

Spatial Prediction of Groundwater Potentiality Mapping Using Machine Learning Algorithms

Sunil Saha

University of Gour Banga

Amiya Gayen

University of Calcutta

Kaustuv Mukherjee

Chandidas University

Hamid Reza Pourghasemi (✉ hr.pourghasemi@shirazu.ac.ir)

Shiraz University <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2328-2998>

M. Santosh

University of Adelaide Press: The University of Adelaide

Research Article

Keywords: Groundwater potentiality, Decision tree, Naïve Bayes classifier, Random forest, Predictive neural network

Posted Date: March 22nd, 2021

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-303246/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

28 pond density, land use/land cover (LULC), geology, and soil texture) for evaluation through GIS.
29 The 85 dug wells and 1 piezometer locations were sub-divided into two classes: 70:30 for training
30 and model validation. The DT, RF, PNN, and NBC MLAs were implemented to analyse the
31 relationship between the dug well locations and groundwater influencing factors to generate
32 GWPMs. The results predict excellent groundwater potential areas (GPA) DT RF of 17.38%,
33 14.69%, 20.43%, and 13.97% of the study area, respectively. The prediction accuracy of each
34 GWPM was determined using a receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve. Using the 30% data
35 sets (validation data), accuracies of 80.1%, 78.30%, 75.20%, and 69.2% were obtained for the
36 PNN, RF, DT, and NBC models, respectively. The ROC values show that the four implemented
37 models provide satisfactory and suitable results for GWP mapping in this region. In addition, the
38 well-known mean decrease Gini (MDG) from the RF MLA was implemented to determine the
39 relative importance of the variables for groundwater potentiality assessment. The MDG revealed
40 that drainage density, lineament density, geomorphology, pond density, elevation, and stream
41 junction frequency were the most useful determinants of GWPM. Our approach to delineate the
42 GWPM can aid in the effective planning and management of groundwater resources in this region.

43 **Keywords:** Groundwater potentiality, Decision tree, Naïve Bayes classifier, Random forest,
44 Predictive neural network

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Groundwater scarcity and drinking water crisis are among the severe challenges that the planet is
47 facing in the future. Groundwater is the most valuable but diminishing resource, and proper
48 delineation and management strategies are required. According to the World Bank report of 2012,
49 India is a highly groundwater consuming country which uses approximately 230 km³ of
50 groundwater every year, which is greater than one-fourth of the global total (The World Bank

51 2012). If this trend continues, then in the coming 20 years, more than 60% of the Indian aquifers
52 will be in a critical condition. The Indian aquifers are mainly of two types: those in Peninsular
53 India, characterised by hard rock formation and low permeability and the alluvial aquifers of the
54 Indo-Gangetic plain which are major storehouses of groundwater (Suhag 2016). Currently,
55 groundwater demand is increasing due to the continuous evolution of primary and secondary
56 activities such as agriculture, urbanisation, and industry (Fetter 2001; Ettazarini and Jakani 2020).
57 Therefore, groundwater potentiality research is necessary to assess favourable circumstances for
58 water occurrence.

59 Groundwater potentiality depends on the hydrogeological background of the region, especially
60 aquifer properties, porosity, permeability, hydraulic conductivity of the aquifer materials, storage
61 capacity, and groundwater recharge. These are broadly dependent on physical characteristics such
62 as geology, geomorphology, drainage, rainfall, soil, and LULC (Golkarian et al., 2018). Varied
63 natural conditions lead to differences in groundwater yield and potential. Irrigation and unhindered
64 domestic use are rapidly destroying groundwater (GW) storage, especially in the zones of low GW
65 potential. Presently, unscientific management and unnecessary use of groundwater have impacted
66 groundwater recharge levels (Chaudhry et al. 2019). Therefore, groundwater potentiality
67 assessment is an adequate management strategy in these circumstances (Chen et al. 2019a, b).
68 Therefore, demarcation of the GW potential zone can help to identify the future prospects of GW
69 yield, which can guide the proper management of aquifers. It will also determine the intensity and
70 duration of GW yield in upcoming years and whether we should continue up drafting of water or
71 not. High-potential zones should be used for GW discharge and low zones should be avoided.
72 Hence, GW potential zone identification is the initial stage of mitigating the water scarcity problem
73 in a wide range of areas.

74 Research on groundwater potentiality mapping with the help of numerous well-accepted models.
75 Examples include the frequency ratio (Das 2019; Falah and Zeinivand 2019; Trabelsi et al. 2019),
76 weight of evidence (Khoshtinat et al. 2019), fuzzy logic (Taheri et al. 2020), analytic hierarchy
77 process (Chaudhry et al. 2019; Das 2019), and logistic regression (Rizeei et al. 2019; Nguyen et
78 al. 2020). Presently, these models are not used frequently because they do not solve multi-criteria
79 decision problems. Therefore, numerous machine learning approaches offer more effective and
80 efficient potential decisions using geographical information systems (GIS) and remote sensing
81 (RS) data (Kanevski et al. 2009; Micheletti et al. 2013). The major strength of machine learning
82 is its capability to handle data with high dimensionality and to map those with complex
83 classification issues. Guzman et al. (2015) used a support vector machine (SVM) and an artificial
84 neural network (ANN) to compare and predict GW potentiality. Their study shows that the SVM
85 model provides better results with respect to the ANN model in cases of groundwater level
86 forecasting. Sahoo et al. (2017) applied machine learning tools for change groundwater fluctuation
87 assessment in the productive cropping regions of the USA. Kenda et al. (2018) used machine
88 learning methods for groundwater modelling where decision trees, gradient boosting, linear
89 models, and random forests were used. The Gradient boosting model provided better results with
90 $R^2=0.644$, where the R^2 of the random forest model was 0.609. Lee et al. (2018) applied ANN and
91 SVM methods to determine groundwater potential. In this case, ANN has a greater prediction
92 accuracy (ROC=83.57%) than the SVM model (ROC=80.83%). Khosravi et al. (2018) used
93 machine learning techniques to map spring groundwater potentiality, whereas Shao and Campell
94 (2002) employed machine learning methods to predict the GW level. Chen et al. (2019) applied an
95 adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS) and ensemble models of biogeography-based
96 optimisation and teaching-learning based algorithms, but the ANFIS model showed better

97 prediction accuracy with an ROC of 86.6%. The various studies above confirm the potential of
98 machine learning algorithms to predict and assess groundwater-related issues. In this study, we
99 adopt state-of-the-art techniques in machine learning to prepare the GWPM of a highly GW-level
100 fluctuating block in Eastern India. The DT, PNN, and NBC have not been used together in previous
101 studies to predict GW in India. The main focus of this study was to identify and map the GWP of
102 the Md. The Bazar Block of Birbhum District and also assesses the groundwater controlling
103 efficiency of the predisposing factors with the MDG, which would help face the crisis of GW in
104 the pre-monsoon season. Our study offers better results in terms of classification, zonation, and
105 management of GW.

106 **2. Materials and methods**

107 **2.1 Study area**

108 Mahammad Bazar (Md. Bazar) region stretches from 23°55'N to 24°50' N and 87°25' E to 87°40'
109 E with an area covers 313.4 km² (Fig. 1b) in the Jharkhand adjacent western blocks of Birbhum
110 District (Fig.1a). This region was identified as one of the eleven drought-affected districts of West
111 Bengal (Deb and Nambiar 2010). It is the home of 164,570 people as per the Census of India,
112 2011, having 12-gram panchayets (administrative village units). This region has a warm monsoon
113 climate, where the temperature varies from 6°C to 40°C and annual precipitation is nearly 1,200
114 mm (Saha 2017). The western part of the block receives slightly higher rainfall and maximum
115 precipitation occurs during the monsoon period (July–September). The long gap in the rainy
116 season and the over-increasing pressure of agriculture lead to continuous updraft of GW for
117 irrigation which is one of the major issues in this region. The lack of sufficient rainfall creates
118 meteorological drought which turns into a hydrological drought, as is quite prominent in this
119 region, leading to the lack of proper groundwater recharge. Precise GW potentiality zoning is an

120 essential requirement for drought-affected regions. As per the data collected from CGWB's 85 dug
121 wells and one piezometer of Md. Bazar, water level has shown fluctuation from 0.7 metre to 10.47
122 metres in this block in between April 2016 to January 2017 (CGWB 2017). The average depth of
123 groundwater ranges from 30 to 100 mbgl (meter below ground level). aquifers are the main route
124 for recharging groundwater, which influences the water level. Md. Bazar area groundwater
125 recharge occurs (4-10 inches) in both anthropogenic and natural activities such as hydropower
126 dams, artificial canals, and check dams. This study area also falls under gneisses and associated
127 rocks, older alluvium, and older alluvium with lateritic types of aquifer media. The older alluvium
128 has moderate to high yield prospects, where older alluvium with laterite rocks has adverse or
129 limited yield prospects within 100 to 700 gpd/ft² hydraulic conductivity in the study area (Nakhaei
130 et al., 2015; Thapa et al., 2018).

131 **2.2 Thematic layers**

132 Various geo-environmental data layers were collected from different sources to accomplish the
133 objectives of this study. Initially, several methodologies were organised for the assessment of
134 GWPZs. The SOI (Survey of India) topographical maps were employed for the development of
135 DD map of the Md. Bazar block. The ASTER digital elevation model and Landsat-8 images were
136 used for the development of elevation, slope, TWI, and LULC maps. These two data were taken
137 from the USGS Earth Explorer. Geomorphology and lithology maps were collected from the
138 National Remote Sensing Centre, Hyderabad, at a scale of 1:50,000. Delineation and identification
139 of several types of spatial thematic layers aid in highlighting the tone, size, texture, colour,
140 association, and pattern (Table 1).

141

142 **2.3 Effective groundwater determining factors**

143 Elimination of predisposing factors for GWP mapping was based on the availability of data and
144 past research (Kaliraj et al. 2014; Agarwal and Garg 2016; Al-Abadi et al. 2016). The selected
145 factor maps with their thematic data were incorporated into the ArcGIS environment. A set of 15
146 × x15 toposheet maps were applied to calculate the stream junction density, pond density, and
147 drainage density. Elevation is considered by many researchers (Golkarian et al., 2018; Sachdeva
148 and Kumar, 2020) to be an important factor in GWPM. Elevation ranges from 13m to 120m in the
149 Md. Bazar (Fig. 2a). Elevation is associated with wind direction, temperature, and moisture levels;
150 therefore, it can enhance the rate of groundwater percolation (Magesh et al. 2012; Golkarian et al.
151 2018). Generally, there is a positive relationship between height and slope. Thus, a highly elevated
152 region leads to a higher slope which enhances the velocity of moving water and does not allow
153 downward infiltration of water. Slope is also a good indicator of the groundwater recharge process
154 (Goudie, 2013; Golkarian et al., 2018).

155 The LULC is less susceptible to groundwater potentiality because it tends to initiate groundwater
156 discharge (Balamurgan et al. 2016). A LULC map of this block was generated using Landsat8-
157 OLI (9th April 2016) imagery based on a supervised classification method and the results were
158 confirmed by applying Cohen's Kappa index with 89.6% Kappa value. The study area has seven
159 LULC classes: residential area, water bodies, agricultural land, waste land, mining area, forest
160 cover, and sand cover (Fig. 2b). The regional slope angle ranged from 0% to 7.25 %. Groundwater
161 percolation spreads down slopes more quickly than upslope slopes (Arabameri et al. 2019). It also
162 reveals the slope aspect, which impacts sunlight, precipitation, wind, and soil moisture (Gayen et
163 al. 2019) and the behaviour of groundwater recharge in the study area (Fig. 2c). Rainfall intensity
164 and duration also play important roles in groundwater storage (Shekhar and Pandey 2014).

165 Jothibasud and Anbazhagan (2016) noted that rainfall influences GPM accuracy and moving water
166 percolation. Climatologically, Md. The Bazar Block falls under a warm monsoon climate (Fig.
167 2d). Lineaments, pond, and drainage density dictate the permeability and structural characteristics
168 of an area that influences the movement of surface and subsurface water and can significantly
169 affect groundwater storage and movement through a hydraulic gradient. In general, locations
170 closer to the river have greater soil moisture and more groundwater, and proximity is positively
171 related to GWP (Fig. 2l). Lineaments define the weakness and linearly fractured zones and might
172 include linear features such as dykes and faults in the crust (Prasad et al. 2010; Magesh et al. 2012;
173 Goudie et al. 2013). Rahmati et al. (2015) showed that these factors have a significant influence
174 on the groundwater potentiality assessment. The maximum fracture zones were located in the
175 southern portion of the Md. Bazar block (Fig. 2 (e-f)). This block is mainly drained by two
176 perennial rivers, that is, River Dwarka and River Mayurakshi and numerous non-perennial
177 channels are also present mainly in the western part. The drainage density of this block was
178 classified into five classes (Fig. 2g): very high, very low, high, moderate, and low. The Drainage
179 density and groundwater permeability are inversely proportional to each other. Drainage density
180 and ponds are inversely related to groundwater recharge because very high drainage density is an
181 indication of more surface runoff in a region and vice versa (Fig. 2h). Junction denotes the
182 confluence areas of the two rivers and the chances of water availability are higher at the confluence
183 points (Fig. 2i). The TWI is used to assess the influence of topography on hydrogeomorphic
184 processes. It is an integration of the upstream area and slope within per unit width orthogonal to
185 the flow path. The TWI also helps to assessments soil environment and topography influence
186 intensity of an area. The TWI has been implemented for the assessment of the GWPZ (Golkarian

187 et al. 2018; Arabameri et al. 2019) and to describe spatial wetness patterns (Golkarian et al. 2018).
188 The calculation method of the TWI was proposed by Moore et al. (1991):

$$189 \quad TWI = \ln(\alpha/\tan \beta), \quad (1)$$

190 where α is the cumulative upslope area drainage per unit width orthogonal to the flow direction
191 and β is the inclination of the ground surface at the point (Fig. 2j).

192 Soil type is the most important predisposing factor for the assessment of the infiltration rate in any
193 region. The study area falls under six major soil types: sandy, clay loam, loamy, sandy loam, sandy
194 clay loam, and sandy clay. maximum area of the Md. Bazar blocks are covered by sandy loam and
195 clay loam soil types (Fig. 2k). Generally, the potentiality of the groundwater infiltration rate is
196 higher in sandy regions than in loamy or clayey strata. Table 2 shows the characteristics of various
197 soil textures and their impact on the groundwater infiltration of this block. The Md. The Bazar
198 Block is composed of two major geological formations. The western part is dominated by pink
199 granite, whereas rocks belonging to the Vindhyan Formation occur to the east (Fig. 2m). The
200 pisolitic and kankar ferruginous concretions were mostly found in the laterite track. Some parts of
201 the block are covered by basaltic rocks and younger alluvium. The block falls under three primary
202 geomorphological regions: depositional plan, anthropogenic origin, and denudational plan (Fig.
203 2n). The western part of this block is characterised by undulating and rugged topography;
204 therefore, the soil erosion rate is high in this part, with the decomposed and eroded materials
205 settling down in the eastern part of this block, generating depositional landforms.

206 **2.4 Methods**

207 The RF, PNN, DT, and NBC MLMs were used for the GWP. All the implemented models'
208 algorithms were suitable with R version 4.0.0 (Zamanirad et al., 2019). first, the ArcGIS spatial
209 analysis tool (random partition algorithm) was used for classification of 85 dug wells and the

210 location of the piezometer as occurrence (assigned as “1”) and 24 dug well location as non-
211 occurrence (assigned as “0”). The dug well location with periods of low water table in the well
212 was carried out in the study area. The 12 predisposing factor raster values for each dug well
213 location were added to the R environment to run each model’s algorithms. The spatial data
214 generated by the individual model were imported in ArcGIS 10.2, and subsequently classified
215 using the natural-break method (North 2009; Razavi Termeh et al. 2018). For the assessment of
216 the water quality index, 31 well locations were considered as sample data for the water chemical
217 test (Figure 1).

218 **2.4.1 Machine learning models for the GWPM**

219 ***2.4.1.1 Decision tree (DT)***

220 The decision tree is a hierarchical model-based decision-support method. The DT model simplifies
221 the decision rules by accurately splitting independent factors into uniform zones (Loh and Shih
222 1997; Lee and Lee 2015). They split into well locations and non-wells for groundwater potentiality
223 based on the spatial interaction between the dug well locations and each predisposing factor. The
224 DT model is different from other statistical models because it does not make any statistical
225 assumptions. The DT model is computationally advanced and can also trickle data illustrated on
226 various measurement scales (Pal and Mather 2003). In this study, a data-driven model, such as DT,
227 was adopted to obtain a more precise and reliable prediction of groundwater potentiality.

228 ***2.4.1.2 Random forest (RF)***

229 Random forest is a well-known machine learning algorithm for both regression and classification
230 tasks (Breiman, 2001; Naghibi et al. 2017; Mandal and Pal, 2020). For regression and classification
231 of the training datasets, researchers will attempt to develop a decision tree (DT) for class-wise
232 output extraction and to acquire the dependent variable (Sachdeva and Kumar, 2020). This

233 algorithm is structured by numerous DTs and composites to determine the relationship between
234 the factors affecting groundwater and dug well occurrence (Kim et al. 2018). The convenience of
235 the RF algorithm with respect to other algorithms is as follows: First, it can solve the overfitting
236 problems of the datasets as well as manage big datasets with various dimensionality in nature.
237 second, it does not need any hypotheses within the response variable and explanatory variables.
238 third, it does not require any previous data to rescale and transform the datasets (Elmahdyet al.,
239 2020). The RF classification adopted resampling methods by randomly transferring the predictive
240 factors to enhance the diversity in every tree (Naghbi et al. 2017). The notation of the predictive
241 variable is defined as $\log_2(M + 1)$, where M is the total input number within the algorithm. The
242 RF model determines the split at each node with the help of predictive variables and the number
243 of trees (Kim et al. 2018). The average prediction of the tree is computed as:

$$244 \quad S = \frac{1}{K} \sum K^{th} v^{response}, \quad (2)$$

245 where S is any groundwater prediction and K represents the separate trees in the algorithm.

246 **2.4.1.3 Naïve Bayes Classifier (NBC)**

247 The NBC is a well-accepted ML classifier algorithm which is developed based on Bayes' rule, and
248 it acts through an independent of variables assumption (Soria et al. 2011). The importance of the
249 NBC is that it is very simple for estimation schemes for modelling that do not require any kind of
250 complex iterative parameter (We et al. 2008). Previously, the NBC model was effectively
251 implemented for the assessment of gully erosion and landslide susceptibility (Chen et al., 2019).
252 In this work, the NBC model was generated by using "rminer" package on R 3.0.2 software
253 environment (Cortez 2016).

254

255 **2.4.1.4 Predictive Neural Network (PNN)**

256 The PNN is another type of neural network model which estimates the potentiality or susceptibility
257 with the help of classified sample data (Azimi et al. 2018). This method was developed based on
258 probability density algorithms. In fact, these PNN models solve the clustering problems generated
259 during the implementation of Bayesian decision theory. These networks were developed through
260 the implementation of two layers. In this implemented network, the second layer, dissimilar to
261 other networks, targets the outcomes in the vector form with values ranging between 1 and 0
262 (Azimi et al. 2018; Dou et al. 2018). In this work, first, the continuous values were converted
263 through a fuzzy membership function and newly developed values were applied as input layers in
264 the PNN model. In this algorithm, 0.5 values denote false membership when contrast value is '0'.
265 The degrees of negative and positive divergence ranged from 1 to 0. A sizeable fuzzy function was
266 implemented, which was subtracted from the contrast. It is necessary to have positive values and
267 to be efficient in dealing with classes that do not acquire any training points, as there are no chances
268 of any contrast value (CV). In general, CV denotes the characteristics of the control layer from the
269 output table. For the inauguration of fuzzy logic, at first the layers were first mixed through the
270 conditional operator processes, as mentioned in the previous sections. For locate and determine
271 the class points, the GWPI raster layer was considered as the criterion. The raster values were then
272 converted into three different seats to demarcate the situation of the two "occurrence" and "non-
273 occurrence" points. The newly developed data layer was implemented to demarcate the
274 membership severity of the two individual classes (Azimi et al. 2018; Dou et al. 2018). Finally,
275 the criterion of the potential index, the potential of groundwater, was employed into four classes.

276

277

278 **2.5 Validation of GWPMs**

279 model prediction assessment is an essential task for evaluating the methodological implications of
280 a study (Obeidavi et al., 2021). Here, the researchers were used the AUC-ROC (area under the
281 curve) to estimate the prediction efficiency of the implemented models. This is a pectoral
282 representation of model performance through a diagnostic test (Sachdeva and Kumar, 2020). The
283 AUC indicates the model sensitivity by plotting the actual prediction of groundwater on the
284 vertical axis (Y) and the false prediction of groundwater on the horizontal axis (X) (Gayen et al.
285 2018; Gayen et al. 2019). The implemented model's prediction of non-occurrence and occurrence
286 of groundwater locations was identified using the AUC. The AUC value extends from 1 to 0.5; a
287 lower value indicates a lower performance efficiency of the models (Chen et al. 2019; Obeidavi et
288 al., 2021).

289 **2.6 Water quality index (WQI)**

290 WQI is a rating of overall water quality, which is influenced by individual parameters of water
291 quality. This is calculated in terms of the level of human consumption. The World Health
292 Organization (WHO) proposed a standard level for drinking purposes for WQI calculations.

293 The entire WQI methodology was conducted in three stages. In the initial stage, 11 parameters
294 (EC, HCO₃, Ph, TH, Cl, Na, Ca, F, Mg, K, and SO₄) were considered and given their weight (W_i)
295 with respect to their degree of influence on human health (Nik and Pirohit, 2001) (Table 3). The
296 weight was assigned from 1 to 4 based on their influence on water quality (Srinivasamoorthy et
297 al., 2008). Subsequently, the individual parameter relative weight (W_i) was calculated using
298 Equation 3:

299
$$W_i = \frac{w_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i} \quad (3)$$

300 where w_i denotes the weight and n is the total number of selected parameters. The standard values
 301 and relative weights proposed by the WHO are listed in Table 3. In the next step, Equation 4 was
 302 used to calculate the quality rating scale (q_i):

303
$$q_i = \frac{C_i}{S_i} \times 100 \quad (4)$$

304 where C_i and S_i represent the actual and WHO standard concentrations of individual chemical
 305 compositions in milligrammes per litre.

306 In the last stage, the WQI was calculated using the sub-index of the i th parameter (S_{li}). The S_{li}
 307 was calculated based on Equation 5 and finally, WQI was computed using Equation 6:

308
$$S_{li} = q_i \times W_i \quad (5)$$

309
$$WQI = \sum S_{li} \quad (6)$$

310 The WQI was classified into five classes: unsuitable for human consumption, very poor, poor,
 311 good, and excellent (Sahu and Sikdar, 2008; Yidana and Yidana, 2010).

312 **3. Results**

313 ***3.1 Groundwater potentiality models***

314 The GWPMs were developed using the four well-accepted MLAs (Figs. 3 (a-c)). The groundwater
 315 prediction probability produced by each model were divided into four classes as mentioned above
 316 with the help of natural-break statistics (Razavi Termeh et al. 2018). The GWPM developed with
 317 the RF model exhibits values ranging from 0.0 1.0. The excellent and good groundwater potential

318 zones cover 14.69% and 5.13% of the study area, respectively. Poor and moderate potentiality
319 zones make up 73.37% and 6.81% of the total area, respectively (Table 4). The PNN model
320 generated prediction values from 0.00 to 1.0. The results revealed that 13.97% and 4.09% of the Md.
321 Bazar area cover an excellent and good potential for groundwater. The poor and moderate GWP
322 classes cover 76.28% and 5.67% of the Md. Bazar blocks (Table 3). The DT potentiality values
323 range from 0.00 to 1.0 and classify 17.38%, 8.82%, 7.98%, and 65.81% as zones of excellent,
324 good, moderate, and poor GWP (Table 3). The NBC model generated prediction values ranges
325 from 0.00 to 1.0, and identified 20.43% and 3.77% of the study region as having excellent and
326 good potentiality to groundwater, respectively. poor and moderate GWP accounted for 75.81% of
327 the total study area. It is clear in all groundwater potential maps; the maximum probable
328 groundwater areas are found in the southern part of this block. Concurrent with the output from
329 the four models, it is revealed that the DT) model generates GWPM that is discontinuous in
330 manner, whereas the NBC, RF, and PNN models provide smooth patterns of GWP maps.

331 ***3.2 Assessment of the relative importance of the effective factors***

332 It is vital to visualise the relationships between the selection factors and dug well locations to
333 evaluate the significance of each factor in the upliftment of groundwater recharge (Fig. 4).
334 Generally, the natural recharge of groundwater is impacted by different predisposing factors
335 (Conforti et al., 2010). The MDG is implemented to assess the relative importance of the variables
336 in the implemented models. The RF-based MDG algorithm was first introduced by Breiman in
337 2001 in concert with decision trees (Zang et al. 2017). The statistical software R 3.3.3, was applied
338 for “RF” analysis (Breiman 2001). The MDG values range from 34.12 to 185.73. Drainage density
339 (185.73), lineament density (162.61), stream junction density (151.35), pond density (126.25), and
340 elevation (101.82) were the most important factors. These were followed in terms of slope (83.01),

341 geomorphology (82.85), TWI (80.26), geology (72.32), soil texture (62.96), LULC (42.16), and
342 rainfall (34.12). All 12 predisposing factors were subjected to the modelling purposes, because all
343 are contributors to groundwater potentiality occurrence. maximum area of the Md. Bazar blocks
344 fall under agricultural land, which is favourable for groundwater storage. The southwestern and
345 northeastern parts of this block are covered by forests. In the southern part of this block, the
346 probability of groundwater storage is higher because of the presence of a water reservoir.

347 ***3.3 Validation of four models***

348 The results of the ROC curve indicated that the PNN, RF, DT, and NBC models had 80.1%, 78.3%,
349 75.2%, and 69.2% accuracy, respectively, with a significance level of 0.00 (Fig. 5). The ROC
350 values range from 0.69 to 0.8, demonstrating that all four models have reasonable and good GWP
351 prediction capacities. Finally, the outcome of the implemented four models, that is, PNN, RF, DT,
352 and NBC, the PNN offered more predictive accuracy. When applying the NBC algorithms with a
353 small number of variables, the training accuracy is not influenced by the increasing training data
354 size. However, such inconsistencies do not occur in the cases of RF, PNN, and DT in the cases of
355 the GWP models.

356 **3.4 Assessment of water quality**

357 Table 5 shows the locational distribution of WQI in Md. Bazar area. The WQI values ranged from
358 34.94 to 126.29. The highest and lowest WQI values were observed in the Ganpur (sample 1) and
359 Khayrakuri (sample 31) villages, respectively. The Maximum sample areas fell under good and
360 excellent water quality classes, so people can use ground water for drinking purposes. portable
361 water was found in the location of poor to moderate GWP areas and poor water was found in the
362 location of excellent GWP areas. The cause of the adverse situation may be the cause of the uneven

363 distribution of the net recharge. The net recharge indicates the amount of water that infiltrated into
364 the aquifer. The infiltration route of transportation is a key route of **contaminants, even** though
365 the penetration of groundwater dilutes the number of contaminants recharging into the aquifer
366 (Thapa et al., 2018).

367 **4. Discussion**

368 The elevation and slope were very low in the southeastern portion of this Md. Bazar block.
369 Groundwater recharge is negatively related to the elevation of the study area. Thus, locations that
370 are situated in low-elevation areas show high groundwater potential in particular regions of the
371 study area rather than the overall study area. Machine learning and statistical models have been
372 implemented to produce GWP and flood susceptibility with highly satisfactory results (Avana and
373 Moradi, 2021; Kamali et al., 2020). Four machine-learning algorithms, RF, PNN, DT, and NBC,
374 were used to delineate GWP zones in the Md. Bazar Block. Previous studies, including those by
375 Tsangaratos and Ilia (2016), compared the naïve Bayes and logistic regression models for landslide
376 probability assessment. The outcome of these models revealed that the NB model had a lower
377 prediction error than the LR model. However, in the field of groundwater potentiality, validation
378 datasets are used for the PNN, RF, and DT models, which provide good results. The NB model
379 did not provide high prediction accuracy with respect to the PNN, RF, and DT models. Generally,
380 AUC is a holistic approach for accuracy assessment because it acts on false negative, true negative,
381 false positive, and true positive (Pal and Mandal, 2019). The PNN, RF, and DT models do not
382 require a very good improving ability of multimodal optimisation and nonlinear problems and the
383 primary solution to start its iteration system (Dou et al. 2018). The NB also had some good
384 characteristics for probability prediction, that is, more flexibility, permission for adequate
385 integration, and high learning ability. Nevertheless, the NB model shows higher acceleration than

386 the PNN, RF, and DT models, meaning that the NB model works with fewer training data, although
387 in this groundwater potentiality study, the predictive capacity is not remarkable. The results are
388 discussed briefly below.

389 *4.1 Comparison of models*

390 Diverse MLAs have been implemented to assess GWP mapping, such as multivariate adaptive
391 regression splines (MARS) (Golkarian et al., 2018), random forest (Ho 1995; Breiman 2001),
392 RBFANN (Chen et al., 1991), BPANN (Hagan et al. 1996), and ANFIS (Jang et al. 1996; Razavi-
393 Termeh et al., 2019). The ANFIS and BPANN (Satir et al. 2016) were used to assess the
394 groundwater susceptibility. In the case of nonlinear modelling, Lee and Kwak (2016) postulated
395 the potential of the RBFANN. The MARS model was also applied by West et al. (2016) for ground
396 water modelling with better results. Several studies, including the statistical model, Mamdani
397 fuzzy logic model (FLM) and advanced analytical hierarchy model, are used to model groundwater
398 potentiality (Gigovic et al. 2019). The results from these studies show that the FLM has better
399 prediction accuracy. The MARS-DFP, fuzzy AHP, and ANFIS models have also been applied to
400 forest fire susceptibility (FFS) studies (Jang et al. 1998; Razavi-Termeh et al., 2020). The ensemble
401 model and MARS-DFP models were the best models in this study. In the present work, based on
402 the ROC and AUC evaluations, the PNN was the best suited model for ground water potentiality
403 modelling among the four studied models. In other studies, such as floods, landslides and
404 assessments of spring potential, ANN and RF have also provided good results. In the sense of no
405 over-feeding of data, the PNN model is the most important model. It consists of multiple decision
406 trees with an interaction between predisposing factors and non-linearity (Catani et al., 2013; Kim
407 et al., 2018). It was also observed that RF performed well (78.3 % accuracy from AUC
408 assessments) (Fig. 5). The weaker results of the NBC are due to the data over-fitting problem

409 (Golkarian et al. 2018). The PNN is a promising method that can be applied to map the GWP at
410 local to regional scales. The applied model AUC values are more than 0.75, indicating that all
411 three models are reliable for estimating the GWPZ in the study region. The Results from the PNN
412 and RF GWP maps provide good results, similar to previous susceptibility assessment studies with
413 RF and PNN (of floods, gully erosion, and landslides. Excellent outputs will demark very high and
414 high classes with less variance or more consistently (Naghibi et al. 2017). The models generated
415 four classes of results, revealing that those generated by the PNN and RF have strong predictive
416 capacity with the lowest percentage of variation within the implemented models. The AUC results
417 were nearly identical, and we can conclude that the implemented models are useful for GWPZ
418 mapping in the study area. The PNN, RF, and DT models can be implemented for various spatial
419 probability modelling, that is, gully erosion, landslides, floods, and other endeavors at small and
420 large scales in other places.

421 ***4.2 Importance of effective factors***

422 The importance of the twelve-groundwater controlling factors was determined by applying the
423 MDG algorithm to the RF method. The results showed that drainage density, lineament density,
424 stream junction density, and pond density are of the highest importance, whereas topographical
425 wetness index, land use, and soil texture are the least important. Pourtaghi et al. (2015) concluded
426 that soil type, land use, and geomorphology were the most significant factors that promoted
427 groundwater potentiality. On the other hand, Hong et al. (2017) reported that average soil type,
428 slope, and vegetation cover were factors that had the greatest influence on groundwater occurrence.
429 Ahearn et al. (2005) established that LULC is an important and effective factor for controlling the
430 efficiency of hydrological processes (that is, land alteration, surface runoff, infiltration, over-
431 grazing, and evapotranspiration. Rainfall has been reason is a highly influential factor in

432 controlling the efficiency of soil wetness and the condition of vegetation and the inverse, dry
433 conditions, promote desiccation of soil and vegetation and decrease GWP. Elevation and slope are
434 also factors conducive to groundwater to control the percolation rate, local climate, and sun
435 intensity. Generally, a larger slope angle increases the effects of gravitational forces. Furthermore,
436 groundwater potentiality increases more rapidly down slopes and more slowly up-slopes (Kushla
437 and Ripple 1997). Climatic factors also significantly affect groundwater conditions (Hong et al.
438 2018). Parisien et al. (2016) also emphasised the relationships among soil types, geological
439 conditions, and land use types. The most significant predisposing factors included in the GWP
440 assessment are drainage density, lineament density, and stream junction frequency because the
441 drainage defines the depression zones where the water accumulates and lineament defines the
442 weakness and fractured zones by which accelerated surface water recharge and infiltration in the
443 study area.

444 **5. Conclusion**

445 Continuous loss of groundwater and surface water in Md. Bazar in Eastern India demands effective
446 and suitable modelling of the GWP map. For proper analysis of groundwater condition, various
447 models have been used around the world. After a critical evaluation of this study, several MLAs
448 were implemented to delineate the GWP zones. Based on data from field investigations and
449 previous studies, 12 groundwater effective factors were overlaid on a GIS platform for
450 groundwater potentiality assessment. These factor layers were integrated with the RF, PNN, DT,
451 and NBC models. The DT, RF, NBC, and PNN models identified 17.38%, 14.69%, 20.43%, and
452 13.97%, respectively, of the study area to have excellent groundwater potentiality and 65.81%,
453 73.37%, and 71.17%, and 76.28% poor groundwater potential in the study region. The results
454 indicate that this region faces vulnerable situations in the future if proper water management

455 schemes are not implemented. The results of the models were confirmed by the ROC curve. The
456 ROC results reveal that the PNN, RF, and DT models are more efficient than the NBC model for
457 evaluating groundwater resources. The drainage density, lineament density, pond density, and
458 stream junction density were the most effective factors for groundwater potentiality. The findings
459 of this research should be used for environmental protection, groundwater resource management,
460 groundwater contamination, and land use planning by private and local governmental agencies in
461 the Md. Bazar Block of Birbhum District, India. further groundwater recharge processes and their
462 management processes are required for the investigation of Md. Bazar Block.

463 **Acknowledgment**

464 This work was supported by College of Agriculture, Shiraz University (Grant No. 98GRC1M271143).
465

466 **Ethical Approval**

467 Not applicable.

468 **Consent to Participate**

469 Not applicable.

470 **Consent to Publish**

471 Not applicable.

472 **Authors Contributions**

473 SS, AG, KM, HRP, and MS designed experiments, run models, analyzed results, wrote and
474 reviewed manuscript.
475

476 **Availability of data and materials**

477 Data will send based on request.

478 **Conflicts of Interest:** “The authors declare no conflict of interest.”

479 **Funding:** The study was supported by the College of Agriculture, Shiraz University (Grant No.
480 96GRC1M271143).

481

482 **References**

483 Agarwal, R., & Garg, P. K. (2016). Remote sensing and GIS based groundwater potential &
484 recharge zones mapping using multi criteria decision making technique. *Water Resour. Manag.* 30
485 (1), 243–260.

486 Ahearn, D. S., Sheibley, R. W., Dahlgren, R. A., Anderson, M., Johnson, J., & Tate, K. W. (2005).
487 Land use and land cover influence on water quality in the last free-flowing river draining the
488 western Sierra Nevada, California. *Journal of Hydrology*, 313(3-4), 234-247.

489 Al-Abadi, A. M., Al-Temmeme, A. A., & Al-Ghanimy, M. A. (2016). A GIS-based combining of
490 frequency ratio and index of entropy approaches for mapping groundwater availability zones at
491 Badra–Al Al-Gharbi–Teeb areas, Iraq. *Sustain. Water Resour. Manag.* 2, 265–283.

492 Arabameri, A., Rezaei, K., Cerda, A., Lombardo, L., & Rodrigo-Comino, J. (2019). GIS-based
493 groundwater potential mapping in Shahroud plain, Iran. A comparison among statistical (bivariate
494 and multivariate), data mining and MCDM approaches. *Science of the Total Environment*, 658,
495 160–177.

496 Avand, M., & Moradi, H. (2021). Spatial Modeling of Flood Probability Using Geo-
497 Environmental Variables and Machine Learning Models, Case Study: Tajan Watershed,
498 Iran. *Advances in Space Research*.

499 Azimi, S., Azhdary, M. Z., & Hashemi Monfared, S. A. (2018). Prediction of annual drinking
500 water quality reduction based on Groundwater Resource Index using the artificial neural network
501 and fuzzy clustering. *Contaminant Hydrology*, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconhyd.2018.10.010>

502 Balamurugan, G., Seshan, K., & Bera, S. (2017). Frequency ratio model for groundwater potential
503 mapping and its sustainable management in cold desert, India. *Journal of King Saud University -*
504 *Science*, 29(3), 333–347.

505 Breiman, L. (2001). Random forests. *Machine learning*, 45(1), 5-32.

506 Catani, F., Lagomarsino, D., Segoni, S. & Tofani, V. (2013). Landslide susceptibility estimation
507 by random forests technique: sensitivity and scaling issues. *Natural Hazards and Earth System*
508 *Sciences*, 13(11), 2815-2831.

509 Chaudhry, A. K., Kumar, K., & Alam, M. A. (2019). Mapping of groundwater potential zones
510 using the fuzzy analytic hierarchy process and geospatial technique. *Geocarto International*, 1-22.

511 Chen, W., Panahi, M., Tsangaratos, P., Shahabi, H., Ilia, I., Panahi, S., & Ahmad, B. B. (2019b).
512 Applying population-based evolutionary algorithms and a neuro-fuzzy system for modeling
513 landslide susceptibility. *Catena*, 172, 212-231.

514 Chen, W., Tsangaratos, P., Ilia, I., Duan, Z., & Chen, X. (2019). Groundwater spring potential
515 mapping using population-based evolutionary algorithms and data mining methods. *Science of The*
516 *Total Environment*, 684, 31-49.

517 Conforti, M., Aucelli, P. P., Robustelli, G., Scarciglia, F. (2010). Geomorphology and GIS analysis
518 for mapping gully erosion susceptibility in the Turbolo stream catchment (Northern Calabria,
519 Italy). *Nat. Hazards*, 56 (3), 881–898.

520 Cortez, P. (2016). Package ‘rminer’; Date/Publication 2016-09-02 22:48:18; pp. 59.

521 Das, S. (2019). Comparison among influencing factor, frequency ratio, and analytical hierarchy
522 process techniques for groundwater potential zonation in Vaitarna basin, Maharashtra,
523 India. *Groundwater for Sustainable Development*, 8, 617-629.

524 Dou, J., Yamagishi, H., Zhu, Z., Yunus, A. P., & Chen, C. W. (2018). TXT-tool 1.081-6.1 A
525 Comparative Study of the Binary Logistic Regression (BLR) and Artificial Neural Network
526 (ANN) Models for GIS-Based Spatial Predicting Landslides at a Regional Scale. *Landslide*
527 *Dynamics: ISDR-ICL Landslide Interactive Teaching Tools*. Springer.

528 Elmahdy, S. I., Mohamed, M. M., Ali, T. A., Abdalla, J. E. D., & Abouleish, M. (2020). Land
529 subsidence and sinkholes susceptibility mapping and analysis using random forest and frequency
530 ratio models in Al Ain, UAE. *Geocarto International*, 1-17.

531 Falah, F., & Zeinivand, H. (2019). GIS-Based Groundwater Potential Mapping in Khorramabad
532 in Lorestan, Iran, using Frequency Ratio (FR) and Weights of Evidence (WoE) Models. *Water*
533 *Resources*, 46(5), 679-692.

534 Golkarian, A., Naghibi, S. A., Kalantar, B., & Pradhan, B. (2018). Groundwater potential mapping
535 using C5. 0, random forest, and multivariate adaptive regression spline models in
536 GIS. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*, 190(3), 1-16.

537 Goudie, A.S. (2003). *Encyclopedia of Geomorphology*. Routledge, London

538 Guzman, S. M., Paz, J.O., Tagert, M. L. M., & Mercer, A. (2015). Artificial neural networks and
539 support vector machines: Contrast study for groundwater level prediction. In: Paper Presented at
540 the 2015 ASABE Annual International Meeting

541 Hagan, M. T., Demuth, H. B., & Beale, M. H. (1996). *Neural Network Design*. PWS Publishing
542 Co., Boston, MA, USA.

543 Ho, T. K. (1995). Random decision forests. In: *Proceedings of 3rd International Conference on*
544 *Document Analysis and Recognition* 271. pp. 278–282.

545 Hong, H., Tsangaratos, P., Ilia, I., Liu, J., Zhu, A., & Xu, C. (2018). Applying genetic algorithms
546 to set the optimal combination of forest related variables and model forest related susceptibility
547 based on data mining models. The case of Dayu County, China. *Science of the Total Environment*,
548 630, 1044-1056.

549 Hong, H., Tsangaratos, P., Ilia, L., Chen, W., & Xu, C. (2017). Comparing the performance of a
550 logistic regression and a random forest model in landslide susceptibility assessments. The Case of
551 Wuyaun Area, China. *Workshop on World Landslide Forum*, pp. 1043–1050.

552 Jang, J. S. R., Sun, C. T., Mizutani, E. (1996). Neuro-fuzzy and soft Computing-a Computational
553 approach to learning and machine intelligence. *IEEE Transaction on Automatic Control*, 42, 1482-
554 1484.

555 Jothibas, A., & Anbazhagan, S. (2016). Modeling groundwater probability index in Ponnaiyar
556 River basin of South India using analytic hierarchy process. *Model. Earth Syst. Environ.* 2, 109.

557 Kaliraj, S., Chandrasekar, N., & Magesh, N. S. (2014). Identification of potential groundwater
558 recharge zones in vaigai upper basin, Tamil Nadu, using GIS-based analytical hierarchical process
559 (AHP) technique. *Arab. J. Geosci.* 7, 1385–1401.

560 Kamali Maskooni, E., Naghibi, S. A., Hashemi, H., & Berndtsson, R. (2020). Application of
561 advanced machine learning algorithms to assess groundwater potential using remote sensing-
562 derived data. *Remote Sensing*, 12(17), 2742.

563 Kanevski, M., Pozdnoukhov, A., & Timonin, V. (2009). Machine Learning for Spatial
564 Environmental Data. EPFL Press, Lausanne, Switzerland, p. 392.

565 Khoshtinat, S., Aminnejad, B., Hassanzadeh, Y., & Ahmadi, H. (2019). Application of GIS-based
566 models of weights of evidence, weighting factor, and statistical index in spatial modeling of
567 groundwater. *Journal of Hydroinformatics*, 21(5), 745-760.

568 Khosravi, K., Panahi, M., & Tien Bui, D. (2018). Spatial prediction of groundwater spring
569 potential mapping based on adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system and metaheuristic
570 optimization. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.* 22, 4771–4792.

571 Kim, J. C., Lee, S., Jung, H. S. & Lee, S. (2018). Landslide susceptibility mapping using random
572 forest and boosted tree models in Pyeong-Chang, Korea. *Geocarto international*, 33(9), 1000-
573 1015.

574 Klemen Kenda, K., Čerin, M., Bogataj, M., Senožetnik, M., Klemen, K., Pergar, P., Laspidou, C.,
575 & Mladenčić, D. (2018). Groundwater Modeling with Machine Learning Techniques: Ljubljana
576 polje Aquifer. *Proceedings*, 2, 697.

577 Kushla, J. D., & Ripple, W. J. (1997). The role of terrain in a fire mosaic of a temperate coniferous
578 forest. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 95, 97-107.

579 Lee, M. W., & Kwak, K. C. (2016). An incremental radial basis function network based on
580 information granules and its application. *Comput. Intell. Neurosci.* 6.

581 Lee, S., & Lee, S. W. (2015). Application of Decision-Tree Model to Groundwater Productivity-
582 Potential Mapping. *Sustainability*, 7, 13416-13432.

583 Lee, S., Hong, S. M., & Jung, H. S. (2018). GIS-based groundwater potential mapping using
584 artificial neural network and support vector machine models: the case of Boryeong city in
585 Korea. *Geocarto International*, 33(8), 847-861.

586 Loh, W. Y., & Shih, Y. S. (1997). Split selection methods for classification trees. *Stat. Sin.* 7, 815–
587 840.

588 Magesh, N. S., Chandrasekar, N., & Soundranayagam, J. P. (2012). Delineation of groundwater
589 potential zones in Theni district, Tamil Nadu, using remote sensing, GIS and MIF
590 techniques. *Geoscience Frontiers*, 3(2), 189-196.

591 Mandal, I., Pal, S. (2020). Modelling human health vulnerability using different machine learning
592 algorithms in stone quarrying and crushing areas of Dwarka river Basin, Eastern India. *Advances*
593 *in Space Research*, 66(6), 1351-1371. Micheletti, N., Foresti, L., Robert, S., Leuenberger, M.,
594 Pedrazzini, A., Jaboyedoff, M., & Kanevski, M. (2013). Machine learning feature selection
595 methods for landslide susceptibility mapping. *Math. Geosci.* 46 (1), 33–57.

596 Moore, I. D., Grayson, R. B., & Ladson, A. R. (1991). Digital terrain modelling: a review of
597 hydrological, geomorphological, and biological applications. *Hydrological Processes*, 5(1), 3-30.

598 Naghibi, S. A., Ahmadi, K., & Daneshi, A. (2017). Application of support vector machine, random
599 forest, and genetic algorithm optimized random forest model in groundwater potential
600 mapping. *Water Resources Management*, 31(9), 2761-2775.

601 Naik, S., & Purohit, K. M. (2001). Studies on water quality of river Brahmani in Sundargarh
602 district, Orissa. *Indian J Environ Ecoplan*, 5(2), 397-402.

603 Nakhaei, M., Amiri, V., Rezaei, K., & Moosaei, F. (2015). An investigation of the potential
604 environmental contamination from the leachate of the Rasht waste disposal site in Iran. *Bulletin of*
605 *engineering geology and the environment*, 74(1), 233-246.

606 Nguyen, P. T., Duong, H. H., Mohammadtaghi, A., Abolfazl, J., Huu, D. N., Nadhir, A. N., Tran,
607 V. P., et al. (2020). "Soft Computing Ensemble Models Based on Logistic Regression for
608 Groundwater Potential Mapping." *Applied Sciences* 10, no. 7 (2020): 2469.

609 North, M. A. (2009). A method for implementing a statistically significant number of data classes
610 in the Jenks algorithm. In: Fuzzy Systems and Knowledge Discovery, 2009. FSKD'09. Sixth
611 International Conference on, IEEE. pp. 35–38.

612 Obeidavi, S., Gandomkar, M., Akbarizadeh, G., & Delfan, H. (2021). Evaluation of Groundwater
613 Potential using Dempster-Shafer Model and Sensitivity Analysis of Effective Factors: A case study
614 of North Khuzestan Province. *Remote Sensing Applications: Society and Environment*, 100475.

615 Pal, M., & Mather, P. M. (2003). An assessment of the effectiveness of decision tree methods for
616 land cover classification. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 86, 554–556.

617 Pal, S., Mandal, I. (2019). Impacts of stone mining and crushing on environmental health in
618 Dwarka river basin. *Geocarto International*, 1-29.

619 Parisien, M. A., Miller, C., Park, S. A., DeLancey, E. R., Robinne, F. N., & Flannigan, M. D.
620 (2016). The spatially varying influence of humans on fire probability in North America.
621 *Environmental Research Letters*. 11, 075005.

622 Prasad, R. K., Mondal, N. C., Banerjee, P., Nandakumar, M. V., & Singh, V. S. (2008).
623 Deciphering potential groundwater zone in hard rock through the application of
624 GIS. *Environmental Geology*, 55(3), 467-475.

625 Razavi-Termeh, S. V., Khosravi, K., Sartaj, M., Keesstra, S. D., Tsai, F. T. C., Dijkma, R., &
626 Pham, B. T. (2019). Optimization of an adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system for groundwater
627 potential mapping. *Hydrogeology Journal*, 27(7), 2511-2534.

628 Razavi-Termeh, S. V., Sadeghi-Niaraki, A., & Choi, S. M. (2020). Ubiquitous GIS-Based Forest
629 Fire Susceptibility Mapping Using Artificial Intelligence Methods. *Remote Sensing*, 12(10), 1689.

630 Sachdeva, S., & Kumar, B. (2020). Comparison of gradient boosted decision trees and random
631 forest for groundwater potential mapping in Dholpur (Rajasthan), India. *Stochastic Environmental
632 Research and Risk Assessment*, 1-20.

633 Saha, S. (2017). Groundwater potential mapping using analytical hierarchical process: a study on
634 Md. Bazar Block of Birbhum District, West Bengal. *Spatial Information Research*, 25 (4), 615–
635 626.

636 Sahoo, S., Russo, T. A., Elliott, J., Foster, I. (2017). Machine learning algorithms for modeling
637 groundwater level changes in agricultural regions of the US. *Water Resources Research*, 53(5),
638 3878-3895.

639 Sahu, P., & Sikdar, P. K. (2008). Hydrochemical framework of the aquifer in and around East
640 Kolkata Wetlands, West Bengal, India. *Environmental Geology*, 55(4), 823-835.

641 Satir, O., Berberoglu, S., & Donmez, C. (2016). Mapping regional forest fire probability using
642 artificial neural network model in a Mediterranean forest ecosystem. *Geomatics Natural Hazards
643 and Risk*, 7, 1645–1658.

644 Shao, Q., & Campbell, N. A. (2002). Applications: modelling trends in groundwater levels by
645 segmented regression with constraints. *Aust. N. Z. J. Stat.* 44 (2), 129–141.

646 Shekhar, S., & Pandey, A.C. (2014). Delineation of groundwater potential zone in hard rock terrain
647 of India using remote sensing, geographical information system (GIS) and analytic hierarchy
648 process (AHP) techniques. *Geocarto International*, 30 (4), 402–421.

649 Soria, D., Garibaldi, J. M., Ambrogi, F., Biganzoli, E. M., & Ellis, I. O. (2011). A non-parametric
650 version of the naive Bayes classifier. *Knowledge-Based System*, 24, 775–784.

651 Srinivasamoorthy, K., Chidambaram, S., Prasanna, M. V., Vasanthavihar, M., Peter, J., &
652 Anandhan, P. (2008). Identification of major sources controlling groundwater chemistry from a
653 hard rock terrain—a case study from Mettur taluk, Salem district, Tamil Nadu, India. *Journal of
654 Earth System Science*, 117(1), 49.

655 Taheri, F., Jafari, H., Rezaei, M., & Bagheri, R. (2020). The use of continuous fuzzy and traditional
656 classification models for groundwater potentiality mapping in areas underlain by granitic hard-
657 rock aquifers. *Environmental Earth Sciences*, 79(5), 1-16.

658 Thapa, R., Gupta, S., Guin, S., & Kaur, H. (2018). Sensitivity analysis and mapping the potential
659 groundwater vulnerability zones in Birbhum district, India: A comparative approach between
660 vulnerability models. *Water Science*, 32(1), 44-66.

661 Trabelsi, F., Lee, S., Khlifi, S., & Arfaoui, A. (2019). Frequency ratio model for mapping
662 groundwater potential zones using GIS and remote sensing; Medjerda Watershed Tunisia.
663 In *Advances in Sustainable and Environmental Hydrology, Hydrogeology, Hydrochemistry and*
664 *Water Resources*, (pp. 341-345). Springer, Cham.

665 Tsangaratos, P., & Ilia, L. (2016). Comparison of a logistic regression and Naïve Bayes classifier
666 in landslide susceptibility assessments: The influence of model's complexity and training dataset
667 size. *Catena*, 145, 164-179.

668 West, A. M., Kumar, S., & Jarnevich, C. S. (2016). Regional modeling of large wildfires under
669 current and potential future climates in Colorado and Wyoming, USA. *Climatic Change*, 134, 565–
670 577.

671 WHO (2004) Guidelines for drinking water quality: training pack. WHO, Geneva, Switzerland

672 Wu, X., Kumar, V., & Ross, Q. J. (2008). Top 10 algorithms in data mining. *Knowledge and*
673 *Information Systems*, 14, 1–37.

674 Yidana, S. M., & Yidana, A. (2010). Assessing water quality using water quality index and
675 multivariate analysis. *Environ Earth Sci.* 59, 1461–1473.

676 Zamanirad, M., Sarraf, A., Sedghi, H., Saremi, A., & Rezaee, P. (2019). Modeling the Influence
677 of Groundwater Exploitation on Land Subsidence Susceptibility Using Machine Learning
678 Algorithms. *Natural Resources Research*, 1-15.

679 Zang, K., Wu, X., Niu, R., Yang, K., Zhao, L. (2017). The assessment of landslide susceptibility
680 mapping using random forest and decision tree methods in the Three Gorges Reservoir area, China.
681 *Environ Earth Sci.* 76 (11), 405.

Figures

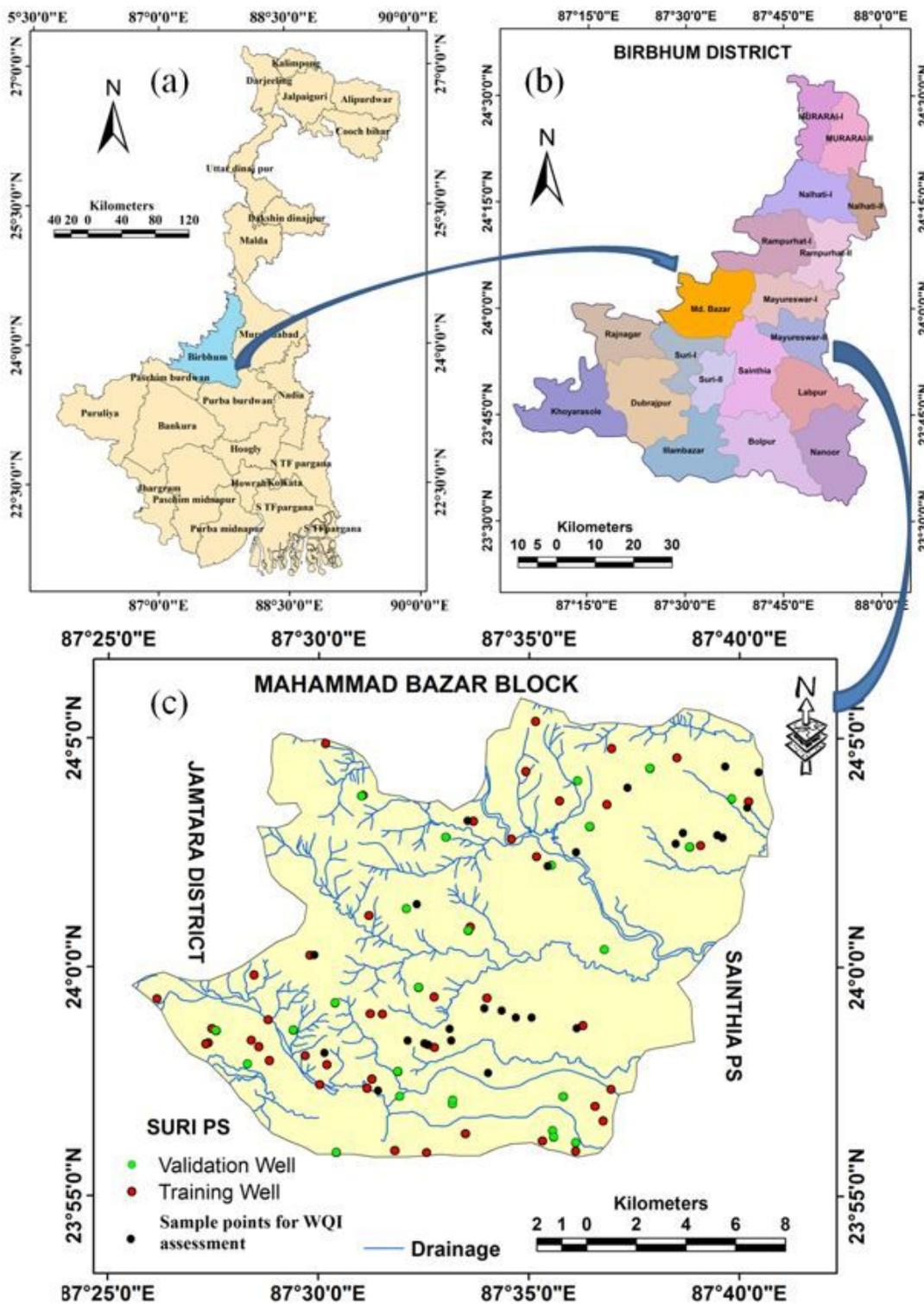


Figure 1

Location map of the study area; (a) West Bengal (b) Birbhum District & (c) Mahammad Bazar Block Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country,

territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

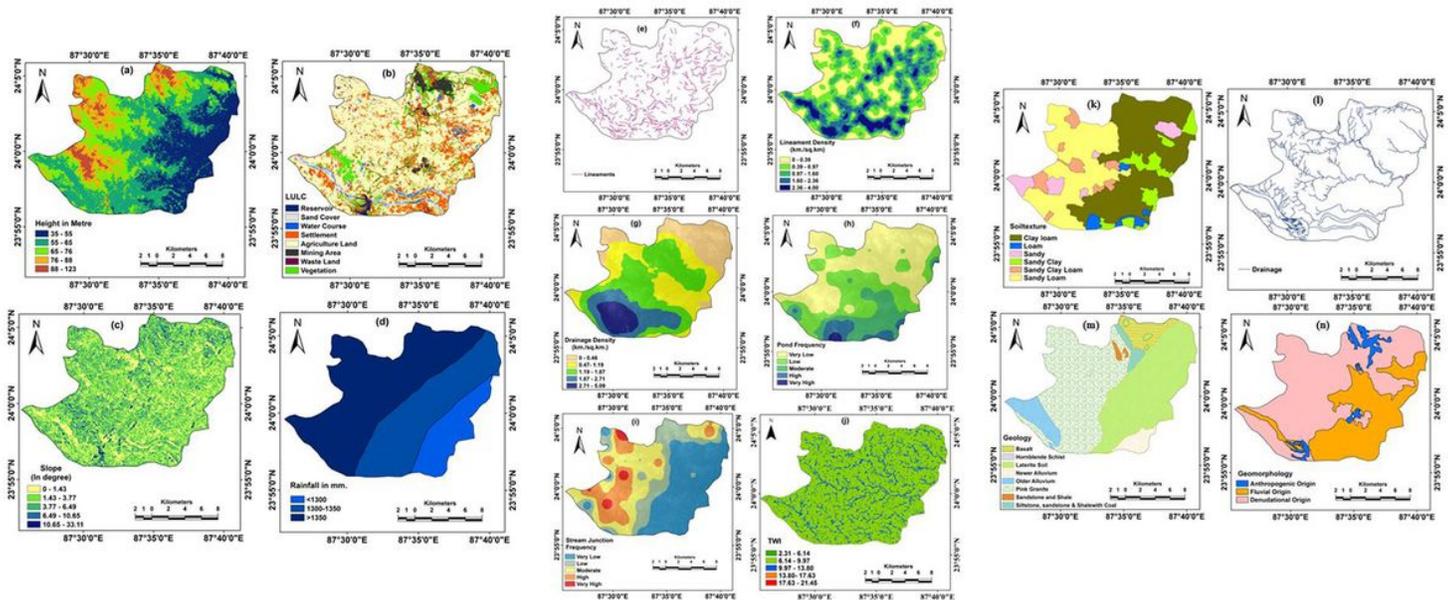


Figure 2

Thematic data layers representing groundwater potentiality factors- (a) Relief map (b) Land use map (c) Slope map (d) Spatial rainfall map Thematic data layers representing groundwater potentiality factors- (e) Lineament map (f) Lineament density (g) Drainage density (h) Pond Frequency (i) Stream junction Frequency (j) Topographic Wetness Index Physical attributes of the study area (k) Soil map (l) Drainage map (m) Geological Map (n) Geomorphological map Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

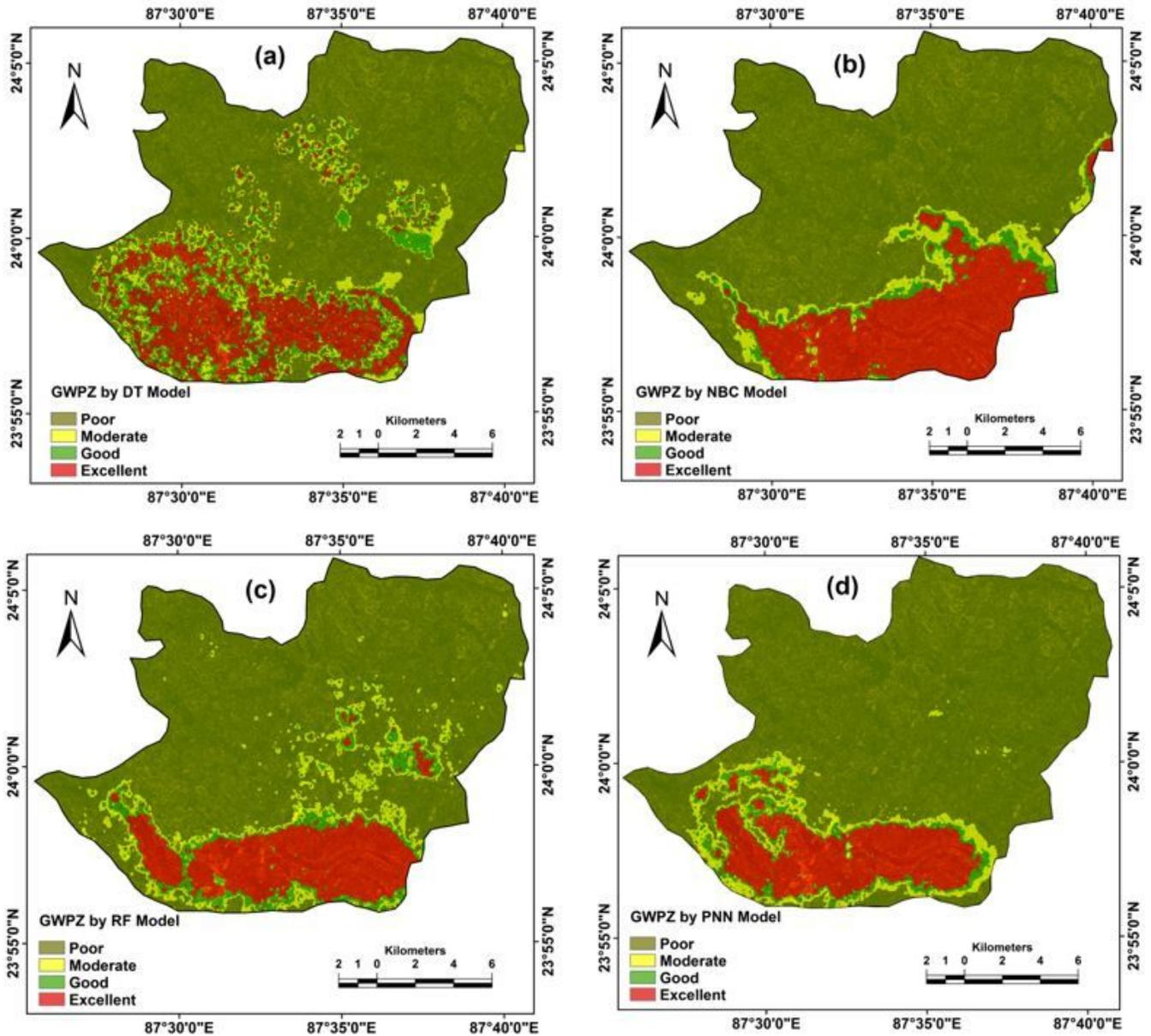


Figure 3

Thematic layers showing the groundwater potential zones (a) DT (b) NBC (c) RF, and (d) PNN Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

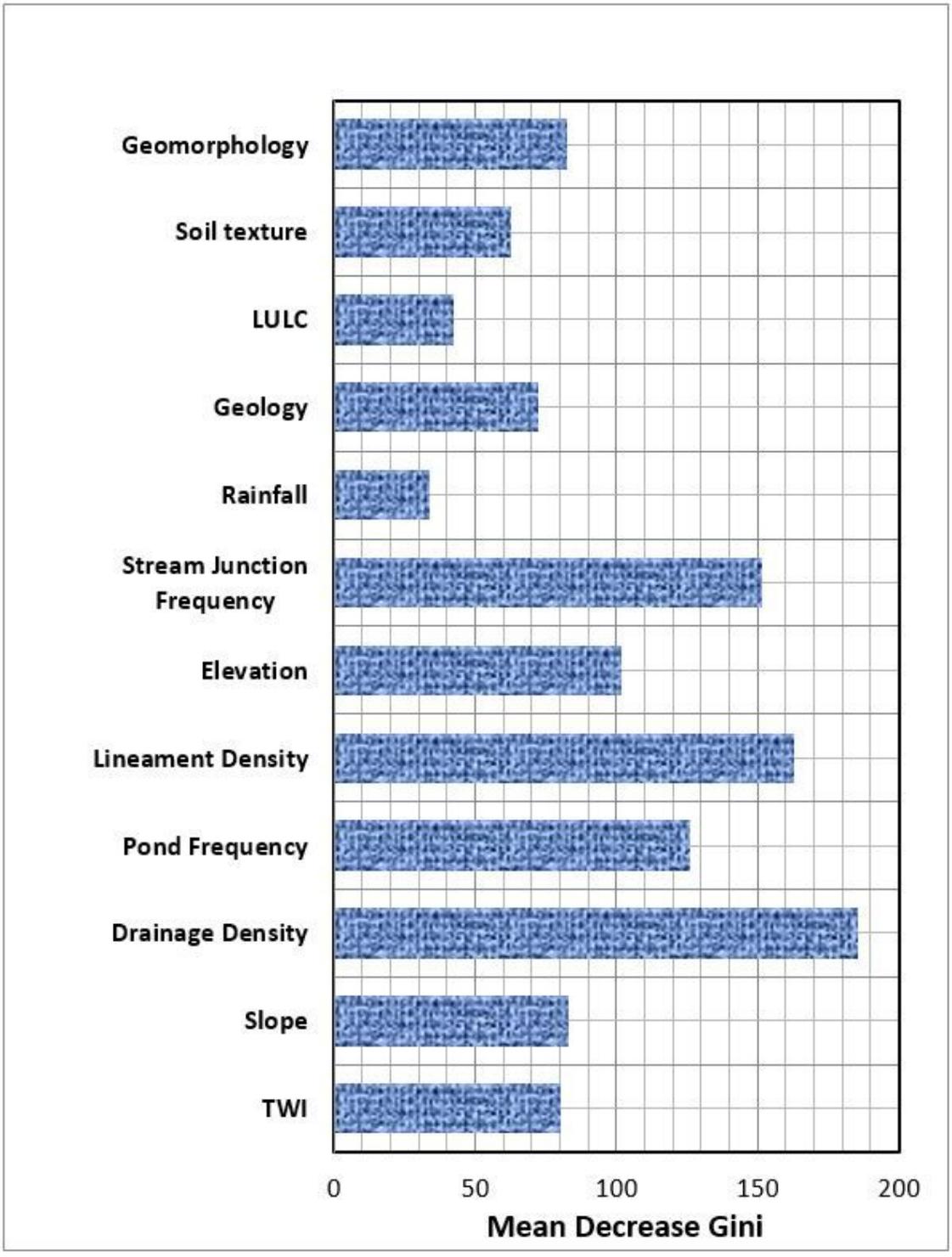


Figure 4

Bar diagram showing the variables important based on Mean Decrease Gini

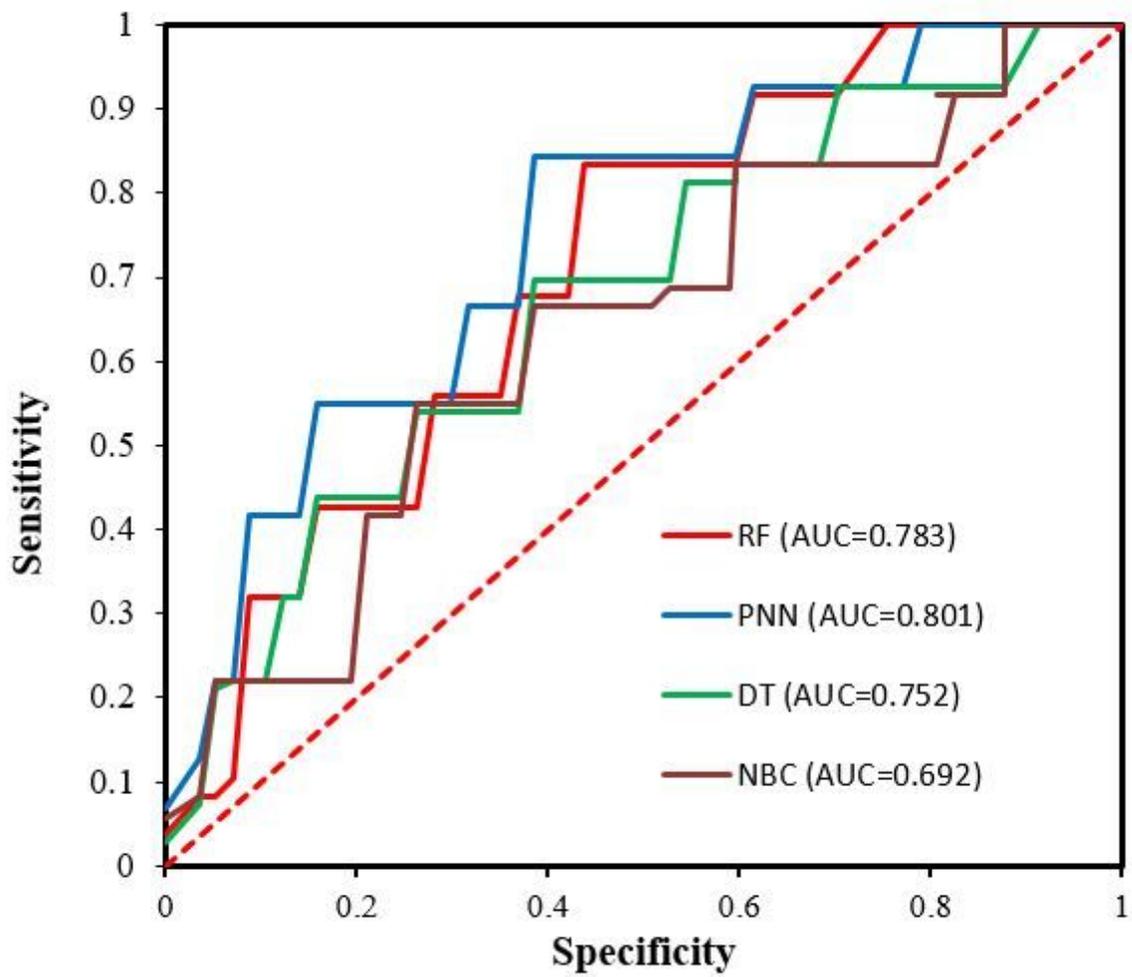


Figure 5

Receiver operating characteristics (ROC) curve of the ground water potentiality models