

# Assessing and Forecasting of Groundwater Level Fluctuation in Joypurhat District, Northwest Bangladesh Using Wavelet Analysis and ARIMA Modeling

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## Research Article

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33 **Abstract:**

34 Groundwater resource plays a crucial role for agricultural crop production and socio-economic  
35 development in some parts of the world including Bangladesh. Joypurhat district, the northwest  
36 part of Bangladesh, a crop production hub, is entirely dependent on groundwater irrigation. A  
37 precise assessment and prediction of groundwater level (GWL) can assist long-term GWR  
38 management, especially in drought-prone agricultural regions. Therefore, this study was carried  
39 out to identify trends and magnitude of GWL fluctuation (1980-2019) using the Modified Mann-  
40 Kendall test, Pettitt's Test, and Sen Slope estimators in the drought-prone Joypurhat district,  
41 northwest Bangladesh. Time-series data analysis was performed to forecast GWL from 2020 to  
42 2050 using the Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model. The findings of  
43 the MMK test revealed a significant declining trend of GWL, and the trend turning points were  
44 identified in the years 1991, 1993, 1997, and 2004, respectively. Results also indicate that the  
45 declining rate of GWL varied from 0.104 m/yr to 0.159 m/yr and the average rate of GWL  
46 declination was 0.136 m/yr during 1980-2019. The outcomes of wavelet spectrum analysis  
47 depicted two significant periods of the declining trend in Khetlal and Akkelpur Upazilas. The  
48 results obtained from the optimal identified model ARIMA (2,1,0), indicating that GWL will  
49 decline at a depth of 13.76 m in 2050, and the average declination rate of GWL will be 0.143  
50 m/yr in the study area. The predicted results showed a similar declining tendency of GWL from  
51 2020 to 2050, suggesting a disquieting condition, particularly for Khetlal Upazila. This research  
52 would provide a practical approach for GWL assessment and prediction that could help decision-  
53 makers implement long-term GWR management in the study area.

54 **Keywords:** ARIMA modeling, Pettit test, GWL declination, groundwater resource and  
55 northwest Bangladesh

56 **1. Introduction**

57 Groundwater is one of the top valuable natural resources in the world. It plays a pivotal role in  
58 the economic, social, and environmental sustainability context. The potential use of groundwater,  
59 particularly in agricultural-based developing countries like Bangladesh, is a paramount concern  
60 to the policy-makers on groundwater resources (GWR) management perspective (Morris et al.  
61 2003; Mackay et al. 2015; Salam et al., 2020a; Islam et al. 2021a). In recent times, climate  
62 variability (e.g., rainfall infiltration rate, surface runoff, evaporation, and increase in  
63 temperature), rapid population increase, and over-exploitation have a detrimental effect on this  
64 valuable GWR in many drought-prone regions worldwide (Shahid and Hazarika, 2010; Cheng et  
65 al., 2016; Kalhor and Emaminejad, 2019; Yadav et al., 2020; Ajibade et al. 2021). This is  
66 primarily genuine for northwest region of Bangladesh, where high population density and  
67 increasing agricultural crop production raise water demand (Shahid 2011; Husna et al. 2016;  
68 Islam et al., 2020). As a result, GW levels (GWL) are declining and rising water scarcity in the  
69 drought-prone Barind tract region. However, groundwater scarcity is another challenge around  
70 the globe. GWL assessment and prediction is an integrated part of the investigation for  
71 sustainable GWR management. In addition to management concerns, the long-term prediction  
72 will be helpful to close missing dataset too. Thus, accurate GWL assessment and prediction are  
73 crucial for effective and sustainable GWR management in water-stressed regions, especially in  
74 Bangladesh's northwest drought-prone region.

75 The use of groundwater in the irrigation sector for crop production is increasing significantly in  
76 Bangladesh. In such a case, the northwest region of Bangladeshis is facing the critical condition  
77 of groundwater due to the impact of over-exploitation. Abstraction of groundwater from deep  
78 tube wells has resulted in substantial increases in agricultural production and significant falls in

79 aquifers' groundwater heads (Patle et al. 2015; Rushton et al. 2020; Mallick et al. 2021). More  
80 than 75% of irrigation water is managed by the groundwater withdrawal in the northwest part of  
81 Bangladesh (Shahid and Hazarika 2010). During the dry season, most surface water resources  
82 like rivers, canals, beels (static water bodies), ponds, and other reservoirs get dried because of  
83 limited rainfall and other adverse climatic factors that compel people to use groundwater in the  
84 northwest part of Bangladesh. When groundwater withdrawal exceeds the natural recharge to  
85 groundwater storage for a long time in a considerable area, the declination of GWL occurs. The  
86 falling trends of groundwater levels indicate that groundwater exploitation exceeds the recharge,  
87 indicating unsustainable withdrawal (Zannat et al. 2019). The GWL declining rate is higher in  
88 the northern region than in the southern part (Sumiya and Khatun 2016). The groundwater table  
89 has reduced noticeably in northwest part of Bangladesh due to the over-exploitation of  
90 groundwater (Dey et al. 2017).

91 Joypurhat district is an agricultural hub of the country. In this area, farmers use many irrigation  
92 equipment to withdraw groundwater for irrigation purposes to boost up cropping intensity (Islam  
93 et al. 2018). Rice and potato are the main crops in this area which are both high water-consuming  
94 crops, and their cultivation relies on groundwater irrigation. The groundwater table in most of the  
95 Kalai, Khetlal, Panchbibi, and Akkelpur Upazilas goes below suction limit causing hand tube-  
96 wells and shallow tube-wells partially/fully operable (Hossain et al. 2015). Intensive agricultural,  
97 rapid industrial development, and domestic demand have put more pressure on groundwater use  
98 and accelerated the rate of water table declination in this area. These conditions demand the  
99 proper monitoring and investigations in GWL depletion. The trend analysis will help in  
100 understanding the variation, changing direction, and trend of GWL and GWL projection for  
101 future management.

102 Few researchers in Bangladesh have studied GWL depletion at the natural and regional levels  
103 (Jahan et al. 2010; Rahman et al. 2016; Dey et al. 2017; Salam et al. 2020a). Many research  
104 scholars have been investigated the reasons and magnitudes of GWL depletion in NW  
105 Bangladesh. For example, Zafor et al. (2017) concentrated on the falling trend direction in GWL,  
106 which implies an unbalanced groundwater setting in northern Bangladesh. Zahid (2015) reported  
107 that the tendency of GWL fluctuation is elevated in Bangladesh's northwest Barind area. Rahman  
108 et al. (2016) stated a rising tendency of GWL in the Barind tract region. Besides, Dey et al.  
109 (2017) reported that the GWL has decreased noticeably in northwest Bangladesh due to over-  
110 withdrawn of groundwater, increasing Boro rice farming, decreasing river water levels, lessening  
111 in wetland area, and scarcity of water reservoir. Although the rapid rise in the irrigated cropping  
112 area during the last two decades, poorer performance and lack of groundwater efficacy and  
113 surface water utilization are yet hindrances for substantial GWR management. Groundwater is  
114 mostly used in the irrigated cultivation areas; however, its sustainability is at higher risk  
115 according to quality and quantity of groundwater in northwest Bangladesh (Shahid 2011). Yet,  
116 irregular trend pattern and changing characteristics of GWL are unexplored in the vital drought-  
117 prone region. Therefore, it is essential to better insight into the unusual trend behavior, changing  
118 pattern in GWL, and future situations of groundwater fluctuation in northwest Bangladesh.

119 No such comprehensive study has been performed before in the drought-prone region, part of  
120 Barind Tract, Joypurhat district of northwest Bangladesh. This type of study is urgently required  
121 due to severe water-stressed condition. In this study, the modified Mann-Kendall test, Sen Slope  
122 estimator, Pettitt's test, and Wavelet power spectrum analyses have been applied first time to  
123 find out the spatial and temporal trend patterns of GWL variation in the Joypurhat district,  
124 northwest Bangladesh. On the other hand, statistical analyses require a more in-depth

125 understanding of future GWL characteristics. Due to the oversimplification of complicated  
126 hydrological mechanisms and the scarcity of groundwater datasets, achieving precise forecasting  
127 through statistical methods, such as the Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA),  
128 is a promising task (Rahman et al. 2017 Akhter et al. 2019; Salam et al. 2020a). Another aim of  
129 this study is to forecast the GWL from 2020 to 2050 in the study area using the ARIMA  
130 modeling. The novelty of this work is that an integrated statistical approach is applied to assess  
131 and predict GWL for sustainable GWR management at the regional level. The findings of this  
132 study can aid in accepting the proper decision to policymakers in the further installation of  
133 irrigation equipment and sustainable use of groundwater resources in this area or similar region  
134 around the world.

## 135 **2. Data and Methods**

### 136 *2.1 Study area description*

137 Joypurhat district has been selected for the study area located in the Barind tract in the North-  
138 West region of Bangladesh. It is situated between 24°46' N to 25°22' N latitude and 88°56' E to  
139 89°14' E longitude shown in Fig. 1. Joypurhat district is bounded on the north by Gaibandha  
140 district, Dinajpur district and India border, on the south by Bogra district and Naogaon district,  
141 on the east by Bogra district and Gaibandha district, and on the west by Naogaon district and  
142 India border. The total area of the district is 965.88 km<sup>2</sup> (Islam et al. 2018) It consists of five  
143 Upazilas, namely Joypurhatsadar, Akkelpur, Khetlal, Kalai, and Panchbibi. The economy of  
144 Joypurhat district is entirely dependent on agriculture and is famous for its granaries. There are  
145 1978 nos shallow, deep tube-wells (DTW) and 8050 nos. Shallow tube-wells (STW) are used for  
146 irrigation purposes in agricultural production (BADC 2019). The study region shows a rich  
147 agricultural hub of about 80270 ha net cultivatable site, which depends on groundwater

148 irrigation. Rice and potatoes are the main cash crops of this area. Both crops are highly water-  
149 consuming in an irrigated field. Water scarcity is a common problem during the dry winter  
150 period in the study area.

## 151 ***2.2 Geology and hydrological conditions***

152 The Joypurhat district is the portion of the Tista floodplain that belonged to the shelf region  
153 (Bogra slope), encompassing Himalayan Foredeep region of Bengal Basin (Reimann and Hiller  
154 1993). The study area lies in the sub-humid area bounded by geological formations deposited  
155 from the Dupi Tila Sandstone Formation. The sediment is deposited as an older alluvial fan  
156 where different rivers flowing through the study areas like: Chiri River and Haraboti River cross  
157 via Panchbibi Upazila. Small Jamuna River crosses via Joypurhat Sadar and Panchbibi Upazilas.  
158 Tulshiganga River passes via Joypurhat Sadar, Khetlal, and Akkelpur Upazilas. Sree River  
159 crosses via Joypurhat Sadar Upazila.

160 The topography of the study area varies from 24 m in Panchbibi to 14.4 m in Akkelpur. The  
161 study area is relatively flat, sloping from North to South direction. The topsoil of the study area  
162 is mainly clay and the aquifer properties like Transmissivity varies from 1240 m<sup>2</sup> /day to 1700  
163 m<sup>2</sup> /day (IWM 2009). The principal aquifers of the study area consist of fine sands, medium  
164 sands, and coarse sands with mild stone particles, as shown in Fig. 2 (a-e).

165 Considering the lithological characteristics of five selected wells in the study area, the average  
166 thickness of the aquifers in the Joypurhat district varies from about 40m to 51m. The screenable  
167 thickness of the study area is ranged from 29.39 m to 35.06 m, with a bore depth up to 65 m from  
168 the ground surface. Joypurhat is a district of sub-tropical climate. The average annual  
169 temperature is 24.4 °C, and the average annual rainfall is 1673 mm. More than 60% of rains  
170 occur in July-August, with an average of 364 mm (Das and Islam, 2021). The pre-monsoon

171 period occurs from March to May, and the monsoon period occurs from June to October. The  
172 warmest month of the year is May, with the mean temperature of 28.9°C (Das 2021). The coldest  
173 month of the year is January, with the average temperature are 18°C, and the average annual  
174 evaporation of the study area is around 1060 mm (Salam et al. 2020b).

### 175 ***2.3 Data source and quality control check***

176 The monthly GWL data (1980-2019) of the different stations under Joypurhat district were  
177 collected from Bangladesh Water Development Board (BWDB), Dhaka. Since there is no station  
178 of BWDB at Akkelpur and Kalaiupazila for measuring GWL data (1980-2019), the Nearest  
179 station such as Parbotipur and Nischinta of the study area are used respectively for Akkelpur and  
180 Kalai Upazila. The monthly rainfall, evaporation, and temperature data from Bangladesh  
181 Meteorological Department (BMD) are used for the study area. In all cases, systematic quality  
182 control techniques are applied to evaluate data quality. All the data used in the study area are  
183 significant at 99% confidence level (p-value <0.001) in the Buishand Range test, Normality, and  
184 Homogeneity test. These tests also revealed that the data remain of good quality.

### 185 ***2.4 Modified Mann-Kendall test***

186 Modified Mann-Kendall test is the modified version of the non-parametric Mann-Kendall test,  
187 which is robust tool in the presence of autocorrelation. This test may be used to identify trend  
188 detection in hydro-meteorological data series when datasets are non-random and impacted by  
189 autocorrelation (Mann, 1955; Kendall 1975). Hamed and Rao (1998) have first developed a  
190 variance correction method to address serial correlation in trend assessment. Praveen et al.  
191 (2020) have also suggested the same approach in this respect. Datasets are primarily detrended,  
192 and the adequate sample size is computed using the ranks of significant serial correlation  
193 analysis which are then used to correct the test statistic's inflated (or deflated) variance.

194 The Mann-Kendall test statistics S is given as

$$195 \quad S = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \text{sgn}(X_j - X_i) \quad (1)$$

196 Where, S is Mann-Kendall statistic and sgn is the signum function. Each of the data point  $x_i$  is  
 197 taken as a reference point which is compared with the rest of the data points  $x_j$  as follows:

$$198 \quad \text{sgn}(X_j - X_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (X_j - X_i) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } (X_j - X_i) = 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } (X_j - X_i) < 0 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

199 The value S shows the direction of trend. A positive value of S indicates an upward trend and  
 200 negative value indicates downward trend (Islam et al., 2021b; Jerin et al. 2021). The test  
 201 statistics S is expressed as

$$202 \quad V(S) = \frac{n(n-1)(2n+5) - \sum_{i=1}^n t_i(i-1)(2i+5)}{18} \quad (3)$$

203

204 Where,  $t_i$  is the number of ties up to sample  $i$ . The modified variance  $V^*(S)$  is given by the  
 205 following equation proposed by Yue and Wang (2004).

$$206 \quad V^*(S) = V(S) \cdot \frac{n}{n^*} \quad (4)$$

207 Where  $\frac{n}{n^*}$  is considered as correction factor and it is calculated by the following equation  
 208 derived by Bayley and Hammersley (1946).

$$209 \quad \frac{n}{n^*} = 1 + 2 \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{k}{n}\right) \cdot \rho k \quad (5)$$

210 In time series analysis, the presence of a statistically significant trend is calculated using  $Z_c$   
 211 value.

$$212 \quad Z_c = \begin{cases} \frac{S-1}{\sqrt{V^*(S)}} & \text{if } S > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } S = 0 \\ \frac{S+1}{\sqrt{V^*(S)}} & \text{if } S < 0 \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

213 In this method, a positive value of indicates an increasing trend a negative value indicates  
 214 decreasing trend. The trend is considered as statistically significant in this study when  $p \leq 0.05$  at  
 215 5% significance level.

### 216 **2.5 Sen's Slope Estimator**

217 Sen's slope estimator test is a non-parametric method (Sen,1968) which is used to estimate the  
 218 magnitude of trends (change per unit time) in time series data. The magnitude of trend is  
 219 expressed as Q calculated by the Eq. (7):

$$220 \quad Q = \frac{X_j - X_k}{j - k} \quad (7)$$

221 Where,  $X_j$  and  $X_k$  are denoted by data values at times  $j$  and  $k$  ( $j > k$ ) respectively. A positive value  
 222 of Q indicates an increasing trend and negative value indicates decreasing trend in time series  
 223 data.

### 224 **2.6 Pettitt's test**

225 The pettitt's test is a common non-parametric technique which was used to detect an abrupt  
 226 change point in hydrological time series datasets (Pettitt 1979). The non-parametric statistics is  
 227 defined as follows:

$$228 \quad K_T = \text{MAX} | U_{t,T} | \quad (8)$$

$$229 \quad \text{Where, } U_{t,T} = \sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=t+1}^T \text{sgn}(X_i - X_j) \quad (9)$$

230  $K_T$  is the location point where the abrupt change point of time series data occurred. The  
 231 probability of significance level of  $K_T$  is approximately lied on  $p \leq 0.05$  followed by equation  
 232 (10).

$$233 \quad p \cong 2 \exp \left( \frac{-6KT^2}{T^3 + T^2} \right) \quad (10)$$

### 234 **2.7 Wavelet transform analysis**

235 Wavelet analysis is a common tool to analyze local spectral and temporal variations of power  
 236 within a time series for a particular scale and location. It contains non-stationary power at  
 237 various frequencies (Jerin et al. 2021; Rahman et al., 2021). Depending on time and non-  
 238 dimensional frequency Morlet wavelet consists of a plane wave modulated by Gaussian  
 239 following by the equation (11).

$$240 \Psi_0(\eta) = \pi^{-1/4} e^{i\omega_0\eta} e^{-\eta^2/2} \quad (11)$$

241 Where  $\Psi_0(\eta)$  is denoted by wavelet value at non-dimensional time  $\eta$  and  $\omega_0$  is the non-  
 242 dimensional frequency, here taken to be (equation 6) in this study in order to satisfy the  
 243 admissibility condition (Farge 1992). According to the function of basic wavelet, the scaled  
 244 wavelets are ascertained as follows:

$$245 \Psi\left[\frac{(n'-n)\delta t}{S}\right] = \left(\frac{\delta t}{S}\right)^{1/2} \cdot \Psi_0\left[\frac{(n'-1)\delta t}{S}\right] \quad (12)$$

246 Where S is dilation parameter used to change the scale and n is the translation parameter used to  
 247 slide in time. The wavelet transform  $W_n(S)$  is expressed as the convolution of the wavelet  
 248 function which is defined by the following equation (13):

$$249 W_n(S) = \sum_{n'}^{N-1} x_{n'} \Psi^* \left[\frac{(n-n')\delta t}{S}\right] \quad (13)$$

250 Where  $\Psi^*$  indicates the complex conjugate and n is the localized time index.

251

## 252 **2.8 ARIMA modeling**

253 Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model is the popular technique for  
 254 modeling time series data and predicting future data in a series (Box and Jenkins 1976; Rahman  
 255 et al., 2017; Akhter et al., 2019; Islam et al., 2020). In this study, a non-seasonal ARIMA model  
 256 is subjected to understand past data for forecasting. It consists of three statistics parts such as  
 257 autoregressive (AR) terms, Integrated (I) term, and moving average (MA) term. These terms are

258 classified as ARIMA(p,d,q) in which p is an autoregressive part that forecasts future values  
259 based on past value, d is integrated part used for removing non-stationarity in forecasting, and q  
260 is the moving average part used for maintaining lagged forecast errors in the prediction system.  
261 In this study, the time series of GWL data (denoted by Y) was used to assign appropriate models  
262 and forecasting. In terms of Y, the general forecasting equation could be expressed as follows  
263 with the convention introduced by Box and Jenkins (1976).

$$264 \hat{Y}_t = \mu + \varphi_1 Y_{t-1} + \dots + \varphi_p Y_{t-p} - \theta_1 e_{t-1} - \dots - \theta_q e_{t-q} \quad (14)$$

265 Where  $\hat{Y}_t$  is the forecasted value at time t,  $Y_{t-1}$  is the previous forecasted value,  $\mu$  is constant term,  
266  $\varphi$  is autoregressive parameter and  $\theta$  is the moving average parameter.

267 The Box and Jenkins method of ARIMA modeling follows four steps to choose the best model  
268 and forecasting. These steps are model identification, parameter estimation, diagnostic checking,  
269 and forecasting. In the first step, the time series must be standardized and normalized by proper  
270 order differencing. The most popular method for identifying the appropriate demands of an  
271 ARIMA model is the adjustment behavior of autocorrelation function (ACF) and partial  
272 autocorrelation function (PACF). In 2nd step, model parameters are estimated by the maximum  
273 likelihood method. Model adequacy is performed with diagnostic checking if the errors of model  
274 assumptions are satisfied. When the model seems inadequate, a new tentative model is assigned.  
275 The steps described above are repeated until the model assumption associated with the error is  
276 satisfied, and a satisfactory model is finalized. At last, the finally selected model is used for  
277 ARIMA fitting and forecasting.

278 In the present study, SPSS software was used for ARIMA modeling. Time series data of GWL  
279 were partitioned as the ratio 30:10. The first part of time series data from 1980-2009 was used  
280 for model identification, and 2nd part of the time series from 2010-2019 was used for model

281 validation and model performance and predictability testing. Bayesian Information Criteria  
282 (BIC) is firstly considered for the efficiency evaluation of model performance. Lastly, the most  
283 appropriate forecasting model was finally chosen based on model fit statistics value of  $R^2$ ,  
284 RMSE, MAPE, MaxAPE, MaxAE, and Ljung-Box statistics.

### 285 **3. Results**

#### 286 *3.1 Variation in climatic parameters*

287 Rainfall, temperature, and evaporation distributions play an essential role in GWL fluctuating in  
288 a specific area. Fig. 3(a-c) showed the monthly maximum and minimum temperature and rainfall  
289 distributions of the northwest region, Joypurhat district. The hottest month is identified as April  
290 to May, and the coldest month is January. The highest rainfall occurred in July, and the lowest  
291 rainfall occurred in January. It is observed that heavy rain happened in temperature  $24^{\circ}$ - $35^{\circ}$ C in  
292 July. It is also noticeable that GWL started depletion in the hottest month due to high  
293 temperature and evaporation differences. Again, groundwater level started rising toward the  
294 ground surface when temperature and evaporation decreased at a favorable condition to increase  
295 rainfall.

#### 296 *3.2 Apparent variation in groundwater level*

297 Consecutive records of GWL are essential for assessing groundwater fluctuation and its trend, as  
298 well as groundwater potentiality. The observed GWL data generally represent the apparent  
299 variation of groundwater table in a study area. To understand the noticeable variation of GWL,  
300 the following Fig. 4(a-e) are produced. It is observed that the groundwater table is highly  
301 depleted in April due to groundwater pumping for irrigation, high temperature,  
302 evapotranspiration, and other related climatic factors. But GWL is raised towards the ground  
303 surface in September for high monsoon rainfall which enhances the recharging groundwater

304 storage. According to the Fig. 4(a-e) annual groundwater depth variation limit is maximum (7.07  
305 m) in Khetlal and minimum (4.6 m) in Panchbibi Upazila. It was also observed that the highest  
306 GWL declination from the ground surface is 12.82 m in Khetlal and the lowest GWL declination  
307 is 2.35 m in Akkelpur Upazila. It can be mentioned that amount of groundwater pumping,  
308 temperature, evapotranspiration, and rainfall distribution might affect the apparent variation of  
309 GWL. During the dry season, adverse climate and rate of groundwater pumping for irrigation  
310 reach the extreme level, and rainfall is limited; thus, GWL declination is increased.

311 On the other hand, favorable climatic conditions, limited groundwater irrigation, and heavy  
312 rainfall create an auspicious situation during the wet season, so GWL declination started  
313 decreasing, and GWL rose towards the ground surface successively. Therefore, GWL is highly  
314 depleted in April and increasing towards the ground surface in September-October. The highest  
315 decreasing rate of GWL was found in Khetlal Upazila. The lowest decreasing rate was found in  
316 Panchbibi Upazila of Joypurhat district, situated in the northwest region of Bangladesh.

### 317 ***3.3 Trend of groundwater level fluctuation***

318 The modified Mann-Kendal test is carried out in time-series data (1980-2019) on a monthly  
319 scale. The Modified Mann-Kendal test is carried out in time-series data (1980-2019) on the  
320 monthly GWL in selected stations of different Upazilas of Joypurhat district. To find out the  
321 trend in time series GWL, MMK 'Zc' statistics were determined shown in Table 2. In all cases,  
322 'Zc' values are at a 5% level of significance. So, it can be said that the null hypothesis was  
323 rejected, and there was found a significant trend in time series data of groundwater levels. The  
324 positive sign 'Zc' statistics were suggested that GWL was declining for the ground surface.

325 The 'Zc' statistics values obtained from the MMK test are varied from 7.37 to 17.78 in different  
326 stations, respectively. It is observed that the lowest declining trend ( $Z_c=17.78$ ) of GWL level is

327 found at Panchbibi Upazila. The comparatively highest declining trend ( $Z_c=7.37$ ) is found at  
328 Khetlal Upazila of the study area, which is shown in Fig. 5.a. After determining the trend, Sen's  
329 slope estimator was applied to calculate the slope of trend/ rate of groundwater level declination  
330 (Q) in m/decade (Table 1) during the period 1980-2019. The Sen's slope value (Q) obtained from  
331 the MMK test varies from 0.10405 to 0.15964 m/yr. Fig. 5.b shows that the high rate of GWL  
332 level declination (Sen's slope, Q) is found at Ketal and Kalai Upazilas, medium changing rate at  
333 Joypurhat Sadar and Akkelpur, low at Panchbibi Upazila, which is illustrated in Fig. 5.c. After  
334 determining trend status and trend slope, the change point of GWL was identified at the time of  
335 Dec '91, Dec '93, Jan '97, Feb '97, and Dec '04 for Akkelpur, Joypurhatsadar, Khetlal, Kalai, and  
336 Panchbibi Upazila, respectively following the result of Pettitt's test which is shown in Fig. 6.  
337 GWL level declination trend was started the first at Akkelpur in 1991 and then Joypurhat sadar in  
338 1993, Khetlal and Kalai in 1997, and Panchbibi in 2004, respectively. It can be said that the  
339 groundwater pumping in Khetlal and Kalai upazila during the dry season is more than in the other  
340 Upazilas. Two Upazilas are more vulnerable to groundwater resources than others.

### 341 *3.4 Wavelet transformation of groundwater level*

342 Morlet wavelet power spectrum of GWL level is shown in Fig. 7(a-f). The black contour line  
343 identifies the significance level, and the black line marks the cone of influence. An analysis of  
344 the wavelet power spectrum, it is observed that two significant periods of increasing trend were  
345 detected in Khetlal Upazila in a scale range 4.0-6.0 from 1980-1992, scale range 11.4-16 from  
346 1992-2019, and Akkelpur Upazila in a scale range 6.9-11.2 from 1980-1993, range 11.4-16 from  
347 1994-2019. Only one significant period of increased GWL level is detected in Joypurhat Sadar,  
348 Panchbibi, and Kalai Upazila. However, one significant period of GWL level increasing trend  
349 started from 1991-2019 in Joypurhat district.

### 350 **3.5 ARIMA model selection and validation**

351 Plots of the autocorrelation function (ACF) and partial autocorrelation (PACF) are crucial for  
352 ARIMA model selection. Based on plots of ACF and PACF, the order  $p$  and  $q$  were decided to  
353 develop the tentative ARIMA models for the 1980-2019 time series of groundwater levels. For  
354 each station, tentative ARIMA models were selected for every 10 (Ten) years with different  
355 orders of  $p, d, q$  with reasonable ranges. The tested models were as follows:  $(0,0,0)$ ,  
356  $(0,1,0)$ ,  $(0,1,1)$ ,  $(1,1,0)$ ,  $(1,1,1)$ ,  $(1,1,2)$ ,  $(2,1,1)$ ,  $(2,1,2)$ ,  $(0,1,2)$ ,  $(2,1,0)$ . To analyze the ACF and PACF  
357 residuals plots within the confidence limit, some tentative suitable models for each station were  
358 selected based on normalized BIC. Out of these selected models, the best appropriate models for  
359 time series groundwater levels of each station were chosen based on the lowest R squared,  
360 RMSE, MAPE, MaxApE, MAE, MaxAE, and Ljung-Box Q statistics shown in Table 3.

361 Similarly, the best model for the Joypurhat district was identified as the ARIMA model  $(2,1,0)$   
362 by evaluation of ACF and PACF plots and model goodness of fit statistics. This model's ACF  
363 and PACF plots for the Joypurhat district are shown in Fig.8(a-c). Comparison of observed GWL  
364 during 2010-2019 was accomplished for further validation of selected ARIMA model for each  
365 station and Joypurhat district. Comparison plot of observed GWL vs. forecasted GWL during  
366 2010-2019 of Joypurhat district average are in good consistency with obtained R squared value  
367 of 0.7544 for Joypurhat district Fig. 9. So, the selected ARIMA model for the study area was  
368 considered for forecasting GWL.

### 369 **3.6 Forecasting of groundwater levels**

370 The selected best models for each station and Joypurhat district were applied to forecast GWL  
371 shown in Fig. 10 (a-f). It is found that GWL would decline linearly from 2020 onwards in  
372 Joypurhat Sadar, Panchbibi, Akkelpur, Kalai, and Khetlal Upazilas. These forecasting results

373 reveal a sharp trend of increasing from the ground surface in Khetlal, Kalai, and Akkelpur  
374 upazila. A moderate trend in GWL decreasing from the ground surface is located in Joypurhat  
375 Sadar and Panchbibi upazila.

376 Overall, a moderate increasing trend of GWL levels from the ground surface was found in the  
377 Joypurhat district. As seen from Fig. 10(a-c), the predicted GWL levels would reach 12.18m,  
378 10.72m, 11.17m, 16.27m, and 18.44m in 2050 concerning the observed value of  
379 7.89m, 7.54m, 7.48m, 11.69m, and 12.82m in 2019 in Joypurhat sadar, Panchbibi, Akkelpur,  
380 Kalai and Khetlal Upazilas, respectively. Overall, the GWL level of Joypurhat district would  
381 reach 13.76m in 2050 over the observed value of 9.48 m in 2019. In Joypurhat district, the  
382 observed average rate of declination in GWL level was found 0.136 m/yr from 1980 to 2019 as  
383 per Sen's estimator. The forecasted rate of declination during 2020-2050 was determined 0.143  
384 m/yr, which shows a moderate increasing trend. The climate change effect, groundwater  
385 irrigation, and rainfall distribution were evaluated to examine the predicted results. There was a  
386 slight adverse effect on rainfall distribution and climate. But major factor affecting on  
387 groundwater level declination trend might be the burning question for increased groundwater  
388 irrigation in the agriculture development of the study area. In this area, rice and potato  
389 production are the main crops entirely dependent on groundwater irrigation.

#### 390 **4. Discussion**

391 This study explores the GWL fluctuation in a drought-prone Barint tract, namely the Joypurhat  
392 district of northwest Bangladesh. GWL in Joypurhat district of northwest Bangladesh is  
393 declining gradually. It is observed that the declining trend of GWL is more significant in Khetlal  
394 and Kalaiupazilas than the other Upazilas. The main reason is that the flow of the Atria River  
395 occurs in the upper part of the Joypurhat districts. The base flow happens in the SW direction

396 because of the average slope, triggering the minimum aquifer recharge from river water in this  
397 region. Besides, soil texture in this region is dominated by silty clay soil, which belongs to  
398 relatively lower hydraulic conductivity characteristics (Zannat et al. 2019). Consequently,  
399 groundwater recharge from rainfall is very low.

400 The rates of GWL change ranged from 1.04 to 1.59 m/decade during 1980-2019 in Joypurhat  
401 district. Salam et al. (2020a) found that the rates of GWL change vary from 0.1 to 1.3 m/decade  
402 during 1981-2017 in the Northwest part of Bangladesh. The outcome is in line with Zahid (2015)  
403 and Rahman et al. (2016). The highest change point was detected at Khetlal Upazila in 1997.  
404 After the 2000s, the GWL declines rapidly due to climatic effects (Islam et al. 2021b). This may  
405 be happened due to huge boro rice and potato cultivation dependent on groundwater irrigation.  
406 Wavelet analysis exhibits two significant periods of GWL in Khetlal and Akkelpur, whereas  
407 Pahnchbibi shows no considerable period of GWL. Khetlal Upazila reveals a drier condition than  
408 the wet condition of groundwater. The results of the ARIMA model reveals a rising trend of  
409 declining GWL in Khetlal, and the trend of declining GWL is lower in Panchbibi than Kalai. The  
410 rate of GWL declined from 2020 to 2050 will be 0.143 m/decade compared to the present period  
411 (0.136 m/decade). These findings coincided with the outcome of Dey et al. (2017) and Gibrila et  
412 al. (2018), where they observed significant variations in GWL across the North-West region of  
413 Bangladesh. Salam et al. (2020a) found similar results in which GWL is going downwards in  
414 pre-monsoon time and is rising upwards in post-monsoon in the northwestern region of  
415 Bangladesh.

416 In recent times, the drought-prone humid region of northwest Bangladesh has experienced severe  
417 scarcity of GWL due to the over-extraction of GW. Overexploitation of aquifer to offset the  
418 balance between demand and supply and the variations in surface water flow rate are considered

419 the major cause of GWL declination. The interaction of surface-groundwater is a complicated  
420 system that relies on several factors, including the altitude of the groundwater table compared to  
421 the altitude of the stream water, aquifer types, soil texture, and so on.

422 The long-term GWL fluctuation is a function of many-fold parameters, including annual rainfall,  
423 annual groundwater withdrawal, and local subsurface geological conditions. The increase or  
424 decrease of the precipitation can significantly affect GWL as it is the primary source for  
425 groundwater recharge (Park et al., 2011). Consistent with a widespread and prevailing decreasing  
426 trend in GWL over the study area, the decreasing trend of precipitation cannot be ignored as a  
427 responsible factor. Local geology characterizes shallow aquifers in Bangladesh and essentially  
428 controls the timing and pathways of groundwater recharge to aquifers (WARPO 2000). The  
429 declining shallow groundwater storage in northwestern Bangladesh relates to the intensity of  
430 abstraction of GW and areas of the high thickness of surface clay where rainfall-fed recharge  
431 rates are low due to the low hydraulic conductivity of this subsurface geology (Shamsudduha et  
432 al. 2011). Hence, earlier evidence indicates that rigorous abstraction of groundwater for  
433 irrigation, decreasing precipitation that is one of the impacts of climate change and local geology  
434 of the study region, can be attributed to rapidly declining GWL in the drought-prone urban area.

435 The decreasing rate of GWTs may be due to decline recharge resulted from low rainfall, an  
436 expanding plough pan triggering from enhancing conservation agriculture practices, and a thick  
437 silty clay surface in the Khetlal Upazila. In this Upazila, the rainfall has reduced by 12–80  
438 mm/year, decreasing natural recharge over the past ten years (Jahan et al. 2010). The abuse of  
439 existing GWL, primarily being extracted for paddy farming, rice mill operations, and other  
440 industrial purposes, is an alarming issue that affects the Khetlal Upazila, where groundwater  
441 provides 80% of the water needed for rice irrigation. Here, random use of water in industry and

442 agriculture is causing GWL declination. Inefficient use of water for domestic and irrigation  
443 purposes leads to over-extraction of groundwater and also contributes, to some extent, to  
444 declining GWTs. On average, GWL varies between 1 and 6 m in the northern region, consistent  
445 with the Master Plan Organization (MPO 1987) claim, which states that groundwater is mainly  
446 available within 5 m of ground within alluvial aquifers. Evidence suggests that aquifer  
447 replenishment slowly ends during the dry season due to low rainfall in the short monsoon season  
448 and less available soil moisture (Jahan et al., 2010; Zinat et al. 2020). This is primarily because  
449 of more groundwater mining than aquifer recharge (Salam et al. 2020b). The over-exploitation of  
450 groundwater for irrigation without any rise in rainfall triggered a decline in GWLs to some  
451 degrees. They cannot be replenished naturally, which has caused a groundwater deficit in this  
452 drought-prone region of Bangladesh (Hasanuzzaman et al., 2017).

453 Our study has some implications for sustainable groundwater development. Utilizing  
454 underutilized rivers, measuring aquifers' safe yields, recharging the aquifers by natural and  
455 artificial ways, harvesting rainwater, and using wastewater are the possible choices for this  
456 alternative (Jahan et al. 2010; Dey et al. 2017; Islam et al. 2019). Suppose rainfall collects in  
457 sustainable ways during the monsoon season used for domestic purposes, after the low-cost  
458 filtering process. In that case, this will substantially lessen the water shortage issue in the  
459 northwest region in the long run. To aid this, rainwater harvesting facilities should be properly  
460 planned and designed based on our findings (Islam et al. 2019), a substantial performance in the  
461 Khetlal and Kalaiupazilas that need collaborative efforts among governments non-government  
462 organizations, and hydro-geologist. Also, practices such as mulching can increase the water-  
463 holding capacity of field soils and decrease evaporation. Organic mulching can also aid  
464 groundwater recharge by increasing soil organic matter, especially drought-prone Upazilas such

465 as Khetlal, Kalai. Rapid urbanization, climate change, and poor water management policy  
466 threaten groundwater resources in the study area, perplexing their sustainable management.  
467 Thus, strategies such as artificial recharge of aquifers, rainwater harvesting, water-saving  
468 technologies, and integrated water resources management must be implemented.

469 Groundwater study must be coupled with other geoscience and hydro-engineering researches.  
470 Multi-disciplinary tools should require managing in case of GWL depletion in a sustainable  
471 manner. Groundwater should be used as a supplement to surface water. Deep insight and  
472 protection of groundwater for future communities, particularly overexploitation, should be  
473 monitored from time to time and a strengthened legal approach (Bhattacharjee et al. 2019). GWR  
474 management must persistent forthcoming period; thus, future groundwater problems cannot be  
475 neglected (Dey et al., 2017). Thus, sustainable GWR management depends on precisely  
476 evaluating groundwater resources' current and future trend patterns (Richter et al., 2006). This  
477 study concentrates on assessing the present and forthcoming trends of GWL in the Joypurhat  
478 district of northwest Bangladesh, which covers how decision-makers take the right initiative for  
479 combined sustainable GWR management. The increased irrigation coverage linkage with  
480 increased groundwater extraction from the aquifers over the recent past has attributed to a  
481 decrease in GWLs. Hence, the northwest region, especially the Barind area, is of most alarming  
482 over dropping GWL, which leads to a lack of access to water for drinking and irrigation in  
483 several regions. GWL declination can have an irreversible concern on the drinking water and  
484 particularly on the human health issues. Hence, continuous monitoring of GWL fluctuation using  
485 an easy but practical tool is essential for GWR management.

486 Some of the vital indicators of GWL fluctuations, including bore-well depths closeness of well  
487 from sink or source and hydrogeological features, e.g., aquifer porosity and permeability, are

488 ignored in this study due to unavailability data. Further investigation is essential by incorporating  
489 these critical hydrogeological parameters in data-driven tools to enhance short and mid-term  
490 prediction accuracy and confirm these hybrid methods agree well with the theoretical and  
491 numerical-based approaches. Such understanding could give further numerical insights and  
492 would probably lead to a higher acceptance of soft computing methods in the sustainable  
493 management of GWR. Further study should consider all the wells for predicting regional and  
494 national levels GWL.

## 495 **5. Conclusion**

496 Groundwater declination has been a burning issue globally as well as regionally in recent times.  
497 This study represents how alarming the GWL depletion is in the study area. This research proves  
498 the magnitudes of GWL fluctuation scenarios obtained from the modified Mann- Kendall test,  
499 Sen's slope estimator, Pettitt's test. The ARIMA modeling outcomes are realistic and consistent  
500 with the present condition. The study shows a decreasing trend of GWL, and the declination rate  
501 of GWL in Joypurhat district is 0.136 m/yr from 1980 to 2019. Out of five Upazilas, the  
502 groundwater declination rates of Khetlal and Kalai are higher than the district average, which is  
503 liable to excessive groundwater abstraction in high water-consuming crop production like rice  
504 and potato. The forecasted results revealed that the GWL will go down from 2020-2050 at a rate  
505 of 0.143 m/yr, which is very more alarming in the future sustainability of groundwater resources.  
506 In this study area, proper crop water management should be emphasized to avoid such adverse  
507 impacts. Though rainwater harvesting is recommended as a long-time remedy to cope with  
508 drought effects, simultaneous monitoring can be a short-term remedy. Future research should  
509 concentrate on GWL fluctuation tele-connected with large-scale atmospheric oscillation in the

510 study region. Our study provides sustainable groundwater potentiality under current and future  
511 climate change scenarios in the northwest region of Bangladesh.

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#### 517 **Consent to Participate**

518 Not applicable

#### 519 **Consent to Publish**

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#### 521 **Data availability**

522 Data are available upon request on the corresponding author

#### 523 **Code availability**

524 Not applicable

#### 525 **Author contributions**

526 A.R, A.I and A.R.M.T, designed, planned, conceptualized, drafted the original manuscript, and R.S., and  
527 A.R., M.A., were involved in statistical analysis, interpretation; M.T.A., R.S., and A.R., contributed  
528 instrumental setup, data analysis, validation; A.R.M.T., M.A. A.I., and A.R., contributed to editing the  
529 manuscript, literature review, proofreading; A.R. and A.R.M. T.I., were involved in software, mapping,  
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#### 531 **Conflict of interest**

532 There is no conflict of interest to publish this work.

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# Figures

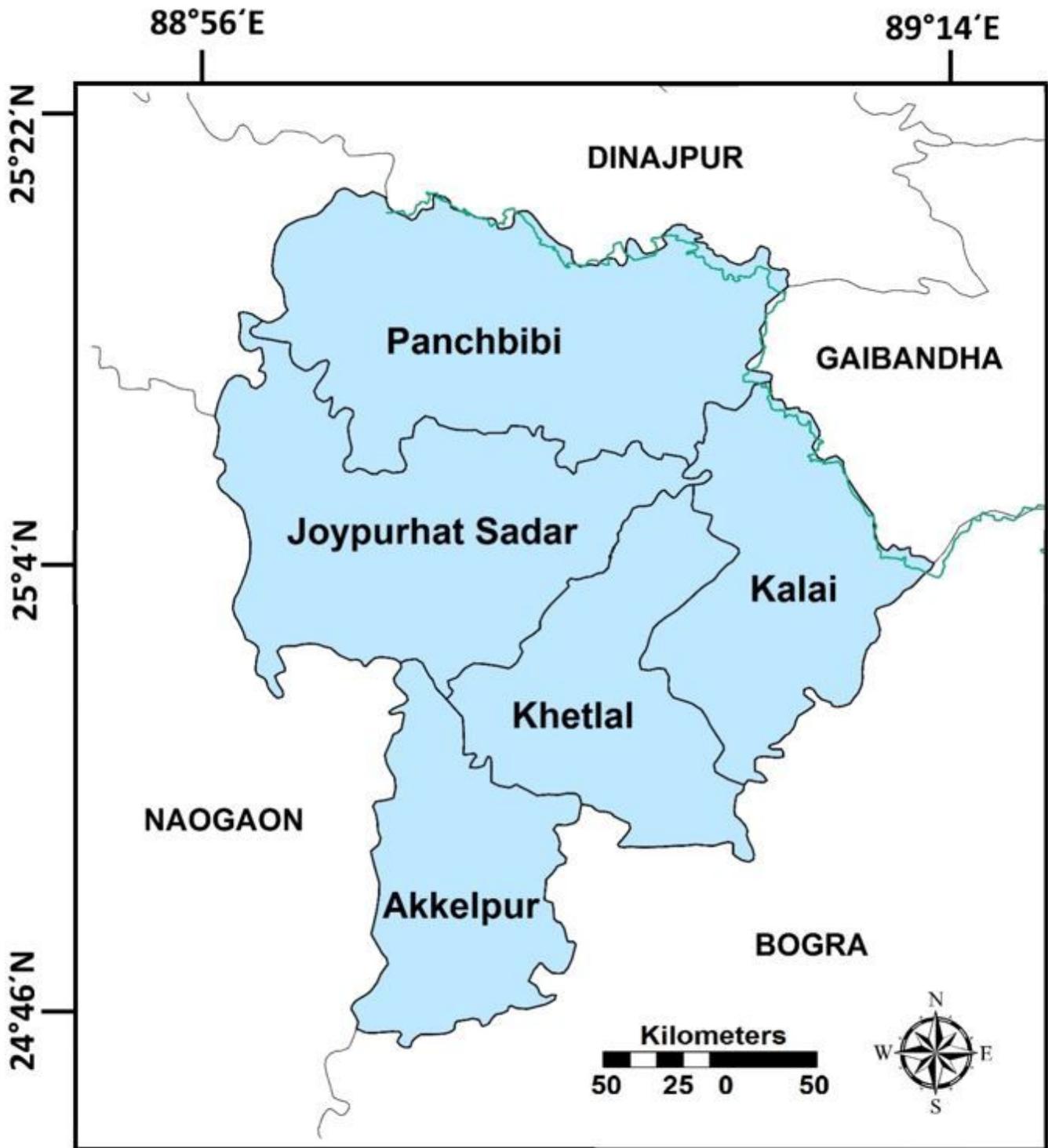


Figure 1

Location of study area (Joipurhat, Bangladesh) map

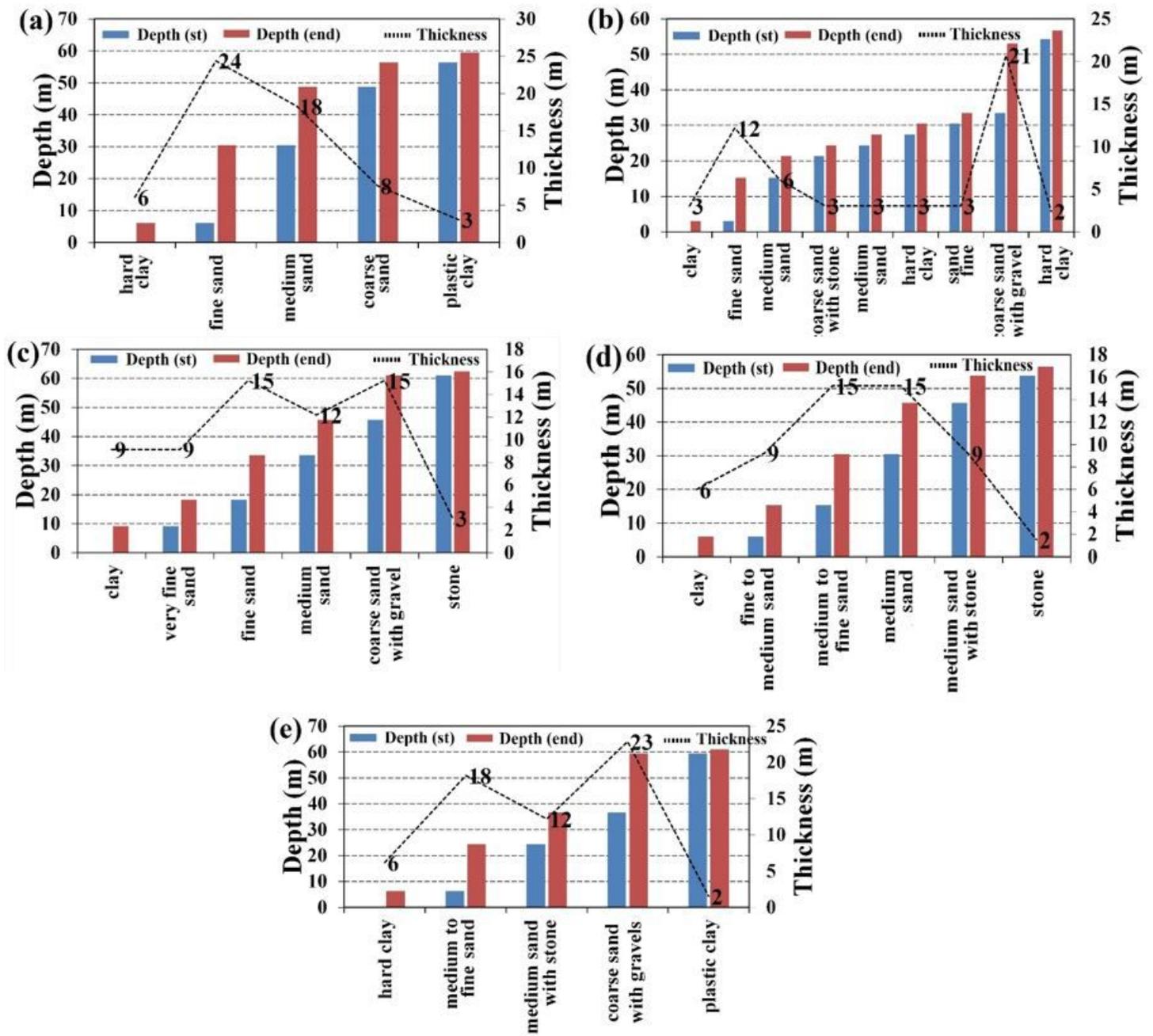
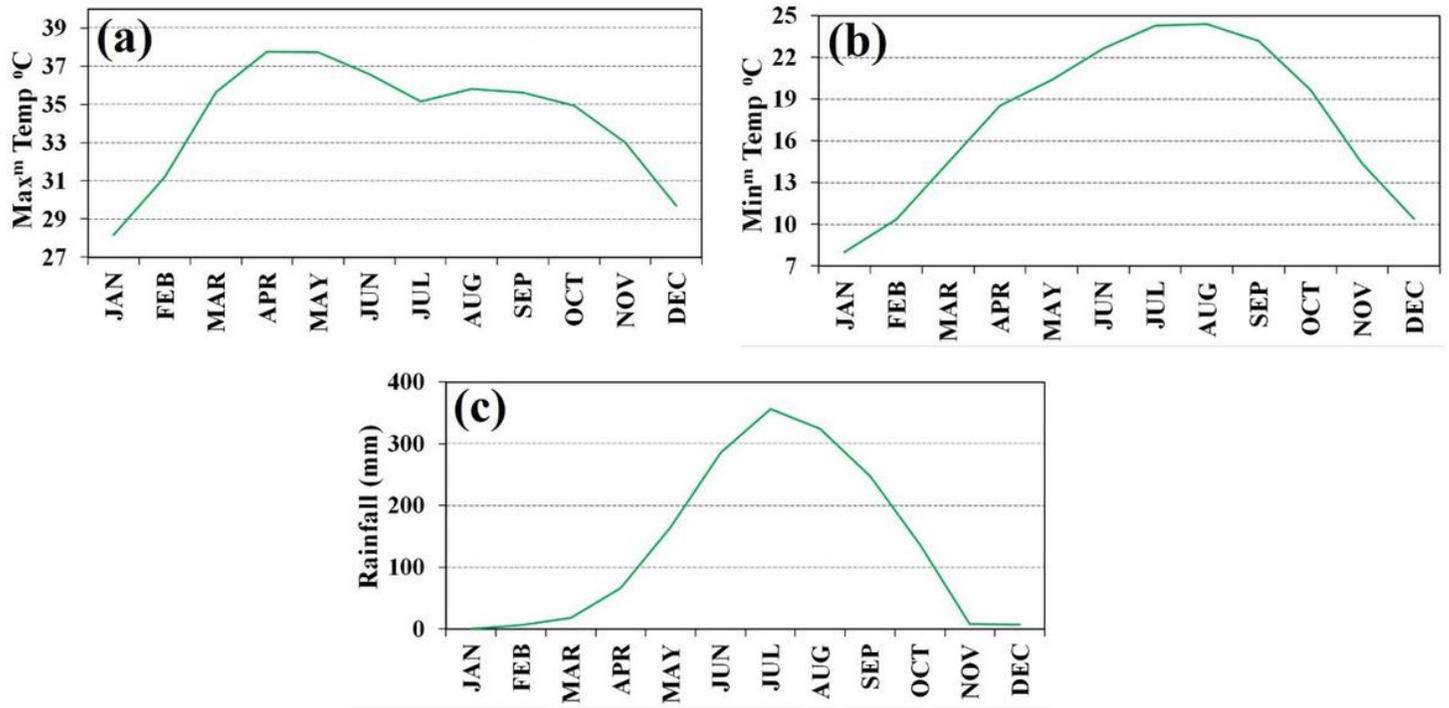


Figure 2

Lithological characteristics of (a) Akkelpur; (b) Panchbibi; (c) Khetlal; (d) Kalai; and (e) Joypurhat sadar



**Figure 3**

Monthly average (a) Maximum; and (b) Minimum temperature, and (c) rainfall (1980-2019)

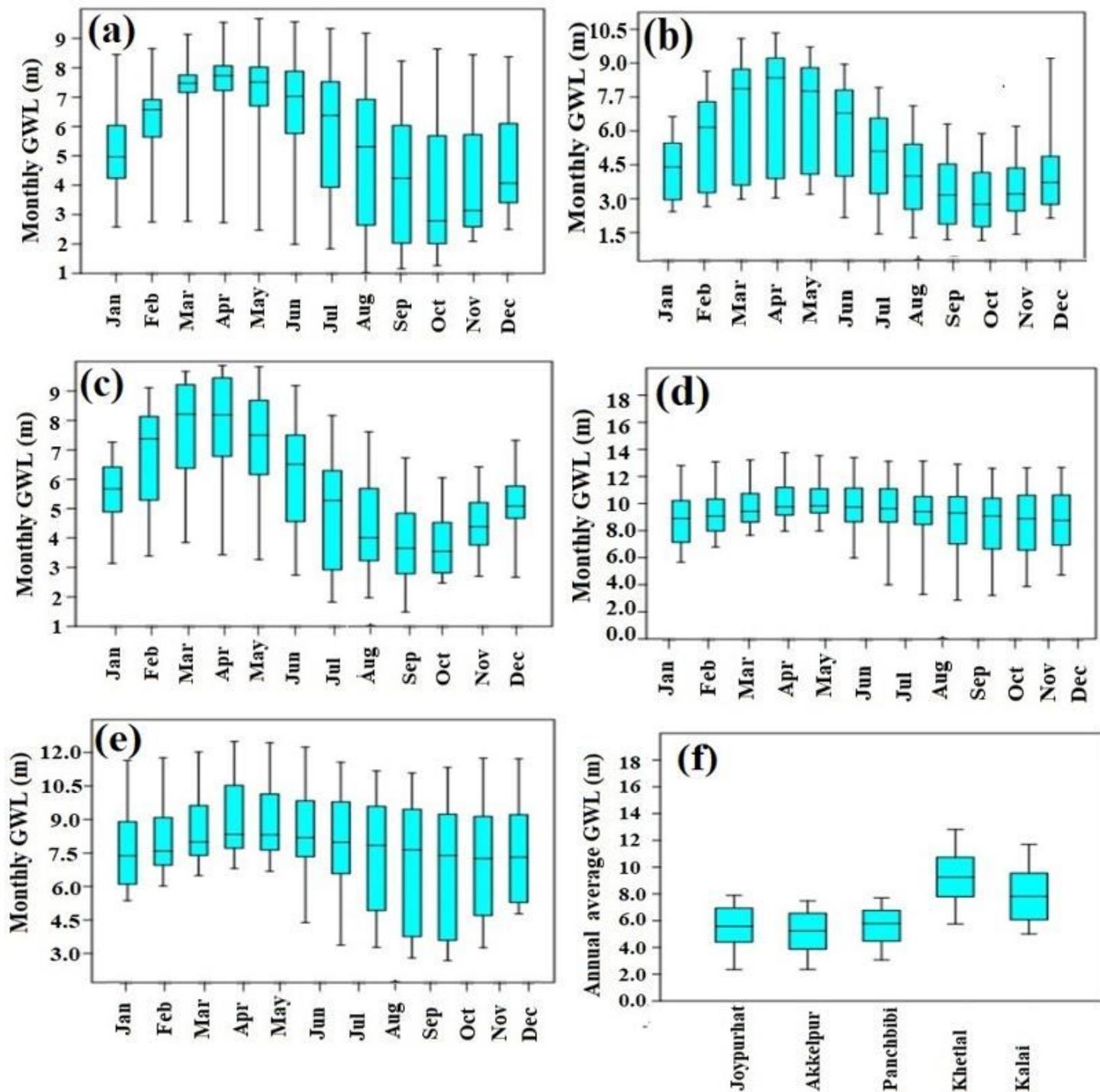


Figure 4

Monthly ground water level variation in (a) Joypurhat Sadar; (b) Akkelpur; (c) Panchbibi; (d) Khetlal; (e) Kalai; and (f) Apparent variation of GWL Joypurhat district

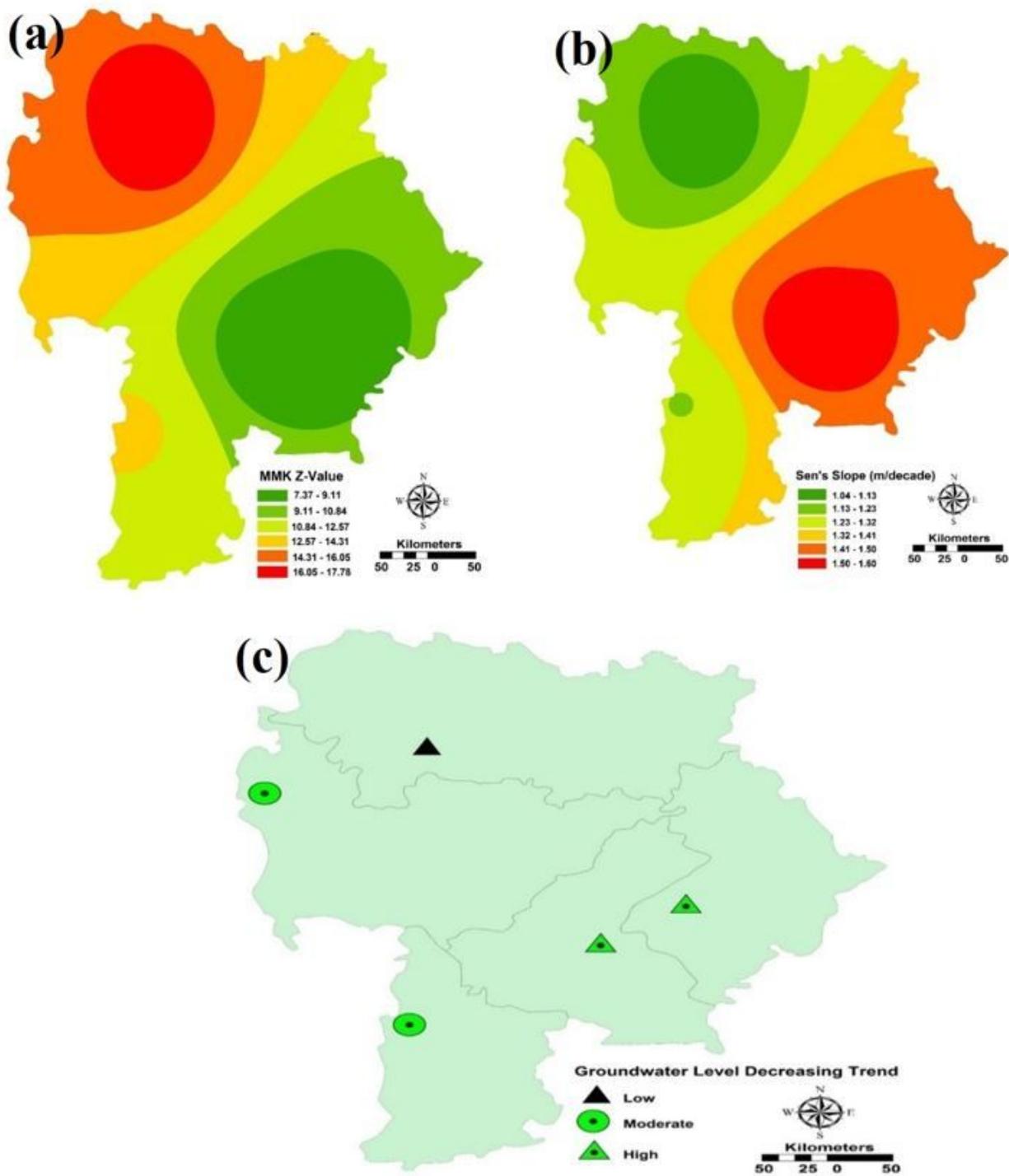


Figure 5

(a) GWL declining trend analysis based on MMK test; (b) GWL trend slope analysis; and (c) Monthly GWL trend analysis (1980-2019)

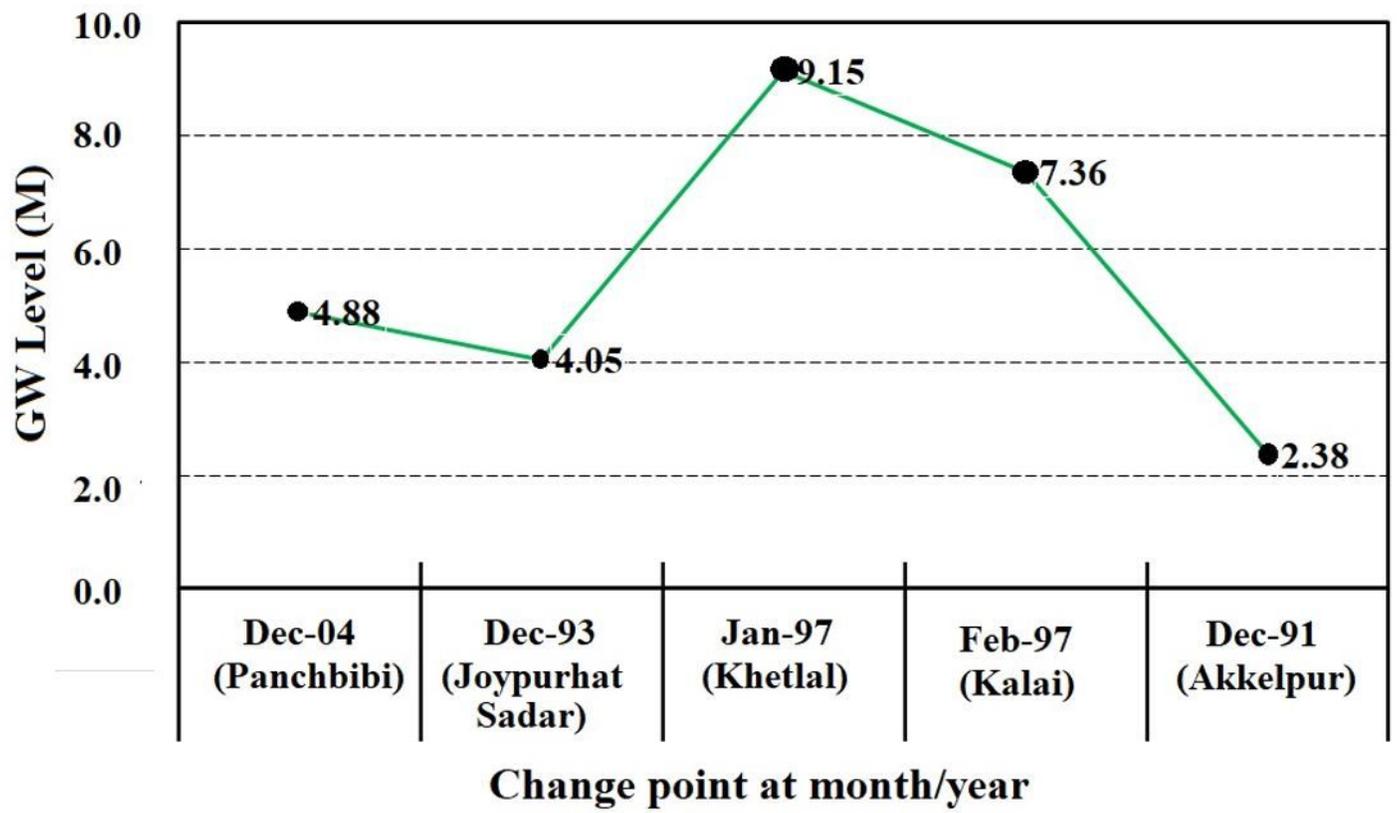


Figure 6

Change point detection time of GWL declination in Joypurhat district.

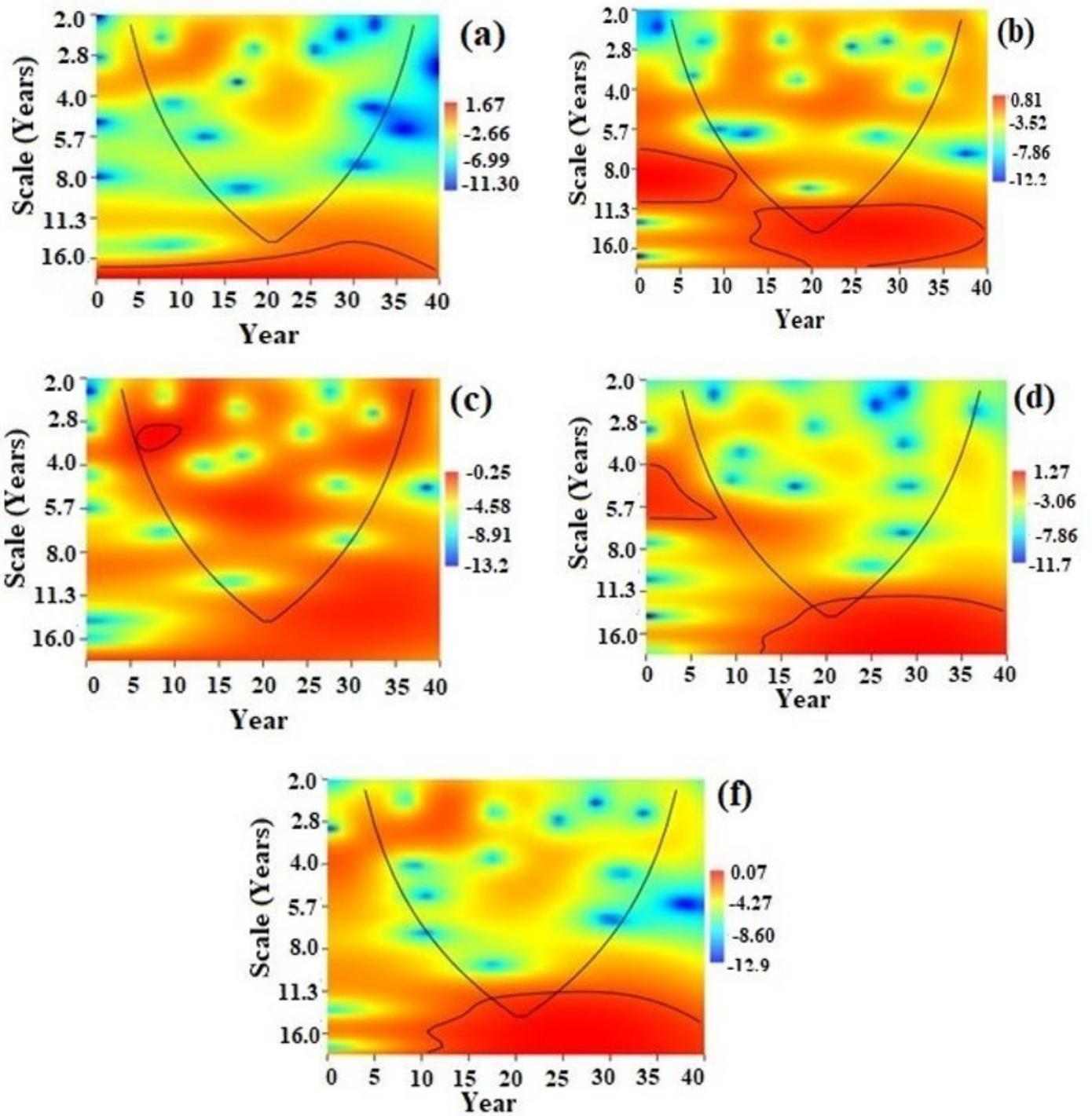
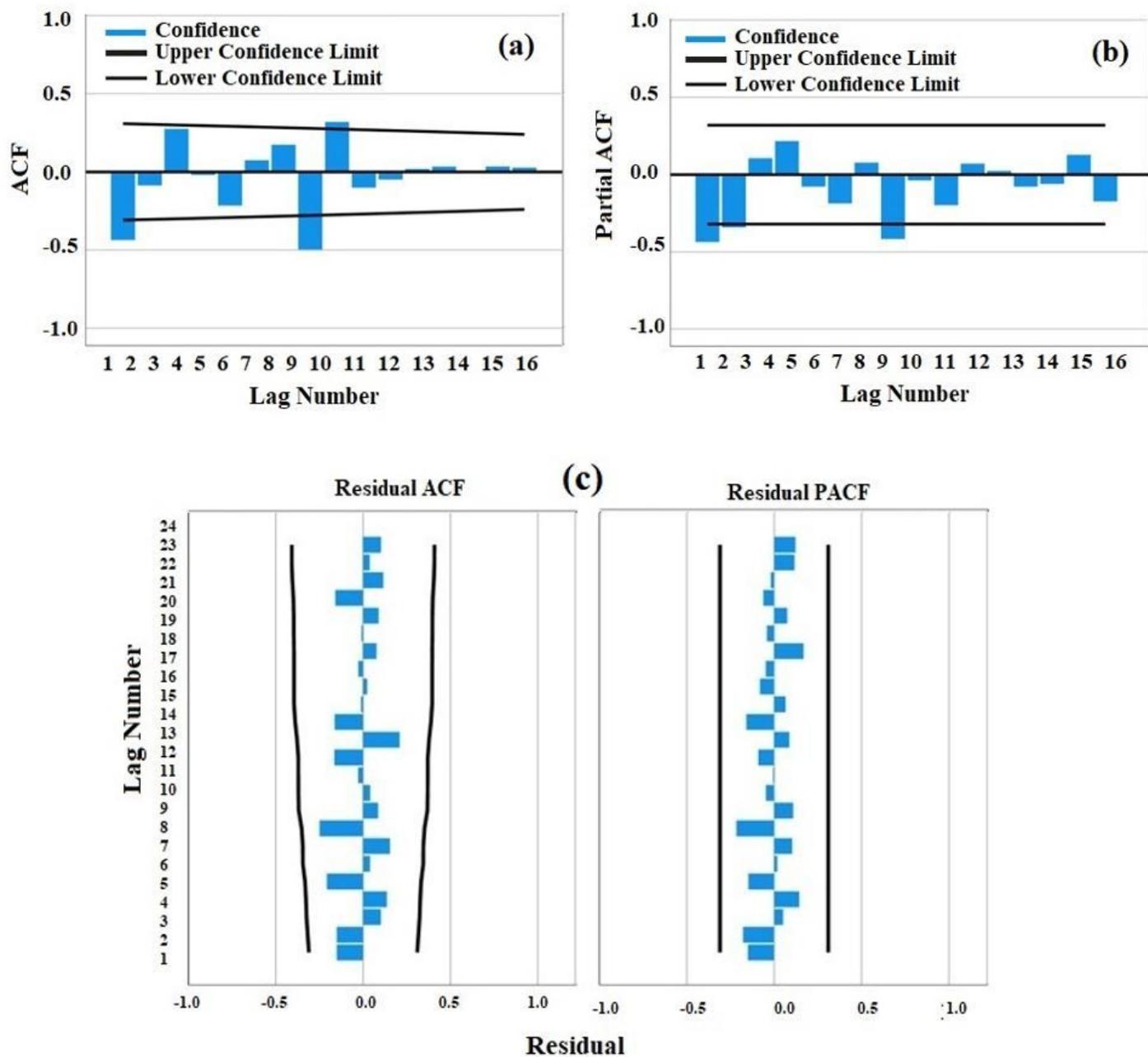


Figure 7

Wavelet power spectrum of ground water level (a) Joypurhat sadar; (b) Akkelpur; (c) Panchbibi; (d) Khetlal; (e) Kalai; and (f) Joypurhat District



**Figure 8**

Autocorrelation plot (a) ACF without differentiating; (b) PACF without differentiating; and (c) ACF and PACF with differencing of ground water levels in Joypurhat district

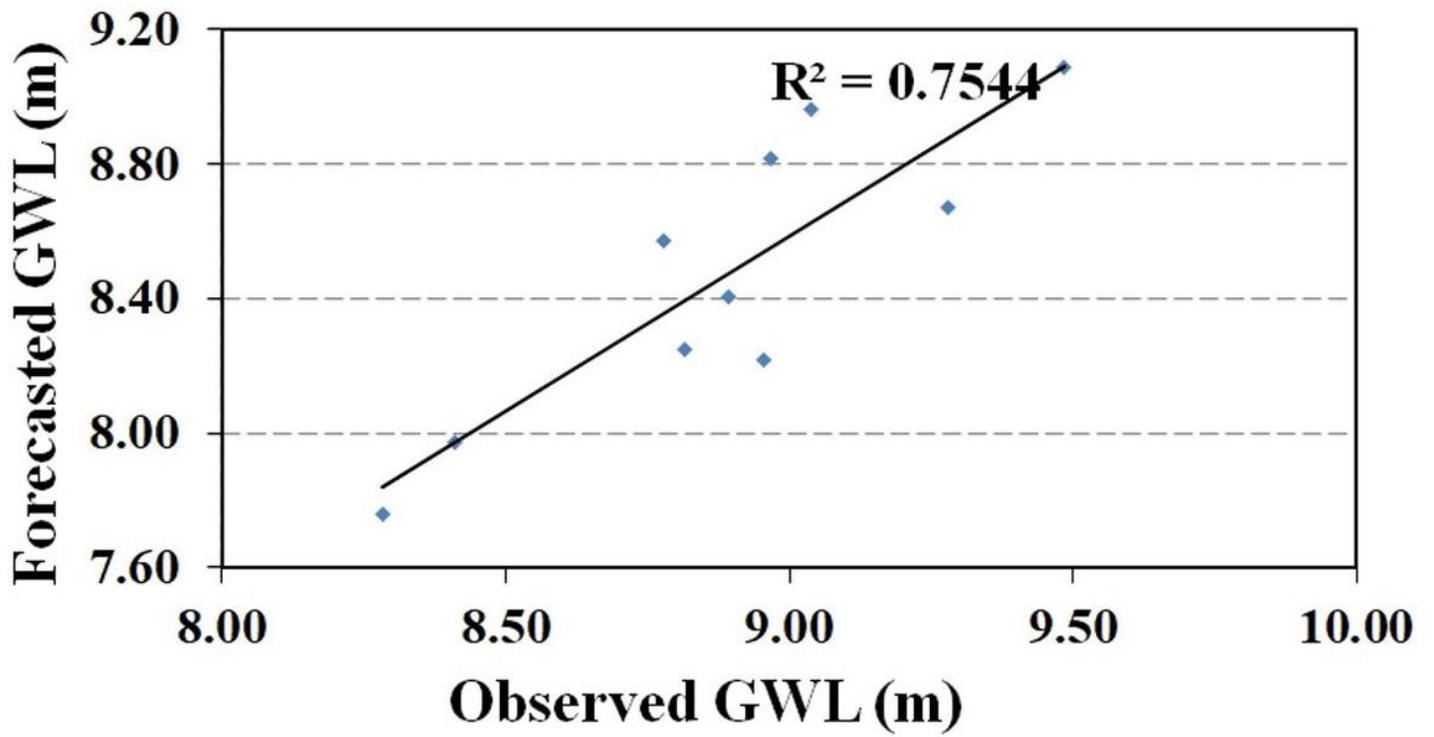


Figure 9

Comparison plot of observed versus forecasted ground water levels (2010-2019) of Joypurhat district.

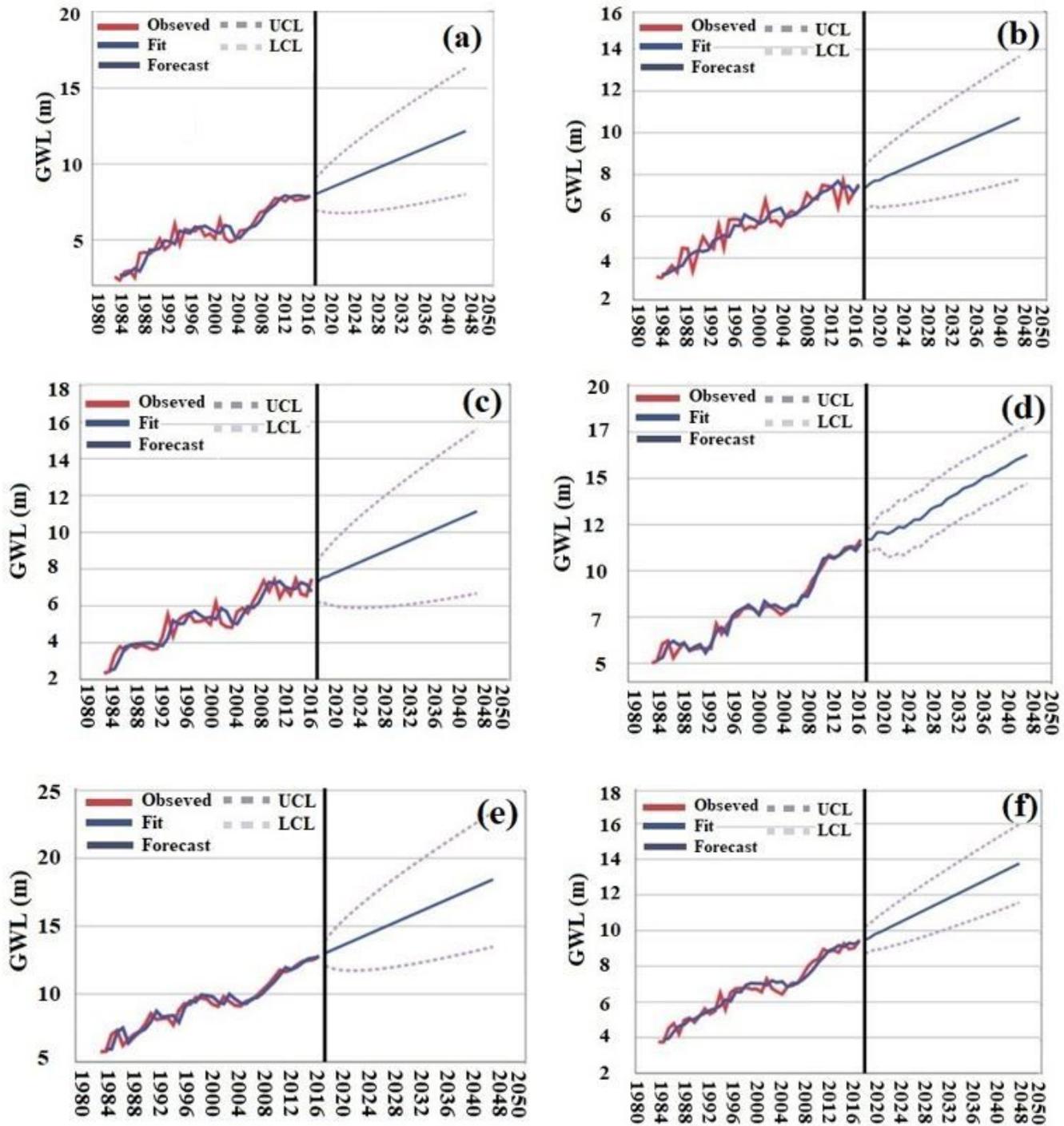


Figure 10

Forecasting of groundwater level by best ARIMA model fitting (a) Model 1,1,0 (Joypurhat sadar); (b) Model 2,1,0 (Panchbibi); (c) Model 1,1,0 (Akkelpur); (d) Model 8,1,8 (Kalai); (e) Model 0,1,0 (Khetlal); and (f) Model 2,1,0 (Joypurhat district)