3^- (Beaver et al. 2014). Exceedances of the NO_3^- MCL is excessive in water. Epidemiological studies have linked NO_3^- in drinking water to colorectal cancer, childhood central nervous system tumors, thyroid disorders, and neural tube defects at levels above the MCL (Gugulothu et al. 2022a; Ransom et al. 2022).

F^- is found in groundwater due to anthropogenic sources and rock weathering (Brindha and Elango 2011; Talpur et al. 2020). During weathering, the fluoride-bearing minerals (e.g., amphiboles, apatite, biotite fluorite, muscovite), release F^- into the groundwater. Temperature, pH, calcium and bicarbonate ion concentration in water, and other factors have all impacted the availability and

solubility of fluorine-bearing minerals. In contrast to the anthropogenic degradation of surface water, geogenic pollution of groundwater is difficult to detect and manage (Iqbal et al. 2021; Nabizadehb et al. 2019; Rezaei et al. 2017). Phosphate fertilizers, herbicides, sewage and sludge, and other agricultural practices have all been linked to increased F^- concentrations in groundwater (Baloch and Mangi 2019; Iqbal et al. 2021, Kundu and Mandal 2009, Talpur et al. 2020). The main mechanisms that result in F^- enrichment in groundwater are dissolution and precipitation (Sahin et al. 2021), adsorption/desorption (Zhang and Selim 2005), ion exchange (Nagendra Rao 2003), evaporation (Adimalla et al. 2018), mixing (Sakram et al. 2019), and anthropogenic activities (Haji et al. 2021). The increased NO_3^- concentrations caused by industrial and agricultural activities may impact groundwater quality (Liu et al. 2021). Anthropogenic and natural activities, such as nitrogen fertilizers, can transfer NO_3^- into groundwater (Shukla and Saxena 2018). Chemical fertilizers, atmospheric precipitation, soil organic nitrogen, manure, and sewage are all potential sources of NO_3^- (Inyang et al. 2012). A thorough understanding of hydrogeochemical properties and contamination status is required to protect groundwater resources in Pakistan and ensure drinking water safety (Talib et al. 2019; Ullah et al. 2022).

In semi-arid and arid areas of Pakistan, groundwater is the most essential source of domestic water (Abbas et al. 2018; Jat Baloch et al. 2021a). According to the Pakistan Council of Research in Water Resources (PCRWR), polluted groundwater is the leading cause of diseases in Pakistan (Al-Rasheed 2013). Numerous studies on F^- and NO_3^- contamination of groundwater in Pakistan have been conducted in recent years (Anjum et al. 2013; Farooqi et al. 2007; Masood et al. 2022; Rafique et al. 2009; Raza et al. 2016; Tahir and Rasheed 2008). Contamination of groundwater sources by F^- in Pakistan has been reported in various regions, including Dargai (Rashid et al. 2020), Negar Parkar (Rafique et al. 2009), Sialkot (Ullah et al. 2009), Umar Kot (Rafique et al. 2015), Swat (Rashid et al. 2018), and Peshawar (Ahmad et al. 2020). In twenty-one cities of Pakistan, the NO_3^- concentrations in groundwater were higher than the WHO 2022 recommended drinking water quality limits (Gelfand et al. 2011; Rehman et al. 2020; Tahir and Rasheed 2008). Twenty-five percent of the groundwater of Rawalpindi, Pakistan, is nitrate-polluted (Khan et al. 2005; Soomro et al. 2017). To date, there has been a lack of research on the hydrogeochemistry of groundwater and its potential health impacts in the Khushab district. Therefore, a comprehensive study on the hydrogeochemical characteristics and potential health risks of groundwater for the local population is needed to be conducted. The objectives of this study were (1) to identify the geochemical processes that cause F^- and NO_3^- enrichment in groundwater, and (2) to assess

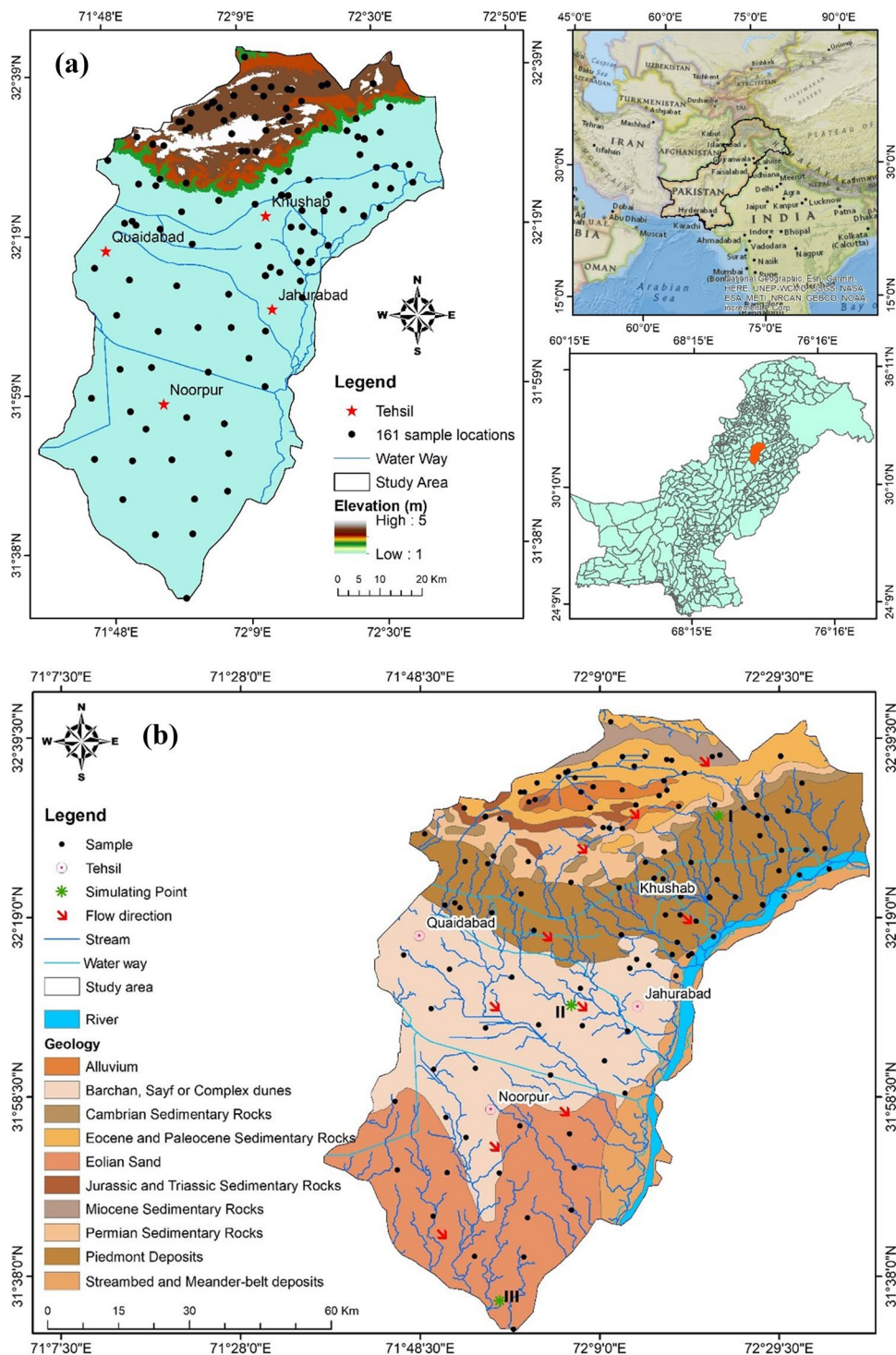
the potential health risks of exposure to F^- and NO_3^- in the groundwater.

Materials and methods

Study area

Khushab district is located in Punjab Province, Pakistan, at $32^{\circ}01'7.57''$ N and $72^{\circ}12'16.21''$ E. It covers a total area of

Fig. 1 Location and sampling sites (a), and hydrogeology map (b) of the study area



6511 km². The population was 905,711 at the 2017 census, with 24.76% living in urban areas (Fig. 1). The district comprises four tehsils, namely, Khushab, Quaidabad, Nurpur, and Jahurabad. The air temperatures in the summer range from 35 to 46 °C, while temperatures in the winter vary from 6 to 13 °C, with annual precipitation ranging from 150 to 350 mm (Chaudhari et al. 2014).

Khushab is situated in the Salt Range foothills, composed of heavily fractured and deformed rocks containing fossils from the Precambrian to the Pleistocene. The study area is one of the parts of the Indus plains through which the Indus River and its tributaries drain. A doab is a flat area in the Indus plain that means “a place surrounded by two rivers” (Puri et al. 2009). The five doabs of the Indus plains are Rechna Doab, Thal Doab, Bari Doab, Chaj Doab, and Bist Doab. The Jhelum River runs through the research area in Thal Doab’s north-eastern region, separating the Sargodha district tehsils of Khushab and Shahpur.

Unconsolidated but extremely permeable alluvium deposits can be found up to a depth of more than 300 m throughout the research area (Swarzenski 1965). In addition, the Indus plain contains discontinuous, low-permeability material. As a result, sand accounts for nearly 70% of alluvium and serves as a highly transmissive and unconfined aquifers (Cheema and Bastiaanssen 2010; Hussain et al. 2017). The research area’s permeability coefficients range from 0.05 to 1.2 m/s (Greenman et al. 1967). Khushab comprises massive yet unconsolidated Quaternary alluvial and eolian deposits on top of Precambrian basement rocks. Alluvium deposits contain fine to medium sand, clay, and silt. Coarser concentrated sediments can be found at a depth of 180 m near Quaid Abad and Bundiyl. The floodplains of the Jhelum River are covered in heavy sand deposits with a small amount of gravel. Thin silt and clay lenses with limited vertical and lateral extension are found in sand deposits (Akram 2014). The Jhelum River recharges aquifers through its bed and is responsible for flooding on flood plains. Rainwater is another critical source of aquifer recharge in the study region.

Sampling and analysis

To assess the quality of groundwater in the Khushab district, 161 samples were collected from shallow aquifers (< 35 m) between June and August 2020. The samples were then filtered through a 0.45-µm filter for further analysis. The American Public Health Association’s standard methods were followed (APHA et al. 2005) (Jat Baloch et al. 2022b). The samples were then stored in 120-mL glass bottles that had been thoroughly rinsed and washed. These groundwater samples were then tested in the Pakistan Council of Research in Water Resources (PCRWR) water

quality laboratory. The pH, electrical conductivity (EC), total dissolved solids (TDS), total hardness (TH), and turbidity were evaluated in the study area using the multi-parameter analyzer (Hanna HI9829). The samples were examined for significant anions, such as NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, and PO₄³⁻, using a UV–VIS spectrophotometer (Germany). The concentration of F⁻ was determined using “Mohr’s method and fluoride analyzer” ISE (ion-selective electrode) (Rashid et al. 2018). Bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) and chloride (Cl⁻) were determined using titration. Calcium (Ca²⁺) and magnesium (Mg²⁺) concentrations were measured by volumetric titration with ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid. The flame photometer was used to measure sodium (Na⁺) and potassium (K⁺) concentrations (Zhou et al. 2021). Arsenic (As) was determined in the samples using atomic absorption spectrophotometer (AAS Vario 6, Analytik Jena, Jena, Germany) (Baloch et al. 2022). To check the accuracy of the results, the charge balance error (CBE) for each sample was calculated using Eq. (1) (ionic concentrations are measured in meq/L). Groundwater samples containing ± 5% CBE were chosen for further analysis (Jat Baloch et al. 2022a).

$$\text{CBE} = \frac{[\Sigma\text{cations} - \Sigma\text{anions}]}{[\Sigma\text{cations} + \Sigma\text{anions}]} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

Health risk assessment

The F⁻ and NO₃⁻ and have been chosen to assess the risk to human health. Estimating the average daily dosage for adults and children (ADD) used the oral intake procedure (Gugulothu et al. 2022a; Li and Wu 2019; Selvam et al. 2020; Subba Rao 2021). The average daily dosage (ADD), hazard quotient (HQ), and total health index (THI) were computed using Eqs. 2, 3, and 4 (USEPA 2005).

$$\text{ADD} = \frac{\text{CPW} \times \text{IR} \times \text{Ed} \times \text{EF}}{\text{ABW} \times \text{AET}} \quad (2)$$

ADD denotes F⁻ and NO₃⁻ and ingestion (mg/kg/day), CPW denotes the specific groundwater pollutant (mg/L), and the ingestion rate is signified by IR, which is 2.5 L/day for adults and 0.78 L/day for children (Narsimha and Rajitha 2018). The ED stands for exposure duration (64 years for adults, 12 years for children, and 1 year for infants) (Ahada and Suthar 2019). An adult’s average body weight (ABW) is 57.5 kg, while children’s ABW is 18.7 kg, and infants’ ABW is 16.9 kg; adults have an average exposure time (AET) of 23,360 days, children have an AET of 4380 days, and the AET of 365 days for infants.

$$HQ = \frac{ADD}{RfD} \tag{3}$$

$$\text{Total Hazard Index(THI)} = \sum HQ \tag{4}$$

where HQ stands for hazards quotient and RfD also known as the F⁻ and NO₃⁻ and exposure dosages of 0.06 and 1.6 mg/kg/day, respectively. The THI was used to estimate the health risk posed by the ingestion exposure pathway. THI ≤ 1 values are considered to indicate no significant non-carcinogenic risk. THI > 1 values are defined to indicate the occurrence of non-carcinogenic risk in the exposed population.

Numerical methods

Statistical analysis helps in the interpretation of data sets by identifying various acts (Rahman et al. 2022; Ravindra et al. 2022; Xue-Jie et al. 2013). Hydrochemical processes were described using the statistical multivariate analysis method, which involved decreasing the amount of information and grouping the data (Uddin et al. 2018). The principal component analysis is a multivariate approach for reducing many connected variables into a manageable number of unrelated variables. It is based on covariance, which shows how groundwater variables interact with each other (Purushotham et al. 2011). This technique extensively extracts valuable information from groundwater hydrochemical datasets (Singh et al. 2020). Principal components were extracted using the varimax

rotation Kaiser normalization method (PCs). The PCA was calculated using XLSTAT 2022.

The spatial maps were created using the IDW interpolation method. ArcGIS 10.3 was used to create maps of geographic location and spatial distribution. The hydrochemistry software PHREEQC 3.4 was used to calculate the saturation indices of minerals and geochemical inverse modeling.

Results

Groundwater chemistry and spatial distribution

Statistical summaries of the measured physicochemical parameters for the groundwater samples are depicted in Table 1 and compared to the WHO 2022 guideline limits for drinking water (WHO 2022). The pH of the groundwater varied from 6.7 to 8.5, with a mean of 7.7. The turbidity levels ranged from 0.3 to 4600 NTU, with a mean of 23.85 NTU. The EC is a measurement of the capability of water to transmit an electric current between dissolved salts, which ranges from 200 to 14,120 μS/cm. The hydrochemical analysis showed that TDS concentration ranged from 112 to 8051 mg/L, with a mean of 1070 mg/L. The total hardness varied between 90 and 4600 mg/L, with an average of 457.7 mg/L.

Major cation abundance was found to be in the following order: Na⁺ > Ca²⁺ > Mg²⁺ > K⁺. Na⁺ is the dominating cation in the study region, ranging from

Table 1 Statistical physicochemical parameters of groundwater samples (n = 161) collected from the Khanewal district

Parameters	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	WHO (2022) standard
pH	6.77	8.55	7.72	0.3464	6.5–8.5
EC (μS/cm)	200	14,120	1849	2114	1000
TDS (mg/L)	112	8051	1070	1197	1000
Turbidity	0.3	4600	457.7	440.9	5
TH (mg/L)	90	530	215.7	97.13	300
Na ⁺ (mg/L)	5.0	2460	208.6	315.1	200
Mg ²⁺ (mg/L)	5.0	513	54.6	54.77	150
K ⁺ (mg/L)	1.0	440	11.3	40.5	12
F ⁻ (mg/L)	0.06	7.9	1.06	0.9315	1.5
Ca ²⁺ (mg/L)	10	992	92.7	94.49	200
Fe ²⁺ (mg/L)	0.01	1.21	0.11	0.1897	0.3
PO ₄ ³⁻ (mg/L)	0.01	0.13	0.04	0.0304	0.1
Cl ⁻ (mg/L)	10	3212	263.7	502.1	250
SO ₄ ²⁻ (mg/L)	15	2100	254.7	312.5	250
NO ₃ ⁻ (mg/L)	0.1	70	8.88	14.31	50
HCO ₃ ⁻ (mg/L)	83	817	309.3	126.7	250
As (μg/L)	5	15	2.73	4.03	10

5.00 to 2460 mg/L, with an average of 440.0 mg/L. Ca^{2+} concentrations vary from 10.0 to 992.0 mg/L, with a mean of 99.2 mg/L. In the study region, anions are abundant in the following order: $\text{HCO}_3^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{SO}_4^{2-} > \text{F}^- > \text{PO}_4^{3-}$. HCO_3^- concentrations ranged from 83.0 to 817 mg/L, with a mean of 309.3 mg/L, making it the most prevalent anion in groundwater. Cl^- concentrations are from 10.0 to 3212 mg/L, with a mean of 263.7 mg/L. The concentrations of SO_4^{2-} and PO_4^{3-} varied from 15.0 to 2100 mg/L and 0.01–0.13 mg/L, with a mean of 254.74 mg/L and 0.04 mg/L, accordingly. The average NO_3^- content in groundwater was 8.89 mg/L, ranging from 0.1 to 70 mg/L. In 23.60% of groundwater samples, the NO_3^- concentration exceeded the WHO 2022 permissible 10 mg/L limits.

The F^- concentration ranged from 0.06 to 7.9 mg/L, with a mean of 1.06 mg/L. According to WHO guidelines, F^- concentrations in 25.46% of the groundwater samples surpassed the allowable limit of 1.5 mg/L for drinking purposes (WHO 2022). High F^- groundwater occurred widespread in the study region. High F^- groundwater concentrations were found primarily in the southeastern and the sporadic parts in the north of the study area (Fig. 3). Hydrogeochemical faces of the groundwater varied greatly, from fresh $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Ca}$ to saline Cl-Na , mixed $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Na-Ca}$ and mixed Cl-Mg-Ca type and followed by $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Ca}$, $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Na}$, and Cl-Ca type (Fig. 2). The hydrochemical faces of high F^- groundwaters are categorized as HCO_3^- type and Na^+ type as shown in the Piper diagram (Fig. 2).

Furthermore, groundwaters with elevated F^- contained elevated Na^+ and HCO_3^- . This is in accordance with the hydrogeochemical characteristics of high-fluoride groundwater reported in other regions (Chen et al. 2020; Li et al. 2019).

Spatial distribution of hydrochemical components

The spatial distribution of groundwater physicochemical analysis reveals an anomalous groundwater quality zone (Rao et al. 2022c) (Fig. 3). The concentration of TDS in groundwater exceeds its permissible limit for drinking in 38.5% of the study area. The greater the value, the higher the quantity of salt leaching, sewage infiltration, and the effect of nearby saline sources in our study region (Khan et al. 2018). The central part of the study area had elevated Na^+ concentrations. In contrast, Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} concentrations were relatively low in the study area except for a few sporadic sampling points (Fig. 3). Groundwater alkalinity is caused by HCO_3^- (Adams et al. 2001). The groundwater quality in a large portion of the study area is alkaline, indicating that the dissolved carbonates are mostly bicarbonates. Cl^- levels are slightly elevated in a larger patch, particularly in central and western regions of the study area, which pose a health risk. This is due to poor fluxing and the presence of the mineral halite. It is worth noting that SO_4^{2-} content was significantly higher in the study area, particularly in the central and northwestern

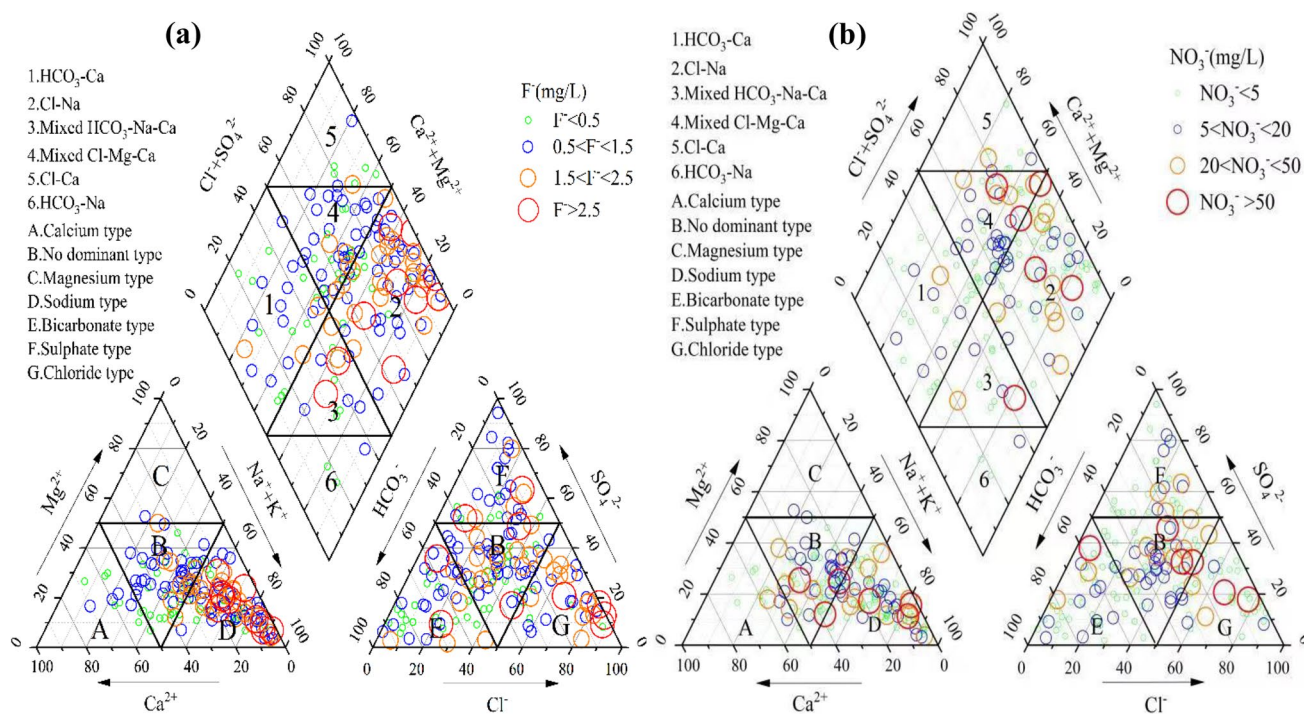


Fig. 2 Geochemical evolution of groundwater types with fluoride (a) and nitrate (b) concentrations indicated as bubbles

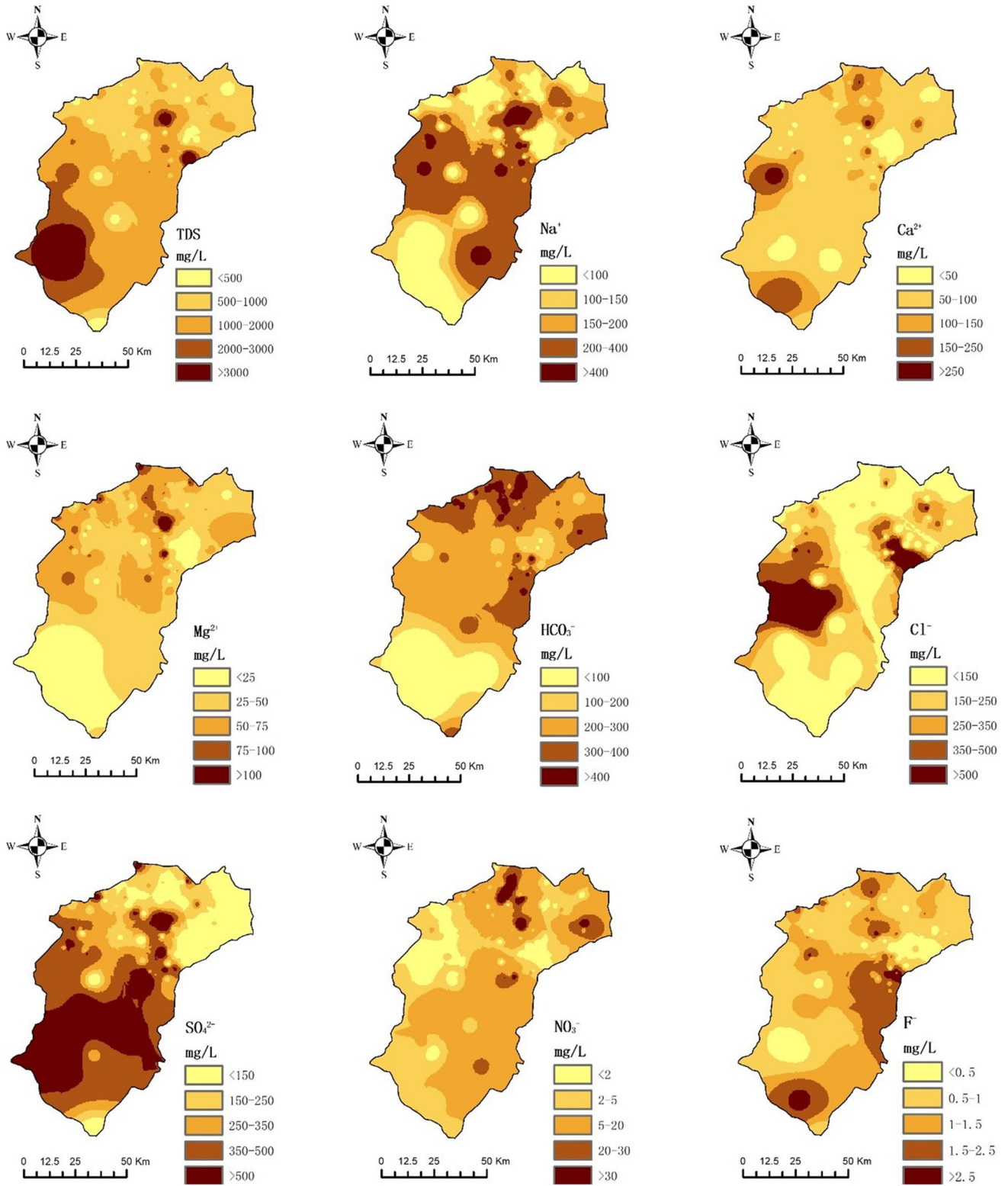


Fig. 3 Spatial distribution pattern of TDS (mg/L), Na⁺ (mg/L), Ca²⁺ (mg/L), Mg²⁺ (mg/L), HCO₃⁻ (mg/L), Cl⁻ (mg/L), SO₄²⁻ (mg/L), NO₃⁻ (mg/L), and F⁻ (mg/L)

regions. Mineral dissolution, atmospheric deposition, and other anthropogenic sources contribute to groundwater sulfate. High NO_3^- levels in the groundwater were found in the central and northern portions of the study region, as shown in the spatial distribution map, which is due to domestic waste and agricultural activities.

Table 2 Principal component analysis of selected groundwater parameters for Khushab district

Parameters	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
pH	-0.33	0.63	0.11	-0.28
EC	0.97	0.17	0.08	0.02
TDS	0.98	0.17	0.07	0.01
Turbidity	-0.03	-0.20	0.70	-0.15
Hardness	0.90	-0.29	-0.01	0.11
F^-	0.47	0.51	-0.22	-0.35
Cl^-	0.90	0.22	0.18	0.14
NO_3^-	0.40	-0.50	-0.27	-0.23
HCO_3^-	0.28	-0.20	-0.52	-0.39
SO_4^{2-}	0.91	0.12	0.06	-0.04
PO_4^{3-}	0.01	0.11	-0.11	0.70
Ca^{2+}	0.80	-0.42	-0.01	0.15
Mg^{2+}	0.93	-0.13	-0.02	0.05
Na^+	0.83	0.43	0.12	-0.02
K^+	0.37	-0.13	-0.10	-0.31
Fe^{2+}	0.00	-0.26	0.54	-0.45
As	-0.05	0.12	-0.40	-0.17
Eigenvalues	7.24	1.68	1.43	1.30
Variance (%)	42.61	9.91	8.43	7.66
Cumulative (%)	42.61	52.52	60.94	68.60

Bold values are the main contributors to PCA

Discussion

Source appointment by principal component analysis (PCA)

The PCA can be used to determine the critical ion sources and geochemical processes that influence groundwater quality (Herczeg et al. 2001). A factor loading value of one or more shows a strong correlation between the factors and the variables. In contrast, values greater than 0.5 are considered significant. The four principal components account for 68.60% of the total variance for log-transformed data. PC1 has the highest data variance, followed by PC2, PC3, and PC4 (Table 2 and Fig. 4). PC1 had strong positive loadings, particularly for EC, TDS, hardness, Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and Na^+ , which explained 42.61% of the total variance. PC1 is mainly made up of essential cations and anions from anthropogenic and natural sources. Mineral weathering and water–rock interaction are two natural processes in the aquifer (Rashid et al. 2022), and anthropogenic sources include domestic sewage in the study. This factor identifies agricultural activities as the other contributing process due to NO_3^- , Mg^{2+} , and SO_4^{2-} . The PC2 accounts for 9.91% and consisting high positive loadings of pH and F^- , indicating that pH controls F^- in groundwater. Fluoride minerals cause elevated F^- concentration in the study area. The PC3, which accounts for 8.43% of the total variance, indicates a high positive loading turbidity and Fe^{2+} . Poorly designed and shallowly constructed wells contribute to turbidity (Azis 2015; Jat Baloch et al. 2021b), and higher Fe^{2+} concentrations in groundwater are caused by ferruginous minerals on the surface of the earth (Raju 2006). With a total variance of 7.66%, PC4 shows moderate loadings

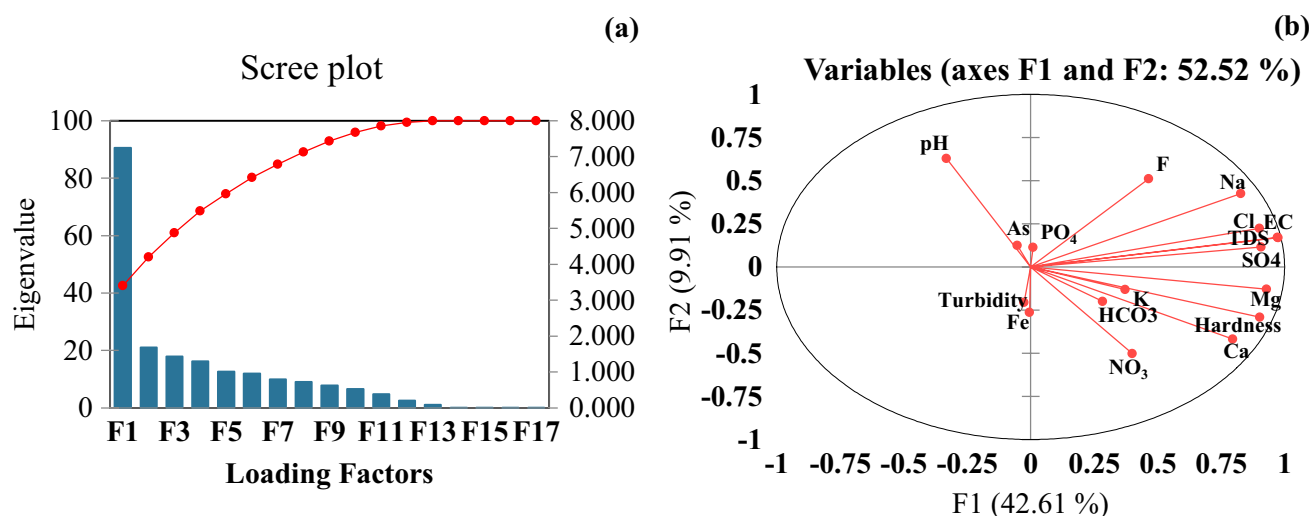


Fig. 4 a Sum of all the calculated factors, b contribution of the four loading factors F1, F2, F3, and F4 after varimax rotation

with phosphate. Fertilizers and animal or waste product decomposition can add phosphate to groundwater (Liu et al. 2020).

Correlation analysis

The Pearson correlation statistical method is used to understand the geochemical modeling of chemical characteristics (Bhardwaj et al. 2010). The correlation matrix of the physicochemical parameters for groundwater samples is exhibited in Table 3. With a statistical significance level of 0.05, the correlation matrix revealed a good to moderate positive correlation of TDS with major ions Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , Ca^{2+} , EC, Mg^{2+} , Na^+ , and hardness, revealing that these ions influence the chemistry of the groundwater (Appelo and Postma 2005). NO_3^- had a moderate correlation with HCO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , and Mg^{2+} , showing anthropogenic input in the groundwater aquifer, possibly due to fertilizer leaching from agricultural lands during farming activities. TDS showed a slight positive correlation with F^- in the current study. Many studies have found that high F^- concentrations are associated with high TDS levels. Evaporation functions as a precursor in F^- release in groundwater because it can restrict Ca^{2+} ions by precipitating CaCO_3 . As a result, the fluorite mineral's solubility in water is reduced (Younas et al. 2019). With a correlation coefficient of 0.5, Na^+ had a moderate correlation with F^- in this study (Table 3). The presence of F^- due to rock weathering has been confirmed. High Na^+ concentrations can improve the solubility of minerals containing F^- . Furthermore, there was no significant correlation between F^- and Ca^{2+} (Table 3). Fluorite dissolution could be caused by low Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} ion concentrations caused by precipitation such as calcite and dolomite. The weak correlation between F^- and Ca^{2+} indicates that F^- contamination is primarily caused by mineral fluorite CaF_2 and the subsequent cation exchange reactions (Na^+ is exchanged for Ca ion), which govern groundwater F^- chemistry (Bhattacharya et al. 2020).

Major factors controlling hydrogeochemical processes

Various variables greatly influence hydrogeochemical processes, such as groundwater regime, aquifer lithology, and climatic conditions. The Gibbs diagram can determine the lithology-hydrochemistry relationship in aquifers (Jat Baloch et al. 2021a). Figure 5a depicts that most of the groundwater samples are found in the rock-dominance and evaporation-dominance regions, indicating that these processes primarily regulate groundwater hydrochemistry. In the study region, the input of soluble ions from atmospheric precipitation is negligible because of the arid climate and rare rainfall. The hydrochemical components of groundwater

mainly come from the weathering hydrolysis of minerals (Fig. 5a). High F^- in groundwater is more strongly affected by evaporation compared to low F^- groundwater (Fig. 5a), which could be demonstrated by the local arid climate. The relationship between $\gamma(\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Na}^+)$ and $\gamma(\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{Na}^+)$ can be used to determine the source of major ions in the groundwater (Li et al. 2015). It is seen from Fig. 5b, the groundwater samples are mainly distributed near the end members of silicate minerals and close to the end members of evaporites, indicating that the hydrochemical compositions of groundwater mainly originated from the dissolution of evaporites and the weathering hydrolysis of silicate minerals, and relatively less affected by the weathering of carbonate rocks. Thus, the abundance of F^- in the groundwater of our study area may have resulted from the release of fluoride-containing minerals, including silicates.

The milligram equivalent ratio of Cl^- to Na^+ in most samples was less than 1 (Fig. 6a), indicating that the milligram equivalent concentration of Na^+ is much higher than that of Cl^- . In addition to the dissolution of halite, the Na^+ in groundwater may also originate from the dissolution of silicate and Na^+ - Ca^{2+} exchange (Gugulothu et al. 2022b). Silicate rock weathering is a major contributor to high levels of sodium (Na^+) in groundwater. The alternating adsorption of cations may influence it.

$(\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+})/(\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{SO}_4^{2-})$ milligram equivalent ratio can speculate the source of Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and SO_4^{2-} (Li et al. 2015). As depicted in Fig. 6b, the ratios of most samples below the 1:1 relation line indicate that Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and SO_4^{2-} are primarily derived from the weathering and filtration control of evaporite and silicate minerals. Most samples were distributed above the 1:1 line (Fig. 6c), confirming groundwater chemical formation. The controlling factor is the dissolution of evaporite minerals, and the sample points distributed below the 1:1 line may be accompanied by carbonate dissolution.

The plot of $(\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+} - \text{HCO}_3^- - \text{SO}_4^{2-})$ versus $(\text{Na}^+ - \text{Cl}^-)$ demonstrates the involvement of Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , and Mg^{2+} in the ion exchange reaction (Fig. 6d). Ca^{2+} or Mg^{2+} added or removed from the groundwater system due to carbonate or gypsum dissolution is represented by $(\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+} - \text{HCO}_3^- - \text{SO}_4^{2-})$. In contrast, the amount of Na^+ added or lost due to halite dissolution is represented by $\text{Na} - \text{Cl}$ (Rao et al. 2022a). According to the slope, Ca^{2+} , Na^+ , and Mg^{2+} are involved in the reverse ion exchange process derived from interaction with the aquifer material (Gugulothu et al. 2022b).

Genesis of fluoride and nitrate in groundwater

F^- in the groundwater of the research region originates from fluoride-bearing minerals (fluorite), which will be mobilized

Table 3 Pearson correlation matrix of the study area's physiochemical parameters for groundwater

	pH	EC	TDS	Turbidity	Hardness	F	Cl	NO ₃	HCO ₃	SO ₄	PO ₄	Ca	Mg	Na	K	Fe	As
pH	1																
EC	-0.234**	1															
TDS	-0.233**	0.999**	1														
Turbidity	-0.001	-0.028	-0.03	1													
Hardness	-0.399**	0.806**	0.806**	0.019	1												
F	0.138	0.469**	0.479**	-0.076	0.248**	1											
Cl	-0.211**	0.960**	0.952**	-0.018	0.728**	0.382**	1										
NO ₃	-0.301**	0.295**	0.303**	-0.048	0.415**	0.087	0.203**	1									
HCO ₃	-0.200*	0.191*	0.199*	-0.113	0.272**	0.351**	0.038	0.270**	1								
SO ₄	-0.199*	0.885**	0.897**	0.003	0.793**	0.474**	0.759**	0.268**	0.178*	1							
PO ₄	-0.132	0.023	0.016	-0.048	0.004	0.002	0.079	-0.079	-0.091	-0.038	1						
Ca	-0.433**	0.682**	0.680**	0.014	0.956**	0.142	0.619**	0.436**	0.226**	0.666**	-0.002	1					
Mg	-0.326**	0.861**	0.863**	0.021	0.952**	0.336**	0.774**	0.354**	0.296**	0.853**	0.007	0.821**	1				
Na	-0.097	0.926**	0.925**	-0.049	0.532**	0.522**	0.916**	0.165*	0.132	0.771**	0.033	0.380**	0.642**	1			
K	-0.107	0.325**	0.333**	-0.039	0.286**	0.112	0.266**	0.248**	0.129	0.339**	-0.105	0.231**	0.317**	0.213**	1		
Fe	-0.07	0.431	0.001	0.301**	-0.018	-0.055	0.005	0.082	-0.037	-0.012	-0.162*	0.004	-0.039	0.006	0.034	1	
As	0.023	-0.047	-0.045	-0.15	-0.073	0.09	-0.079	0.059	-0.003	-0.039	0.021	-0.112	-0.022	-0.028	0.025	0.009	1

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Bold = strong correlation (> 0.90)

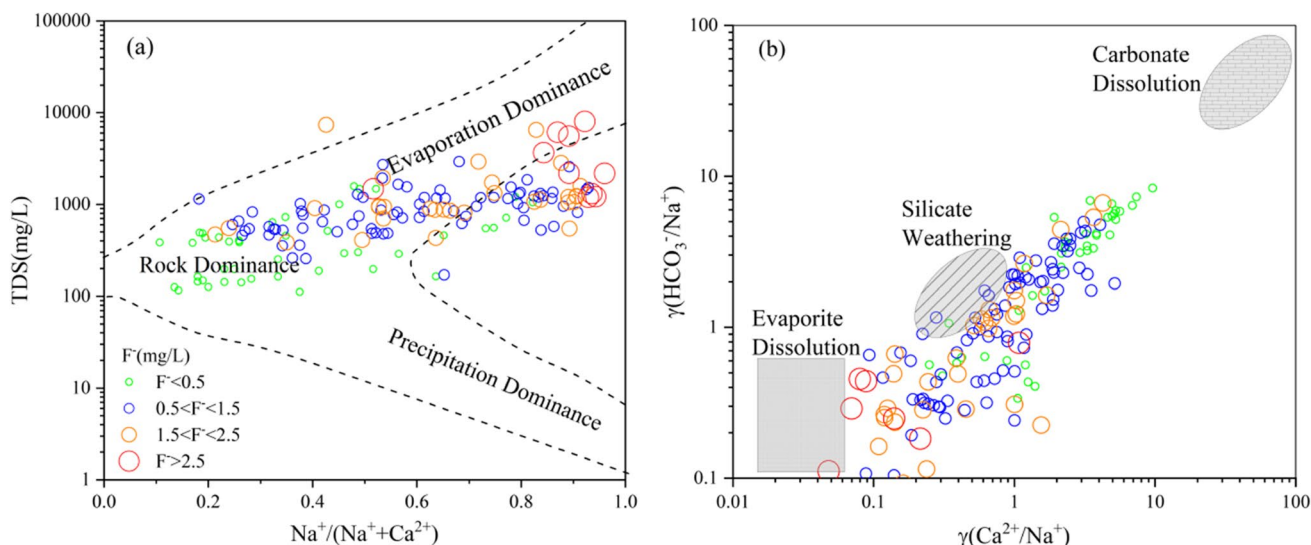
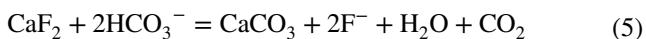


Fig. 5 $\text{Na}^+ / (\text{Na}^+ + \text{Ca}^{2+})$ mg/L versus Log TDS (a) and Na-normalized HCO_3^- versus Na-normalized Ca^{2+} (mM/mM) (b)

in the groundwater under ideal alkalinity and temperature conditions. The solubility of fluorite is pH dependent; the pH of groundwater varied from 6.7 to 8.55, with a mean of 7.72, indicating favorable weak alkaline conditions for F^- enrichment in the study region (Fig. 7a). As shown in Fig. 7b, F^- concentration increases with the increase of HCO_3^- concentration in groundwater. Due to increased OH^- content, CaF_2 dissolves in alkaline or slightly alkaline groundwater (Chen et al. 2017). HCO_3^- in groundwater can promote fluorinated mineral dissolution (Eq. 5) and increase the level of F^- in groundwater.



Schoeller (1965) demonstrated the possibility of cation exchange using two indexes, CAI-1 and CAI-2 (Xu et al. 2022), and their calculation methods were shown in Eqs. 6 and 7, respectively. CAI-1 and CAI-2 will be positive when Na^+ and K^+ in water exchange Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} . When Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} exchange adsorbed Na^+ and K^+ in the water, the values of CAI-1 and CAI-2 are negative, and the effect of cation exchange is more pronounced when the absolute value of CAI-1 and CAI-2 is larger. Figure 7c shows that approximately half of the two indexes, F^- are negative, confirming the presence of cation exchange of Na^+ and K^+ in the adsorbed state of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} in the elevated F^- groundwater in the study area. The decreased Ca^{2+} concentration in groundwater caused by cation exchange promotes fluoride enrichment in groundwater.

$$\text{CAI-1} = \frac{\text{Cl}^- - (\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+)}{\text{Cl}^-} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{CAI-2} = \frac{\text{Cl}^- - (\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+)}{\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{SO}_4^{2-} + \text{CO}_3^{2-} + \text{NO}_3^-} \quad (7)$$

Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 7d, the correlation between F^- and Ca^{2+} , groundwater with a high Ca^{2+} content preferred low F^- concentrations (Narsimha and Sudarshan 2017). These results indicated that Ca^{2+} could inhibit F^- . Because Ca^{2+} has a strong affinity with HCO_3^- , CaCO_3 precipitates, which reduces Ca^{2+} in groundwater and speeds up the fluorite dissolution (Eq. 5), thus increasing the level of F^- in the groundwater.

Positive relationships between F^- and pH and HCO_3^- and a negative relationship between F^- and Ca^{2+} often accelerate F^- content in groundwater, indicating fluorite-saturated groundwater concentrations (Ayoob and Gupta 2006; Rao et al. 2021; Xiao et al. 2022a). As shown in Fig. 8a, the groundwater was supersaturated for calcite and dolomite and unsaturated for fluorite and gypsum in the study area. Calcite and dolomite precipitation reduces Ca^{2+} in groundwater, which promotes fluorite dissolution and increases F^- concentration in groundwater. The unsaturation of gypsum encourages the precipitation of calcite and, thus, the dissolution of fluorite. Fluorite weathering is the critical source of F^- in the aquifers, as evidenced by their significant positive correlation.

The fluorite dissolution equilibrium shifts toward precipitation when the activity of Ca^{2+} and F^- in solution exceeds the fluorite dissolution equilibrium constant (Yan et al. 2020). Groundwater samples are concentrated below the fluorite dissolution equilibrium line ($\text{pK}_{\text{fluorite}} = 10.6$) (Fig. 8b), implying that fluorite content in the groundwater is controlled by fluorite solubility in the study region. When

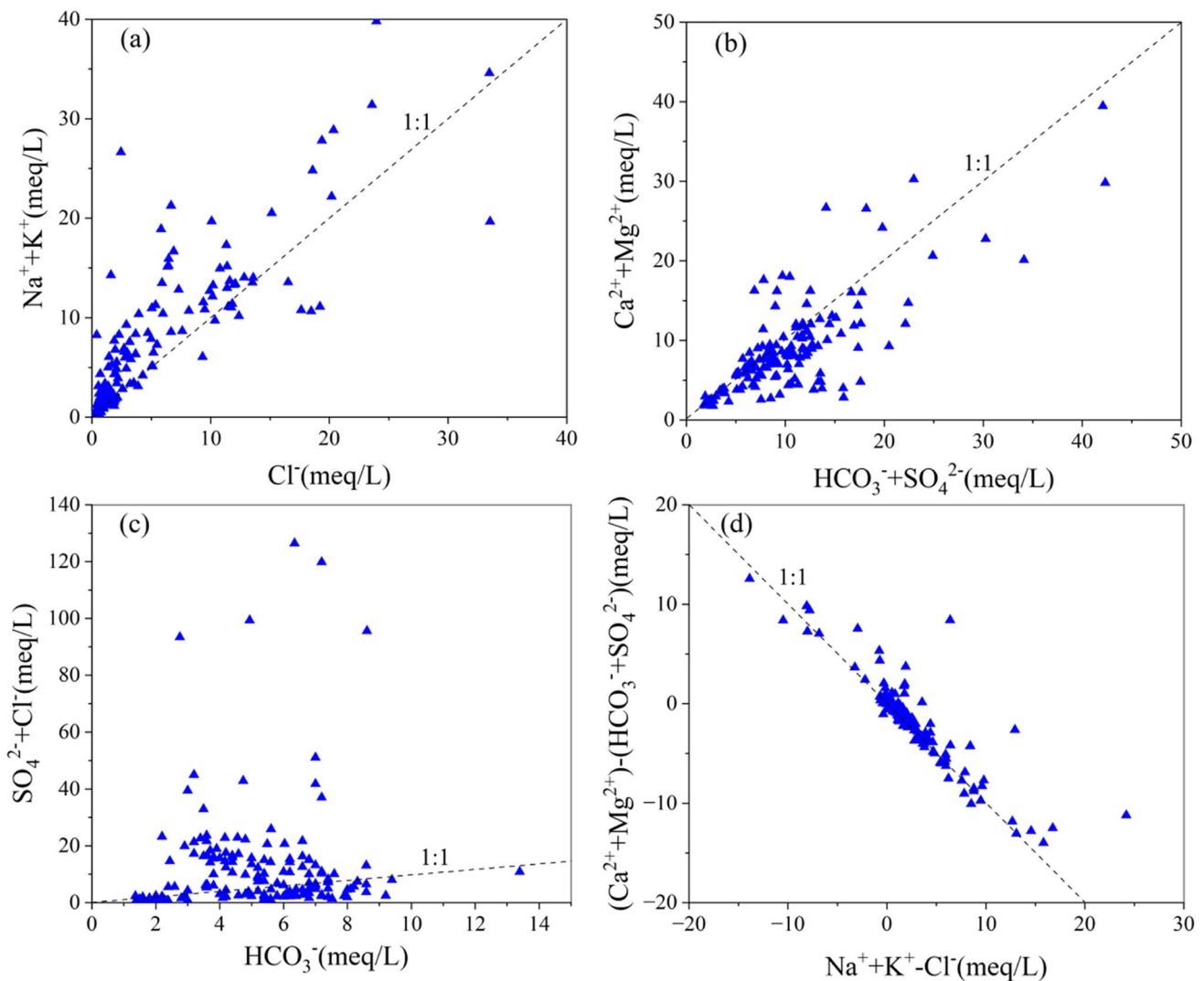


Fig. 6 Ionic ratio plots

only fluorite was dissolved, F^- and Ca^{2+} activity increased along trend line 1; most samples were found to the right of trend line 1, revealing that the Ca^{2+} in the groundwater came from sources other than fluorite. When only fluorite was dissolved, F^- and Ca^{2+} activity increased along trend line 1; most samples were found to the right of trend line 1, revealing that Ca^{2+} in the groundwater came from sources other than fluorite (Li et al. 2018). Given that groundwater contains large amounts of HCO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} , this Ca^{2+} may come from dissolved calcite, dolomite, and gypsum. When calcite and fluorite were dissolved in a 200:1 mass ratio, the activity of F^- and Ca^{2+} increased along trend line 2, and the majority of water samples were located between trend lines 1 and 2, indicating that the concentration of F^- was controlled by Ca^{2+} from dissolved sources of fluorite, calcite, gypsum, and other minerals (Luo et al. 2018).

The pattern of groundwater flow is based on quaternary topography. As a result, groundwater chemistry differs in each of the three groundwater flow paths (I, II, and III), including EC, pH, TDS, turbidity, TH, Na^+ , PO_4^{3-} , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- , HCO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , F^- , and Ca^{2+} are presented in Table S1. It indicates that the F^- content in groundwater generally decreases along the groundwater flow path, reaching up to 2.64 mg/L from path I to path II. The decreasing trend investigated is due to an increase in Ca^{2+} from the path I to the central path (II), whereas groundwater Mg^{2+} shows a decreasing trend from path I to the central path (II). It may be related to the continental salinization that occurred in the central zones of the flow-path II, and the dissolution of evaporate minerals causes an increase in salinity in groundwater (Li et al. 2020). Geochemical inverse modeling was utilized to better understand the effects of hydrogeochemical evolution along groundwater flow paths

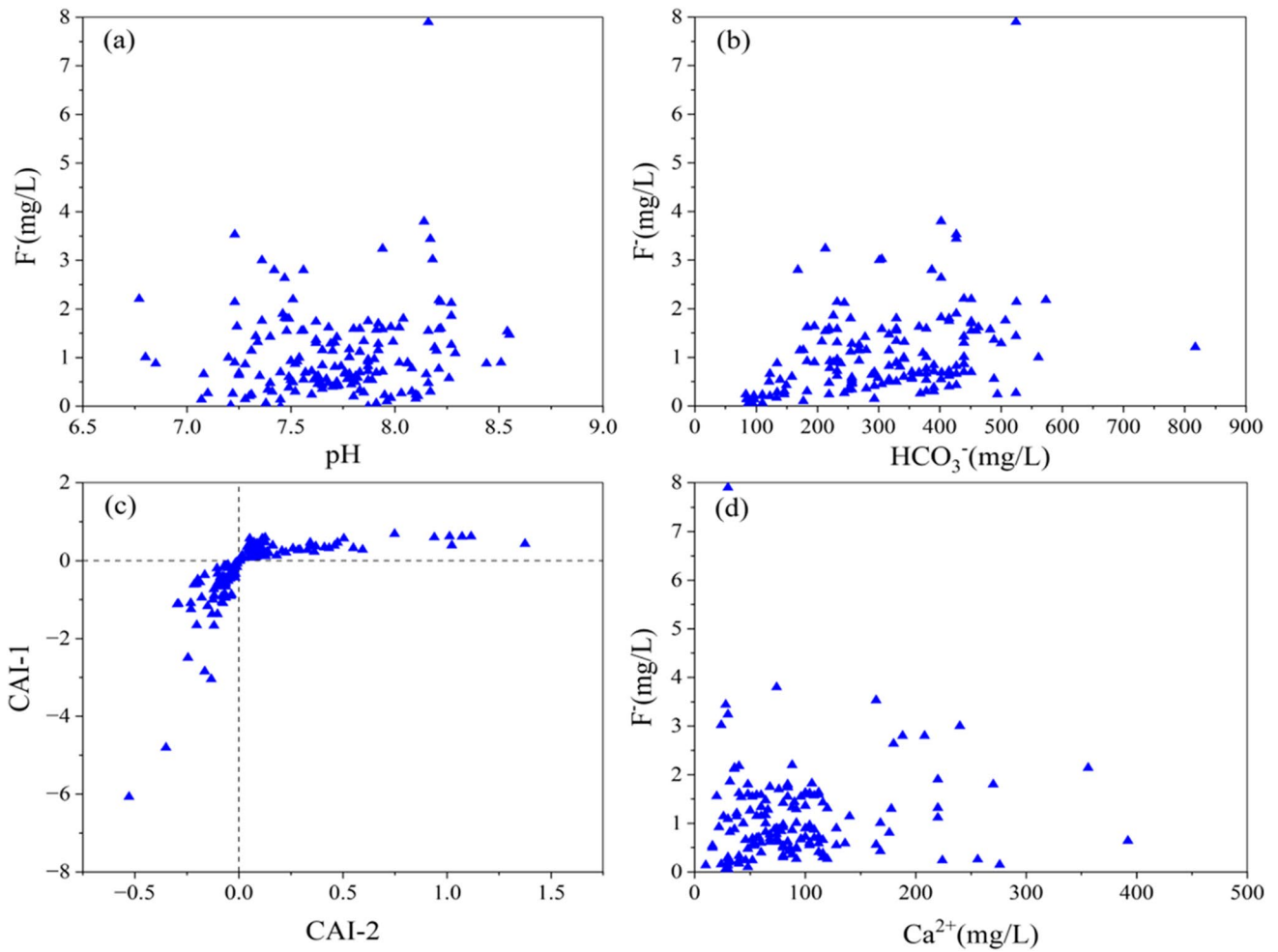


Fig. 7 Cross plots of fluoride versus other parameters and CAI-1 vs. CAI-2

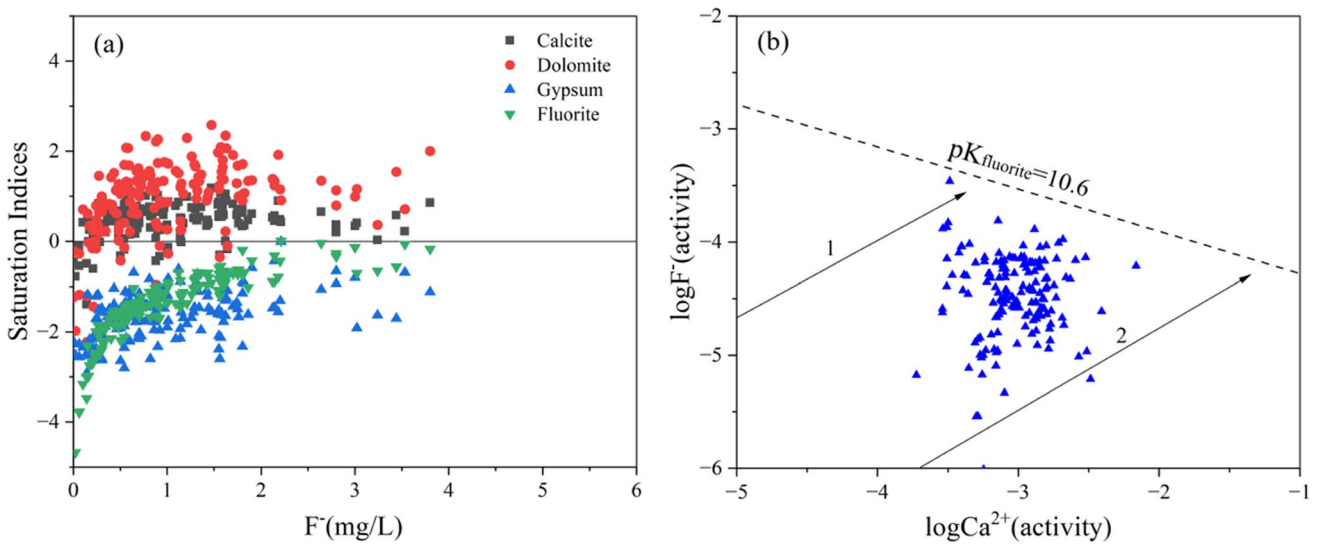


Fig. 8 SI of calcite, dolomite, gypsum, and fluorite in groundwater (a) $\log F^-$ (activity) vs. $\log Ca^{2+}$ (activity) (b)

on F^- mobilization, and the solid phase was established based on the sediment mineralogy of the research location (Haji et al. 2018). It is primarily comprised of four hydrogeochemical processes: (1) fluorite dissolution, which is the primary source of fluoride in the groundwater of the study area, (2) calcite and dolomite dissolution precipitation, (3) cation exchange between Na^+ and Ca/Mg on the clay, and (4) chemical weathering.

NO_3^- concentrations ranged from 0.1 to 70 mg/L, with an average of 8.89 mg/L. The permissible limit of 50 mg/L (WHO 2022) was exceeded in approximately 3.74% of the groundwater samples (Fig. 3). Agrochemicals damage soil and cause increased nitrate leaching, causing NO_3^- to accumulate in the groundwater. Fertilizer use is common in the area, resulting in high NO_3^- levels in the groundwater (Nemčić-Jurec and Jazbec 2017). Nitrogen-rich sediments, organic nitrogen inputs into soil, groundwater contamination with nitrogen-rich wastes, biological denitrifying fixation by microorganisms, animal and human waste, water in unutilized dug wells, nitrogenous inorganic fertilizers, and stagnant water are the common sources of NO_3^- in groundwater (Rezaei et al. 2017). Agriculture is also one of the primary activities in the research region, and it is predicted that many applied agrochemicals will permeate the soil and reach groundwater. As a result, the amount of NO_3^- in groundwater is likely to rise (Rao et al. 2022a). The high NO_3^- level in the groundwater is caused by agricultural activities in the study area's southern, northern, eastern, and central regions, according to a spatial distribution map of NO_3^- (Fig. 3).

The similar spatial distribution of K^+ , Cl^- , and NO_3^- was used to identify anthropogenic activities (Rezaei et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2021; Yadav et al. 2018). In Fig. 9a, most of the samples were distributed near the end members

of domestic sewage and tended to be close to the end members of agricultural pollution. Results indicated that domestic sewage and agricultural fertilizer pollution significantly impacted nitrate contamination of groundwater in the study region. A few samples are close to evaporite endmembers, indicating that NO_3^- enrichment in groundwater is also influenced by geological factors to a certain extent.

Since there is a strong correlation between NO_3^- from fertilizer and K^+ , to find the important cause of the elevated nitrate in the groundwater (Kom et al. 2022; Xiao et al. 2022b), the relationship diagram of NO_3^- and K^+ (Fig. 9b) shows that there is no significant correlation between NO_3^- and K^+ in most groundwater samples. When NO_3^- concentration is low, the content of K^+ is low and high; only a small number of groundwater samples have a positive correlation between NO_3^- and K^+ . The discharge of domestic sewage is the critical source of NO_3^- pollution in the groundwater of the study area and is also affected by agricultural fertilizers. In addition, it can be seen that most of the high nitrate groundwaters (nitrate content > 50 mg/L) were plotted in the mixed $Cl-Mg-Ca$, $Cl-Na$, and mixed HCO_3^-Na-Ca dominance (Fig. 2b). Therefore, it can be concluded that high NO_3^- contamination typically comes from external sources. These external sources also introduce major ions into aquifers, leading to the evolution of groundwater with a salty hydrochemical composition.

Non-carcinogenic health risk assessment

The EDI, HQ, and THI values for adults and children were calculated through drinking water ingestion and are summarized in Table 4. The mean EDI values of F^- and NO_3^- were < 1 for the adults and children, respectively. The

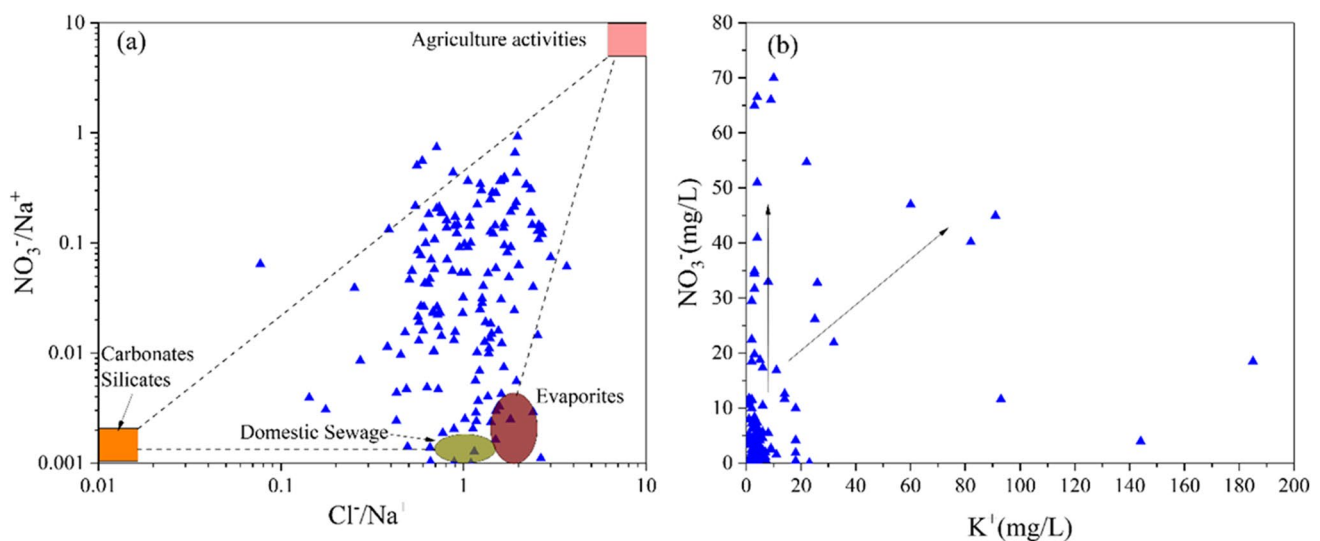


Fig. 9 Plots of Cl^-/Na^+ vs. NO_3^-/Na^+ (a) and NO_3^- vs. K^+ for groundwater samples (b)

Table 4 Results of the non-carcinogenic risks of fluoride and nitrate via ingestion of drinking water

	F				NO ₃			
	EDI		HQing		EDI		HQing	
	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children
Min	5.71E-04	1.19E-03	9.52E-03	1.98E-02	3.57E-03	6.67E-03	2.23E-03	4.17E-03
Max	2.26E-01	4.69E-01	3.76E+00	7.81E+00	2.50E+00	4.67E+00	1.56E+00	2.92E+00
Average	3.09E-02	6.41E-02	5.14E-01	1.07E+00	3.17E-01	5.93E-01	1.98E-01	3.70E-01
THI	–	–	8.18E+01	1.70E+02	–	–	3.19E+01	5.96E+01

HQ values of F⁻ ranged from 9.52E-03 to 3.76E+00, 1.98E-02 to 7.81E+00, and the average values of 5.14E-01 and 1.07E+00 for the adults and children, respectively. In contrast, the HQ values of NO₃⁻ varied from 2.23E-03 to 1.56E+00 and 4.17E-03 to 2.92E+00 with average values of 1.98E-01 and 3.70E-01, respectively. High HQ values of F⁻ were observed (> 1) for the adults and children of the local population in the sub-regions, including Nari Zone-B, Pindi Waheer, Chak no 5, Rukhla, Katha Sagral, Mangowal, Diawal, Jassowal, Kund DeraJat, Waracha, Fateh Pur Maira, Golay Wali Dera Jat, Muhammadkhel, Chak, Jalalpur, Katha Misseral, Ochala, Dhadhar Dera, Ghatti, and Badli Wala. In contrast, the NO₃⁻ had high HQ values (> 1) for adults and children in sub-regions. Pindi Waheer, Kund Dera Jat, Mitha Twana, Chak, Nomi Wali, Khair Pur, Ochala, Kuffari, Jahlar, and Khottaka indicate a high risk of F⁻ and NO₃⁻ contamination. In contrast, it was observed that the risk involved in the remaining regions is low and negligible for the local population.

The THI mean values of F⁻ were 8.18E+01 and 1.70E+02, while the mean values of NO₃⁻ for the adults and children were 3.19E+01 and 5.96E+01, respectively. The results showed that 40% of the samples exceeded the

THI > 1 for adults and children as shown in Table 4, indicating high non-carcinogenic risk (THI > 1) for the local population in the study area. Based on the non-carcinogenic risk of HQ and THI results, adults and children are at greater risk. Consequently, F⁻ exhibits a high non-carcinogenic risk (> 1) as compared to NO₃⁻ based on the elevated concentration, which is prone to cause health problems, such as skeletal fluorosis and dental issues in infants (Magne et al. 2020). Moreover, high F⁻ concentration causes fluorosis, spinal disorders, and teeth and bone diseases by continuously ingesting contaminated groundwater (Yousefi et al. 2018). The high non-carcinogenic risk of NO₃⁻ (> 1) via drinking water consumption resulted in colorectal cancer, childhood central nervous system tumors, thyroid disorders, and neural tube defects (Ransom et al. 2022). The dental and skeletal fluorosis cases were observed in the study area as shown in Fig. 10. Consequently, elevated concentrations of F⁻ and NO₃⁻ pose a health risk to the population in the study region, as the total number of water samples in sub-regions represents the entire Khushab district.

Fig. 10 Symptoms of dental and skeletal due to fluoride exposure in the study area



Conclusion

Elevated F^- and NO_3^- concentrations in groundwater and the associated non-carcinogenic health risk for children and adults were investigated in the Khushab region using hydrogeochemical, (geo)statistical, and multivariate approaches. The groundwater is neutral to alkaline. Most of the major ions were found within the allowable drinking water limits in most groundwater samples, but F^- and NO_3^- contaminants were found beyond the acceptable drinking water limits in 25.46% and 3.73% of the sampled groundwater, respectively. The hydrochemical compositions of groundwater are primarily the result of silicate weathering, carbonate dissolution, cation exchange, dissolution of evaporites, and anthropogenic activities. Evaporation plays a crucial role in the formation of high F^- shallow groundwater. Mixing with shallow groundwater provides additional F^- into deep groundwater. The dissolution of fluorine-containing minerals and naturally HCO_3^-Na type groundwater resulted in high F^- groundwater. The NO_3^- concentration is highest in mixed $Cl-Mg-Ca$ and mixed HCO_3^-Na-Ca type water. The NO_3^- contaminant usually originates from external inputs. Domestic sewage discharge is the primary source of NO_3^- pollution in the study area, exacerbated by agricultural fertilizer pollution. As a result, external sources of NO_3^- contamination introduce major ions into aquifers, causing the evolution of groundwater toward a salty hydrochemical composition. F^- and NO_3^- exhibited high non-carcinogenic risk ($HQ > 1$) and ($THI > 1$) for adults and children, indicating an increased health risk to the local population. The study suggests taking practical measures to enhance safe drinking water management, such as denitrification, defluoridation, implementing methods for harvesting rainwater, providing sanitary facilities, and limiting the use of chemical fertilizers, to protect groundwater resources from pollution and enhance the health of the residents. To reduce health risks, proper preventive measures must be implemented, including enhancing sanitation facilities and limiting the use of agricultural chemicals to prevent NO_3^- pollution of the aquifer system, and filters to remove F^- to improve human health. The findings of this study will assist decision-makers in the Khushab district of Pakistan in developing long-term plans for groundwater resource development.

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Author contribution All authors contributed to the study's conception and design. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Javed Iqbal, supervision, material preparation, and manuscript revision (Chunli Su, Mengzhu Wang, Hasnain Abbas, Muhammad Yousuf Jat Baloch, Junaid Ghani, Zahid Ullah, Md. Enamul Huq) and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Data availability The data will be provided on request to the corresponding author.

Declarations

Ethics approval Not applicable.

Consent to participate All authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

Consent for publication All authors approved this for publication.

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

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