

Spatial and seasonal variations in the physico-chemical properties of groundwater in Yenagoa Metropolis, Bayelsa State, Nigeria

Nagbi, V., Eludoyin O.S. and Chukwu-Okeah G.O.

Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Submitted: 05-11-2021

Revised: 12-11-2021

Accepted: 15-11-2021 _____

ABSTRACT

The study examined the spatial and seasonal variations in the physico-chemical properties of groundwater in Yenagoa Metropolis, Bayelsa State, Nigeria. Six groundwater samples were collected equally from the hand dug well and borehole for both wet and dry seasons n sterilised plastic bottles and were taken to laboratory for further analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistics were adopted for the data analysis. The total hardness, temperature, colour and turbidity were higher in well water during the dry season than the wet season. The pH in the well water was weakly acidic while the chloride, fluoride, BOD, COD, Na, K, Ca and Nitrite were all higher in well water during the wet season than the dry season. Similarly, the total hardness, and temperature were higher during the dry season than wet season in borehole water. In addition, pH during wet season was more alkaline than the dry season. The EC, nitrate, sulphate, chloride, COD, Fe and Mg were higher during the dry season than the wet season. The study concluded that the water quality of groundwater in the Yenagoa is excellent and good for consumption. The study therefore recommended that the groundwater in Yenagoa Metropolis should be prevented from being affected with pollutants which could degrade the quality of its consumption; and there should be periodic monitoring of groundwater quality in the study location.

Keywords: Borehole, Well, Spatio-seasonal, Physico-chemical properties, water quality index

INTRODUCTION I.

The assessment of groundwater quality is as important as its quantity for various purposes

ranging from domestic, industrial and agricultural uses all over the globe (Subramani and Damodarasamy, 2005). The quality of groundwater is characterized by different physico-chemical parameter levels based on the geological structure through which it flows and human activities near the groundwater basin (Hejaz, Al-Khatib, and Mahmoud, 2020). Groundwater contamination has become a great problem due to rapid growth rate of population, industrialization and urbanization in the metropolitan city all over the world (Ganiyu, Badmus, Olurin and Ojekunle, 2018); and the deterioration of groundwater globally has been a serious environmental challenge (Hejaz et al., 2020).

It is believed that water is one of the most important natural resources (Mahler, Smolen, Borisova, Boellstorff, Adams and Sochacka, 2013); and as a result, there is need to improve water quality, increase the efficiency of water use, integrate water management programs, and achieve universal and equitable access to safe drinking water for all by 2030 (United Nations, 2015; Eck, Wagner, Chapagain and Josh, 2019). Regardless of the population of interest, perceptions of water issues, environmental impacts, and the protection and preservation of natural resources play a key role in meeting future national and global water supply needs. For instance, in the West Bank/Palestine, economic and population growth has resulted in raising the groundwater demand, as it is the major resource of water in Palestine (Hejaz et al., 2020) while Charles, Walker and Geo (2018) noted that the growth in the population of Texas cities between 2015 and 2017 has led to the increasing demand from all sectors of the economy for surface water and groundwater in Texas Cities,



USA. In Nigeria, more than 60% of the Nigerian population depend on groundwater for domestic water supply (Omole, 2013). This is due to the fact that most homes rely on self-supply of water at her than municipal water supply (Omole and Ndambuki, 2015).Water of good quality is a basic necessity of life and the need to be sure of the quality of water used by humans has become very intense in the past decade (Olatunji, Abimbola, Oloruntola and Odewade, 2005). It is difficult to imagine any programme for human development that does not require a readily available supply of water.

In Nigeria, the rate of urbanization characterised by high population concentration increasing industrial and agricultural activities coupled with environmental pollution, degradation and indiscriminate disposal of all kinds of wastes are perceived to pose serious pollution threats with all its concomitant health hazards on groundwater quality especially in urban areas (Adelana, Abiye, Nkhuwa, Tindinugaya. and Oga, 2008; Eni, Obiefuna., Oko, and Ekwok, 2011; Ocheri, Odoma& Umar, 2014). One of the critical and fundamental problems facing Nigeria as a developing nation in the last five decades has been inadequate supply of portable and safe water for drinking. In parts of the Niger Delta, the negative effects of groundwater pollution and its attendant problems such as water borne diseases, harm to body organs like nervous system, liver, kidney and various forms of cancer, etc, have reached an alarming rate. Nwankoala and Shalokpe (2008) and Amadi et al., 2012) reported that the Niger Delta region of Nigeria is among the world's largest petroleum provinces and its importance lies on its hydrocarbon resources.

Due to the presence of oil companies and other associated industries, the population has increase enormously and the demand for potable water by individuals and companies has also increased. In Nigeria, the rate of urbanization characterised by high population concentration, increasing industrial and agricultural activities, environmental pollution/degradation and indiscriminate disposal of all kinds of wastes pose serious pollution threats and health hazards on groundwater quality especially in urban areas (Adelana et al., 2004; Adelana et al., 2008; Eni et al., 2011; Ocheri et al., 2014).

In developing countries, most people have access to some sort of water supply that is merely sufficient to meet basic needs but may represent risks to their health because of it inadequacy for basic hygiene. The quantity, physical, chemical and biological characteristics of water determine its usefulness for domestic or agricultural purposes (Ariyo and Enikanoselu, 2007; Ganiyu et al., 2018). Consumption of water contaminated by disease causing agents (pathogens) or toxic chemicals can cause health problem like diarrhoea, cholera, typhoid, dysentery, cancer and skin diseases (Pal, et al., 2018). Throughout history, groundwater has been a major source of water for sustaining human life.

Groundwater is one of the largest stocks of accessible freshwater which accounts for about one-third of freshwater consumption globally (Famiglietti, 2014; Gorelick&Zheng, 2015; Chen, et al., 2018). Owing to its relatively stable yield of high-quality water, groundwater has emerged as an extremely important water resource for meeting domestic, industrial, agricultural and environmental demands (Howard, 2015). Although groundwater is often relatively well protected from pollution, poor management has resulted in negative impacts such as declining aquifer heads, groundwater quality deterioration, lower crop yields, ecosystem degradation, and in some cases, land subsidence and seawater intrusion (Schoups et al., 2006; Praveena. et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2018).

Groundwater is a vital source of water which can be very difficult to treat if polluted. Thus, detecting the level of pollution especially in the developing countries is highly essential. Groundwater depletion is an inevitable and natural consequence of withdrawing water from an aquifer. In most regions, groundwater is used for drinking without treatment, the use of groundwater without treatment can lead to physiological and health disorder in life system both in humans, plants and animals. Drinking water source should be monitored to establish the required level of water treatment according World Health Organization (WHO) standards, and detect any contaminants which might not be removed during treatment, or which may interfere with the treatment processes. Excessive depletion is indicated by a persistent and substantial head drop resulting from the pumping of groundwater at a rate higher than replenishment. The scale of the problem has been quantified globally (Konikow andKendy, 2005; Chen et al. 2018).

Human population use water for hygiene purpose such as washing, and recreation e.g. swimming and boating. Some industries require water for manufacturing of goods such as pharmaceutical industries, and other consumable products. When this water source supply is not treated or partially treated. It can cause some health issues on human Irrigation of food crops from a polluted or untreated groundwater source supply



can pass through the food chain and be bioaccumulated and have a health hazard on humans. Assessment of water quality examines source environment mental impact of specific activities on groundwater quality. This activity includes run-offs from land that has undergone pollution as a result of mining, effluent discharge from industries. Man is at great risks if waste products are not properly treated before discharge into the environment before it circulates.

Groundwater studies in some areas in the Niger Delta have shown increased levels in Total Dissolved Solids (TDS) (up to 2900mg/L), high hydrocarbon content-oil and grease (71 mg/L in 2006) are reported to be some of the groundwater problems according to Ayotamuno andKogbara (2007) and Adesuyiet al., (2015). Amajor (1991) had reported iron and chloride elevation as groundwater issues and this was corroborated by Ophori, Gorring, Olsen, Orhua and Hope (2007). Similar problems as reflected in Bayelsa, Delta and AkwaIbom States were also reported by Amangabara and Ejenma (2011) and Amadi et al., (2010). The principal goal of groundwater monitoring and management in developing countries is to assess and manage the water resources that are available. Groundwater is an important source of drinking water for more than half of Nigeria's population and nearly all its rural population. It is generally a very good source of drinking water because of the self-purifying properties of the soil.

Therefore, there is the need for regular monitoring and assessment of these drinking water sources. This is because monitoring provides data on groundwater quantity and quality and it is an integral aspect of groundwater management (Sundaram, et al., 2009). However, the quality assessment of groundwater in selected communities in the Niger Delta is very few in the literature. Hence, the present study is driving its focus along this corridor with a view to providing baseline data that will be used as a guide for future monitoring and to determine the level of contamination by comparing results with local and international standardized limits.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was carried out in Yenagoa, Bayelsa State, Nigeria. The study area is located in latitudes between $4^0 51' 30''$ N and $5^0 13' 30''$ N and longitudes between $6^0 12' 30''$ E and $6^0 22' 30''$ E (Figure 1). The study locations experience a tropical humid climate with lengthy and heavy rainy seasons and very short dry seasons. The heaviest precipitation occurs during September with an average of 370 mm of rain. December on average is the driest month of the year; with an average rainfall of 2000mm. The southwest wind transports its moisture to the region. It blows through Southern Nigeria between the months of February through November. During this period. the region receives its rain. Only the months of December and January truly qualifies as dry season months in the city. The North East trade wind blows through the Sahara desert passes through the core Niger Delta between the months of November through February. During this period the places experience dry season and harmattan. The region is endowed with abundant sunshine and this is because it is located close to the equatorial region. The mean annual temperature of the region is 28° C and the region records its highest temperature during the month of July and the lowest temperature in January (Adeyemo and Oyegun, 1999). Temperatures throughout the year in the city are relatively constant, showing little variation throughout the course of the year. Average temperatures are typically between 25°C-28°C in the city (Ogbonna et al., 2007). There are two major pressure and wind system in Nigeria. One is generated from subtropical high pressure cell. These cells are called anti-cyclones they generate and drive the north east trade wind and the south west winds.

Relief of the study area is undulating in other words the high and low lands, which characterizes the place. However, Yenagoa is dominated by low lying coastal plains, which structurally belongs to the sedimentary formation of the recent Niger Delta, with an elevation less than 15.24m (Oyegun and Adeyemo, 1999). The low relief of the region results in strikingly gentle slope, which have the effect of making the flow velocity of the rivers very low. This situation results in the formation of welldeveloped rivers meanders (Umeuduji and Aisuebeogun, 1999).

The study area is underlain by the Coastal Plain sands having its place from the Pleistocenic Formation (Nwakoala and Warmate, 2014). The sediments are deposits comprising of gravel, clays, peats, sands and silt from the River Niger. The depositional order displays vast sandstones superimposing an interchange of sandstones and clays of slightly marine source which has developed to be marine clays. Sands constitute the prevailing and dominant type of rock in the study area.

This study adopted experimental research and cross sectional research designs in an attempt to answer the questions previously raised for the investigation. Experimental research is undertaken



when a researcher wishes to trace cause-and-effect relationships between defined variables (Tarner, 2018). Experimental research is any research conducted with a scientific approach, where a set of variables are kept constant while the other set of variables are being measured as the subject of experiment (Mitchell, 2015).The functional boreholes and hand-dug wells were located and captured using a global positioning system (GPS). It was used to register the coordinates (longitude and latitudes) of the boreholes/hand-dug wells which were brought into the ArcGIS environment to determine their spatial distribution within the study area. The study locations were Yenagoa. Enugu State though not a Niger Delta region is also chosen as a study location as the control for the study. Three boreholes and three hand dug wells were purposively collected in the study locations (Table 1). The criteria for selection of boreholes/hand-dug wells included boreholes that are 140ft and above; hand-dug wells that are 30ft and above; they were 100m apart; accessibility by the owners; and security of the area.

S/N	Groundwater	Y_Coordinates	X_Coordinates
1	Well1	4.93611	6.28472
2	Well2	4.93496	6.27288
3	Well 3	4.98387	6.28217
4	Borehole 1	4.94578	6.33688
5	Borehole 2	4.94122	6.31723
6	Borehole 3	4.91017	6.29717





Water Sampling Methods and Laboratory Analysis

The data collection was carried out in the dry (November 2020-February 2021) and wet seasons (July 2021- August 2021). Groundwater samples were taken from the selected boreholes in Yenagoainto distilled jars. The jars were properly labelled for heavy metals test and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon test. The water samples were stored in ice packed coolers at a temperature below 4°C to preserve the quality and pre-treated with 2mls of hydrochloric acid (HCl) in order to stabilize the samples and thereafter, the water samples were taken to laboratory.All results from the water samples from boreholes were subjected to the World Health Organization Standard for potable water to determine its suitability for domestic and industrial uses.Water Quality Index (WQI) was applied in this study. WQI is one of the most effective tools to communicate information on the quality of water to the concerned citizens and policy makers (Amadi et al., 2012). It is an important parameter for the assessment and management of surface water and can be applied in groundwater as well. WOI is a scale used to estimate an overall quality of water based on the values of the water quality parameters (Amadi, 2011). It is a rating reflecting the composite influence of different water quality parameters. WQI is calculated from the point view of the suitability of groundwater for human consumption (Amadi, Olasehinde and Yisa, 2010; Njenga, 2010). The WQI was calculated using the Weighted Arithmetic Index method. The quality rating scale for each parameter qi was calculated by using the expression in Equ. 2: 100

qi = (Ci / Si) x 10

..... Equation 3.3.

A quality rating scale (qi) for each parameter is assigned by dividing its concentration (Ci) in each water sample by its respective standard (Si) and the result multiplied by 100.

Relative weight (Wi) was calculated by a value inversely proportional to the recommended standard (Si) of the corresponding parameter (Equation 3.4): Wi = 1/Si

wi _____ 1/

..... (Equation 3.4)

The overall WQI was calculated by aggregating the quality rating (Qi) with unit weight (Wi) linearly. Where:

Qi = the quality of the ith parameter,

Wi = the unit weight of the ith parameter and n = the number of the parameter considered.

Generally, WQI was discussed for a specific and intended use of water. In this study the WQI for drinking purposes is considered and permissible WQI for the drinking water is taken as 100 (Amadi, Olasehinde, Yisa, Okosun, Nwankwoala and Alkali, 2012).The calculation of WQI was made using weighed Arithmetic index method (Brown et al, 1972) in the following steps:

Let there be in water quality parameters and quality rating (qn) corresponding to nth parameter is a number reflecting relative value of this parameter in the polluted water with respect to its standard permissible value. qn values are given by the relationship.

qn=100 (vn-vi) / (vs-vi)

vs = Standard value,

vn = observed value

vi = ideal value

In most cases vi=0 except in certain parameters like pH, dissolved oxygen etc.

Calculation of quality rating for pH & DO (vi \neq 0)

In most cases, vio=0 except for pH and DO

For pH, vio=7; For DO, vio=14.6mg/l

 $q \ pH = 100 \ (v \ pH - 7.0) \ / \ (8.5 - 1.0) \ and$

q DO = 100 (VDO - 14.6) / (15.0-14.6).

26-50 Good

51-75Bad

76-100 Very Bad

100 & above Unfit and Ur

100 & aboveUnfit and Unsuitable for Drinking In the data analysis, descriptive analysis was used to describe the mean values of groundwater parameters. In the data analysis, descriptive analysis was used to describe the mean values of groundwater parameters.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Spatial and seasonal variations in the physicochemical properties of Well Waterin Yenagoa

The spatial analysis of groundwater from the study locations are discussed in this section. It is shown that Table 2 displays the seasonal variation of the physical properties of well water in the dry and wet seasons in Yenagoa City. In the dry season, it is revealed that the total dissolved soilds was 0.47 mg/l, total hardness was 11.14 mg/l while the temperature was 28.33°C, the colour was 3.67 Hz and turbidity was 15.67 mg/l. In the wet season, it is shown that total dissolved solids was 0.66 mg/l, total hardness was 10.00 mg/l, temperature was 27.47°C while colour of the water was 2.33 Hz and the turbidity was 13.67 NTU. This result showed that the total dissolved solid was higher in



the wet season than the dry season while the temperature, colour and turbidity were higher during the dry season.

In Table 3 where the chemical properties of water in the well are displayed, it is revealed that the pH in the dry season was less alkaline than the wet season while the electrical conductivity was higher in the dry season than the wet season. It is shown that the Nitrate, Sulphate, Phosphate, Chloride and and Nitrite were higher during the wet season than the dry season. The analysis showed that the DO was 4.67 mg/l, BOD 1.63 mg/l and COD 6.00 mg/l in the well in Yenagoa during the dry season. These water properties were higher during the dry season than the wet season. The cations (Na, K, Mg and Ca) were higher during the wet season than the dry season. Furthermore, the haevy metals were not found in the well water except Fe, Zn, Cd, Cr and Mn which are found in a very low content within the well water.

Table 2: Seasonal Variation of	f Well Physical Properties in	the Dry and Wet Seasons in Yenagoa

Physical Properties	Dry Season		Wet Season	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Dissolved Solids	0.47	0.05	0.66	0.21
(mg/l)				
Total Hardness (mg/l)	11.14	1.32	10.00	1.32
Temperature (°C)	28.33	0.57	27.47	0.15
Colour (Hz)	3.67	0.57	2.33	0.58
Turbidity (NTU)	15.67	3.06	13.67	3.21

Table 3: Seasonal Variation of Well Chemical Properties in the Dry and Wet Seasons in Yenagoa

Chemical	Dry Season		Wet Season	Wet Season	
Properties	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	
pН	6.63	.15	6.74	.19	
EC (um/	239.00	35.93	220.67	93.72	
Nitrate	0.07	.02	.21	.07	
Sulphate	0.03	.01	.03	.01	
Phosphate	0.04	.02	.04	.05	
Chloride	77.00	10.39	83.33	23.46	
DO	4.67	1.15	3.33	1.53	
BOD	1.63	.21	2.03	.06	
COD	6.00	1.00	5.83	2.28	
Na	8.20	2.15	8.25	6.07	
Κ	1.48	.37	3.16	.36	
Mg	1.95	.74	4.60	.71	
Ca	19.33	8.46	32.24	4.15	
F	0.023	.02	.15	.03	
Nitrite	0.027	.01	.12	.05	
Carbonate	0.00	.00	.00	.00	
Fe	0.10	.03	.16	.06	
Pb	0.0	.00	.00	.00	
Zn	0.01	.003	.01	.003	
Cd	0.01	.00	.00	.00	
Cr	0.04	.03	.00	.00	
Mn	0.04	.01	.01	.006	
Co	0.00	.00	.00	.00	
Cu	0.01	.001	.001	.002	
$K2SO_4$	0.01	.004	.012	.004	
HCO ₃	10.50	1.80	11.50	8.79	

Spatial and seasonal variations in the physicochemical properties of Borehole Water in Yenagoa

Yenagoa mg/l, total ha Table 4 displays the seasonal variation of the physical properties of borehole water in the dry and turbidity w

and wet seasons in Yenagoa Metropolis. During the dry season, the total dissolved solids was 4.667 mg/l, total hardness was 15.37 mg/l while the temperature was 28.33°C, the colour was 3.33 Hz and turbidity was 14.00 NTU. In the wet season, it

DOI: 10.35629/5252-0311496509 Impact Factor value 7.429 | ISO 9001: 2008 Certified Journal Page 501



is shown that total dissolved solids was 7.4667 mg/l, total hardness was 11.33 mg/l, temperature was 27.53°C while colour of the water was 8.33 Hz and the turbidity was 44.00 NTU. This result showed that the total dissolved solids, total hardness, and temprature were higher during the wet season than the dry season. In Table 5, the chemical properties of water in the borehole are displayed; it is revealed that the pH in the dry season was less alkaline than the wet season by having 7.1233 while the electrical conductivity was higher in the wet season than the dry season. It is shown that the Nitrate and Sulphate were higher in

the dry season than the wet season. The water analysis showed that the DO was 4.666 mg/l, BOD 1.866 mg/l and COD 7.333 mg/l in the well in Yenagoa during the dry season. The water properties were higher during the dry season than the wet season except the COD that was higher during the wet season. The cations were higher during the dry season than the wet season. However, the heavy metals were not found in the well water except Fe, Zn, Mn, and Cu which are very low in quantity and most of them were higher during the dry season.

Table 4. Seasonal Variation of Borehole Physical Properties in the Dry and Wet Seasons in Yenagoa

Physical	Dry Season	Wet Season		
Properties	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std. Deviation
		Deviation		
Total Dissolved	4.6667	.61101	7.4667	1.45029
Solids				
Total Hardness	15.3700	3.70215	11.3333	3.61709
Temperature	28.3333	.57735	27.5333	.05774
Colour	3.3333	.57735	8.3333	1.52753
Turbidity	14.0000	2.00000	44.0000	10.53565

Table 5. Seasonal Variation of Borehole Physical Properties in the Dry and Wet Seasons in Yenagoa

Chemical	Dry Season		Wet Season	
Properties	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std.
				Deviation
pН	6.8333	.11547	7.1233	.15275
EC	255.3333	19.03506	352.6667	137.86346
Nitrate	.2197	.06086	.1473	.08903
Sulphate	.0503	.00971	.0263	.00874
Phosphate	.0290	.00458	.0120	.00755
Chloride	173.3333	11.54701	163.3333	12.58306
DO	4.6667	.57735	9.0000	1.00000
BOD	1.8667	.15275	2.2667	.15275
COD	7.3333	1.15470	6.0667	2.72274
Na	14.7000	3.02655	27.3000	10.21959
K	3.0633	.19757	1.6900	.61879
Mg	11.1000	2.40000	10.0700	3.17596
Ca	21.1000	15.28921	21.0100	18.26738
F	.0733	.01155	.8700	.14422
Nitrite	.1297	.03153	.0897	.05248
Carbonate	.0000	.00000	.0000	.00000
Fe	.1700	.06557	.1067	.04163
Pb	.0000	.00000	.0000	.00000
Zn	.0097	.00252	.0427	.02230
Cd	.0233	.00577	.0000	.00000
Cr	.0233	.00577	.0000	.00000
Mn	.0380	.00700	.3213	.38270
Co	.0000	.00000	.0000	.00000
Cu	.0037	.00058	.0000	.00000
$K2SO_4$.0127	.00351	.0103	.00462
HCO ₃	9.6667	2.08167	22.1667	11.57944



Water quality index inYenagoa Metropolis

The water quality index in the selected study locations in wells and boreholes is displayed in Table 6. The analysis revealed that all the groundwater sampled in the study locations are within the permissible limit. The decision on the water quality was excellent except the well which was categorisedgood. The general groundwaterin Table 7, revealed all groundwater to be excellent.

Table 6 Spatio-seasonal	Variation in	WOI in the	Selected Study	Locations in	Wells and Boreholes
Labic 0.0patio-scasonal	v al lation m		Science Study	Locations m	mu cho and Dor choico

			ť		
Locations	Seasons	Well	Water Quality	Borehole	Water Quality
			Decision		Decision
Yenagoa	Dry	6.397943	Excellent	5.167093	Excellent
	Wet	0.675038	Excellent	27.13858	Good

Table 7. Genera	l Groundwater (OI in Yen	agoa in Wells	and Boreholes
Table 7. Ochera	i Oi vunu matti		agua mi muuna	and Dorchoics

Locations	Seasons	Groundwater	Water Quality Decision
Yenagoa	Dry	5.782518	Excellent
	Wet	-464.417	Excellent

IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It can be concluded that the water quality of groundwater in the Yenagoa is excellent and good for consumption. Although the parameters especially the turbidity, and total dissolved solids are higher in the wet season. Based on findings, the study therefore recommended that the groundwater in Yenagoa Metropolis should be prevented from being affected with pollutants which could degrade the quality of its consumption; there should be periodic monitoring of groundwater quality in the study location; people should be informed that the level of groundwater could only be affected by seasons and the parameters like total dissolved solids and turbidity should be controlled and improved.

REFERENCES

- Abam T.K.S. (1999). Impacts of Urban Growth on Surface Water and Groundwater Quality(Proceedings of IUGG 99 Symposium HS5, Birmingham, July 1999). IAHS Publ. No. 259:429.
- [2]. Abolude, D.S., O.A. Davis, and A.M. Chia.(2009). Distribution and concentration of trace elements in KubaniReservior in Northern Nigeria. Research Journal of Environment and Earth Sciences, 1(2):39-44.
- [3]. AdeboB.A., and A.A. Adetoyinbo. (2009). Assessment of groundwater quality in unconsolidated sedimentary coasted aquifer of Lagos.Scientific Research and Essay, Vol.4 (4), pp.314-319.

- [4]. Adedeji, A.A., and L.T. Ajibade (2005).Quality of water in Ede area, southwestern Nigeria. Journal of Human Ecology, Vol.17, No. 3 pp., 222-225.
- [5]. Adekunle, I. M., Adetunji, M. T. Gbadebo A. M. and Banjoko O. B. (2007). Assessment of Groundwater Quality in a Typical Rural Settlement in Southwest Nigeria. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health, 4(4):307-318
- [6]. California Department of Public Health. 2007. California Code of Regulations. Title 22, Division 4 Environmental Health, Chapter 15 Domestic Water Quality and Monitoring Regulations. Register (2007): No. 4 (current as of January 26,2007). http://ccr.oal.ca.gov/ (accessed February 10, 2007).
- [7]. Chebotarev, I. I. (1955). Metamorphism of natural waters in the crust of weathering.GeochimicaetCosmochimicaAct a, Vol. 8, 22-48, 137-170, 198-212.
- [8]. Chen J., Wu H., Qian H. & Li X.(2018) Challenges and prospects of sustainable groundwater management in an agricultural plain along the Silk Road Economic Belt,north-west China, International Journal of Water Resources Development, 34:3, 354-368,

DOI:10.1080/07900627.2016.1238348

- [9]. Custodio, E., (2005). Intensive use of groundwater and sustainability.Groundwater 43, 291.
- [10]. Danmo, M.N., J.M. Deborah., I.A. Yusufu and Sangodoyin (2013).Evaluation of groundwater quality of Konduga town,



Nigeria, European Journal of Science and Technology, Vol.2, No.5, pp.13-17.

- [11]. Eck C.J., Wagner K.L., Chapgain B. and Josh O. (2019). A Survey of Perceptions and Attitudes about Water Issues in Oklahoma: A Comparative Study. Universities Council on Water Resources, Journal of Contemporary Water Research and Education, 168:66-77
- [12]. Elsner, M., and Imfeld G., (2016).Compound-specific isotope analysis (CSIA) of micro pollutants in the environment current developments and future challenges.Curr.Opin.Biotechnol. 41, 60–72.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cophio.2016.04.014

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2016.04.014

- [13]. Eni, D.V., J. Obiefuna., C. Oko., and I. Ekwok.(2011). Impact of urbanization on sub-surface water quality in Calabarmunicipalty, Nigeria. International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, 1(10):167-172.
- [14]. Etu-Efeotor J.O. (1981): Preliminary hydrogeochemical investigations of subsurface waters in parts of the Niger Delta. J. Min Geol. 18(1):103-107
- [15]. Etu-Efeotor J.O. and Akpokodje (E.G. 1990): Aquifer systems of the Niger Delta. J. Min Geol. 26(2):279-285
- [16]. Etu-Efeotor J.O. and Odigi M.I. (1983): Water supply problems in the Eastern Niger Delta. J. Min Geol. 20(1&2):183-193
- [17]. Ezekwe, I. C., Odu N. N., Chima, G. N. And Opigo A. (2012).Assessing regional groundwater quality and its health implications in the Lokpaukwu, Lekwesi and Ishiagu mining areas of southeastern Nigeria using factor analysis. Environ Earth Sci (2012) 67:971–986 DOI 10.1007/s12665-012-1539-9.
- [18]. Charles, J.S.J, Walker J and Geo A.M. (2018): Knowledge, Perceptions and Understanding Groundwater of and Groundwater Issues a Texas Survey: Project submitted to The Meadows Centre for Water and the Environment. Texas State University,66-77
- [19]. Famiglietti, J. S. (2014). The global groundwater crisis.Nature Climate Change, 4, 945–948.
- [20]. FAO, (2018).World Fertiliser Trends and Outlook to 2018.
- [21]. Faye, S.C., Faye, S., Wohnlich, S., Gaye, C.B., (2004). An assessment of the risk associated with urban development in the

Thiaroye area (Senegal). Environ. Geol. 45, 312–322.<u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00254-</u>003-0887-x.

- [22]. Omole, D. O. (2011): Sustainable Groundwater Exploitation in Nigeria, Journal of Water Resources and Ocean Science, vol. 2(2),pp.9-14,2013
- [23]. Omole D. O. and Ndambuki,J. M. (2015): "Nigeria's Legal Instruments for Land and Water Use: Implications for National Developmentin E. Osabuohien (ed.), In-Country Determinants and Implications of Foreign Land Acquisitions, pp. 354- 373, IGI GLOBAL, Hershey, PA, USA :Business Science Reference, DOI:10.4018/978-1-4666-7405-9.ch018.
- [24]. Gorelick, S. M., and Zheng, C. (2015). Global change and the groundwater management challenge. Water Resources Research, 51, 3031–3051. doi:10.1003/2014WR016825
- [25]. Graf, T., and Therrien, R., (2007). Variabledensity groundwater flow and solute transport in irregular 2D fracture networks. Adv. Water Resour. 30, 455–468. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.advwatres.2006.05. 003.
- [26]. Gurdak, J.J., Hanson, R.T., McMahon, P.B., Bruce, B.W., McCray, J.E., Thyne, G.D., and Reedy, R.C., (2007). Climate variability controls on unsaturated water and chemical movement, High Plains aquifer, USA. VadoseZo. J. 6, 533–547. https://doi.org/10.2136/vzj2006.0087
- [27]. Han, D., Currell,M.J., Cao, G., Hall, B., (2017). Alterations to groundwater recharge due to anthropogenic landscape change. J. Hydrol. 554, 545–557. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.09.01 8.
- [28]. Hanes, T. L. (1965). Ecological studies of two closely related chaparral shrubs in Southern California. Ecological Monographs, 35(2), 213-235.
- [29]. Harmancioglu, N., Ozkul, S., Fistikoglu, O., Geerders, P.,(2003). Integrated technologies for environmental monitoring and information production. Proceedings of the NATO Advanced Research Workshop on Integrated Technologies for Environmental Monitoring and Information Production. Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- [30]. Harou J.J. and Lund J.R. (2008): Ending groundwater overdraft in hydrologiceconomic systems. Hydrogeol J 16(6):1039– 1055



- [31]. Hensen, B., Lange, J., Jackisch, N., Zieger, F., Olsson, O., Kümmerer, K., (2018).Entry of biocides and their transformation products into groundwater via urban stormwater in filtration systems. Water Res. 144, 413–423. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2018.07.046.
- [32]. Hockey TA, Trimble V, and Bracher K (2007) The biographical encyclopaedia of astronomers. Springer reference. Springer, New York
- [33]. Hoguane, A. M. Hill, A. E. Simpson J. H. and Bowers D. G. (1999): Diurnal and tidal variation of temperature and salinity in the Ponta Rosa Mangrove Swamp, Mozambique Estuarine. Coastal and Shelf Science, 4: 251 – 264.
- [34]. Howard, K.W.F. (2015). Sustainable cities and the groundwater governance challenge. Environ. Earth Sci. 73, 2543–2554. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-014-3370-y.</u>
- [35]. Howard, K.W.F., (2015). Sustainable cities and the groundwater governance challenge. Environ. Earth Sci. 73, 2543–2554. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-014-3370-y.</u>
- [36]. <u>https://doi.org/10.1021/es032519b</u>.
- [37]. Kiss, K., and A. Bräuning. (2008). El bosquehúmedo de montaña: Investigacionessobre la diversidad de del unecosistema de montañaen el Sur Ecuador.Proyecto de la. FundaciónAlemanapara la InvestigaciónCientífica.Unidad de Investigación FOR 402, Loja, Ecuador, 64 p.
- [38]. Konikow, L. F., &Kendy, E. (2005). Groundwater depletion: A global problem. Hydrogeology Journal, 13, 317–320. doi:10.1007/s10040-004-0411-8
- [39]. Kurth, A.M., Weber, C., Schirmer, M., (2015). How effective is river restoration in re-establishing groundwater-surface water interactions? - a case study. Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. 19, 2663–2672. <u>https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-19-2663-2015</u>.
- [40]. Laniyan, T.A.(2010)..Arsenic and heavy metals in waters: A case study from Ibadan, South Western, Nigeria. Proceedings, Nigerian Association of Hydrogeologists on Water Resources Development and Climate. p47.
- [41]. Ledford, S.H., Lautz, L.K., and Stella, J.C., (2016). Hydrogeologic processes impacting storage, fate, and transport of chloride from road salt in urban riparian aquifers. Environ. Sci.Technol. 50, 4979– 4988.<u>https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.6b00402</u>

- [42]. Maimone, M. (2004).<u>Defining and managing</u> <u>sustainable yield.</u>Ground Water, Vol. 42, No.6, November-December, 809-814.
- [43]. Marsalek, J., Jiménez-Cisneros, B., Karamouz, M., Malmquist, P.-A., Goldenfum, J., Chocat, B., (2007).Urban Water Cycle Processes and Interactions. 1st ed. https://doi.org/10.15713/ins.mmj.3 London
- [44]. McMahon, P.B., Dennehy, K.F., Bruce, B.W., Böhlke, J.K., Michel, R.L., Gurdak, J.J., Hurlbut, D.B., (2006). Storage and transit time of chemicals in thick unsaturated zones underrangeland and irrigated cropland, High Plains, United States. Water Resour. Res.

42.<u>https://doi.org/10.1029/2005WR004417</u>.

- [45]. Meinzer O.E. (1923) Outline of groundwater hydrology, Water-supply paper 494. Geological survey water-supply papers, 949. United States Geological Survey, Washington, DC
- [46]. Meinzer, O. E. (1927). <u>Plants as indicators</u> of ground water.U.S. Geological Survey Water Supply Paper 577.
- [47]. Mile, I.I., J.I. Amonum., and N.N.Sambe.(2013). Heavy metals in groundwater in urban and sub-urban Makurdi, Nigeria.Pakidtan Journal of Chemistry, Vol.3. Issue 2, pp.87-90.
- [48]. Minnig, M., Moeck, C., Radny, D., and Schirmer, M., (2018).Impact of urbanization on groundwater recharge rates in Dübendorf, Switzerland. J. Hydrol. 563, 1135–1146. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.09.05 8.
- [49]. Mitchell, O. (2015). Experimental research design. In W. G. Jennings (Ed.), The encyclopedia of crime and punishment. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell. 6P
- [50]. Montanari, A., Young, G., Savenije, H.H.G., Hughes, D., Wagener, T., Ren, L.L., Koutsoyiannis, D., Cudennec, C., Toth, E., Grimaldi, S., Blöschl, G., Sivapalan, M., Beven, K., Gupta, H., Hipsey, M., Schaefli, B., Arheimer, B., Boegh, E., Schymanski, S.J., Di Baldassarre, G., Yu, B., Hubert, P., Huang, Y., Schumann, A., Post, D.a., Srinivasan, V., Harman, C.,
- [51]. Ngah S.A. (2009): Deep aquifer systems of eastern Niger Delta: Their hydrogeological properties, groundwater chemistry and vulnerability to degradation. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Rivers State University of Science and Technology, Port Harcourt, Nigeria. 247P

DOI: 10.35629/5252-0311496509 Impact Factor value 7.429 | ISO 9001: 2008 Certified Journal Page 505



- [52]. Nicole M. Burri, N.M., RobinWeatherl R. Christian Moeck C., and Schirmer M. (2019): A review of threats to groundwater quality in the anthropocene. Science of the Total Environment, 684 (2019) 136–154.
- [53]. Njenga. J. W. (2004) Comparative studies of water chemistry of four tropical lakes in Kenya and India. Asian J. Water, Environ. Pollu., 2004, 1: 87-97.
- [54]. Nwafor, E.K; C.J.Okoye., and O.C. Akinbile. 2013. Seasonal assessment of groundwater quality fordomestic use in Akure Metropolis, Ondo State, Nigeria. Proceeding, Nigerian Association of Hydrological Sciences conference on Water Resources and National Development in: Mbajiorg, C.C; Obeta,M.C and Anyanwu, C(eds),pp.38-42.
- [55]. Nwankoala H.O. and Ngah S.A. (2014): International Journal of Water Resources and Environmental Engineering, 6(5):155-163
- [56]. Nwankoala H.O. and Udom G.J. (2011). A preliminary review of potential groundwater resources of the Niger Delta.Int J. Appl. Environ. Sci. 6(1):57-70
- [57]. Nwankwoala, H. O. and Shalokpe. J. (2008): Groundwater Resource Evaluation of Amuwo-Odofin, Lagos State, Nigeria. Interna-tional Journal of Natural and Applied Sciences, 4(3): 330–336.
- [58]. Nwankwoala, H.O., G.T. Udom., and S.A.Ugwu.(2011).Some heavy metal investigation in groundwater resources in Yenegoa, Bayelsa State, Nigeria. Journal of Applied Technology in Environmental Sanitary, Vol.1, No.2, pp.163-170.
- [59]. Ocheri, M.I, Odoma L.A. &Umar.N.D (2014): Groundwater Quality in Nigerian Urban Areas: A Review. Global Journal of Science Frontier Research: Environment & Earth Science, 14(3):13P
- [60]. Ocheri, M.I., and L.A. Odoma.(2013). Baseline investigation of groundwater quality of Lokoja, Nigeria. Proceedings, Nigerian Association of Hydrological Sciences conference on Water Resources and National Development C.C. Mbajiogu, M.C Obeta and Anyanwu, C (eds) held at University of Nigeria, Nsukka, pp.65-71.
- [61]. Ocheri, M.I., and O.O. Ode.2012. Water quality from hand dug wells in Oju town, Benue State, Nigeria. Nigerian Journal of Hydrological Sciences, Vol.1, pp.57-66.
- [62]. O'Driscoll, M.A., DeWalle, D.R., McGuire, K.J., and Gburek, W.J., (2005). Seasonal

18O variations and groundwater recharge for three landscape types in central Pennsylvania, USA.

- [63]. Offodile, M. E. (2002): Groundwater study and development in Nigeria. Mecon Engineering Services Ltd, Jos, Nigeria. 239 – 345.
- [64]. Ofoma, A. E. andNgah. S. A. (2006): Applicability of solute balance technique in estimating recharge: A case study of a paved and non-paved area of the Eastern Niger Delta, Nigeria. Global Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences, 12:15 – 30.
- [65]. Ofoma, A. E. and Ngah. S. A. (2006): Applicability of solute balance technique in estimating recharge: A case study of a paved and non-paved area of the Eastern Niger Delta, Nigeria. Global Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences 12, 15 – 30.
- [66]. Ofoma, A. E. Omologbe, D. and Aigberuna P. (2005): Physico-chemical quality of groundwater in parts of Port-Harcourt City, Eastern Niger Delta. Journal of Water Resources, 2005, 16: 16 – 24.
- [67]. Ohaji, S.M.O., and N. Akujieze, N.1989. Iron in borehole water sources in Bendel State, Nigeria. Journal of Water Resources, Vol.2, pp.4-9.
- [68]. Ojos Negros Research Group. (2003). Sustainable management of water in the Ojos Negros valley, Baja California, Mexico.Online report, February.
- [69]. Olatunji A.S., Abimbola A.F., Oloruntola M.O. and Odewade A.A. (2005): Hydrogeochemical evaluation groundwater resources in shallow coastal aquifers around Ikorodu Area, Southwestern Nigeria. Water Resources, 10:65-71.
- [70]. Okoye, G.E., Aiyegbusi, M.S.,Aghomishie, M.A.,Mbachu,C.C and C.N. Akujieze. (2010). Physicochemical quality of water resources in Calabar and its environs, South-South Nigeria.Proceedings Annual Conference of Nigerian Association of Hydrogeologists on Water Resources Development and Climate Change.p6.
- [71]. Olobaniyi, S. B. and Owoyemi, F. B. (2006).Characterization by factor analysis of the chemical facies of groundwater in the deltaic plain-sands aquifer of Warri, Western Niger Delta, Nigeria.African Jour. Of Science and Tech., 7(1): 73-81.
- [72]. Omotoyinbo, O. (2007). Determination of contamination of underground water (hand dug well) by organic waste: A case study of



Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria. Ethiopian Journal of Education and Science, 3:43-50.

- [73]. Onwuka, O.S., K.O. Uma., and H.I.Ezeigbo.(2004). Potability of shallow groundwater in Enugu town, southeastern Nigeria.Global Journal of Environmental Science, Vol.3 (2), pp.33-39.
- [74]. Ophori, D.U. Gorring, M. Olsen, K. Orhua E. and Hope, J. (2007): A preliminary analysis of groundwater chemistry in shallow boreholes, Ughelli, Nigeria," Journal of Environmental Hydrology, 15(13):1-8.
- [75]. Ophori, D.U., Gorring, M., Olsen, K.Orhua E., Hope, J., Amangabara, G.T. and Ejenma, E. (2012): "Groundwater Quality Assessment of Yenagoa and Environs Bayelsa State, Nigeria between 2010 and 2011," Resources and Environment, 2(2):20-29.
- [76]. Osuiwu B.O and Ologunorisa T.E. (1999).Weather and Climate in Port Harcourt Region. In: Oyegun C.U. and Adeyemo A. (Eds), Paragraphics Port Harcourt, Nigeria, p303.
- [77]. Oteri A.U. (1983): Delineation of saline intrusion in the Dungeness Shingle aquifer using surface geophysics. Quarts J. Eng Geol. 16:43-51
- [78]. Owoyemi F.B., Oteze G.E. &Omonona O.V. (2019): Spatial patterns, geochemical evolution and quality of groundwater in Delta State, Niger Delta, Nigeria: implication for groundwater management. Environ Monit Assess, 191:617. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-019-7788-2
- [79]. Oyegun C.U. (1999): Geology in Port Harcourt Region. In: Oyegun C.U. and Adeyemo A. (Eds), Paragraphics Port Harcourt, Nigeria
- [80]. Oyeku,O.T., and A.O. Eludoyin. (2010). Heavy metal contamination of groundwater resources in a Nigeria urban settlement, African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology,Vol(2), pp.367-376.
- [81]. Pierce SA, Sharp J.M., Guillaume J.H.A, Mace R.E, and Eaton D.J. (2012) Aquiferyield continuum as a guide and typology for science-based groundwater management.Hydrogeol J 21(2):331–340. doi:10.1007/s10040-012-0910-y
- [82]. Pitt, R., Clark, S., Field, R., 1999. Groundwater contamination potential from storm water infiltration practices. Urban Water 1, 217–236.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S1462-0758(99)00014-X

- [83]. Ponce, V. M. (1995). <u>Management of floods</u> and droughts in the semiarid Brazilian <u>Northeast: The case for conservation</u>. Journal of Soil and Water Conservation, Vol. 50, No. 5, September-October, 422-431.
- [84]. Ponce, V. M. (2013b). <u>Impact of Soitec solar</u> projects on Boulevard and surrounding <u>communities</u>.Online report.
- [85]. Ponce, V. M., A. K. Lohani, and P. T. Huston. (1997). <u>Surface albedo and water</u> <u>resources: Hydroclimatological impact of</u> <u>human activities.</u>ASCE Journal of Hydrologic Engineering, Vol. 2, No. 4, October, 197-203.
- [86]. Ponce, V. M., and C. N. da Cunha. (1993). <u>Vegetated earthmounds in tropical savannas</u> of Central Brazil: A synthesis; with special reference to the Pantanal of <u>MatoGrosso.</u>Journal of Biogeography, Vol. 20, 219-225.
- [87]. Ponce, V. M., R. P. Pandey, and S. Ercan. (2000). <u>Characterization of drought across climatic spectrum.</u> Journal of Hydrologic Engineering, ASCE, Vol. 5, No. 2, April, 222-224.
- [88]. Praveena, S., Abdullah, M., Bidin, K., &Aris, A. (2012).Sustainable groundwater management on the small island of Manukan, Malaysia.Environmental Earth Sciences, 66, 719–728. doi:10.1007/s12665-011-1279-2
- [89]. Prudic, D. E., and Herman M. E. (1996). Ground-water flow and simulated effects of development in Paradise Valley, a basin tributary to the Humboldt River, in Humboldt County, Nevada. U.S. Geological Survey Professional Paper 1409-F.
- [90]. Reilly T.E., Dennehy K.F., Alley W.M, and Cunningham W.L. (2008) Ground-water availability in the United States, vol 1323, U.S. Geological Survey circular. USGS, Reston
- [91]. Schiffler, M. 1998. The economics of groundwater management in arid countries. GDI Book Series II.London, Frank Cass. 394 pp.
- [92]. Schoups, G., Addams, C. L., Minjares, J. L., &Gorelick, S. M. (2006). Sustainable conjunctive water management in irrigated agriculture: Model formulation and application to the Yaqui Valley, Mexico. Water Resource Research, 42, W10417, doi:10.1029/2006WR004922



- [93]. Seward, P., Y. Xu, and Brendock.L. (2006). Sustainable groundwater use, the capture principle, and adaptive management. Water SA, Vol. 32, No. 4, October, 473-482.
- [94]. Shah, T. 1993. Groundwater markets and irrigation development: political economy and practical policy.Mumbai, India, Oxford University Press
- [95]. Shah, T. 2001. Wells and welfare in the Ganga basin: public policy and private initiative in eastern Uttar Pradesh, India. Research Report 54. Colombo, IIMI.
- [96]. Shareef, A., Page, D., Vanderzalm, J., Williams, M., Gupta, V.V.S.R., Dillon, P., Kookana, R., (2014).Biodegradation of simazine and diuron herbicides under aerobic and anoxic conditions relevant to managed aquifer recharge of storm water. Clean - Soil, Air, Water 42, 745–752. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/clen.201300092</u>.
- [97]. Shreve, F. (1934).The problems of the desert.The Scientific Monthly, 38(3), March, 199-209.
- [98]. Singh, S., Kumar, V., Chauhan, A., Datta, S., Wani, A.B., Singh, N., Singh, J., (2018).Toxicity, degradation and analysis of the herbicide atrazine. Environ. Chem. Lett. 16, 211–237. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10311-017-0665-8.</u>
- [99]. Slobodnik, J., Thomas, K., and Koschorreck, J., (2018). Emerging pollutants in the EU: 10years of NORMAN in support of environmental policies and regulations. Environ.Sci. Eur. 30. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12302-018-0135-3.
- [100]. Sokpuwu I.A. (2017):Groundwater Quality Assessment inEbubu Community, Eleme, Rivers State, Nigeria. Environ Anal Chem 2017, 4:4 DOI: 10.4172/2380-2391.1000228
- [101]. Sophocleous M (1997) Managing water resources systems: why "safe yield" is not sustainable. Ground Water 35(4):561
- [102]. Sophocleous, M. (2000): From safe yield to sustainable development of water resources -The Kansas experience. Journal of Hydrology, Volume 235, Issues 1-2, August, 27-43.
- [103]. Spalding, R.F. and Exner, M.E., (1993).Occurrence of nitrate in groundwatera review.J. Environ. Qual. 22, 392.<u>https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq1993.004724</u> 25002200030002x.
- [104]. Spalding, V. M. (1909). Distribution and movement of desert plants. Publication No. 113, Carnegie Institution of Washington, Washington, D.C., 5-17.

- [105]. Sridhar, M.K.C., J.F.Olawuyi., L.A.Adogame., I.R.O Kekearu., C.O.Osajie and L.Aborka (1998):.Lead in the Nigerian environment: problems and prospects. Department of Environmental Health College, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan.
- [106]. Staudinger, M., Stoelzle, M., Cochand, F., Seibert, J., Weiler, M., Hunkeler, D., (2019). Your work is my boundary condition!: challenges and approaches for a closer collaboration between hydrologists and hydro-geologists. J. Hydrol. 571, 235–243. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2019.01.05 8
- [107]. Stepien, D.K., Regnery, J.,Merz, C., and Püttmann,W., (2013). Behavior of organophosphates and hydrophilic ethers during bank filtration and their potential application as organic tracers. A field study from the Oderbruch, Germany. Sci. Total Environ. 458–460, 150–159. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2013.04.0</u> 20.
- [108]. Sundaram, B. Feitz, A, Caritat, P.D. Plazinska, A. Brodie, R. Coram, J. and Ransley T. (2009): Groundwater Sampling and Analysis -A Field Guide", Geoscience Australia, Record 2009/27, Canberra, Australia.
- [109]. Tanner K. (2018). Experimental research. In Williamson K. and Johanson G. (eds), Research Methods (Second Edition) Information, Systems, and Contexts 2018, 337-356.
- [110]. Teijon, G., Candela, L., Tamoh, K., Molinadíaz, A., and Fernández-alba, A.R., (2010). Occurrence of emerging contaminants, priority substances (2008/105/CE) and heavy metals in treated wastewater and groundwater at Depurbaix facility (Barcelona, Spain). Sci. Total Environ. 408, 3584–3595. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2010.04.0

<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2010.04.0</u> <u>41</u>.

[111]. Teuten, E.L., Saquing, J.M., Knappe, D.R.U., Barlaz, M.A., Jonsson, S., Bjorn, A., Rowland, S.J., Thompson, R.C., Galloway, T.S., Yamashita, R., Ochi, D., Watanuki, Y., Moore, C., Viet, P.H., Tana, T.S., Prudente, M., Boonyatumanond, R., Zakaria, M.P., Akkhavong, K., Ogata, Y., Hirai, H., Iwasa, S., Mizukawa, K., Hagino, Y., Imamura, A., Saha, M., Takada, H., (2009). Transport and release of chemicals fromplastics to the environment and to wildlife. Philos. Trans.

DOI: 10.35629/5252-0311496509 Impact Factor value 7.429 | ISO 9001: 2008 Certified Journal Page 508



R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. 364, 2027–2045. https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2008.0284.

- [112]. Theis C.V. (1940): The source of water derived from wells. CivEng 10(5):277–280
- [113]. Theis, C. V. (1940). <u>The source of water</u> <u>derived from wells: Essential factors</u> <u>controlling the response of an aquifer to</u> <u>development</u>. Civil Engineering, Vol 10, No. 5, May, 277-280.
- [114]. Todd D.K. (1959): Ground water hydrology. Wiley, New York
- [115]. trends in pumping wells using spatially varying transfer functions. Hydrogeol. J. 23, 1449–1463. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10040-015-1279-5</u>.
- [116]. Tse, A.C and C.I.Adamu 2012.Assessment of anthropogenic influence of groundwater in hand dug wells in Makurdi Metropolis in North Central Nigeria. Ife Journal of Science, Vol.14, No.1, pp.
- [117]. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. 2010b. Fruit AvenuePlume (Bernalillo County), New Mexico, EPA ID#NMD986668911. http://www.epa.gov/earth1r6/6sf/pdffiles/06 04068.pdf (accessed July 2010)
- [118]. United Nations. 2000. Groundwater and society: resources, tensions and opportunities. New York,United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs, Institute for Social and EnvironmentalTransition. 170 pp.
- [119]. Voss, K. A., J. S. Famiglietti, M. Lo, C. de Linage, M. Rodell, and S. C. Swenson

(2013), Groundwater depletion in theMiddle East from GRACE with implications for transboundarywater management in the Tigris-Euphrates-Western Iran region,WaterResour. Res.,49, doi:10.1002/wrcr.20078.

- [120]. Wada Y., van Beek L.P.H., van Kempen C.M., Reckman J.W.T.M., Vasak S., and Bierkens M.F.P (2010): Global depletion of groundwater resources. Geophys Res Lett 37(20), L20402.doi:10.1029/2010gl044571
- [121]. World Health Organisation, (WHO) (2003): International Standards for Drinking Water. 3rd Edition, Geneva, 346-385.
- [122]. World Population Review (2020): World Population By Country. Available at <u>http://worldpopulationreview.com/</u> .Accessed on 15/1/2020.
- [123]. World Water Balance and Water Resources of the Earth.(1978). U.S.S.R. Committee for the International Hydrological Decade, UNESCO, Paris, France.
- [124]. World Water Balance and Water Resources of the Earth.(1978). U.S.S.R. Committee for the International Hydrological Decade, UNESCO, Paris, France.
- [125]. Zektser I.S. (2012) Investigation of transboundary aquifers in Russia: modern state and main tasks. In: NATO advanced research workshop on sustainable use and protection of groundwater resources transboundary water management proceedings, pp 79–85. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-3949-9_7