

1 **Complex patterns of groundwater depletion and quality in the**
2 **Indo-Gangetic Basin from *in situ* observations**

3 **A M MacDonald**,* British Geological Survey, Lyell Centre, Research Avenue South, Riccarton,
4 Edinburgh, EH14 4AS, UK, amm@bgs.ac.uk

5 **H C Bonsor**, British Geological Survey, Lyell Centre, Research Avenue South, Riccarton, Edinburgh,
6 EH14 4AS, UK.

7 **KM Ahmed**, Department of Geology, University of Dhaka, Dhaka 1000, Bangladesh.

8 **WG Burgess**, Department of Earth Sciences, University College London, Gower Street, London WC1E
9 6BT, UK.

10 **M Basharat**, International Waterlogging and Salinity Research Institute (IWASRI), Water and Power
11 development Authority, Lahore, Pakistan.

12 **RC Calow**, Overseas Development Institute, 203 Blackfriars Road, London, SE1 8NJ, UK.

13 **A Dixit**, Institute for Social and Environmental Transition-Nepal, Manasi Marga, Kathmandu
14 Municipality-4, Chandol, Kathmandu, Nepal.

15 **SSD Foster**, Global Water Partnership, 25 Osberton Road, Summertown, Oxford, UK OX2 7NU, UK.

16 **K Gopal**, National Institute of Hydrology, Roorkee – 247667, Uttarakhand, India.

17 **DJ Lapworth**, British Geological Survey, MacLean Building, Crowmarsh Gifford, Wallingford
18 Oxfordshire, OX10 8BB, UK.

19 **RM Lark**, British Geological Survey, Environmental Science Centre, Keyworth, Nottingham, NG12
20 5GG, UK.

21 **M Moench**, Institute for Social and Environmental Transition-International, 948 North Street 7
22 Boulder Colorado 80304, USA.

23 **A Mukherjee**, Department of Geology and Geophysics, Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur,
24 India,

25 **MS Rao**, National Institute of Hydrology, Roorkee – 247667, Uttarakhand, India

26 **M Shamsudduha**, Institute for Risk and Disaster Reduction, University College London, Gower Street,
27 London WC1E 6BT, UK

28 **L Smith**, Filters for Families, 2844 Depew St., Wheat Ridge, Colorado 80214, USA

29 **RG Taylor**, Department of Geography, University College London, Gower Street, London WC1E 6BT,
30 UK

31 **J Tucker**, Overseas Development Institute, 203 Blackfriars Road, London, SE1 8NJ

32 **F van Steenbergen**, MetaMeta Research, Postelstraat 2, 5211 EA 's Hertogenbosch, The Netherlands

33 **SK Yadav**, Institute for Social and Environmental Transition-Nepal, Manasi Marga, Kathmandu
34 Municipality-4, Chandol, Kathmandu, Nepal.

35

36 **Groundwater abstraction from the transboundary Indo-Gangetic alluvial aquifer**
37 **comprises 25% of global groundwater withdrawals sustaining agricultural productivity in**
38 **Pakistan, India, Nepal and Bangladesh. Recent interpretations of satellite gravity data**
39 **indicate that current abstraction is unsustainable, [1,2,3] yet these large-scale**
40 **interpretations lack the spatio-temporal resolution required to govern groundwater**
41 **effectively [4,5]. Here we report new evidence from high-resolution *in-situ* records of**
42 **groundwater-levels, abstraction and groundwater-quality, which reveal that sustainable**
43 **secure groundwater supplies are constrained more by extensive contamination than**
44 **depletion. We estimate the volume of groundwater to 200 m depth to be >20 times the**
45 **annual flow of the Indus, Brahmaputra and Ganges and show the water-table has been**
46 **stable or rising across 70% of the aquifer between 2000 and 2012. Groundwater-levels**
47 **are falling in the remaining 30% amounting to a net annual depletion of $-8.0 \pm 3.0 \text{ km}^3$.**
48 **Over 60% of the aquifer, access to potable groundwater is restricted by excessive salinity**
49 **or arsenic. Recent depletion in northern India and Pakistan has occurred within a longer**
50 **history of groundwater accumulation through canal leakage. This basin-wide synthesis of**
51 ***in-situ* groundwater observations provides the spatial detail essential for policy**
52 **development and the multi-decadal context for short term evaluations based on satellite**
53 **gravity data.**

54

55 The Indo Gangetic Basin (IGB) alluvial aquifer system is one of the world's most important
56 freshwater resources. Formed by sediments eroded from the Himalayas and redistributed
57 by the Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra river systems, the IGB aquifer forms a flat fertile
58 plain across Pakistan, northern India, southern Nepal and Bangladesh (Figure 1). Fifteen to

59 twenty million water-wells abstract an estimated 205 km³/a (ca. 2010) and this volume
60 continues to increase at 2–5 km³/a, as farmers intensify agricultural production. Abstraction
61 is unevenly distributed (Figure 1) yet supplies drinking water for rural and urban populations
62 across the full extent of the IGB. The aquifer system is usually represented as a single
63 category on hydrogeological maps [6]. However, in practice the system is complex and
64 heterogeneous with large spatial differences in permeability, storage, recharge and water
65 chemistry that can also vary with depth. This complexity strongly influences how each part
66 of the aquifer responds to stresses [7]. The IGB is home to the largest surface water
67 irrigation system in the world, constructed during the 19th and early 20th century to
68 redistribute water from the Indus and Ganges through a canal network >100,000 km long.
69 Increasing groundwater use for irrigation poses legitimate questions about the future
70 sustainability of abstraction from the basin and water-security of this region remains a
71 major social-political concern [8].

72 Recent discussion of water security has been dominated by interpretations of remotely-
73 sensed gravity data from the GRACE mission gathered at a scale of 400x400 km [1,2,3].
74 These analyses point to a general reduction in terrestrial water storage in northern India
75 and Pakistan since data became available in 2002, equivalent to approximately 40 mm/a [1]
76 with annual variability [10]. These studies are, however, poorly constrained by ground-
77 based observations. Local field studies provide partial insight into system dynamics that
78 include evidence of: declining groundwater levels [11,12,13], salinization of shallow
79 groundwater [14,15] and increasing groundwater nitrate concentrations [16]. Further, the
80 occurrence of geogenic arsenic in shallow groundwater has been observed across extensive
81 areas of the aquifer in Bangladesh [17,18] and throughout other parts of the basin primarily

82 where Holocene deposits dominate. Additional uncertainty in future groundwater security
83 has been introduced by forecasts of climate change and the potential for substantial
84 changes to precipitation, river flows and groundwater recharge [19,20].

85 Here we present for the first time an analysis of the status of groundwater across the IGB
86 alluvial aquifer based entirely on *in-situ* measurements. We use a statistical analysis of
87 multiyear groundwater-level records from 3429 water-wells and a compilation and
88 interpretation of existing high resolution spatial datasets and studies within Pakistan, India,
89 Nepal and Bangladesh to assess: (1) groundwater-level variations; (2) groundwater quality;
90 and (3) groundwater storage within the top 200 m of the aquifer. In doing so, we have
91 developed several new transboundary spatial datasets that give new insight to the aquifer
92 system and inform improved regional modelling and water governance.

93 We find that the water-table within the IGB alluvial aquifer is typically shallow (<5 m below
94 ground surface) and relatively stable since at least 2000 throughout much of the basin, with
95 some important exceptions. In areas of high groundwater abstraction in northwest India
96 and the Punjab in Pakistan (Regions 2 & 4, Figure 2) the water-table can be >20 m bgl and in
97 some locations is falling at rates of > 1 m/a (Figure 3). In areas of equivalent high irrigation
98 abstraction within Bangladesh, the average water-table remains shallow (<5 m bgl) due to
99 greater direct recharge and high capacity for induced recharge. Groundwater-levels are
100 deep and falling beneath many urban areas, and particularly in large groundwater
101 dependant cities such as Lahore, Dhaka and Delhi [21]. Shallow and rising water-tables are
102 found in the Lower Indus, parts of the lower Bengal basin, and in places throughout the IGB
103 aquifer as a consequence of leakage from canals, rivers and irrigation.

104 Compiled water-table records indicate substantial spatial variability (Figure 3d), particularly
105 in areas where the water-table is falling by >0.25 m/a. Spatial variability at such scales is
106 unresolvable by GRACE and depends on ground-truth observations [4] which respond to the
107 dynamics of groundwater recharge within individual canal command areas (the area
108 irrigated by an individual canal) [22]. The water-table is often rising or stable at the head of
109 a command area where leakage is high and groundwater abstraction is lower. Towards the
110 end of a command area, less canal water is available for use and recharge, groundwater
111 abstraction is greater and the water-table declines. Groundwater-level data from the early
112 20th century in India and Pakistan, show that the recent observations of falling water-table
113 in some areas are part of a much longer history (Figure 3b). Rising groundwater levels and
114 water-logging were a major concern from 1875, and a consequence of leakage from the
115 major canal construction projects which redistributed water from rivers to land. As a result,
116 during much of the 20th century parts of the IGB aquifer where canals were present (Figure
117 1b) accumulated groundwater at the expense of river flow to the ocean. It is important to
118 note that in contrast to the wealth of data available for the shallow water-table, data on
119 deep groundwater-levels below 200 m is absent or sparse throughout the IGB. Also, much of
120 the available information from the top 200 m is not depth specific, despite growing
121 evidence that stratification within the top 200 m is important throughout the aquifer [23].

122 Groundwater storage and water quality within the top 200 m of the aquifer were assessed
123 by mapping specific yield from lithological and hydrogeological data, and compiling national
124 surveys on water quality. The total volume in the top 200 m of aquifer is $30,000 \pm 14,000$
125 km^3 (Figure 4). This amounts to 20–30 times the combined mean annual flow in the rivers
126 within the basin ($1,000 - 1,500 \text{ km}^3/\text{a}$). Groundwater quality is highly variable and often

127 stratified with depth. The two main concerns are salinity and arsenic. Elevated arsenic is
128 primarily a concern for drinking water, while salinity affects irrigation and also the
129 acceptability of groundwater for drinking. Other pollutants are present and most areas are
130 vulnerable to contamination from nitrate and faecal pathogens. Of the 30,000 km³ of
131 groundwater storage estimated in the basin 7,000 ± 3,000 km³ (23%) is estimated as having
132 salinity greater than 1000 mg/L. A further 11,000 ± 5,000 km³ (37%) of groundwater storage
133 is affected by arsenic at toxic concentrations (Figure 4).

134 The origin of the saline groundwater is complex, due to a variety of natural processes: saline
135 intrusion, historic marine transgression, dissolution of evaporite layers and excessive
136 evaporation of surface water or shallow groundwater [24]. Natural salinity is exacerbated by
137 the longterm impact of irrigation and shallow water-tables. Only the lower Bengal basin has
138 been subject to Quaternary marine influence [25] along with the modern day Pakistan coast.
139 The widespread salinity in the Indus basin and drier parts of the Upper Ganges is terrestrial
140 in origin and formed by a combination of natural and anthropogenic activities (Figure 4).

141 Arsenic-rich groundwater occurs in chemically reducing, grey-coloured, Holocene
142 sediments, mostly restricted to groundwater in the uppermost 100 m across the floodplains
143 in the southern Bengal Basin where arsenic is commonly present at >100 µg/L [17,18]. Less
144 extreme arsenic concentrations, though still >10 µg/L, occur in other parts of the IGB,
145 including: Assam, southern Nepal, the Sylhet trough in eastern Bangladesh, and within
146 Holocene sediments along the course of the Ganges and Indus river systems. Abstraction
147 can also influence arsenic flux: recent research [26] reveals that intensive abstraction of
148 shallow groundwater can flush aqueous As from the aquifer; irrigation pumping protects
149 deeper groundwater in some instances, by creating a hydraulic barrier [27], but there is

150 concern that high-capacity deep pumping may draw As down to levels in the Bengal aquifer
151 system which are otherwise of good quality [28]. Despite this concern, the only re-sampling
152 study to date [29] recorded no change in groundwater chemistry from 46 abstraction wells
153 >150 m deep; retardation is expected to delay vertical migration by centuries [28].

154 Estimated trends in groundwater storage for the IGB alluvial aquifer, derived from *in-situ*
155 measurements of water-table variations (Figure 3) and estimates of specific yield derived
156 across the basin, indicate a net average annual groundwater depletion within the period
157 2000-2012 of 8.0 km³/a (range 4.7-11.0 km³/a) with significant variation across the basin
158 (Supplementary Figure 2). The largest depletion occurred in areas of high abstraction and
159 consumptive use in northern India and Pakistan: Punjab 2.6 ±0.9 km³/a; Haryana 1.4 ±0.5
160 km³/a; and Uttar Pradesh 1.2 ±0.5 km³/a; and Punjab Region, Pakistan, 2.1 ±0.8 km³/a. In
161 the Lower Indus, within the Sindh, groundwater is accumulating at a rate of 0.3 ±0.15 km³/a,
162 which has led to increased waterlogging of land and significant reduction in the outflow of
163 the River Indus [13]. Across the rest of the IGB, changes in groundwater storage are
164 generally modest (±1 cm/a). Our estimates of annual groundwater depletion in northern
165 India (5.2 ± 1.9 km³/a) are consistent with the regional estimates [1,10] when downscaled to
166 the individual states (see Supplementary Table 2). Much of the regional depletion for
167 Northern India observed from GRACE occurs outside the main IGB aquifer, in the desert of
168 Rajasthan, which should be considered a separate aquifer system that is not actively
169 recharged by rainfall, only canal leakage.

170 *In situ* observations also provide evidence of the strong link between groundwater and
171 surface water within the basin. Given the high volume of abstraction in parts of the basin,
172 the measured rate of water-table decline is too small to derive from direct rain-fed recharge

173 alone [see Supplementary Figure 3]. Although this discrepancy could be attributed to errors
174 and uncertainty in developing abstraction and water-table datasets from *in situ* data, field
175 studies in the IGB [11,23,26] show that abstraction can markedly increase recharge, reduce
176 natural discharge, and induce younger water deeper into the aquifer. As Figure 3b
177 demonstrates, leakage from canals has historically been a highly significant source of
178 recharge, and even today local studies estimate canal leakage to be approximately 50% [30].
179 Groundwater recharge in the IGB is not static, or a function of rainfall alone. It is highly
180 dynamic, and influenced by abstraction, river flows and canal engineering.

181 The complex and dynamic nature of the IGB alluvial aquifer revealed by this study highlights
182 the fundamental importance of regular and distributed *in situ* measurements of
183 groundwater-levels and water quality to acquire data of sufficient spatio-temporal
184 resolution to identify processes at work in the aquifer and to inform effective governance.
185 Specifically, the significance of groundwater contamination as the dominant regional
186 constraint on safe water supply, and the widespread spatial variability in groundwater
187 depletion and accumulation has not previously been established. Adverse impacts in the
188 future can be managed through a programme of sentinel monitoring that could provide
189 many years of advance warning of impending problems.

190

191

192 **References**

- 193 [1] Rodell, M., Velicogna, I. & Famiglietti, J. S. Satellite-based estimates of groundwater
194 depletion in India, *Nature* **460**, 999-1002 (2009).
- 195 [2] Gleeson, T., Wada. Y., Bierkens, M. F. P. & van Beek, L. P. H. Water balance of global
196 aquifers revealed by groundwater footprint. *Nature* **488**, 197-200 (2012).
- 197 [3] Richey, A. S., Thomas, B. F., Lo, M. H., Reager J. T., Farniglietti, J. S., Voss, K., Swenson, S.
198 & Rodell, M. Quantifying renewable groundwater stress with GRACE. *Water Resources*
199 *Research* **51** 5217-5238 (2015).
- 200 [4] Alley, W. M. & Konikow, L. F. Bringing GRACE down to earth. *Groundwater* **53**, 826-829,
201 (2015).
- 202 [5] Scanlon, B. R., Zhang, Z., Reedy, R. C., Pool, D. R., Save, H., Long, D., Chen, J., Wolock, D.
203 M., Conway, B. D. and Winester, D. Hydrologic implications of GRACE satellite data in the
204 Colorado River Basin. *Water Resources Research* doi:10.1002/2015WR018090 (2015)
- 205 [6] Struckmeier, W. & Richts, A. Groundwater resources of the World (1:25,000,000). World
206 Wide hydrogeological mapping and assessment programme, UNESCO/BGR (2008)
- 207 [7] Foster, S. & MacDonald, A. M. The water security dialogue: why it needs to be better
208 informed about groundwater. *Hydrogeology Journal* **22**, 1489-1492 (2014).
- 209 [8] Shah, T. Climate change and groundwater: India's opportunities for mitigation and
210 adaptation. *Environmental Research Letters* **4**, 035005 (2009).

- 211 [9] Harris, I., Jones, P. D., Osborn, T. J. & Lister, D. H. (Updated high-resolution grids of
212 monthly climatic observations - the CRU TS3.10 Dataset. *International Journal of*
213 *Climatology* **34**, 623-642 (2014)
- 214 [10] Chen, J., Li, J., Zhang, Z. & Ni, S. Long-term variations in Northwest India from Satellite
215 gravity measurements, *Global and Planetary Change* **116**, 130-138 (2014).
- 216 [11] Shamsudduha, M., Taylor, R., Ahmed, K. M., & Zahid, A. The impact of intensive
217 abstraction on recharge to a shallow regional aquifer system: evidence from Bangladesh,
218 *Hydrogeology Journal* **19**, 901-916 (2011).
- 219 [12] Central Groundwater Board. *Groundwater year book 2012-2013*. (Ministry of Water
220 Resources, Government of India, Faridabad, 2014).
- 221 [13] Basharat, M., Hassan, D., Bajkani, A. A. & Sultan, S. J. *Surface water and groundwater*
222 *Nexus: groundwater management options for Indus Basin Irrigation System*, International
223 Waterlogging and Salinity Research Institute (IWASRI), Lahore, Pakistan Water and Power
224 Development Authority, Publication no. 299. (2014).
- 225 [14] Quereshi, A.S., Gill, M. A. & Sarwar, A. Sustainable groundwater management in
226 Pakistan: challenges and opportunities. *Irrigation and drainage* **59**, 107-116 (2008).
- 227 [15] Yu, W., Yang, Y. C., Savitsky, A., Alford, D., Brown, C., Wescoat, J., Debowicz, D. &
228 Robinson, S. *The Indus Basin of Pakistan, the impacts of climate risks on water and*
229 *agriculture*. (The World Bank, Washington, 2013).
- 230 [16] Agrawal, G. D., Lunkad, S. K. & Malkhed, T. Diffuse agricultural nitrate pollution of
231 groundwaters in India. *Water Science and Technology* **39** (3), 67-75 (1999).

- 232 [17] Ravenscroft, P. Burgess W. G., Ahmed, K. M. ,Burren, M. & Perrin, J. Arsenic in
233 groundwater of the Bengal Basin, Bangladesh: Distribution, field relations, and
234 hydrogeological setting. *Hydrogeology Journal* **13**, 727-751 (2005).
- 235 [18] Fendorf, S., Michael, H. A., van Geen, A. Spatial and temporal variations of groundwater
236 arsenic in south and southeast Asia. *Science* **328**, 1123-1127 (2010).
- 237 [19] Immerzeel, W. W., Van Beek, L. P. H. & Bierkens, M. F. P. Climate change will affect the
238 Asian water towers. *Science* **328**, 1382–1385 (2010).
- 239 [20] Jiménez Cisneros, B.E. et al. *Freshwater resources* In: Climate Change 2014: Impacts,
240 Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects. Contribution of Working
241 Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
242 [Field, C.B., V.R. Barros, D.J. Dokken, K.J. Mach, M.D. Mastrandrea, T.E. Bilir, M. Chatterjee,
243 K.L. Ebi, Y.O. Estrada, R.C. Genova, B. Girma, E.S. Kissel, A.N. Levy, S. MacCracken, P.R.
244 Mastrandrea, and L.L. White (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United
245 Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, pp. 229-269 (2014).
- 246 [21] Chatterjee, R., Gupta, B. K., Mohiddin, S. K. , Singh, P. N., Shekhar, S. & Porohit, R.
247 Dynamic groundwater resources of National Capital Territory, Delhi: assessment,
248 development and management options. *Environmental Earth Sciences* **59**, 669-686(2009).
- 249 [22] Foster S., van Steenbergen F., Zuleta, J. & Garduno, H. *Conjunctive use of groundwater
250 and surface water – from spontaneous coping strategy to adaptive resource management.*
251 GW-MATE Strategic Overview Series 2 (World Bank, Washington DC, 2010)

- 252 [23] Lapworth, D. J., MacDonald, A. M., Krishan, G., Rao, M. S., Goody, D. C. & Darling, W.
253 G. Groundwater recharge and age-depth profiles of intensively exploited groundwater
254 resources in northwest India. *Geophysical Research Letters* **42**, 7554-7562 (2015).
- 255 [24] Appelo, C. A. J & Postma D. Geochemistry, groundwater and pollution. 2nd Edition. (CRC
256 Press, Amsterdam, 2005)
- 257 [25] Goodbred, S. L. Response of the Ganges dispersal system to climate change: a source to
258 sink view since the last interstade. *Sedimentary Geology* **162**, 83-104 (2003).
- 259 [26] Shamsudduha, M., Taylor, R. G. & Chandler, R. E. A generalized regression model of
260 arsenic variations in the shallow groundwater of Bangladesh. *Water Resources Research* **51**,
261 685–703 (2015).
- 262 [27] Michael, H. A. & Voss, C. I. Evaluation of the sustainability of deep groundwater as an
263 arsenic-safe resource in the Bengal Basin *PNAS* **105**, 8531-8536
- 264 [28] Ravenscroft, P., McArthur, J. M. & Hoque M. A. Stable groundwater quality in deep
265 aquifers of Southern Bangladesh: The case against sustainable abstraction. *Science of the*
266 *Total Environment*, **454–455**: 627–638 (2013)
- 267 [29] Radloff, K. A. et al. Arsenic migration to deep groundwater in Bangladesh influenced by
268 adsorption and water demand. *Nature Geoscience* **4**, 793-798 (2011).
- 269 [30] Raza, A., Latif. M., & Shakir, A. S. Long-term effectiveness of lining tertiary canals in the
270 Indus Basin of Pakistan, *Irrigation and Drainage* **62**, 16-24 (2013).

271

272 **Corresponding author**

273 Alan MacDonald, British geological Survey, amm@bgs.ac.uk +441316500389

274

275 **Acknowledgements**

276 This work was supported by the UK Department for International Development
277 (Groundwater Resources in the Indo-Gangetic Basin, grant 202125-108); however, the views
278 expressed do not necessarily reflect the UK Government's official policies. National and
279 regional boundaries shown on the maps are to aid interpretation of the spatial data and do
280 not imply official endorsement of national borders. The paper is published with the
281 permission of the Executive Director of the British Geological Survey (NERC).

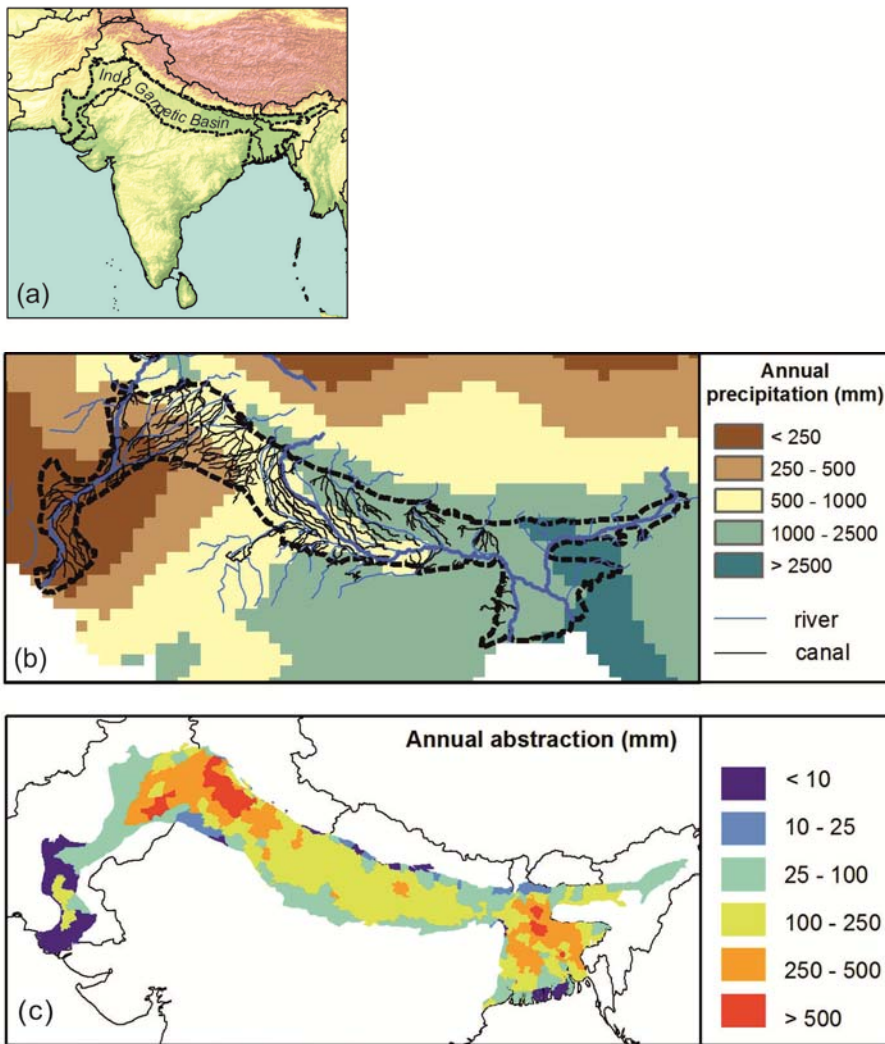
282 **Author Contributions**

283 AM developed the transboundary maps and prepared the first draft of the manuscript, HB
284 prepared the times series dataset and developed maps, KA, WB, RT and MS, developed
285 datasets and interpretation for Bangladesh, LS, MM, AD and SY developed datasets and
286 interpretation for Nepal, FS, MB and SF developed datasets and interpretation for Pakistan
287 and KG, MR, AMuk and DL developed datasets and interpretation for India. RC and JC
288 developed the first draft of the groundwater abstraction dataset for comment. ML
289 undertook statistical analysis. All edited and contributed to final manuscript.

290 **Competing Financial Interests statement**

291 There are no competing financial interests.

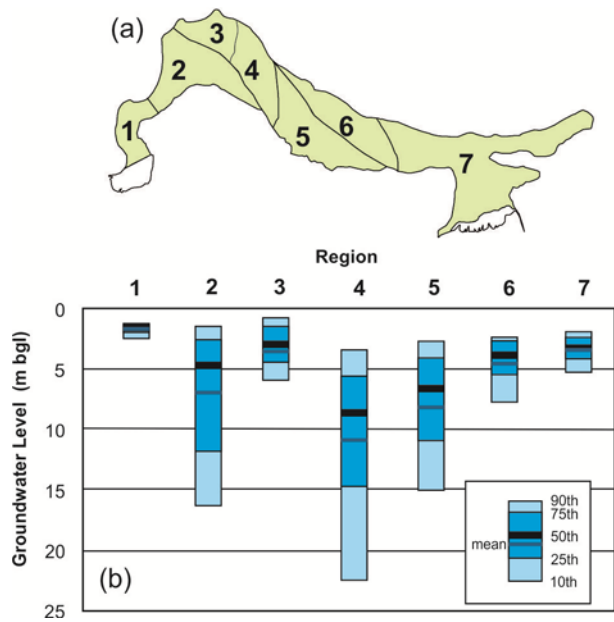
292



294

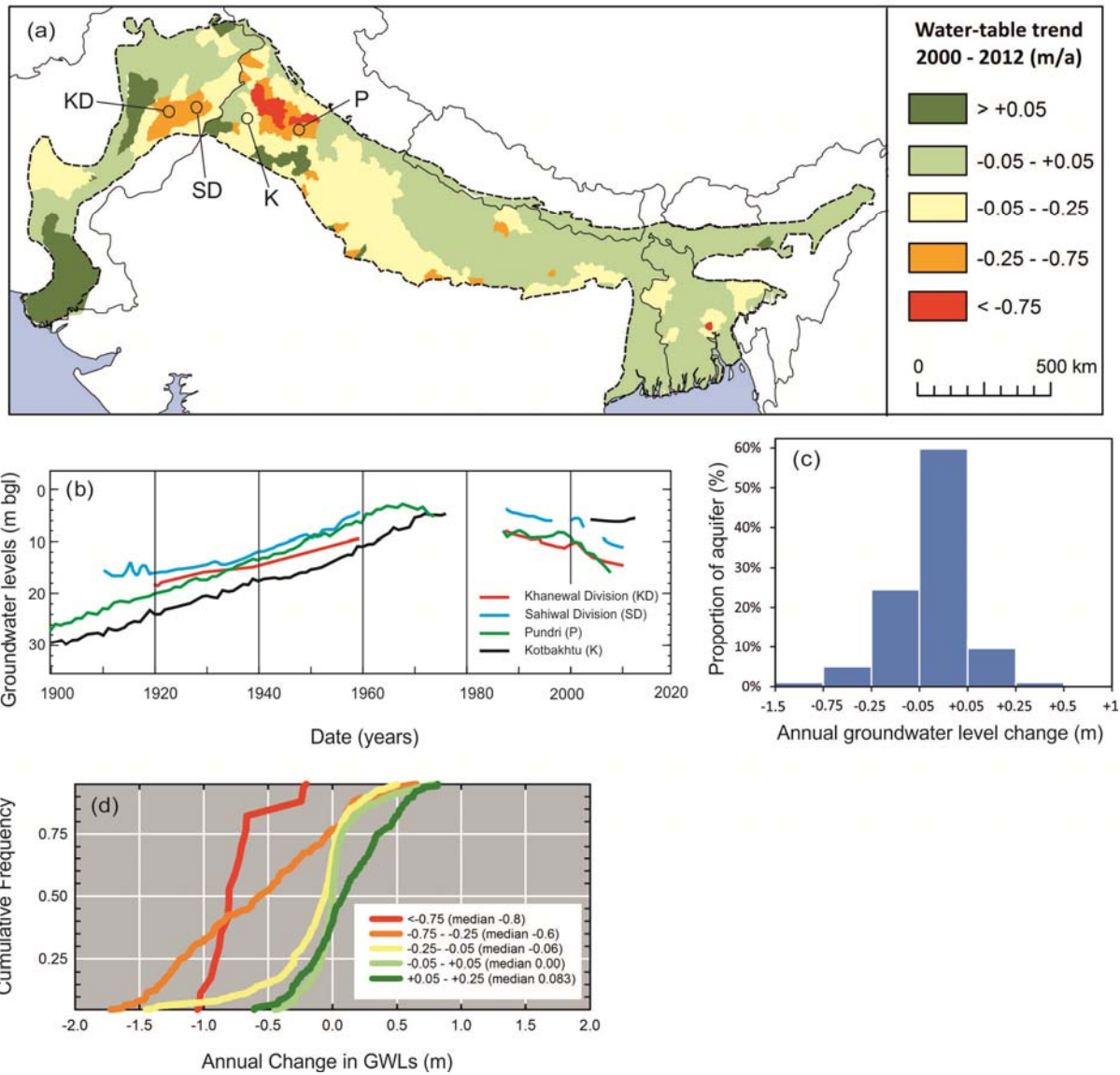
295

296 *Figure 1 The location, hydrology and abstraction from the Indo Gangetic Basin alluvial*
 297 *aquifer system (IGB): (a) location of the IGB; (b) mean annual precipitation 1950 – 2010 [9],*
 298 *rivers and major canal distribution; and (c) estimated mean annual groundwater abstraction*
 299 *in 2010, showing the high groundwater abstraction in north west India, northern Pakistan*
 300 *and Central and Northern Bangladesh. Total groundwater abstraction from the aquifer is*
 301 *205 km³, approximately 25% of the global total.*



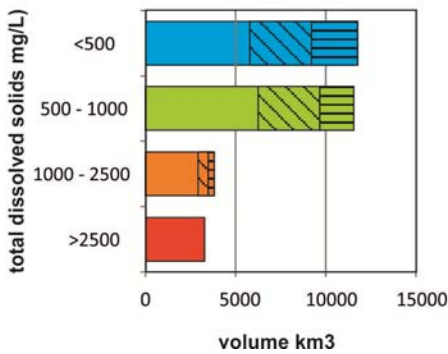
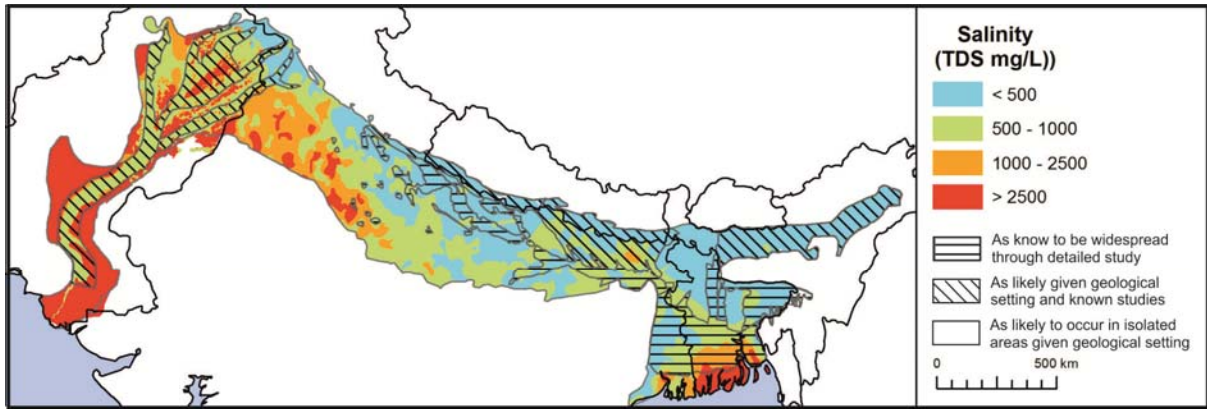
303

304 *Figure 2. Water-table variations across the IGB aquifer system: (a) location of analysis*
 305 *regions (divided by aquifer and climate) and long-term monitoring sites, 1 Sindh; 2 middle*
 306 *Indus;;3,4 upper Indus; 5 drier Uttar Pradesh; 6 wetter Uttar Pradesh; 7 Lower Ganges and*
 307 *Bengal basin; (b) data from 3429 monitoring points showing mean water-table depths in*
 308 *individual wells for the period 2000 - 2012; areas with high abstraction and lower rainfall*
 309 *show deepest groundwater levels and a wide range in measured groundwater-level.*



310

311 *Figure 3. Annual change in water-table estimated from regional datasets and validated with*
 312 *3429 multi-year records: (a) map of mean annual change across the basin during the period*
 313 *2000-2012; (b) longterm groundwater-level hydrographs for four piezometers; (c) proportion*
 314 *of the aquifer with rising or falling groundwater-levels, 61% of the aquifer has near stable*
 315 *groundwater levels; (d) cumulative frequency distributions for each water-table category*
 316 *demonstrating the low spatial variability in areas with annual changes close to zero, and the*
 317 *high variability where water levels are falling by more than 0.25 m per year or rising by more*
 318 *than 0.05 m per year*



319

320 *Figure 4. Groundwater quality in the IGB aquifer system: (a) salinity measured as total*
 321 *dissolved solids in the groundwater and areas where arsenic is known to be widespread, or*
 322 *thought likely to occur; and (b) the volume of the water in the top 200 m of the aquifer by*
 323 *quality, total volume is 30,000 km³ ±14,000 km³. Groundwater with salinity>1000 mg/L*
 324 *accounts for 23% of the volume of groundwater; and of the remaining volume 37% is at risk*
 325 *of elevated arsenic (28% and 35% respectively by aquifer area).*

326

327 **Methods**

328 Four separate transboundary spatial datasets were developed for the IGB across Pakistan,
 329 India, Nepal and Bangladesh using ground-based data: water-table trend per annum;

330 groundwater abstraction; groundwater chemistry; and groundwater storage. In addition, a
331 dataset of 3429 multi-year water-table records was developed.

332 *Developing the multiyear water-table record (WTR) dataset*

333 More than 10,000 individual time series of groundwater-level records were collated from
334 the IGB across India, Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan from numerous sources
335 (Supplementary Table 4). A range of time periods, length and frequency of record was
336 present within the dataset and a quality assurance process was undertaken to develop the
337 final dataset. The inclusion criteria were: a minimum length of 7 years of records; at least
338 two measurements per year at high and low water-table; and records being within the time
339 period 1975 – 2013. These reduced the dataset to 3810 entries. Most data (82%) are
340 entirely within the time period 2000-2012 with 11% from 1989-2000, 6% 1993-2005 and 1%
341 from 1975-2012. Data from outwith the period 2000-2012 were used to give information in
342 areas where no other data were available. For each individual time series the linear trend in
343 annual mean, maximum and minimum groundwater level was calculated using a linear
344 regression model. These values were estimated by fitting a model to the full data set with
345 separate trend parameters (slope and intercept) for each borehole time series. The dataset
346 was first explored for skewness and outliers were removed by applying Tukey's fences [31]).
347 ANOVA indicated that all effects in the model are significant (adjusted R^2 0.96) indicating the
348 occurrence of temporal trends which differ between wells. Minimum, maximum and mean
349 groundwater-level were also calculated for each borehole for the total length of record.
350 After the statistical treatment of the data and removal of individual outliers, the number of
351 usable time series was reduced to 3429, which formed the final water-table records dataset
352 (WTR). The location of the records are shown in Supplementary Figure 1.

353 Summary data from the WTR dataset were presented for the IGB aquifer by dividing the IGB
354 aquifer into seven aquifer typologies. These were previously developed for the IGB to
355 delineate areas with similar aquifer characteristics and recharge processes [32]. The seven
356 aquifer typologies are 1 *Sindh* (moderate permeability, moderate storage; rainfall <200
357 mma^{-1} , recharge from canals and river); 2 *middle Indus* (high permeability, high storage;
358 rainfall 200 – 500 mma^{-1} recharge from canals and irrigation); 3 (Pakistan), 4 (India) *Upper*
359 *Indus* (very high permeability, high storage; rainfall 500 – 1000 mma^{-1} , recharge from rainfall
360 and canals); 5 *drier Uttar Pradesh* (very high permeability, high storage; rainfall 500 – 1000
361 mma^{-1} , recharge from rainfall and canals); 6 *wetter Uttar Pradesh* (very high permeability,
362 high storage; rainfall 1000-2500 mma^{-1} , recharge from rainfall); 7 *Lower Ganges and Bengal*
363 *basin* (very high permeability, high storage; rainfall 1000-2500 mma^{-1} , recharge from rainfall
364 and rivers).

365 Additional longer term datasets were sought for the basin to help contextualise the WTR.
366 Several historical long term records were collated from Pakistan and India, (Supplementary
367 Table 4). Data were digitised from reports published in the 1970s and 1980s and matched
368 to modern data monitoring boreholes.

369 *Map of annual groundwater-level trend*

370 To develop the map of mean annual trend in water-table per district area for the period
371 2000-2012, the WTR was combined with existing national maps and databases of
372 groundwater-level variations (Supplementary Table 5). District area maps for Pakistan,
373 India, Nepal and Bangladesh, as provided by GADM (www.gadm.org) were used as the base.
374 Average water-table deflection was estimated for each district area from existing published
375 or national sources of groundwater-level variation for Pakistan and India. For Pakistan,

376 annual district water-level trend was estimated from a survey of water-table depth mapped
377 across the Indus Basin Irrigation System (IBIS) in June 2002 and repeated in June 2012 [33]
378 in conjunction with a statistical analysis of 3175 water level records in Punjab from 2003-
379 2011 [34]. In India, annual district water level trend was mapped by subtracting maps of
380 groundwater level measured in 2011 from the decadal mean 2001-2010 using CGWB
381 published maps [35]. The district groundwater-level estimated from these available data In
382 India and Pakistan were then checked against data in the WTR dataset. The Indian maps
383 agreed well with the WTR data where groundwater levels were declining or rising markedly;
384 however in the published broad categories 0 to +0.25 m and 0 to - 0.25 m per year the WTR
385 data showed that long term trends within these ranges were generally close to zero. In
386 these areas, the WTR was used to estimate water-level variation per district and assign new,
387 refined categories. For districts where few WTR data were available, the average WTR
388 annual trend calculated for the spatial extent of the existing broad category in that region
389 was assigned to the district. For Bangladesh a published analysis of water-table variation for
390 the years 2003 – 2007 compiled from 1267 monitoring wells from the Bangladesh Water
391 Development Board [36,37] was adapted to map mean annual groundwater-level trend at
392 district level. The original Bangladesh Water Development Board dataset was used to
393 calculated trend data for each district, which was checked for consistency with the
394 published data and the 50 good quality WTR records available for Bangladesh. For Nepal, a
395 recently completed study of tube wells in the Terai [38] was used for information about the
396 tube wells, and the WTR available for the districts used to assign regional water-table
397 trends. This new combined map has systematic data-bins developed across the 4 countries:
398 annual fall (m) >0.75, 0.25–0.75, 0.05 – 0.25, stable -0.02 - +0.02; and annual rise (m) 0.05 -
399 0.25). The WTR data for each data-bin were then plotted on a cumulative frequency curve to

400 indicate the spread of data within each bin, and the median used in further calculations of
401 basinwide groundwater storage changes. A further breakdown of the WTR data per region is
402 shown in Supplementary Figure 5.

403

404 *Groundwater abstraction*

405 A basin-wide map of current estimated groundwater abstraction was developed by
406 combining the complete available district data for India for the year 2010 with a
407 combination of local and published datasets for Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh which
408 covered the period 2008 to 2013 (Supplementary Table 1). District maps for the four
409 countries were used as a base, and the abstraction data from the various sources
410 summarised or integrated to give an estimate of the annual abstraction for each district
411 around the year 2010. For India, groundwater abstraction data for 2010/11 are collated in
412 the Groundwater Information Booklets for individual Districts, published by the CGWB [39].
413 The data were extracted and plotted for each Indian district. In Pakistan, the spatial work of
414 Cheema [40] mapping groundwater for irrigation in 2007 was integrated for each district
415 and compared to more recent national abstraction and irrigation data presented by the FAO
416 [41]. Urban groundwater abstraction was estimated from various published sources [42].
417 For Bangladesh, district groundwater abstraction was derived from two recent groundwater
418 models developed for Bangladesh using available data [26,43] and supplemented with
419 specific information on groundwater abstraction for Dhaka [44]. For the Nepal Terai
420 abstraction data do not exist and volumes were estimated from a published global irrigation
421 assessment [45]. Abstraction assigned to each district within the IGB aquifer was converted
422 to a spatially averaged depth of water in mm.

423 *Groundwater chemistry*

424 Mapping groundwater chemistry for the IGB alluvial aquifer system focussed on the
425 distribution of salinity and arsenic, the two most significant water quality issues within the
426 basin. There is limited information on the depth variations of groundwater quality across
427 much of the IGB, and most data refer to shallow groundwater (<200 m and often <100 m);
428 spatial information on water quality variations was assigned to the full depth of the upper
429 200 m which represents the approximate thickness of the exploited aquifer. Groundwater
430 salinity was mapped by compiling existing information of groundwater chemistry and
431 specific electrical conductance from national and regional surveys across the four countries
432 (Supplementary Table 6). Salinity was represented as total dissolved solids expressed in
433 mg/L and divided into four categories <500, 500-1000, 1000-2500, >2500 mg/L reflecting
434 potential water use. The WHO has no official guidelines for TDS, but suggest that <1000 is
435 generally acceptable for drinking water. Areas of elevated arsenic concentrations (>10µg/L)
436 in shallow groundwater (< 200 m bgl) were determined by using a combination of available
437 maps and national datasets, local datasets and published studies and an understanding of
438 the distribution of Holocene deposits in the basin (Supplementary Table 7). The presence of
439 Holocene deposits and organic rich surface sediments is known to be a key indicator for
440 arsenic risk [46,47] The presence of Holocene deposits could be reliably mapped across the
441 IGB, though organic-rich soils can be more locally variable. The IGB was therefore, divided
442 into three categories: (1) elevated arsenic known to be widespread through detailed study;
443 (2) elevated arsenic believed likely to occur given the geological setting and isolated studies;
444 and (3) elevated arsenic likely to occur only in isolated areas given the geological setting and
445 likely conditions.

446 *Groundwater storage*

447 Groundwater storage in the top 200 m was calculated using an estimate of the effective
448 thickness and specific yield (drainable porosity) of the aquifer. We estimated these
449 properties using hydrogeological typologies [32] developed from an interpretation of the
450 sedimentology of the basin. The interpretation incorporated a review of geological and
451 sedimentological literature, parameterised with information on grain size and modes of
452 deposition. For much of the IGB, the thickness is fully 200 m, reduced to 100 m in the
453 piedmont area. Deeper confined regions of the aquifer (200 – 350 m) in the southern
454 Bengal Basin were not included in this assessment. Specific yield was mapped across the
455 basin using available particle size distribution for the top 200 m of alluvium, and validated
456 with several key hydrogeological studies of specific yield undertaken in different parts of the
457 basin [32]. For each typology the likely range in specific yield was established
458 (Supplementary Figure 4). Groundwater storage was then calculated using this range of
459 estimates and the effective thickness of aquifer. Annual trends in groundwater storage
460 were calculated using the estimates of specific yield for the IGB and the annual trend in
461 groundwater level for the period 2000 – 2012 (Supplementary Table 1). The range
462 presented represents uncertainty in specific yield which dominates the potential
463 uncertainty. For brevity within the main document, the range was summarised as a
464 confidence interval.

465

466 *Data availability*

467 The maps developed for abstraction, groundwater level trend, salinity and arsenic and
468 groundwater storage are available are available as gridded data on request. The sources of
469 the underlying data including the water-table records used to develop these maps are given
470 in the supplementary material.

471

472 **Methods papers**

473 [31] Tukey, J. W. *Exploratory data analysis*. (Addison-Wesley, Reading, PA 1977).

474 [32] MacDonald, A. M. et al. Groundwater resources in the Indo-Gangetic Basin: resilience
475 to climate change and abstraction. British Geological Survey, Open Report, OR/15/047
476 (British Geological Survey, Keyworth, Nottingham 2015).

477 [33] Basharat, M., Hassan, D., Bajkani, A. A. & Sultan, S. J. Surface water and groundwater
478 Nexus: groundwater management options for Indus Basin Irrigation System, International
479 Waterlogging and Salinity Research Institute (IWASRI), Lahore, Pakistan Water and Power
480 Development Authority, Publication no. 299. (2014).

481 [34] Iqbal, R. M. & Hannan, A. Groundwater Monitoring Report 2012, Directorate of Land
482 and Reclamation Punjab, Irrigation and Power Department, Punjab Irrigation and Drainage
483 Authority, Lahore (2012).

484 [35] CGWB. Groundwater Year Book – India 2011-12. Central Groundwater Board, Ministry
485 of Water resources, Government of India, Faridabad (2012).

- 486 [36] Shamsudduha, M., Chandler, R. E., Taylor, R. G., & Ahmed, K. M. Recent trends in
487 groundwater levels in a highly seasonal hydrological system: the Ganges-Brahmaputra-
488 Meghna Delta. *Hydrological Earth System Science* **13**, 2373–2385, (2009)
- 489 [37] Shamsudduha, M., Taylor, R. G., & Longuevergne, L., Monitoring groundwater storage
490 changes in the Bengal Basin: validation of GRACE measurements. *Water Resources Research*
491 **48**, W02508 (2012).
- 492 [38] Geoconsult. Study of tube well inventory of 22 Terai and Inner Terai Districts, Nepal.
493 Groundwater Resources Development Board, Ministry of Irrigation, Government of Nepal,
494 Kathmandu (2012).
- 495 [39] Central Groundwater Board District Groundwater Information 2013 (accessed online
496 July 2014)
- 497 [40] Cheema. M. J. M., Immerzeel, W. W. & Bastiaanssen, W. G. M.. Spatial quantification of
498 groundwater abstraction in the irrigated Indus Basin. *Ground Water* 52, 25-36 (2014).
- 499 [41] FAO. AQUASTAT. Food and agriculture Organization of the United Nations (Accessed
500 Feb 2015)
- 501 [42] Basharat, M. & Rizvi, S. A. 2011. Groundwater extraction and waste water disposal
502 regulation. Is Lahore Aquifer at stake with as usual approach? In: Proceedings of World
503 Water Day 2011 Water for Cities-Urban Challenges, (Pakistan Engineering Congress, Lahore,
504 Pakistan 135-152 2011)
- 505 [43] Michael, H. A. & Voss, C. I. Controls on groundwater flow in the Bengal Basin of India
506 and Bangladesh: regional modelling analysis. *Hydrogeology Journal* 17, 1561-1577 (2009).

507 [44] DWASA. Annual Report of 2011-12. (Dhaka Water Supply & Sewerage Authority,
508 Dhaka, 2012)

509 [45] Seibert. S.et al. Groundwater use for irrigation – a global inventory. Hydrological Earth
510 System Science 14, 1863-1880 (2010).

511 [46] DPHE/ BGS. Arsenic contamination of groundwater in Bangladesh. Kinniburgh DG &
512 Smedley PL (eds). British Geological Survey Technical Report WC-00-19 (British Geological
513 Survey, Keyworth, 2001)

514 [47] Winkle, L., Berg, M., Amini, M., Hug, S. J. & Johnson A. C. Predicting groundwater
515 arsenic contamination in Southeast Asia from surface parameters. Nature Geoscience 1,
516 536-542 (2008). 2008

517