



Assessment of groundwater quality using hydrochemical process, GIS and multivariate statistical analysis at central Rif, North Morocco

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Abstract

This study investigated groundwater in the central Rif region of northern Morocco by analysing 55 water sampling points to assess its physicochemical and hydrogeochemical properties. Through hydrochemical analysis, GIS spatial exploration, and multivariate statistical analysis, a direct correlation was found between EC, TDS, and major ions, influencing overall water mineralization. The key findings included pH levels ranging from 6.10 to 8.52, EC from 828 to 4581 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$, and varying concentrations of Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ , K^+ , HCO_3^- , Cl^- , N-NO_2^- , and SO_4^{2-} . Notably, TDS and TH ranged from 647.19–3609.36 mg/L and 64.23–1051.24 mg/L, respectively, with a significant portion of samples exceeding WHO guidelines, particularly chloride (61.81%), sulfate (92.72%), and nitrate (12.72%) samples. The Piper diagram highlights sodium chlorides (Na–Cl) as the predominant chemical facies (70.9%), while the Gibbs diagram emphasizes the impact of evaporation on water chemistry dynamics. This study revealed the complex influence of geological and anthropogenic factors on groundwater quality, potentially leading to seawater intrusion in coastal aquifers. The observed high mineralization and hardness levels, in addition to mild alkalinity, pose public health risks, underscoring the need for continuous monitoring and sustainable management practices in coastal groundwater management to protect human health and the environment.

Keywords Groundwater quality · Physicochemical properties · Mineralization · Hydrochemical analysis · Central Rif · Morocco

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Introduction

Water is a vital resource essential for human survival, social progress, and economic growth. However, the distribution of these resources is not always equitable, with hydrospheric groundwater accounting for 2.8% of freshwater resources, while lakes, reservoirs, and river systems only contribute 0.26%. Sustainable water resource management is crucial for ensuring universal access to clean and sufficient water (Shiklomanov 2000).

Groundwater, known for its superior quality, regularity, and natural protection, plays a critical role as a water source in various countries and regions. It often surpasses surface water in quality, making it a vital water supply source (Dole-Olivier et al. 2005). This invaluable resource has diverse applications that benefit both the environment and society, particularly in arid and semiarid regions (Li et al. 2016; Wu and Sun 2016; Zabala et al. 2016; Li and Qian 2018).

Climate change significantly impacts groundwater, altering its physical and chemical properties and leading to changes in water availability, increased salinity, and pollution from extreme weather events (Dao et al. 2023). These effects are particularly pronounced in hot, dry climates reliant on groundwater (Javadinejad et al. 2019). Predicting the complex impacts of climate change on groundwater resources requires enhanced observations, understanding of processes, and improved modelling capabilities (Earman and Dettinger 2011). Additionally, climate change can disrupt the hydrological system, resulting in issues such as groundwater overexploitation, water table depletion, and saltwater intrusion (Islam and Mostafa 2024). Moreover, according to He et al. (2019), the groundwater environment is significantly impacted by climate change and human activities such as rapid urbanization, intensive agricultural activities, and industrial development. Indeed, the overexploitation of natural resources, coupled with human activities, has deteriorated groundwater quality in the Mediterranean basin.

As the Mediterranean region is highly vulnerable to water scarcity (Margat 2008), ensuring an adequate groundwater supply has become crucial, and attention must also be directed towards preserving the quality of this vital resource (Aghazadeh and Mogaddam 2010; Neisi et al. 2018).

In Morocco, groundwater is a crucial source of water, particularly in the region of Al-Hoceima, which is located on the northern coast of the Mediterranean Sea. This area has high densities of natural sources for irrigation and drinking water consumption. However, poor water quality due to various types of contamination is a significant

issue. The salinization of groundwater in Morocco has garnered increasing research interest in recent years (Elgettafi et al. 2012; Himi et al. 2017; Elmeknassi et al. 2021). The chemical composition of groundwater, resulting from interactions between the liquid phase and solid matrix, is a significant concern (Mahlknecht et al. 2017). To prevent further degradation of groundwater quality, a comprehensive understanding of its sources and salinization processes is imperative (Bouissa et al. 2021). Therefore, an in-depth understanding of the origin of this salinity is crucial for effective aquifer management (Kamal et al. 2021; Rochdane et al. 2022). Among the factors contributing to groundwater quality deterioration, natural and anthropogenic elements such as seawater intrusion, adjacent aquifer impacts, hydrodynamic conditions, dissolution of evaporitic rocks, upwelling of deep saline waters, and unregulated fertilizer use are prominent (Milnes 2011; Elgettafi et al. 2012; Giambastiani et al. 2013; Ledesma-Ruiz et al. 2015; Ouhamdouch et al. 2021). Scientists have investigated chemical interactions through hydrogeochemical approaches (Liu et al. 2017).

In groundwater studies, geochemical analysis of groundwater plays a crucial role in understanding water quality and salinization processes. Various studies have delved into this aspect in different regions. For instance, Panteleit et al. (2001) conducted a study on the Coastal Aquifer Test Field in North Germany, Slama et al. (2022) focused on the Korba coastal aquifer in Tunisia, and Maman Hassan and Firat Ersoy (2022) investigated the Çarşamba coastal aquifer in Turkey. These studies have shed light on seawater intrusion and agricultural contamination as significant factors contributing to salinization.

On the other hand, the utilization of cartographic tools such as the geographical information system (GIS) and multivariate statistical analysis has become prevalent in groundwater assessment. These tools allow for a comprehensive interpretation of groundwater quality and quantity. Previous studies have employed GIS-based multicriteria analysis to identify potential recharge areas, as seen in the work of Saidi et al. (2017) in Tunisia. Additionally, remote sensing techniques and Kohonen self-organizing maps were utilized by Abdelkarim et al. (2022) to pinpoint recharge areas, while Msaddek et al. (2019) employed multivariate statistical evaluation and the analytic hierarchy process to map recharge potential. Hence, by integrating geochemical analysis with cartographic tools and statistical methods, current research can provide a deeper understanding of groundwater dynamics, salinization processes, and recharge area delineation, contributing to informed decision-making in groundwater management and sustainability efforts.

Groundwater serves as a critical source of drinking water for rural populations, livestock, and irrigation in the central

Rif region of Morocco. However, ensuring the quality of drinking water remains a significant challenge across all regions of Morocco, particularly in rural areas. The utilization of untreated groundwater for drinking purposes poses serious health risks to rural communities. Therefore, it is imperative, as recommended by Laferriere (1996), to prioritize close monitoring of water pollution, which is a pressing concern regarding these vital water resources. This proactive approach to monitoring is essential for safeguarding public health and addressing the challenges associated with water quality in rural areas of Morocco.

The aim of our study is to assess groundwater quality in the central Rif region by conducting a detailed physicochemical analysis, exploring correlations between groundwater compositions, and utilizing point interpolation for spatial distribution mapping. Our objective is to identify salinization zones, understand contamination sources, and propose corrective measures to prevent groundwater quality deterioration in the study area.

Materials and methods

Study area

The study area is situated in the central Rif region and is located along the coast of the Al-Hoceima region in northern Morocco (Fig. 1).

The studied zone encompasses the western part of the Bokkoya Plain extending to the eastern side of the Ghis-Nekor Plain, bordered by the Mediterranean coast to the north and the Tisirenes Flysch to the south. It falls within the inner domain of the Rifian chain and was formed as a result of the Alpine orogeny (Talhaoui et al. 2005). The geological structure of the area consists of stacked structural units separated by abnormal contacts, including outer limestone ridges deposited on the ancient margin of the North African continent and partially transformed during the late Oligocene and Miocene (Frizon-De-Lamotte and Leikine 1985; Negro et al. 2007). The topography of the internal calcareous ridges is supported by tectonic cliffs featuring calcareous-dolomitic dorsal scales and klipps of the Sebides and Gomarides units (Chalouan et al. 1995; Michard et al. 2002).

The area covers the westernmost part of the Bokkoya Plain to the eastern side of the Ghis-Nekor Plain, bordered by the Mediterranean coast to the north and the Tisirenes Flysch to the south (Fig. 2). It belongs to the inner domain of the Rifian chain and formed as a result of the Alpine orogeny (Talhaoui et al. 2005).

The geological structure of the study area is imbricated towards the south with the Tisirenes Flysch, with the presence of the Trougout Fault zone separating the Nekor basin from the Ras Tarf horst (Galindo-Zaldívar et al. 2015). The area comprises both shallow and deep aquifers, namely, the Bokkoya and Ghis-Nekor aquifers. The Bokkoya aquifer is drained by a network of oueds and tributaries, while the Ghis-Nekor aquifer is fed by the Ghis River in the west and

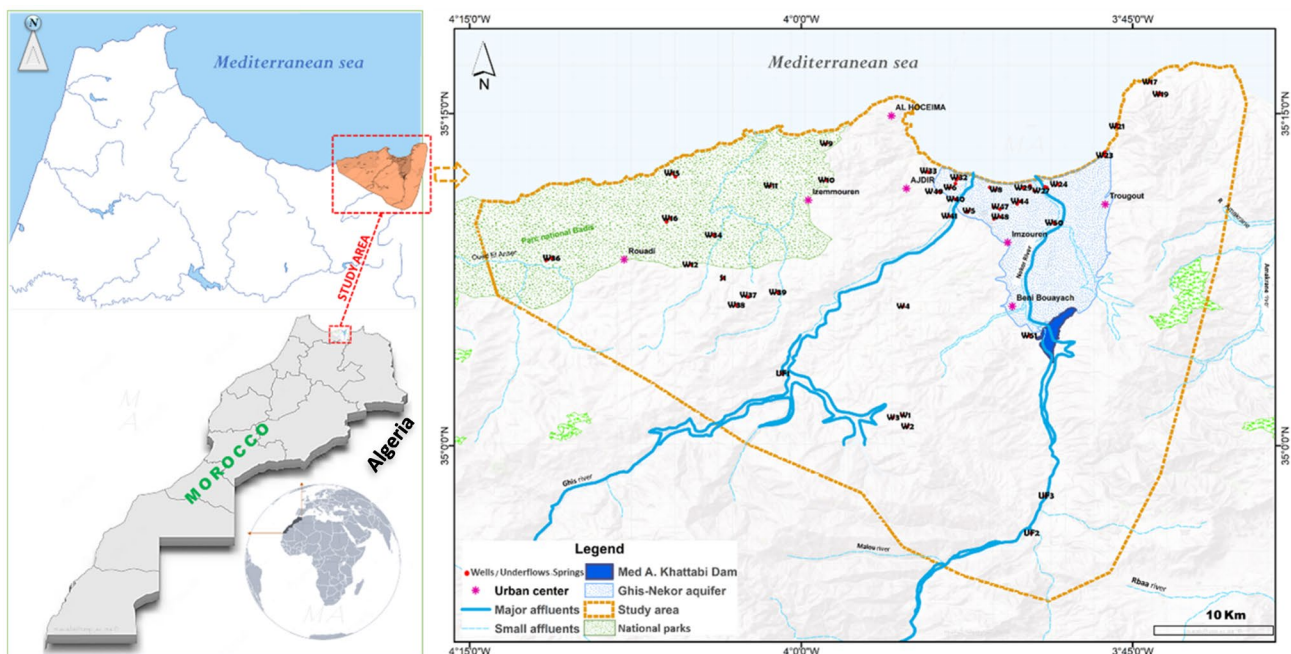


Fig. 1 Study area and location of drinking water sites in the central Rif (North Morocco)

the Nekor River in the east. The study area experiences a semiarid climate with alternating dry and wet seasons, characterized by an average annual rainfall of approximately 300 mm (Ghalit et al. 2017; Chafouq et al. 2018). The lithological data for the study area were provided by the Loukkos Hydraulic Basin Agency and Loukkos Regional Agricultural Development Office.

Groundwater sampling and analysis

In this study, groundwater samples were collected from both shallow and deep sources, including wells, underflows, and springs, across the central Rif region during 2020. The study area included a total of 55 monitored sites, with the locations of each sampling point indicated in Fig. 1. The hydrogen potential (pH), electrical conductivity (EC), and total dissolved solids (TDS) were measured in situ using a handheld multiparameter (HANNA, HI 991300). The collection of groundwater samples involved the use of presterilized 5 L capacity polyethylene bottles dedicated to physicochemical parameter analysis. Thus, to ensure the integrity of the samples, the bottles were thoroughly cleaned and then rinsed with the respective fresh groundwater samples before being filled on board. Subsequently, the plugs were securely fastened to prevent any gas exchange with the surrounding atmosphere. All the samples were quickly transported to the laboratory in coolers at a temperature below 4 °C and then stored in a refrigerator prior to the start of laboratory analysis. The analysis of these samples was conducted within a 48 h timeframe. Thereafter, the concentrations of the major components, including cations and anions, were determined in

a laboratory setting using the methods recommended by Rodier et al. (2009). Hence, titration methods were used to examine chloride (Cl^-), bicarbonate (HCO_3^-), total hardness (TH), and calcium ions (Ca^{2+}). The concentration of magnesium (Mg^{2+}) was determined using the TH and calcium content. Flame spectrophotometry was used to determine the concentrations of sodium (Na^+) and potassium (K^+) (Banerjee and Prasad 2020), while UV spectrophotometry was used to measure the concentrations of nitrogen ions (N-NO_3^- and N-NH_4^+) and sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) (Mulec et al. 2020).

The spatial variation in various groundwater parameters was represented using a geographic information system (GIS) (Abdelkarim et al. 2023), and the inverse distance weighting (IDW) interpolation technique was used to create spatial distribution maps via ArcGIS v10.8 software.

The hydrochemical processes controlling groundwater mineralization and salinization in the central Rif were studied using a Piper diagram and binary diagrams in Aquachem software v12.0. (Sathish Mohan et al. 2017), while XLstat software v.2023.5.1 was used to construct a hydrochemical facies evolution diagram (HFE-D) and Gibbs diagram (Ayed et al. 2017). Finally, Pearson correlation analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics version 25 to identify potential relationships between the measured physicochemical parameters.

Fig. 2 Map of the geological structure of the study area (extracted from the geological maps of Rouadi and Al-Hoceima at 1:50,000)

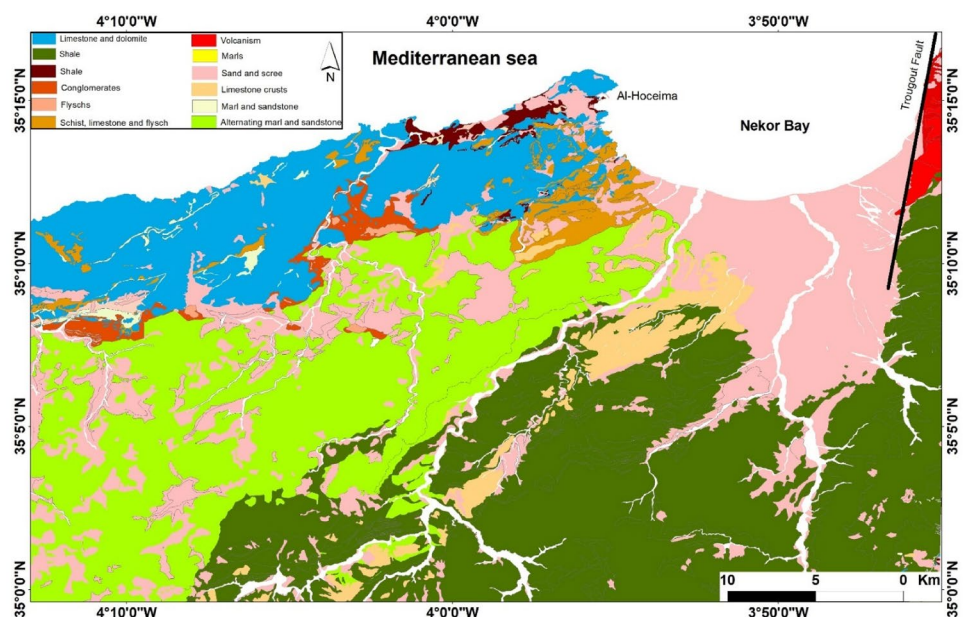


Table 1 Summary of physicochemical data of the groundwater samples in central Rif and their comparison with WHO levels

ID	Water type	T (°C)	pH	EC (µS/cm)	TDS (mg/l)	O ₂ (mg/l)	Ca ²⁺ (mg/l)	Mg ²⁺ (mg/l)	TH (mg CaCO ₃)	K ⁺ (mg/l)	Na ⁺ (mg/l)	NH ₄ ⁺ (mg/l)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (mg/l)	Cl ⁻ (mg/l)	SO ₄ ²⁻ (mg/l)	NO ₃ ⁻ (mg/l)
W1	Ca-SO ₄	18.0	6.70	1934	1825	7.90	318.3	97.2	1200.9	2.3	135.5	0.16	402.6	142.0	776.2	26.9
W2	Na-HCO ₃	16.5	7.37	1022	505	2.29	88.1	60.0	470.4	1.6	153.5	0.01	542.9	88.7	50.4	13.8
W3	Na-HCO ₃	19.1	7.02	1217	627	6.12	92.1	50.4	440.4	0.9	233.0	2.20	533.7	195.2	78.0	10.1
W4	Na-Cl	18.2	7.50	3694	3620	3.57	88.1	91.2	600.4	4.6	623.5	0.12	841.8	985.5	424.4	4.0
W5	Na-Cl	19.6	6.65	2170	1085	3.83	256.5	139.2	1221.2	8.0	394.0	0.10	384.3	710.0	741.8	22.3
W6	Ca-SO ₄	20.1	7.02	1762	882	3.78	248.4	148.2	1238.7	12.2	339.0	0.10	457.5	426.0	726.5	8.1
W7	Na-Cl	18.7	7.17	4142	1806	4.22	328.6	201.6	1661.6	5.7	560.5	0.10	457.5	1029.5	1231.3	2.9
W8	Ca-SO ₄	19.0	7.12	3640	2095	6.59	264.5	158.4	1321.3	4.5	452.5	0.13	402.6	674.5	944.5	6.6
W9	Na-Cl	15.0	8.32	872	436	4.19	56.1	16.8	210.2	0.4	133.0	0.13	79.3	147.0	56.9	14.8
W10	Ca-Cl	17.6	7.15	1263	632	3.87	120.2	24.0	400.6	2.8	102.0	0.12	274.5	213.0	48.5	50.4
W11	Na-Cl	19.0	7.60	1276	427	3.71	64.1	19.2	240.3	3.6	258.5	1.00	347.7	213.0	35.9	86.5
W12	Na-Cl	18.2	7.31	7153	2042	3.80	208.8	151.2	1152.1	18.3	789.0	0.90	512.4	2047.5	503.6	2.6
W13	Mg-HCO ₃	17.5	7.22	854	453	3.77	72.1	62.4	440.3	5.0	68.5	0.17	305.0	112.0	38.4	41.1
W14	Na-Cl	18.2	7.24	3192	1605	3.80	144.2	67.2	640.7	8.9	372.5	0.05	445.3	603.5	104.0	13.9
W15	Na-Cl	17.8	7.31	3015	1515	3.86	112.2	62.4	540.5	4.2	384.5	0.11	463.6	497.0	140.7	56.3
W16	Na-HCO ₃	18.0	7.53	1302	648	4.28	80.1	48.0	400.4	4.1	141.0	0.09	372.1	177.5	27.1	34.8
W17	Na-Cl	20.9	7.77	6618	3309	2.64	152.3	91.2	760.7	29.0	680.5	0.18	231.8	1473.2	598.8	9.3
W18	Ca-SO ₄	21.3	7.20	3736	1867	2.58	296.5	129.6	1281.2	7.8	308.5	0.09	268.4	497.0	924.3	2.6
W19	Ca-SO ₄	21.1	7.05	3795	1900	2.67	304.6	144.0	1361.5	10.3	314.0	0.04	311.1	426.0	842.4	3.3
W20	Na-Cl	25.4	7.41	2437	1220	2.75	128.2	81.6	660.6	9.6	217.5	0.05	305.0	390.5	83.3	6.5
W21	Na-Cl	26.6	7.06	2608	1304	2.58	136.2	81.6	680.6	8.6	229.0	0.05	292.8	461.0	103.1	5.6
W22	Na-Cl	21.3	7.44	10,210	4209	2.83	49.7	216.0	1024.2	33.1	785.5	0.12	457.5	2432.0	458.8	70.8
W23	Na-Cl	20.6	7.83	12,400	6204	5.52	48.0	292.8	1340.2	54.9	884.0	2.50	433.1	3150.0	623.1	4.1
W24	Na-Cl	21.0	7.79	2039	1021	2.67	208.4	129.6	1061.0	1.9	394.5	0.04	359.9	532.5	709.9	1.7
W25	Na-Cl	21.5	6.88	5440	2718	2.82	280.5	153.6	1341.4	5.7	501.0	0.15	634.4	887.5	704.1	3.2
W26	Na-Cl	21.8	7.04	2347	1162	2.80	216.4	120.0	1041.0	5.8	441.0	0.05	555.1	639.0	473.3	0.8
W27	Ca-SO ₄	20.8	7.16	6472	2043	2.62	360.7	235.2	1881.8	6.1	596.5	0.04	445.3	1065.0	1571.6	0.8
W28	Na-Cl	23.0	7.56	5594	2803	2.56	344.6	182.4	1621.7	7.8	467.5	0.10	311.1	852.0	1108.8	1.2
W29	Na-Cl	21.7	7.28	3568	1784	2.62	248.4	115.2	1101.2	5.6	324.5	0.06	341.6	461.5	618.0	9.5
W30	Na-Cl	21.1	7.34	2586	1359	3.05	184.3	100.8	880.9	6.1	247.0	0.06	329.4	355.0	455.2	0.3
W31	Na-Cl	21.6	7.57	1632	815	2.67	224.4	110.4	1021.1	6.9	286.0	0.07	408.7	390.5	523.3	0.8
W32	Na-Cl	19.6	7.23	3508	1756	3.03	232.4	129.6	1121.1	4.7	308.5	0.07	396.5	781.0	608.4	0.8
W33	Na-Cl	21.4	7.80	4389	2200	2.93	96.1	86.4	600.4	39.2	501.5	0.04	244.0	852.0	382.9	33.3
W34	Na-Cl	19.0	7.57	1312	656	4.29	80.1	24.0	300.4	6.3	157.0	0.04	189.1	213.0	42.3	40.2
W35	Na-Cl	20.6	7.74	3411	1704	2.80	128.2	81.6	660.6	17.7	365.0	0.05	359.9	674.5	173.3	10.5
W36	Na-Cl	18.9	7.60	1931	964	2.86	128.2	48.0	520.6	6.9	249.0	0.03	359.5	390.5	89.4	4.8

Table 1 (continued)

ID	Water type	T (°C)	pH	EC (µS/cm)	TDS (mg/l)	O ₂ (mg/l)	Ca ²⁺ (mg/l)	Mg ²⁺ (mg/l)	TH (mg CaCO ₃)	K ⁺ (mg/l)	Na ⁺ (mg/l)	NH ₄ ⁺ (mg/l)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (mg/l)	Cl ⁻ (mg/l)	SO ₄ ²⁻ (mg/l)	NO ₃ ⁻ (mg/l)
W37	Na-Cl	20.3	7.26	7513	3881	2.54	228.4	189.6	1361.1	23.9	605.0	0.07	671.0	1904.0	232.0	128.4
W38	Na-Cl	19.5	8.89	2675	1064	2.59	56.1	57.6	380.2	26.6	436.5	0.09	701.5	603.5	133.9	115.4
W39	Na-Cl	22.1	7.32	10,240	5089	2.45	408.8	259.2	2102.0	20.2	657.5	0.13	390.4	2804.5	504.1	18.3
W40	Ca-Cl	21.1	7.17	1498	749	2.87	256.5	81.6	981.2	3.4	258.5	0.03	223.3	461.5	402.0	8.7
W41	Na-Cl	22.2	7.40	3212	1610	2.63	26.4	124.8	586.0	5.0	300.0	0.04	347.7	532.5	471.2	3.7
W42	Na-Cl	21.2	7.45	3684	1055	2.58	248.4	172.8	1341.2	8.6	357.5	0.04	359.9	532.5	654.1	20.9
W43	Na-Cl	20.2	7.35	3299	1230	2.62	232.4	115.2	1061.1	3.3	309.5	0.17	305.0	532.5	522.2	10.7
W44	Na-Cl	20.7	7.18	3467	1734	2.59	256.5	120.0	1141.2	3.2	316.0	0.09	311.1	568.0	541.4	12.3
W45	Na-Cl	20.7	6.74	6254	3129	2.54	360.7	230.4	1861.8	6.7	512.0	2.10	542.9	923.0	1156.7	29.0
W46	Na-Cl	21.0	6.97	5739	2871	2.54	328.6	216.0	1721.6	4.7	470.0	0.04	420.9	958.5	976.5	24.4
W47	Na-Cl	22.0	7.11	2983	1490	2.52	336.6	201.6	1681.6	4.6	474.5	0.07	427.0	958.5	1029.7	23.8
W48	Na-Cl	21.2	8.78	4335	2167	4.37	152.3	105.6	820.7	6.2	419.0	0.05	140.3	781.0	586.0	10.1
W49	Na-Cl	21.4	7.26	6746	3372	4.42	168.3	148.8	1040.8	18.5	603.0	0.03	54.9	1278.0	525.4	180.8
W50	Ca-Cl	22.1	7.15	2477	1236	2.87	352.7	177.6	1621.7	4.0	384.0	0.09	329.4	710.0	905.2	18.3
W51	Na-Cl	22.7	6.96	6264	3134	2.55	240.4	148.8	1221.2	8.7	544.5	0.04	628.3	1349.0	557.3	26.9
UF1	Ca-SO ₄	23.1	7.63	2087	1043	4.95	176.3	91.2	820.8	2.8	148.0	0.05	353.8	248.5	381.3	0.5
UF2	Ca-SO ₄	25.5	7.25	2424	1210	5.76	240.4	100.8	1021.2	4.0	136.0	0.03	323.3	177.5	576.5	2.0
UF3	Ca-SO ₄	22.4	7.23	1604	802	7.46	336.6	38.4	1001.6	5.6	256.5	0.11	366.0	355.0	568.0	3.5
S1	Na-Cl	21.2	7.06	3292	1647	2.54	240.4	124.8	1121.2	12.9	563.0	0.00	414.8	1627.5	335.0	34.5
Max		15.0	6.65	854	427	2.29	26.4	16.8	210.2	0.4	68.5	0.00	54.9	88.7	27.1	0.3
Min		26.6	8.89	12,400	6204	7.90	408.8	292.8	2102.0	54.9	884.0	2.50	841.8	3150.0	1571.6	180.8
Average		20.6	7.36	3715.16	1812	3.50	200.7	121.0	1006.0	9.71	384.5	0.23	388.5	772.5	510.6	23.2
STDEV		2.1	0.42	2485.83	1201	1.30	101.0	63.4	456.2	10.3	187.5	0.52	144.2	657.6	355.7	34.6
WHO (2011)	Desirable	<25	6.5–8.5	1500	500–1500	>6	75–200	50–150	100–500	30	200–600	0.2	600	200–600	200–400	50.0
	permissible limit															
	% Of samples falling above desirable limit	5.45	3.63	83.63	60	92.72	67.2	40.1	83.6	5.4	29.0	7.2	9.0	61.8	92.7	12.7

The table presents the physicochemical characteristics of groundwater in Central Rif, Morocco

The key parameters included temperature (15.02–26.67 °C), pH (6.65–8.89), EC (854–12,400 µS/cm), ion concentrations (Na⁺, Cl⁻, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, HCO₃²⁻, SO₄²⁻), total hardness (210.28–2102.03 mg/L), and conductivity

Fig. 3 Map of the spatial distribution of the hydrogen potential (pH) in the study area

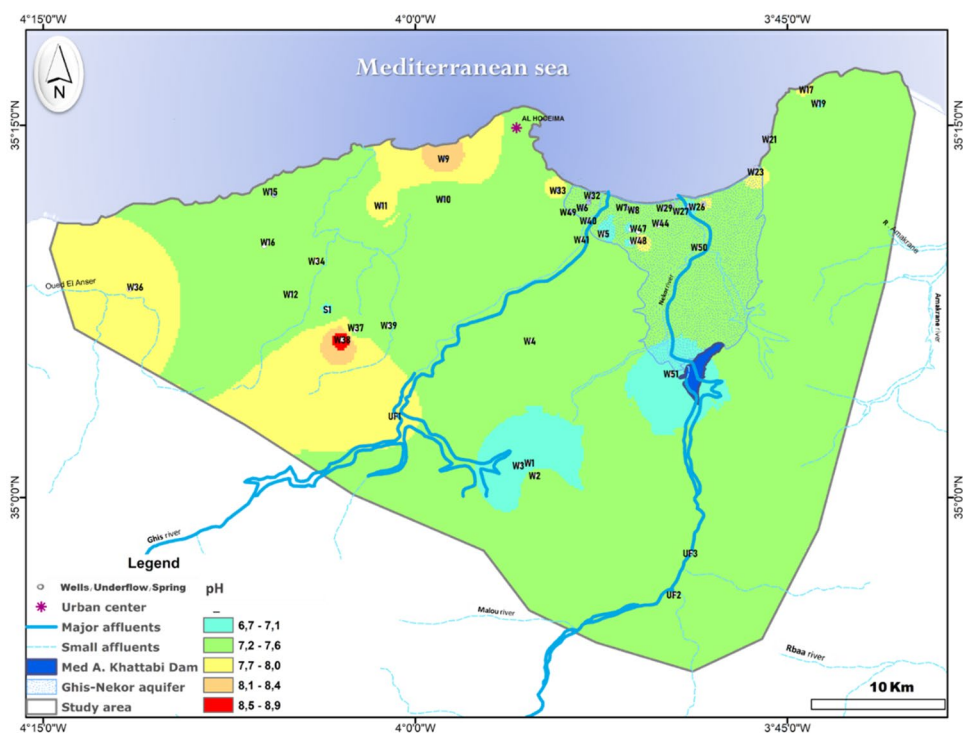


Fig. 4 Map of the spatial distribution of electrical conductivity (EC) in the study area

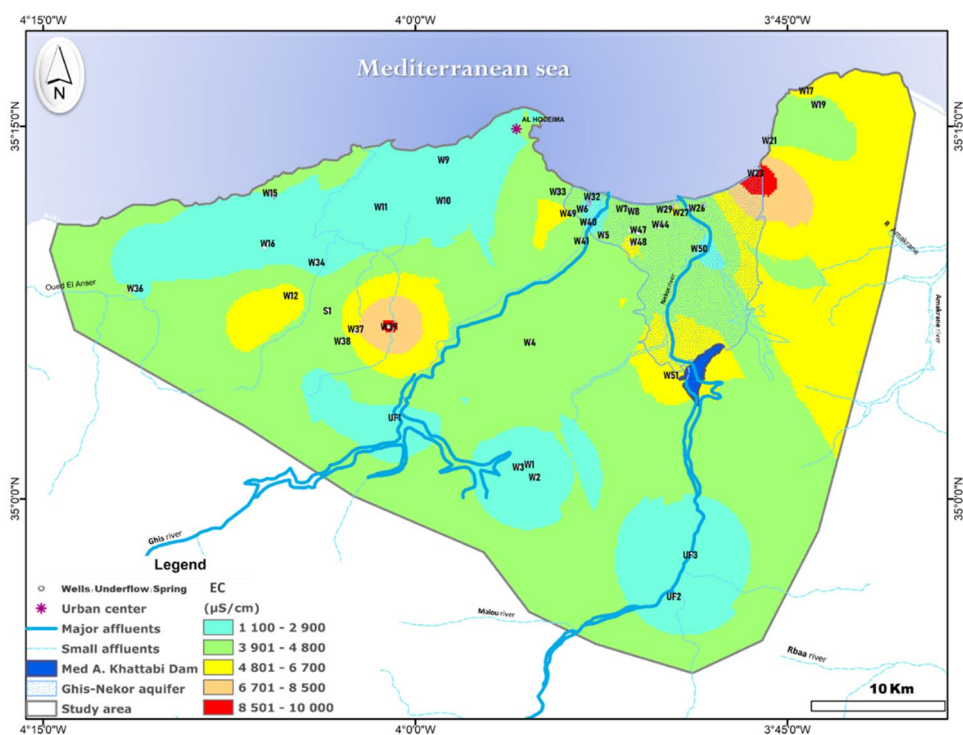


Fig. 5 Map of the spatial distribution of total hardness (TH) in the study area

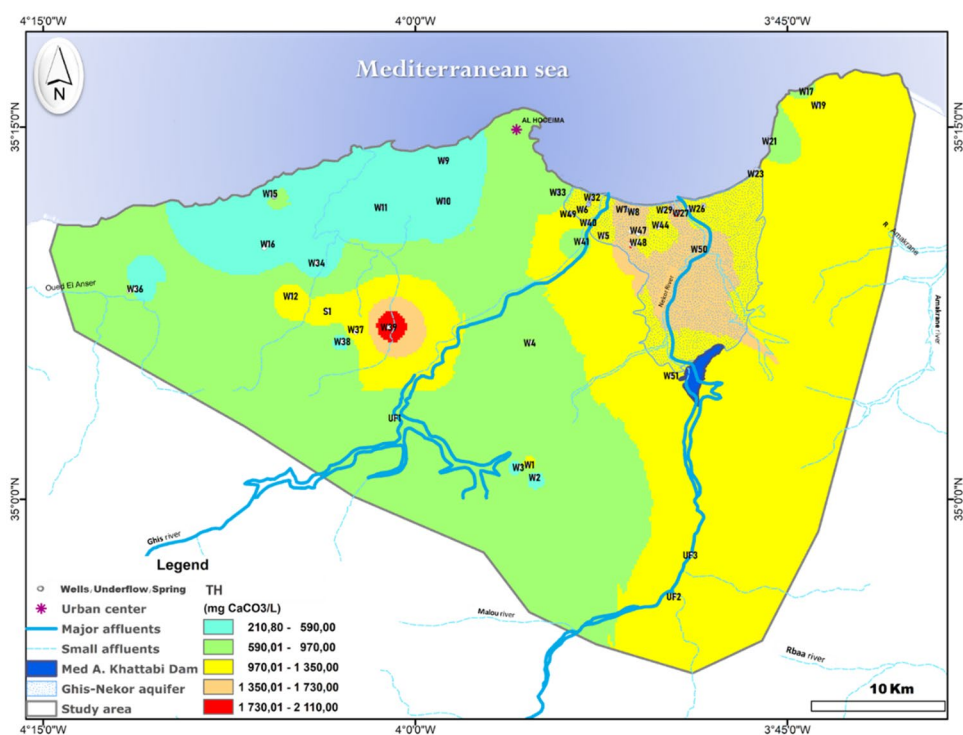


Fig. 6 Map of the spatial distribution of calcium (Ca^{2+}) in the study area

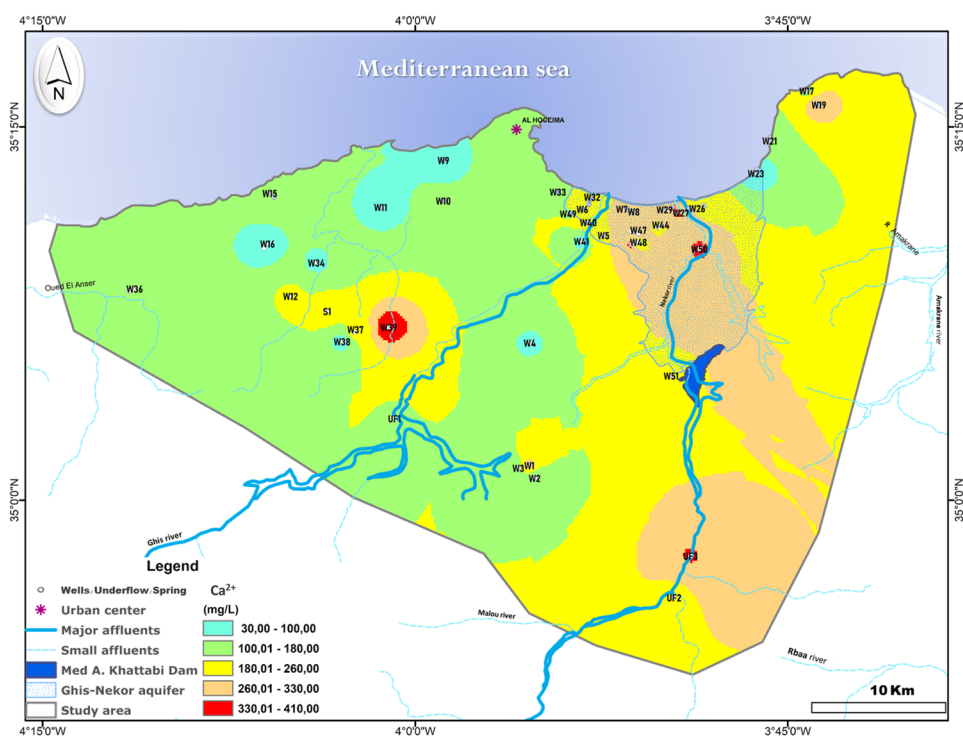


Fig. 8 Map of the spatial distribution of sodium ions (Na^+) in the study area

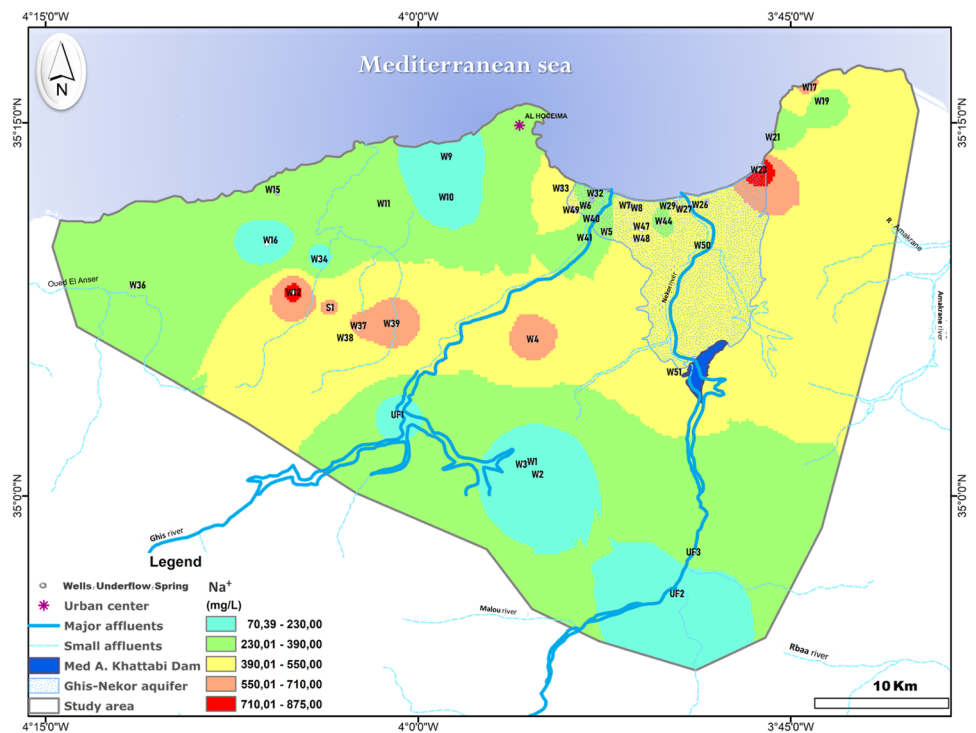


Fig. 9 Map of the spatial distribution of potassium (K^+) in the study area

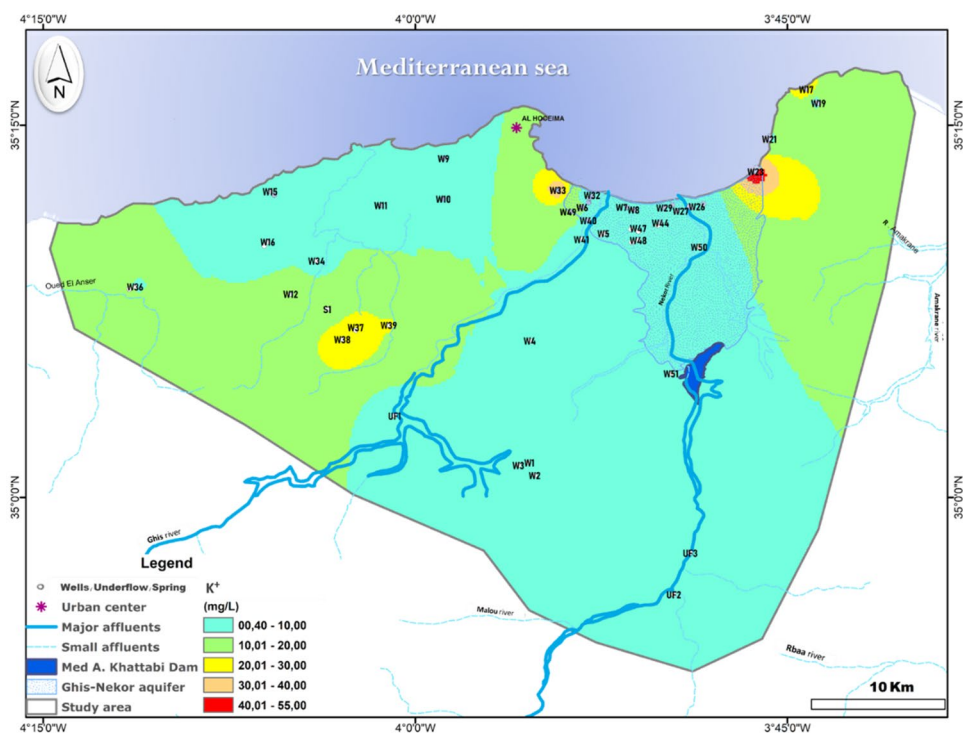


Fig. 10 Map of the spatial distribution of bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) in the study area

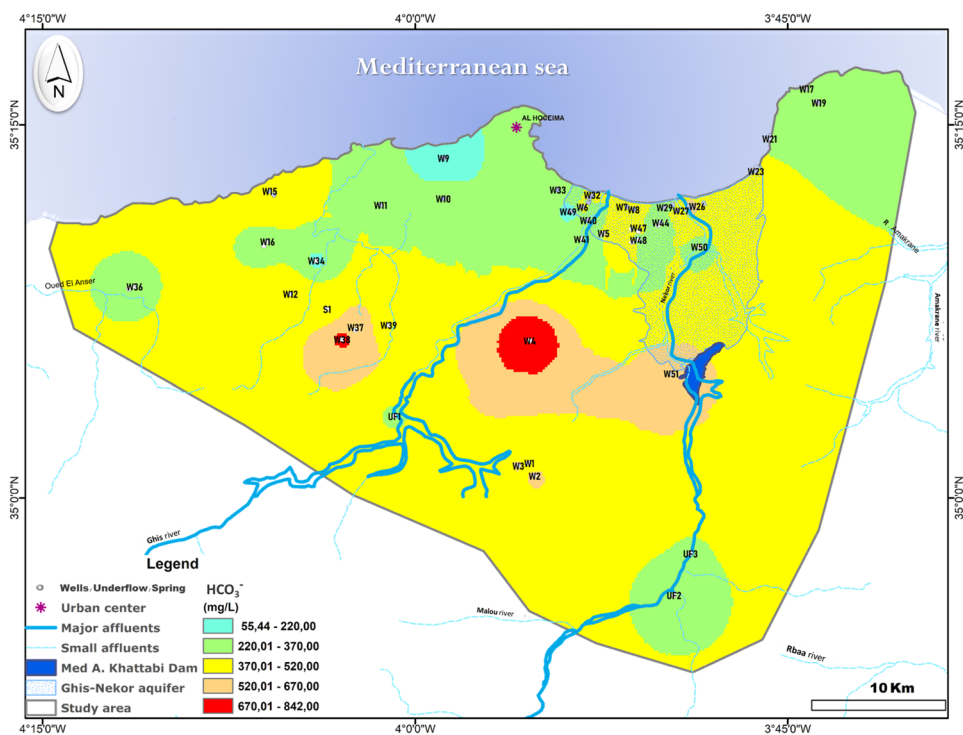


Fig. 11 Map of the spatial distribution of chloride (Cl^-) in the study area

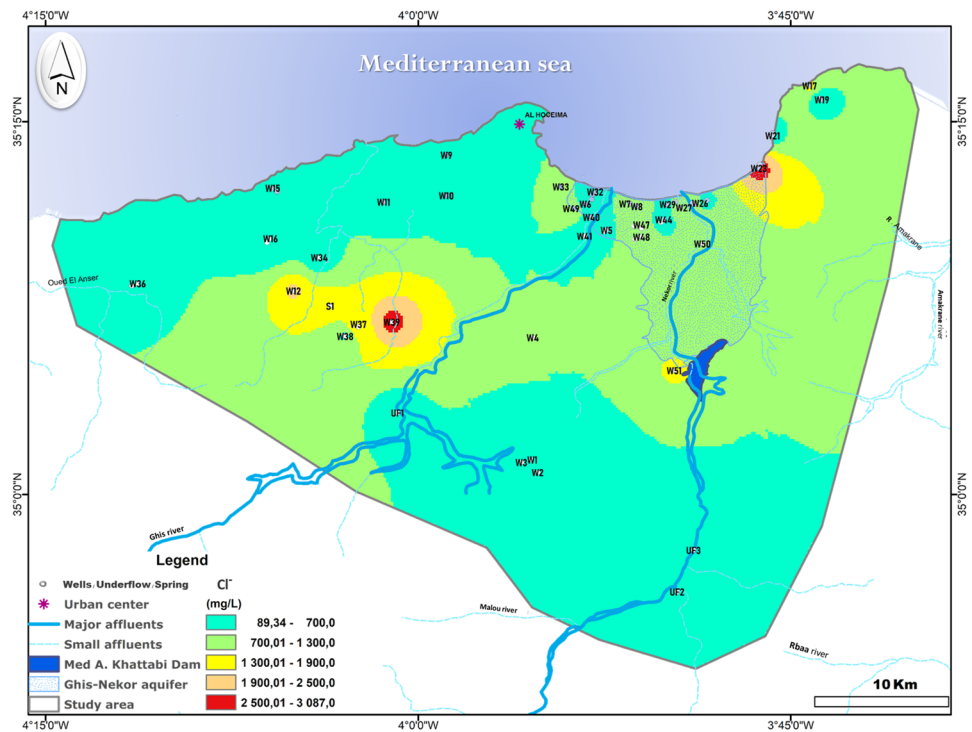


Fig. 12 Map of the spatial distribution of nitrate (N-NO_3^-) in the study area

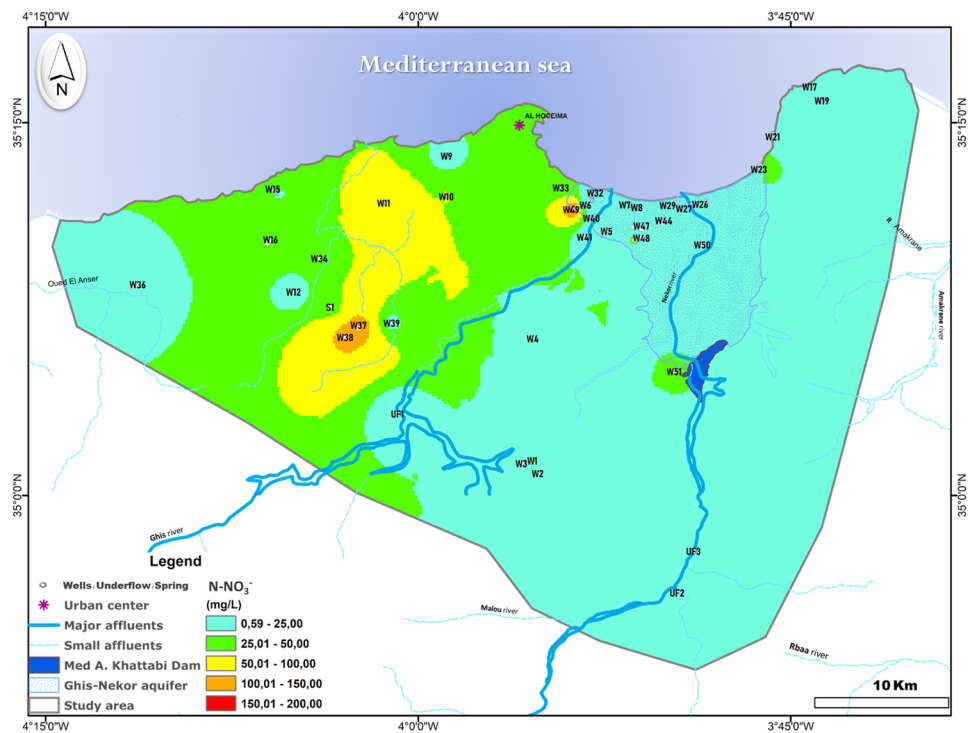


Fig. 13 Map of the spatial distribution of sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) in the study area

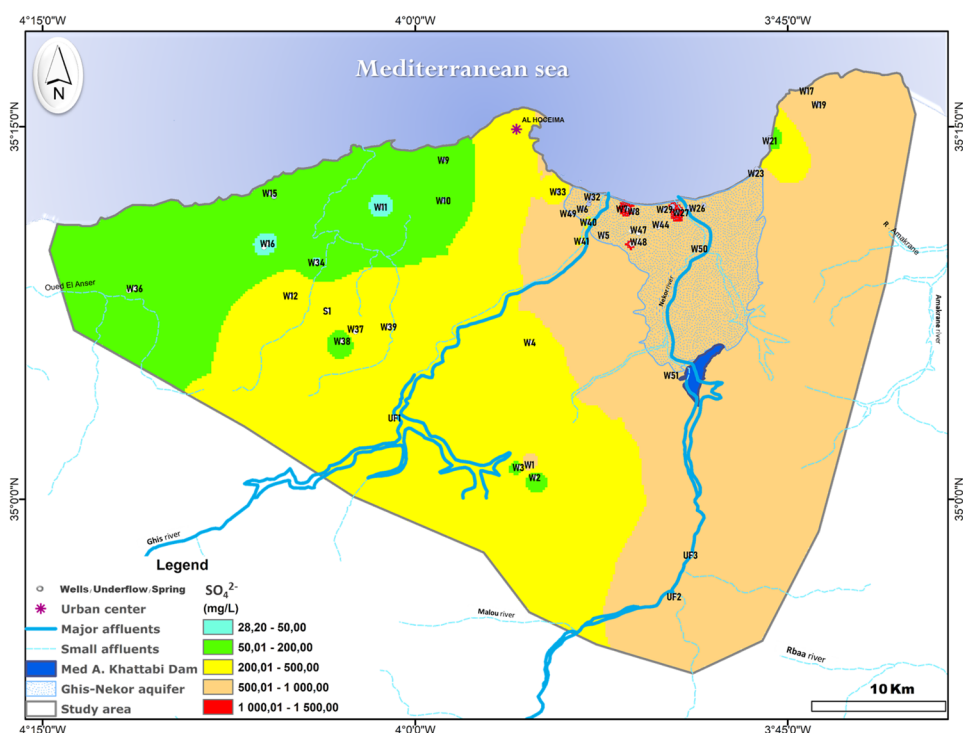


Table 2 Classification of groundwater samples in the study area according to TDS

TDS (mg/L)	Mineralization	Number of samples	% of samples
< 50	Very low	0	0.00
50–500	Low	3	5.45
500–1000	Moderate	10	18.18
1000–1500	High	13	23.64
> 1500	Very high	29	52.73

Results and discussion

Physicochemical characterization

The physicochemical qualities of the sampled groundwater were compared with WHO standards (Table 1). The spatial distributions of major element concentrations in the groundwater of the central Rif, such as pH, TDS, EC, TH, Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ , K^+ , HCO_3^- , Cl^- , N-NO_3^- , and SO_4^{2-} , are presented in Figs. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13.

Hydrogen potential (pH)

The pH values of the groundwater samples collected from the study area ranged from 6.65 to 8.89, with an average

of 7.36 (Fig. 3). Most of the samples exhibit slightly alkaline values (Table 1), which is in accordance with prior research (Chafouq et al. 2018; Bouaissa et al. 2020; Benyoussef et al. 2022; El Yousfi et al. 2023).

The observed low alkalinity of the groundwater in the study area, likely due to seawater infiltration into the coastal aquifer, aligns with findings by Chafouq et al. (2018) and Güner et al. (2021). While most groundwater samples fall within the permissible pH range of 6.5 to 8.5 set by the World Health Organization (WHO), a small percentage (3.63%) exceeded the recommended limits set by the WHO in this study. The issue of deteriorating groundwater quality, particularly concerning pH levels, is a significant concern across various regions. For instance, in the Zegoum region of Algeria, Hiouani et al. (2020) discovered that the majority of groundwater samples exhibited mediocre to poor quality, characterized by elevated levels of calcium and sulfates leading to a low alkalinity for groundwater. However, it is worth noting that in the same area, Bouhout et al. (2023) reported a pH ranging between 7.25 and 7.7, which falls within the acceptable range for drinking water. This variability highlights the importance of considering local factors and specific studies when assessing groundwater quality and its suitability for different purposes.

Total dissolved solids (TDS)

Groundwater potability and suitability for consumption and agriculture are influenced by the total cation and anion

Table 3 The groundwater samples in the study area were classified according to EC (Detay and Carpenter 1997)

EC ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$)	Mineralization	Number of samples	% of samples
< 1000	Very weakly mineralized water	2	3.64
1000–2000	Weakly mineralized water	12	21.82
2000–4000	Lightly mineralized water	25	45.45
4000–6000	Moderately mineralized water	5	9.10
6000–10000	Highly mineralized water	8	14.54
> 10000	Excessively mineralized water	3	5.45

concentrations known as total dissolved solids (TDS) (Van der Aa 2003; Rajesh et al. 2015). In this study, the TDS content ranged from 749 to 6204 mg/L, with an average value of 1960.45 mg/L. Approximately 60% of the groundwater samples exceeded the World Health Organization's desired limit of 500–1500 mg/L (WHO 2011) and were unsuitable for consumption due to their high TDS values. However, 40% of the samples fell within the desired limit and were considered potable. Additionally, only 18.18% of the samples showed moderate mineralization, as classified by Van der Aa (2003) (Table 2).

The high levels of mineralization observed in the groundwater samples from the study area can be attributed to various factors, as indicated by previous findings. Water–rock interactions, influenced by the geological substrate and bottom salts, play a significant role in the mineralization process (Dar et al. 2011; Tiwari and Singh 2014). Additionally, nutrient supply and water–rock interactions are predominant in aquifers, contributing to the observed mineralization levels (Ghalit 2017).

In karst aquifers, intense water exploitation can lead to changes in hydrogeochemistry, further impacting the mineral content of groundwater (Bicalho 2010). The lithology, water movement patterns, and recharge-discharge zones also influence the mineralization of groundwater (Simoes 2003). Moreover, the substratum type in catchment areas can affect the mineral content of rivers, highlighting the complex interplay between geological factors and water quality (Drive et al. 1989).

The observed increase in salinity in the groundwater samples may be attributed to the dissolution of soluble minerals present in tertiary materials, underscoring the geological influences on groundwater quality (Merchán et al. 2015). Additionally, significant TDS values (surrounding 6000 mg/L) were found in coastal zones or originating from deep aquifers, as highlighted in the study by Abdelkarim et al.

(2023), further emphasizing the impact of geological and hydrological factors on groundwater mineralization.

Electrical conductivity

The electrical conductivity (EC) is a critical parameter used to measure the amount of dissolved substances present in water, indicating the level of inorganic contaminants in water (Morrison et al. 2001; Li et al. 2021). The EC is determined by measuring the water's ability to conduct an electrical current. The more dissolved salts and minerals present in water, the greater the electrical conductivity will be. The concentration of ions, such as calcium, magnesium, sodium, and chloride, influences the electrical conductivity of water. The spatial distribution of electrical conductivity in the study area is illustrated in Fig. 4. Thus, the groundwater EC in the central Rif region ranged from 854 to 12400 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$, with an average of 3715.15 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$.

The elevated levels of electrical conductivity (EC) in groundwater samples, with 83.63% exceeding the WHO permissible limits, as indicated in Table 1, raise concerns about water quality and potential health risks. The WHO guidelines specify that acceptable EC levels in drinking water should not surpass 1000 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$. High EC in water can lead to adverse health effects such as hypertension, cardiovascular disease, and kidney problems, as highlighted by Fried (1991). Moreover, it can impact the suitability of water for irrigation and other purposes. Notably, 14.54% of the samples exhibited high mineralization levels, as noted by Detay and Carpenter (1997) in Table 3. Hence, various studies conducted in different regions, including Sukkur city, Pakistan (Laghari et al. 2018); Oriental Mindoro, Philippines (Kumara et al. 2020); Qambar city, Pakistan (Lanjwani et al. 2020); and Cuddalore Old Town, Tamilnadu (Selvaraju et al. 2022), have reported concerning levels of contamination in groundwater in terms of EC levels. Additionally, the presence of high mineralization levels in a notable percentage of samples further supports this issue, emphasizing the importance of monitoring and managing groundwater quality to safeguard human health and environmental well-being.

Table 4 The classification of groundwater was based on the TH (Sawyer and McCarty 1967)

Total hardness as CaCO_3 (mg/L)	Hardness class	Number of samples	% of samples
< 75	Soft	0	0.00
75–150	Moderately high	0	0.00
150–300	Hard	2	3.63
300	Very hard	53	96.36

Furthermore, an increase in EC indicates high ground-water salinity. Thus, elevated levels of dissolved salts and minerals in water can reduce the effectiveness of irrigation and cause soil salinization, which can impact crop yields and lead to long-term environmental degradation. Several factors affect water conductivity, including ion exchange, aquifer solubilization, and anthropogenic activities such as agricultural runoff and industrial activities (Panaskar et al. 2007; Ramesh and Elango 2012). In addition, the phenomenon of corrosion of the mother rock favoured in an acidic medium can greatly contribute to the enrichment of groundwater in ions since the corrosive potential of the water is increased by a low pH (Boyd 2015). This may be the case at many sampling points (W12, W17, W37, W49 and W51), where the pH ranged between 6.9 and 7.7, especially for wells W23 and W39, which had pH values of 7.83 and 7.32 and EC values of 12,400 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ and 10,240 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$, respectively (Table 1). Furthermore, anthropogenic activities such as irrigation, the use of fertilizers, and the application of pesticides can result in the accumulation of salts and minerals in groundwater, leading to increased electrical conductivity.

Total hardness (TH)

The total hardness (TH) of water, measured in mg CaCO_3 , is a critical characteristic of domestic water and is equivalent to the sum of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} concentrations. In this study, the TH values of the collected groundwater samples ranged from 210.28 to 2102.03 mg/L , with an average of 1006.04 mg/L (Fig. 4).

Approximately 83.63% of the samples exceeded the drinking water limit set by the World Health Organization (WHO 2011) (Table 1). Based on the classification proposed by Sawyer and McCarty (1967) (Table 4), 96.36% of the samples fall under the category of very hard water, while only 3.63% fall under the hard water category.

These results suggest that the majority of groundwater samples analysed in the study area are unsuitable for human consumption due to their exceptionally high hardness levels. This exceedance of drinking water standards is a prevalent issue in many Moroccan groundwater resources, particularly in the semiarid regions of Morocco. For this purpose, numerous studies have consistently reported that a significant proportion of groundwater samples surpass the World Health Organization's drinking water limits, exhibiting elevated levels of total hardness and salinity, namely, in the Essaouira Basin (Ouarani et al. 2020), Ouazi Basin (Bahir et al. 2021; El Mountassir et al. 2022) and Souk El Arbaa (Ghachoui et al. 2024).

Calcium and magnesium ions (Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+})

Calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}) are vital hydrochemical constituents of groundwater (Razowska-Jaworek 2014) that contribute to water hardness and may be associated with rock geochemistry (Olasehinde et al. 2015). However, excessive amounts of these elements can have detrimental impacts on human health. The calcium levels in the groundwater samples collected in the study area ranged from 26.43 to 408.81 mg/L , with an average value of 200.73 mg/L (Fig. 6). Similarly, the Mg^{2+} concentrations varied from 16.80 to 292.80 mg/L , with an average value of 121.01 mg/L (Fig. 7).

According to the WHO guidelines (2011), 67.27% of the groundwater samples (Table 1) exceeded the desired calcium limit, whereas 40% of the samples surpassed the recommended magnesium level (50–150 mg/L).

The principal sources of calcium (Ca^{2+}) in the study area seem to be gypsum, dolomite, and limestone (Ghalit et al. 2017). Indeed, water in contact with gypsum can reach higher calcium levels, increasing the solubility of gypsum in salt water (Bhakar and Singh 2019), while dolomite and rock mafic minerals (amphiboles) are sources of magnesium in natural waters (Kwami et al. 2019).

Sodium ions (Na^+)

Sodium ions occur naturally in groundwater due to geological processes such as rock weathering, soil salt dissolution from evaporation, agricultural activities and human inputs (Wagh et al. 2016; Abbasnia et al. 2019; Bhakar and Singh 2019). The high sodium content in some samples may result from cation exchange processes with other minerals (Abbasnia et al. 2019).

In the study area, as presented in Fig. 8, the groundwater samples had variable sodium concentrations ranging from 68.5 to 884 mg/L , with an average of 384.54 mg/L (Table 1).

According to these results, over a quarter (29.09%) of the samples exceeded the WHO limits (2011), posing potential health risks to susceptible populations (Marghade et al. 2011). Abnormally high sodium concentrations could be attributed to the alteration of plagioclase feldspar or exchange with sodium clay deposits (Ghalit et al. 2017; Kwami et al. 2019).

Potassium ions (K^+)

Potassium ions are essential nutrients for both plants and animals, and their presence in groundwater can have natural or anthropogenic origins. Natural sources include the weathering of rocks and the dissolution of minerals, while anthropogenic sources include chemical fertilizers and domestic sewage (Morán-Ramírez et al.

2016; Chandran et al. 2017). In this study, the average concentration of potassium in the groundwater samples was 9.71 mg/L, with a range of 0.4 to 54.9 mg/L. Only 5.45% of the samples exceeded the consumption standards established by the World Health Organization (WHO) in 2011 (as shown in Fig. 9 and Table 1).

Although most of the groundwater samples had potassium levels within acceptable limits, a small percentage of the samples exceeded the recommended limits for human consumption, which could pose a health risk to those who rely on groundwater as their primary source of drinking water. Thus, the presence of elevated potassium levels in certain samples underscores the importance of continued monitoring and management of groundwater resources, especially in areas where anthropogenic sources are prevalent. Overall, this study highlights the importance of monitoring potassium levels in groundwater, as excessive potassium can have negative impacts on human health and the environment. Additionally, this study underscores the need for sustainable management practices to minimize the anthropogenic sources of potassium in groundwater.

Bicarbonates (HCO_3^-)

The groundwater bicarbonate content in the study area varied widely, with an average of 379.10 mg/L and values ranging from 54.9 to 634.4 mg/L (Table 1). However, a small proportion (9.09%) of the samples fell below the WHO recommended level for drinking (WHO 2011). Figure 10 illustrates the spatial distribution of HCO_3^- .

The concentration of bicarbonate in groundwater is primarily influenced by the presence of carbonate minerals in soils and aquifers, such as calcite and dolomite, as well as the dissolution of CO_2 gas from the atmosphere and soils of recharge basins (Förstner and Wittmann 2012; Wagh et al. 2016).

Human activities can also contribute to elevated bicarbonate concentrations (Zilberbrand et al. 2001). Although most of the groundwater samples had bicarbonate levels within the recommended limits, the presence of low bicarbonate levels in some samples could affect the taste and overall quality of the water. On the other hand, high bicarbonate concentrations can lead to water hardness and scaling in pipes, which can increase maintenance costs.

Therefore, it is important to continue monitoring and managing groundwater resources to ensure that bicarbonate levels remain within acceptable limits for drinking water. Moreover, future studies could investigate the impact of anthropogenic activities, such as land use change and fertilizer application, on the bicarbonate levels in groundwater in the study area.

Chlorides (Cl^-)

Chloride is an important inorganic anion that can originate from various anthropogenic and natural sources. Anthropogenic sources include industrial and domestic wastewater such as agricultural wastewater, fertilizer use, and septic tank leachate, while natural sources include interactions between water, soil, and rocks as well as marine intrusion (Valdes et al. 2007; Ahmad and Bajahlan 2009; Taiwo et al. 2011; Abbasnia et al. 2019). In this study, the average chloride concentration in the water samples was 772.59 mg/L, ranging from 88.75 to 3150 mg/L (Fig. 11 and Table 1).

A significant proportion (61.81%) of the samples exceeded the World Health Organization's recommended limit for drinking water (WHO 2011). The high chloride concentrations in the water samples could be attributed to anthropogenic activities such as the discharge of domestic and industrial wastewater into the groundwater system. Fertilizers, particularly chloride-containing fertilizers, could also be potential sources of high chloride concentrations in water samples. Moreover, the presence of high chloride concentrations in some of the water samples could also be due to natural sources such as marine intrusion due to existing fault zones in the study area, as demonstrated by (Galindo-Zaldívar et al. 2015), interactions between water, soil, and rocks. The spatial distribution of chloride in the study area is shown in Fig. 11.

The presence of high chloride concentrations in groundwater samples could pose health risks to humans and animals. High chloride concentrations can impart a salty taste to water, making it unpalatable and unsuitable for drinking. While chloride (Cl^-) helps maintain the balance of electrolytes in blood plasma, elevated levels can lead to physiological disorders (Garg et al. 2008).

Excessive intake of chloride has been associated with the development of various health conditions, such as essential hypertension, increased risk of stroke, left ventricular hypertrophy, osteoporosis, renal stones, and asthma. (McCarthy 2004). The results of this study underscore the need for regular monitoring of groundwater quality, particularly in areas where anthropogenic activities and natural sources contribute to high chloride concentrations. Thus, effective management and control measures are required to prevent further degradation of groundwater quality and to safeguard public health.

Nitrates (N-NO_3^-)

Nitrate pollution is a global concern and has been identified as a major contaminant of groundwater due to intensive agricultural activities, large amounts of mineral fertilizers, and local hydrogeological structures (Qin et al. 2013; Su

et al. 2017; Zhai et al. 2017a). The presence of nitrates in groundwater can adversely affect human health and disrupt groundwater quality. In this study, the concentrations of N-NO_3^- in the groundwater ranged from 0.36 to 180.88 mg/L, with an average value of 23.28 mg/L (Fig. 12 and Table 1). While most of the samples were within the limits allowed by the WHO (2011), 12.72% of the samples analysed exceeded the limit of 50 mg/L. Hence, water with nitrate concentrations above the permissible limit should be treated before it can be used as drinking water. The increased nitrate concentrations at these sites are likely due to anthropogenic activity, including agricultural activity and urban development recorded at the sites, and the presence of uncontrolled septic tanks (Chafouq et al. 2018).

Various natural processes and human activities contribute to water pollution from both point and nonpoint sources of nitrates. Point sources include septic tanks,

dairy lagoons, wastewater effluents, and intensive livestock farming, while nonpoint sources include fertilizers, pesticides, manure application, heavy metals, and atmospheric deposition.

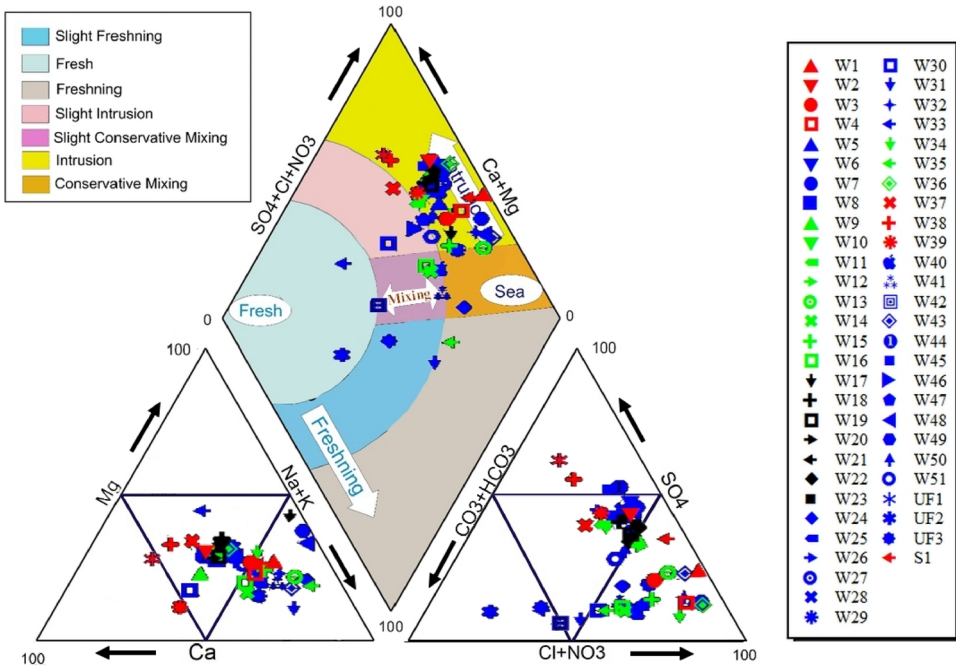
These sources of contamination have been reported in many developing and developed countries and regions around the world (Qasemi et al. 2018a, b; Zhai et al. 2017a, b).

Urban development, including the use of septic tanks and the overpumping of groundwater due to high population density, can contribute to nitrate pollution. This study revealed that anthropogenic activities, such as agriculture and urban development, and the presence of uncontrolled septic tanks were significant contributors to nitrate pollution in the study area. The effective management of agricultural activities and urban development is needed to minimize contamination,

Table 5 Groundwater types and their respective sampling locations in the study area

Water type	Number of samples	% Sample	Sample location
Ca-SO ₄	6	10.9	W1, W18, W19, UF1, UF2, UF3
Na-HCO ₃	3	5.45	W2, W3, W16
Na-SO ₄	3	5.45	W6, W8, W27
Ca-Cl	3	5.45	W10, W40, W50
Mg-HCO ₃	1	1.81	W13
Na-Cl	39	70.9	W4, W5, W7, W9, W11, W12, W14, W15, W17, W20, W21, W22, W23, W24, W25, W26, W28, W29, W30, W31, W32, W33, W34, W35, W36, W37, W38, W39, W41, W42, W43, W44, W45, W46, W47, W48, W49, W51, S1

Fig. 14 Piper plot showing major-ion types of groundwater samples in the central Rif aquifer



and regular monitoring of groundwater quality is essential to ensure safe drinking water for the population.

Sulfate ions (SO_4^{2-})

In addition to calcium and magnesium, sulfate is an important factor in water hardness. In this study, the sulfate concentrations in the investigated groundwater samples were found to be high, with an average of 510.61 mg/L and ranging from 27.11 to 1571.61 mg/L (Table 1). Notably, 92.72% of the samples exceeded WHO guidelines (2011). The spatial distribution of sulfate indicates that the concentration of this anion increases near the sea (Fig. 13) due to intense agricultural and septic activities (Boateng et al. 2016).

One possible explanation for the observed high levels of sulfate in the groundwater samples is the presence of sedimentary rocks containing gypsum and anhydrite in the studied sites (Bhakar and Singh 2019). These rocks may be a natural source of sulfate, contributing to the elevated levels in the groundwater. Anthropogenic activities such as the use of fertilizers and wastewater discharge can also lead to

increased sulfate levels in groundwater (Akhtar et al. 2021). However, sulfate deficiency was observed in some samples, especially W11 and W16, with values of 35.9 mg/L and 27.11 mg/L, respectively.

This may indicate a low impact of anthropogenic activities (Barakat et al. 2020). High levels of sulfate in groundwater samples may have negative impacts on human health and the environment. Sulfates have a laxative effect that leads to dehydration, especially in infants. However, over time, people and young livestock become acclimated to sulfate, and symptoms disappear (Bashir et al. 2012). In addition, sulfate can cause eutrophication and algal blooms in surface waters, leading to decreased oxygen levels and harm to aquatic organisms (Carpenter et al. 1998).

Overall, the high levels of sulfate observed in the groundwater samples in this study may have negative impacts on both human health and the environment. Further studies are needed to determine the sources and impacts of sulfate in groundwater in this region. In addition, the significant increase in sulfate concentration is most likely related to the presence of gypsum and anhydrite in the sedimentary rocks

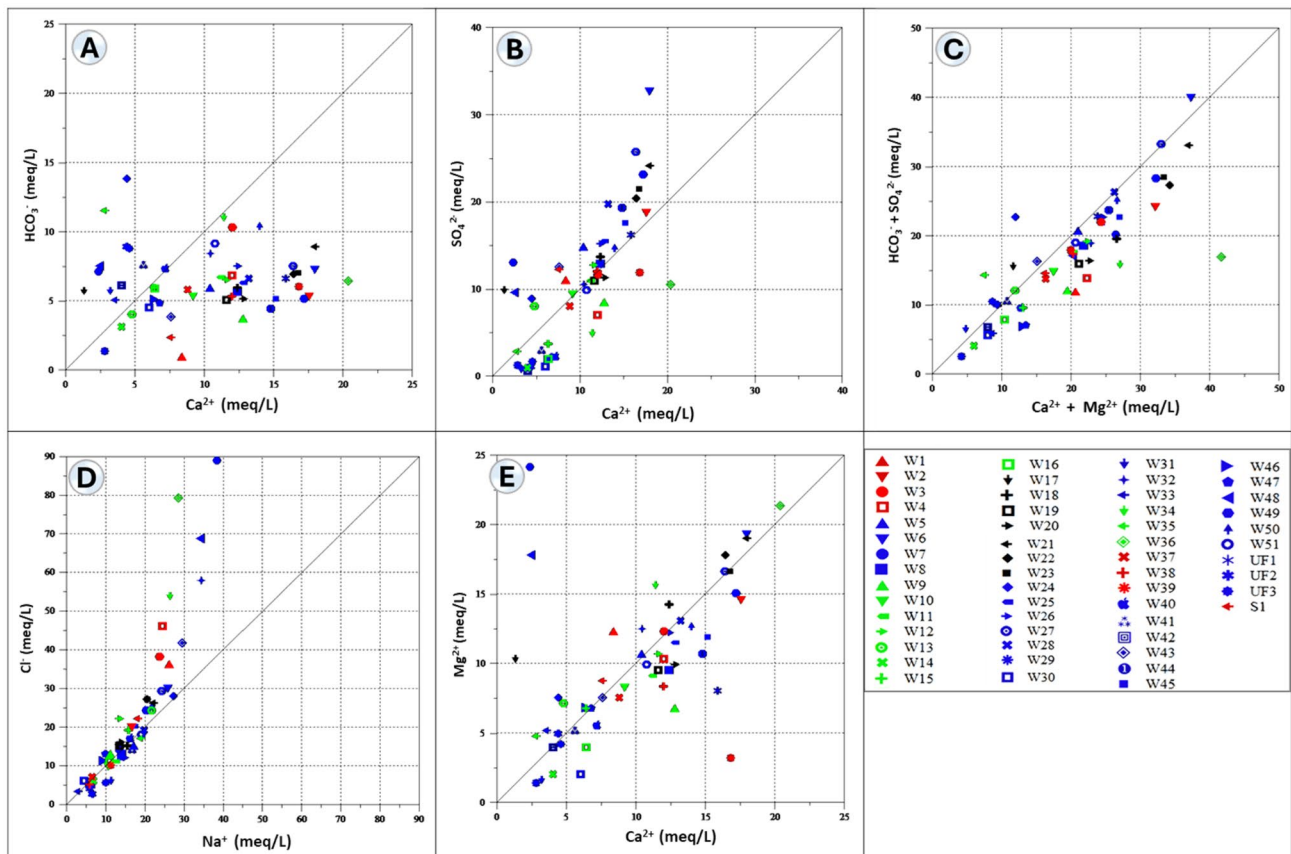


Fig. 15 Binary diagrams between, **A** HCO_3^- vs. Ca^{2+} ; **B** SO_4^{2-} vs. Ca^{2+} ; **C** $(\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{SO}_4^{2-})$ vs. $(\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+})$; **D** Cl^- vs. Na^+ and **E** Mg^{2+} vs. Ca^{2+}

that occupy some of the sites studied (Bhakar and Singh 2019). However, sulfate deficiency indicates a low impact of anthropogenic activities (Barakat et al. 2020).

General hydrochemical characteristics

Groundwater hydrochemical facies and water type

The main cations and anions are represented on a trilinear Piper diagram (Piper 1944) to understand the hydrochemical evolution and identify the predominant groundwater types (Table 5) in the study area.

Figure 14 shows three hydrogeochemical facies: the sodium chloride facies (Na–Cl) represents 70.9% of the water points studied (first facies), while 10.9% of the water samples belong to the sulfated calcium facies (Ca–SO₄) (second facies). The third facies is represented by 5.45% sodium bicarbonate water (Na–HCO₃). However, the remainder of the samples surveyed could correspond to fresh groundwater influenced by ion exchange.

These facies highlight the complexity of the hydrogeochemical processes that control groundwater salinity in the Central Rif, including water mixing, evaporation and the dissolution of evaporites such as halite, gypsum and anhydrite (Sajilkumar and James 2016).

Ionic ratio

The hydrogeochemical characteristics of an aquifer system are influenced by various chemical reactions, frequently

resulting in changes in ionic concentrations (Verma et al. 2021). The ionic ratios were established (Fig. 15) to assess the origin of water mineralization (Ghalit et al. 2023) and to determine the possibility of seawater intrusion (Edet 2016; Aladejana et al. 2021) in the study area.

The bivariate plot of Ca²⁺ versus HCO₃[−] (Fig. 15A) shows that the weathering of carbonate minerals (calcite) resulted in more Ca²⁺ ion release than the weathering of carbonic acid (silicate) in most water samples. In addition, the correlation between (Ca²⁺ + Mg²⁺) and (HCO₃[−] + SO₄^{2−}) was used to examine the effect of the distribution of sulfate and carbonate minerals in the system. Figure 15C shows that most samples follow the 1:1 line, suggesting that these ions in the central Rif groundwater originate from the dissolution of these minerals rather than the weathering of silicates.

The Na⁺/Cl[−] ratio plot (Fig. 15D) shows that a significant number of samples strongly approach the 1:1 line, suggesting halite dissolution or possibly seawater intrusion (El Yousfi et al. 2022). Nevertheless, the reverse ion exchange process could explain the scattered points below this line, where Ca²⁺ replaces Na⁺ in the groundwater of the Central Rif. The Ca²⁺/Mg²⁺ molar ratio indicates the presence of calcite and the dissolution of dolomite (Kumar et al. 2006). The graphical representation of this Ca²⁺/Mg²⁺ ratio (Fig. 15E) reveals a predominance of calcite dissolution over silicate weathering.

Sulfate ions (SO₄^{2−}) are frequently present in groundwater and have mainly natural and anthropogenic origins. Figure 15B illustrates the correlation between Ca²⁺ and SO₄^{2−} concentrations in the sampled waters. This correlation could be linked to the potential presence of gypsum and/or anhydrite, thus suggesting a possible contribution of these minerals to the mineralization of the waters in the central Rif aquifer. Nevertheless, it is important to note that a group of samples falls outside the 1:1 line, indicating an excess of SO₄^{2−} ions over Ca²⁺ ions in a few waters studied. This discrepancy can be attributed to other possible sources of these ions, such as seawater intrusion and anthropogenic sources.

Hydrochemical facies evolution (HFE-D)

The hydrochemical facies evolution (HFE-D) was used to interpret and analyse possible hydrochemical facies and evolutionary processes in coastal areas while taking into consideration the percentage of the most significant ions and their relationships (Giménez-Forcada and Sánchez San Román 2015). The results of the HFE plots indicate the dissolution of salt marsh evaporites in aquifer materials, which are rich in sulfate and chloride (Fig. 16).

The plot shows that more than half of the samples are projected in the lower part of Fig. 16 (52.72% of the total

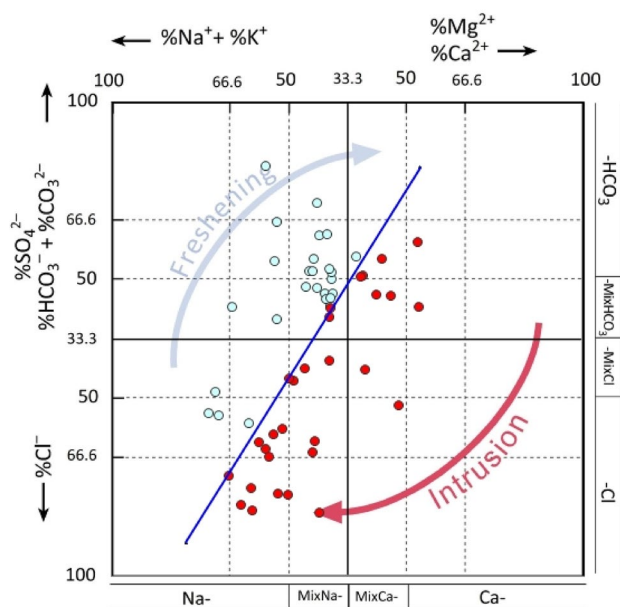


Fig. 16 Representation of central Rif groundwater samples in the HFE-D

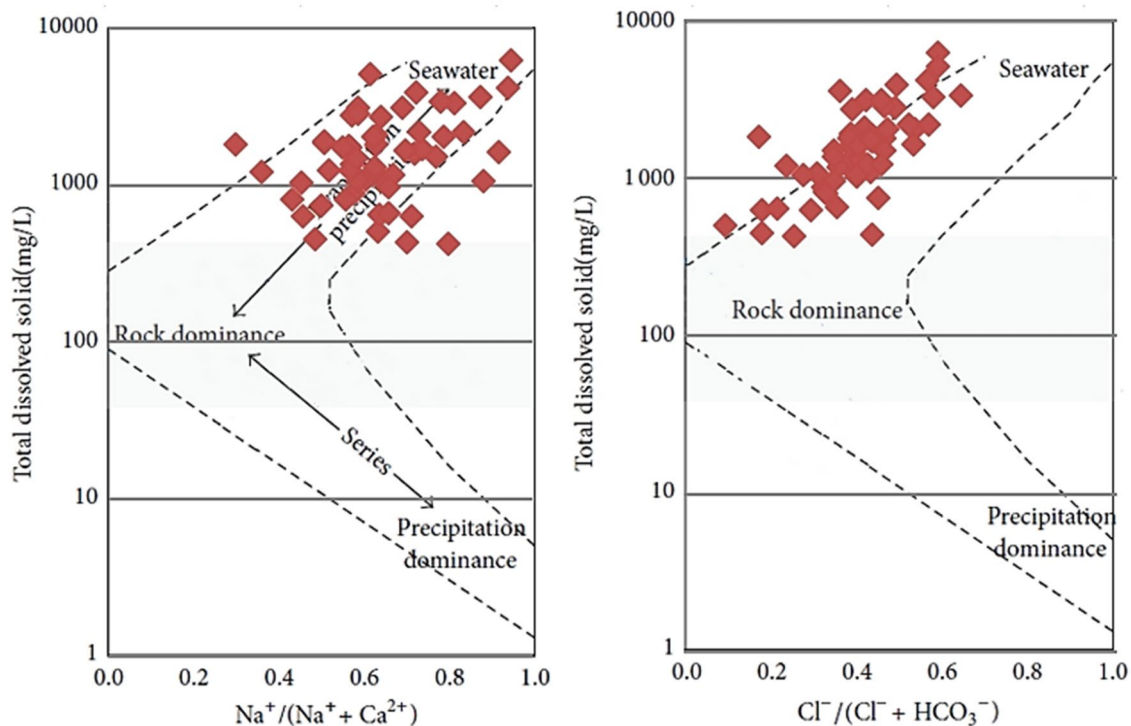


Fig. 17 Gibbs diagram of anions and cations versus TDS

samples), representing the intrusion phase, while 47.27% of the total samples represent the refreshment phase. Indeed, water samples from the central Rif are of the Na–Cl type (41.37%) and belong to saltwater intrusion facies affected to some extent by the reverse cation exchange reaction ($\text{Na}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$), as indicated by the presence of MixCa–Cl-type waters in the aquifer in the study area. On the other hand, 34.61% of the fresh groundwater in the central Rif is MixNa– HCO_3^- and is influenced by direct cation exchange reactions. Indeed, factors such as the distance from the sea, intensive water demand and hydrogeological characteristics of the aquifer affect the degree of contamination of the aquifer by marine intrusion (Yin et al. 2021; Benaafi et al. 2022).

Gibbs diagram

Gibbs diagrams (Gibbs 1970) are widely used to identify the processes controlling groundwater geochemistry, including precipitation, evaporation, rock–water interactions, and seawater intrusion. Figure 17 shows the correlation between cation and anion levels and TDS.

As shown by the plot of chemical data on the Gibbs diagram, most groundwater samples in the study area fell within the evaporation dominance zone and were closer to seawater, revealing an interaction between groundwater and seawater (Huang et al. 2013).

Multivariate statistical analysis

To understand the relationships among the measured hydrochemical parameters, Pearson correlation analysis (r) was performed on 12 selected parameters to identify and verify their origin. The results are presented in Table 6.

The correlation matrix reflects a strong positive correlation between EC and TDS with major ions, indicating the contribution of these ions to the overall mineralization of the predicted groundwater (Elumalai et al. 2020).

A significant correlation among TDS, TH, Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} suggests that the host rock is the result of carbonate and dolomite dissolution (Qin et al. 2013). It should also be noted that TDS, EC, Na^+ and Cl^- are strongly positively correlated, which represents possible marine intrusion along the coastal aquifer, and this correlation can be explained by the precipitation/evaporation properties of the minerals contained in the predicted waters (Rakib et al. 2020).

In addition, the mobilization of water from saline formations by the overexploitation of aquifers (Giménez-Forcada et al. 2010) and pollution due to anthropic activities (septic tank effluents, use of synthetic fertilizers) may be responsible for the relationship between these parameters and the salinity of these waters (Re et al. 2013). It was confirmed that pH, HCO_3^- and N-NO_3^- had no correlation with the other measured hydrochemical parameters. Since N-NO_3^- and other metrics did not significantly correlate,

Table 6 Correlation analysis of physicochemical parameters (Bold values indicate a correlation of more than 50%)

	pH	EC (μS/cm)	Ca ₂ ⁺ (mg/L)	Mg ₂ ⁺ (mg/L)	Na ⁺ (mg/L)	K ⁺ (mg/L)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (mg/L)	Cl ⁻ (mg/L)	N-NO ₃ ⁻ (mg/L)	SO ₄ ²⁻ (mg/L)	TDS (mg/L)	TH (Mg of CaCO ₃)
Correlation	1.000											
pH		1.000										
EC			1.000									
Ca ₂ ⁺				1.000								
Mg ₂ ⁺					1.000							
Na ⁺						1.000						
K ⁺							1.000					
HCO ₃ ⁻								1.000				
Cl ⁻									1.000			
N-NO ₃ ⁻										1.000		
SO ₄ ²⁻											1.000	
TDS												1.000
TH												

human activity is likely the primary contributor to ground-water nitrate contamination (Helena et al. 1999).

Conclusion

This study of the hydrogeochemical properties of groundwater in the central Rif region, northern Morocco, reveals intricate relationships among various influences. Physicochemical analysis of 55 groundwater points highlights interactions between hydrogeochemical processes, geological factors, and anthropogenic influences. The study of water mineralization processes, employing Piper, HFE-D, Gibbs, and binary diagrams, demonstrated that water mineralization results from evaporite (gypsum and halite) and carbonate (limestone and dolomite) dissolution, silicate alteration, and cation exchange.

Key findings point to increasing mineralization, with a significant proportion of samples exceeding WHO guidelines for essential ions such as chloride, sulfates, nitrates, sodium, and potassium. The predominant presence of sodium chloride (Na-Cl) as the primary chemical facies and the impact of evaporation on water chemistry dynamics underscore the complexity of groundwater composition. Furthermore, this research suggests that seawater intrusion at the *Trougout* Zone Fault could contribute to heightened mineralization trends. Acknowledging seawater as a potential factor for elevated mineral content enhances the understanding of regional groundwater intricacies.

Given these findings, the importance of continuous monitoring and informed management strategies is emphasized, ensuring the responsible use and preservation of coastal groundwater reserves. The urgency lies in the potential repercussions for public health and environmental balance. Thus, this study underscores the necessity of a proactive approach to groundwater governance and decision-making, not only in the central Rif region but also in a broader context.

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Data availability No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare no competing interests.

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