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Research Article

Keywords: Groundwater environment, saline water intrusion, high-F groundwater, health risk, coastal plain

Posted Date: March 17th, 2022

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1351790/v1>

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1 **Title Page**

2 The groundwater environmental effects and health risk assessment in saline-fresh
3 water mixing zone of coastal plain

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22 Abstract: The groundwater environment is important to human living in coastal plain.
23 In this study, southern Laizhou Bay (SLB) is chosen as the study area and 47
24 groundwater samples are collected to analyze groundwater environmental effects and
25 health risk assessment in saline-fresh water mixing zone (SFMZ) of coastal plain.
26 Influenced by saline water intrusion (SWI), K^+ , Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} and HCO_3^-
27 concentration values are exceeded WHO standard value seriously. High-F groundwater
28 is the product in process of SWI, caused by cation exchange, weakly alkaline
29 environment, evaporation and fluorite dissolution. Na^+ concentration and a decrease in
30 the Ca^{2+} concentration can promote further dissolution of fluorite and other F-
31 containing minerals. Based on the health risk assessment method, the average HQ
32 sequence in typical groundwater pollutants is $Cl^- > F^- > NO_3-N > Se > Mn > NO_2-N >$
33 $Cu > Pb > Zn > Fe$, and the CR sequence caused by carcinogenic heavy metals is $Cd >$
34 $As > Cr$. The greatest non-carcinogenic risk to adults and children in the study area is
35 caused by Cl^- . Cd is the most important indicator of carcinogenic risk, and its
36 contribution to CR accounts for 74.531%. The regions with high health impacts of
37 carcinogenic pollutants in groundwater are mainly concentrated in the central part of
38 the study area, with the exceeding range of 35.373% for adults and 44.768% for
39 children. Non-carcinogenic pollutants are enriched in SFMZ, which have greater
40 impacts on human body and lead to higher health risks compared with carcinogenic
41 pollutants.

42 Keywords: Groundwater environment; saline water intrusion; high-F groundwater;
43 health risk; coastal plain.

44 **Highlights**

- 45 1. High-F groundwater is the product in process of SWI.
- 46 2. Human activities and natural conditions can affect the groundwater environment in
- 47 coastal plain.
- 48 3. Ensure the main pollutants to HQ and CR.

1. Introduction

Water resources, especially for groundwater resource, are an indispensable natural resource for human survival and development and an important part of ecological and environmental systems in coastal plain (Post, 2005; Al-Ansari, 2013; Adimalla and Qian, 2021; Wang et al., 2021). The cleanliness and safety of groundwater are directly related to human health (Sanford and Pope, 2010; Famiglietti, 2014). Due to agriculture, industry, economic development and population growth, the consumption of groundwater resource has accelerated and groundwater contamination, which is a gradual and hazardous process with negative effects, has been a common environmental problem worldwide (Wen et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021; Solgi and Jalili., 2021). Heavy metal pollution, fluorine, nitrate, organic pollutants and groundwater salinization are the main groundwater pollutants and have been a hidden threat to human health for a long time.

Numerous studies have been carried out to analyze groundwater genetic mechanisms, groundwater quality evaluations and human health risk assessments (Li et al., 2017, 2018; Luo et al., 2021). High-F groundwater is the most widespread cause of fluorosis worldwide, such as the United States, India, Pakistan, South Africa, South Korea and China (Chae et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2012; Lü et al., 2016; Thapa et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2019; Yadav et al., 2019; McMahan et al., 2020). Arsenic has been widely recognized as among the most toxic chemicals, and over 200 million people worldwide still drink arsenic-contaminated water (Naujokas et al., 2013). High NO₃-N

71 concentrations can lead to methemoglobinemia or blue baby syndrome (Rezaei et al.,
72 2019). Heavy metals, such as Cd, Cr, and As, can damage the human nervous, digestive,
73 and endocrine systems and may induce cancer (Sharma et al., 2019; Manoj et al., 2021;
74 Mukherjee et al., 2021). Some heavy metals inhibit the activity of enzymes, causing
75 cytoplasmic poisoning, thus affecting nerve tissue and even damaging the key organs
76 of human detoxification (Sharma et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2021). The safety of water
77 resource quality has become very important to human health.

78 In this study, we are focused on a typical groundwater environmental issue, saline
79 water intrusion, in coastal plain. Saline water intrusion (SWI), caused by
80 overexploitation of groundwater, is the common groundwater environmental issue in
81 coastal plain (Liu et al., 2017). Different from seawater intrusion which is the mixing
82 process between seawater and groundwater, SWI is the mixing process between
83 underground saline water and fresh water in groundwater environment and away from
84 coastline. It can change the properties of groundwater environment, such as ion
85 exchange and groundwater salinization, which can lead to increase of TDS and Cl⁻
86 concentrations and enrichment of high-fluorine groundwater (Gao et al., 2017; Liu et
87 al., 2017; Chen et al., 2019, 2020). A saline-fresh water mixing zone (SFMZ) has
88 formed under the condition of SWI.

89 Southern Laizhou Bay (SLB), which was chosen as the study area, is a typical
90 coastal plain and an important salt production base in China. Groundwater with
91 different water quality type is distributing widely in this area, such fresh water, brackish
92 water, saline water and brine (Liu et al., 2016, 2017; Yang et al., 2021). SWI is the main

93 groundwater environmental problem and SFMZ has formed. Forty-seven groundwater
94 samples, which were distributed in the SFMZ, were collected to obtain heavy metal and
95 hydrochemical data. The objectives of this study were to (1) further investigate and
96 analyze the spatial distribution characteristics of main pollutions and hydrochemical
97 data in the groundwater environment of the SFMZ; (2) evaluate the human health risk
98 of groundwater and analyze the main influencing factors; and (3) explore the
99 groundwater environmental effects in SFMZ. The research results can provide a
100 scientific reference for groundwater resource management, heavy metal pollution
101 control, and ensuring drinking water safety in coastal plains.

102 **2. Materials and methods**

103 **2.1 Background of study area**

104 2.1.1 Location and climatic conditions of study area

105 The SLB is located in the southern Bohai Sea and northern Weibei Plain, Shandong
106 Province, China (Fig. 1). The landform types consist of coastal plains, shoals and
107 intertidal zones from south (land) to north (sea), with ground surface elevations ranging
108 from 500 m to 1 ~ 2 m. The broad alluvial plain has been shaped by several rivers, such
109 as the Bailang River, Wei River and Mi River. The average annual precipitation is
110 approximately 660 mm, and 60% – 70% of the rainfall occurs between June and August.
111 The mean annual evaporation is 1648 mm, with 50% of the total evaporation capacity
112 occurring from April to June (Liu et al., 2016).

113 2.1.2 Hydrochemical types of groundwater

114 In this study area, groundwater are divided into four classes: fresh water (TDS <

115 1 g/L), brackish water ($1 \text{ g/L} \leq \text{TDS} < 3 \text{ g/L}$), saline water ($3 \text{ g/L} \leq \text{TDS} < 50 \text{ g/L}$) and
116 brine ($\text{TDS} \geq 50 \text{ g/L}$) (Lü et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017). The main hydrochemical types
117 of fresh water are $\text{Cl}\cdot\text{HCO}_3\cdot\text{SO}_4\text{-Ca}\cdot\text{Na}$, $\text{Cl-Ca}\cdot\text{Na}$, $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Ca}\cdot\text{Na}$ and $\text{HCO}_3\cdot\text{SO}_4\cdot\text{Cl-}$
118 Na . The hydrochemical types of brackish water, saline water and brine are $\text{Cl-Na}\cdot\text{Ca}$,
119 $\text{Cl-Na}\cdot\text{Mg}$, $\text{Cl}\cdot\text{SO}_4\text{-Na}$ and Cl-Na .

120 2.1.3 Saline water intrusion (SWI)

121 Our previous studies have verified that SWI is the main groundwater
122 environmental issue in this study area and has negative effects on groundwater quality
123 (Liu et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2021). Because of overexploitation of underground fresh
124 water and the widespread distribution of underground saline water which has been
125 formed from Late Pleistocene, SWI has occurred, and a saline-fresh water mixing zone
126 (SFMZ) has formed, which can lead to groundwater salinity and deterioration of
127 groundwater quality (Liu et al., 2017). Moreover, other human activities can also affect
128 groundwater quality, such as irrigation and sewage discharge. The direct impacts are
129 that groundwater quality is becoming unsuitable for local residents to drink, having a
130 negative impact on human health.

131 2.2 Sampling and analysis

132 A total of 47 groundwater samples, which were mainly collected by civilian wells,
133 groundwater monitoring wells and irrigation wells, were collected from May to June
134 2021 in the SFMZ from the SLB (Fig. 1). Groundwater samples were collected and
135 stored in polyethylene bottles (1200 mL) in a low-temperature environment, and all
136 groundwater samples were sent to the laboratory for testing and analysis for the first

137 time.

138 Hydrochemical data were obtained by using test instruments such as UV-visible
139 spectrophotometer (T9CS), Inductive coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy
140 (iCAP 7400), Atomic fluorescence photometer (XGY-1011A), Ion chromatograph
141 (ICS-600), Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (Thermo iCAP RQ), and Ion
142 meter (PXSJ-216) (Table S1).

143 **2.3 Hydrogeochemical characteristics groundwater quality index (WQI)**

144 The WQI, which is the most widely reliable comprehensive analysis for evaluating
145 drinking water quality, is used to evaluate the groundwater quality (Abbasnia et al.,
146 2019; Nong et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2020; Alshehri et al., 2021). The determined WQI
147 values were then classified into five categories: excellent (WQI < 50); good (WQI =
148 50–100); poor (WQI = 100.1–200); very poor (WQI = 200.1–300); and unsuitable for
149 drinking water (WQI > 300) (Njuguna et al., 2020; Githaiga et al., 2021).

$$150 \quad W_i = w_i / \sum w_i \quad (1)$$

$$151 \quad q_i = (C_i / S_i) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

$$152 \quad SI_i = W_i \times q_i \quad (3)$$

$$153 \quad WQI = \sum SI_i \quad (4)$$

154 where W_i represents the relative weight, w_i represents the weight that is often allocated
155 to each parameter (Table 1), $\sum w_i$ represents the sum of the weights of all 11 parameters,
156 C_i represents the detected concentration for each parameter in each sample, S_i
157 represents the WHO maximum allowable limits for each parameter, and SI_i represents
158 the water quality subindex of the i th parameter.

159 2.4 Health risk assessment

160 Health risk assessment is very important for understanding the potential health
161 risks of chemical pollutants to human beings and is an important basis for local
162 governments to formulate policies or regulations to protect the health of residents (Hu
163 et al., 2021). Health risk assessments include carcinogen risk assessment and
164 noncarcinogen risk assessment. According to International Agency for Research on
165 Cancer (IARC) and Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS) databases, typical
166 pollutants are classified as noncarcinogenic substances and carcinogenic substances
167 (Sadeghfam et al., 2021). Mn, Fe, Pb, Cu, Zn, F⁻, NO₃-N, Cl⁻, NO₂-N, and Se are
168 classified as noncarcinogenic pollutants, and Cr, As and Cd are classified as
169 carcinogenic pollutants in this study area. Based on the water quality health risk
170 assessment model proposed by the United States Environmental Protection Agency
171 (USEPA), the possible health effects of typical pollutants in inland water on adults and
172 children are evaluated by combining noncancer hazard quotient index (HQ_i) values and
173 carcinogenic risk index (CR_i) values (Hu et al., 2020). This method was used to
174 quantitatively describe whether several groundwater chemical pollutants are present in
175 the SFMZ. The calculation formulas for HQ_i and CR_i of typical pollutants are as
176 follows (Li et al., 2014):

$$177 \quad CDD_i = \frac{MC_i \times IR \times EF \times ED}{BW \times AT} \quad (5)$$

$$178 \quad HQ_i = \frac{CDD_i}{R_f D_i} \quad (6)$$

$$179 \quad CR_i = CDD_i \times SF_i \quad (7)$$

180
$$HQ = \sum_{i=1}^n HQ_i \quad (8)$$

181
$$CR = \sum_{i=1}^n CR_i \quad (9)$$

182 where CDD_i is the exposure dose through drinking water, mg/(kg·d); MC_i is the average
183 mass concentration of pollutants in water, mg/L; IR is the intake rate, L/d; EF is the
184 exposure frequency, d/a; ED is the duration of exposure, a; BW is human body mass,
185 kg; AT is the average time of exposure, d; RfD_i is the reference dose of chemical
186 pollutants in the drinking water exposure route, mg/(kg·d); and SF_i is the cancer slope
187 factor, mg/(kg·d).

188 The parameter value of each variable used in the calculation is based on the data
189 of the risk assessment information system (RAIS) established by the Oak Ridge
190 National Laboratory under the US Department of Energy, as shown in Table S1. The
191 exposure dose was obtained by formula (5), and formulas (6) and (7) were used for
192 pollutant risk assessment. The total health risks of the sampling points were evaluated
193 using equations (8) and (9).

194 The health risk level of HQ was divided into four levels: (1) $HQ \leq 1$, no risk; (2)
195 $1 < HQ \leq 5$, low risk; (3) $5 < HQ \leq 10$, medium risk; and (4) $HQ > 10$, high risk.
196 According to the USEPA, there is a carcinogenic risk when CR is greater than 1E-4.

197 **2.5 Spatial interpolation**

198 The spatial interpolation analysis algorithm transforms the measured data of
199 discrete points into continuous data surfaces and is widely used in the statistical analysis
200 of geospatial patterns of soil, groundwater and surface water (Horrocks et al., 2021;

201 Zou et al., 2021). Geostatistics is a branch of applied statistics that focuses on detecting,
 202 modeling and estimating spatial patterns in georeferenced data (Qiao et al., 2018).
 203 Geostatistics can estimate the values of variables in unsampled regions, and multiple
 204 interpolation methods can be used. The inverse distance weighted (IDW) method was
 205 adopted in this study. This method combines the advantages of the natural nearest
 206 neighbor method based on Tyson polygons and the multiple regression gradient method
 207 (Chen and Liu, 2012; Nistor et al., 2020). This method not only considers the distance
 208 factor but also assigns weights to discrete observation points near the interpolation point
 209 based on the distance. The IDW method is constructed using the following formula
 210 (Charizopoulos et al., 2018; Tiwari et al., 2019):

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{Z}(S_0) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i Z(S_i) \\
 \lambda_i &= \frac{[d(S_i, S_0)]^{-P}}{\sum_{i=1}^n [d(S_i, S_0)]^{-P}}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{10}$$

212 where $\hat{Z}(S_0)$ is the predicted value of S_0 (g/kg), $Z(S_i)$ is the measured value of the
 213 known point (g/kg), λ_i is the weight, $d(S_i, S_0)$ is the Euclidean distance between the
 214 sampling points (m), and P is the specified power.

215 **3. Results**

216 **3.1 Groundwater quality types and hydrochemical types**

217 The pH values are 6.94 ~ 8.72 (average 7.68), which indicates a neutral and weakly
 218 alkaline environment (Table 2). The TDS values are 266.00 ~ 5082.00 mg/L and
 219 1749.85 mg/L on average. Six groundwater samples are saline water, 10 groundwater
 220 samples are fresh water and 31 groundwater samples are brackish water. High-TDS
 221 groundwater is distributed in the central and northern parts of the study area (Fig. 2 (a)).

222 SWI and geochemical processes are responsible for the wide TDS range in this area
223 (Han et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2017).

224 The hydrochemical types of the saline water are Cl-Na, Cl-Na•Mg, and Cl•SO₄-
225 Na•Ca•Mg. The hydrochemical types of the brackish water are Cl-Na, Cl•HCO₃•SO₄-
226 Ca•Mg, HCO₃•Cl-Ca•Mg, Cl•HCO₃-Na and HCO₃•Cl-Na. The hydrochemical types of
227 the fresh water are HCO₃-Ca•Na, HCO₃•Cl-Na•Mg•Ca, HCO₃•Cl-Na and HCO₃•Cl-
228 Ca•Na•Mg (Fig. 3).

229 **3.2 Spatial distribution of groundwater quality**

230 3.2.1 Nonmetal

231 K⁺, Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, HCO₃⁻, F⁻, NO₃-N and NO₂-N were chosen to
232 analyze the nonmetal groundwater data in this study area.

233 Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ concentrations were determined to be in the ranges of 39.37 ~
234 1548.41 mg/L, 27.33 ~ 448.45 mg/L and 11.78 ~ 293.30 mg/L, with average values of
235 350.16 mg/L, 134.88 mg/L and 105.40 mg/L, respectively. Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻ and HCO₃⁻
236 concentrations were determined to be in the ranges of 32.29 ~ 2171.16 mg/L, 39.13 ~
237 992.15 mg/L and 148.01 ~ 927.22 mg/L, with average values of 461.85 mg/L, 261.31
238 mg/L and 499.07 mg/L, respectively (Table 2). Regions with excess ions were
239 distributed widely in this study area (Fig. 2).

240 TDS and Cl⁻ considerations can be used to determine the degree of SWI (Liu et al.,
241 2017). The critical value of TDS was 1000 mg/L, and Cl⁻ was 250 mg/L. Fig. 2 (a) and
242 (f) show that the TDS and Cl⁻ considerations are seriously above critical values in most
243 areas, which can indicate that the SWI is prevalent in the groundwater environment of

244 the study area. The main influencing factor is groundwater exploitation (Liu et al.,
245 2017).

246 The F⁻ concentration was 0.59 ~ 5.41 mg/L, the average value was 2.28 mg/L, and
247 the median value was 2.31 mg/L. Thirty-two groundwater samples had an F
248 concentration above the drinking water guideline value of the WHO (1.5 mg/L), which
249 was 68.1% of the total groundwater samples. This result indicates that the F
250 concentration is very high and can have negative effects on human health. High-F
251 groundwater was mainly found in the central and southern parts of the study area (Fig.
252 2 (i)). The NO₃-N concentration was 0.96 ~ 134.25 mg/L, the average value was 40.39
253 mg/L, and the median value was 35.17 mg/L (Table 2). The areas with excess NO₃-N
254 were mainly distributed in the western and north-central parts of the study area (Fig. 2
255 (j)).

256 3.2.2 Heavy metals

257 Zn, As, Cd, Mn, Fe, Pb and Cu were chosen to analyze the spatial distribution of
258 the metal data of groundwater in this study area. Cd and Mn concentrations were
259 determined to be in the range of 0.05 ~ 24.30 µg/L and 0.0005 ~ 1.62 mg/L, with
260 average values of 1.912 µg/L and 0.086 mg/L, respectively. Some groundwater samples
261 exceeded the WHO standard values. Cd, which exceeded the WHO standard value, was
262 distributed in the central and southeastern parts of the study area. Mn, which exceeded
263 the WHO standard value, was distributed in the northwest corner of the study area (Fig.
264 4). Cd and Mn were the main metal pollutants in this study area and may have negative
265 effects on human health. The Zn, As, Fe, Pb and Cu concentrations were lower than the

266 WHO standard values and are not a threat to human health.

267 **3.3 Groundwater WQI**

268 Based on existing references and characteristics of the groundwater environment
269 in this study area, we chose K^+ , Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , HCO_3^- , F^- , NO_3-N , TDS,
270 Mn and Cd to calculate the groundwater WQI values (Table 3). The calculation results
271 are shown in Table S1 and Fig. 5(a) and (b). The groundwater WQI range was 28.92 ~
272 396.22. The groundwater quality was excellent (1 groundwater sample), good (18
273 groundwater samples), poor (18 groundwater samples), very poor (8 groundwater
274 samples) or unsuitable for drinking water (2 groundwater samples). A total of 40.43%
275 of the total groundwater samples were excellent and good, which was suitable for
276 human drinking. A total of 59.57% of the total groundwater samples were poor, very
277 poor and unsuitable for drinking water (Fig. 5(a)). As shown in Fig. 5(a) and (b), the
278 unsuitable drinking water and very poor water samples were concentrated in the
279 northwestern part of the study area.

280 **4. Discussion**

281 **4.1 The direct effects of SWI**

282 Our studies have verified that SWI is the main hydrogeological process in this
283 study area and the main factor that influencing the groundwater quality (Yang et al.,
284 2021). In the SWI process, the main phenomenon is that the TDS and the main ion (Na^+ ,
285 Ca^{2+} and Cl^-) concentrations increase in the SFMZ (Liu et al., 2017), which can
286 influence the cation exchange in groundwater environment.

287 Cation exchange, which can drive the enrichment of F^- in groundwater, is an

288 important process in areas impacted by SWI (Rashid et al., 2018). CAI 1 ($(\text{Cl}^-$
289 $(\text{Na}^+\text{+K}^+))/\text{Cl}^-$) and CAI 2 ($(\text{Cl}^- - (\text{Na}^+\text{+K}^+))/(\text{SO}_4^{2-}\text{+HCO}_3^{-}\text{+NO}_3^{-}\text{+CO}_3^{2-})$) can illustrate
290 the possibility of cation exchange (Schoeller., 1967; Su et al., 2021). The CAI 1 and
291 CAI 2 values of groundwater samples vary from -1.174 to 0.582 and from -0.001 to
292 0.0001, respectively. Only 14 groundwater samples (approximately 33.3% of the total
293 samples) exhibit negative CAI 1 and CAI 2 values, indicating that the cation exchange
294 of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} relative to Na^+ and K^+ in groundwater in the aquifer may not be
295 prevalent and that reverse cation exchange ($2\text{NaX} + \text{Ca}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{CaX}_2 + 2\text{Na}^+$) is likely
296 dominant in the study area (Fig. 6 (a)). This process can lead to a decrease in the Ca^{2+}
297 concentration (Chen et al., 2020 b). The role of calcite and dolomite dissolution in
298 groundwater chemistry can be determined by the $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ratio (Li et al., 2018). As
299 shown in Fig. 7, almost all groundwater samples with high F^- concentrations plot below
300 the $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Mg}^{2+} = 1:1$ line, which suggests that dolomite dissolution
301 ($\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2 \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{CO}_3^{2-}$) is prevalent in groundwater environment.

302 **4.2 Source of high-F groundwater**

303 According to analysis, high-F groundwater is distributing widely in study area. In
304 coastal areas, groundwater F enrichment is related to the high pH values, high levels of
305 Na^+ , HCO_3^- , total dissolved solids (TDS), and salinity and low levels of Ca^{2+} caused by
306 seawater or brine intrusion. High-F groundwater and seawater intrusion have the same
307 distribution pattern, evolution tendency, and associated processes, such as cation
308 exchange (Chen et al., 2014, 2020 b; Wang et al., 2015; Jia et al., 2019).

309 The Pearson correlation coefficients between F^- and TDS and between F^- and Cl^-

310 are 0.288 and 0.297, respectively. Moreover, the Pearson correlation coefficients
311 between F^- and Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , and HCO_3^- are 0.497, -0.340 and 0.349, respectively (Table
312 S2, Fig. S1). These values indicate a higher degree of correlation. It can be speculated
313 that cation exchange may be the main source of groundwater F in the SFMZ
314 (Valenzuela-vásquez et al., 2006; Rashid et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019).

315 Alkaline water can favor the dissolution of F-containing minerals (Lü et al., 2016).
316 The Pearson correlation coefficient between F^- and pH is 0.351, which indicates a
317 positive correlation (Table S2). The groundwater environment in the study area is
318 neutral and weakly alkaline, which is conducive to the enrichment of F^- . The reason is
319 that the surface charge of minerals is neutral or biased negative in alkaline environments,
320 which is not conducive to the adsorption of F^- . The competitive adsorption of OH^- and
321 F^- leads to the release of F^- into groundwater ($Ca(OH)_2 \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2OH^-$, $CaF_2 \rightarrow Ca^{2+}$
322 $+ 2F^-$) (Guo et al., 2012). Neutral and weakly alkaline environments are conducive to
323 the enrichment of F^- but are not the main factor.

324 In addition, HCO_3^- is a strong competitively adsorbed ion in alkaline environments
325 (Su and Puls., 2001). The Pearson correlation coefficient between F^- and HCO_3^- is
326 0.349. In this study area, HCO_3^- is at a high concentration (148.01 ~ 927.22 mg/L, with
327 an average of 499.07 mg/L), which is conducive to the release of F^- in CaF_2 attached to
328 mineral surfaces into the groundwater ($CaF_2 + 2HCO_3^- = CaCO_3 + 2F^- + H_2O + CO_2$),
329 resulting in an increase in the groundwater F concentration.

330 In most arid regions of the world, the F^- concentrations in groundwater are
331 generally increased by evaporation (Rashid et al., 2018). Gibbs diagrams showing TDS

332 values against the content ratios of $\text{Na}^+(\text{Na}^+ + \text{Ca}^{2+})$ have been widely employed to
333 estimate the three significant natural factors controlling groundwater chemistry: rock
334 weathering, precipitation and evaporation.

335 Most of the groundwater samples fall into the evaporation dominance area,
336 indicating that evaporation and/or evaporite dissolution have a significant effect on the
337 formation of dissolved solutes (Fig. 6 (b)). The Gibbs diagram shows that most of the
338 samples have $\text{Na}^+(\text{Na}^+ + \text{Ca}^{2+})$ ratios exceeding 0.5, indicating that cation exchange
339 has significant effects on groundwater chemistry.

340 To further evaluate the effect of evaporation on the F^- enrichment in the
341 groundwater environment, F^-/Cl^- was plotted against F^- (Fig. 7 (a)). Almost all the
342 groundwater samples have a F^-/Cl^- molar ratio less than the typical value ($\text{F}^-/\text{Cl}^- = 0.02$)
343 of unpolluted precipitation, which indicates the notable effect of evaporation on F^-
344 accumulation in the groundwater environment (Currell et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020).

345 The Pearson correlation coefficients between F^- and Na^+ and between F^- and Ca^{2+}
346 are 0.497 and -0.340, respectively. Moreover, the $\text{SI}_{\text{fluorite}}$ values are 0.08 ~ -1.48 (only
347 one sample is > 0.0) (Fig. 7 (c)), which indicates that the potential for fluorite
348 dissolution is high in the groundwater environment ($\text{CaF}_2 \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{F}^-$). The increase
349 in Na^+ concentration and decrease in Ca^{2+} concentration can promote further dissolution
350 of fluorite and other F-containing minerals, thereby releasing F^- into the groundwater
351 (Su et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2015; Li et al., 2019). In high-F groundwater, dolomite
352 dissolution and increasing F^- concentrations can lead to decreasing $\text{SI}_{\text{fluorite}}$ values (Fig.
353 7 (c)), hindering further fluorite dissolution.

354 Human activity, such as irrigation and agricultural development, is an important
355 factor that influences groundwater quality. Long-term agricultural activities in
356 irrigation districts, including the unreasonable use of pesticides and fertilizers and the
357 deterioration of irrigation water quality, have further worsened the groundwater quality,
358 mainly reflected in the high NO₃-N concentration (Zhang et al., 2021). According to
359 investigations, the main human activity is agricultural irrigation, which can lead to an
360 increase in NO₃-N. The Pearson correlation coefficient between F⁻ and NO₃-N is -0.185.
361 Hence, there is no obvious relationship between NO₃-N and F⁻ (Table S2, Fig. S1). It
362 can be speculated that human activity is not the main source of groundwater F.

363 **4.2 Enrichment mechanism of groundwater F in the SFMZ**

364 In the SFMZ, the enrichment mechanism of groundwater F is a relatively
365 complicated process. The characteristics of the groundwater environment, SWI,
366 evaporation and cation exchange are the main factors influencing the enrichment of F.
367 The groundwater environment in the SFMZ is alkaline, which is conducive to the
368 enrichment of F. HCO₃⁻ is an important component of the groundwater in the study area
369 and is present at relatively high concentrations; these conditions are conducive to the
370 release of F⁻ from CaF₂ attached to mineral surfaces to the groundwater. Influenced by
371 SWI, the Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ concentrations increased in the SFMZ. CaF₂ in the soil or rock
372 is dissolved when the supply of Na⁺ and HCO₃⁻ is adequate through the following
373 reaction: $CaF_2 + 2HCO_3^- = CaCO_3 + 2F^- + H_2O + CO_2$, and this process is considered the
374 main mechanism for fluoride leaching. In the SFMZ, reverse cation exchange is
375 prevalent and can reduce the Ca²⁺ concentration. Fluorite dissolution is prevalent in the

376 groundwater environment, which can lead to an increase in the F⁻ concentration.
377 Moreover, evaporation has a notable effect on F⁻ accumulation in the groundwater
378 environment.

379 **4.3 Health risk assessment and main factors of health risk**

380 Based on groundwater pollutant data, a health risk assessment model and related
381 model parameters were used to calculate the health risk of groundwater in the study
382 area. The carcinogenic risk and noncarcinogenic risk calculation results of each factor
383 are shown in Fig. 8. The average HQ values of typical groundwater pollutants were
384 Cl⁻>F⁻>NO₃-N>Se>Mn>NO₂-N>Cu>Pb>Zn>Fe, and the HQ value ranges for adults
385 and children were 11.857~708.545 and 18.213~1088.325 (95.687 and 146.975 on
386 average), respectively. This result indicates that there are high and very high
387 noncarcinogenic risks for adults and children.

388 The greatest noncarcinogenic risk for adults and children in the study area was
389 caused by Cl⁻. The HQ_i values of Cl⁻ ranged from 10.482 to 704.821 (adults) and 16.101
390 to 224.314 (children), with averages of 146.040 (adults) and 224.314 (children),
391 accounting for 98.13% of the average HQ values of typical pollutants. Therefore, the
392 HQ_i value of the noncarcinogenic pollutant Cl⁻ in groundwater greatly exceeded the
393 threshold in the SFMZ, which had negative impacts on the health of adults and children.
394 The second highest contribution to HQ was F⁻. The HQ_i values of F⁻ ranged from 0.479
395 to 4.390 (adults) and 0.735 to 6.744 (children), and the average values were 1.776
396 (adults) and 2.728 (children). F⁻ accounted for 1.19% of the total HQ, which had great
397 impacts on the health of adults and children. Among the indicators of noncarcinogenic

398 risk, the contribution of NO₃-N to the HQ value was third, with no serious impacts on
399 the health of adults but with a certain impact on the health of children. The HQ_i values
400 of other noncarcinogenic risk indicators, such as Se, Mn, NO₂-N, Cu, Pb, Zn, and Fe,
401 were all lower than the standards and had low impacts on the health of adults and
402 children. Fe had the smallest contribution to the total noncarcinogenic risk, and its
403 contribution to the HQ value was only 0.0022%.

404 According to the carcinogenic risk index method, Cr, As and Cd were evaluated.
405 The order of the contribution of carcinogenic risk factors according to CR_i was Cd
406 (74.531%)>As (13.123%)>Cr (12.346%). The range of CR values for the total
407 carcinogenic risk of adults and children was 6.148E-05~0.0049 and 9.444E-05~0.0075,
408 and their average CR values were 0.00037 and 0.00057, respectively. In terms of
409 carcinogenic risk level, the total carcinogenic risk in the study area was 4 to 6 orders of
410 magnitude higher than the total noncarcinogenic risk, indicating that the total health
411 risk of groundwater in the study area mainly comes from carcinogenic metal elements.
412 Among these results, the evaluation result of a single index showed that the CRs of Cr
413 and as were less than 1E-4, so their carcinogenic risk could be ignored. Cd was the most
414 important indicator of carcinogenic risk, accounting for 74.531% of the CR. The range
415 of CR values of the Cd index in adults and children was 7.92E-06~0.0048 and 1.217E-
416 05~0.0074, respectively, with an average value of 0.000277~0.000425. The CR_i value
417 of Cd for adults and children exceeded international standards, and the CR value of
418 children was approximately 1.5 times that of adults, indicating that children were at
419 higher risk of carcinogenesis.

420 Among the noncarcinogenic risks and carcinogenic risks of groundwater, the
421 health risk of children through drinking water is greater than that of adults (Fig. 6). This
422 shows that children are more sensitive risk recipients than adults and are more severely
423 affected by groundwater pollutants. Therefore, children's drinking water safety should
424 be more strictly controlled. According to the USEPA risk standard, the HQ values of
425 adults and children of all groundwater samples exceeded the standard limit. A total of
426 53.19% of the total groundwater samples in adults exceeded the standard limit, and
427 97.87% of children exceeded the standard limit. This result indicates that the
428 noncarcinogenic pollutants in the groundwater environment have great negative
429 impacts on the health of adults and children, and the carcinogenic pollutants also have
430 greater impacts on the health of adults and children.

431 Based on the GIS platform, 6951 randomly distributed sampling points
432 corresponding to 10 index values were extracted from the HQ and CR distribution maps
433 of adults and children. Multiple regression analysis was used to analyze all index values
434 and evaluation results. The calculated correlation coefficient analysis results are listed
435 in Table 4. The results show that Cl^- , which was caused by SWI in this study area, was
436 the most relevant indicator that affects the noncarcinogenic health risks of adults and
437 children. In addition, the regression coefficients of F^- , $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, Mn, Se and other factors
438 in the area remained above 0.001, which may affect the health risks of residents to a
439 certain extent.

440 **4.4 Spatial distribution of HQ and CR**

441 The HQ values of noncarcinogenic pollutants in adults and children were all higher

442 than the standards. The polluted areas that seriously affect the health of residents are
443 mainly concentrated on the northwest side of the study area, as shown in Fig. 9. The
444 highest HQ value for adults was 707, and the mean value was 129. A total of 71.25%
445 of the region had HQ values in the 12~129 range. The highest HQ value of children
446 reached 1086, with an average of 198. The HQ values of 68.57% area were in the range
447 of 100~200. The areas where groundwater carcinogenic pollutants had high health
448 effects on adults and children were mainly concentrated in the central region of the
449 study area. The proportion of over-standard areas for adults reached 35.373% of the
450 area, and the proportion of over-standard areas for children reached 44.768% of the
451 area.

452 In addition, the highest CR value for adults was 0.0049, and the average value was
453 0.0004. The average value was consistent with international standard health risk limits.
454 The highest CR value for children was 0.0075, and the average value was 0.0007, which
455 was slightly higher than the international standard risk limit. Noncarcinogenic
456 pollutants have definite health effects on the human body, while carcinogenic pollutants
457 may cause CR to exceed the standard in some areas, which has negative effects on
458 human health. The spatial distribution results showed that noncarcinogenic pollutants
459 were enriched in the SFMZ. Compared with carcinogenic pollutants, these
460 noncarcinogenic pollutants had greater impacts on human health.

461 **4.5 The groundwater environmental effects in saline-fresh water mixing zone**

462 Under the conditions of groundwater overexploitation and existence of
463 underground saline water, fresh water and saline water are mixing in groundwater

464 depression zone and SFMA has formed, which can influence the groundwater
465 environment. In this zone, fresh water, brackish water and saline water are distributing.
466 TDS and Cl^- are the typical environmental pollutants and can reflect the degree of SWI
467 (Liu et al., 2017). Moreover, the concentration values of K^+ , Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} ,
468 HCO_3^- and F are exceeded WHO standard value seriously.

469 The characteristics of SFMZ is conducive to enrichment of F. An increase in the
470 Na^+ concentration and a decrease in the Ca^{2+} concentration can promote further
471 dissolution of fluorite and other F-containing minerals, releasing F^- into the
472 groundwater. The neutral and weakly alkaline environment is conducive to the
473 enrichment of F^- . High-F groundwater is distributing widely in study area. Agricultural
474 irrigation leads to an increase in nitrate nitrogen in groundwater. Industry has led to an
475 increase in heavy metals in groundwater.

476 A total of 59.57% of the total groundwater samples were poor, very poor or
477 unsuitable for drinking water. Based on the health risk assessment method, the average
478 HQ sequence in typical groundwater pollutants is $\text{Cl}^- > \text{F}^- > \text{NO}_3\text{-N} > \text{Se} > \text{Mn} > \text{NO}_2\text{-}$
479 $\text{N} > \text{Cu} > \text{Pb} > \text{Zn} > \text{Fe}$, and the CR sequence caused by carcinogenic heavy metals is
480 $\text{Cd} > \text{As} > \text{Cr}$. In the studied coastal area, the groundwater environment was influenced
481 by the SWI and heavy metal pollution caused by human activity. The Cl^- concentration
482 was extremely high and was the most relevant indicator affecting the noncarcinogenic
483 health risks of adults and children in the area (Fig. 10).

484 **5. Conclusion**

485 In this paper, southern Laizhou Bay is chosen as a case study to explore the

486 groundwater environmental effects and health risk assessment in saline-fresh water
487 mixing zone of coastal plain. The main conclusions of the study are:

488 (1) SWI was prevalent in the groundwater environment of the study area, and the
489 main influencing factor was groundwater exploitation. The hydrochemical types of
490 saline water were Cl-Na, Cl-Na • Mg, and Cl • SO₄-Na • Ca • Mg. The hydrochemical
491 types of brackish water were Cl-Na, Cl • HCO₃ • SO₄-Ca • Mg, HCO₃ • Cl-Ca • Mg,
492 Cl • HCO₃-Na and HCO₃ • Cl-Na. The hydrochemical types of fresh water were
493 HCO₃-Ca • Na, HCO₃ • Cl-Na • Mg • Ca, HCO₃ • Cl-Na and HCO₃ • Cl-
494 Ca • Na • Mg. The concentration values of K⁺, Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, HCO₃⁻ and
495 F are exceeded WHO standard value seriously. High-F groundwater was mainly found
496 in the central and southern parts of the study area. Cd and Mn were the main metal
497 pollutants in this study area and may have negative effects on human health. A total of
498 59.57% of the total groundwater samples were poor, very poor or unsuitable for
499 drinking water.

500 (2) In the SFMZ in the study area, the groundwater environment, SWI, evaporation
501 and cation exchange are the main factors influencing the enrichment of F. The neutral
502 and weakly alkaline environment is conducive to the enrichment of F⁻. Cation exchange
503 and evaporation are the most important factors for the enrichment of F. The supply of
504 Na⁺ and HCO₃⁻ is adequate in the groundwater environment in the study area, which
505 can be conducive to the dissolution of fluorite and subsequent release of F into the
506 groundwater. An increase in the Na⁺ concentration and a decrease in the Ca²⁺
507 concentration can promote further dissolution of fluorite and other F-containing

508 minerals, releasing F^- into the groundwater. Fluorite dissolution is prevalent in this
509 groundwater environment, which can lead to an increase in the F concentration.

510 (3) Based on the health risk assessment method, the average HQ sequence in
511 typical groundwater pollutants is $Cl^- > F^- > NO_3-N > Se > Mn > NO_2-N > Cu > Pb >$
512 $Zn > Fe$, and the CR sequence caused by carcinogenic heavy metals is $Cd > As > Cr$.
513 The greatest non-carcinogenic risk to adults and children in the study area is caused by
514 Cl^- . The average HQ of Cl^- is 146.040 (adults) and 224.314 (children), accounting for
515 98.13% of the average total HQ of typical pollutants, which has great impacts on the
516 health of adults and children. Cd is the most important indicator of carcinogenic risk,
517 and its contribution to CR accounts for 74.531%.

518 (4) The HQ values of non-carcinogenic pollutants in groundwater for adults and
519 children are all higher than the standard value, and the pollution areas that seriously
520 affect residents' health are mainly concentrated in the northwest of the study area. The
521 regions with high health impacts of carcinogenic pollutants in groundwater are mainly
522 concentrated in the central part of the study area, with the exceeding range of 35.373%
523 for adults and 44.768% for children. Non-carcinogenic pollutants are enriched in SFMZ,
524 which have greater impacts on human body and lead to higher health risks compared
525 with carcinogenic pollutants.

526 (5) The WQI and health risk assessment methods were combined to assess the
527 water quality and impacts on human health in the SFMZ, and the complementary results
528 exhibited good applicability and accuracy. In the studied coastal area, the groundwater
529 environment was influenced by the SWI and heavy metal pollution caused by human

530 activity. The Cl⁻ concentration was extremely high and was the most relevant indicator
531 affecting the noncarcinogenic health risks of adults and children in the area. Effective
532 prevention and control measures to protect groundwater exploitation and prevent SWI,
533 seawater intrusion and discharge of heavy metal pollutants should be of great
534 importance moving forward.

535 **Declarations**

536 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

537 This manuscript does not report on or involve the use of any animal or human data or
538 tissue; therefore, it is not applicable for this part.

539 **Consent for publication**

540 This manuscript does not contain any individual person's data in any form (including
541 any individual details, images or videos); therefore, it is not applicable for this part.

542 **Competing interests**

543 The authors declare no competing interests.

544 **Data availability**

545 Not applicable.

546 **Acknowledgments**

547 This research is financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation
548 of China (No. 42007166, 41977173), Open Research Fund of State Key Laboratory of
549 Estuarine and Coastal Research (Grant No. SKLEC-KF202010).

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556 **Reference**

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Figure captions

774

775 Figure 1. Location of study area and groundwater samples. (DEM and DEM data is derived from
776 global bathymetric data).

777 Figure 2. The spatial distribution of Non-metal data. (a), TDS; (b), K^+ ; (c), Na^+ ; (d), Ca^{2+} ; (e), Mg^{2+} ;
778 (f), Cl^- ; (g), SO_4^{2-} ; (h), HCO_3^- ; (i), F^- ; (j), NO_3-N ; (k), Se; (l) NO_2-N .

779 Figure 3. The Piper program of groundwater samples in study area

780 Figure 4. The spatial distribution of heavy metals. (a), Zn; (b), As; (c), Cd; (d), Mn; (e), Fe; (f), Pb.
781 (g), Cu.

782 Figure 5. WQI result distribution: (a) WQI value of each sampling point; (b) WQI spatial
783 distribution; (c) WQI value and main factor (Cl^- , F^- , NO_3-N and Cd) distribution chart.

784 Figure 6. (a), Scatterplots of CAI 1 versus CAI 2 to verify cation exchange; (b) Gibbs diagram of
785 groundwater samples.

786 Figure 7. (a) Plots of F^-/Cl^- versus F^- to clarify the role of evaporation in the formation of high-F
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789 Figure 8 Evaluation results of each risk factor: (a) noncancer hazard quotient indices; (b)
790 carcinogenic risk indices; (c) Health risk assessment at each point.

791 Figure 9 The distribution of Adult_HQ, Adult_CR, Child_HQ and Child_CR.

792 Figure 10. The conceptual model of groundwater environmental effects in saline-fresh water mixing
793 zone.

794

Table Captions

795 Table 1. The weight, relative weight and WHO standards of each of the parameters used for the

796 WQI determination.

797 Table 2. Minimum, median, maximum and average values of heavy metals and chemical variables

798 in 47 groundwater samples.

799 Table 3. The weights each of the parameters used for the WQI determination.

800 Table 4. The regression coefficient of each factor.

Figures

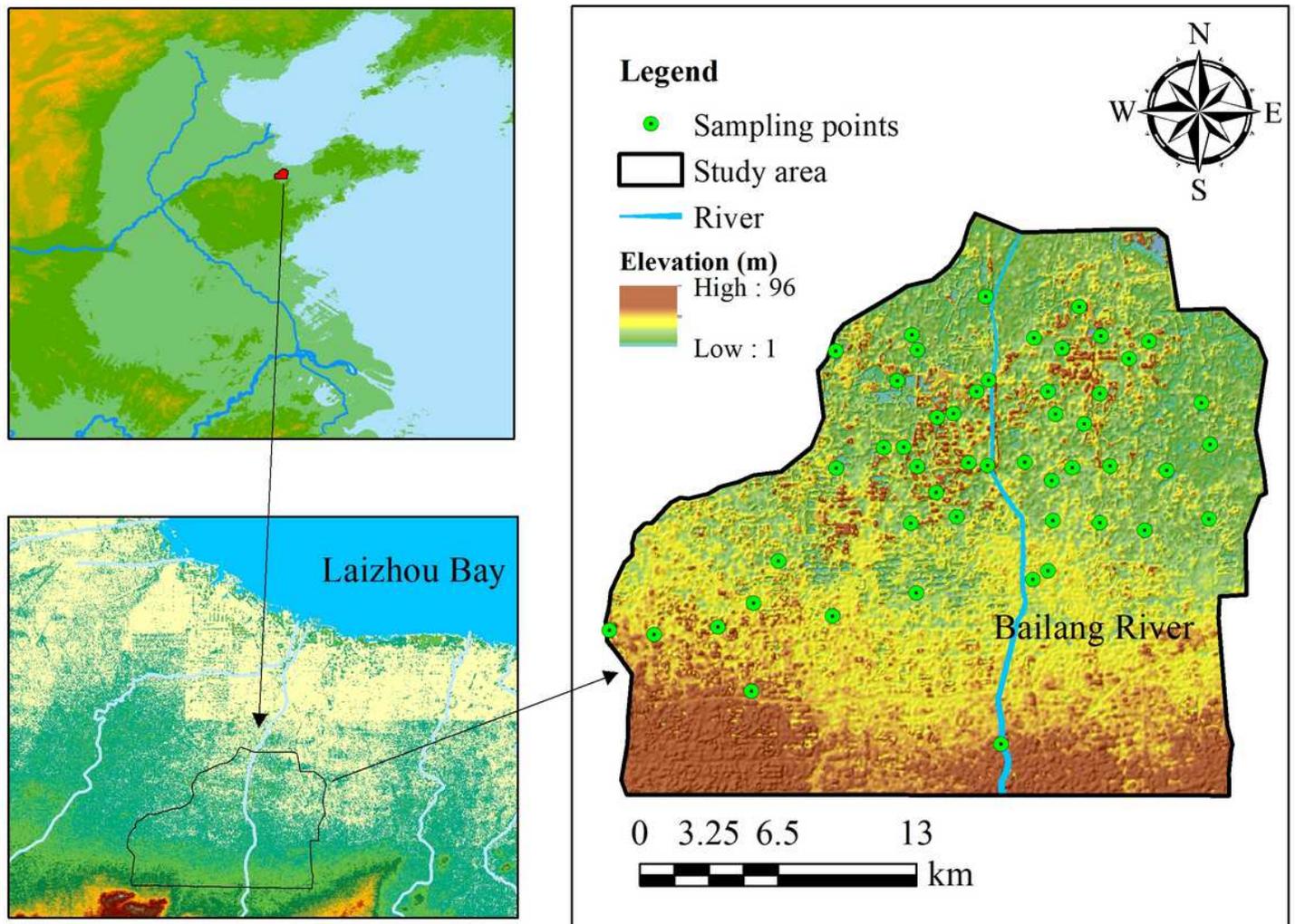


Figure 1

Location of study area and groundwater samples. (DEM and DEM data is derived from global bathymetric data).

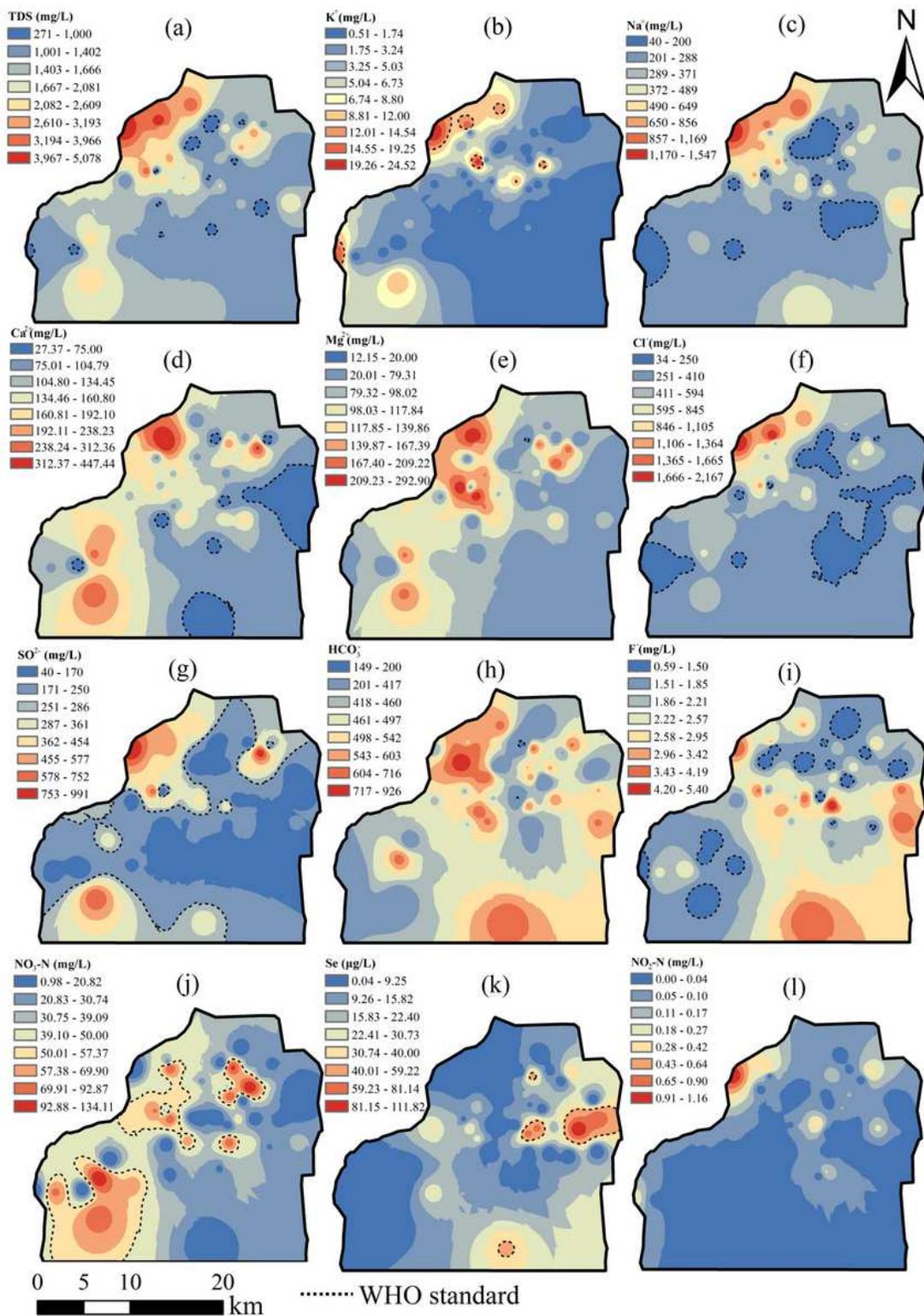


Figure 2

The spatial distribution of Non-metal data. (a), TDS; (b), K⁺; (c), Na⁺; (d), Ca²⁺; (e), Mg²⁺; (f), Cl⁻; (g), SO₄²⁻; (h), HCO₃⁻; (i), F⁻; (j), NO₃-N; (k), Se; (l) NO₂-N.

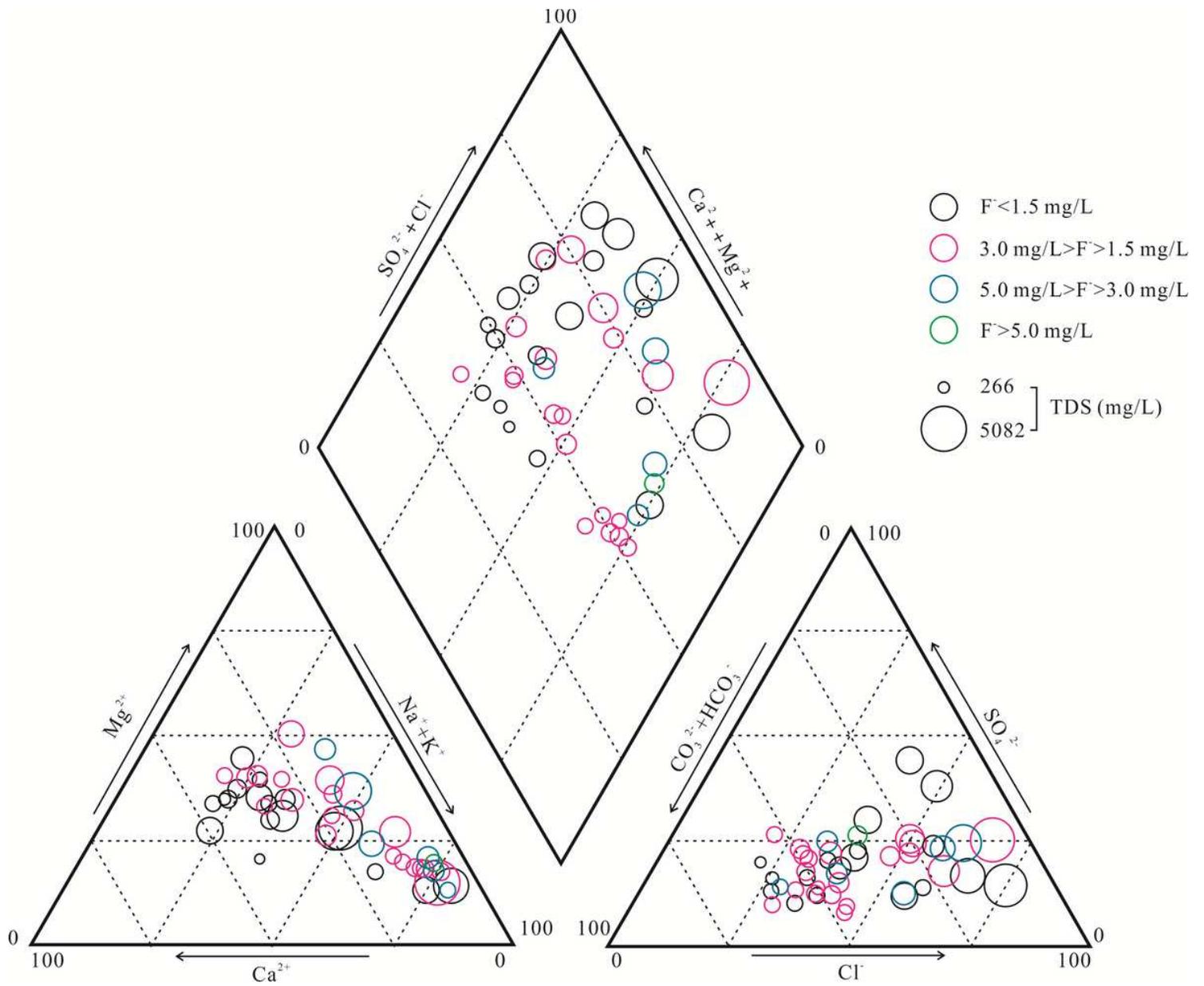


Figure 3

The Piper program of groundwater samples in study area

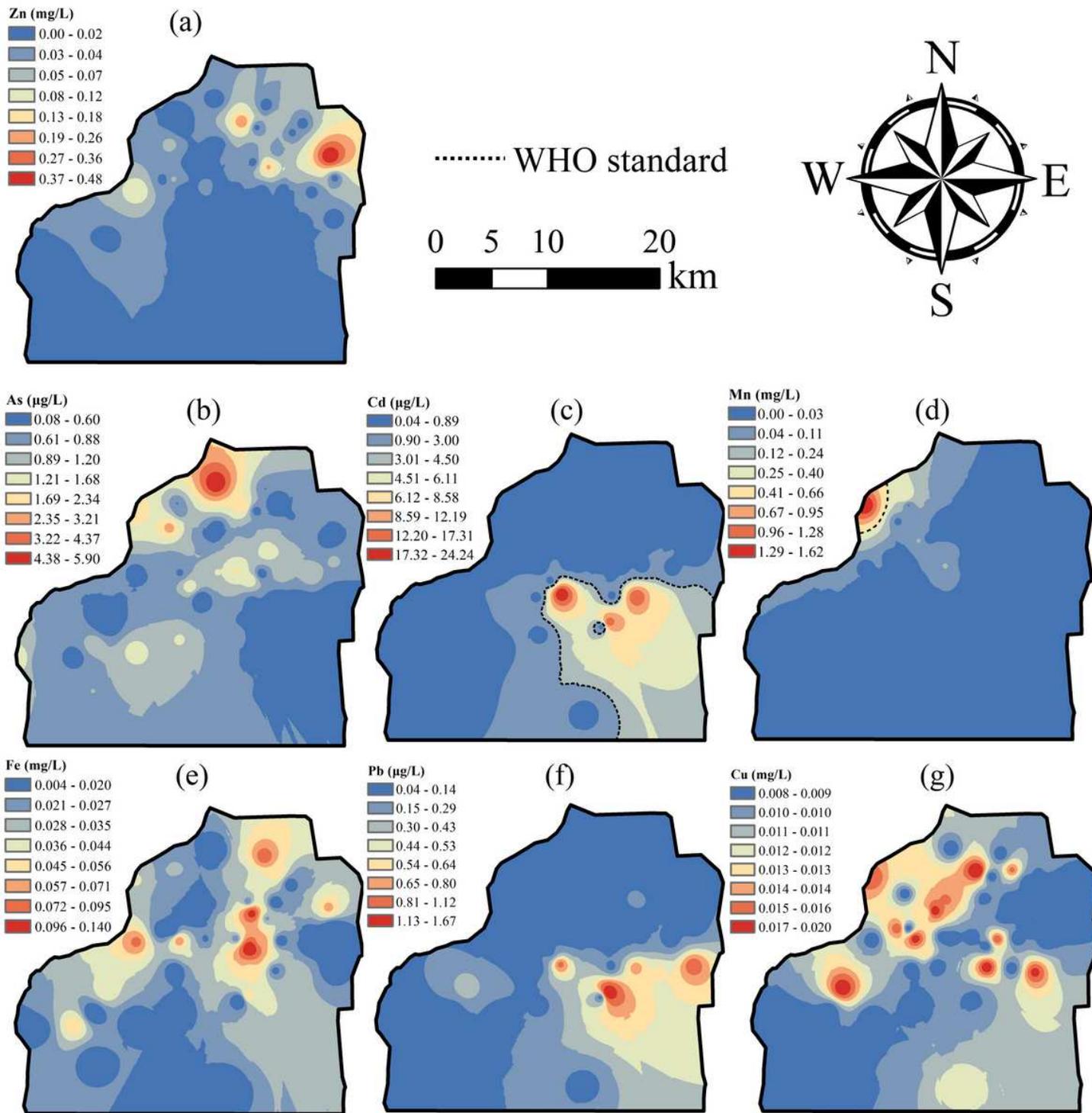


Figure 4

The spatial distribution of heavy metals. (a), Zn; (b), As; (c), Cd; (d), Mn; (e), Fe; (f), Pb. (g), Cu.

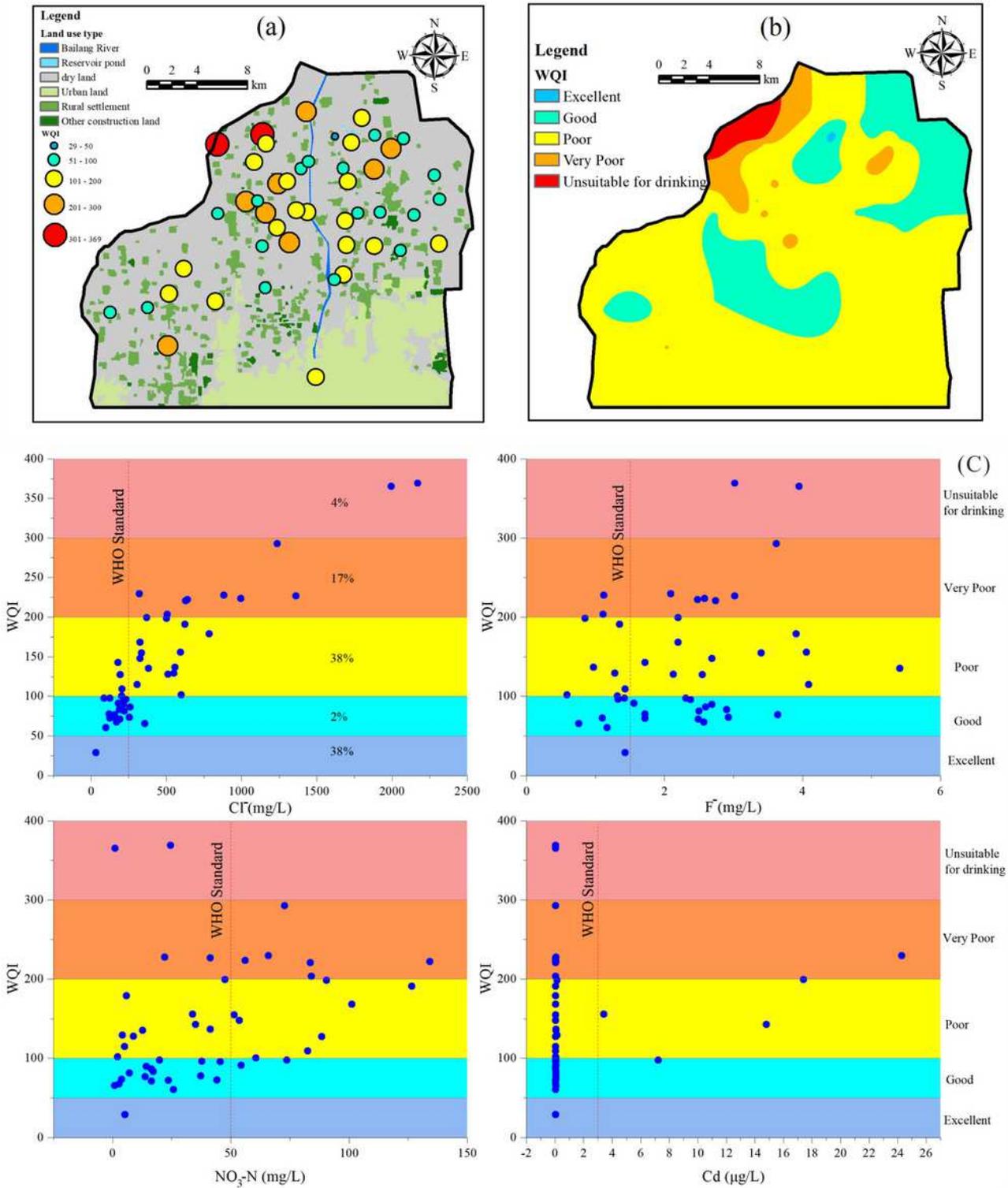


Figure 5

WQI result distribution: (a) WQI value of each sampling point; (b) WQI spatial distribution; (c) WQI value and main factor (Cl⁻, F⁻, NO₃-N and Cd) distribution chart.

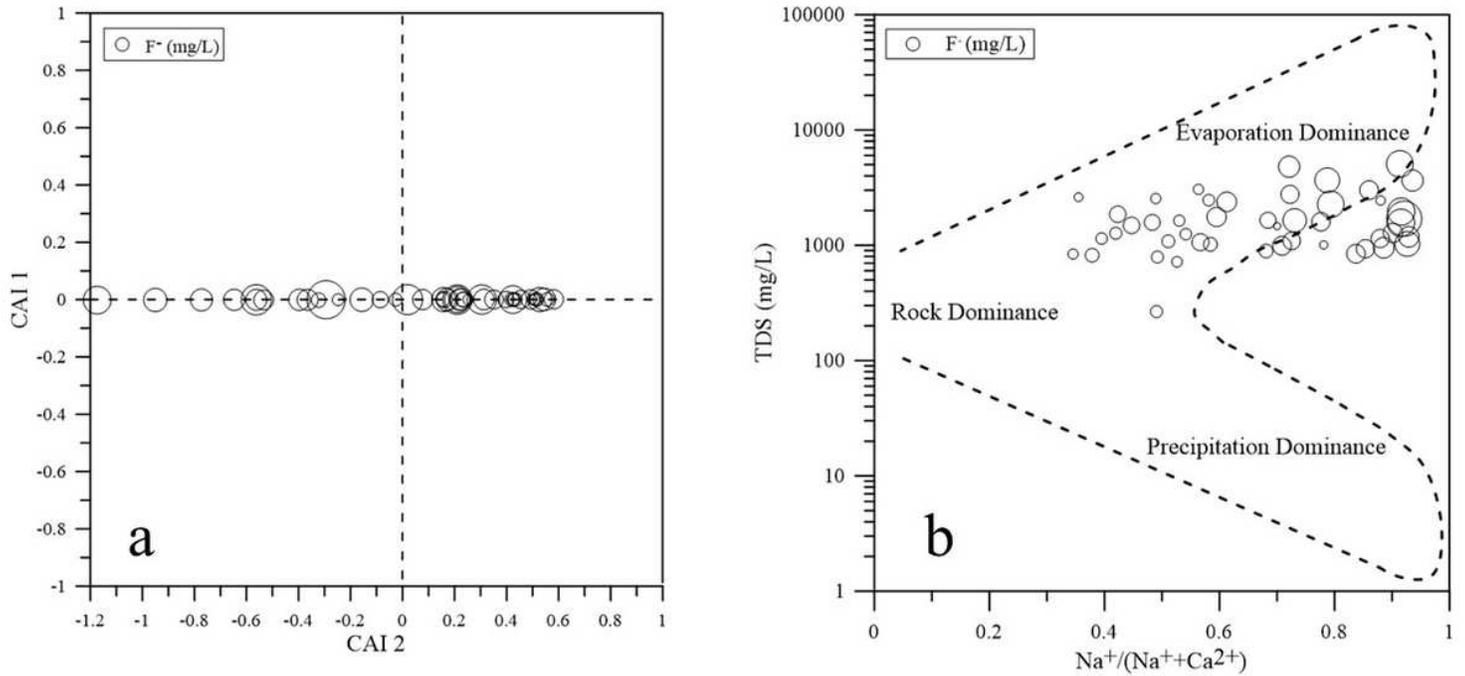


Figure 6

(a), Scatterplots of CAI 1 versus CAI 2 to verify cation exchange; (b) Gibbs diagram of groundwater samples.

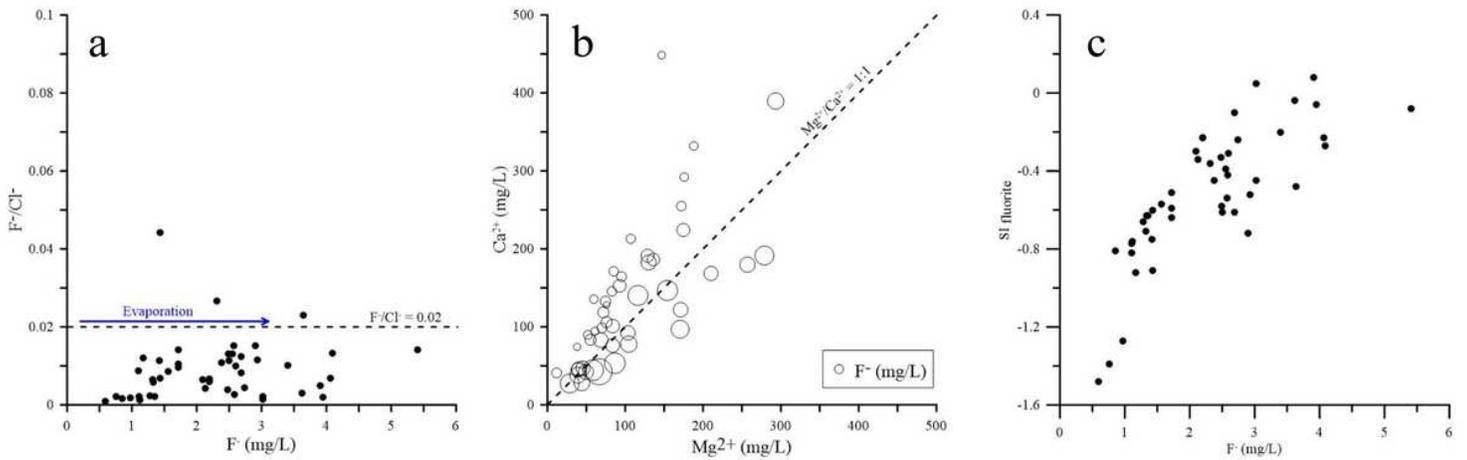


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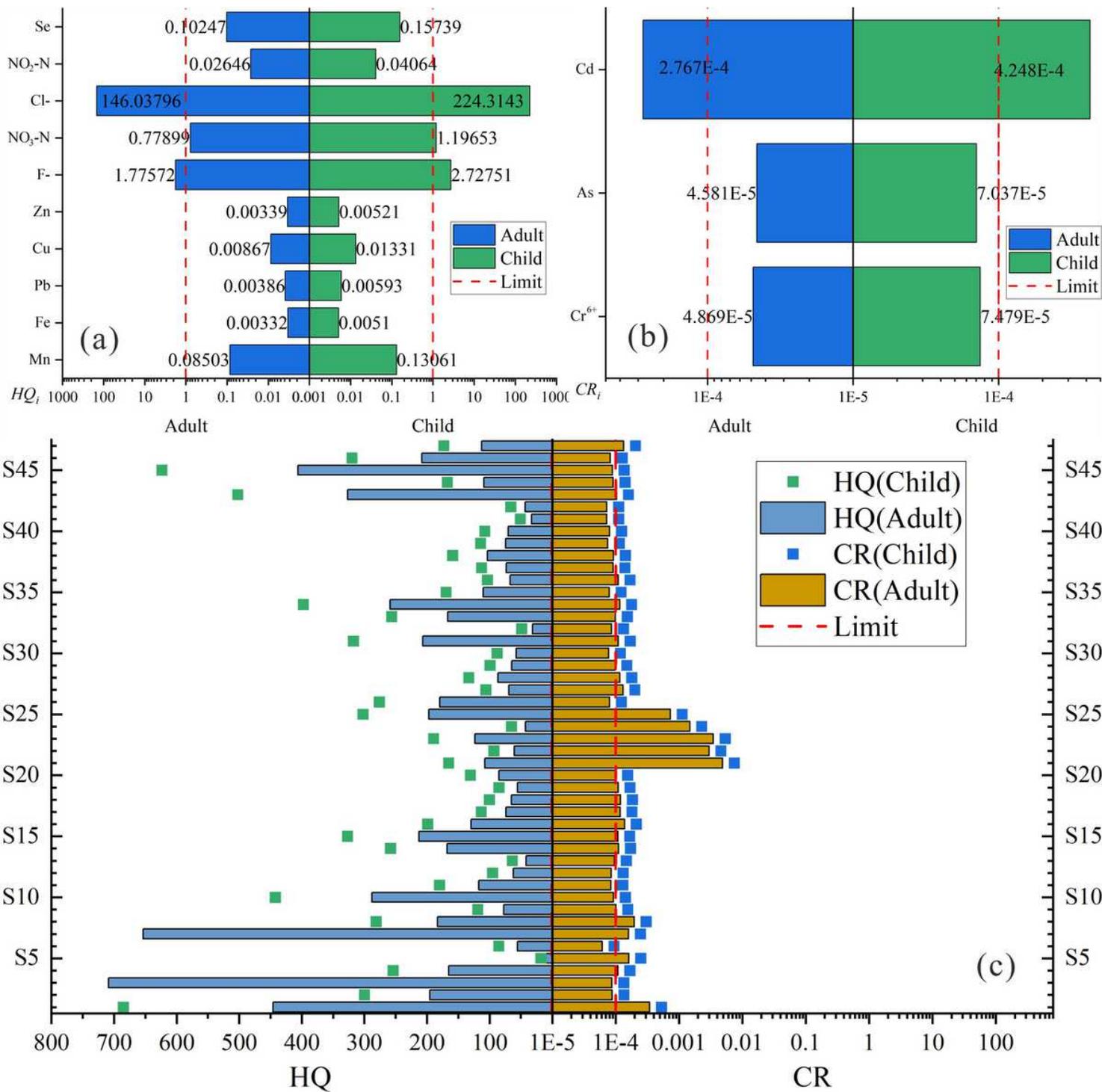


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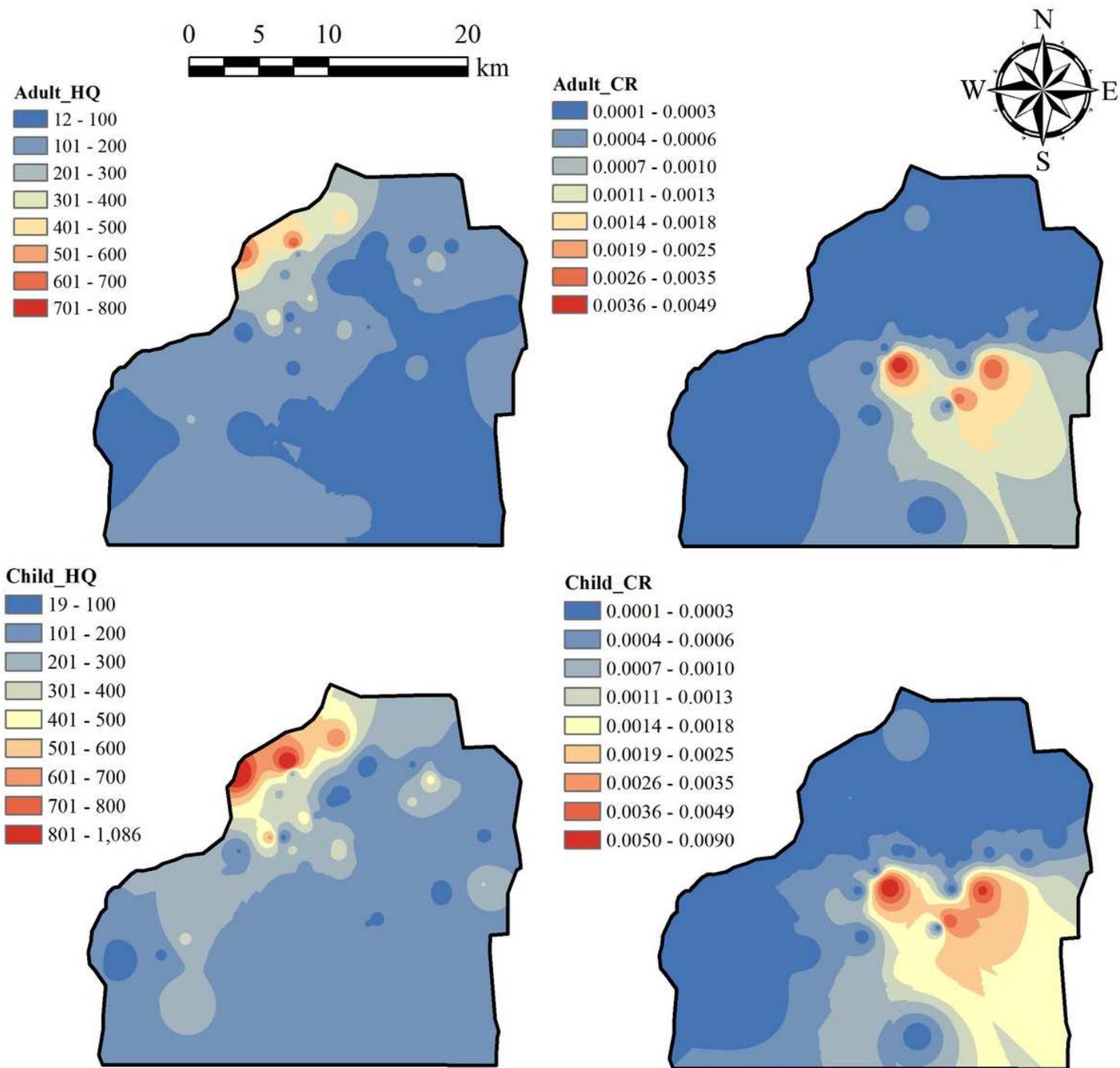


Figure 9

The distribution of Adult_HQ, Adult_CR, Child_HQ and Child_CR.

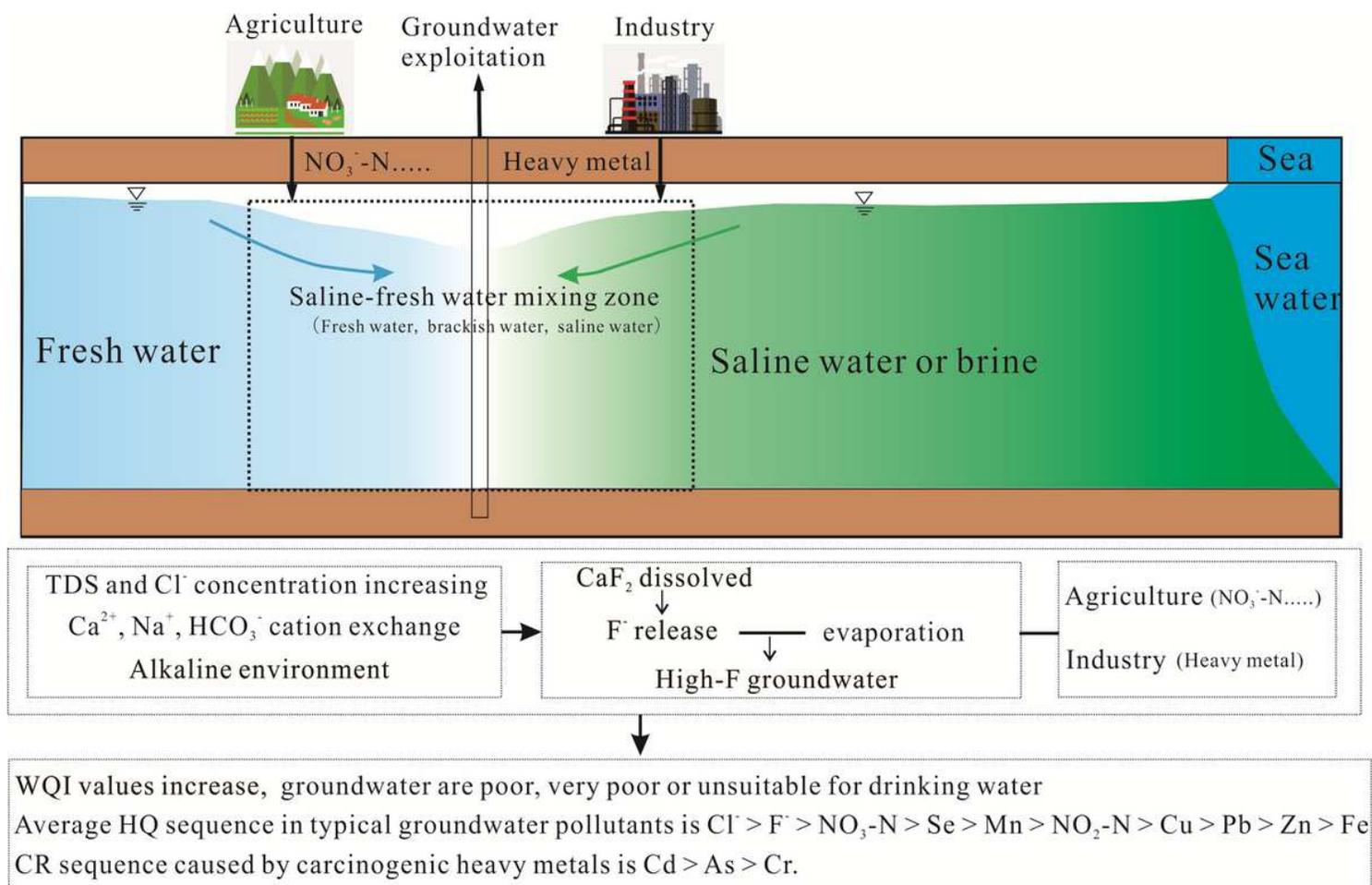


Figure 10

The conceptual model of groundwater environmental effects in saline-fresh water mixing zone.

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