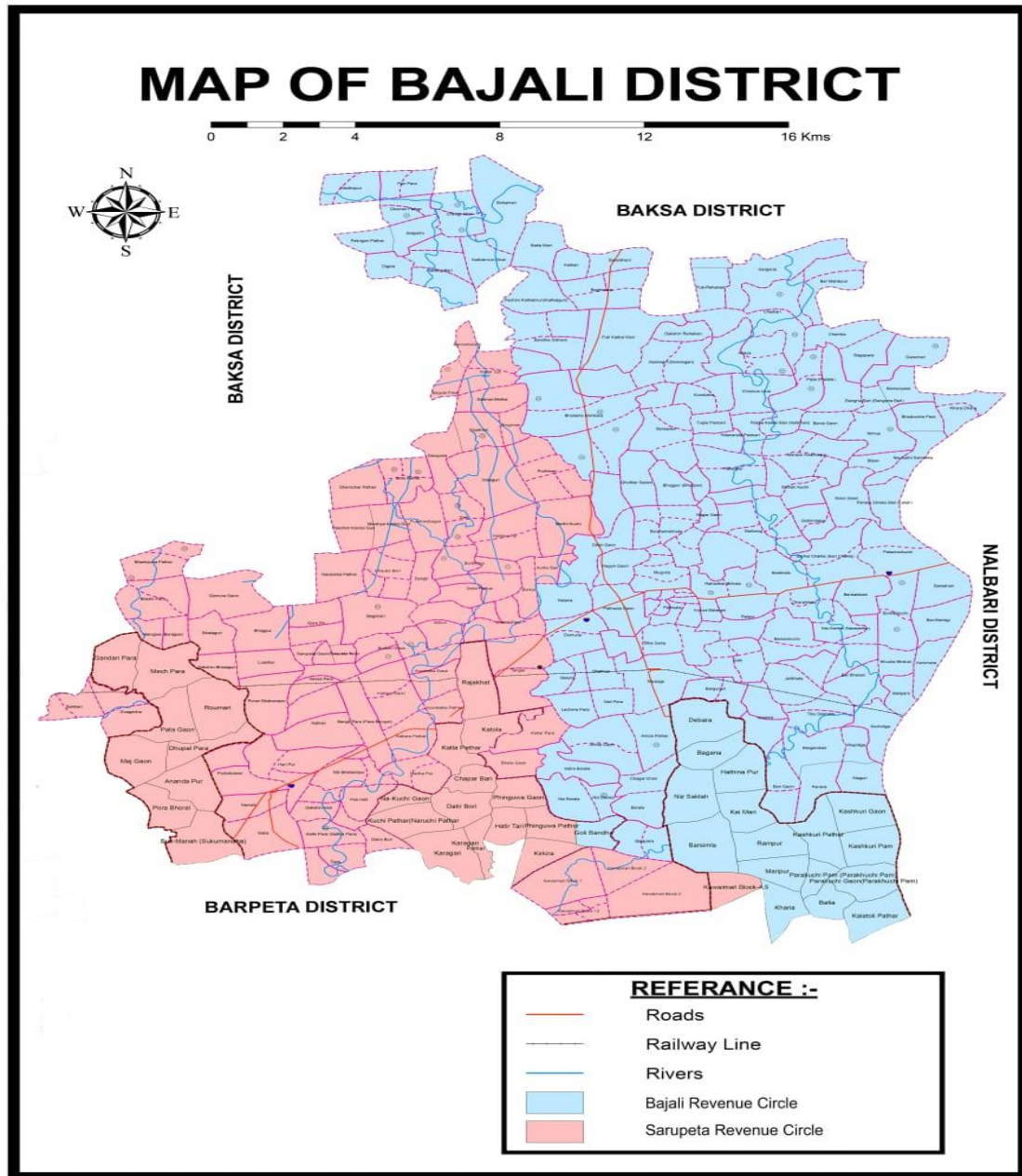


DISTRICT SURVEY REPORT(Draft)

BAJALI DISTRICT, ASSAM



Prepared by:

OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT COMMISSIONER

BAJALI DISTRICT

GOVERNMENT OF ASSAM

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1.0 Introduction

According to MoEF&CC Notification No.125 (Extraordinary, Part II Section 3, Sub-section (ii), S.O.141(E) dated 15th January 2016, it is mandatory to have District Survey Report (DSR) for Mining of Minor Minerals. This will ensure environmentally sustainable mining for minor minerals under close supervision of district authorities. A detailed procedure and format for preparation of District Survey Report (DSR) has been discretely discussed under Para 7(iii)(a) and Annexure (x) of the Notification issued by Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change, Government of India on 15th January 2016.

As per MoEF&CC Notification dated 25th July 2018, preparation of DSR requires both primary and secondary data generation. District Survey Report will cover General information of the district, Demography, Geomorphology, Topography, Forest and Agricultural information, Climate and Rainfall conditions, Land Use pattern, calculation of total amount of replenishment, details of Royalty and revenue received in last three years etc. etc.

Mineral wise District Survey Report must be prepared in every district for Sand mining / River bed mining and other minor minerals mining in order to obtain Environment Clearance.

The main purpose of preparing the district survey report. Identification of areas of aggradations or deposition where mining can be allowed and identification of areas of erosion and proximity to infrastructural structures and installations where mining should be prohibited and calculation of annual rate of replenishment and allowing time for replenishment after mining in that area”.

The District Survey Report (DSR) will contain mainly data published and endorsed by various departments and websites about Geology of the area, Mineral wealth details of rivers, Details of Lease and Mining activity in the district along with Sand mining and revenue of minerals.

1.1 The process involved in the preparation of DSR

- A. Collection of Baseline Data from the Districts.
- B. Development of related maps from satellite and secondary sources
- C. Understanding river flows and sedimentation vis-a vis sand mining
- D. Tabulation and mapping of existing sand / gravel mining locations and yield
- E. Correlation with satellite data for pre and post monsoon sand MM yield
- F. Suggesting new locations for sand and other MM approval
- G. To design and prepare DSR as per MoEF guidelines
- H. Interaction with line department for data / document ownership
- G. Draft DSR in to be kept in public domain for 21 days including public consultation.

1.1a Objective of DSR

- 1) Identification of areas of aggradations or deposition where mining can be allowed.
- 2) Identification of areas of erosion and proximity to infrastructural structures and installations where mining should be prohibited.
- 3) Calculation of annual rate of replenishment and allowing time for replenishment after mining in that area.
- 4) To balance development and environment.

1.2 Methodology of DSR preparation |

Step 1 : Identification of Data Source

DSR has been prepared on the basis of Primary data base and Secondary data base collected from various sources. This is a critical process in order to identify the authentic data sources prior to collation of data set. Sources of secondary data used in this DSR are mostly data published by the State government and district census in 2011. Mining lease and revenue generated from minor minerals have been prepared on the basis of available data from the DFO office of the district.

Step 2 : Data analysis and Preparation of Maps.....

DSR involves the analytical implication of dataset captured during the preparation of report. The principal steps in map preparation involves determination of appropriate classification system through Visual Image Interpretation, selection of samples, Satellite Image pre-processing and accuracy assessment. ISRO RESOURCE has been adapted for supervised classification.

Step 3. Primary Data Collection :

During the preparation of DSR, primary or field data has been collected from the district which involves assessment of the mineral resources in the district by means of pitting and trenching in pre-determined interval. This gave a clear picture about characterization of minerals and their distribution.

Step 4 : Replenishment Study :

Replenishment study is very important in the sense that in case more sediment is removed than the system can replenish, then there will be adverse and severe impact on environment. Physical survey has been carried out in order to define the topography, contours and offsets of the riverbed. Annual replenishment of the riverbed has been calculated using field survey, satellite imagery and empirical formula. The study was carried out on existing mine leases and an approach of direct measurement methodology was adapted. The depth and area of mining leases

are measured through GPS/ Total Station just before the closure of the mines during pre-monsoon period and the same area was resurveyed in the post-monsoon period.

Step 5 : Preparation of Report :

The DSR clearly elaborates the general profile, geomorphology, land use pattern and geology of the district. This report describes the availability and distribution of riverbed sands and other minor minerals in the district and at the same time, includes inventorization of the minerals, recent trends of production of minor minerals and revenue generated from them. Moreover, potential environmental impacts due to mining of such materials, required mitigation measures to be adapted along with risk assessment and hazard management have also been indicated.

2.0 About Bajali District

The District of Bajali is located in the western part of Assam is a newly created district of Assam vide government notification no GAG (B) 491/2019/107 dated 12th January 2021. It is bounded on the North by the Baksa District, on the East by the Nalbari District and West & South by the Barpeta District. This district (erst while a sub division) was carved out of the Barpeta District. The Head quarter of the district is Madan Rauta Nagar, Pathsala.

1	Area in Sq.km	422.95 Sq.Km
2	Longitude	Longitude 91 Degree 04'E and 91 Degree 24'E
3	Latitude	26 Degree 44'N and 26 Degree 50'N
4	Total population (census 2011)	324,739
(a)		165,085

	Total Male Population (Census 2011)	
(b)	Total Female Population (Census 2011)	159,654
(c)	Schedule Caste (in %) (Census 2011)	6.49%
(d)	Schedule Tribes (in %) (Census 2011)	2.78%
(e)	Density per Sq. Km	768 /Sq. Km
(f)	Sex Ratio	1002
(g)	Literacy rate	88.18%.
5	Distance from State Capital	113.2 Kms
6	No. of Revenue Circle	02 Nos. A) Bajali Revenue Circle B) Sarupeta Revenue Circle
7	No. of Villages (Revenue)	210 Nos.

8	No. of Development Blocks	02 Nos. A) Bajali Dev. Block B) Bhawanipur Dev. Block (Part)
9	No. of Municipal Board	02 Nos. A) Pathsala Municipality Board B) Patacharkuchi Municipality Board
10	No. of Gaon Panchayat	31 Nos.
11	No. of LAC	02 Nos. A) 21 No. Bhowanipur-Sorbhog B) 26 No Bajali
12	No. of HPC	01 No A) 3-Barpeta
13	Police	
(a)	No. of Police Station	2 Nos. (Patacharkuchi P.S. & Pathsala P.S)
(b)	No. of Outpost	04 Nos. (Baghmara, Sarupte, Bhawanipur, Dhumar Pathar)

14	Total Urban Population	23,501 (Approx)
15	Total no. of River	4 Nos Kaldia Pohumara Deojara Palla
16	Total no of Railway Station	4 Nos Niz Sariha Pathsala Sarupeta Guwagacha
17	Total No of Satra	16 Nos.

Geography:

Bajali district occupies an area of 422.95 square kilometres (163.30 sq. mi), comparatively equivalent to the country of Barbados. There are numerous small rivers such as Kaldia, Pahumara, Deojara etc which flow from Baksa district. The district is mostly made up of plains, but there are a number of hills spread across the district. The climate of the district is characterized by excessive humidity during summer and moderately cold and foggy winters. Generally, the weather goes dry and moisture less from February to April. From May to September sufficient rainfall sweeps over the district with heavy moisture in the atmosphere. During the months of October and November, the weather becomes pleasant and the atmosphere gets foggy. Fogginess remains in the atmosphere till the end of January. Winter starts in the month of

November and continues for about four months. The climate / atmosphere is somewhat dry and dusty during the months of February and March.

Economy:

Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy of the people of the district. About 70% of the people of the district depend on agriculture. The soil and climatic condition of the district are good enough for agricultural activities. The rainfall is also sufficient to grow paddy, mustard, potatoes, jute, wheat and vegetables. The principal crops cultivated are Rice, Wheat, Maize, Jute, Potato etc. Forestry also plays a significant role in the economy of the district. A large portion of the people of the district depends on forests for firewood to cook their day-to-day meals and timber, bamboo, Ikra, thatch etc. to build their houses. The forests are generally evergreen in nature and consist of a host of tree species.

Transport:

Bajali district is well connected by the both railway and road with the state headquarters as well as with the rest of the country. The NH-31 is passing through the district along with the State Highway 127 A which connects the district with the nation of Bhutan. Another important road connects Bhawanipur to Manas National Park. There are quite a number of arterial roads connecting the district headquarter with other important centers within and outside the district. The district is also connected by Railways with stations at Pathsala, Sarupeta, Niz Sariha and Guwagacha.

Demographics:

According to the 2011 census Bajali district have a population of 3,24,739 roughly equal to the nation of The Iceland. The district has a population density of 1063 inhabitants per square kilometer. Its population growth rate over the decade 2001-2011 was 21.43%. Bajali has a sex ratio of 1002 females for every 1000 males, and a literacy rate of 88.18%. Assamese and English are the status of Official Language in this district with majority of the people primarily speaking Assamese. Apart from Assamese, other minority languages spoken in the district include Bodo, Bengali. There are also few people from Marwari, Bihari community who form microscopic minority.

Education:

The district of Bajali has a number of well-known educational institutes in North East India. Pathsala, the district headquarters, as its name suggests, is a major learning hub of Assam. The district has a state university, the Bhattadev university, which is situated at Pathsala town. The district also includes a number of degree colleges and junior colleges such as North Kamrup College, Bijni Hastinapur Bhawanipur College, Nirmal Haloi College, Bhawanipur Anchalik College, Anandoram Barooah Degree College, Pathsala Mahavidyalaya, Madhya Bajali Junior College and Krishna Kanta Handique Junior and Degree College. Prominent schools in the district include Bajali Higher Secondary School, Patacharkuchi Vidhyapith HSS, Bhawanipur HSS, Choukhuti HS, Anandoram Barooah Academy, Sreeram Academy, Pathsala Public School and Christ Jyoti School. To ensure a steady flow of skilled workers in different trades for the industry Mini ITI, Titka is there.

Medical and Public Health:

The district has one Sub Divisional Civil Hospital situated in Pathsala town, 02 Primary Health Centre, 01 First Referral Unit, 01 Community Health Centres at Baghmara, 41 Sub-Centres and 02 Private Nursing Home. The nearest Medical Colleges are Guwahati Medical College & Hospital and Fakhruddin Ali Ahmed Medical College & Hospital.

Places of religious, historical or archaeological importance:

Bajali district has many important places of religious, historical or archaeological importance of which mention may be made of Parithareswar Devalaya, Jalikhata, Akaya Satra, Bamakhata Satra, Bhugeswar Mandir, Gopal Atar Than, Gomura Satra etc.

Many people living in Pipla village of Bajali are facing countless difficulties due to water logging as floodwaters continue to inundate vast expanse of areas.

Pohumara and Kaldia are the main rivers that flow through Bajali and its nearby areas. But due to incessant rainfall, the water level of both the rivers are currently flowing above the danger level, that causes flood in Bajali and adjacent areas.

3.0 Geology of Bajali district

Bajali district is located on the north of Brahmaputra River covering an area of 423 sq. km falling under the Survey of India degree sheet number 78J and 78N. The area of the district falls roughly within 26°20' N–26°35' N latitude and longitudes 91°10'E–91°30'E and is bordered by Baksa district towards north and west, Nalbari district towards east and Barpeta district towards south.

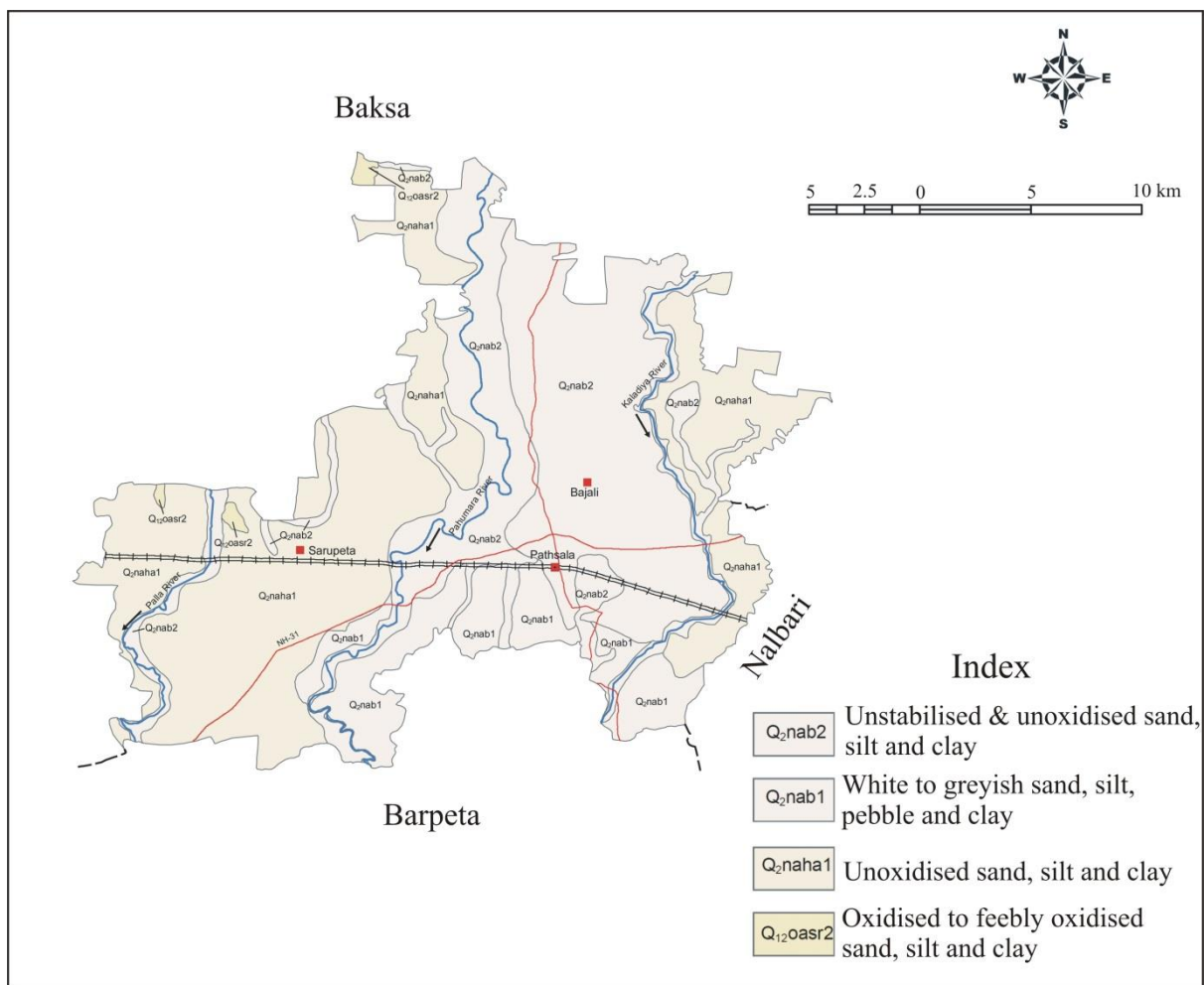


Figure: Geological map of Bajali district (Source: District resource map published by Geological Survey India, Kolkata, 2023)

3.0 Falling within the Brahmaputra basin, the Bajali district is mainly covered by alluvial deposit with flat topography and is prone to severe floods mainly by the tributaries of the Brahmaputra river viz. Kaladiya, Deojara and Pahumara River flowing from north to south.

4.0 Geologically, Bajali district is occupied by the Quaternary sediments, represented by Older Alluvium and Newer Alluvium groups. The stratigraphic succession of the area is as follows:

Age	Group	Formation	Lithology
Recent	Newer Alluvium	Barpeta-II	Unstabilised & unoxidised sand, silt and clay
Holocene-Recent		Barpeta-I	White to greyish sand, silt, pebble and clay
Holocene		Hauli	Unoxidised sand, silt and clay
Pleistocene-Holocene	Older Alluvium	Sorbhog	Oxidised to feebly oxidised sand, silt and clay

5.0 Major part of the district is occupied by Newer Alluvium deposits. The Older Alluvium deposits are exposed in a sporadic manner only in the western side of the district. Older alluvium is classified into Sorbhog Formation. The **Sorbhog Formation** of Pleistocene to Holocene age is composed of moderately oxidized pale yellowish to brown sand, silty clay and clay. Due to its higher elevation than the surroundings, it is more stabilized and preferred for settlements. Newer alluvium Group is classified into Hauli Formation, Barpeta-I & Barpeta-II Formations.

6.0 The **Hauli Formation** of Middle to Late Holocene age is composed of unoxidised, grey coloured sand, silt, silty -clay and clay.

7.0 Sediments of **Barpeta-I Formation** are exposed in the southern part of the district and is lithologically represented by unoxidised silt, clay with gravel and pebbles and exposed near abandoned channels and point bars.

8.0 The **Barpeta-II Formation** is represented by unoxidised grey loose sand, clay and cobbles and pebbles and exposed in the central part of the district. Barpeta-II Formation comprises of most recent sediments confined within the present day river channels.

9.0 Groundwater occurs under unconfined condition in shallow aquifer and under semi-confined to confined condition in deeper aquifer. In addition to the tributaries, beels, ponds and other permanent sources of water is utilized for irrigation. The land use pattern of the district is mainly agricultural land

with settlement and grassland covered area. Geotechnically, Bajali district comprises of only one geotechnical unit which belongs to the alluvium fills with the unconsolidated with/without clay, sand having high permeability. It may not provide a good foundation for any structure.

- 10.0 The district is devoid of any minerals of economic importance. The rocks which are found in the form of pebbles, cobbles boulders found in the river channel deposits of the Brahmaputra tributaries are used for building material purposes. Sand deposits from river banks, channels and sand units from older alluvium are used as construction material. The clay beds occurring in the area are used for brickmaking.

4.0. Drainage System :

The river Brahmaputra flows from east to west across the southern part of the district. The tributaries of this river that flows through the district are Beki, Manas, Pohumara, Kaldia, Palla, Nakhanda, Marachaulkhowa and Bhelengi flowing from North to South. Rivers Pohumara and Kaldia joins near Barpeta town to form river Nakhanda whereas Palla and Beki join with Nakhanda to ultimately form Chaukhowa river.

5.0. Rainfall and Climate :

The climate of Bajali district remains mild and pleasant round the year, it is sub-tropical and humid. The air is highly humid through the year and during rainy season, the relative humidity being about 90 percent.

Tropical monsoon climate of the district provides two distinct seasons i.e. Summer and Winter. The summer season is from March to May is followed by the Monsoons from June to September. This is followed by cool winter session from October to February.

The area receives heavy rainfall every year and out of 2,051 mm of annual normal rainfall, 60 to 65 percent is received from June to September from south-west monsoon. The district also receives rainfall during pre-monsoon period from March/April to May in the form of thunder showers and hail storms.

The average temperature ranges from 15°C to 30°C.

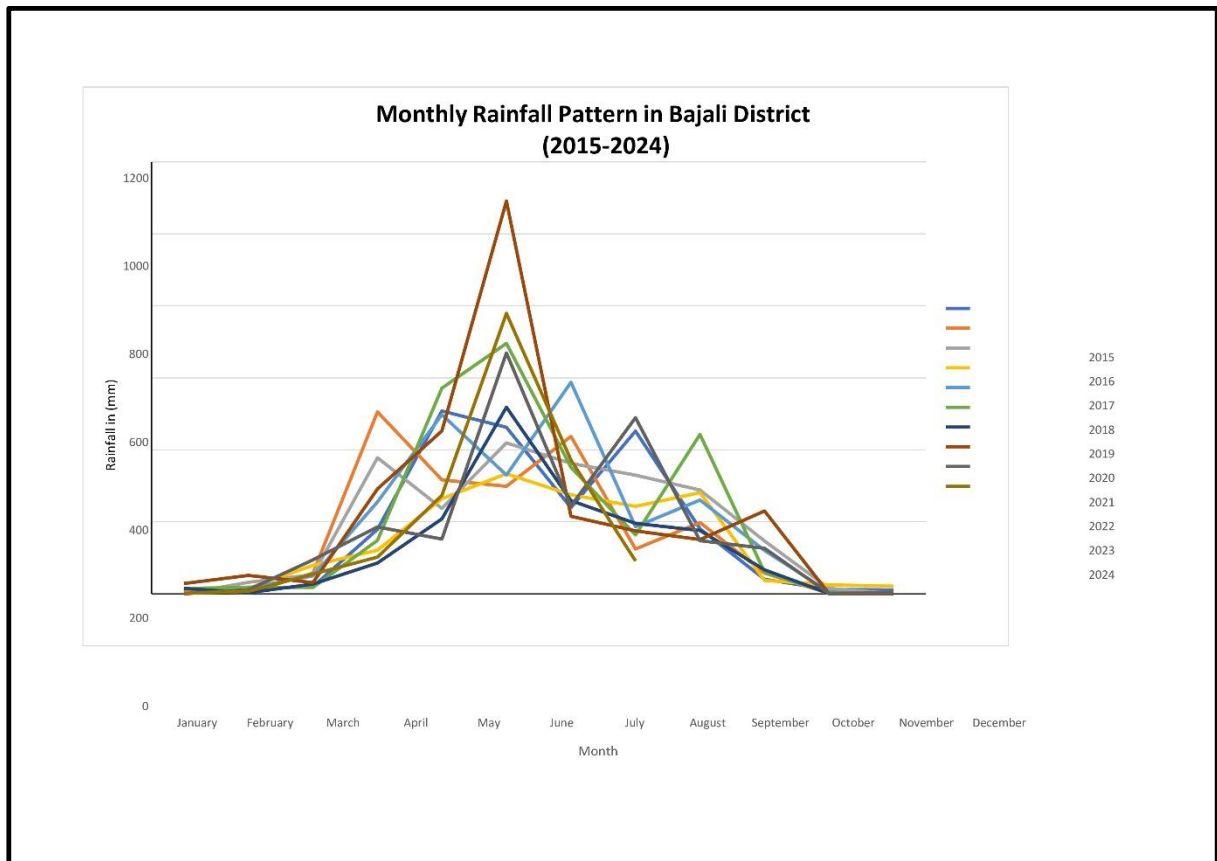


Figure 1

	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Avg. Temperature (°C)	17.6	19.8	23.6	26.1	26.9	27.9	28.7	28.6	28.2	26.1	22.7	18.7
Min. Temperature (°C)	11.4	13.4	17.1	20.8	22.9	24.6	25.7	25.7	25	22	18.1	12.8
Max. Temperature (°C)	23.8	26.2	30.1	31.4	31	31.2	31.7	31.6	31.5	30.3	27.4	24.6
Avg. Temperature (°F)	63.7	67.6	74.5	79.0	80.4	82.2	83.7	83.5	82.8	79.0	72.9	65.7
Min. Temperature (°F)	52.5	56.1	62.8	69.4	73.2	76.3	78.3	78.3	77.0	71.6	64.6	55.0
Max. Temperature (°F)	74.8	79.2	86.2	88.5	87.8	88.2	89.1	88.9	88.7	86.5	81.3	76.3
Precipitation / Rainfall (mm)	13	7	75	163	419	417	346	199	188	130	12	6

Figure 2: Climate Table/ Historical Weather Data of Bajali District

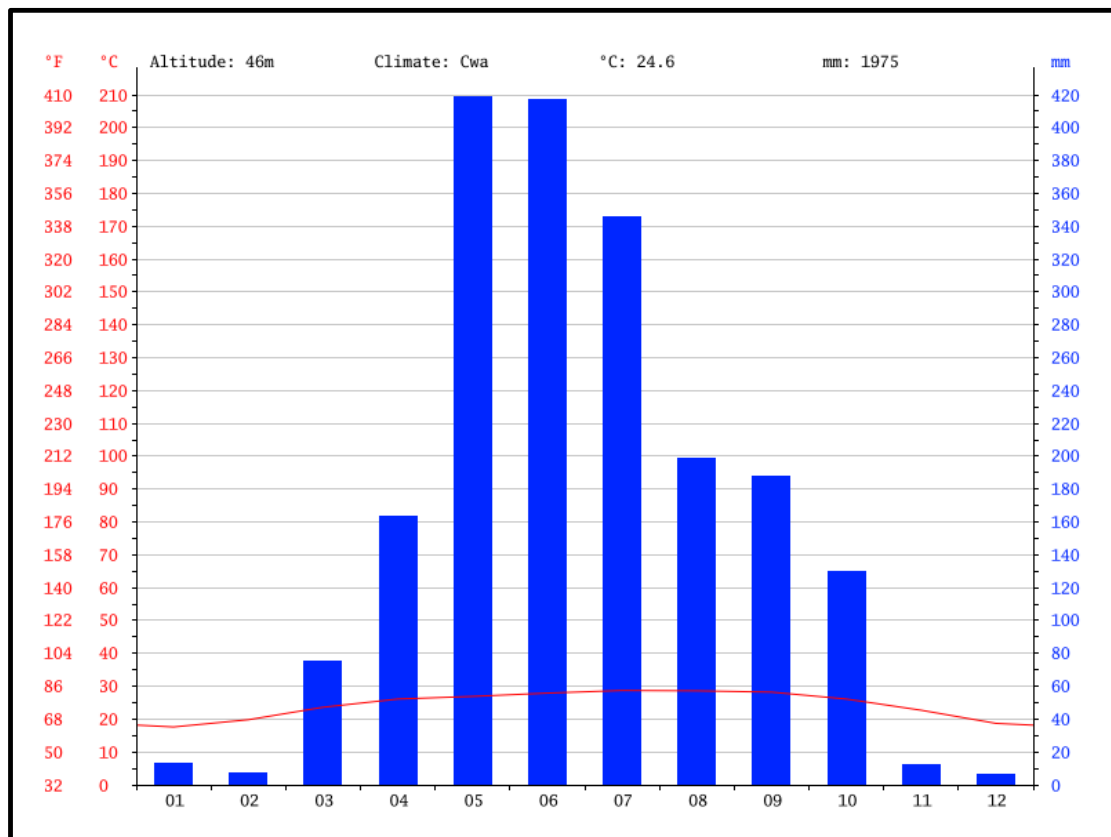


Figure 3: Climate Graph of Bajali District.

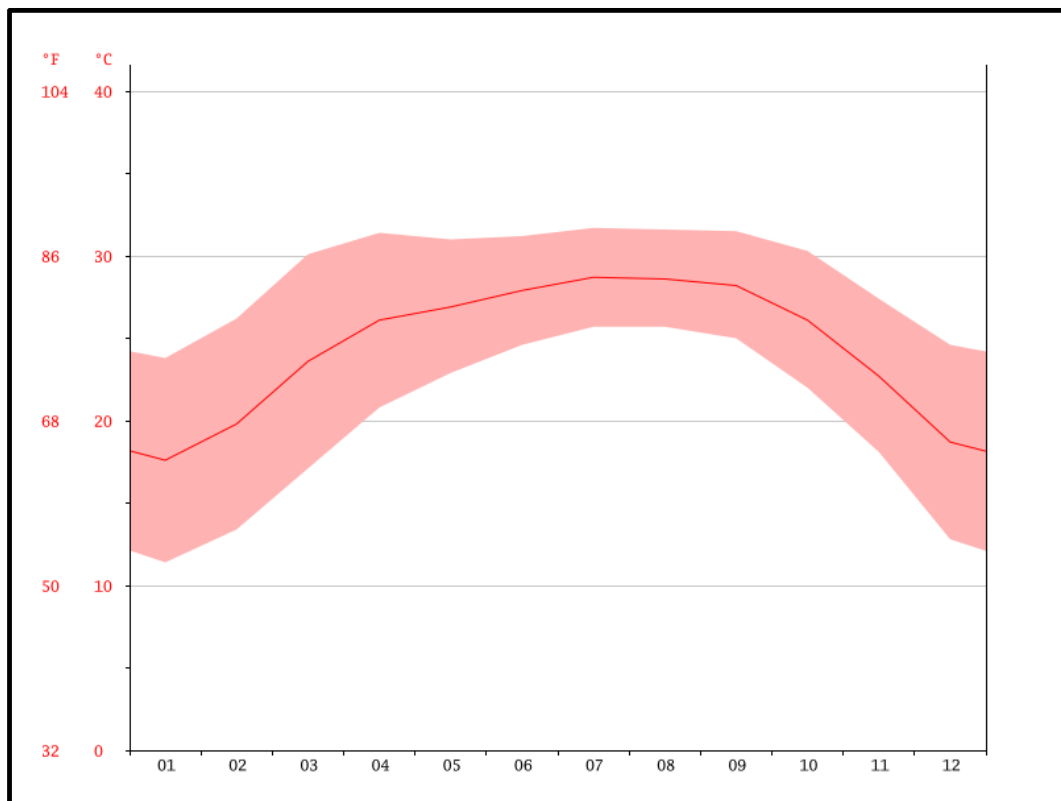


Figure 4: Temperature Graph of Bajali District.

6. Geology of Assam:

Introduction

Assam, located in the north eastern part of India, is geologically diverse, encompassing a range of geological formations that reflect its complex tectonic history. Assam geological province is an onshore province covering approximately 78,438 km². The geological province is bounded to the north by the Brahmaputra valley bordering Arunachal Pradesh, to the west by the West Bengal and Bangladesh plains, and to the south and east by the Indo-Burma Ranges and the Central Burma Basin. Major features within the Assam geological province include the Assam Shelf, Brahmaputra River valley, the Barak Valley, parts of the Shillong Plateau, Mikir Hills, and a foreland portion of the Indian Shield. The Assam Shelf consists of a portion of the Paleocene to Eocene continental shelf of the Indian plate

which became emergent and which is being overthrust by the Himalayas to the northwest and by the Burma micro-plate to the southeast.

Geotectonic evolution of Assam

Geological province of Assam has passed through five important phases during its geological history. The first of these relates to when it was a part of the Gondwana Supercontinent. The second phase came in the Permo- Carboniferous, when its adjoining areas were rifted and the coal-bearing Gondwana was deposited. This phase seems to have been accompanied locally by some volcanic activity and the area was still a part of the Gondwanaland. The third phase came in Late Triassic/Early Jurassic when, with the drifting away of Southern Tibet, the northern fringe of India including the part that is now Assam became open to marine Sedimentation. The Sung Valley Carbonatite intrusion took place during this period. The fourth phase started when the eastern boundary also broke apart in Late Jurassic-Early Cretaceous and the southern and eastern shores of Assam became open to marine sedimentation. This phase also saw the beginning of some igneous activity with the outpouring of Garo Hills, Sylhet, and Mikir Hills Traps (basalts), and the formation of a number of basic and ultrabasic intrusives.

The fifth phase started with its collision with Myanmar to the east and Tibet to the north around Early Eocene and continued with all the stages of collision tectonics thereafter. During this phase, the entire land was caught up, as in a vice, between the two collision zones. The Mishmi Hills added a third compressional force from the northeast and subsequently a major uplift of the Shillong Plateau-Mikir Hills also contributed.

Stratigraphy

The lithology of Assam comprises (a) Proterozoic Gneissic Complex, (b) Palaeo-Mesoproterozoic Shillong Group of rocks, (c) Granite Plutons of Neo-Proterozoic-Lower Palaeozoic age, (d) Lower Gondwana sedimentary rocks of Permo-carboniferous age, (e) Alkali Complexes of Samchampi and volcanic rocks represented by Sylhet Trap of Cretaceous age, (f) Lower Tertiary (Paleocene-Eocene) shelf sediments of the Jaintia Group extending along the southern and eastern flanks of Mikir Hills and geosynclinal sediments of Disang Group in parts of the North Cachar

Hills, (g) Upper Tertiary (Oligocene to Pliocene) shelf and General Geology and Stratigraphy geosynclinal sediments covering the southern flanks of Mikir Hills, the North Cachar Hills and the hills of the Cachar district in the Surma valley area. These rocks are also exposed along the northern foothills of Naga-Patkai range. Along the southern foothills of Eastern Himalaya facing the northern border of Assam a narrow strip of Siwalik rocks are exposed, (h) the Quaternary deposits comprising of Older and Newer Alluvium occur in flood plains and terraces of the Brahmaputra valley, Surma valley and other river basins of Assam.

The stratigraphic set-up of Assam geological province is as follows:

Age	Group Name	Formation (Thickness)	Lithology
Holocene	Unclassified	Newer or Low Level Alluvium	Sand, silt and clay
Middle to Upper Pleistocene	Unclassified	Older Alluvium	boulder deposit
-----Unconformity/Tectonic----- ---			
Pliocene-Pleistocene	Siwalik Group	Kimin Formation	Sandstone with clay stone
		Subansiri	Micaceous sandstone
Pliocene	Dihing Group	Dihing Formation (900m)	Pebble beds, soft sandy clay,
-----Unconformity----- --			
Mio-Pliocene	Dupitila Group	Dupitila Formation (Surma Valley: 3300 m)	Sandstone, mottled clay, grit and conglomerate; locally with beds of coal, conglomerate and poorly consolidated sandstone with layers and pockets of pebbles
		Namsang Formation	Coarse, gritty, poorly consolidated sandstone

Age	Group Name	Formation (Thickness)	Lithology
			and conglomerate of coal pebbles
-----Unconformity----- --			
Mio- Pliocene	Tipam Group	Girujan Clay Formation (1800 m)	Mottled clays, sandy shale and subordinate mottled, coarse to gritty sandstone
		Tipam Sandstone Formation (2300 m)	Bluish grey to greenish, coarse to gritty, false bedded, ferruginous sandstone, clays, shales and conglomerates
-----Unconformity----- --			
Miocene	Surma Group	Bokabil Formation (900 to 1800 m)	shale, sandy Shale, siltstone, mudstone and lenticular, coarse ferruginous sandstone
		Bhuban Formation (1400 to 2400 m)	Alternations of sandstone and sandy shale and thin conglomerate, argillaceous in middle part
-----Unconformity----- --			
Eocene- Oligocene	Barail Group	Renji Formation (600 to 1000 m)	Massive bedded sandstone; its equivalent - the Tikak Parbat Formation in the Upper Assam is marked by thick coal seam in basal part
		Jenam Formation (1000 to 3300 m)	Shale, sandy shale, and carbonaceous shales with interbedded hard sandstone; its equivalent the Bargolai Formation in Upper Assam is marked by thin coal seams

Age	Group Name	Formation (Thickness)	Lithology
		Laisong Formation (2000 to 2500 m)	Well bedded compact flaggy sandstone and subordinate shale; its equivalent- the Nagaon Formation in Upper Assam is marked by thin bedded, hard sandstone and interbedded shale.
	Disang Group		Splintery dark grey shale and thin sandstone
Palaeocene -Eocene	Jaintia Group	Kopili Formation	Shale, sandstone and marl.
		Shella Formation	Sylhet Limestone (Fossiliferous Limestone) Sylhet sandstone Sandstone, clay and thin coal seam
		Langpar Formation	Calcareous shale, sandstone-Limestone
----- Unconformity ----- -----			
Cretaceous	Alkali Complex of Samchampi		Pyroxenite – Serpentinite with abundant development of melilite pyroxene rock, ijolite, syenite and carbonatite
----- Unconformity ----- -----			
Cretaceous		Sylhet Trap (exposed in Meghalaya) (600m)	Basalt, alkali basalt, rhyolite, acid tuff
----- Unconformity ----- -----			
Permo-carboniferous	Lower Gondwana	Kaharbari Formation	Very coarse to coarse grained sandstone with conglomerate lense, shale, carbonaceous shale and coal

Age	Group Name	Formation (Thickness)	Lithology
		Talchir Formation	Basal tillite, conglomerate with sandstone bands, siltstone and shale
----- Unconformity ----- -----			
Neo-Proterozoic - Early Palaeozoic	Granite Plutons		Porphyritic coarse granite, pegmatite, aplite, quartz vein traversed by epidiorite, dolerite
----- Intrusive contact ----- -----			
Palaeo-Meso Proterozoic	Shillong Group		Quartzite, phyllite, quartz – sericite schist, conglomerate
----- Unconformity ----- -----			
Archaean (?) Proterozoic	Gneissic Complex		Complex metamorphic group comprising ortho and para gneisses and schists, migmatites granulites etc. Later intruded acidic and basic intrusives.

PRECAMBRIAN ROCKS

A. Gneissic Complex:

The crustal material of the Precambrian outcrops in Assam exposed in the Mikir Hills, at the fringes of the Shillong Plateau adjoining Meghalaya State. It also forms isolated inselbergs jutting out of the Quaternary plains, straddling both sides of the Brahmaputra river Valley. Elsewhere, the surface of this Precambrian landmass slopes down into basinal depressions and constitutes the basement for their sedimentary cover. Some of these are very minor and are filled with recent alluvium;

the others are major features covered by sediments ranging in age from the Cretaceous to the present day Alluvium.

The Gneissic Complex comprises of gneiss, schist, migmatitic rocks intruded by younger acidic (granite, aplite, pegmatite) and basic (metadolerite, epidiorite, amphibolite) rocks. The rocks of the Gneissic Complex exposed in parts of Goalpara, Kamrup districts and in northern part of North Cachar Hills and Nagaon districts including the isolated inselbergs in the Brahmaputra Basin, mainly consist of biotite, and biotite-hornblende gneisses with bands of granulites and bosses of intrusive granites, pegmatites, quartz veins and minor basic bands.

In the Mikir Hills, the rock types vary from coarse grained, porphyritic granite to foliated biotite-granites and seem to be associated with fine grained banded foliated gneisses, schists and granulites with intrusive pegmatite, quartz veins and basic sills and dykes. The structural framework of the gneissic complex and its history of evolution combined with associated intrusives are complex issues. Effects of polyphase deformation and intrusion are indicated from several places. These rocks have undergone regional metamorphism of amphibolite-granulite facies from place to place and have given rise to gneisses, schists and some granulites.

B. Shillong Group :

The Gneissic Complex is unconformably overlain by the Shillong Group of rocks of Palaeo-Mesoproterozoic age. These rocks mainly comprise of conglomerate and metasedimentaries like quartzite, phyllite, schist association. In Assam, the rocks of Shillong Group are exposed along the western and northern part of the Mikir Hills across the Kopili valley. These rocks are metamorphosed to greenschist facies condition. Intrusion by granite plutons in Shillong Group exhibits contact metamorphism. The continuity of the Gneissic Complex and the Shillong Group across the Kopili valley in a roughly collinear trend suggests the continuity of the rocks from the Shillong Plateau is possibly separated by the Kopili lineament.

C. Granite Pluton:

A number of granite bodies transect both Gneissic Complex and Shillong Group. In Mikir Hills area, two types of granite occur, a) nonporphyritic foliated medium to coarse grained pink granite, occurring in the central part and b) porphyritic granite encircling

the non-porphyrific granite. It is seen that these two granites evolved in separate phases of intrusions which is less studied. Also, these granite bodies have been exposed in the central and western part of the Assam covering the northern fringe of the Shillong plateau and few isolated inselbergs jutting out of the Quaternary plains which are straddling both sides of the Brahmaputra basins.

PALEOZOIC-MESOZOIC ROCKS

D. Lower Gondwana Group:

The occurrence of Lower Gondwana rocks are exposed in Singrimari area along the Meghalaya border in the extreme western corner of Assam. Fox (1934) reported plant fossils and coal from these beds, based on which he concluded Gondwana affinity. Acharyya and Ghosh (1968) grouped the entire sequence into Karharbari Formation (Permian). De and Boral (1978) further differentiated these sediments lithostratigraphically into the Talchir and Karharbari Formations.

E. Alkali Complex of Samchampi:

Alkaline mafic-ultramafic-carbonatite complex at Samchampi is emplaced within granitic host rock. The rock types include mainly a variety of syenites which cover large part of the area, mafic rocks which include alkaline pyroxenite, shonkinite, biotite pyroxenite, ultramafics (ijolite, melteigite), apatite-hematite-magnetite rock, carbonatite and cherty rocks. Carbonatite occurs mainly in the northern and eastern peripheral parts of the complex as dykes. At places, they laterally grade into mafics and ultramafic rocks and occasionally contain partly digested xenoliths of syenites and mafic-ultramafic rocks. Carbonatite bodies with associated rhyolite flows have been found along Brik nala, south of Matikhola Parbat in Mikir Hills. This occurrence resembles the carbonatite complex of Sung valley in Meghalaya.

F. Sylhet Trap:

Direct evidence of Cretaceous basaltic lava flows and intrusive from Assam is limited to the Mikir Hills area. Sylhet traps are well exposed in the Um Sohringknew and a no. of places of Shillong Plateau. Patchy occurrences of basaltic lava flows presumably belonging to Sylhet suite of Meghalaya have been reported from vicinity of Koilajan and its neighborhood, and in the Puja Nala in Mikir Hills of Assam. The outcrop shows highly weathered and altered chert/olive green trap rocks overlying the gneisses.

About 67m of lava flows, with thin intertrappean bed has also been encountered in the Barapathar oil well drilled by Oil and Natural Gas Corporation (ONGC). Palynofossils obtained from the section suggests an early Cretaceous age.

TERTIARY ROCKS

The Tertiary rocks, rest over the weathered platforms of Precambrian rocks, these comprise of both shelf and geosynclinal facies sediments of Palaeocene-Eocene age represented by the Jaintia and Disang Groups respectively. The overlying Barail (Eocene-Oligocene), Surma (Lower Miocene), Tipam (Mio-Pliocene), Dupitila (Mio-Pliocene) and Dihing (Pliocene) Groups also represent both shelf and geosynclinal facies. The Tertiary sedimentary history of Assam is an integral part of the tectonosedimentary setting of the Tertiary sediments of the North East India and is influenced by the prominent 'Brahmaputra Arch' running parallel to Brahmaputra River. The thickness of Tertiary rocks is seen to increase towards southeast whereas the thickness of Quaternary sediments of Brahmaputra Basin increases towards north and northwest.

In the Early Tertiary sediments there is a sharp distinction between a geosynclinal facies and a shelf facies. In the Late-Tertiary sediments, there are minor differences in lithology, except that the shelf sediments are much thinner. The geosynclinal sediments are very thick where deposition took place in a sinking basin.

G. Jaintia Group:

The Jaintia Group (shelf facies sediments) of Eocene age is calcareous and abundantly fossiliferous. They differ markedly from the Eocene shales of the geosyncline (Disang Group) facies. Jaintia Group comprising Shella and overlying Kopili Formations is seen around Garampani area of the North Cachar Hills. It also extends north-easterly along the southern and eastern slopes of the Mikir Hills. These rocks are exposed from the vicinity of Selvetta in west through Dilai Parbat in the east and then through Doigrung further north-east. Workable seams of coal are present in the Sylhet Sandstone Member at Selvetta, Koilajan and Sylhet Limestone Member in Selvetta, Jarappaon, Koilajan and Nambar areas.

The Shella Formation is well developed with three limestone bands alternating with three interbedded clastic sandstone units. The underlying unit, Lower Sylhet Sandstone Member in Assam exposed in Garampani area rests unconformably over the Precambrian basement. It is about 60 m thick and includes thick beds of sandstone with interstratified shale, carbonaceous shale and thin (0.3 m) coal seam, which overlies 2 to 3 meters thick basal conglomerate bed. The Shella Formation is conformably overlain by Kopili Formation, consisting mainly of greyish, usually ferruginous, splintery shales with interbedded sandstone and calcareous marl of variable thickness. Northeast of Lumding, Kopili Formation is overlapped by beds of Surma Group.

H. Disang Group:

Disang Group in Assam is represented by monotonous sequence of dark grey, splintery, shale with thin sandstone interbands. The shale is usually limonite coated. The Disang are predominantly arenaceous in the upper part and exhibit vertical as well as lateral facies change to its overlying Barail Group of rocks. In Assam, Disang Group is exposed along a narrow strip southwest of Haflong-Disang thrust in the central part of North Cachar Hills. This sequence is exposed from Jatinga valley eastward upto the headwaters of Dhansiri. In Upper Assam, Disang Group comprises of a thick sequence of alternating splintery shale with thin partings of hard greyish flaggy sandstone and sandy shales.

I. Barail Group :

Barail Group represents a sequence of lithology belonging to the geosynclinal facies. Rocks of this group are exposed along two different strips, in the south-eastern part of North Cachar Hills, i.e. to the South of Haflong-Disang Thrust and secondly in parts North of the Cachar and Mikir Hills i.e. to the north of Haflong-Disang Thrust in Upper Assam.

The unclassified shelf facies rocks of Barail Group which overlie the Kopili Formation cover a large area with a gross thickness of about 1000 m. Lithologically, they consist of fairly coarse sandstone, shale and carbonaceous shale with streaks of minor seams of coal. Outcrops of Barail Group in this part of the area are seen near Mupa, Langling, Latikhali, Chota Langher along the exposure of Lumding- Badarpur railway cuttings as

well as along road section between Haflong and Garampani-Kopili. The geosynclinal facies of Barail Group in Surma valley and North Cachar Hills are subdivided into Laisong, Jenam and Renji Formations. But in upper Assam, the equivalent formations have been classified as Nagaon Formation, Bargolai Formation and Tikak Parbat Formation, respectively.

Laisong Formation consists of thin bedded greyish sandstone with interbedded thin sandy shale, rare massive sandstone, carbonaceous shales and streaks of coal. Laisong Formation gradationally passes into argillaceous Jenam Formation comprising mainly of shale, sandy shale, carbonaceous shale with streaks of coal and interbedded hard sandstone.

Renji Formation comprises of hard massive sandstone with rare beds of shale and sandy shale. The Renji Formation is distinguished from the former two by the increased frequency of microfauna and palyno-fossil. The thickness of Barail Group in southeastern part of Upper Assam Valley decreases in a north-westerly direction.

J. Surma Group:

Barail Group is unconformably overlain by Lower Miocene Surma Group, which covers a large area in Surma valley and North Cachar Hills. This group is divided into a lower arenaceous facies (Bhuban Formation) and an upper argillaceous facies (Bokabil Formation). Bhuban Formation consists of sandstones, sandy shales and conglomerate intervened by shale, sandy shale and lenticular sandstone. Bokabil Formation is represented by shale, sandy shale, siltstone, mudstone and fairly thick lenticular, coarse grained, ferruginous sandstone. Surma Group as a whole is well exposed as inliers in the southern part of the Surma valley and also occupies a strip in the northern part of the valley. In the North Cachar Hills, the rocks of Surma Group occupy a large tract in the vicinity of Maibong and further northeastward upto Lumding. These rocks further continue northwards and are exposed in the south-eastern part of the Mikir Hills, as a narrow strip over the eastern base of the Mikir Hills. Surma Group in Upper Assam is represented by about 30 to 60 m thick estuarine sandstone, shale and conglomerate unconformably overlying the Barails.

K. Tipam Group:

Tipam Group comprises a lower arenaceous facies Tipam Sandstone Formation and an upper argillaceous facies Girujan Clay Formation. Tipam Sandstone consists of fairly coarse to gritty false-bedded, ferruginous sandstone interbedded with shale, sandy shale, clay and conglomerate. Whereas The Girujan Clay Formation consists of lacustrine mottled clay, sandy mottled clay, sandy shale and subordinate mottled, coarse to gritty, ferruginous sandstone. Tipam Group has a general strike of ENE–WSW with a northerly dip varying from 50°-70°.

The rocks of Tipam Group are exposed in many areas in the Surma valley. Upper part of the Tipam sequence at many places is found to be eroded away, prior to the deposition of overlying Dupitila Group. However, Girujan Clay is exposed in the hills between Chargola and Longai valleys and the low hills to the east of Jatinga and Cachar district. Rocks of this group are present also in the Labak-Diksha and Darby-Dwarband areas. In Assam valley, Tipam Group occupies a 300 km long strip from Langting to Digboi interrupted by small patches of alluvium cover. Tipam Group also includes several oil-sand horizons in Upper Assam.

L. Dupitila Group:

Tipam Group is unconformably overlain by the Mio-Pliocene Dupitila Group consisting of coarse, loose and ferruginous sand, clay, mottled clay, mottled sandstone and poorly consolidated sand with layers and pockets of pebbles. These beds are well exposed at intervals, as patches over Tipam Group in Cachar and Karimganj districts, forming low mounds in valley areas.

The rock of Dupitila Group is exposed in Surma valley attaining a thickness of 3300 m and is named as Dupitila Formation. It comprises of sandstone, mottled clay, grit and conglomerate, locally with beds of coal, conglomerate and poorly consolidated sand with layers and pockets of pebbles. In Upper Assam, Dupitila Group is represented by fluvial Namsang Formation, which consists of coarse, gritty, poorly consolidated sandstone, mottled clay and conglomerate, which at places, is almost entirely composed of pebbles of coal derived from Barail Group. Namsang Formation

overlies Girujan Clay Formation with an unconformable contact at places and is well exposed in Dihing river section near Jaipur.

M. Dihing Group:

Lithology of Dupitila Group are unconformably succeeded by fluvial Pliocene Dihing Group consisting of thick pebble beds alternating with coarse, soft sandstone, clay, grit and conglomerate containing half decomposed plant remains. The unconformable relationship between Dihing and underlying Namsang Formation is well exposed along Dihing river section near Jaipur in Upper Assam. In Makum coalfields, this group comprises alternating pebble beds, sandstone and clays. The sandstones are gritty to coarse grained, loose ferruginous and generally greyish in colour. Along Margherita thrust, Tipam Sandstone is seen in juxtaposition with the Dihing beds. In Surma valley, Dupitila Formation is conformably overlain by a sequence of conglomerate, grit, sandstone and clay corresponding possibly to Dihing Group of Upper Assam. These beds, with steep dip are seen near Bishramkandi and Nagar Tea Garden. Dihing Group is correlated with the Kimi Formation of Siwalik Group exposed in the foothill of Arunachal Himalayas.

N. Siwalik Group:

Middle and Upper Siwalik rocks designated as Subansiri and Kimin formations are exposed in Sonitpur district of Assam, along the foot hills of Arunachal Himalaya. The Subansiri Formation is represented in the area by micaceous massive fine to medium grained pale brown sandstone while the Kimin Formation in the area comprises soft, grey sandstone with bands of claystone.

Quaternary Period

O. Alluvium:

The tectonic movements that took place after the deposition of the Kimins and the Dihings were the last major folding events in the Assam Valley region. Thereafter, all movements have been primarily concerned with the further uplift of already raised mountain masses. In the process, these have helped raise and give minor tilts to erosional surfaces, earlier flood plains and river built terraces. There have also been minor movements along earlier joints, faults and thrust planes.

Dihing Group is unconformably overlain by Quaternary sequence which has been described variously in the Upper Assam like "Terrace Deposits" or "Older or High Level Alluvium" etc.. It consists of indurated, yellow, brown or red clay with sand, gravel and boulder deposits. These deposits do not belong to the typical fluvial Quaternary deposits of the Brahmaputra Basin and are possibly weathered derivatives of the underlying older rocks. On the other hand, a major part of the area flanking the Brahmaputra River in Lower and Upper Assam is covered by thick Quaternary fluvial sequence.

Regional structure and tectonics

The Gneissic Complex of Assam, in continuity with Meghalaya's geological framework, consists of Peninsular crystalline rocks that exhibit evidence of deformation, characterized by intricate folding and deep-seated fracture lineaments trending E-W and NE-SW. These fractures are possibly connected to sub-crustal movements, which have divided the region into several blocks. The present-day configuration of the Brahmaputra Valley is a result of the uplift and subsidence of different blocks of Precambrian crystalline autochthon, remnants of which are now seen in the Mikir Hills and the Shillong Plateau. This mass forms a "foreland spur" (Mathur and Evans, 1964), which has been overthrust from the northwest by the Eastern Himalayas, from the northeast by the Mishmi Hills, and from the southeast by the Naga-Patkai range during the Tertiary geotectonic cycle.

In Northeast India, four distinct geotectonic provinces have been identified:

- 1 The comparatively stable shield area of the Shillong Plateau and Mikir Hills.
- 2 The platform area peripheral to the shield, now covering the Brahmaputra Valley, North Cachar Hills, and Bangladesh plains.
- 3 The Naga-Patkai and Eastern Himalayan mobile geosyncline belt.
- 4 Transitional zones between the platform and the geosyncline, likely with narrow pericratonic downwraps marginal to the shield.

These geologic provinces are bounded by major tectonic lineaments that have been active throughout various tectonic cycles, influencing the area since the cratonization of the Gneissic Complex. This was followed by the deposition of the Shillong Group of

rocks in intracratonic basins and sedimentation continuing up to Pleistocene times. The major lineaments include the E-W Dauki Fault along the southern margin of the Shillong Plateau, a suspected E-W fault along the Brahmaputra Valley, and the NW-SE Mishmi Thrust along the Lohit foothills.

The Upper Assam oil fields' subsurface geology reveals that the Tertiary sediments overlying the basement are folded into domes and anticlines, with faults trending NE-SW, NNE-SSW, NW-SE, and E-W. Fields like Naharkatiya, Moran, Rudrasagar, and Lakwa display complex fault patterns, some of which involve tensional faults and reverse faults. Faulting, which occurred intermittently from the Eocene to the Pleistocene, played a significant role in basin subsidence and sedimentation. The intricate fault patterns likely originated during Precambrian intrusive movements, with later tectonic reactivations affecting the overlying sediments.

The Schuppen belt, located over the northern part of the Naga-Patkai range, exhibits a series of imbricate thrusts with the Naga Thrust marking the boundary of the Quaternary valley fill of Assam. This belt consists of six thrusts, with the Disang Thrust being a prominent feature. The Cenozoic rocks in the Schuppen belt show a greater thickness of sediments compared to the Assam shelf, indicating a different depositional environment. The Surma Group, for instance, is thin and discontinuous in Upper Assam but well-exposed in the Schuppen belt. Similarly, the Barail coal seams are thicker and more persistent in the Schuppen belt.

The NW-SE Mishmi Thrust, which marks the youngest tectonic feature in the region, causes the metamorphic rocks of the Mishmi Hills to override younger Tertiary and Quaternary deposits in the frontal Himalayan thrust belt and the Naga-Patkai belt. The Surma Valley, partly extending into the Cachar district of Assam, displays N-S to NE-SW asymmetrical folding, with broad synclines intervening faulted anticlines. Unlike the Schuppen belt, this region does not show overthrusting.

The tectonic evolution of Assam has been a complex interplay of uplift, subsidence, and faulting, with ongoing tectonic movements shaping the Brahmaputra basin and adjacent regions throughout geological history.

Mineral Resources

Assam is rich in a variety of mineral resources, some of which play a significant role in the state's economy. The state is part of the larger Assam-Arakan Basin, which stretches across northeastern India and into parts of Myanmar, making it one of the major oil and gas-bearing regions in India. Petroleum and natural gas being the most significant natural resources of Assam, especially in the Assam-Arakan Basin, where fields like Digboi, Duliajan, and Naharkatiya have driven India's oil industry since the late 19th century. These fields are part of the Assam Shelf, a rich oil-bearing region. Natural gas is another key resource in Assam, often found alongside oil in the Assam-Arakan Basin. The production of natural gas has grown considerably, especially in fields like Lakwa, Duliajan, and Tengakhat. The coal occurrences in Assam are reported from two geological horizons viz., Gondwana and Tertiary of which Tertiary coal deposits of Makum, Mikir Hills and Dilli-Jeypore are the most important coalfields. The Gondwana coal deposits in the westernmost part of Garo Hills of Meghalaya are extending into the Hallidayganj area of western Assam known as the Singrimari Coal deposits. Assam's coal is known for its high sulfur content but has a low ash content which supports local industries such as tea processing and brick manufacturing. Limestone deposits are found mainly in the Karbi Anglong district and in parts of the North Cachar Hills, is crucial for cement production. Assam has deposits of various types of clay, including china clay and fire clay used in pottery and ceramics. These are found in districts like Nagaon, Kamrup, and Goalpara. In the Namdang-Ledo area, the fire clay bands occur below the coal seams. Also, in karbi-Anglong district, fire clay bands of 3-5 m thickness in association with coal occur at Koilajan Colliery. Other minerals include silica sand (for glass manufacturing), and smaller deposits of iron ore, granite, gypsum, base metal, beryl, building stone, clay, sillimanite, salt and radioactive minerals which contribute to local construction and industrial activities.

7.0. Geomorphology :

Geomorphologically, the district is divided into three morphometric units namely younger alluvial plain, older flood plain and active flood plain based on depositional landforms. Younger alluvial landforms are built up by deposits formed in the lower reaches of the rivers, river channels, cut off meanders, natural levees and back swamp areas. The older alluvial plains are irregular patches within the younger alluvial plain with unconsolidated weathered clay, pebble gravel and sand deposits. Active flood plains are made up of sand, silt and clay forms on either side of rivers or their tributaries.

8.0 Soil Types:

In Bajali district, 11.25 percent areas are sandy soil and 24.83 percent are sandy loam soils. These soils highly consume water and fertilizers, due to under development of irrigation facilities and poor inputs of fertilizer leading to poor productivity of soil i.e. larger inputs and lower outputs.

The highly productive and fertile soils of Barpeta district are now facing a serious problem of soil erosion like other parts of the state. During 1960 to 2014, more than 30 thousand families were directly affected by riverbank erosion and 41 percent affected families were displaced and rehabilitated elsewhere.

9.0. Groundwater Scenario:

Hydrogeology

The entire area of the district is occupied by alluvial sediments of Quaternary age. Piedmont deposits comprising of coarse clastic sediments like boulder, pebble, gravel associated with sand and silt from the ground water bearing formation in the northern part of the district.

Ground water occurs under unconfined condition in shallow aquifer and under semi-confined condition in deeper aquifer. The aquifer is consisting of sand of various grades with little gravel in the southern part, with a very good yield prospect for both shallow and deep tube wells. The water level rests at shallow depth ranging from 2 to 4 m bgl during pre-monsoon period. The post-monsoon ground water level rests between 1 to 2 m bgl. The size of the aquifer materials gradually increases from south to north and the depth of water level is also high. The long term water level trend study shows no significant change of water level in the past 10 years.

The shallow tube wells tapping aquifers at the depth of 50 m bgl are capable of yielding 20-100 m³/hr at drawdown of less than 3 m. Medium to heavy duty tube wells constructed down to 100-150 m bgl tapping about 25-40 m granular zones yield more than 100 m³/hr. The summarize4d results of the exploration work carried out by Central Ground Water Board in the district are given below:

Ground Water Resources :

Dynamic ground water resources are estimated based on the methodology adapted GEC 97 following water level fluctuation and rainfall infiltration factor methods.

The annual dynamic ground water resources are estimated to be 1025.75 mcm while the net annual ground water draft is 381.67 mcm. The present stage of ground water development is only 41 per cent and district is still "safe" category.

The projected demand for ground water for domestic and industrial uses up to 2025 is estimated to be about 59.59 mcm and 524.05 mcm of water is still available for future irrigation department.

Ground Water Quality

In order to study the quality of ground water, samples were collected from GWMSs and EWs constructed in the district and were analyzed in the Chemical Laboratory of C.G.W.B., NER, Guwahati. The interpretation of the results of the analysis shows that ground water is fresh and suitable for both domestic and irrigation purposes except higher content of iron which requires treatment before being used for drinking purposes.

Status of Ground Water Development

Ground Water development is at low key at present and it is estimated to be 36 mcm for domestic and industrial use and only 309 mcm for irrigation purpose.

Ground Water is mainly used for domestic and irrigation purposes and the industrial use is negligible. The water supply scheme for drinking purposes is executed by Assam Public Health Engineering Department through groundwater structures like dug well, hand pump and deep tube wells. For irrigation, the use of ground water is mainly through shallow tube wells implemented by Agriculture Department through the farmers.

9.2 Ground Water Management Strategy

Thick and extensive alluvial deposits with richer aquifer system covering the almost entire district is very much suitable for ground water development through ground water structures like open wells, shallow and deep tube wells. For drinking purpose and other requirements of limited quantities of individual households, open wells and filter point wells are feasible in almost all over the district. Ring wells of 0.80 m to 1.20 m diameters with depth of 5 to 10 m bgl except the extreme northern part where water level is deep, are likely to hold sufficient quantities of water to meet the domestic requirement. Filter point wells down to depth of about 15 to 20 m bgl are also suitable for extraction of ground water.

For irrigation purpose, shallow tube wells down to depth of about 30 to 50 m bgl may be constructed. A Centrifugal pump may be used to irrigate about 2 to 3 ha of land at an average annual draft of 0.03 mcm.

Ground water related issues and problems

The southern part of the district is suffering from floods every year during monsoon. Also major part of the area of the district is under water logging condition. As such, full utilization of potential resources are essential for lowering of water table, which may be done through construction of shallow tube wells for irrigation purposes. The ground water contains excess iron content which require suitable treatment before consumption.

Recommendations:

Detailed hydrogeological surveys aided by exploratory drilling carried out by Central Ground Water Board have revealed the existence and persistence of rich aquifer system down to the depth of 300 m. The area consists of unconsolidated alluvial formation of Quaternary age, laid down by river Brahmaputra and its tributaries.

The hydrogeological set up and availability of huge ground water resources and the present stage of ground water draft, it can be concluded that the district has an ample scope for the development of ground water through construction of different ground water structures in a planned way.

10.0. Flood Management :

Flood-Plain

Flood –plain is said to be an area of land which is adjacent to a stream or river which stretches from the banks of its channel to the base of the enclosing valley walls, and which experiences flooding during periods of high-discharge. The soils usually consist of sands, silts and clays. Flood-plains are formed during erosion of a meander sideways as it travels downstream. At a time when a river breaks its banks, it leaves behind layers of silts (alluvium). These layers gradually build up to create

the floor of the plain which generally contain unconsolidated sediments, very often extending below the bed of the stream. Flood-plains are accumulation of sand, gravel, loam, silt, clay and often serve as important aquifers.

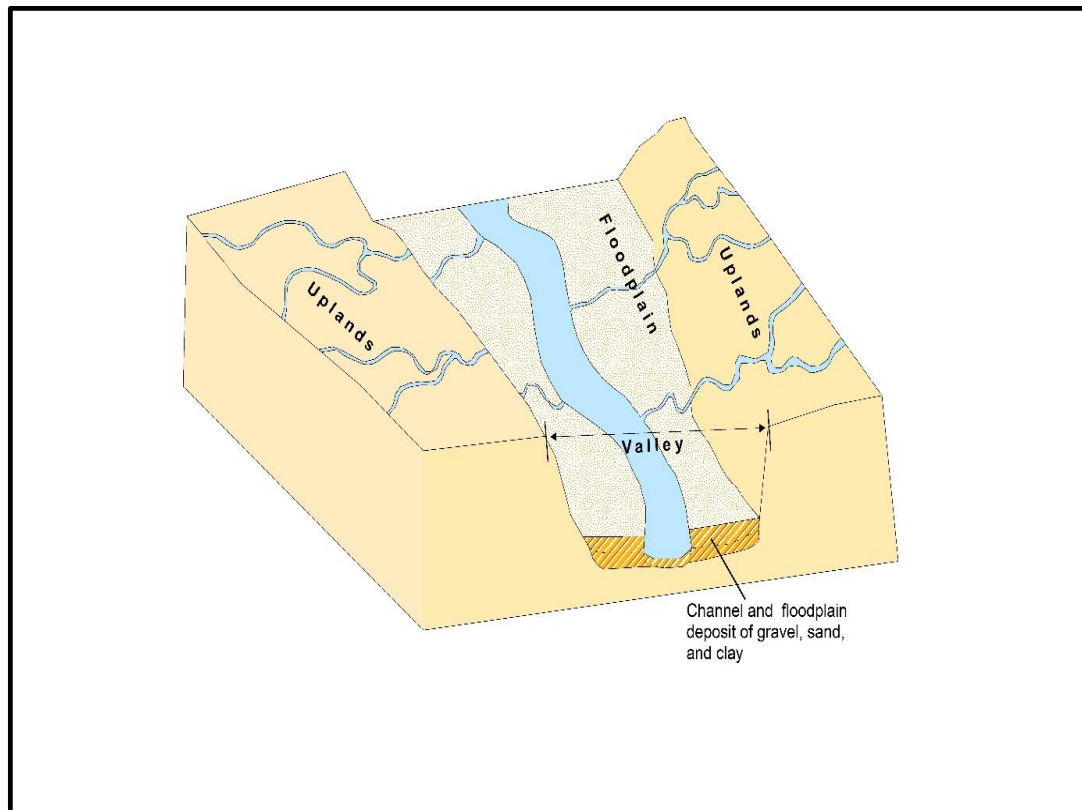


Figure: 4

11. Replenishment Study of Sand and its Assessment

Based on the fundamentals of hydraulic, river flow has the ability to transport the debris as the resisting force is exerted on the water. The downstream of the river is based on the gravitational force acting as an inducing force while the friction resistance helps in the degrading process of the channel. The deposition on river bed is very pronounced during rainy season although the quantum of deposition varies from stream to stream depending on several factors like catchment, lithology, discharge, profile of river and geomorphology of the river course. In order to calculate the mineral deposits in the stream beds, the mineral constituents have been categorized as sand, gravel, silt and clay. Further, the Survey of India Topo-sheets should be used as base map to know the practical extent of river course. The sediment transportation is largely influenced by the grain size as the movement is

influenced by the turbulence at the bed of the channel. The evaluation of sediment transport is important for appropriate management and policy implementation. The replenishment volume is determined by a 5-month dry period and as per River Sand Management Guidelines (2009).

11.1. Procedure for assessment of sediment replenishment :

The main objective of this study to assess the replenishment volume in order to calculate the optimum volume of sand to be extracted, supported by specific objectives in identifying the particle size in the river and determination of sediment transport during the low flow season. Regular replenishment study is mandatory and required to be carried out in order to keep a balance between deposition and extracted quantities.

Sediment load deposition in a river depends on catchment area, weathering index of the various minerals of that area, land-use pattern, rainfall data and grain-size distribution of the sediments.

Catchment Yield can be calculated using the following formula :

$$\text{Catchment Yield (m}^3\text{)} = \text{Catchment Area (m}^2\text{)} \times \text{Run-off Coefficient (\%)} \times \text{Rainfall (m)}$$

Procedure :

Step no. 1 : Sampling stations to be identified as monitoring points within the study area. Sampling stations to be selected on the basis of active sand mining activity, the past sand mining area and the control stations. Control stations are to be used to represent the river reaches with no sand mining activity, so as to reflect the natural morphological characteristics without any human-made alterations. Such stations will represent the undisturbed condition for comparison with disturbed ones.

Step no. 2 : Following physical parameters are to be ascertained.

- a) Channel width in meter (W)
- b) Total cross-sectional area in m² (A)

- c) Minimum and maximum velocity in m/s (V)
- d) Water discharge in m/s (Q)
- e) Total Dissolved Solid (TDS)

It may also be necessary to determine the channel slope and hydraulic radius, depending on the method of calculation followed.

All the above parameters are to be measured in-situ based on one water cycle (low-flow and high-flow). High-flow sampling period is preferred to be within November to January and low-flow sampling period may be during May-June.

Step no. 3 : It is desired that three samples are taken from each station from the upstream to the downstream. The samples are to be left to dry for 24 hours prior to obtaining bed material classification. Preferable sieve diameters are 2 mm, 1 mm, 0.5 mm, 0.25 mm, 0.125 mm, 0.063 mm and 0.01 mm.

The changes in grain-size distribution determine the transport of sediment and sedimentation the river towards downstream. The result shall be represented as a cumulative distribution curve.

Step no. 4 : The total bed load can be calculated using the following equation :

$$T_j = \sum_{i=1}^n G_b \quad \text{where } G_b = \frac{W_i}{(T \times h_s)} \times b$$

Here, T_j is rate of bed load for the pre-defined cross-section in kilogram per second and G_b is rate of bed load for each section within the pre-defined cross-section in kilogram per second, W_i is weight of bed load sample in kg, T is duration of sampling in second, h_s nozzle width in meter, b = ratio between width of channel and number of section within cross-section.

Other equations can also be used for calculation as shown below :

1) Manning's Equation

$Q = V \cdot A = (1.49 / n) \cdot A \cdot R^{2/3} \cdot \sqrt{S}$ where
 Q = Flow rate (m^3 / s) ; V = Velocity (m/s) ; A = Flow area (m^2) ;
 R = Hydraulic Radius (m) : S = Channel Slope (m / m);

$n = \text{Manning's Roughness Co-efficient} = 0.39 S^{0.38} R^{-0.15}$

2) Yang Equation (1972)

$\log C_T = \{5.435 - 0.286 \log \log (W_s d_{50})\} / U - 0.475 \log U / W_s$ where

C_T = Total sand concentration in ppm

W_s = Terminal fall velocity (m / s)

d_{50} = Average particle diameter of granular material in mm

U = Shear Velocity in m / s = $(gRS_o)^{1/2}$

$R_e = U \cdot d_{50} / \nu$; If $R_e < 70$, then $V_c / W_s = [2.5 / (\frac{\log U d_{50}}{\nu} - 0.06)] + 0.66$
If $R_e > 70$, then $V_c / W_s = 2.05$

3) **Dandy – Bolton Equation :**

$Y = X \cdot EK \cdot CVF \cdot PE \cdot SL \cdot ROKF$

where Y - Sediment yield in tons per hectare

EK - Soil erodibility factor

CVF - Crop management factor considers prevention of soil loss

PE – Erosion control practice factor

SL - Slope length and steepness factor

$ROKF$ – Coarse fragment factor

X is energy factor and equal to $1.586 \times (Q \times q)^{0.56} \times WSA^{0.12}$ where

Q =Runoff volume in mm, estimated using the SCS curve number method. ; q_p = Peak runoff rate in mm / hour ;

WSA = Watershed area in hectares ;

Peak flow q is calculated as per equation $q = C \times i \times A$ where

C – runoff coefficient representing watershed characteristics

i - rainfall intensity for the watershed's time of concentration

4) Peak Flood Discharge calculation can be carried out using **Dicken's Formula**

$Q = CA^{3/4}$ where Q = Maximum flood discharge in a river (m^3/ hr)

A = Area of catchment in km^2

C = a constant varying widely between 2.8 to 5.6 for

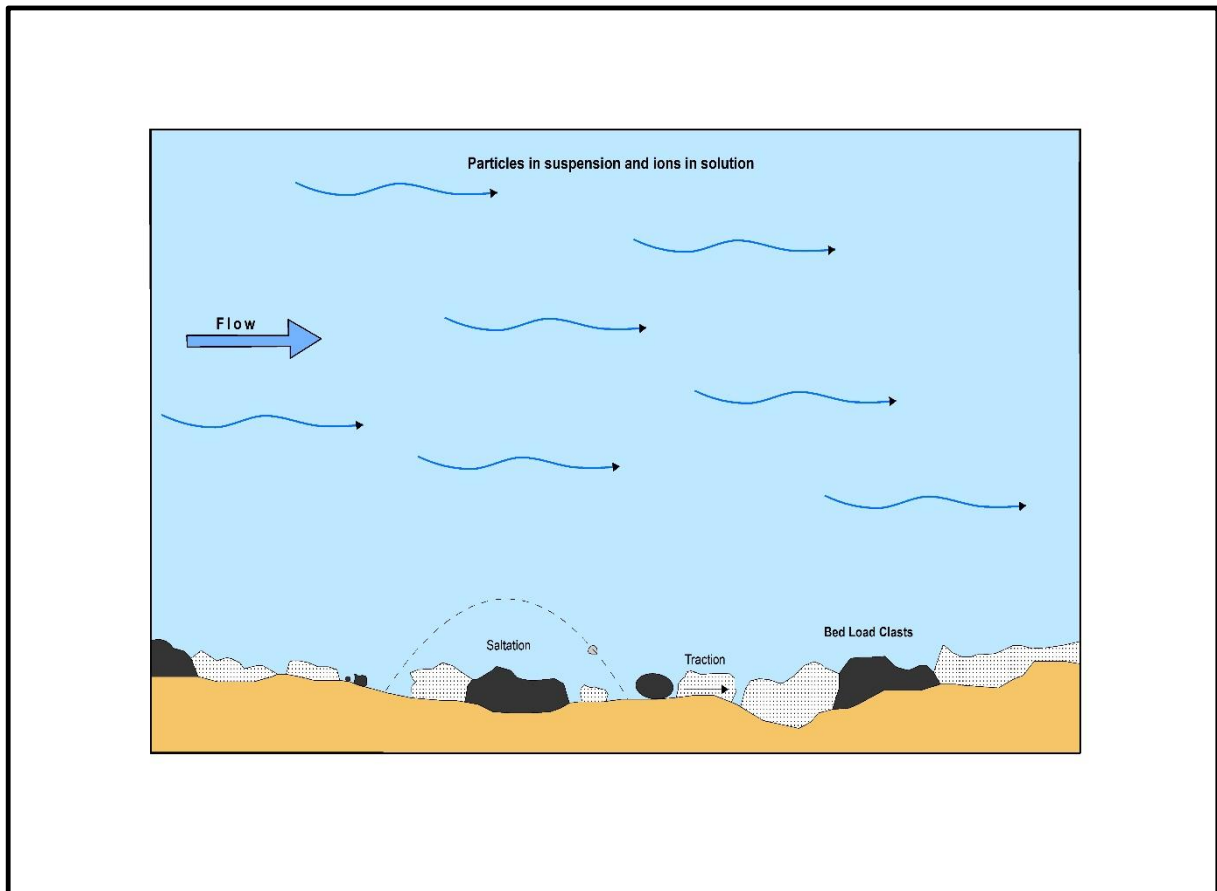


Figure: 5

catchments in plains and 14 to 28 for catchments in hills.

OR Jarvis Formula : $Q = CA^{1/2}$ where C = a constant varying between 1.77 as minimum to 177 as maximum. Flood of 100% chance is when C =177.

OR Rational Formula : $Q = C.I.A$ where C is Run-off coefficient depending on the characteristics of the catchment area, being a ratio of Runoff : Rainfall
I = Intensity of Rainfall m/sec ;

Bed Load Transport calculation is very difficult considering the fact three modes of transport may occur simultaneously i.e. rolling, sliding and saltation. There are a few

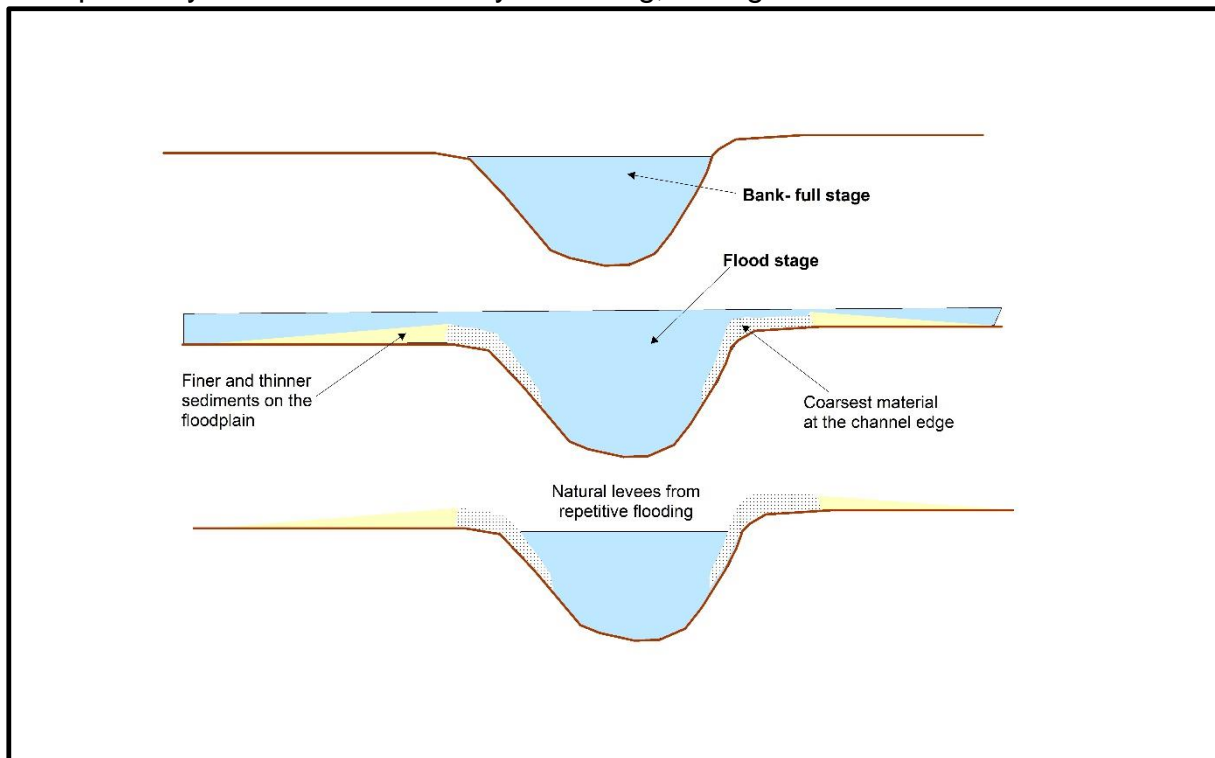


Figure: 5

equations in order to compute the total sediment load, most of which have both theoretical and empirical basis.

1) Ackers and White equation (1973) :

$$C_t = C_s G_s \left(\frac{d_{50}}{h} \right) \left(\frac{v}{U^*} \right)^{n'} [F_{gr} - A_1]^{-1} \text{ where } F_{gr} = \frac{U^{n'}}{(G_s - 1) g \cdot d_{50}} \times \left(\frac{V}{\{ 5.66 \log(10h / d_{50}) \}} \right)^{1-n'}$$

A_1 = Critical particle mobility factor

C_s = Concentration coefficient in the sediment transport function

C_t = Total sediment concentration

d_{50} = Medium grain size

d_{gr} = Dimensionless particle diameter = $d_{50} [g(G_s - 1) / v^2]^{1/3}$

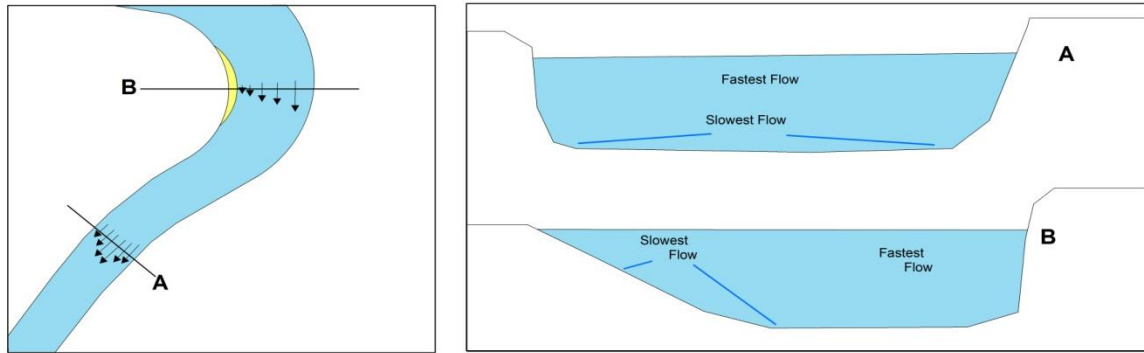


Figure: 6

11.2. Deposition Process of Sediments in the River

Sediment is naturally occurring material, broken down by process of weathering and erosion and subsequently carried out or transported by the action of wind, tides, water and force of gravity acting upon the particles. Among these, water is the strongest agent for transportation of sediments and the degree of transportation depends on the strength and velocity of flow.

In general, there are three categories of river.

- 1) Youthful River
- 2) Mature River
- 3) Old Age River

A few characteristics of each of these are described below.

Youthful River

This river is the most dynamic of all the rivers. Such rivers are found at higher elevations, mainly in mountain areas where the slope of the land is steeper. Water moves very fast over such a landscape. These rivers can also be a tributary of a older and larger river, very far away. They also may be close to the beginning of the larger river.

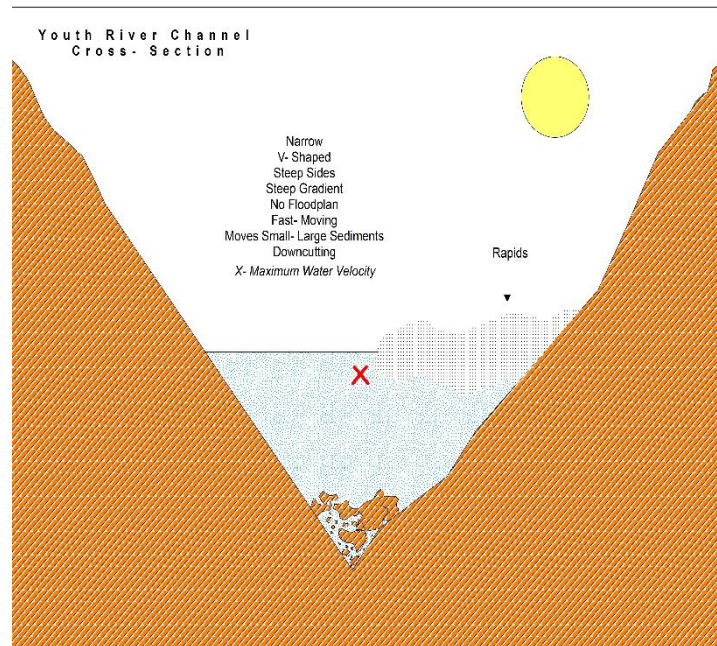


Figure: 7

Mature River

Such Rivers down cuts to a much lesser degree than the Youthful Rivers does. They erode laterally but not as extensively as compared to Old Age River. They pass over enough steep landscape that slope of the river creates a velocity capable of moving not only the finer sediments but also larger pebbles and cobbles by way of rolling, bouncing and saltation along the river bed. They may flow through mountainous areas but not as high areas as in case of the Youthful River. The channel of a Mature River is U-shaped, more deep but less wide than Old Age River.

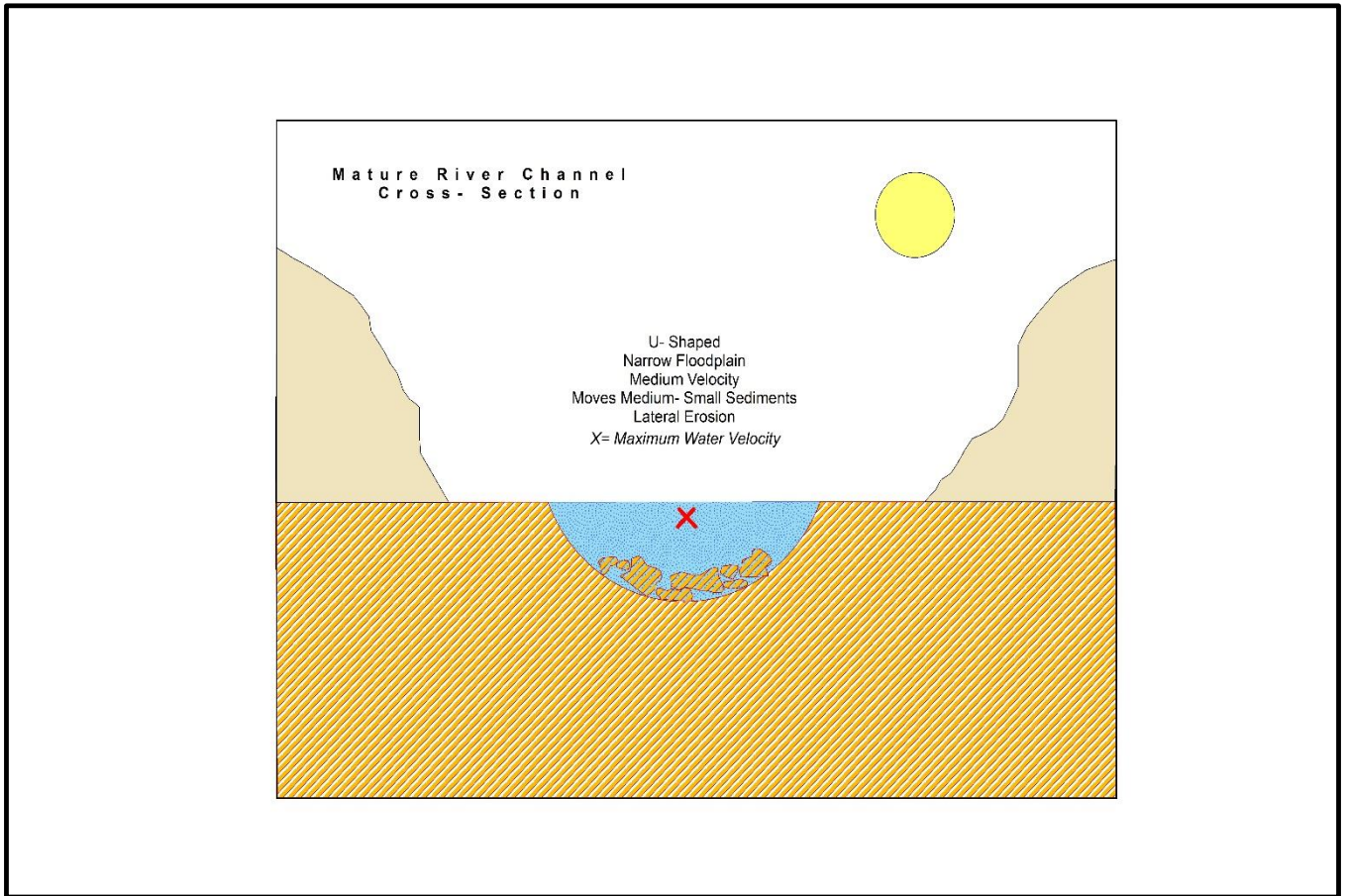


Figure: 7

Old Age River :

An Old Age River rests in almost flat valley due to many years of erosion that took place over the years. Their course is not straight with widened flood plains. They are the slowest river with a high degree of sediments

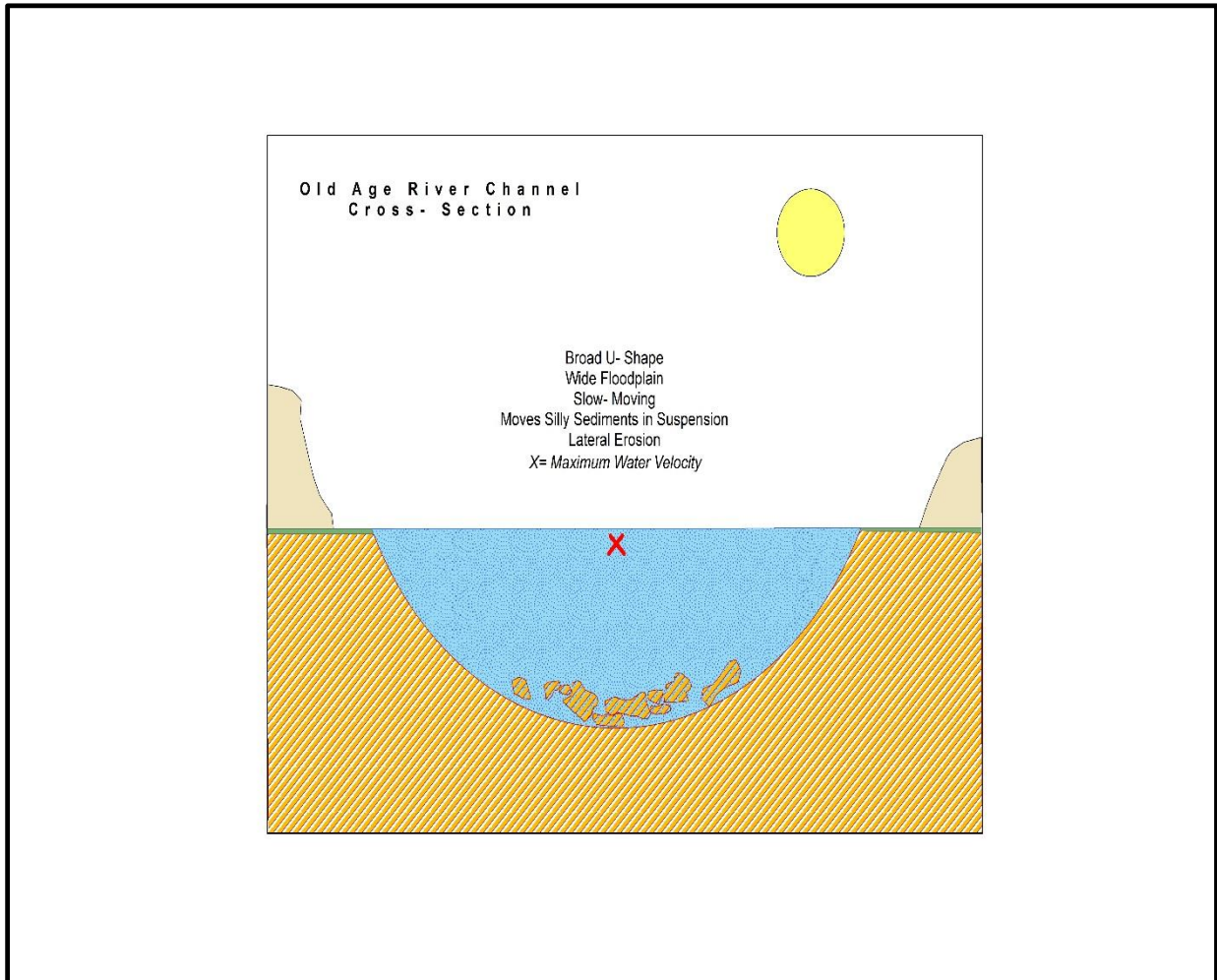


Figure: 8

11.3. Stream Erosion and Deposition

Water flow in a stream largely depends on its gradient and also governed by the geometry of the stream channel. Velocity of water flow decreases with increase in friction along the stream bed. As a result, it is slowest at the bottom and edges and fastest near the surface and in the middle portion. On a curved section of a stream, flow velocity is highest on the extremes and slowest in the middle. An important factor that determine velocity of stream water is the size of sediments on the stream bed because large particles tend to slow down the flow more than the small particles. During a flood as the water level rises, there is more cross-sectional area available for the water to flow. But as long as the river remains confined, the velocity

of water flow naturally increases. Small dimensional particles rest at the bottom for a (Figure -12) while where they are moved by saltation and traction. These particles can also be held in suspension in the flowing water, at a time when the velocity is high. As we are aware of, stream water can also have dissolved load which may represent about 15% of the mass transported and consists of minerals like calcium (Ca^{2+}) and Chloride (Cl^-) in dissolved condition.

Typical Particle-size (mm) Distribution Curve:

A stream typically reaches the highest velocity as and when it is close to flooding over its banks (Bank-full Stage). As soon as the flooding stream flows over its banks and occupies the wide area in the flood plain, larger area becomes available and consequently the velocity comes down. At this juncture, sediment that was earlier being carried by high velocity of water gets deposited near the edge of the channel forming a natural bank or levee.

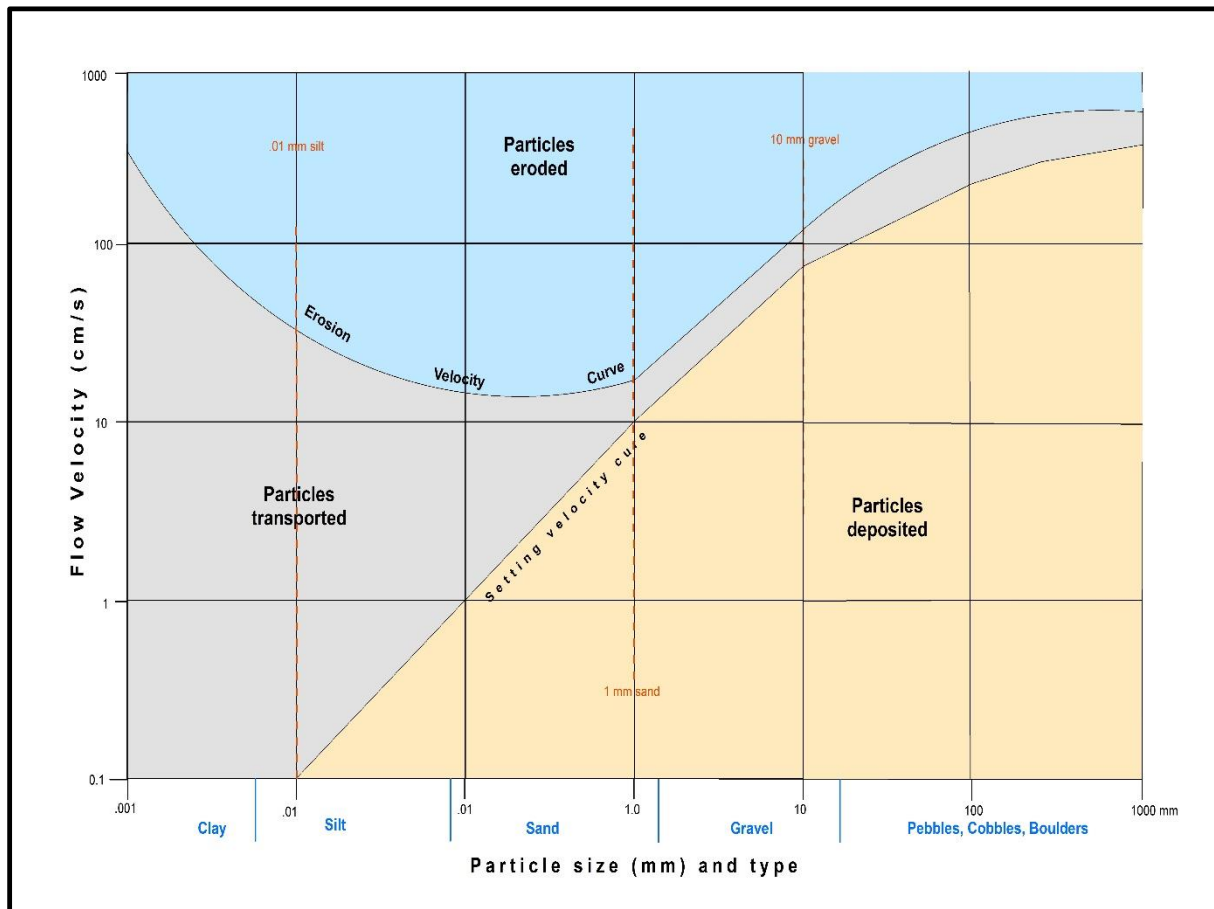


Figure: 9

12. SAND MINING GUIDELINES

(Based on Sustainable Sand Management Guidelines, MoEF&CC, 2016)

In order to ensure sustainable and systematic sand mining with monitored protection of environment, the guidelines laid down in following documents are followed :

- 1) Sustainable Sand Mining Management Guidelines 2016 by MoEF&CC
- 2) Enforcement & Monitoring Guidelines for Sand Mining 2020 by MoEF&CC
- 3) Assam Minor Mineral Concession Rules, 2013

The above documents have been strictly adhered to during Preparation of Mining Plan and Progressive Mine Closure Plan under the guidance of a registered RQP.

This will facilitate grant of any mineral concessions like “Mining Lease”, “Mining Contract” or “Mining Permit” in respect of minor minerals for systematic, scientific and progressive development of all mines, quarries as well as river bed mining. As per guidelines prescribed in above said documents, special attention has been given on the following aspects :

- 1) The permanent boundary pillars need to be erected after identification of an area of aggradation and deposition outside the bank of the river at a safe location for future surveying. The distance between boundary pillars on both sides of the bank shall not be more than 100 meters.
- 2) Proper channelization of river is to be carried out so as to avoid the possibility of flooding and to maintain the flow of rivers.
- 3) The mining plan should include original ground level (OGL), available from District Survey Report (DSR) and to be recorded at an interval not more than 10 m x 10 m along and across the length of the river. Area of aggradation /deposition needs to be ascertained by comparing the level difference between the OGL and water level.
- 4) Riverbed sand mining shall be restricted within the central 3/4th width of the river/ rivulet or 7.5 meters(inward) from river banks but up to 10% of width of the river. Central 3/4th part of the river needs to be identified on a map, out of which the area of deposition / aggradation needs to be identified. Remaining 1/4th area needs to be marked as ‘no mining zone’.
- 5) The sediment sampling should include the bed material and bed material load before, using and after the extraction period. The above exercise by DSR require four surveys i.e. 1st survey in the month of April, 2nd survey at the time of closing of mines for monsoon, 3rd survey needs to be carried out after monsoon to know the quantum of material deposited/replenished and the 4th survey to be carried out at the end of March to know the Quantum of material excavated. The above information will be available in District Survey Report (DSR).
- 6) The particle size distribution and bulk density of deposited material are required to be assessed by a NABL recognised laboratory.

- 7) Depth of mining should be restricted to 3 meters and distance from the bank should be $\frac{1}{4}$ th of the river width and should not be less than 7.5 meters. Alternatively, distance from the bank should be 3 meters or 10% of the river width, whichever is less.
- 8) Demarcation of mining area with pillars and geo-referencing should be done prior to of mining operation.
- 9) A buffer distance/ un-mined block of 50 meters after every block of 1000 meters over which mining is undertaken, shall be maintained.
- 10) Sand and gravel may be extracted across the entire active channel during the dry season only. No sand mining during monsoon session, as defined in DSR or IMD for each state.
- 11) Sand and gravel shall not be extracted up to a distance of 1 km from major bridges and highways on both sides, or five (5) times span of a bridge/public civil structure (including water intake points) on up-stream side and ten(10) times the span of such bridge on down- stream side, subjected to a minimum of 250 meters on the upstream side and 500 meters on the downstream side.
- 12) Sand and gravel shall not be allowed to be extracted where erosion may occur, such as, at the concave bank.
- 13) River mining from outside should not affect rivers. No mining shall be permitted in an area up to a width of 100 meters from the active edge of the embankments or distance prescribed by irrigation department. The mining from area outside river bed shall be permitted subject to a condition that a safety margin of two (2) meters shall be maintained above the groundwater level while undertaking mining operation.
- 14) Sand and gravel shall not be extracted within 200 to 500 meters from any crucial hydraulic structure such as pumping station, water intakes.
- 15) All sand carrying vehicle (from source to destination) to be tracked through GPS or RFID. There should be one entry and exit point for trucks / dumpers. Project Proponent should carry out effective monitoring of the same. In case of vehicle break-down, the validity of transport permit can be extended by State Authority, if so required.

13. Names of PP Land Permit Areas in Bajali District

Sl no.	Name of District	Name of Range	Name of PP land Permit area	GPS coordinates		Remarks
				Latitude N.	Longitude E.	
1	Bajali	Barpeta Road	Doloigaon P.P. Land Ordinary Clay MPA	26° 31' 39.00"	91° 9' 21.00"	
				26° 31' 40.00"	91° 9' 21.00"	
				26° 31' 39.00"	91° 9' 32.00"	
				26° 31' 40.00"	91° 9' 32.00"	
2	Bajali	Barpeta Road	Gobindapur	26° 31' 49.000"	91° 13' 30.000"	
				26° 31' 47.000"	91° 13' 29.000"	
				26° 31' 47.000"	91° 13' 30.000"	
				26° 31' 49.000"	91° 13' 29.000"	
3	Bajali	Barpeta Road	Kuwara Ordinary Clay MPA	26° 31' 29.00"	91° 13' 48.00"	
				26° 31' 27.70"	91° 13' 49.00"	
				26° 31' 28.90"	91° 13' 47.10"	
				26° 31' 29.50"	91° 13' 47.30"	
				26° 31' 30.00"	91° 13' 47.70"	
				26° 31' 29.30"	91° 13' 49.60"	
				26° 31' 28.30"	91° 13' 50.90"	

4	Bajali	Barpeta Road	Kapla Ordinary Clay MPA	26° 29/ 29.00//	91° 14/40.00//	
				26° 29/ 28.00//	91° 14/39.10//	
				26° 29/ 27.90//	91° 14/40.20//	
				26° 29/ 28.60//	91° 14/41.20//	
				26° 29/ 29.60//	91° 14/41.90//	
				26° 29/ 29.70//	91° 14/40.70//	
5	Bajali	Barpeta Road	Barkur A.P. Land Ordinary Clay MPA	26° 51/ 42.35//	91° 13/03.44//	
				26° 51/ 42.03//	91° 13/07.39//	
				26° 51/ 51.83//	91° 13/09.46//	
				26° 51/ 50.17//	91° 13/01.88//	

Sl no.	Name of District	Name of Range	Name of PP land Permit area	GPS coordinates		Remarks
				Latitude N.	Longitude E.	
6	Bajali	Barpeta Road	Chaibari Govt. Land Ordinary Clay MPA	26° 35/ 40.583//	91° 12/59.300//	
				26° 35/ 39.944//	91° 12/58.158//	
				26° 35/ 37.386//	91° 13/0.411//	
				26° 35/ 38.257//	91° 13/1.465//	

7	Bajali	Barpeta Road	Bor Bhaluki (Hajirapara) Govt. Land Ordinary Clay MPA	26° 28' 15.623//	91° 13' 4.978//	
				26° 28' 15.623//	91° 13' 3.978//	
				26° 28' 12.623//	91° 13' 3.978//	
				26° 28' 12.623//	91° 13' 4.978//	
8	Bajali	Barpeta Road		26° 28' 29.432//	91° 13/13.146//	
				26° 28' 29.432//	91° 13/15.146//	
				26° 28' 28.432//	91° 13/16.146//	
				26° 28' 28.432//	91° 13/13.146//	
9	Bajali	Barpeta Road	Bichankuchi Gobindapur Govt. Land Ordinary Clay MPA Bichankuchi	26° 32' 18.000//	91° 13/14.000//	
				26° 32' 18.000//	91° 13/13.000//	
				26° 32' 12.000//	91° 13/17.000//	
				26° 32' 12.000//	91° 13/16.000//	

14. Revenue collection for last Five(5) years

Sl. No.	Year	Revenue received from minor minerals (in Rs.)
1	2019-20	19406242.00
2	2020-21	16088325.00
3	2021-22	15764566.00
4	2022-23	69729460.00
5	2023-24	99394931.00
	Total	220383524.00

15. Remedial actions to Mitigate the Impacts of Sand Mining

Air Environment :

The only source of air pollution during mining is excavation, transportation, loading and handling of minerals. Following measures are suggested to mitigate the negative impact of the mining activities to control the spreading of pollutants by plantation of trees along the haul roads, especially near settlements, planning transportation routes of mined mineral by shortest routes and regular water sprinkling on unpaved roads.

A. Air Emissions :

<u>Probable Impact</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
<p>1) Dust and air emission particularly due to excavation, construction and movement of vehicles leading to air pollution</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1) Provision for spraying water to reduce dust emission on unpaved roads, particularly near existing settlements, (> 2 L per m²)2) Excavated topsoil to be preserved and reused for landscaping3) Amount of exposed ground stockpiles to be minimized so that re-suspension due to wind and following dust fall may be prevented.4) Care should be taken in making arrangement of the soil in such a manner such that the existing drainage pattern, even if altered, will still ensure that runoff does not carry away topsoil but reaches the water bodies with which it is connected.5) To ensure that all generators, vehicles,

	compressors are regularly serviced and well maintained.

Other measures to be adapted:

- ** Transportation of material must be carried out during day time only.
- ** To plan multiple transportation routes in different direction to minimize the dust generation. Planned paved roads outside the mining lease area will minimize dust generation. in order to minimize transportation over unpaved roads, it is advised to plan transportation so as to each the nearest paved road by shortest route.
- ** All the workers are to be provided with Dust mask at points like excavation and loading.
- ** Plantation of trees along haul roads.
- ** Speed of trucks to be limited to 20km/hr.
- ** The loaded material should be covered with tarpaulin during transportation.

B Movement of Traffic

<u>Probable Impact</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
<p>1) Due to mining activity, number of vehicles per hour will increase in the existing traffic leading to undesired sound resulting in impact in human health.</p>	<p>1) Truck drivers to be instructed to make minimum use of horns in the village area and sensitive zones. It is advisable to plant local species of trees (fruit bearing and medicinal) along the haul road, in consultation with Forest Department.</p>
<p>2) Increase in number of vehicle movement will lead to air pollution affecting the health of local villagers with respiratory system, asthma, breathing problems etc.</p>	<p>2) All vehicles must possess proper ad up-to-date PUC Certificate. Plantation of trees, as stated earlier will minimize the effect f air pollution. Moreover, Regular health check-up camps should be organized.</p>
<p>3)Vehicles moving with over-speed can lead to accidents.</p>	<p>3) Vehicle speed should be limited to 20 km/hr. Nearby medical facilities must be available in case of any mishap.</p>

C. Noise Pollution

<u>Probable Impact</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
<p>1).Impact of noise due to mining activities</p> <p>2) Prolonged exposure of noise from the machinery can cause hypertension, hearing loss, sleep disturbances etc.</p> <p>3) Increase in number of transports will lead to more noise and discomfort.</p>	<p>1) Noise generated from the equipment like generators must be within prescribed limit of 75 dB. The noise must not be continuous.</p> <p>2) Noise measurement should be done at specified intervals and the data must adhere to permissible limits as per National Ambient Noise Quality Standards.</p> <p>3) Truck drivers to be instructed to make minimum use of horns. Plantations along the approach roads will minimize noise propagation.</p>

D. Water Environment:

<u>Probable Impact</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
1). Flow pattern might get changed due to river bed mining.	1) Diversion of flow pattern should be avoided. Thus there will be no change in flow pattern, surface hydrology and ground water regime.
2) Increase in mining depth will result in increase in flow velocity	2) Mining activities must be restricted to 3m depth which will not affect the flow pattern.
3). Change in qualities of ground water and surface water.	3) Mining should not be done below the water levels. Water samples should be tested at regular basis as a precautionary measure. Mining will be done as per approved Mining Plan and approved Rules and Regulations e.g. mining should be restricted to central 3/4 th width of the river and should not be less than 7.5 meters etc.
4) Mode of waste water discharge	4) It is advised to use portable bio-toilets so that no sewage or liquid effluent will contaminate the ground water due to percolation.

E

E. Soil Environment:

<u>Probable Impact</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
<p>1) Mining activity may lead to increase of soil erosion and degradation which results in adverse impact in soil quality.</p> <p>2) Extraction of top soil from outside riverbed may affect the soil fertility and productivity</p> <p>3) Soil erosion takes place during the flood.</p>	<p>1) Plantation of local species trees on regular basis along the haul roads, outer periphery within the mining area will help to enhance the binding property of the soil and check erosion.</p> <p>Water to be sprinkled on unpaved roads.</p> <p>2) Of course, if it is a river bed, then top soil will not be generated.</p> <p>3) To construct dams for protection of river banks. No bank cutting is permitted.</p>

F. Land Use

<u>Probable Impact</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
<p>1) In case mining activity is carried out outside riverbed, a pit will be formed which will cause soil erosion.</p> <p>2) Mining in riverbed may lead to a change in complete land use pattern and even land geometry, sediment transportation capacity, bed elevation etc. leading to a change in flow pattern of the river and erosion in the downstream.</p>	<p>1) In such a case, proper reclamation to be implemented either by planting of trees or converting the pit into a fishery project.</p> <p>2) Mining should be carried out only during non-monsoon seasons so that the excavated area is replenished naturally during the subsequent rainy season. Pre and post-monsoon survey for sedimentation in the riverbed should be carried out regularly. Dams to be constructed at required places for protection of banks. Safety distance from the bank inwards to be maintained not to disturb the channel geometry.</p>

G. Hydrogeology :

<u>Probable Impact</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
<p>1) Ground water contamination is very much susceptible for mining in river beds, due to intersection with water table.</p>	<p>1) Proper analysis and monitoring must be done so that intersection with water table is avoided. Moreover, depth of mining should not exceed 3 m.</p>

<p>2) Any change in topography will divert the river flow.</p> <p>3) Any change in slope of mining area will lead to soil erosion and rain water run-off channel may get diverted.</p>	<p>2) Mining activity should not involve any diversion or modification of topography.</p> <p>3) Maximum depth permissible for riverbed mining is 3 m, which must be adhered to.</p>
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H. Biological Environment:

<u>Probable Impact</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
<p>1) Transportation of minerals in trucks or dumpers will hamper the movement of wild animals like jungle ca, jackal and other reptiles. Moreover, Fugitive emission from vehicle movement will form a layer on plant leaves leading to reduction in gaseous exchange process. This will ultimately affect the growth of plants (stomatal index may get minimized)</p>	<p>1) Movement of vehicles should be limited during day time only. Access roads should never encroach into the riparian zone. Water to be sprinkled on unpaved roads which will minimize dust generation.</p>

<p>There is also a possibility of collision with wildlife as and when they attempt to cross the road.</p> <p>2) Human settlement in the mining area will destroy the vegetation cover and disturb the reptiles.</p> <p>3) Adverse effects on benthic fauna which inhabits the bottom sandy substratum in case indiscriminate mining is carried out. Extraction of excessive sand from riverbed will affect the ecology of many terrestrial insects whose initial life begins in aquatic environments.</p>	<p>2) Human settlement not to be permitted in the mining lease area or nearby.</p> <p>3) Mining should be carried out as per principles laid down by the authorities. As such, there will be no impact on benthic fauna.</p>
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I. Socio-economical effect :

<u>Probable Impacts</u>	<u>Mitigation Suggested</u>
<p>1. Mining and transportation activities will generate small shops, dhabas, garage, restaurants, vegetable shops etc. along the roads creating direct employment.</p> <p>2. Local people will get employment in the mining activities.</p>	<p>1. Positive impact, welcome</p> <p>2. Positive impact, welcome.</p>

<p>3. There will be generation of solid wastes along the roads due the shops opened.</p> <p>4. Deep pits created in the channel can lead to accidents for villagers who goes to collect river water for their own domestic purposes.</p> <p>5. There is huge possibility of accidents due to rash driving of dumpers carrying the materials through the village roads.</p> <p>6. Generation of dust due to traffic movement will be injurious to health for the villagers.</p>	<p>3. Garbage bins to be provided at proper places.</p> <p>4. Proper reclamation procedure to be adapted in the mined out areas. Mining must be carried out in non-monsoon period so the excavated portion gets replenished during the subsequent rainy season.</p> <p>5. Shortest and safe roads to be used to reach the nearest paved roads. It will be better if graveled roads are constructed between mine lease area and the nearest paved road.</p> <p>6. Water to be sprinkled regularly on unpaved roads to minimize dust generation. Speed of vehicles carrying the material to be controlled within limit. Moreover, materials being carried to be covered properly with tarpaulin.</p>
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15.1. Remedial Measures for Land Environment

- 1) The Mining activities must be carried out within the lease area only.
- 2) The surface run-off from the lease area should be retained within the lease area and to be used for plantation, dust suppression etc. so that there is no erosion of soil from the lease area and surroundings on account of mining activity.
- 3) Retaining wall and garland drains for the proposed waste dump to be constructed to arrest wash offs from the dumps. The dump must have inner slope with catch drains at inward side of the terrace and the catch drain of the individual terrace is to be connected to the garland drain outside to periphery of the dump.
- 4) The waste materials are to be used for construction of road.
- 5) Maintenance and repair work of vehicles and machineries should be carried out outside the mining area.

15.2 Remedial Measures for Waste Management

- 1) Solid waste to be dumped systematically with proper repose angle.
- 2) Solid waste is to be stabilized in the following manner:
 - a) Stabilization of dump with top soil and tree plantation shall make the dump stable.
 - b) Dump should be terraced for every 5 m height.
 - c) Gradation of the dump should be done automatically as coarse materials go down to the bottom at finer at the top. As such the drain of rain water will flow freely to the bottom without hampering the stability of the dump
 - d) 1 m height parapet should be constructed for dumps more than 6 m height.

16. Risk Assessment and Disaster Management

Most of the accidents occur during transportation by trucks / dumpers and movement of mining equipment. Following mitigation matters to be adapted :

- a) Regular training of all vehicle / machinery drivers / operators to be ensured.
- b) Regular maintenance and testing of all mining equipment according to manufacturer's guidelines.
- c) All safety precautions and provisions of MMR 1961 shall be strictly followed.
- d) Broad sign to be provided at each and every turning point of vehicles.
- e) All transportation activities within the main working area should be carried out under direct supervision and control of the management.
- f) At the embankment and tripping points, reversing lorries should be made man-free, have proper indication lamps and warning horns.

17. Hazard Identification and Risk Assessment (HIRA)

Hazard Identification and risk Assessment are two processes necessary for maintaining a high level of safety and efficiency in the workplace. These processes aim to identify potential risks and hazards, assess their severity, and put the management team in a better position to put controls and take preventive and corrective actions.

It is desired that the entire mining operation is carried out under the supervision of the Mining Engineer or Mines Manager having second class mine's manager's certificate of competency to take adequate measure during following circumstances :

- 1) Slope failure at mine faces
- 2) Accident due to sliding of dumps

- 3) Accident due to storage of fuel
- 4) Accident due to fly-rock generation
- 5) Accident due to transportation or movement of heavy machineries
- 6) Accident due to use of explosives
- 7) Mishandling of mining equipment

It is advisable that a 5 x 5 risk assessment Matrix is prepared on day-to-day basis.

In this matter, Likelihood (Probability) is put along the x-axis and pertains to the extent how likely the risk may occur. The 5 risk rating levels under this component are.... **Rare** – unlikely to happen and/or have minor or negligible consequences

Unlikely – possible to happen and/or will have moderate consequences.

Moderate – likely to happen and/or have moderate consequences

Likely – almost sure to happen and/or to have major consequences

Almost certain – sure to happen and have major consequences.

Impact which is also called severity, is placed along the y-axis to determine the level of effects that the hazard can cause to workplace, health and safety.

The levels are

Insignificant – won't cause serious injuries or illness

Minor – can cause injuries or illness only to a mild extent.

Significant – can cause injuries that may require medical treatment but limited one.

Major -- can cause irreversible injuries that require constant medical attention

Severe – can cause fatality

17.1. Risk and Mitigation Measures

A. Over Burden Risk : The overburden dumps is susceptible to landslides. If the dump is very high, It may slide down at the quarry edge or may cause failure of the pit slope due to excessive loading. This may lead to loss of life and property. Siltation of surface water may also cause run-off from overburden dumps.

Mitigation: 1) Height of overburden dump should be restricted.

- 2) Proper garland drain and bund to be constructed around the dump. This will prevent slippage
- 3) No loose rock or stone or loose tree to be allowed within 3 meters of the edge of the quarry
- 4) In order to prevent siltation of surface water, it is necessary to construct retaining wall on the downside of each overburden dump

B Fuel Storage: Major storage of fuel in the mining lease area is strictly prohibited.

C Water Logging: in case mine pit gets filled up with rainwater, adequate number of pumps of proper capacity should be arranged well in advance Garland drainage should be properly maintained to prevent inflow of rain water into the pit.

17.2 Disaster Management

. Disaster is an event, natural or manmade, sudden or progressive which impacts with such severity that the affected community or workers must respond by taking exceptional measures. It is a sudden or progressive occurrence of such magnitude as to effect normal working conditions or pattern of life.

Types of Disaster : Fire and explosion, Large oil spillage, Toxic gas release, Flood, Cyclone, Equipment failure, Transportation of hazardous material, improper storage of debris etc. etc.

Phases of Disaster : 1) Warning Phase : Many disasters are preceded by some sort of warning. During any industrial operation, a detection and alarm system to be installed in such cases.

2) Impact phase – This is the period when the disaster actually strikes and very little can be done in order to lessen the effects of it.

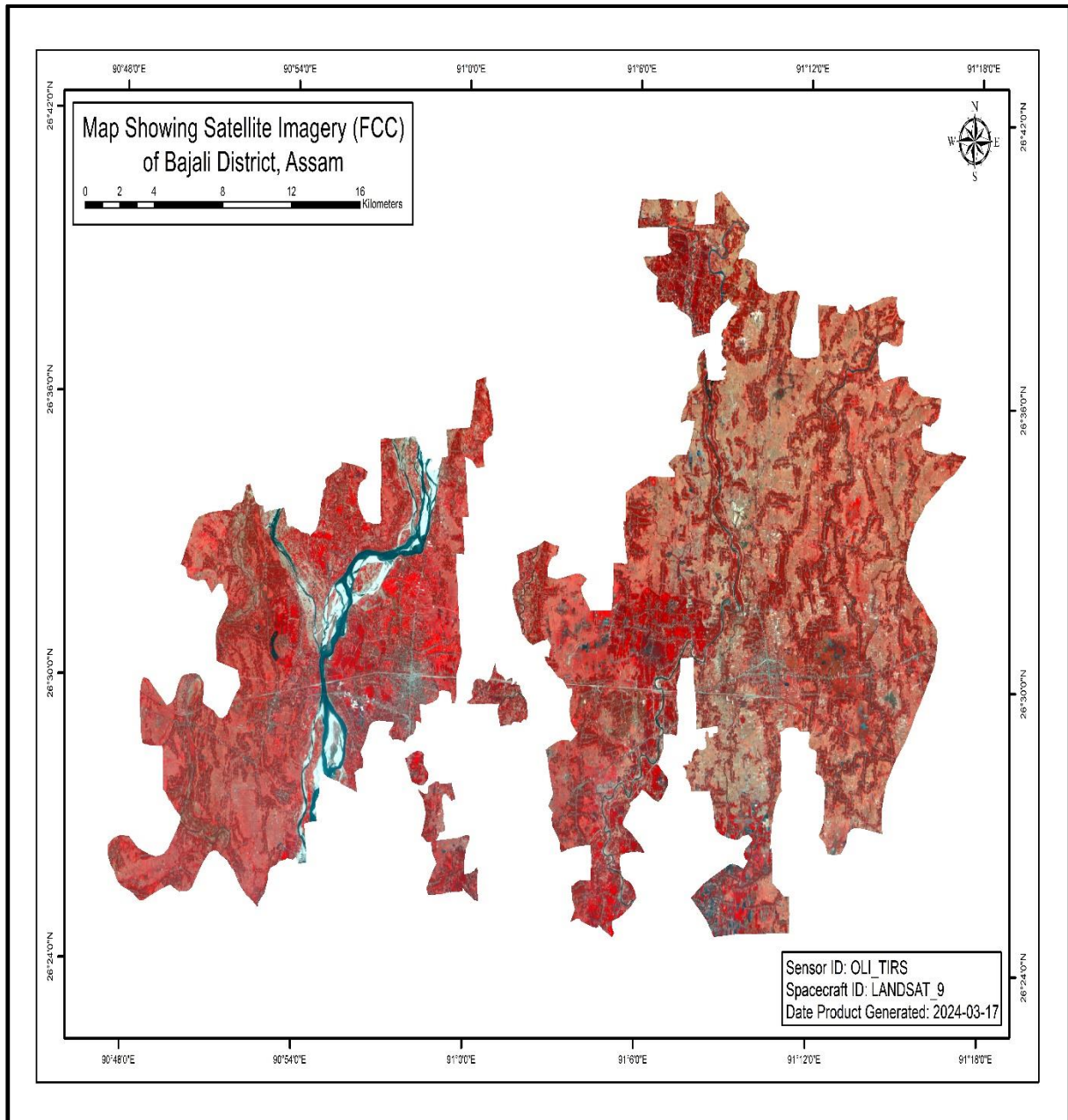
3) Rescue phase : This phase starts after the impact phase and to be continued till the situation becomes under control.

4) Relief and Rehabilitation phase.

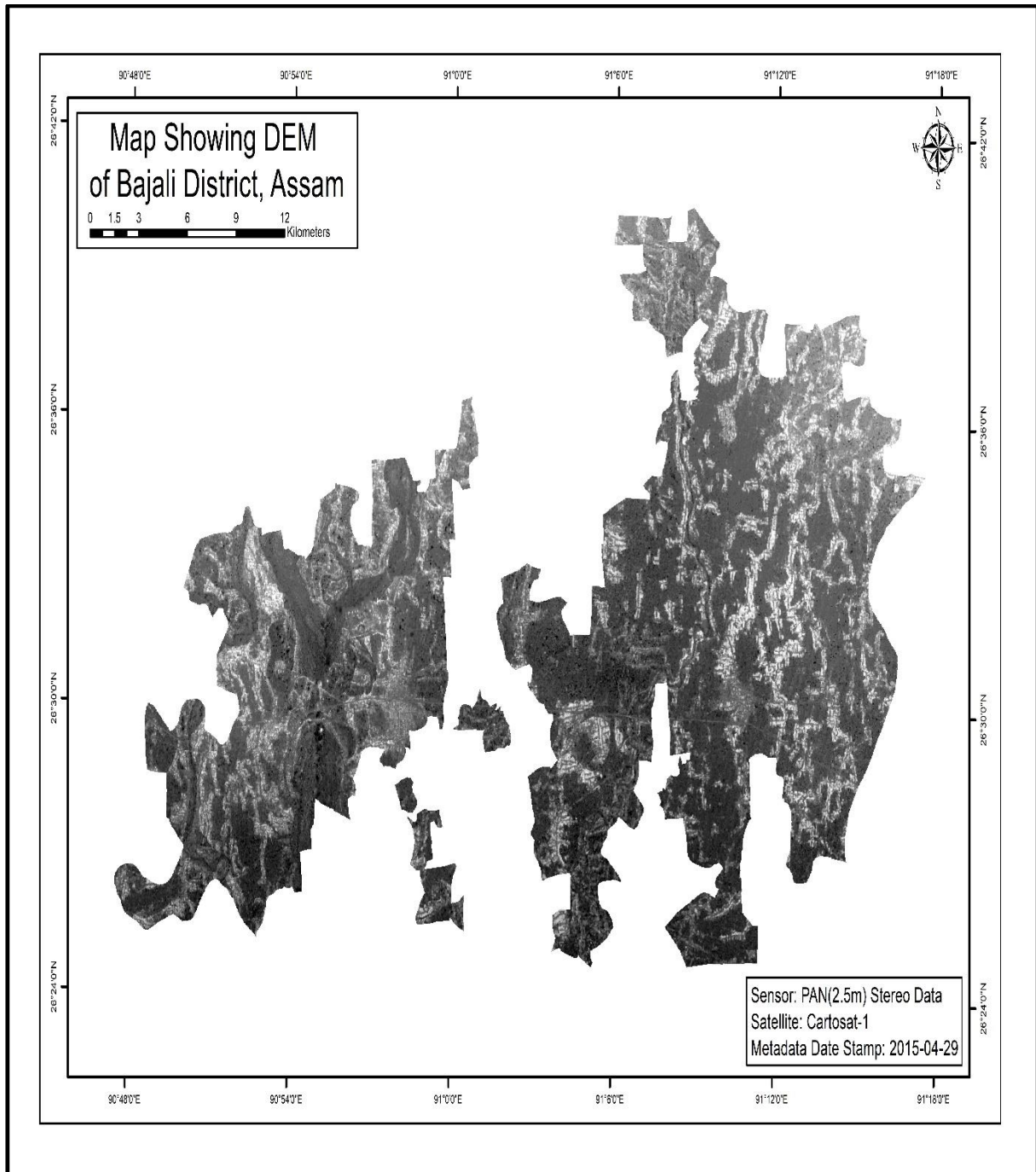
As such, during mining activities, the workforce must be made aware of all the above factors and proper responsibilities to be assigned to each individual or coordinators in the organization about each phases of disaster and make preparatory work before the emergency, implement operational plan during the emergency and carry out investigation of the causes of disaster after the emergency.



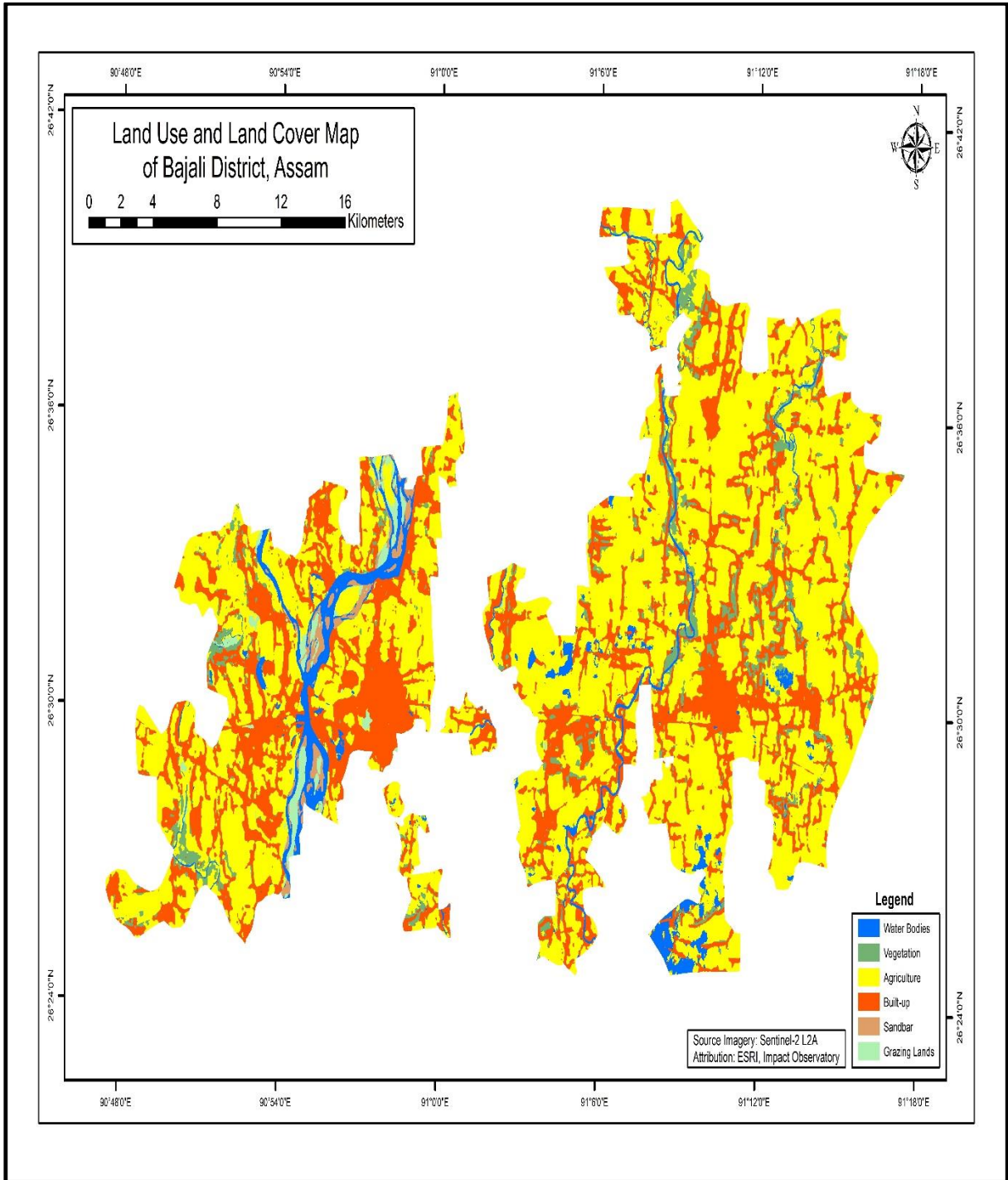
MAPS



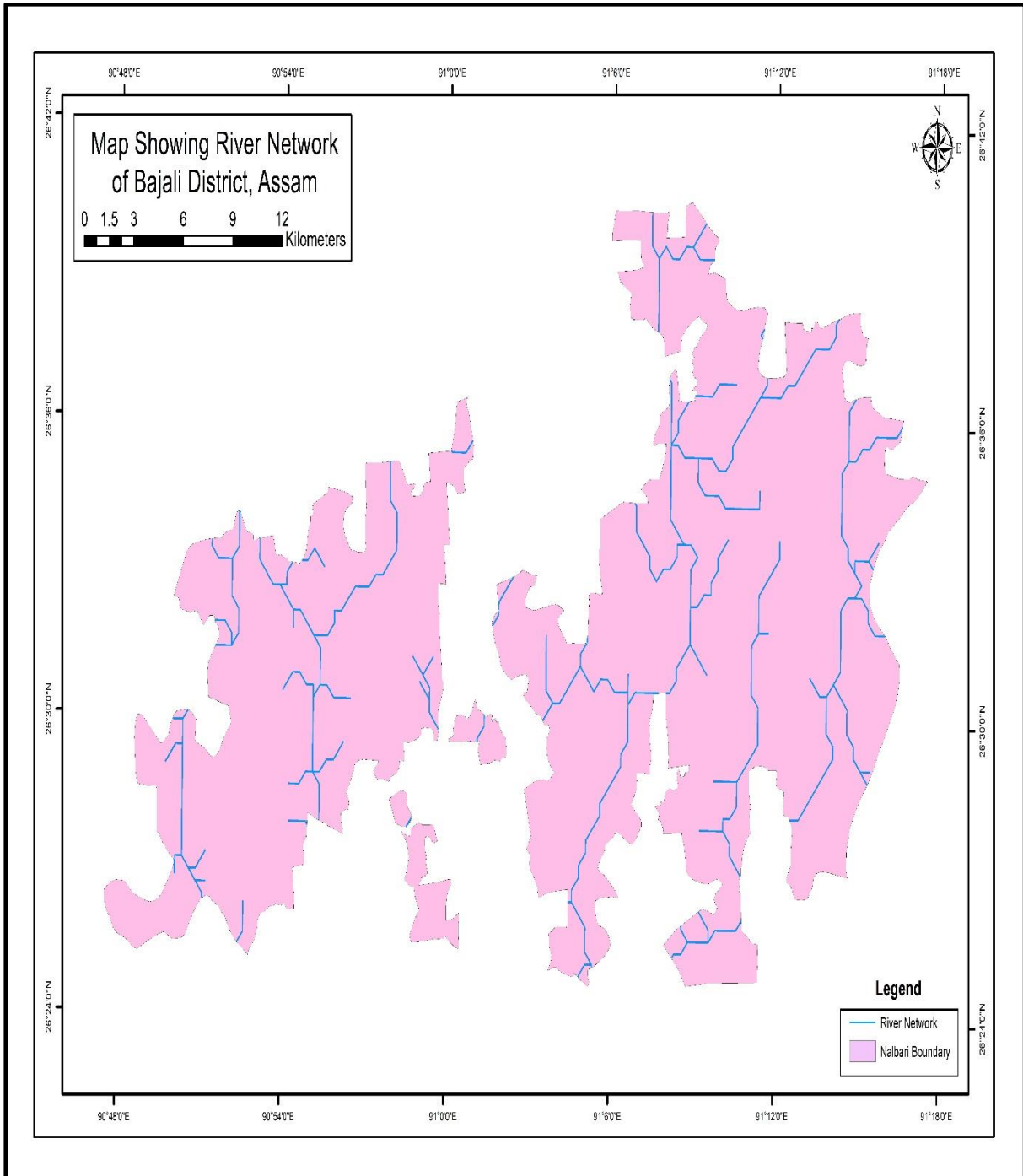
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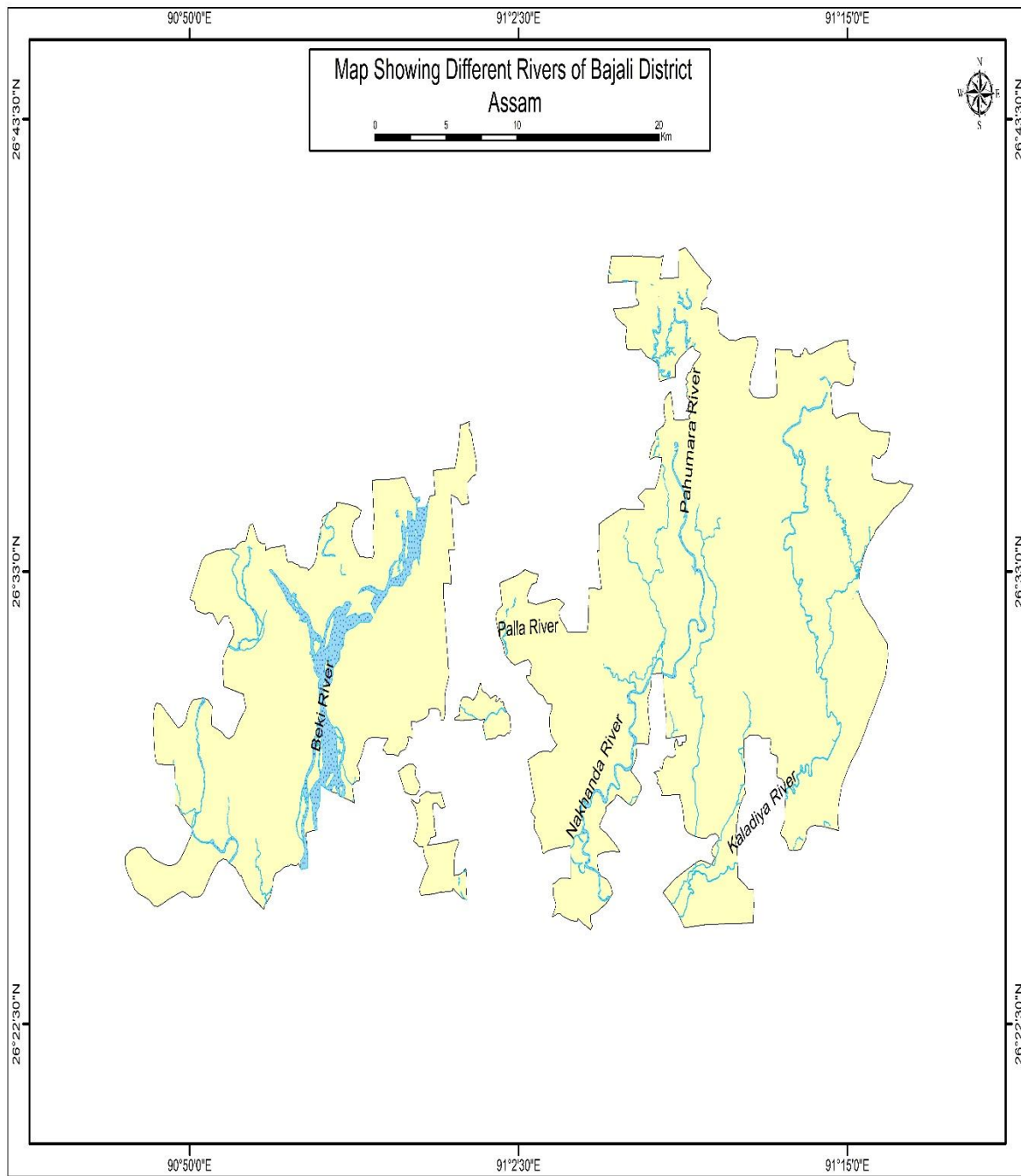
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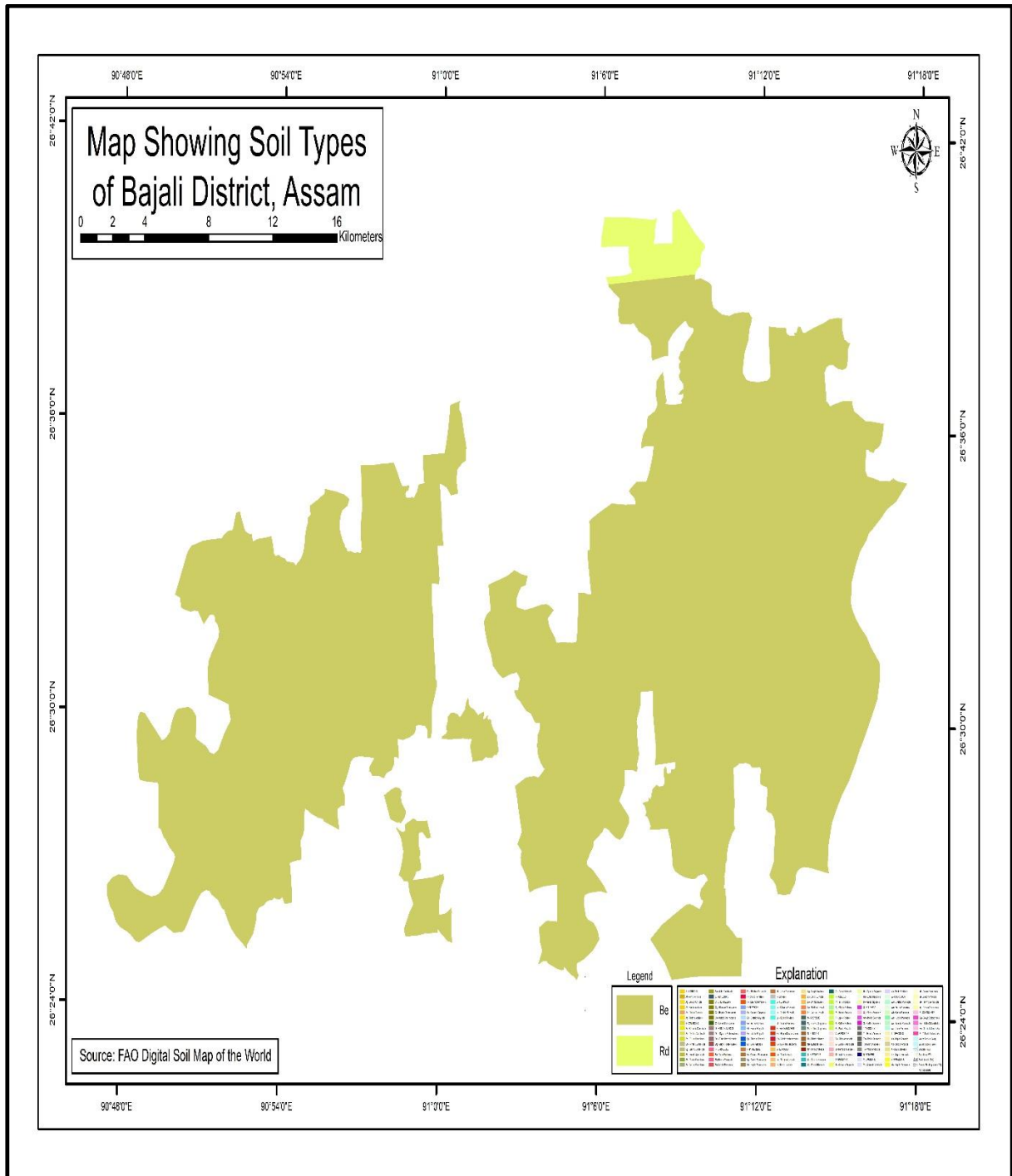
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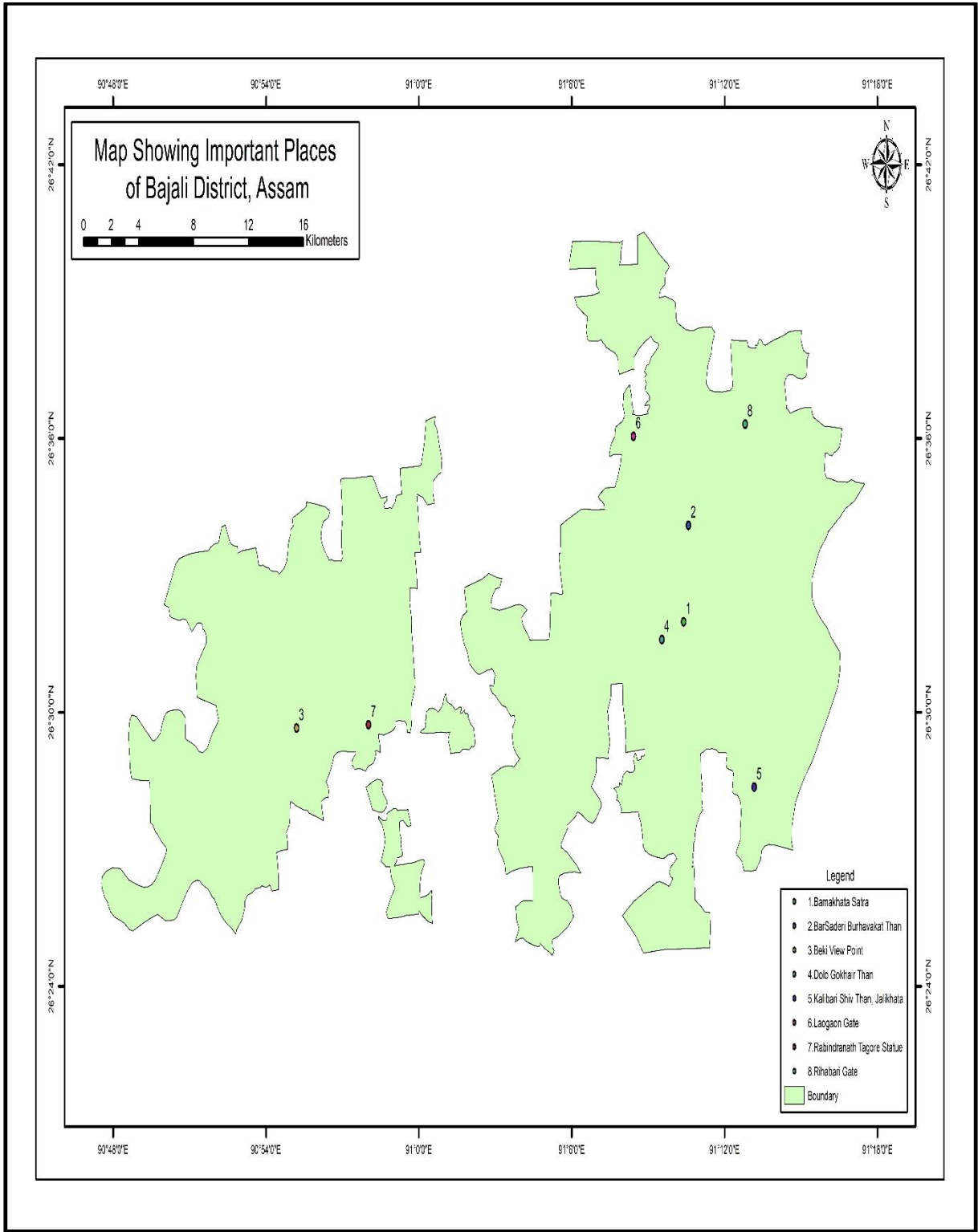
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Map: 5



Map: 6



Map: 7

Joint Inspection Photographs by Office of The District Commissioner,
Bajali and Office of The Divisional Forest Officer, North Kamrup Division



Image 1: Chaibari kaldia River



Image 2: Gahinpara Pahumara