



Geophysical and geostatistical assessment of groundwater and soil quality using GIS, VES, and PCA techniques in the Jaipur region of Western India

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Abstract

In present study, geophysical and geostatistical variability of ground water and agricultural soil investigated in the Jaipur region of Rajasthan (Western India) by applying the geographic information system (GIS), vertical electrical sounding (VES), and statistical analysis. Ground water and soil samples collected from different sites from the selected study area and variation pattern of quality parameters were assessed. A contour map analysis of distribution of metals and other contaminants in the samples was conducted using GIS. Maximum concentration of metals recorded in the soil samples in order of Fe, 11.25 mg kg⁻¹ > Mn, 8.6 mg kg⁻¹ > Zn, 7.2 mg kg⁻¹ > Cu, 0.455 mg kg⁻¹; however, maximum concentration of metals in the ground water samples was found as Zn, 2.64 mg L⁻¹ > Cu, 0.86 mg L⁻¹ > Fe, 0.39 mg L⁻¹ > Mn, 0.18 mg L⁻¹ > Pb, 0.065 mg L⁻¹ > Ni, 0.016 mg L⁻¹. Observed data emphasis variability in groundwater and soil quality parameter by PCA technique indicated 84.60% and 66.98% of variance, respectively. Soil quality index (SQI) value was observed as 0.482 indicating that 46% of soil sampling sites deteriorated and shown poor quality. Similarly, water quality index (WQI) value indicates good water quality at the sampling sites TW1, TW8, TW10, and TW12; however, TW3, TW4, TW6, TW19, TW20, and TW22 sites showed very poor water quality. The present study concludes that overexploitation of groundwater and unregulated discharge of wastewater leads to depletion of water and soil quality. Further, applying geographical and geostatistical techniques in assessing water and soil quality could be more effective tools in environmental monitoring and management for environmental and health safety.

Keywords Bioaccumulation · Bioavailability · Biotransformation · Contamination · Groundwater · Metals · Principal component analysis (PCA) · Water quality

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Introduction

Rapid urbanization leads to several environmental issues, including poor living conditions, changes in land use pattern, overexploitation of water and soil, transportation congestion, resettlement, disasters, and environmental pollution (Kalayci Onac et al. 2021; Aksoy et al. 2022; Tay and Ocansey 2022; Dogan et al. 2023). Fresh water including ground water is one of the most important components of the environment and essential for human survival and wellbeing (Gavrilescu 2021). However, extensive exploitation of water by human being leads to substantial environmental cost due to contamination, scarcity, and depletion of water resources affecting water supply and health safety (Tzanakakis et al. 2020; Singh et al. 2022). Scarcity of safe drinking water is now becoming a problem due to

extensive urbanisation, industrialization, agriculture, and climate change affecting about 40% of human population globally (Calzadilla et al. 2011; Bilge Ozturk et al. 2022). Groundwater found underground in cracks and crannies in rock, sand, and soil is the main source of drinking water supply. Exploitation of groundwater may result in dissolution of numerous contaminants as it passes through the rocks and soil during leaching and percolation (Saleem et al. 2018). Trace metals emanating from different industrial, transportation, construction, and agricultural activities affect soil and water quality as recalcitrant and toxic contaminants (Romic and Romic 2003; Cetin et al. 2022a; Sahin et al., 2022). Link between soil quality and socioeconomic well-being of humans, particularly, global food security and human health have been reported (Yu et al. 2018; Kopittke et al. 2019). Soil and water contamination occurs due to various anthropogenic activities and geological processes releasing metals and other elements; therefore, assessment of soil and water quality is becoming more crucial in adapting appropriate strategies to prevent and preserve the land and water resources for human wellbeing (Ahmet et al. 2006; Cesur et al. 2021). More common metal contaminants in soil and water are Pb, Cr, As, Zn, V, Cd, Cu, and Sn reported with high levels of toxicity for biota (Yang et al. 2016; Hanfi et al. 2020; Cetin et al. 2022b).

India is one of the emerging nations with more industrial and other developmental activities having wastewater generation and discharge on the land and in the aquatic ecosystems leads to soil and water contamination (Tiwari et al. 2011). Metals persist in the soil and water, accumulates in the plants by roots uptake, and biomagnifies in the animals through food chain, which causes detrimental impact to the biota (Luo et al. 2012; Ali et al. 2019; Cetin and Abo Aisha 2023). Certain metals easily enter the food chain due to their bioavailability in the rhizosphere, uptake, and accumulation in the plants and can reach to other animals and humans through food (Gu et al. 2016; Rajendran et al. 2022). It has been reported that excessive accumulation of trace elements like cadmium, lead, and nickel in the plants causes toxicity and slows down the growth and productivity (Pandey and Sharma 2002; Zouboulis et al. 2004). A substantial threat to aquatic and terrestrial biodiversity as well as health hazards for humans posed by contaminated water and soil (Olayinka-Olagunju et al. 2021). Types of rock, physicochemical characteristics of soil, atmospheric precipitation, and surface geochemical processes affect the groundwater quality parameters and contamination (Garg and Hassan 2007; Cesur et al. 2021). Groundwater is most reliable source even in India because it provides a significant proportion of the country's drinking and agricultural water requirements (Mahmood and Kundu 2005).

Physico-chemical characteristics of soil also affects the water quality of groundwater at a given regions (Griffiths

et al. 2010; Hermans et al. 2020). Different physio-chemical and biological indicators have been used in various studies to evaluate the soil quality (Filip 2002; Schloter et al. 2003). GIS has evolved into a trustworthy instrument for absorbing, analyzing, and displaying spatial data that can be utilized for environmental monitoring, planning, and resource management applications (Cetin 2015; Singha et al. 2015). The geographical information system (GIS) has become an important tool in research for resource management as it allows users to use geographical data in a variety of context and way in an integrated approach. Remote sensing (RS) and GIS studies in integration make it easier to work in relatively broad areas, particularly in environmental impact assessment for sustainable urban planning and resource utilization (Cetin 2019; Pekkan et al. 2021; Cetin et al. 2022c). Convergence of data concerning environmental assessment-related issues as well as the manipulation of spatial data into various forms in response to geosocial requirements may be accomplished using GIS (Cetin et al. 2022d). The principal component analysis (PCA) is a prominent statistical analysis tool for investigating data patterns thorough factor analysis approach. Basic purpose of PCA is to create new variables as principal components, from a set of existing original variables (Wu et al. 2020). Potential of geophysical information system-based geostatistical methodologies in assessing the region's groundwater and soil quality as well as its susceptibility to water-borne diseases reported (Ali and Ahmad 2020).

The Sanganer, Jaipur region of Rajasthan, Western India, having more industrial activities specially printing and dyeing operations leads to huge amount of wastewater generation and discharge in water and agricultural soil through unregulated disposal and irrigation practices. Very limited data are available related to using geographical information system and geostatistical techniques in the ground water and soil quality assessment. Therefore, the present study was conducted to assess ground water and soil quality at different sites based on a minimal set of interconnected geophysical and chemical criteria at Sanganer, Jaipur region of Rajasthan, Western India, and apply geophysical and geostatistical including GIS, VES, and PCA techniques to emphasize the water and soil quality parameters for environmental monitoring and assessment.

Materials and methods

Study area

The whole study conducted in the industrial and agricultural tracts in the north of Jaipur–Sanganer regions at different selected sampling sites, situated between 26° 49' and 26° 51' N and 75° 46' and 75° 51' E in the Jaipur district,

Rajasthan, Western India (Fig. 1). One selected study site, the Sanganer, is famous for its hand-printed textiles have land size of 78.24 square kilometres, situated on NH-12, 10 kilometres to the southwest of Jaipur City. The Sanganer is well-known for its distinctive type of printing “Sanganer Printing” basically in the small-scale industries of the

Chippas community, involving dyeing and printing of textiles (Dadhich et al. 2016). Dyeing and printing processes release wastewater during water-based color fixing procedure and discharged in the surrounding areas which pollutes water and soil. The chippas community either transport the textiles to a well dug on the bank of the Dravyawati River or

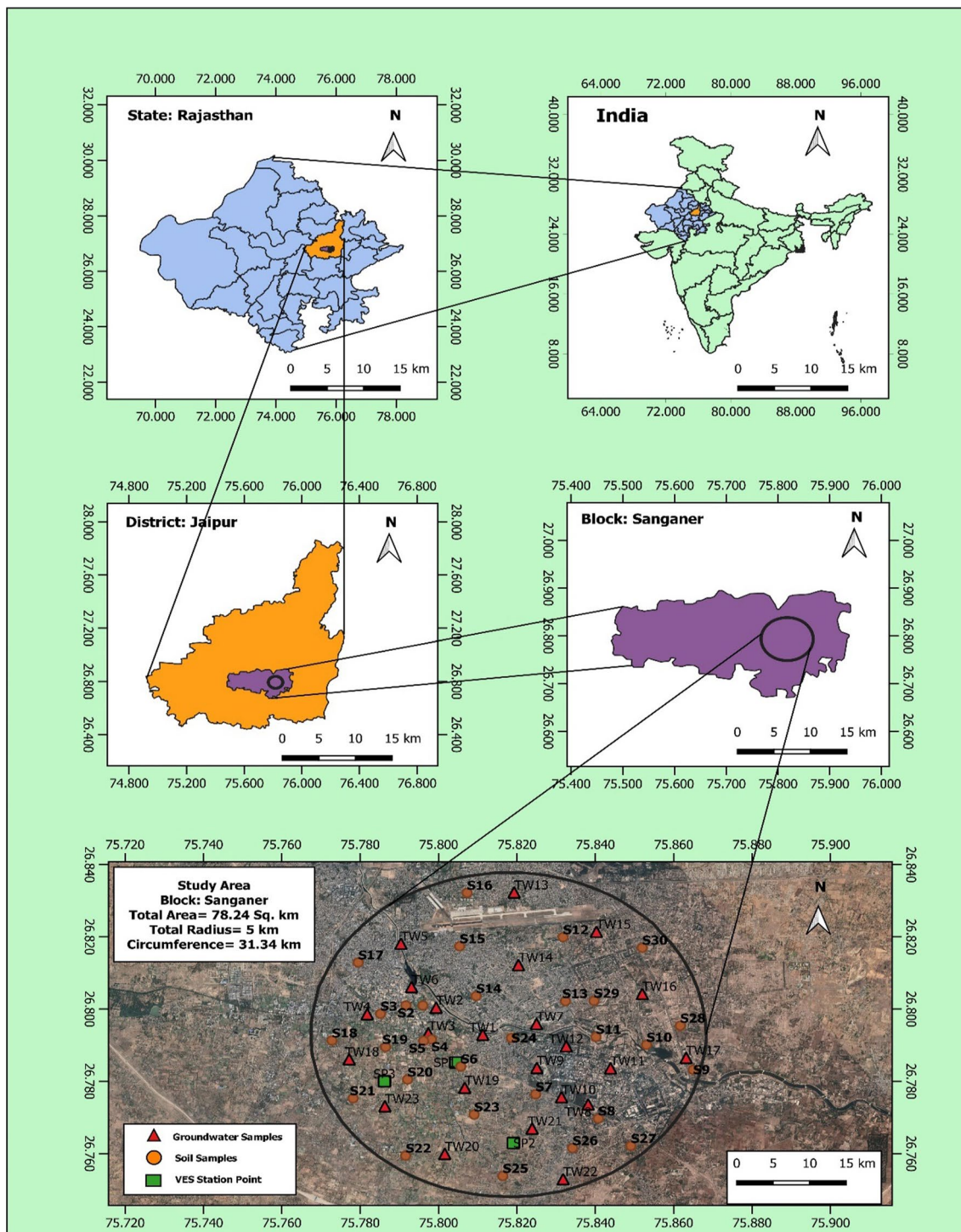


Fig. 1 Sampling sites of soil and ground water selected in the study area, Sanganer, Jaipur, Rajasthan, India

wash it at their wells in the city at various places randomly. Textile wastewater along with sewage from across the of Jaipur city discharged directly into the Dravyawati river in the selected study area is being polluted. Historically, Sanganer was primarily an agricultural region; however, during the last decade, the textile and dyeing industries have dramatically risen in the area and encroached the previously untapped agricultural land. With more than 250 separate printing units connected, it has emerged as one of the major centers of the printing and dyeing industries nowadays today in India. Growing demand and low production costs leads to the introduction of synthetic and chemical dyes, which have several environmental impacts. The regions of Jaipur–Sanganer with a high number of dyeing and printing industrial units releasing tonnes of waste into the aquatic environment, agricultural fields, and on open spaces nearby, polluting the water and soil (Sharma et al. 2014). Contamination of water and soil have negative impact on nutrition and human health due to deterioration of drinking water quality and food quality; however, at severe stage, poor quality may prevent soil from performing its natural physio-chemical and biological functions and deteriorate region's overall productivity of the terrestrial ecosystem.

Sampling sites and sampling

One-liter capacity plastic bottle rinsed with distilled water used to collect the groundwater samples. Grab sampling conducted for groundwater water sampling and samples preserved in the bottles with adjusted pH 2 and stored in refrigerator at 4 °C with slightly acidified with nitric acid (HNO₃) for analysis of water quality parameters including metals (Mn, Cu, Ni, Zn, Pb, and Cu). In Sanganer industrial region, having a new industrial area (RICCO) and an industrial zone (RSMDC), a quantitative soil and water sampling conducted to evaluate the water and soil quality parameters of the agricultural land as well as the degree of contamination in water due to industrial activities. Soil samples (250 g) taken from 30 randomly selected sites with a depth of 45 to 60 cm within a 5-kilometer radius of the Sanganer industrial zone and packed in fresh plastic zip-lock bag separately to determine the soil quality parameters (Fig. 2). All the sampling sites were precisely geotagged and labeled from S1 to S30 using a Garmin GPS device (model 68 s), allowing for the retrieval of a variety of location-specific data (Luo et al. 2011). Description of location and sampling sites are shown in the Table 1. The geoelectrical resistivity approach used to conduct field surveys in the study region which requires injecting a man-made current through several electrodes (AB) into the subsurface medium and observing the voltage changes at the potential electrodes (MN) to assess the variation in the ground's resistivity (Binley et al. 2015).

Analysis of soil and water quality parameters

Collected soil samples analyzed for 10 functional indicators parameters (i.e., pH, EC, OC, P, S, K, Zn, Fe, Cu, and Mn) for soil quality (YanBing et al. 2009). Similarly, collected water samples from different selected sites analyzed for water quality parameters in the laboratory. Average of all sets of triplicates calculated and values recorded into the data system (Juhos et al. 2019). All the analysis conducted following the procedure established by the American Public Health Association (Baird and Bridgewater 2017). A typical laboratory digital micro-processor pH meter used to estimate hydrogen ion concentration (pH) in the water samples (Salem et al. 2020). Similarly, electrical conductivity (EC) determined using an electrical conductivity meter (an EC probe and equipment that had been calibrated) by following the procedure of McNeill 1992. A digital water quality test kit used to evaluate total dissolved solids (TDS); however, EDTA titration method was used to calculate total hardness in the water samples. An argentometric titration used to quantify the amount of chloride in a water sample followed by alkalinity determined using the titrimetric method. UV-visible spectrophotometer used to determine the amount of fluoride in the collected water samples. Titration method used to estimate soil organic carbon (SOC) in the soil samples (Walkley and Black 1934) which involves oxidizing organic material in sulfuric acid with a predetermined quantity of chromate (Sato et al. 2014; Gelman et al. 2012). The Johnson–Nishita procedure used to measure sulfur content in the soil samples (Dean 1966). Sulfur and other minerals present in soil solution specially SO₄ ions adsorbed are the principal source of sulfur in soil. The replacement of SO₄ ions is of the utmost importance, and phosphate ions substituted wherever possible for adsorption and monocalcium phosphate, or phosphate ions, are present in the soil. The SO₄ ions are replaced with CaCl₂ ions in a more effective way throughout the extraction process and SO₄ extract turbulence determined by using a spectrophotometer. Potash content in soil samples estimated using a flame photometer following the procedure of Brondi et al. (2016).

Metal estimation

The concentration of Fe, Cu, Zn, Ni, Mn, and Pb in groundwater samples, whereas the metal Fe, Zn, Cu, and Mn analyzed in the soil samples estimated after complete digestion in HClO₄ and HNO₃ (3 : 1), using hollow cathode lamp at a certain wavelength into an atomic absorption spectrophotometer (AAS, Shimadzu) in comparison to standard metal solutions.

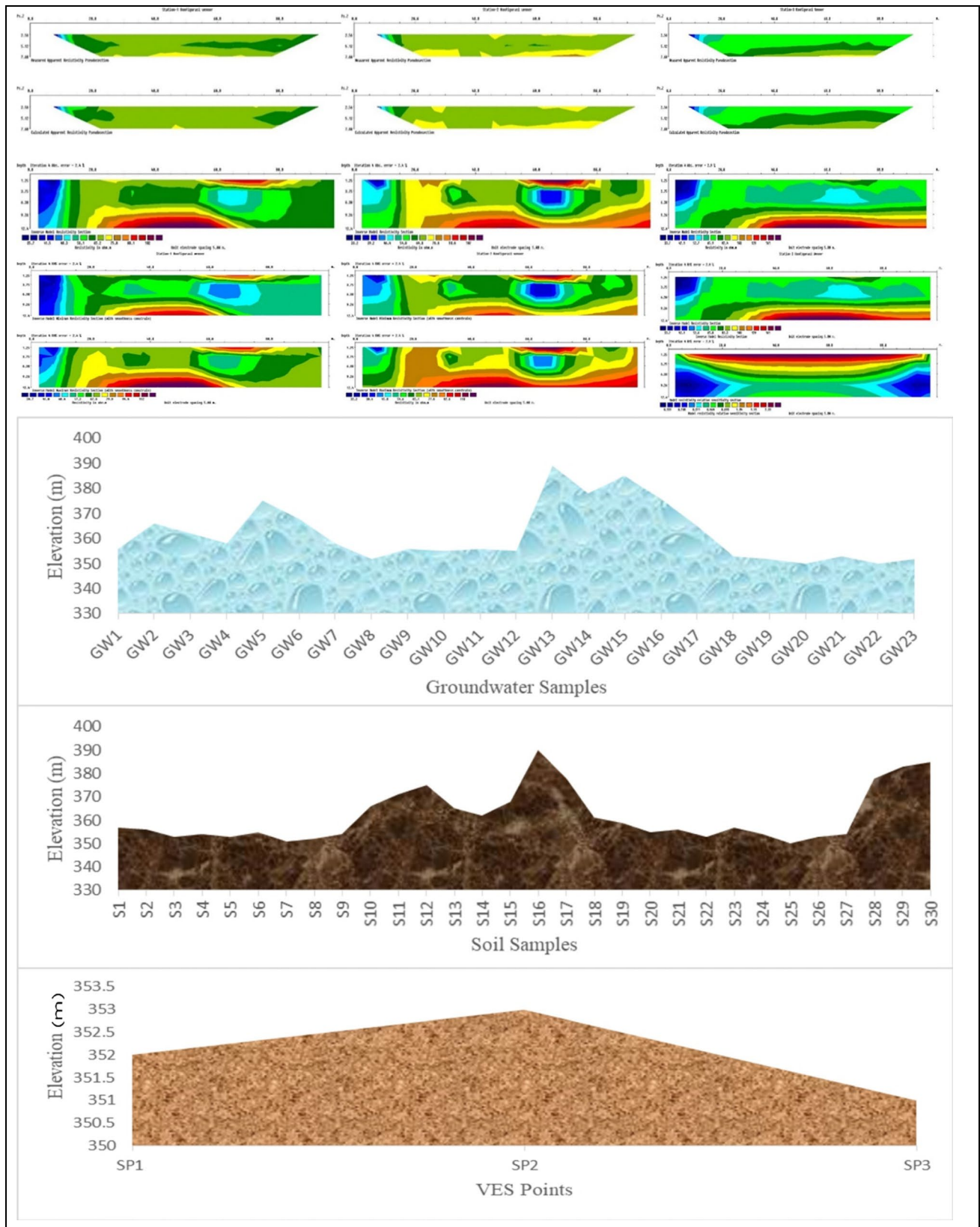


Fig. 2 Geoelectrical layers and elevation point of different sampling sites at the study area, Sanganer, Jaipur, Rajasthan, India

Table 1. Description of sampling sites of ground water samples, soil samples and VES station selected at Sanganer study area, Jaipur (Rajasthan), India

Ground water sample			Soil samples		
Sampling site	Latitudinal and longitudinal position	Elevation (m)	Sampling site	Latitudinal and longitudinal position	Elevation (m)
GW1	26.7929 N, 75.8113 E	357	S1	26.8010 N, 75.7960 E	354
GW2	26.8004 N, 75.7994 E	356	S2	26.8010 N, 75.7917 E	350
GW3	26.7933 N, 75.7974 E	353	S3	26.7987 N, 75.7852 E	353
GW4	26.7986 N, 75.7818 E	354	S4	26.7916 N, 75.7982 E	354
GW5	26.8181 N, 75.7904 E	353	S5	26.7912 N, 75.7962 E	378
GW6	26.8061 N, 75.7931 E	355	S6	26.7841 N, 75.8057 E	383
GW7	26.7959 N, 75.8250 E	351	S7	26.7764 N, 75.8248 E	385
GW8	26.7736 N, 75.8382 E	352	S8	26.7697 N, 75.8408 E	356
GW9	26.7837 N, 75.8251 E	354	S9	26.7832 N, 75.8650 E	366
GW10	26.7756 N, 75.8314 E	366	S10	26.7901 N, 75.8531 E	362
GW11	26.7836 N, 75.8439 E	371	S11	26.7923 N, 75.8402 E	358
GW12	26.7897 N, 75.8326 E	375	S12	26.8199 N, 75.8318 E	375
GW13	26.8323 N, 75.8193 E	365	S13	26.8022 N, 75.8324 E	368
GW14	26.8122 N, 75.8204 E	362	S14	26.8036 N, 75.8096 E	358
GW15	26.8214 N, 75.8403 E	368	S15	26.8174 N, 75.8054 E	352
GW16	26.8042 N, 75.8520 E	390	S16	26.8322 N, 75.8073 E	356
GW17	26.7865 N, 75.8632 E	378	S17	26.8129 N, 75.7795 E	355
GW18	26.7861 N, 75.7772 E	361	S18	26.7913 N, 75.7728 E	356
GW19	26.7782 N, 75.8067 E	359	S19	26.7895 N, 75.7865 E	355
GW20	26.7599 N, 75.8016 E	355	S20	26.7805 N, 75.7921 E	389
GW21	26.7669 N, 75.8239 E	356	S21	26.7753 N, 75.7782 E	378
GW22	26.7529 N, 75.8318 E	353	S22	26.7594 N, 75.7916 E	385
GW23	26.7731 N, 75.7863 E	357	S23	26.7708 N, 75.8091 E	376
	VES		S24	26.7920 N, 75.8186 E	365
SP1 (VES)	26.7852 N, 75.8044 E	352	S25	26.7538 N, 75.8164 E	353
SP2 (VES)	26.7629 N, 75.8191 E	353	S26	26.7615 N, 75.8342 E	352
SP3 (VES)	26.7800 N, 75.7862 E	351	S27	26.7621 N, 75.8491 E	350
			S28	26.7954 N, 75.8617 E	353
			S29	26.8023 N, 75.8397 E	350
			S30	26.8170 N, 75.8520 E	352

Geostatistical analysis

To assess overall quality of water and soil samples collected from the different sites in the study area, data of soil and water quality parameters analysed thoroughly by applying geostatistical tools. Quantitative evaluation's framework combines geotechnical and physicochemical analysis of water and soil samples with descriptive statistics and statistical modelling. Outcome data is gathered after the laboratory chemical analysis of selected soil and water samples, followed by review with analysis of data on SPSS software (version 22 for Windows). Discriminating analysis (correlation) of data performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows, version 23.0. (Ukah et al. 2019, 2020). Several statistical methods used in data

analysis and models including MV, SD, and CV (Li et al. 2016; Zhu et al. 2019). Further, water quality index (WQI) and soil quality index (SQI) evaluated to assess the region's overall variations and patterns of water and soil quality parameters using site-specific indicator evaluation outputs. Weighted arithmetic mean technique for WQI was used in this investigation (Tyagi et al. 2013).

$$WQI_A = \sum_{i=1}^n qi X Wi,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n Wi = 1,$$

where Wi is the unit weight of each parameter, qi is the 0–100 subindex rating for each variable, and n is the number


of subindices aggregated. Multivariate statistical technique, the principal component analysis (PCA), was used to reduce the dataset into new variables, create a minimum data set (MDS), and analyze relationships between different metal contents in the water and soil samples and other quality parameters including pH, TOC, and EC along with factor analysis (FA) to identify specific factor weight of a particular metal (Weissmannová and Pavlovský 2017). The SAS Systems for Windows 10 platform and Statistica 12.5® software used to perform principal component analysis (PCA), followed by a Varimax rotation used to rotate each PCA component. The Varimax rotation method of factor analysis and the principal component primary result analysis performed by following the procedure of Kaiser 1958 and Maiz et al. 2000. For the GIS-based evaluation, SQI and WQI maps, spatial distribution maps, area maps, and thematic maps for the region produced by using Sentinel 2 Satellite data (March 2021) in bands: 3, 4, 8 developed on ArcGIS software 10.8 (2020).

Results

Groundwater samples (23) and soil samples (30) collected from selected sampling sites of the study area, Jaipur regions of Rajasthan, Western India, analyzed for quality parameters. Based on the sounding data, the present study inferred with three geoelectrical layers comprising topsoil, unsaturated, and saturated zones (Fig. 2). For all the sections topmost layer assumed to be topsoil, above the water table and substantially drier more often reflects greater resistivity. Peat investigated in the topsoil layer by resistance correlation with soil lithology from neighboring boreholes. Regional lithology of Sanganer shown in the Table 2 which indicates formation depth range as alluvium, 0.0–95 m; weathered, 0.69–128 m; and hard rock, 9.2 m. In present study, the

third layer of all the sections represent highest concentration of geoelectrical sections with low resistivities (less than 10 m). Values and their variation pattern of water quality parameters in 23 groundwater samples at different sites of the study area depicted in Fig. 3. Maximum values of different parameters of groundwater samples recorded as pH, 8.0; electrical conductivity (EC), 3.01 S/m, TDS, 1501 mg/l; fluoride, 1.9 mg/l; total hardness, 273 mg/l; Ca, 88.1 mg/l; Mg, 12.67 mg/l; chloride, 227.42 mg/l; HCO₃, 61.87 mg/l; and CO₃, 58.29 mg/l. However, maximum metal concentration in groundwater samples recorded as Zn, 2.64 mg/l; Cu, 0.862 mg/l; Fe, 0.392 mg/l; Mn, 0.181 mg/l, Pb, 0.065 mg/l; and Ni, 0.016 mg/l. pH and TDS level in the ground water samples found in the range of 7.0 to 8.0 and 559 to 1501 mg/l, indicate that values are within the range of 6.5 to 8.5 and 500 to 1500 mg/l, respectively, as per WHO standard of water quality. Similarly, for 30 soil samples, maximum values of soil quality parameters recorded as pH, 8.4; electrical conductivity (EC), 0.27 μS/m; organic carbon, 0.23 %; phosphorous, 50.23 mg/kg; potash, 786 mg/kg; sulfur, 29.68 mg/kg. However, maximum metal concentration in the soil samples recorded as Fe, 11.25 mg/kg; Mn, 8.65 mg/kg; Zn, 7.26 mg/kg; and Cu, 0.45 mg/kg as shown in Fig. 4. Result shows that none of the parameters including pH have a strong correlation. Samples' scores and loadings plots together showed physio-chemical characteristics of soil that affect each order on the score plots. Retained variables divided into groups using the factor analysis technique in accordance with statistical factors and correlation matrix (Table 3). As depicted in the Table 4, maximum WQI found in groundwater sample collected at sampling site TW22 and minimum in the sample collected from TW12. Results of PCA and FA analysis for groundwater revealed that the first component (PC1), which accounted for 39.12% of the total variance, included Mn, pH, and EC; however, S, OC, and P made the second component (PC2) with a total variance of 12.54%. Similarly, pH, Mn,

Table 2. Regional lithology of the study area, Sanganer, Jaipur (Rajasthan), India

Aquifers depth (m)	Aquifers	Geological formation	Depth (m)	Laboratory experiment model
0–95	Alluvium	Surface soil, sandy clay	0–4	
		Clayey sand	4–13	
		Clayey kankar	13–19	
0.6–128	Weathered	Sandy clay with kankar	19–29	
		Kankar and clay	29–38	
		Kankar and sand	38–47	
9.2	Hardrock	Weathered schist	47–73	
		Schist	73–150	

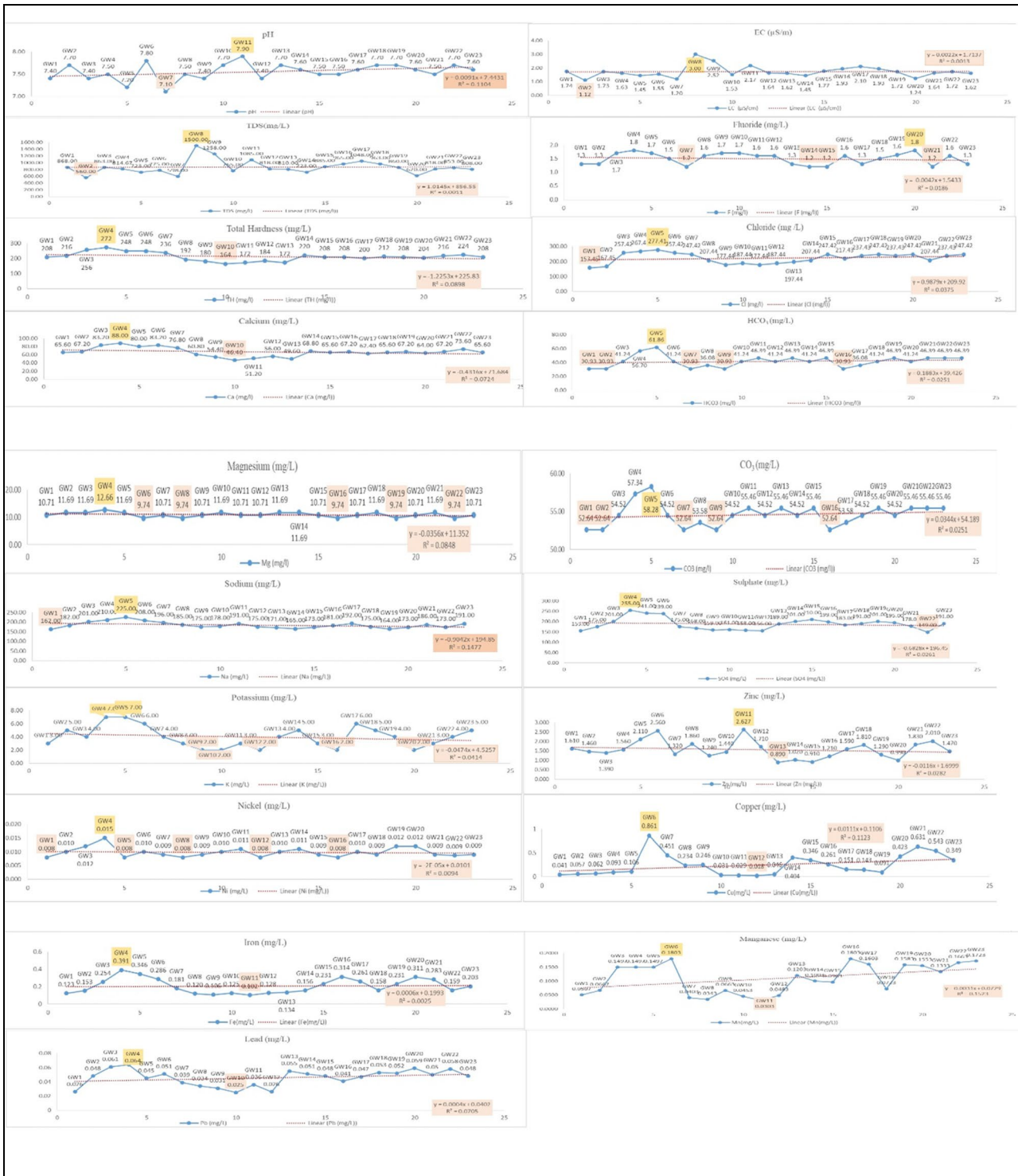


Fig. 3 Variations in water quality parameters of ground water samples collected from in different sites at the study area, Sanganer, Jaipur, Rajasthan, India

and Cu made PC3 with a total variance of 11.42% followed by phosphorous made PC4 a total variance of 9.06%, while all four extraction factors accounted for 72.15% of the overall variation. However, in case for soil samples Mn, pH, and

EC produced the first component (PC1) with 24.26% of the variance followed by the second component (PC2) produced included S, OC, and P with a total variation of 17.48%, while PC3 made up of pH, Cu, and Mn with a total variance of

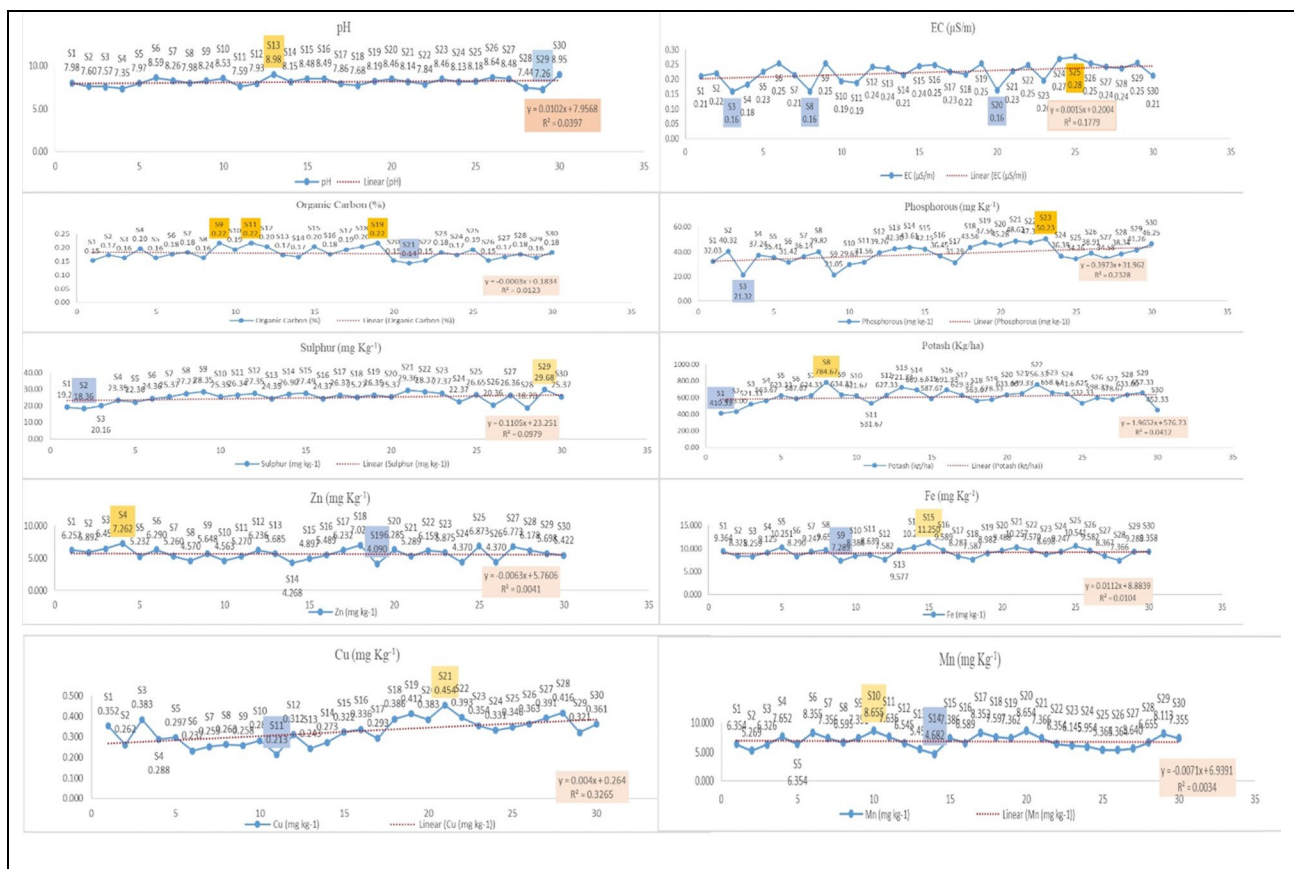


Fig. 4 Variations in soil quality parameters of soil samples collected from different sites at the study area, Sanganer, Jaipur, Rajasthan, India

13.65% and PC4 contained phosphorus with a total variance of 11.58% (Fig. 5A). Result shows that water quality of groundwater samples collected at TW1, TW8, TW10, and TW12 sampling sites in the Sanganer area are in very good quality category; however, groundwater samples from TW3, TW4, TW6, TW19, and TW22 sites recorded under very poor water quality category with high level of contaminants (Fig. 5B). Similarly, total 9 soil quality parameters including pH, EC, OC, P, S, K, Zn, Fe, and Mn used to evaluate the soil quality index (SQI), and an average soil quality index (SQI) value 0.517 recorded for the selected study area based on MDS, with a range of 0.341 to 0.635 (Fig. 5B). According to the suggested framework, the SQI values for the entire selected region divided into three categories viz; category 1 (C1), SQI value less than 0.4 (degraded); category 2 (C2), SQI value between 0.41 and 0.5 (moderately degraded); and category 3 (C3), SQI value greater than 0.51 (least degraded). SQI revealed that soil samples at S19 site showed highest SQI score, 0.636, followed by S6, S7, S12, S13, S15, S16, S17, S18, S20, S21, S22, S23, S25, S27, S29, and S30 more than average as shown in Fig. 5B. Data shows that 13.3% of the soil samples from the study area have low soil pollution with good soil health; however,

40% of the soil samples have moderate contamination with SQI values in the range of 0.41 to 0.5 and 46.6% of soil samples shown as degraded soil under the poor-quality category with SQI values more than 0.51. At 5 kilometers away from the Sanganer industrial regions, high-intensity farming techniques, and conventional farming practices, excessive fertilizer use may be responsible for the soil degradation in the selected sites. Based on SQI score, the S19 site showed highly contaminated soil in the study area; however, it is crucial to note that the high score may be due to increased chemical build-up and other components like sulfur rather than trace metals having low concentration; however, it may be useful in environmental health assessment. Results of the factor analysis (FA) recorded insufficient if the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test result value found to be less than 0.5; however, KMO found less FA findings in the test’s outcome than the chemical examination of soil samples. FA did not alter KMO testing significantly because there is no related cut-off point, and the results for the sample given a less clear indication of the applicability of the FA as KMO values estimated 0.487 and 0.466 (less than 0.5) for the groundwater and soil samples, respectively. Percentage (%) of variance evaluated by placing three components out of

Table 3. Correlation matrix^a of ground water and soil samples collected from different sites at Sanganer study area, Jaipur, Rajasthan, India

Groundwater quality parameters		pH	EC	TDS	F	TH	Ca	Mg	Cl	HCO ₃	CO ₃	Na	K	SO ₄	Zn	Mn	Cu	Fe	Pb	
		Correlation	pH	EC	TDS	F	TH	Ca	Mg	Cl	HCO ₃	CO ₃	Na	K	SO ₄	Zn	Mn	Cu	Fe	Pb
EC	.080	1.000	1.000	.217	-.366	-.327	-.371	-.211	-.185	-.185	-.185	-.088	-.251	-.282	.214	-.241	-.147	-.309	-.326	
TDS	.082	1.000	1.000	.217	-.367	-.328	-.370	-.212	-.185	-.185	-.185	-.088	-.252	-.279	.212	-.239	-.149	-.308	-.326	
F	.047	.217	.217	1.000	.068	.074	-.040	.194	.267	.267	.267	.257	-.111	.155	.213	.337	.131	-.259	.240	
TH	-.348	-.366	-.367	.068	1.000	.993	.217	.695	.320	.320	.320	.605	.671	.698	.153	.491	.322	.693	.599	
Ca	-.338	-.327	-.328	.074	.993	1.000	.096	.705	.282	.281	.281	.586	.641	.676	.180	.517	.374	.687	.580	
Mg	-.132	-.371	-.370	-.040	.217	.096	1.000	.028	.361	.361	.361	.241	.346	.280	-.190	.399	-.366	.156	.244	
Cl	-.207	-.211	-.212	.194	.695	.705	.028	1.000	.538	.538	.538	.572	.569	.734	.044	.295	.345	.735	.659	
HCO ₃	.078	-.185	-.185	.267	.320	.282	.361	.538	1.000	1.000	1.000	.441	.480	.560	.242	.343	-.032	.462	.449	
CO ₃	.078	-.185	-.185	.267	.320	.281	.361	.538	1.000	1.000	1.000	.441	.480	.560	.242	.343	-.032	.462	.449	
Na	-.284	-.088	-.088	.257	.605	.586	.241	.572	.441	.441	.441	1.000	.615	.590	.498	.154	.115	.582	.215	
K	.008	-.251	-.252	-.111	.671	.641	.346	.569	.480	.480	.480	.615	1.000	.672	.284	.314	.074	.459	.529	
SO ₄	-.087	-.282	-.279	.155	.698	.676	.280	.734	.560	.560	.560	.590	.672	1.000	-.010	.451	.185	.811	.590	
Zn	.250	.214	.212	.213	.153	.180	-.190	.044	.242	.242	.242	.498	.284	-.010	1.000	-.145	-.117	.388	.604	
Ni	.300	-.241	-.239	.337	.351	.307	.399	.295	.343	.343	.343	.154	.314	.451	-.145	1.000	.281	.750	.695	
Mn	.121	-.241	-.242	.131	.491	.517	-.131	.645	.381	.381	.381	.288	.411	.589	-.054	.281	1.000	.750	.695	
Cu	.047	-.147	-.149	-.259	.322	.374	-.366	.345	-.032	-.032	-.032	.115	.074	.185	.175	.393	.393	1.000	.288	
Fe	-.213	-.309	-.308	.240	.693	.687	.156	.735	.462	.462	.462	.582	.459	.811	-.008	.388	.750	1.000	.582	
Pb	.219	-.326	-.326	.036	.599	.580	.244	.659	.449	.449	.449	.215	.529	.590	-.143	.604	.288	.582	1.000	
Soil quality parameter		pH	EC	OC	Phosphorus	Sulfur	Potash	Zn	Fe	Cu	Mn									
		Correlation	pH	EC	OC	Phosphorus	Sulfur	Potash	Zn	Fe	Cu	Mn								
pH	1.000	.163	-.071	.166	.148	.111	-.324	.291	-.039	-.089										
EC	.163	1.000	.125	.059	.113	.075	-.064	.079	.131	-.264										
OC	-.071	.125	1.000	-.237	.226	-.174	.023	-.382	-.331	.288										
Phosphorus	.166	.059	-.237	1.000	.290	.250	-.178	.385	.400	-.109										
Sulfur	.148	.113	.226	.290	1.000	.493	-.101	.202	-.026	.314										
Potash	.111	.075	-.174	.250	.493	1.000	-.291	.160	-.064	-.012										
Zn	-.324	-.064	.023	-.178	-.101	-.291	1.000	-.362	.149	.110										
Fe	.291	.079	-.382	.385	.202	.160	-.362	1.000	.054	-.234										
Cu	-.039	.131	-.331	.400	-.026	-.064	.149	.054	1.000	-.059										
Mn	-.089	-.264	.288	-.109	.314	-.012	.110	-.234	-.059	1.000										

Table 4. Water quality and soil quality Index

Groundwater quality index						
Parameters	Quantity of sample	WQI (mean)	Std. deviation	Std. error	Maximum	Minimum
pH	23	7.5522	.0035	.0020	8.0000	7.0000
EC ($\mu\text{S/m}$)	23	1.7400	.0027	.0015	3.0100	1.1100
TDS (mg/l)	23	868.7246	.7633	.4407	1501.0000	559.0000
Fluoride (mg/l)	23	1.4928	.0054	.0031	1.9000	1.1000
TH (mg/l)	23	211.1304	.5325	.3074	273.0000	163.0000
Ca (mg/l)	23	66.5043	.0035	.0020	88.1000	46.3000
Mg (mg/l)	23	10.9249	.0009	.0005	12.6700	9.7300
Cl (mg/l)	23	221.7787	.0025	.0014	277.4200	157.4400
HCO ₃ (mg/l)	23	41.6862	.0041	.0024	61.8700	30.9200
CO ₃ (mg/l)	23	54.6017	.0082	.0047	58.2900	52.6300
Na (mg/l)	23	184.0000	.6035	.3484	226.0000	161.0000
K (mg/l)	23	3.9565	.6745	.3894	8.0000	1.0000
SO ₄ (mg/l)	23	188.2609	.8165	.4714	256.0000	148.0000
Zn (mg/l)	23	1.5612	.0083	.0048	2.6400	1.6000
Ni (mg/l)	23	0.0098	.0010	.0006	.0160	.0011
Mn (mg/l)	23	0.1099	.0004	.0002	.1810	.0300
Cu (mg/l)	23	0.2442	.0008	.0005	.8620	.0170
Fe (mg/l)	23	0.2068	.0008	.0005	.3920	.1010
Pb (mg/l)	23	0.0456	.0008	.0004	.0650	.0240
Soil quality index						
Parameters	Quantity of sample	SQI (mean)	Std. deviation	Std. error	Maximum	Minimum
pH	30	8.11	.0064	.0037	8.40	7.98
EC ($\mu\text{S/m}$)	30	.2240	.0008	.0005	.2760	.1580
Organic carbon (%)	30	.1793	.0061	.0035	.2300	.1400
Phosphorous (mg kg ⁻¹)	30	38.1197	.0009	.0005	50.2310	21.0500
Sulfur (mg kg ⁻¹)	30	24.9634	.0006	.0004	29.6810	18.3620
Potash (kg/ha)	30	607.1889	.7385	.4264	786.00	410.00
Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	30	5.6635	.0010	.0006	7.2630	4.0890
Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)	30	9.0579	.0006	.0003	11.2510	7.2890
Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)	30	.3261	.0005	.0003	.4550	.2130
Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)	30	6.8290	.0007	.0004	8.6560	4.6810

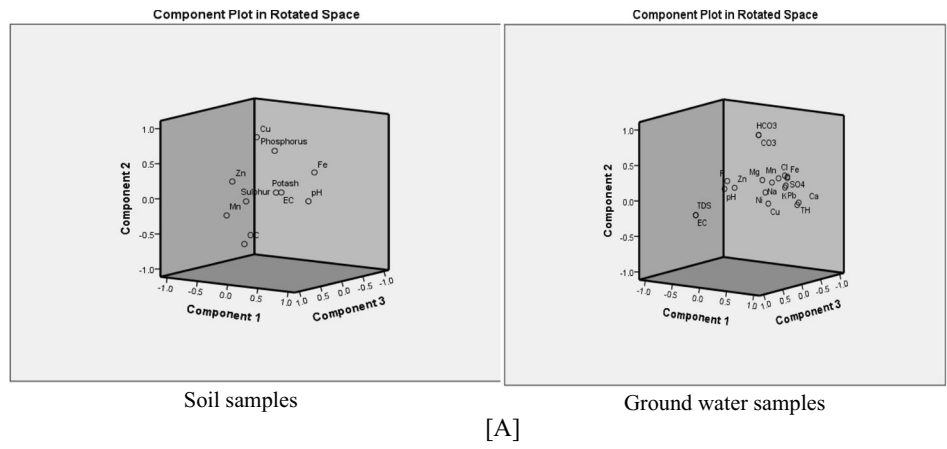
the four PC ranges (component based on Jolliffe's criterion) and recorded 84.60% and 66.98% for groundwater and soil samples, respectively (supplementary data).

Discussion

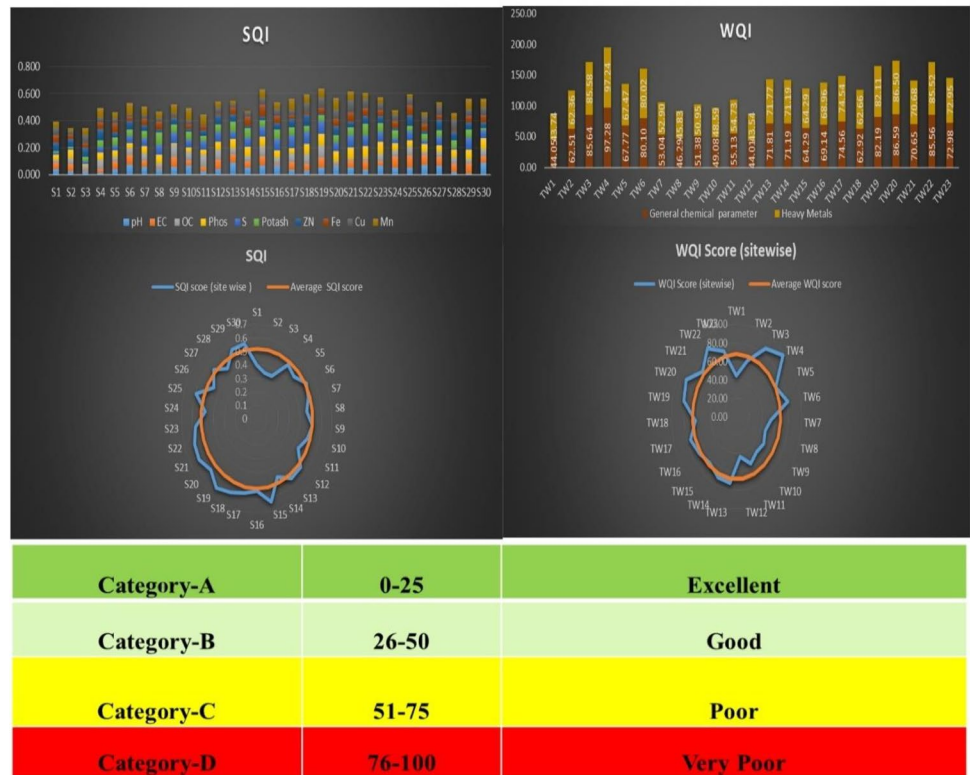
Collected samples from the selected study area, Jaipur regions of Rajasthan, Western India, evaluated for water and soil quality parameters which indicate slightly basic in nature as pH varied within the ranged of 7.0 to 8.0 in the samples. pH is one of the essentially functional parameters for evaluating the quality of soil and water (Filip 2002). Depending on the underlying geological units' actual resistivity, the geoelectrical characteristics utilized to create earth models which displayed as subsurface stratigraphy

and from which possible aquifer zones mapped for sampling and assessing the groundwater quality parameters at different sites in the selected region (Mogaji and Omobude 2017). Higher value of EC in groundwater samples indicates impurity as compared to pure water which is not an excellent conductor of electricity having a lower EC than the groundwater. According to previous studies, groundwater exhibits low resistivities between 10 and 100 Ωm in the context of sedimentary (Adagunodo et al. 2018). Kaiser's criterion replaced with Jolliffe's criterion since it is too high and allows for a graphic representation of the factor loading through a dipole using the first three components (Jolliffe 1972). However, soil solution's EC indicates total amount of salts and ions present in the soil (Bronson et al. 2005; Peralta and Costa 2013). A significant indicator of the soil quality is electrical conductivity, which reflects the salinity of the soil

Fig. 5 Component plot of ground water and soil samples (A). Soil quality index (SQI) and water quality index (WQI) of collected samples (B)



[A]



[B]

(Hardie and Doyle 2012). Studies revealed that low resistivity values inside the underlying strata likely caused by high ion concentrations and fine-grained sediments like silt and clay (Amaya et al. 2018). Another soil quality parameter of soil is known as soil organic carbon (SOC) contains organic remains of dead animals and plants at various stages of decomposition which affects physicochemical characteristics of the soil (Campbell 1978). Concentration of SOC in the soil samples is one of the fundamental criteria for soil quality (Unger 1997). Agricultural production, plant development, and soil fertility also depend on phosphorus content, which is the second-most important macronutrient

in soil after nitrogen (Malhotra et al. 2018). Similarly, soil fertility, pH levels, plant development, and efficient nitrogen fixation processes dependent on its existence in the soil (Jordan and Ensminger 1959). Potash content is another essential macronutrient for preserving soil fertility and pH homeostasis. Fertilizer used usually to supplement K into the soil in case of its deficiency because plants require K for their growth and development during the life cycle (Morgan and Connolly 2013). However, high concentration of potash in soil also effects soil quality and causes soil degradation (Sillanpaa 1982). Water and soil quality assessment studies have sparked interest on a global scale due to growing

attention on the depletion of water and soil quality to assess the environmental impact of anthropogenic activities for environmental sustainability (Raiesi and Kabiri 2016). Various attempts have been made to measure the quality of the soil and water using different indicators (Armenise et al. 2013; Seybold et al. 2018). Water quality index makes it possible to examine water quality in a variety of ways that affect a stream's ability to sustain by its processes and to ensure sustainable use of water resources to minimize risks and preserve aquatic ecosystems (Akkaraboyina and Raju 2012). WQI is an important distinctive grade which summarizes overall quality of water and helps in selecting the most effective treatment strategy for wastewater before its final discharge and disposal to prevent water contamination (Tyagi et al. 2013). Status and level of contamination of water has been evaluated by using water quality parameters and quality index (Shah and Joshi 2017). The WQI and SQI approach is one of the best and most widely used techniques for assessing the quality of soil and water for adapting treatment and conservation strategies (Arshad and Martin 2002; YanBing et al. 2009). Physio-chemical and biological characteristics of soil indicated by the soil quality which is crucial to its long-term functionality and productivity and sustainability. An encompassing view of the region's overall soil quality evaluated assessing the soil quality index (Bhattacharyya 2017). Similarly, minimum data set (MDS) for the data reflecting the soil's functional capacity used in evaluating the soil quality index (Klimkowicz-Pawlas et al. 2019). By using multivariate geostatistical techniques, contemporary data analysis and metal content estimation of four metals (Zn, Cu, Mn, and Fe) in the soil and six metals (Zn, Cu, Mn, Fe, Pb, and Ni) in groundwater emphasis water and soil quality (Lu et al., 2010). Metals Zn, Ni, Mn, Cu, Fe, and Pb chosen based on PCA, FA, and CA investigations as reference elements for soil and groundwater contamination. Several studies evaluated metal contamination of soil and water in the different urban and industrial regions using principal component analysis (Manta et al. 2002; Skrbic and Djurisc-Mladenovic, 2007, Guo et al., 2013). PCA technique used to show the relationship among metals concentration and other parameters (pH, EC, TOC) in the soil and water (Weissmannová and Pavlovský 2017). FA produced using a constant value for all the soil and water quality parameters with a correlation matrix to minimize the effect of varying units on the variables (Lin et al. 2002). Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test used to evaluate whether the sample is large enough to use factor analysis (Kaiser 1974). In principal component analysis (PCA), variables referred to as principal components (PC) used to illustrate the relation between two elements (Esbensen and Geladi 2010). In similar study, Tripathi and Singal (2019) evaluated water quality of the Ganga River using PCA technique. In contrast, Praus (2019) used primary component weighted

index (PCWI) for assessing the quality of both untreated and treated wastewater to evaluate WQI. Data indicate that unregulated discharge of wastewater including urban sewage contaminate water and soil by the process of seepage and leaching or irrigation with wastewater leads to depletion of groundwater and soil quality. High concentration of metals and other contaminants in the soil and groundwater may be due to continuous and long-term disposal of wastewater containing metals from industrial units leading to health hazards (Wuana and Okieimen 2011). Therefore, applying geographical and geostatistical techniques with an integrated approach could be more effective ways in environmental monitoring and assessment of soil and water contamination to ensure environmental and health safety.

Conclusion

Groundwater and soil quality parameters of water and soil samples varied with different sites of the selected study area, indicate about 13.3% of the sites found to have good soil health with minimum contamination level followed by 40% of sites with moderate contamination; however, 46.6% of sites shown high level of contamination of soil. Evaluating WQI and SQI values in the present study offers insightful information about site-wise variation pattern of quality parameters including metals identifying the sites with high level of contamination to opt appropriate strategies and mitigation measures to ensure preserving groundwater and soil quality. Further, a study concludes that contamination of water and soil with metals and other contaminants leads to depletion of quality parameters which affects nutrients cycling in the aquatic and terrestrial ecosystem with more imbalances in availability of NPK. GIS-based WQI maps provide more description of sites in categorizing contaminated regions to ensure safe water supply and developing wastewater treatment facilities for sustainable urban planning. Besides, water and soil quality assessment using GIS and geostatistical technique provide regional and spatial variability of contaminants with their correlation to establish standards of soil health and drinking for effective natural resource management in a particular region. Therefore, the present study could be a new insight in environmental monitoring involving quantitative and qualitative assessment of water and soil quality for sustainable resource utilization and conservation applying geographical and geostatistical techniques.

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Author contribution All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Sampling of water and soil samples, analysis, and drafting of manuscript were performed by J. Khan and G. Gupta. All authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. Hypothesis and designing of the experiment were done by N. K. Singh; data analysis and improving the manuscript were done by V.N. Bhave and V. Bhardwaj; map designing and statistical analysis were done by P. Upreti and R. Singh; and geophysical analysis and editing were done by A. K. Sinha. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Declarations

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