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Spatio-temporal assessment and trend analysis of surface water salinity in the coastal region of Bangladesh

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Abstract

The study was designed to collect water samples over two seasons- wet-monsoon season (n=96) (March-April) and dry-monsoon season (n=44) (September-October) to understand the seasonal variation in anion and cation hydrochemistry of the coastal rivers and estuaries contributing in the spatial trend in salinity. Hydrochemical examination of wet-monsoon season primarily revealed Ca–Mg–HCO_3 type (66%) and followed by Na–Cl type (17.70%) water. In the dry-monsoon season the scenario reversed with primary water being Na-Cl type (52.27%) followed by Ca–Mg–HCO_3 type (31.81%). Analysis of Cl/Br molar ratio vs. Cl (mg/L) depicted sampling area affected by seawater intrusion (SWI). Spatial analysis by Ordinary Kriging method confirmed approximately 77% sample in the dry-monsoon and 34% of the wet-monsoon season had shown SWI. The most saline intruded areas in the wet-monsoon seasons were extreme south-west coastal zone of Bangladesh, lower Meghna River floodplain and Meghna estuarine floodplain and South-eastern part of Chittagong coastal plains containing the districts of Chittagong and Cox's Bazar adjacent to Bay of Bengal. In addition, mid-south zone is also affected slightly in the dry-monsoon season. From the analyses of data, this study could further help to comprehend seasonal trends in the hydrochemistry and water quality of the coastal and estuarine rivers. In addition, it can help policy makers to obligate some important implications for the future initiatives taken for the management of land, water, fishery, agriculture and environment of coastal rivers and estuaries of Bangladesh.

Keywords: seawater intrusion (SWI), estuary**,** spatial salinity trend, non-parametric test, electric conductivity (EC), Na/Cl molar ratio, Cl/Br molar ratio.

1. Introduction

Coastal zones are transition environments, forming the interface between continent and ocean. The effects of human activity on coastal water resources usually reduce the flows of freshwater to estuaries; modifying estuarine mixing processes and extending marine influences further inland (Loitzenbauer and Mendes 2012). Bangladesh is considered as one of the most climate vulnerable countries in the world. In the southern part, it has approximately 710 km coastal line with highly susceptible areas to sea level rise. The coastal area in the southern part covers about 32% of total land area of the country (MoWR 2005) and are particularly vulnerable to climate change effects (Bhuiyan and Dutta 2012). Water salinity is regular hazards for many parts of southern Bangladesh. For example, Batiaghata Upazila, Khulna District in south-west coastal region of Bangladesh is the mostly saline affected area, where agriculture activities are mainly dependent on rainfall (Shammi et al. 2016). Previous study on groundwater in south-west part of Bangladesh confirmed the area was dominantly of Na–Cl type brackish water (Halim et al. 2010) due to the seawater influence and hydrogeochemical processes (Bahar and Reza 2010). Anthropogenic and bio-physical factors (e.g., upstream withdrawal of freshwater, cyclones) operating outside the geographical boundary of coastal region of Bangladesh contribute to increasing salinization in the southwest coastal area (Shameem et al. 2014).

Nevertheless, it is very difficult to get the actual scenario of hydrochemistry of the coastal river and estuaries due to dynamic mixing. Estuary provides a unique experimental site to understand the effect of monsoonal river discharge on freshwater and seawater mixing (Ghosh et al. 2013). The estuaries that are typically characterized by gradients of ionic strength, pH and concentrations of the suspended particulate matter; provide an ideal environment to study the nature and extent of solute-particle interaction, and the resultant modification of the elemental

and isotopic fluxes from the rivers to the oceans (Samanta and Dalai 2016). Seawater intrusion (SWI) is a global issue (Werner et al. 2013) in coastal aquifers all over the world and predisposed to the influences of sea level rise and climate change. Surface water such as rivers and canals are impacted similarly by intruding seawater. Here, salinity refers to the total concentration of dissolved inorganic ions in water (Williams and Sherwood 1994) and often measured as electrical conductivity (EC) siemens/meter (Canedo-Arguelles et al. 2013). Temporal and spatial status of water salinity condition in Kumar-Modhumoti River in Gopalganj district showed that during the start of wet-monsoon months (March–April), the conductivity of river water was high due to low rainfall and upstream discharge. Conductivity ranged from 3.5 dS/m to 4.0 dS/m, while in the late wet-monsoon months (August−September), the conductivity of river water decreased (0.3–0.4 dS/m) (Shammi et al. 2012). Correlation of river discharge data of Gorai-Madhumati and conductivity of Madhumati River confirmed that salinity level was higher when upstream river inflow was below 500 m^3/S (Shammi et al. 2012).

In addition, trend analysis provides a view for meteorological, hydrological and climatological variables in past and future time's changes (Kisi and Ay 2014). The main idea of trend analysis is to detect whether values of data are increasing, decreasing or stable over time. Detection of trend is a complex subject because of characteristics of data (Kisi and Ay 2014). In general, there are different parametric and nonparametric statistical techniques to check the existence or absence of trend in time series analysis and climate change studies but the nonparametric methods are used relatively wider in hydro-meteorological studies (Takeuchi et al. 2003). Nonparametric methods are appropriate for the series that have a significant skew and cannot be fitted with statistical distributions (Niazi et al. 2014). Since then, many nonparametric statistical tests have been developed to determine trends in data series. Mann–Kendall (Mann 1945;

Kendall 1975) test is one of the best trend detecting methods. This method is suitable for the nonnormal and is not sensitive to observed values. This test has been recommended for detecting trends in environmental time series data by the World Meteorological Organization (Niazi et al. 2014). On the otherhand, the Sen's slope method (Sen 1968) uses a linear model to estimate the slope of the trend (Salmi et al. 2002) with the extent of magnitude at a satisfactory significant level.

It is important to determine the possible impacts of sea level rise on salinity to devise suitable adaptation and mitigation measures and reduce impacts of salinity intrusion in coastal cities (Bhuiyan and Dutta 2012). Nevertheless, till to date, there are no studies depicting the actual hydrochemistry related to the salinity condition in the coastal rivers and estuarine waters of Bangladesh. Therefore, this study was designed to collect water samples over two seasons- wet-monsoon season and dry-monsoon season, to understand the seasonal variation in anions and cations hydrochemistry of the coastal rivers and esutaries contributing in the spatial trend in salinity. The study was further trailed by time-series analysis of salinity data using Mann–Kendall and Sen's slope test for 13 south-west zone rivers to find salinity trend in of southern regions of Bangladesh followed by existing policy analysis for the management of salinity affected areas.

2. Landform and hydromorphological settings

Bangladesh occupies an area of 143,998 km^2 and has a subtropical humid climate. Geographically, it extends from 20°34′N to 26°38′N latitude and from 88°01′E to 92°41′E longitude. Except the hilly southeast, most of the country is a low-lying plain land (Shahid 2010). The topography of the region is rather flat, and gently sloping towards the Bay of Bengal (Bhuiyan and Dutta 2012). The original morphology and hydrogeology of many low-lying

coastlands worldwide have been significantly modified over the last century through river diversion, embankment built-up, and large-scale land reclamation projects. This led to a progressive shifting of the groundwater–surface water exchanges from naturally to anthropogenically driven (Da Lio et al. 2015). Hydrology of the coastal plains of Bangladesh presents a complicated interaction of fresh water flow from the upstream, the tides and tidal flows from the Bay of Bengal, tropical cyclones, storm surge and other meteorological effect from the sea and the physiography of the coastal plains (FAO 1985). Understanding the mixing between salt/fresh surface water and groundwater in coastlands is an issue of paramount importance considering the ecological, cultural, and socio-economic relevance of the coastal plains (Da Lio et al. 2015). Low-lying parts of four regions further inland Ganges River floodplain, Old River floodplain comprising Arial Bil and Gopalganj Bil (low-lying lakes), lower Meghna River floodplain and Meghna estuarine floodplain lie sufficiently close to the coast that they could be affected by a rising sea-level at an early date (Brammer 2014a).

The physical geography of Bangladesh's coastal area is more diverse and dynamic than is generally recognised. Failure to recognise this has led to serious misconceptions about the potential impacts of a rising sea-level on Bangladesh with global warming (Brammer 2014b). Estuaries are a transition zone between continental and marine environments and record the complex interaction of these two discrete environments in terms of physical phenomena (e.g. mixing of fresh and saline water, tidal and wave action, sediment transport) and chemistry. They play an important role in understanding the continental input via rivers to the oceans (Ghosh et al. 2013). Sea salinity intrusion is a major concern in the southern part of the river system, as the rivers are affected by tides and is an important issue in these rivers. Most of the area is protected with polders against river flooding (Bhuiyan and Dutta 2012). The coastal zone is exposed to the

risk of tropical cyclones in the wet-monsoon and dry-monsoon seasons, with the associated risk of storm surges in areas close to the coast (Brammer 2014b).

3. Methodology

3.1. Study area

The study area for surface water encompasses the coastal south part of the Bengal Basin. The sampling area were selected in the southern part of Bangladesh taking into account the south-east coastal zone to south-west zone of Bangladesh. Geographically, sampling points extended from 20°34'N to 23°40'N latitude and from 88°01'E to 92°41'E longitude (Figure 1). Most part of the sampling points lied on the Ganges and Meghna River and their many tributaries and distributaries except south-east part of Chittagong coastal plains and Bay of Bengal.

3.2. Description of the available data

A various multidisciplinary data are highly needed for the study of sea water intrusion (SWI) to provide reliable results (Trabelsi et al. 2016). Surface water samples were collected in 500 ml plastic bottle for two different seasons March-April 2012, wet-monsoon season (n=96) and September-October 2012, dry-monsoon (n=44) to broadly cover the seasonal variation following the standard guidelines (APHA, 1998). However, due to seasonal drying up of the rivers, similar points that were covered in the wet-monsoon season could not be covered in the dry-monsoon season due to inaccessibility by waterways. The chemical analysis was carried out following the procedure as described by Islam et al. (2016). The samples were collected followed by filtering through 0.45 µm membranes. Temperature (°C), pH, electrical conductivity (EC) and total dissolved solid (TDS) were measured in-situ by Portable Multi-Meter (Hach, sensION+

MM150). Chemical components such as EC, TDS, major cations and anions were used to identify seawater intrusion (Trabelsi et al. 2016).

Major anions such as chloride (Cl^-), nitrate (NO_3^-), sulfate (SO_4^{2-}), phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) and fluoride (F^-) were measured by ion chromatography. Carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) and bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) were determined by titration with HCl. Major cations, calcium (Ca^{2+}), magnesium (Mg^{2+}), sodium (Na^+) and potassium (K^+), were determined by using AAS (Varian 680FS). The trace elements, manganese (Mn), iron (Fe), boron (B), iodine (I), bromine (Br), and silicon dioxide (SiO_2) were determined by using Spectrophotometer (DR 2800). Overall data reproducibility for ions was within ±10 %. Cation and anion charge balance (<10 %) was an added proof for the precision of the data. Chemical analyses were carried out in Bangladesh Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (BCSIR) and Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology (BUET) laboratory, Dhaka.

3.3. Geostatistical modelling of EC of the study area

To understand the area-wide distribution of salinity occurrences over two seasons in the study area ordinary Kriging (OK) method for spatial analysis of EC were adopted. The OK method, which is referred to as partial spatial estimation or interpolation, is a method to estimate the value of regionalized variables at unsampled location based on the available data of regionalized variables and structural features of a variogram (Webster and Oliver 2001). The OK estimates are determined by Eq. (i).

$$\hat{z}(x_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i z(x_i) \quad \ldots\ldots \text{(i)}$$

where $\hat{z}$ is the estimated value of an attribute at the point of interest x_0, z is the observed value at the sampled point x_i, λ_i is the weight assigned to the sampled point, and n represent the

number of sampled points used for the estimation (Webster and Oliver 2001). The attribute is usually called the primary variable, especially in geostatistics. To ensure that the estimates are unbiased, the sum of the weights λ_i must be equal to one. The spatial distribution maps of EC and Na/Cl ratio in surface water was done by ArcGIS version 10.1.

3.4. Statistical analysis

Pearson Correlation matrix was performed with 2-tailed test of significance at standard $\alpha = 0.05$. Principal component analysis (PCA) is one of the most commonly used multivariate statistical methods in natural sciences, which was developed by Hotelling (1933) in the thirties from original work of Pearson Correlation matrix (Jiang et al. 2015). The main objective of this method is to simplify data structure by reducing the dimension of the data (Jiang et al., 2015). Total 13 variables containing pH, EC, TDS, Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, Na^{+}, K^{+}, Cl^{-}, CO_3^{2-}, HCO_3^{-}, NO_3^{-}, SO_4^{2-} and PO_4^{3-} were chosen for Correlation matrix and PCA analysis mainly because of their contribution to salinity and dominance in natural waters. The statistical analysis was done by Origin 9.0 software package of OriginLab (USA) and also used for subsequent calculations. After the application of PCA, a varimax normalized rotation was applied to minimize the variances of the factor loadings across variables for each factor. In this study, all principal factors with eigen values which are greater than 1 were taken into account. The first three factors were able to account for were.

3.5. Hydrochemistry analysis

To understand the hydrochemistry of the sampling water, GW Chart Software (USGS) was used and to classify water types in both seasons the Piper trilinear analysis was done *via* generating the Piper diagram (Piper 1953).

198 **3.6. Historical Trend analysis by Mann-Kendall**

199 The nonparametric MK test (Mann 1945; Kendall 1975) has been commonly used to assess the
200 significance of monotonic trends in climatological, meteorological and hydrological data time
201 series (Kisi and Ay 2014). The rank-based non-parametric Mann-Kendall method is adopted to
202 study trends in the annual series. The choice of this method is based on the fact that it has the
203 advantage of being less sensitive to outliers over the parametric method (Otache et al., 2008).
204 The MK test statistic (S) is calculated in the following Eqs

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} sgn(x_j - x_i)$$

205 … … …(ii)

$$sgn(x_j - x_i) = \begin{cases} +1 & x > 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

206 … … …(iii)

207 Where, where x_i and x_j are the data values at times i and j, and n indicates the length of the data
208 set. While a positive value of s indicates an increasing trend, negative of s indicates a decreasing
209 trend. The following expression, as an assumption, is used for the series where the data length
210 n>10 and data are approximately normally distributed (variance (σ^2 = 1) and mean (l = 0) value) .

$$Var\ (S) = \frac{n(n-1)(2n+5) - \sum_{i=1}^{p} t_i(t_i-1)(2t_i+5)}{18}$$

211 … … …(iv)

212 In this equation, P is the number of tied groups, and the summary sign (Σ) indicates the
213 summation over all tied groups. t_i is the number of data values in the Pth group. If there are not
214 the tied groups, this summary process can be ignored. After the calculation of the variance of

time series data with Eq. (ii), the standard Z value is calculated according to the following Eq. (v).

$$Z = \begin{cases} \frac{s-1}{\sqrt{var(s)}}, & if\ S > 0 \\ 0, & if\ S = 0 \\ \frac{s-1}{\sqrt{var(s)}}, & if\ S < 0 \end{cases}$$

… … …(v)

The calculated standard Z value is compared with the standard normal distribution table with two-tailed confidence levels (α = 10%, α = 5% and α = 1%). If the calculated Z is greater $|Z| > |Z_{1-\alpha}|$, then the null hypothesis (H0) is invalid. Therefore, the trend is statistically significant. Otherwise, the H0 hypothesis is accepted that the trend is not statistically significant, and there is no trend in the time series (trendless time series) (Kisi and Ay 2014).

3.7. Trend analysis by Sen's Test

True slope in time series data (change per unit time) is estimated by procedure described by Sen (1968) in case the trend is linear. The method requires a time series of equally spaced data (Shahid 2010). The magnitude of trend is predicted by the Sen's slope estimator (Q_i). The magnitude of trend is predicted by the Sen's slope estimator (Qi).

$$(Q_i) = \frac{x_j - x_k}{J - K}$$

For i=1, 2, …..N… … …(vi)

Where, x_j and x_k are data values at times j and k (j > k) respectively. The median of these N values of Q_i is represented as Sen's estimator. $Q_{med} = \frac{Q(N+1)}{2}$ if N is odd,

232 And $Q_{med} = \left[\frac{QN}{2} + \frac{Q(N+2)}{2}\right]/2$ if N is even. Positive value of Q_i indicates an increasing trend
233 and negative value of Q_i shows decreasing trend in time series.
234
235 **3.8. Toolkit used for Mann-Kendall and Sen's slope test**
236 To investigate the salinity trend of coastal rivers of Bangladesh annual data series of 13 rivers of
237 Gorai-Madhumati River networks were taken into justification. Average salinity data of each
238 months EC data were calculated following the annual average of the calender year (2004-2011).
239 Missing value were calculated using interpolation techniques. To analyse historical trend of river
240 salinity, two freeware tool kits were used. One is GSI Mann-Kendall excel tool kit developed by
241 GSI Environmental Inc. based on the methodology of Aziz et al (2003) and was used for
242 constituent salinity trend analysis of the southern rivers of Bangladesh over a period of times.
243 Annual average value was calculated from the monthly data of the rivers. The Mann-Kendall test
244 for trend analysis, as coded in GSI Toolkit, relies on three statistical metrics (Aziz et al. 2003):
245 The 'S' Statistic: Indicates whether concentration trend of salinity vs. time is generally
246 decreasing (negative S value) or increasing (positive S value). The Confidence Factor (CF): The
247 CF value modifies the S Statistic calculation to indicate the degree of confidence in the trend
248 result, as in 'Decreasing" vs. "Probably Decreasing" or "Increasing" vs. "Probably Increasing."
249 Additionally, if the confidence factor is quite low, due either to considerable variability in
250 concentrations vs. time or little change in concentrations vs. time, the CF is used to apply a
251 preliminary "No Trend" classification, pending consideration of the Coefficient of Variation
252 (COV). The COV is used to distinguish between a "No Trend" result (significant scatter in
253 concentration trend vs. time) and a "Stable" result (limited variability in concentration vs. time)
254 for datasets with no significant increasing or decreasing trend (e.g. low CF). 2nd toolkit used in

this study was the MAKESENS 1.0 Excel template freeware program developed by Finnish Meteorological Institute, Helsinki, Finland (Salmi et al. 2002). Mann–Kendall test and Sen's slope estimating trends in the time series of annual values were calculated following equations described in section 3.5 and 3.6.

4. Results

4.1. Physico-chemical properties of coastal rivers and estuarine waters in the study area

Summary of the hydro-chemical properties of coastal rivers and estuarine waters collected from of the study areas during wet-monsoon and dry-monsoon period are given in Table 1. It is revealed from the table that wide ranges and large standard deviations were observed for most parameters, indicating chemical composition of coastal river water was affected by various processes. During wet-monsoon pH of the water ranged from minimum 6.20 to maximum 8.24 with an average value of 7.72±0.58. The dry-monsoon pH value ranged from a minimum of 7.20 to maximum of 11.00 with an average value of 8.24±0.82. These results suggested that during wet-monsoon the water was slightly acidic to slightly alkaline, while during dry-monsoon the water pH fell in neutral to more alkaline. Nevertheless, the average pH revealed that the water was overall slightly alkaline in both seasons due to the variation of mixing river water and seawater, which was typical to estuary. However, to this date there are no previous reports on downstream estuarine river condition in Bangladesh.

The ocean's influence on continental waters can be monitored by their salinity, since where this influence is greater, so is the salinity. Similarly, the effects of freshwater discharged from hydrographic basins can be observed in the ocean in terms of reduced salinity through dilution (Loitzenbauer and Mendes, 2012). EC values during wet-monsoon and dry-monsoon range from 65.90 to 34,800 µS/cm with an average value of 2,168.59±5,753.56 µS/cm and 228 to 57,300

278 µS/cm with an average value of 11083.27±17573.81 µS/cm. EC is directly related to the values
279 of TDS in both seasons. TDS values varied from the minimum value of 25.20 to the maximum
280 value of 18,440 mg/L in wet-monsoon season. On the other hand in dry-monsoon the value
281 varied from 114 mg/L to 28600 mg/L with an average value of 5,716±8,921.83 mg/L. To
282 mention here, 15 samples which had exceeded the value of TDS>1,000 mg/L indicating brackish
283 sea water in the wet-monsoon season of which 4 samples were actually from the Bay of Bengal.
284 On the other hand, in dry-monsoon season approximately 56% sample had exceeded the value of
285 TDS > 1,000 mg/L indicating brackish sea water, of which 5 were from Bay of Bengal. While in
286 the wet-monsoon season the contribution of TDS and EC was from seawater, in the dry-monsoon
287 season it was due to the heavy river discharge carrying sediments and industrial pollutants from
288 upstream and mixing with brackish seawater.
289 An understanding of salinity dynamics can be useful in the management of coastal water
290 resources and for assessing possible limitations their used through salt penetration (Loitzenbauer
291 and Mendes 2012). Therefore, on a spatial basis (Figure 2), the distribution of the EC values
292 showed variable trends over the south regions. Based on the spatial map (a) the most saline
293 intruded areas (sample n=96) can be listed in the wet-monsoon seasons are- (i) extreme south-
294 west coastal zone of Bangladesh including the distrcts of Khulna, Satkhira, Bagerhat, Jessore and
295 Gopalganj; (ii) lower Meghna River floodplain and Meghna estuarine floodplain comprising the
296 districts of Bhola, Noakhali and Feni and (iii) south-east part of Chittagong coastal plains
297 containing the districts of Chittagong and Cox's Bazar near Bay of Bengal; and (b)The little
298 affected mid-south zone particularly Barisal, Jhalkathi, Patuakhali and Barguna. In the dry-
299 monsoon season (Figure 2b), out of 44 samples, the extreme south-west districts data were not
300 collected, except Gopalganj district. From the spatial data analysis (Figure 2b), it is witnessed

that in the dry season the district was affected by salinity. The above mentioned lower Meghna River floodplain and Meghna estuarine floodplain comprising the districts of Bhola, Noakhali and Feni and South-east part of Chittagong coastal plains containing the districts of Chittagong and Cox's Bazar near Bay of Bengal showed higher salinity concentration than that was in the wet-monsoon season. Even mid-south zone particularly Barisal, Jhalkathi, Patuakhali, Pirojpur and Barguna have been found to be affected.

In principle, salinity can refer to any inorganic ions, while in practise it is mostly the result of the following major ions: Na^+, Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, K^+, Cl^-, SO_4^{2-}, CO_3^{2-} , and HCO_3^- (Williams 1987). River water of the study area was clearly dominated by Na^+, Mg^{2+}, Ca^{2+}, Cl^-, HCO_3^-, and SO_4^{2-}during both of the seasons. During wet-monsoon and dry-monsoon seasons approximately 68.63% and 82.9% of the total cations and anions contributing to salinity were from Cl^- which is prevalent from the pie chart analysis (Figure 3a-b). In the wet-monsoon season the orders of salinity contributing anions and cations were in the order of Cl^->HCO_3^-> SO_4^{2-}>Na^+ > Ca^{2+}>Mg^{2+}>CO_3^{2-}. In the dry- monsoon season the order was Cl^->Na^+> SO_4^{2-}>HCO_3^->Ca^{2+}> K^+>Mg^{2+}>CO_3^{2-}. Increased load of Cl^-, Na^+, SO_4^{2-}, HCO_3^- in the dry-monsoon season may depict the opposite view due to landward movement of seawater. With respect to TDS and EC samples of wet-monsoon and dry-monsoon seasons had shown the abundance of the major ions is in the following order: Na^+> Ca^{2+}> K^+> Mg^{2+} and Cl^-> SO_4^{2-}> HCO_3^-> NO_3^-> CO_3^{2-}. The severe anions and cations variation in the dry-monsoon season may be attributed to the reduction of flows of freshwater through increased upstream abstraction and increases of intrusion from sea to land. The greater the penetration of marine influence into the land, the lower is the availability of freshwater, which becomes brackish through its mixture with saline waters (Loitzenbauer and Mendes 2012).

It was observed from the sample analysis that mean value of NO_3^- varied with the season from 0.1 mg/L to 43 mg/L in wet-monsoon season and 0.09 mg/L to 6.95 mg/L in the dry monsoon season. The reason for seasonal nitrogen variation may be attributed to the nonpoint run off of agricultural input of fertilizers and pesticides. Rainfall-runoff increased NO_3^- load in the wet-monsoon season while in dry-monsoon the load was reduced. Variation of PO_4^{3-} remained identical in both seasons with an average value of 0.31±0.80 mg/L. In addition, fluoride, iodide and bromide all three anions were found to be higher in wet-monsoon season. In the wet-monsoon season concentration of fluoride, iodide and bromide varied from minimum 0 mg/L to 3.51 mg/L, 0 to 20.35 mg/L and 0 to 12.66 mg/L, respectively. Moreover, in the dry-monsoon season the values of fluoride, iodide and bromide varied from 0 to 2.43 mg/L, 0.02 to 3.55 mg/L and 0 to 2.24 mg/L respectively. Likewise all other anions and cations concentration, there was colossal deviation of Fe concentration in both seasons. Concentration of Fe varied from a minimum value of 0.05 to maximum value of 52.3 in the wet-monsoon season. While in the dry monsoon season the minimum value started at 0.02 mg/L to maximum value of 37.60 mg/L. Correspondingly B and Mn concentration in the wet-monsoon season accounted for 0.28 mg/L and 0.14 mg/L on an average, whereas in dry-monsoon season the values accounted for 0.51 mg/L and 0.70 mg/L, respectively. The rise in the metal concentration might be related to the upstream sediment carrying the metals rising in the dry-monsoon.

To find out more on the interrelations among various anions and cations in respect to EC and TDS, Pearson's correlation matrix was prepared for wet-monsoon season (Table 2) and dry-monsoon season (Table 3) taking into account of 13 hydrochemical variables including pH, EC, TDS, Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, Na^+, K^+, Cl^-, CO_3^{2-}, HCO_3^-, NO_3^-, SO_4^{2-} and PO_4^{3-}. According to Table 2, statistically positive significant correlations were found between EC and TDS (r = 0.99).

Subsequently, TDS and EC showed strong significant correlation with K^+(r= 96 and 97), Cl^- (r=99 and 99) and SO_4^{2-} (r=95 and 96). Other strong correlation that were observed from the matrix were K^+ and Cl^- (r=97) and K^+ and SO_4^{2-}(r= 0.96). Moreover, Mg^{2+}, Ca^{2+}, Na^+, K^+, Cl^-, CO_3^{2-} and SO_4^{2-} all had shown a weak but significant correlation with EC and TDS. The results may be attributed to the high salinity nature of coastal river water along with precipitation and heavy discharge from upstream. In addition, pH was negatively correlated with Mg^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} anion. Likewise in the dry-monsoon season statistically positive significant correlations were found between EC and TDS (r = 0.99) (Table 3). Successively, TDS and EC showed strong significant correlation with Cl^- (r=99) and K^+ (r= 96 and 97). Mg^{2+}, Ca^{2+}, Na^+, K^+, Cl^-, HCO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} all showed weak but significant correlation with EC and TDS. This was further confirmed by Principle component analysis (PCA) (Table 4, Figure 4a-b).

PCA is a multivariate statistical method complementary to classical approaches of hydrogeochemical research (Morell et al. 1996). PCA provides a quick visualization and shows correlation among different water quality variables. PCA was applied by considering 13 variables containing pH, EC, TDS, Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, Na^+, K^+, Cl^-, CO_3^{2-}, HCO_3^-, NO_3^-, SO_4^{2-} and PO_4^{3-}. For wet monsoon season PCA on the combined datasets provided three factors with eigen value>1 that can explain approximately 67.84% of the variability of the data (PC 1 variance of 42.11% and PC 2 variance of 15.37%) (Table 4). From the biplot analysis of PCA, when two variables are far from the centre and close to each other, then the variables are said to be significantly and positively correlated (r=1). In the wet-monsoon season coefficients of PC1 which were related to the salinity of the river water closely related to EC, TDS, Cl^-, K^+ and SO_4^{2-} (Figure 4a). PC 2 which might be related to the inorganic carbon content of the river HCO_3^- and CO_3^{2-} in a weak relation to Na^+, Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+}. On the other hand, for dry-

370 monsoon season PCA on the combined datasets provided four factors with eigenvalue >1 that
371 could explain approximately 54.97% of the variability of the data (PC 1 variance of 38.40% and
372 PC 2 variance of 16.58%) (Table 4). From the biplot analysis of PCA in dry-monsoon season,
373 coefficients of PC1 was related to the salinity of the river water unlike wet-monsoon season. The
374 closely related variables of EC and TDS to Cl^- and K^+ are shown in Figure 4(b). However, unlike
375 PCA of wet-monsoon season it was challenging to find out the second set of component (PC 2)
376 as there was not any strong relationship among the variables to support the assumptions.

377 **4.2. Seasonal hydrochemistry of the coastal rivers of Bangladesh**

378 The concentrations of major ions measured in the surface water samples are presented in the
379 Piper Trilinear plot (Figure 5a-b). The high variability in major ion chemistry and their seasonal
380 variations are shown in the analysis of two seasons. For the study area in the wet-monsoon
381 season approximately 66 % of samples were Ca–Mg–HCO_3 and occupied the section of the
382 diamond shape in the Piper diagram and their chemical properties dominated by alkaline earths
383 and weak acids (Figure 5a). Second dominant category was Na–Cl type occupying 17.70% of the
384 sample clustered near the right corner of the central diamond. These waters were from the
385 contribution of seawater (Figure 5a). 5.20% sample fell in the category of Ca-Cl type water
386 while 9.3% fell in mixed Na–Ca–Mg–HCO3–Cl type water probably evolved from silicate
387 weathering or ion exchange process due to mixing of upstream water discharge and seawater
388 (Karanth 1994). In the wet-monsoon season Ca–Mg–HCO_3 dominated in river water due to the
389 discharge being dominated from upstream pushing off the Na–Cl type seawater towards south
390 (Figure 5a).

391 Major river water in the dry-monsoon season fell into the category of Na-Cl type (52.27%)
392 followed by Ca–Mg–HCO_3 type (31.81%) (Figure 5b). A small fraction of sample fell in the

category of Ca-Cl and mixed type. In the dry-monsoon season Na–Cl type sea-water dominates over Ca–Mg–HCO_3 type due to limited river water discharge from upstream and pushing the salinity front towards north.

4.3. Analysis of molar ratio to identify seawater intrusion

Constant records of pre and dry-monsoon hydrochemistry are important to study the coastal river water salinity and its fluctuation trends. Moreover ionic ratios reveal information about processes in water bodies more visibly than concentrations (Siebert et al. 2014). In this paper Cl/Br molar ratio, Na/Cl molar ratio, K/Cl molar ratio, Mg/Ca molar ratio were used to distinguish seawater intrusion. The Cl/Br molar ratio can be obtained by multiplying mass ratio by 2.254. The variation in Cl/Br molar ratio in sea water is about 290±4 (Katz et al. 2011). A Cl/Br molar ratio vs. Cl (mg/L) depicts the sample affected by seawater intrusion (Figure 6). Approximately 77% sample in the dry-monsoon had crossed the Cl/Br molar ratio of sea water at 290 compared to the wet-monsoon season affected by approximately 34% sample. From Figure 6 it is clear that seawater was affecting the salinity trend of the river water more in dry-monsoon compared to the wet-monsoon season. In the wet-monsoon season Na/Cl molar ratio varied from minimum value of 0 to 39.42 with average value 1.28±4.09. On the other hand, dry-monsoon season it varied from 0.01 to 3.83 with average value 0.76±0.75 (Table 5). Approximately 23% sample collected in the wet-monsoon season and 40% sample collected in the dry-monsoon had Na/Cl ratio above 0.86 indicating seawater intrusions. The spatial distribution of Na/Cl ratio for both seasons is depicted in Figures 7a-b by utilizing ordinary kriging (OK) method. It was clear from the spatial distribution map that dry-monsoon season was highly saline affected in the common sampling points in the sapling point areas. Moreover, from Br/Cl molar ratio, it was found that in the wet-monsoon season approximately 62% and in dry-monsoon approximately 90% sample had molar

ratio above >0.0015 (Table 5). In wet-monsoon season Mg/Ca molar ratio varied from minimum value of 0.001 to 32.36 with an average value of 1.69 while in dry-monsoon season it varied from 0.08 to 93.66 with an average value of 4.37. However, only 3 samples in wet-monsoon and dry-monsoon seasons had shown Mg/Ca molar ratio >5. Therefore, from the above data analysis it was perceived that the existence of seasonal variation in anions and cations over time in respect to salinity occurrences due to seawater intrusion and low upstream water flow in the river.

4.4. Fluctuation of salinity trends in the coastal rivers of Bangladesh

Understanding the dynamics of salinity gives a useful instrument for environmental monitoring in an estuarine zone (Loitzenbauer and Mendes 2012). Therefore, it is also very important to understand annual trends of time-series data of salinity in the rivers. In this context, trends of salinity variation are very important for the surface water quality of coastal Bangladesh which was investigated by traditional hydrochemistry parameter electrical conductivity (EC) data of different rivers using Mann–Kendall and Sen's slope test statistics. The results obtained from the Mann-Kendall test was used to establish the trends in time series of annual salinity trends in the 13 river stations belonging to the Gorai River network of south-west zone of Bangladesh whether they were increasing, decreasing, stable or trendless over time. Sen's slope test was also used to identify the significant level of increasing or decreasing trend and a comparison of their value is presented in Table 6.

Findings from Mann-Kendall test also obtained the annual trend of salinity rising in the Madhumati River significantly (confidence factor 98.9%). Other rivers which showed increasing trend of salinity are Rupsa River, Khulna; Kakshiali River, Satkhira; Morichan River, Satkhira;

and Shibsha River, Khulna with confidence factor 96.9− 99.9%. The result is also in agreement with the spatial analysis of EC (Figure 2). Similar result of increasing salinity trend has been found in the MAKESENS tool kit for Madhumati River at 0.1 level of significance; Kakshiali River, Satkhira at 0.001 level of significance; Morichan River, Satkhira at 0.01 level of significance and Shibsha river, Khulna at 0.05 level of significance (Table 6). However, one river Panguchi River, Bagerhat found to be decreasing in salinity trend in both tool kit analyses at 0.1 level of significance in MAKESENS and 98.9% confidence factor in GSI toolkit analysis. Two rivers Pasur River, Bagerhat and Vadra River, Khulna showed "Probably increasing" trend with confidence interval 91.1% and 94.6%, respectively in GSI tool kit analysis. Although seasonal variations in the EC was found higher during trend analysis, overall annual analysis of the salinity trend was found to be "stable" over time for Kapotaksha River, Satkhira. Moreover, five rivers showed "no trend" in the analysis. The rivers are Daratana River, Bagerhat; Shailmari River, Khulna; Betna River, Satkhira; Kazibachha River, Khulna and Shibsha Rivers, Khulna. The causes of the variability in salinity trends in the above mentioned rivers are likely related to the local hydrogeologic condition, tidal effects from the Bay of Bengal, local rainfall-runoff condition, and climatic events. Besides these extreme western parts of rivers are actually parts of the moribund Ganges Delta.

5. Discussions

It is evident from our result that there is a marked seasonal variation exists in the hydrochemistry of coastal rivers in Bangladesh. There is a significant variation in anions and cations contributing to the salinity variation may be associated to at the Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna (GBM) River discharge as well as inland rainfall-runoff. Seasonal variation of anions and cations were significantly marked from the results. It was particularly evident in the nitrate variation in the

surface water. In Bangladesh the rainfed aman rice cultivation is widespread along the coastal areas (Shelley et al. 2016). It was apparent that wet-monsoon season NO_3^- indicated agricultural source and fertilizers application of transplanted aman (t. aman) production. NO_3^- containing fertilizer such as urea is applied 24 kg/3330m² in t. aman production (FAO 2017). Seeding time of aman rice is between March and April and transplanted between July and August during wet-monsoon period. The crop is harvested from November through December (Shelley et al. 2016) during the start of dry-monsoon period.

The up scaled monthly discharge of GBM river mouths produced for oceanographic investigations exhibited a marked seasonal and inter annual variability (Papa et al. 2012). The impact of Farakka Dam on the Lower Ganges River flow was calculated by comparing threshold parameters for the pre-Farakka period (from 1934 to 1974) and the post-Farakka period (1975–2005). In a normal hydrological cycle, rivers in Bangladesh suffer from low flow conditions when there is no appreciable rainfall runoff. The discharge of river is 80,684 m^3/s during the flood or wet-monsoon season while during the dry-monsoon season when the inflow is very low, discharge can be as low as 6041 m^3/s (Ahmed and Alam 1999). The results demonstrate that due to water diversion by the Farakka Dam, various threshold parameters, including the monthly mean of the dry season (December–May) and yearly minimum flows have been altered significantly. The ecological consequences of such hydrologic alterations include the increase of salinity in the southwest coastal region of Bangladesh (Gain and Giupponi 2014).

This further validates the seasonal shifting of Na-Cl dominated salinity front and molar ratio of Na/Cl, Br/Cl Mg/Ca. Seawater has distinct ionic and isotopic ratios such as Na/Cl=0.86, Br/Cl=0.0015, Mg/Ca=5.2 (Vengosh et al. 1999; Vengosh and Rosenthal 1994). A Na/Cl ratio of 0.86 was thought to indicate sea water intrusion (Bear et al. 1999). The Na/Cl molar ratio could

485 reach unity due to the mixing of seawater and freshwater, which had a Na/Cl ratio greater than
486 unity (Vengosh and Rosenthal 1994). Mg/Ca molar ratio greater than 5 is a direct indicator of
487 seawater intrusion (Vengosh and Ben-Zvi 1994). Significant variation was observed during wet-
488 monsoon season and dry-monsoon season from the molar ratio study of Na/Cl, Br/Cl Mg/Ca
489 indicating seawater intrusion. Chloride and bromide ions have been used to differentiate among
490 various sources of anthropogenic and naturally occurring contaminants in groundwater (Katz et
491 al. 2011). The elements in the estuaries are typically assessed by making plots of their dissolved
492 concentrations vs. salinity. Several elements are removed from the dissolved phase whereas
493 some elements are also released from the suspended particles (Samanta and Dalai 2016). In the
494 present study significant changes in the values of Cl/Br molar ratio, Na/Cl molar ratio, K/Cl
495 molar ratio, Mg/Ca molar ratio in the dry-monsoon compared to the wet-monsoon season
496 indicate saline water intrusion in the coastal rivers. To support the scenario a similar seasonal
497 changes in $\delta^{18}O$ from Hooghly Estuary (India) was observed. The study had identified low
498 salinity and depleted $\delta^{18}O$ during monsoon was consistent with increased river discharge as well
499 as high rainfall. This was driven by composition of the freshwater source which was dominated
500 by rainwater during monsoon and rivers during non-monsoon months (Ghosh et al. 2013).
501 Furthermore, presence of seawater was found maximum (31–37%) during February till July and
502 lowest (less than or equal to 6%) from September till November. A temporal offset between
503 Ganges River discharge farther upstream at Farakka and salinity variation at the Hooghly
504 Estuary was observed (Ghosh et al. 2013). Similar situation has been observed from the seasonal
505 changes in hydrochemistry of anions, cations, Na-Cl dominated salinity front and molar ratio
506 study of different anions and cations.

507 The results obtained from the Mann-Kendall and Sen's slope test (Table 4) along with spatial
508 analysis of EC (Figure 2) established the trends in time series of annual trend of salinity rising in
509 the Gorai-Madhumati River network. These results are in agreement with the previous
510 hydrodynamic modelling studies of Bhuiyan and Dutta (2012) and temporal and spatial analysis
511 of salinity occurrences in Kumar-Madhumati River by the study of Shammi et al. (2012).
512 Madhumati River is actually within the network of Gorai-Madhumati. Dry-season flow in the
513 Gorai-Madhumati, the main river carrying fresh water into western parts of the region, has
514 decreased over time. That was mainly due to reduced flow from the Ganges river into the Gorai
515 following construction of the Farakka barrage across the Ganges in India in 1975, but abstraction
516 of river water and groundwater for dry-season irrigation on the Ganges River Floodplain (Region
517 D) through which the Gorai-Madhumati passes has also reduced river flow (Brammer 2014a).
518 Due to the reduced flow of the rivers in this area in dry season, salinity intrudes into the river
519 systems (Bhuiyan and Dutta 2012).
520 According to Brammer (2014b), in the moribund Ganges delta, rivers have been cut off from the
521 Ganges for several centuries, making conditions in the extreme south-west region of Bangladesh
522 naturally saline in the dry season. Similar scenario has been observed from spatial distribution of
523 EC analysis from Figure 2 which is in agreement with the time series analysis. Immediately
524 adjacent to the Meghna River estuary and the Ganges Tidal Floodplain are five low-lying
525 regions/subregions (Ganges River floodplain, Gopalganj Bils, lower Meghna River floodplain,
526 and two sub regions of Meghna Estuarine floodplains in low and western outliers) might be
527 affected by a rising sea-level as early as the coastal regions. These regions/subregions include a
528 wide diversity of environmental conditions that need to be taken into account in assessing
529 potential impacts of sea-level rise and in considering appropriate mitigation measures (Brammer

530 2014b). A salinity flux model integrated with an existing hydrodynamic model was applied in
531 order to simulate flood and salinity in the complex waterways in the coastal zone of Gorai river
532 basin with sea level rise (SLR) scenario (Bhuiyan and Dutta 2012). The results of salinity model
533 obtained had indicated the risk and changes in salinity due to sea level rise with increased river
534 salinity as well as the salinity intrusion length in the river. Sea level rise of 59 cm produced a
535 change of 0.9 ppt at a distance of 80 km upstream of river mouth, corresponding to a climatic
536 effect of 1.5 ppt per meter SLR (Bhuiyan and Dutta 2012). The SLR depends not only on
537 changes in the mass and volume of sea water but also on other factors, such as local subsidence,
538 river discharge, sediment and the effects of vegetation (Lee 2013). Moreover, the SLR trend
539 obtained from ensemble empirical mode decomposition (EEMD) was 4.46 mm/yr over April
540 1990 to March 2009, which was larger than the recent altimetry-based global rate of 3.360.4
541 mm/yr over the period from 1993 to 2007 (Lee 2013). It is, therefore, important to determine the
542 impacts of SLR on salinity to devise suitable adaptation and mitigation measures and reduce
543 impacts of salinity intrusion in coastal cities (Bhuiyan and Dutta 2012).
544 The progressive inland movement of the dry-season salt-water limit in south-western rivers has
545 had adverse impacts on soil salinity, crop production and availability of potable domestic water
546 supplies in affected areas (Brammer 2014b). Increased salinity possesses a risk of secondary soil
547 salinization. Secondary soil salinization occurs when surface soil salinity has increased from
548 non-saline to a saline level as a consequence of irrigation or other agricultural practices (Peck
549 and Hatton 2003). The seasonal variation of using drinking water sources in the study area is
550 influenced by the monsoonal precipitation and the success of tube well installation factors
551 (Sarkar and Vogt 2015). Increased salinity of drinking water is likely to have a range of health
552 effects, including increased hypertension rates. Large numbers of pregnant women in the coastal

areas are being diagnosed with pre-eclampsia, eclampsia, and hyper tension (Khan et al. 2008). The main drinking water sources used in the study area are the tube well, with an average depth of 200 m, and pond, with or without the adjacent filtration facility known as PSF (pond sand filter) (Sarkar and Vogt 2015).

Nevertheless, the coastal area of the country is known as one of the highly productive areas of the world (Afroz and Alam 2013). With increasing levels of salinity in the land and freshwater resources, the brackish water aquaculture flourished rapidly on agricultural land. The change in land-use from agriculture to brackish water shrimp aquaculture has further increased the soil and water salinization across the landscape (Shameem et al. 2014). Salinity increases may affect survival of some mangroves and wetland plants, especially in dry season (Suen and Lai 2013). Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) involves an integrated planning process to address the complex management issues in the coastal area of Bangladesh (Afroz and Alam 2013). It is a blueprint for sustainable coastal development (Afroz and Alam 2013) which is made up of three broad categories of integration: (i) policy integration, (ii) functional integration and (iii) system integration (Thia-Eng 1993). Despite increasing recognition of the need for ICZM strategies, the initiation of the Coastal Zone Policy and ICZM has not contributed any significant improvement in the coastal areas (Rahman and Rahman 2015) of Bangladesh. Introduction of advanced coastal protection models must incorporate the complexity of natural environmental variation, including the influence of both the biotic and abiotic ecosystem (Spalding et al. 2014). A model should be synthesized to optimize conjunctive uses of the water in the affected area based on two questions: "Which water resources to use?" and "When to use which water source?" for the best management of water resources. Introducing water resources information system aims to build a data-bank of water resources and factors influencing their management (Loitzenbauer and

576 Mendes 2012). This data bank will provide information of existing and potential water resources
577 for optimum uses of water without compromising the quality of water.
578 The salinity balance of each coastal river basins, including that of the Ganges, Gorai-Madhumati,
579 Meghna, Karnafuli and other river networks should form part of this data-bank, together with the
580 results from modeling the salinity distribution which requires regular trend analysis to combat
581 not only salinity intrusion in the coastal areas but may help to combat other problems including,
582 agricultural-non-point nutrient pollution, hypoxia, eutrophication, sewage pollution, industrial
583 pollution and other problems. It is important to understand and communicate the economic,
584 environmental and social costs of river salinization in order to guide management and restoration
585 efforts. Impacts need to be anticipated and mitigated, and future scenarios of climate change and
586 increasing water demand have to be integrated into the ecological impact assessment (Canedo-
587 Arguelles et al. 2013). Consequently, for sustaining the ecosystem integrity of coastal rivers and
588 estuaries, it is very important to restore and maintain minimum environmental flow assessment
589 (EFA) of the major shared rivers with India. In the "Bangladesh: National Programme of Action
590 for Protection of the Coastal and Marine Environment from Land-Based Activities"
591 (DoE/MOEF/GOB 2006) strategy 5 clearly stated assessment of environmental flow requirement
592 and salinity intrusion in the Integrated Coastal Zone Management Plan (ICZMP). In this regard a
593 complete regional water management plan for the Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna catchment area
594 is needed along with minimum EFA in the lower estuarine and coastal regions of Bangladesh to
595 maintain ecological integrity of the region. However, to-date, India has not prepared any EFA of
596 the joint rivers to support such a plan or to share hydrological data with Bangladesh (Brammer
597 2004). Moreover, this plan should be carried out with other countries of shared river including
598 Nepal and China.

6. Conclusions and remarks

Trend analysis is one of the most important issues in any regional hydrological variables taking into account the spatial and temporal variable and providing result for present conditions and future scenario from past data analysis. In this context, spatial records of wet- and dry-monsoon salinity levels in the southern coastal rivers and estuary are important to study the level of salinity fluctuation trends of coastal areas of Bangladesh. The differences between wet- and dry-monsoon salinity levels, represents the combined effect of salinity scenario in the southern region. The results obtained from the historical trend analysis by Mann-Kendall test and Sen's slope was used to establish the trends in time series. In this framework, the conclusions and remarks, which can be significant from this study, are:

a) EC and TDS is the principal component of salinity along with K^+, Cl^- and SO_4^{2-} as observed from both wet-monsoon and dry-monsoon seasonal analysis in relation to the other anions and cations. Moreover, on a spatial basis the distribution of the EC values showed variable trends over the south regions. The most saline intruded areas in the wet-monsoon season is

   (i) Extreme south-west coastal zone of Bangladesh comprising the distrcts of Khulna, Satkhira, Bagerhat, Jessore and Gopalganj;

   (ii) Lower Meghna River floodplain and Meghna estuarine floodplain comprising the districts of Bhola, Noakhali and Feni;

   (iii) South-east part of Chittagong coastal plains containing the districts of Chittagong and Cox's Bazar near Bay of Bengal;

   (iv) The little affected mid-south zone particularly Barisal, Jhalkathi, Patuakhali and Barguna which are also being affected in the dry-monsoon season

b) From the hydrochemistry analysis of piper diagram in the wet-monsoon season approximately 66% of samples were Ca–Mg–HCO_3 type and second prevailing category was Na–Cl type subjugating 17.70% samples. In the dry-monsoon season foremost water type fell into the category of Na-Cl type (52.27%) followed by Ca–Mg–HCO_3 type (31.81%).

c) Seawater intrusion was also confirmed by calculated ionic ratios. It was found from Cl/Br molar ratio vs. Cl^- that about 42.7% of the collected sample water was affected by salinity in wet-monsoon season compared to the 27% collected in dry-monsoon. Moreover roughly 33.33% sample collected in the wet-monsoon season and 38.63% sample collected in the dry-monsoon had Na/Cl ratio above 0.86 indicating sea-water-intrusion.

d) From Mann-Kendall and Sen's slope test analysis it was prevalent that among the 13 river time series analysis of salinity trend, four rivers had shown significantly increasing trend of salinity in the extreme south-west zone of Bangladesh. This also signify the future work analysis of other major rivers affected by salinity particularly in other major rivers particularly in Meghna river estuary and eastern Chittagong coastal plains zones. These outcomes deliver the following perceptions for future mechanisms.

On equilibrium, the result of this study proves the extent of seawater intrusion in the coastal rivers by using an interdisciplinary approach. Moreover, the hydrochemical data in conjunction with the remote sensing and GIS and statistical methods identified the spatial extent of salinity occurrences in a seasonal basis. With the application of Mann-Kendall and Sen's slope this research further assessed salinity rising trend in south-west coastal zones of Bangladesh. In order to predict future trends in other rivers, the same method can be utilized to predict future trends of seawater intrusion. This method can be further applied to study other environmental processes to

assess. The results of this study can also provide important information and a priori assessment to water resource managers, engineers, practitioners and policy makers and environmental scientists of the country to implement structures for the management of important water resources. This study could further help to comprehend seasonal trends in the hydrochemistry and water quality of the coastal and estuarine rivers, and help policy makers to obligate some important implications for the future initiatives taken for the management of land, water, fishery, agriculture and environment of coastal rivers and estuaries of Bangladesh.

Conflicts of Interest

All authors have read the manuscript and declared no conflict of interests. All authors discussed the results and implications and commented on the manuscript at all stages.

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Figure file

Figure 1

Figure 2

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Figure 7

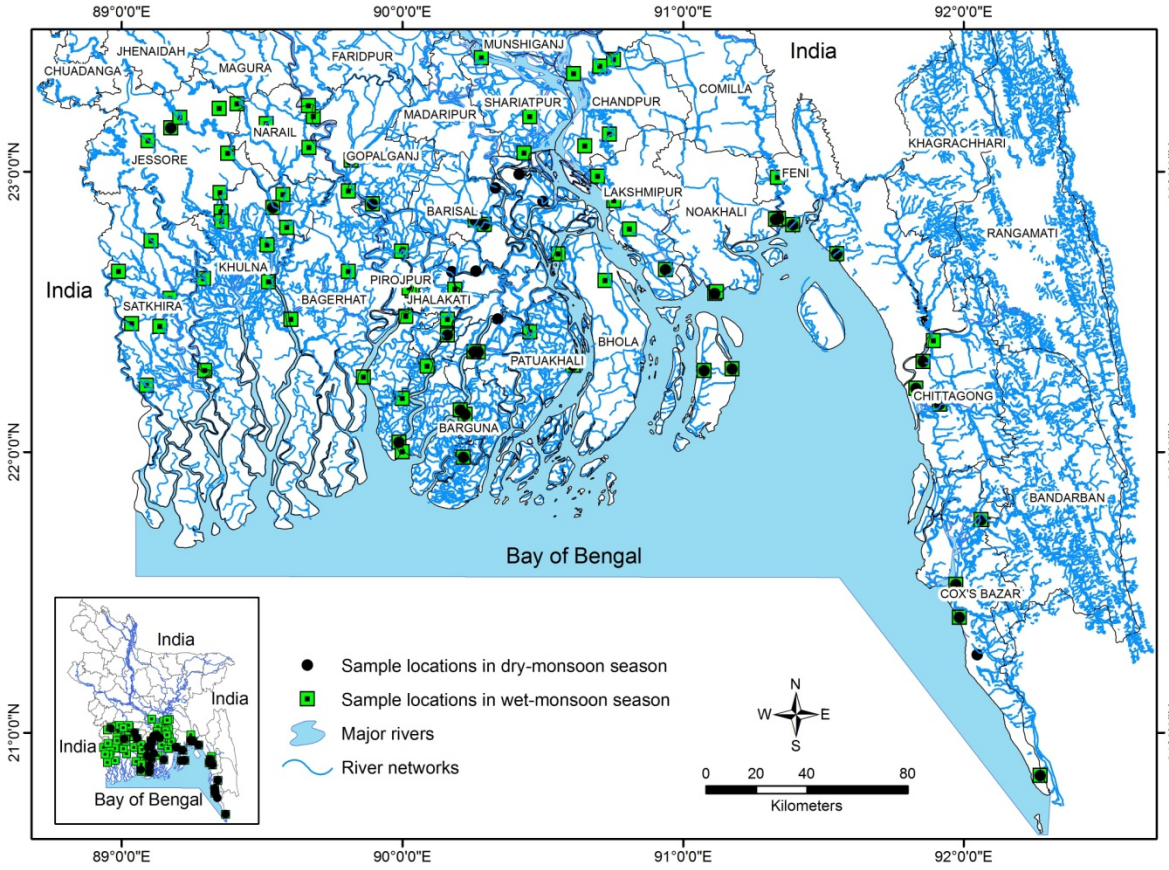


Figure 1. Location map of surface water sampling points in wet-monsoon season and dry-monsoon season along with river networks in the study area

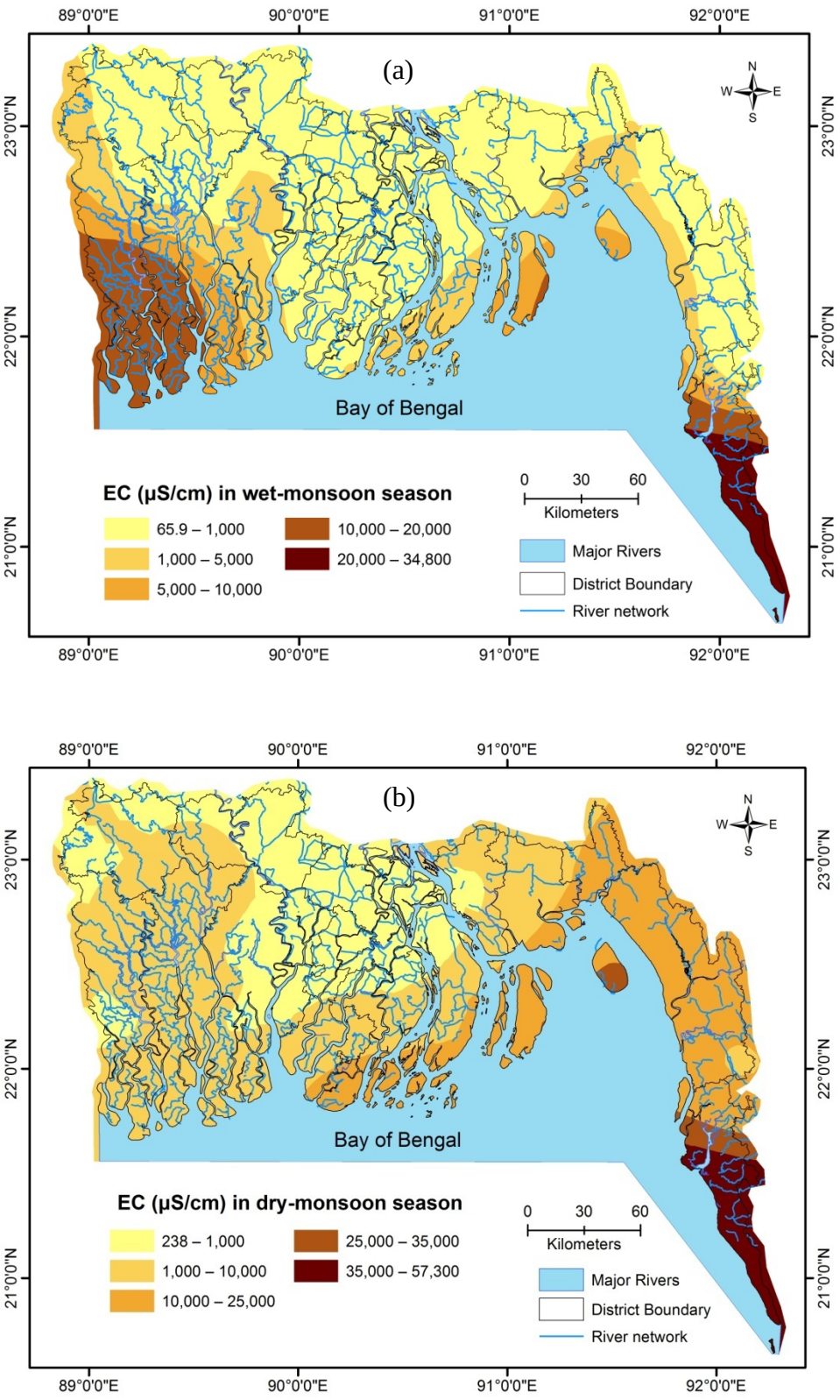


Figure 2. Spatial distribution of salinity occurrences as EC (µS/cm) in wet-monsoon season and dry-monsoon season in the coastal rivers and estuaries of Bangladesh. Sampling points in wet-monsoon (n=96) (a) and dry-monsoon (n=44) (b).

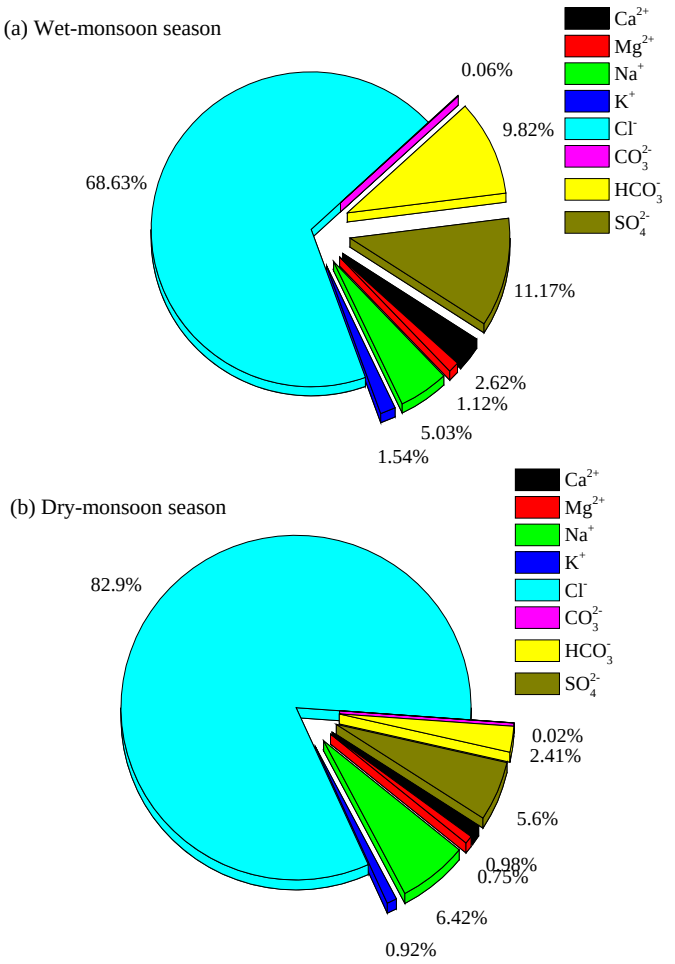


Figure 3. Seasonal variation of anions and cations contributing to salinity in the major coastal rivers and estuarine water based on average data (a) variation in wet-monsoon season (b) variation in dry-monsoon season

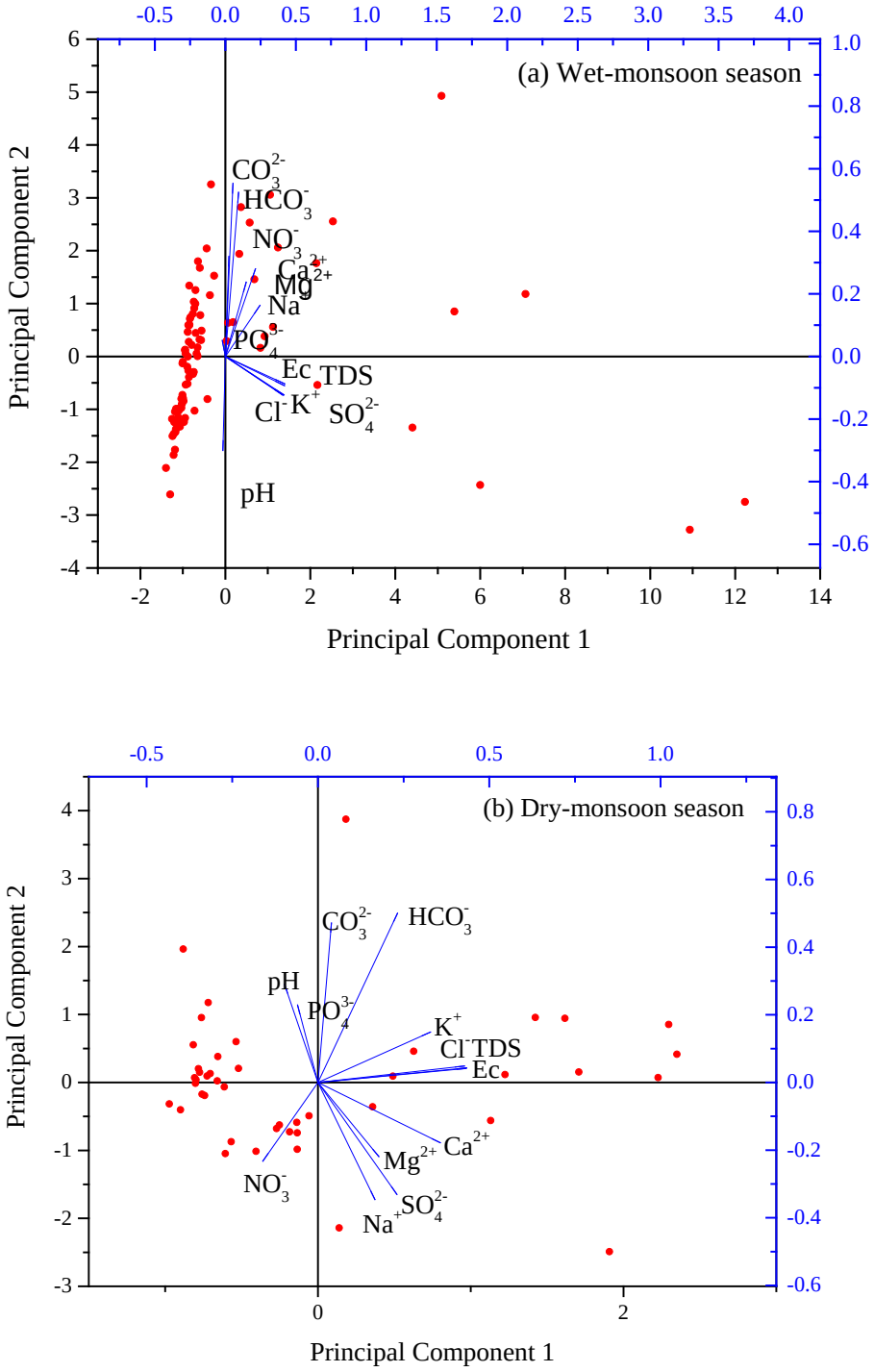


Figure 4. PCA on the combined data sets of anions and cations with other important water parameters to understand seasonal variations of river water (a) Wet-monsoon season and (b) Dry-monsoon season

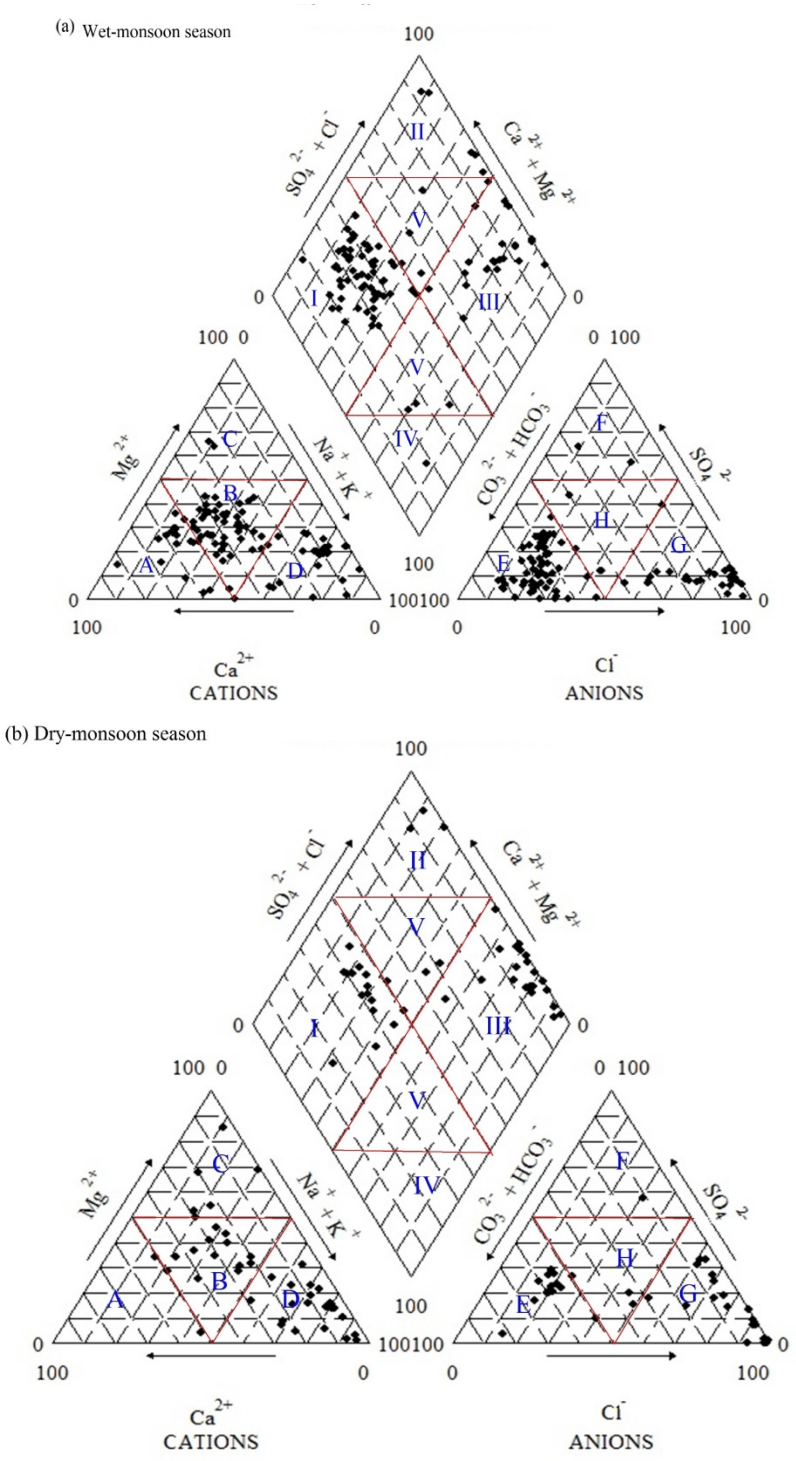


Figure 5. Piper diagram for major ion contents of surface waters of the study area to determine water types (a) wet-monsoon season and (b) dry-monsoon season. The surface waters are classified into three types; Type I: Ca–Mg–HCO_3, Type II: Ca-Cl type, Type III: Na-Cl type, Type IV: Na–HCO_3, Type V: mixed type Na–Ca–Mg–HCO_3–Cl

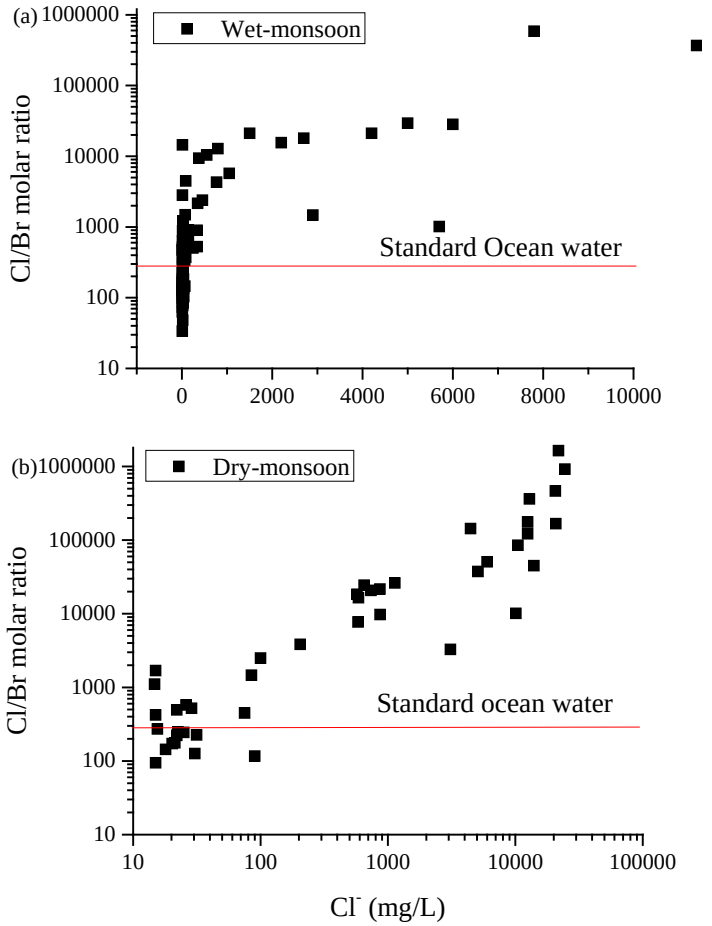


Figure 6. Cl/Br molar ratio vs. Cl^- (mg/L) for (a) Wet-monsoon and (b) Dry-monsoon season

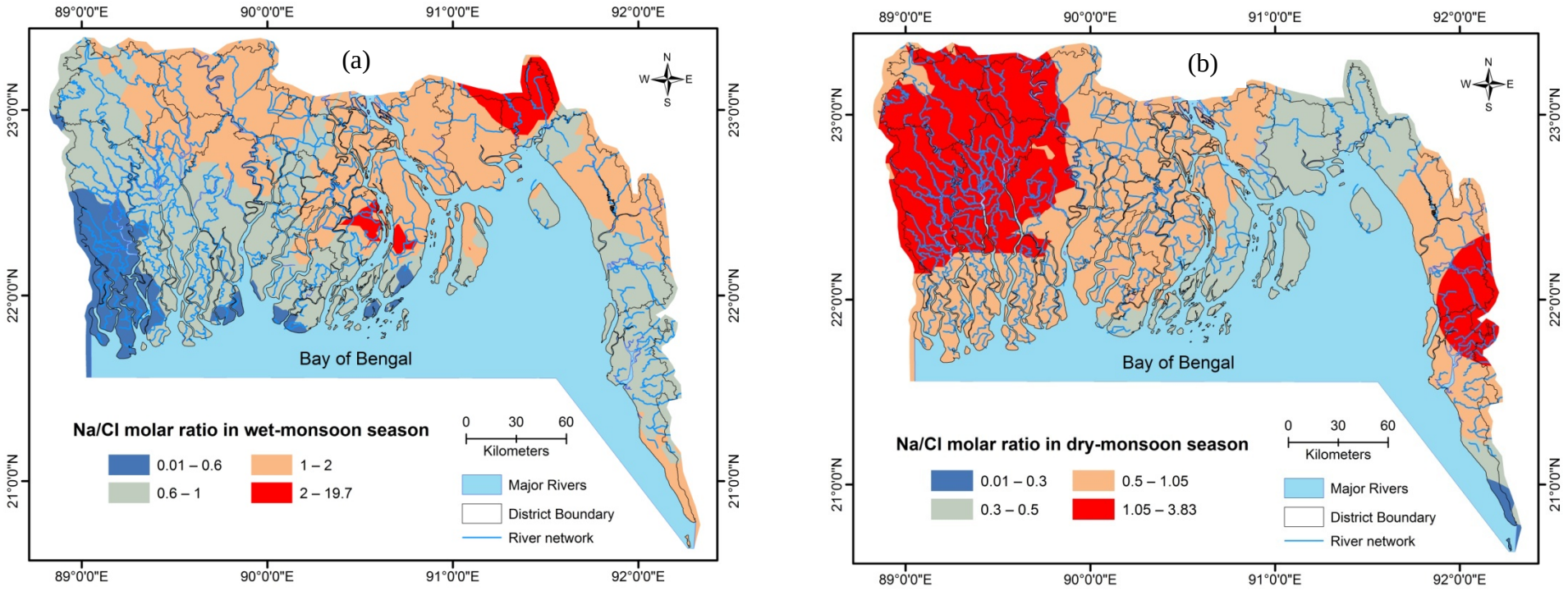


Figure 7. Spatial distribution of Na/Cl molar ratio in wet-monsoon season (a) and dry-monsoon season (b) in the coastal rivers and estuaries of Bangladesh as obtained by Ordinary Kriging method (OK). Sampling points in wet-monsoon (n=96) and dry-monsoon (n=44).