

1 **Groundwater quality and depletion in the Indo-Gangetic Basin**
2 **mapped from *in situ* observations**

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36 **Groundwater abstraction from the transboundary Indo-Gangetic Basin comprises 25% of**
37 **global groundwater withdrawals sustaining agricultural productivity in Pakistan, India,**
38 **Nepal and Bangladesh. Recent interpretations of satellite gravity data indicate that**
39 **current abstraction is unsustainable, [1,2,3] yet these large-scale interpretations lack the**
40 **spatio-temporal resolution required to govern groundwater effectively [4,5]. Here we**
41 **report new evidence from high-resolution *in-situ* records of groundwater-levels,**
42 **abstraction and groundwater-quality, which reveal that sustainable groundwater supplies**
43 **are constrained more by extensive contamination than depletion. We estimate the**
44 **volume of groundwater to 200 m depth to be >20 times the combined annual flow of the**
45 **Indus, Brahmaputra and Ganges and show the water-table has been stable or rising across**
46 **70% of the aquifer between 2000 and 2012. Groundwater-levels are falling in the**
47 **remaining 30% amounting to a net annual depletion of $8.0 \pm 3.0 \text{ km}^3$. Over 60% of the**
48 **aquifer, access to potable groundwater is restricted by excessive salinity or arsenic.**
49 **Recent groundwater depletion in northern India and Pakistan has occurred within a longer**
50 **history of groundwater accumulation, from extensive canal leakage. This basin-wide**
51 **synthesis of in-situ groundwater observations provides the spatial detail essential for**
52 **policy development, and the historical context to help evaluate recent satellite gravity**
53 **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 alluvial deposits dominate. Additional uncertainty in future groundwater
83 security has been introduced by forecasts of climate change and the potential for
84 substantial 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 statistical analyses 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. Despite this concern, the only re-sampling
152 study to date [28] recorded no change in groundwater chemistry from 46 abstraction wells
153 >150 m deep; retardation is expected to delay vertical migration by centuries [29].

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 transport 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.

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280 **Author Contributions**

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

288 **Competing Financial Interests statement**

289 There are no competing financial interests.

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294 Figure 1 The location, hydrology and abstraction from the Indo Gangetic Basin alluvial
295 aquifer system (IGB): (a) location of the IGB; (b) mean annual precipitation 1950 – 2010 [9],
296 rivers and major canal distribution; and (c) estimated mean annual groundwater abstraction
297 in 2010, showing the high groundwater abstraction in north west India, northern Pakistan
298 and central and northern Bangladesh. Total groundwater abstraction from the aquifer is
299 205 km^3 , approximately 25% of the global total.

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

306 Figure 3. Annual change in water-table estimated from regional datasets and validated with
307 3429 multi-year records: (a) map of mean annual change across the basin during the period
308 2000-2012; (b) long-term groundwater-level hydrographs for four piezometers; (c)
309 proportion of the aquifer with rising or falling groundwater-levels, 61% of the aquifer has
310 near stable groundwater levels; (d) cumulative frequency distributions for each water-table
311 category demonstrating the low spatial variability in areas with annual changes close to
312 zero, and the high variability where groundwater-levels are falling by more than 0.25 m per
313 year or rising by more than 0.05 m per year.

314 Figure 4. Groundwater quality in the IGB aquifer system: (a) salinity measured as total
315 dissolved solids in the groundwater and areas where arsenic is known to be widespread, or
316 thought likely to occur; and (b) the volume of the water in the top 200 m of the aquifer by
317 quality, total volume is $30,000 \text{ km}^3 \pm 14,000 \text{ km}^3$. Groundwater with salinity $>1000 \text{ mg/L}$
318 accounts for 23% of the volume of groundwater (28% of aquifer area); and of the remaining
319 volume 37% is at risk of elevated arsenic (35% by aquifer area).

320

321 **Methods**

322 Four separate transboundary spatial datasets were developed for the IGB across Pakistan,
323 India, Nepal and Bangladesh using ground-based data: water-table trend per annum;
324 groundwater abstraction; groundwater chemistry; and groundwater storage. In addition, a
325 dataset of 3429 multi-year water-table records was developed.

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

327 More than 10,000 individual time series of groundwater-level records were collated from
328 the IGB across India, Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan from numerous sources
329 (Supplementary Table 4). A range of time periods, length and frequency of record was
330 present within the dataset and a quality assurance process was undertaken to develop the
331 final dataset. The inclusion criteria were: a minimum length of 7 years of records; at least
332 two measurements per year at high and low water-table; and records being within the time
333 period 1975 – 2013. These reduced the dataset to 3810 entries. Most data (82%) are
334 entirely within the time period 2000-2012 with 11% from 1989-2000, 6% 1993-2005 and 1%
335 from 1975-2012. Data from outwith the period 2000-2012 were used to give information in

336 areas where no other data were available. For each individual time series the linear trend in
337 annual mean, maximum and minimum groundwater level was calculated using a linear
338 regression model. These values were estimated by fitting a model to the full data set with
339 separate trend parameters (slope and intercept) for each borehole time series. The dataset
340 was first explored for skewness and outliers were removed by applying Tukey's fences [31]).
341 ANOVA indicated that all effects in the model are significant (adjusted $R^2 = 0.96$) indicating
342 the occurrence of temporal trends which differ between wells. Minimum, maximum and
343 mean groundwater-level were also calculated for each borehole for the total length of
344 record. After the statistical treatment of the data and removal of individual outliers, the
345 number of usable time series was reduced to 3429, which formed the final water-table
346 records dataset (WTR). The location of the records are shown in Supplementary Figure 1.

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

359 Additional longer term datasets were sought for the basin to help contextualise the WTR.
360 Several historical long term records were collated from Pakistan and India, (Supplementary
361 Table 4). Data were digitised from reports published in the 1970s and 1980s and matched
362 to modern data monitoring boreholes. Records are presented where there is a high degree
363 of confidence that the modern records are from the same borehole as the older record. The
364 records are not complete however, and data for parts of the 1970s and 80s are missing.

365 *Map of annual groundwater-level trend*

366 To develop the map of mean annual trend in water-table per district area for the period
367 2000-2012, the WTR was combined with existing national maps and databases of
368 groundwater-level variations (Supplementary Table 5). District area maps for Pakistan,
369 India, Nepal and Bangladesh, as provided by GADM (www.gadm.org) were used as the base.
370 Average water-table deflection was estimated for each district area from existing published
371 or national sources of groundwater-level variation for Pakistan and India. For Pakistan,
372 annual district water-level trend was estimated from a survey of water-table depth mapped
373 across the Indus Basin Irrigation System (IBIS) in June 2002 and repeated in June 2012 [33]
374 in conjunction with a statistical analysis of 3175 water level records in Punjab from 2003-
375 2011 [34]. In India, annual district water level trend was mapped by subtracting maps of
376 groundwater level measured in 2011 from the decadal mean 2001-2010 using CGWB
377 published maps [35]. The district groundwater-level estimated from these available data in
378 India and Pakistan were then checked against data in the WTR dataset. The Indian maps
379 agreed well with the WTR data where groundwater levels were declining or rising markedly;
380 however in the published broad categories 0 to +0.25 m and 0 to - 0.25 m per year the WTR
381 data showed that long term trends within these ranges were generally close to zero. In

382 these areas, the WTR was used to estimate water-level variation per district and assign new,
383 refined categories. For districts where few WTR data were available, the average WTR
384 annual trend calculated for the spatial extent of the existing broad category in that region
385 was assigned to the district. For Bangladesh a published analysis of water-table variation for
386 the years 2003 – 2007 compiled from 1267 monitoring wells from the Bangladesh Water
387 Development Board [36,37] was adapted to map mean annual groundwater-level trend at
388 district level. The original Bangladesh Water Development Board dataset was used to
389 calculated trend data for each district, which was checked for consistency with the
390 published data and the 50 good quality WTR records available for Bangladesh. For Nepal, a
391 recently completed study of tube wells in the Terai [38] was used for information about the
392 tube wells, and the WTR available for the districts used to assign regional water-table
393 trends. This new combined map has systematic data-bins developed across the 4 countries:
394 annual fall (m) >0.75, 0.25–0.75, 0.05 – 0.25, stable -0.02 - +0.02; and annual rise (m) 0.05 -
395 0.25). The WTR data for each data-bin were then plotted on a cumulative frequency curve to
396 indicate the spread of data within each bin, and the median used in further calculations of
397 basinwide groundwater storage changes. A further breakdown of the WTR data per region is
398 shown in Supplementary Figure 5.

399

400 *Groundwater abstraction*

401 A basin-wide map of current estimated groundwater abstraction was developed by
402 combining the complete available district data for India for the year 2010 with a
403 combination of local and published datasets for Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh which
404 covered the period 2008 to 2013 (Supplementary Table 1). District maps for the four

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

419 *Groundwater chemistry*

420 Mapping groundwater chemistry for the IGB alluvial aquifer system focussed on the
421 distribution of salinity and arsenic, the two most significant water quality issues within the
422 basin. There is limited information on the depth variations of groundwater quality across
423 much of the IGB, (with the exception of the lower Bengal Basin). Most studies take
424 chemistry samples from existing pumping boreholes of unknown depth. Existing boreholes
425 are generally less than 100 m deep and would only very rarely exceed 200 m. Spatial
426 information on water quality variations was assigned to the full depth of the upper 200 m of
427 the aquifer, apart from the piedmont area where the aquifer is physically limited to 100 m.

428 For salinity, this may under-estimate the area affected as salinity generally increases with
429 depth; for arsenic, this may slightly over-estimate the volume affected as there is evidence
430 in some part of the basin that arsenic can reduce with depth. Groundwater salinity was
431 mapped by compiling existing information of groundwater chemistry and specific electrical
432 conductance from national and regional surveys across the four countries (Supplementary
433 Table 6). Salinity was represented as total dissolved solids expressed in mg/L and divided
434 into four categories <500, 500-1000, 1000-2500, >2500 mg/L reflecting potential water use.
435 The WHO has no official guidelines for TDS, but suggest that <1000 is generally acceptable
436 for drinking water. Areas of elevated arsenic concentrations (>10µg/L) in shallow
437 groundwater (< 200 m bgl) were determined by using a combination of available maps and
438 national datasets, local datasets and published studies and an understanding of the
439 distribution of Holocene deposits in the basin (Supplementary Table 7). The presence of
440 Holocene deposits and organic rich surface sediments is known to be a key indicator for
441 arsenic risk [46,47] The presence of Holocene deposits could be reliably mapped across the
442 IGB, though organic-rich soils can be more locally variable. The IGB was therefore, divided
443 into three categories: (1) elevated arsenic known to be widespread through detailed study;
444 (2) elevated arsenic believed likely to occur given the geological setting and isolated studies;
445 and (3) elevated arsenic likely to occur only in isolated areas given the geological setting and
446 likely conditions.

447 *Groundwater storage*

448 Groundwater storage in the top 200 m was calculated using an estimate of the effective
449 thickness and specific yield (drainable porosity) of the aquifer. We estimated these
450 properties using hydrogeological typologies [32] developed from an interpretation of the

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

466

467 *Data availability*

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

472

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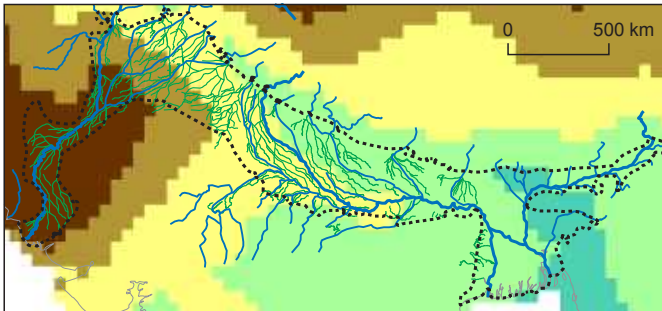
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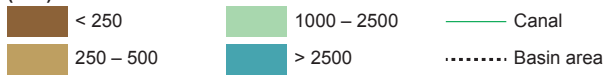
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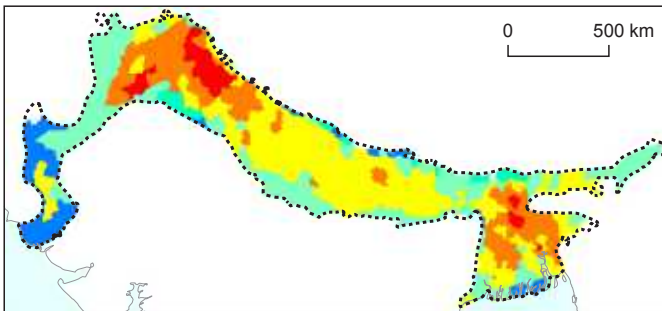
(b)



Annual precipitation (mm)



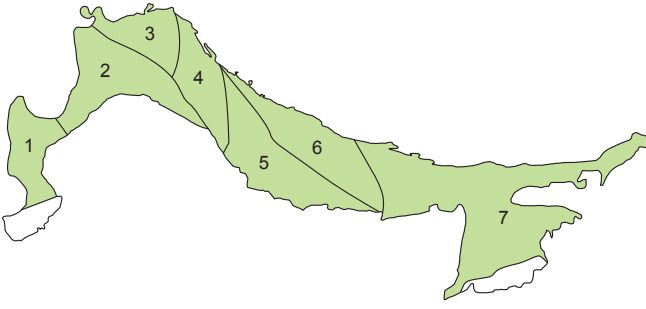
(c)



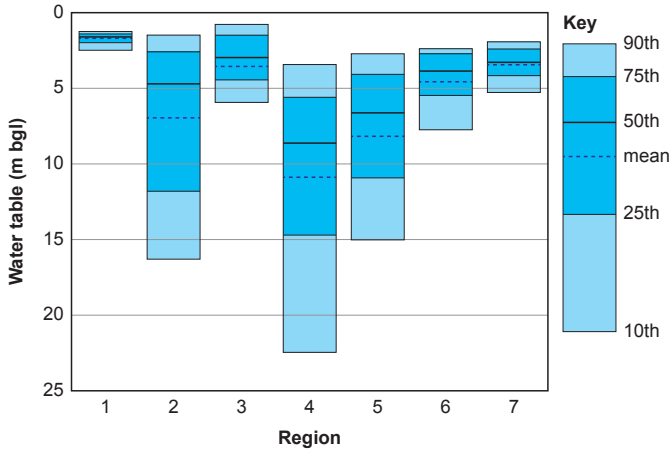
Annual abstraction (mm)



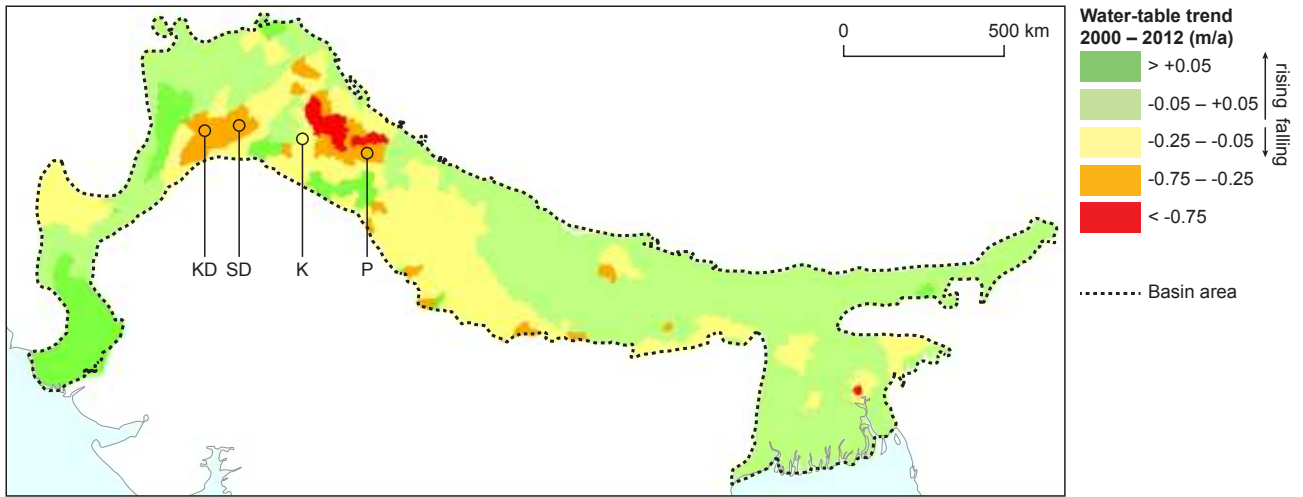
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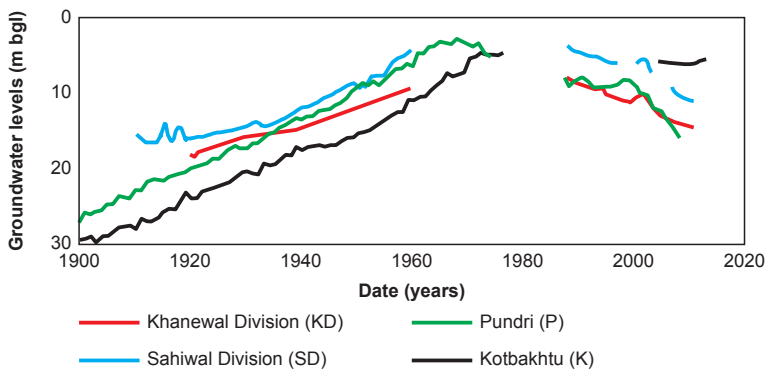
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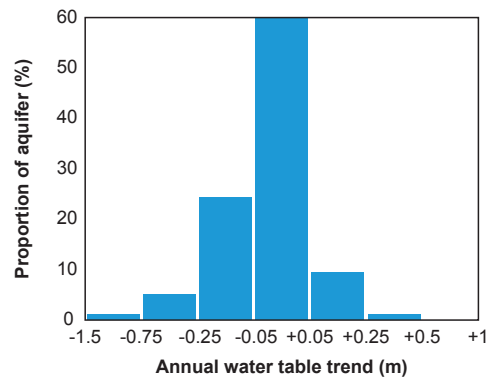
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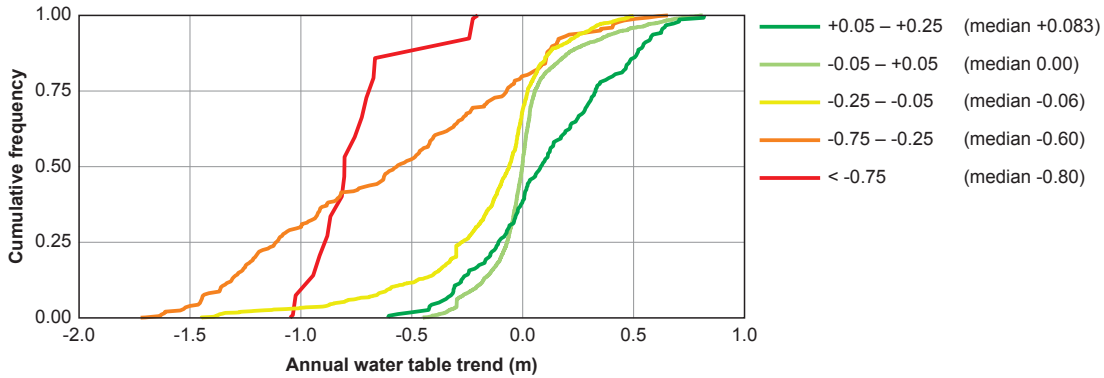
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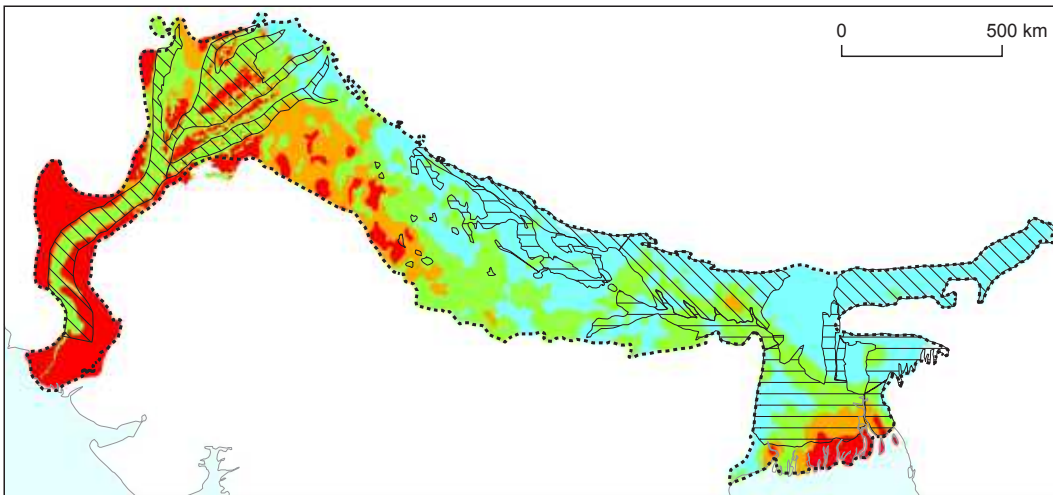
(c)



(d)



(a)



(b)

