

# Geospatial Effect on the Mining Operation in Joda/Barbil Area of Odisha, India

## Abstract

The study aims to investigate the Geospatial effect on the extraction operation in Joda and Barbil mining areas of Keonjhar district, Odisha, India. Present work involves the topography, soil, climate, and stratigraphy investigation of the area. The acquisition of Landsat 8 TIRS (Thermal Infrared), Landsat 5 TM (Thematic Mapper), and CARTOSAT DEM data of temporal and spatial satellite images from various websites. ARC GIS and ERDAS IMAGINE 9.2 software used to find the land use and land cover images (accuracy average 90%). Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), and Surface air Temperature (SAT) of Barbil area for 2003, 2007, 2017 and 2018 have been estimated. Comparison of the results have shown that, there is increase in built up, and mining areas whereas the agricultural land and vegetation cover are down scaled. There is constant average SAT rise of 1-2<sup>0</sup> C in all the land cover classification between 2007 and 2018. The NDVI values show conversion of sparse from dense vegetation in the area. Poor operational strategies in mines operation, like corruption, illegal mining, lack of accountability, overburden wastes/ trailing disposal, ecologic degradation, waterlogging in mine pits, and human rights violations are the root causes of environmental deterioration of the study area. It is pertinent to implement strictly, the Mines and Minerals (Development and Regulation) Amendment Act, India, 2021, regular GIS application to assess the mines volume of extraction, strict vigilance and fixation of accountability for losses of existing mines values, and afforestation/ reforestation of degraded/lost forests in Barbil area.

**Keywords:** GIS studies, Illegal Mining, LU/LC, Mining areas, NDVI, SAT.

## Introduction:

The Mining/ mineral domain is well thought-out driving strength for the geological concerns, as well as geological cataclysms, ecological threats, and resource destruction Liu et al., 2015<sup>[2]</sup>, Wang et al., (2021<sup>[3]</sup>). The mining sectors globally is encountering unparalleled growth and cataclysm for last two to three decades. The progress in mining domain in India expedited due to rise in urbanization and industrialization. Especially the mineral and metal segment is passing through a crucial time run since last two to three years due to pandemic lockdowns and closures. Prompt efforts of the governments is addressing the issue by policy changes and the emerging markets upswing. Under the climate's predicament and rising user's expectations are up surging, the sector needs to meet the sustainable development goals. Environment chaos,

political and social hooks are the barriers on the way of progress. The excavation, waste disposal, and transportation activities in the mining areas have made the environment of mining area as a dungeon affecting its flora, fauna and its stakeholders and aboriginals.

The mining areas throughout the globe have been assessed as 57277Km<sup>2</sup>, (Maus et al., 2020<sup>[1]</sup>) As per Ministry of Mines, GoI, annual report, 2021, India has leased mining areas, except minor minerals hydrocarbon and atomic energy (as on 31.3.2019) was 315986Ha through 3527 mines. Odisha stands as the 2<sup>nd</sup> ranked state in India contributing value wise ≈9% of total mineral production in the year 2015- 16 as per state data 2020. The district Keonjhar having Joda and Barbil as one of the prominent mining areas in Odisha.

Improper and irregular mining in Odisha has posed threats to sustainable standards in water, air, land, forests, health and safety. The western Odisha has bountiful mineral possessions in rural locations, typically deprived of occupation, unpredictable cultivation and distracted livelihood. Mining activities has up surged jobs, with economic expansion, but imposes substantial health and other sustainable issues. From 1980, Barbil area, the mining exploration as a hub, has exceeded expectations and have lost its past green corridor serving mostly to its ethnic aboriginals.

The major iron ore potential in the Keonjhar district in Odisha. It is about 3142.70MMT, available in Joda, Mahalapat, Tiring Pahad, Sidhmath, Banspani, Thakurani, and Gandhamardan Hills *etc.* The minor minerals like manganese ores are accessible of quantity >20MMT at Barbil, Koida, Joda, Bhadrasahi, Kalimati *etc.*, (DSR Keonjhar 2018<sup>[4]</sup>).

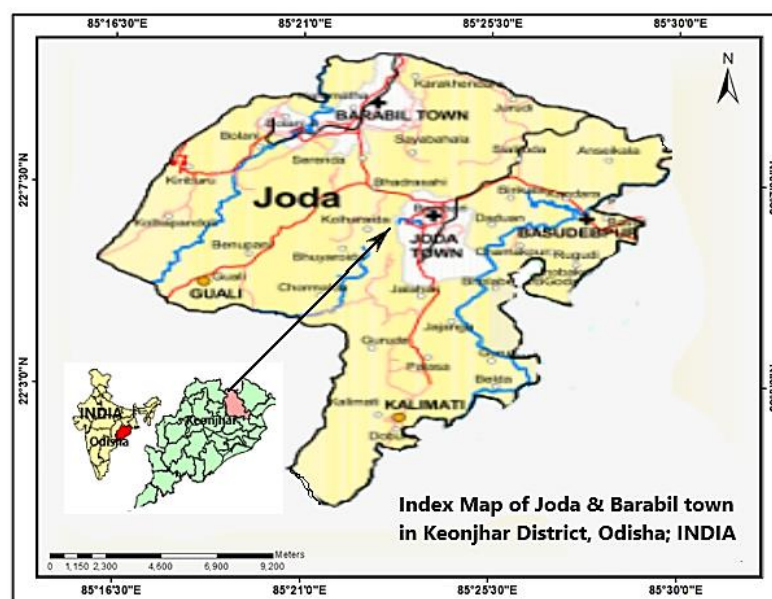


Fig 1: Index map of Study area in Keonjhar district Odisha

The mining accomplishments in Barbil, Odisha is creating poor human health, agriculture, and distorting livelihood of its aboriginal people. They pose irregularities like human rights violation, illegal mining, inadequate safe water, air, and sanitation. Lack of governance, lag in complying basic indicator, corruption, poor health standards breaching social and economic obligations, **Fig 1**.

As per government data the district Keonjhar has lost 104.51Km<sup>2</sup> of its mining forest areas through 64mining projects in 38years from 1980-2017. The indiscriminate mining and population surge has polluted dusty air, deteriorated roads, polluted portable water, mining dumps, and suffering from malnutrition (**Fig 2**).

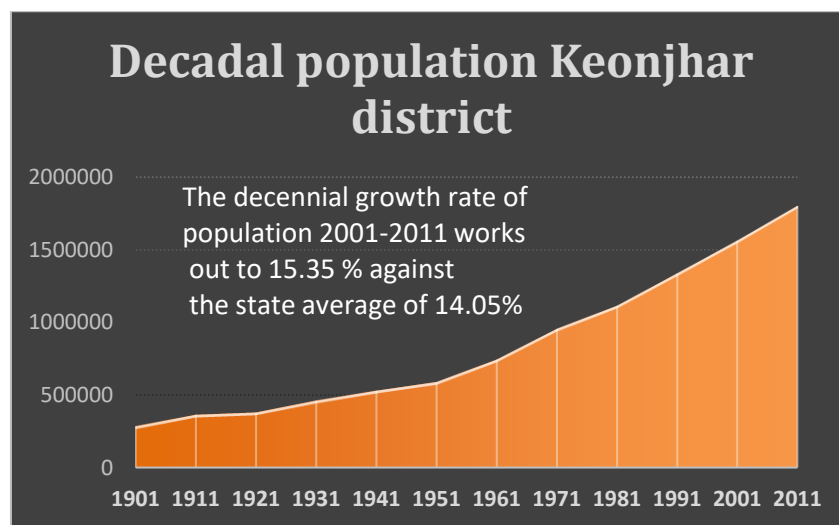


Fig 2: The decadal Population of Keonjhar District 1901 to 2011(census-2011)

The Keonjhar district has 8303 km<sup>2</sup> total geographical area, 202 km<sup>2</sup> urban and, 8101 Km<sup>2</sup> mining/hilly area. The decennial demographic growth rate from 1971 to 81 was 16.65percentage against the Odisha State average was 19.72 percentage. The decennial growth rate during 1981-91, 1991-2001, 2001-11 were 19.95%, 16.83%, & 15.35% respectively (2011 census<sup>[5]</sup>), **Fig 2**.

This paper reveals the GIS works in the mining areas of Barbil, in Keonjhar, Odisha. Mining in Barbil, made the tribal group of the area, as oustees. Their access to clean air, and water are more vulnerable. People living near the mines, are under prone to waterborne diseases and fever.

### Need of the study

This study is focusing on Barbil Tehsil (22.12°N & 85.40°E) hilly mining areas of average elevation (477m), Keonjhar District, Odisha with 26mines (21 mines in Joda and 05 mines in Barbil). The Joda & Barbil are both municipalities in the Barbil Tehsil having area of 275.5km<sup>2</sup>

with 2720K population including 45% to 48% are from Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST). The green vegetation cover is 3097.18Km<sup>2</sup> ( $\approx$ 33.33%) out of 8303Km<sup>2</sup> of the district area grown over mines. The terrestrial setting of Barbil is Singhbhum (Jharkhand) in north, Thakurani Reserve Forest (RF) in east, Kolhabarpada,, Tanto, Fulabadi, and Sidhamatha RF in south, and the Karo River, Balagoda,, Karo RF in west.

Table 1: Major mines in Joda and Barbil area in force with capacity and minerals extracted

Name of mines	Place	Quarries in Villages	Capacity (TPA)	Mineral extracted
Mahalapat Iron ore mining Pro.	OMCL	Eastern, western, southern, & Ichinda quarry	70000	Iron
S.G.B.K. Iron & Manganese Ore Mining Proj.	OMCL	Guruda, Palsa, Siljora, Tadapani, Badakalimati, Balda, and Nayagarh	173000	Iron/Manganese
Kanther Koira Mn ore mining	M/s P M Granite Pvt Ltd	Siljora, Kalimati	20,025	73.653 H; Mn, drains pollution anticipated
Joda East iron ore mine	Tata steel Ltd, Joda	Joda, Kamarjoda, Banspani, Khuntpani & Baitarini R.F,	22.94 MTPA	671.093 ha Iron ore
Tiringpahar Iron and Mn. Mines	M/S Tata Steel LTD	Guruda, Palasa, Jadibahal, Khondbondh, Jalahari, Jajanga,	85000 (Mn)	643.71ha; Iron & Mn ore

On date grants for number mines have been lapsed or rescind mines in Barbil and Joda areas are TISCO (some), Ardent Minerals and Metals Private Ltd, B.I.CO. Ltd. and many others. These dead mines have not only deforested the forest areas but also dumped overburdens, wastes and trailing products. Moreover, they have made a large number of ditches and ponds, which are posing health issues for the people of the area, and unfit for fisheries and plantations (Table 1), <https://www.Odisha minerals.gov.in/LicenseeStatistics/CircleWiseLicensee Details>

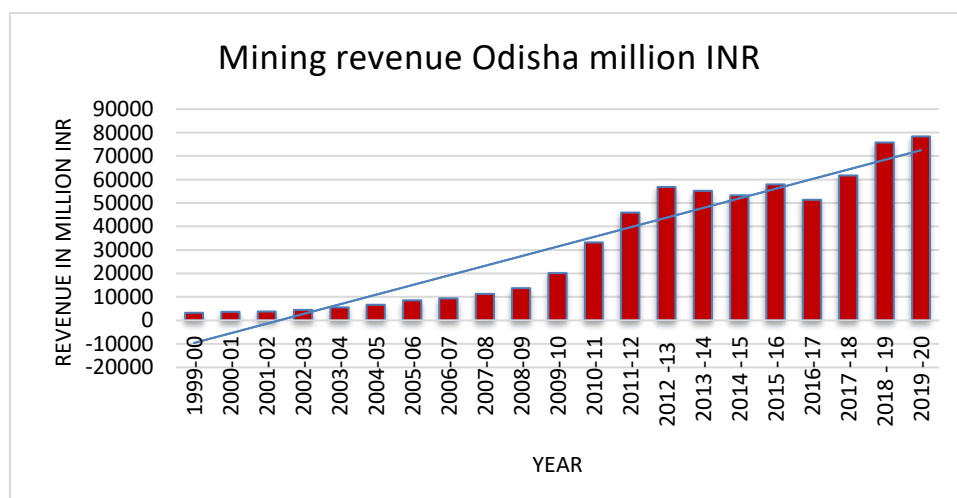


Fig 3: Revenue generation from mining sector in Odisha from 1999-2000 to 2018-2019

(source: [www.Odishaminerals.gov.in](http://www.Odishaminerals.gov.in))

The Joda /Barbil area has the fifth largest deposit of iron in the world, besides manganese and Chrome ore as minor source. The ores are the major revenue generation source for the state and central Government. There are eighty Industries are mining allied (North Orissa Chamber of Commerce & Industry data) generating revenue for Odisha (**Fig 3**).

Barbil town has manufacturing units like steel, Iron ore pellets, and liquid oxygen. The area is laden with dust due to mining, industrial operations and plying of mineral loaded trucks (about 7000 dumpers) in the night through the town as no bypass roads for heavy vehicles around Barbil. The dolomite mining area housed in the Saranda Hill slopes in the EGB hills in the mountainous reaches of upper Baitarani Basin with the polluted drainage channels Suna, a sub tributary of Baitarani River and south Karo (Koel Sub-Basin) (Panda et al., 2020<sup>[6]</sup>).

### **Review of literature:**

Revenue sector through mining **sector** in Odisha is ever increasing and simultaneously deteriorating the environment and socio ecological systems (Malaviya et al, 2010<sup>[7]</sup>, Panda et al, 2014<sup>[8]</sup>, Haddaway et al., 2019<sup>[9]</sup>); Mining areas acutely pollute water, air and soil causing mainly respiratory diseases, mal nutrition, vegetation loss, and ecosystem degradation (Hota et al., 2015<sup>[10]</sup>). Mines are susceptible to accidents, metalliferous dust and toxins exposure, fatigue and stress from the work settings, or managerial anxiety builds up that affect not only to miners but also to his family and friends (Entwistle, et al., 2019<sup>[11]</sup>, Stewart, 2020<sup>[12]</sup>). The long-term targets of the Paris Agreement-2015 warrants prompt cessation to deforestation, encourage reforestation/afforestation at large scale particularly in industrial areas with waste dumps, water accumulation ponds, and processing structures, (Zobrist et al., 2009<sup>[13]</sup>; Maus et al., 2020<sup>[11]</sup>). Mining accomplishments change their the topography of the natural resources of the mining areas, Land use / Land cover (LU/LC), environmental concerns, anastomosis of drains, soil losses, vegetation loss, waste generation, and ground water pollution. (Mathew et al, 2016<sup>[14]</sup>; Mana et al., 2016<sup>[15]</sup>, & 2018<sup>[16]</sup>; Garai et al., 2018<sup>[17]</sup>, Panda et al., 2020<sup>[6]</sup>). Comparison of statistics of GIS study results the planners and managers can make strategic plan for the deteriorating over exploited mining areas (Khan et al., 2018<sup>[18]</sup>; Chang et al., 2021<sup>[19]</sup>; Punia et al., 2021<sup>[20]</sup>)

### **Objectives**

- To investigate topographic constraints (Slope, drains, watershed)
- To investigate (LU)/(LC) changes (2003, 2009, and 2014)

- To examine climatic change impacts (SAT, NDVI, precipitation etc., (2007, and 2018)

Present search will help to prepare records for the forest cover and plan for the degraded forests associated with mining disposals. Restoring energy, agriculture, and water bodies' can have safe mining activities and encourage vegetation in quarries, waste dump areas.

### **Topography**

The study area belongs to Singhbhum carton of granite formation, and in Baitarani upland (200 to 400m above MSL) with Similipal plateau, and Keonjhar plateau. Keonjhar plateau contains bauxite duricrust and Similipal plateau covers Laterite formations. Joda and Barbil lies in Similipal plateau. The Similipal plateau has 600m to 800m uplands whereas 300 to 400m low flat terrain at above MSL sloping from north to south. <https://ibm.gov.in/writeread/data/files/07272015155420ORI-19.pdf>

### **Stratigraphy**

A Banded Iron Formation of volcanic, and sedimentary rock masses are encompassing the Singhbhum Granite lying in the northwestern exposure between Barsuan – Noamundi as folded into a Horseshoe synclinorium spread over area 60Km X 25Km containing minerals mainly iron, chromium, and manganese. The study area comprises of Singhbhum Granite Batholithic Complex lying as north-south elongated tract about 8000Km<sup>2</sup> made up of alternate 12 magmatic bodies of biotite-granodiorite-granite emplaced in three distinct but closely related phases of Similipal group, and three other smaller granitic intrusion (Sengupta et al., 1997<sup>[21]</sup>; De et al, 2021<sup>[22]</sup>). Hematite is the chief mineral of Barbil area. The important active mines areas are housed in Thakurani, Joda east, Bolani, Sidmath, Khandbhanda, Kasia-Barapada, Belkundi, Bolani, Gurudia, Kiribura, Dubuna, Jharibahal, Murga, Bamebari, Palsa, Jajang, Guali, and Uliburu. Iron content in ore bands are tough massive (64-68% Fe), laminated (62-65% Fe), lateritic (65-68% Fe), and Powered blue dust (MoEF&CC-2018<sup>[23]</sup>, DSR Keonjhar-2018<sup>[4]</sup>). The contour, aspect and slope map of the area is in Fig 4, Fig 5, Fig 6, and Fig 7 as on 02-02-2021.

### **Principal component analysis:**

The purpose of reduce the dimensionality and accuracy improvisation of classification, the principal component analysis conducted for the satellite imageries. The terrestrial surface reflect energy at dissimilar intervals. The electromagnetic (EM) spectrum releases energy

bands with various wavelengths from the blue to the mid-infrared region. The wavelengths range are 1: 0.45–0.52; 2: 0.52–0.60; 3: 0.63–0.69; 4: 0.76–0.90; 5: 1.55–1.75m; and 7:2.08–2.35µm. These ranges of wavelength store information (environment variables) in independent bands. Individual band handle the image as matrix structured. The associated pixels comprise of a digital number (DN) associated with the electromagnetic energy from a target that reflect or emit. RS gives idea of two closely spaced bands in the electromagnetic spectrum have surprising correlation, [Estornell et al, 2013<sup>\[24\]</sup>](#), [Erikstad et al., 2021<sup>\[25\]</sup>](#)

### Data collection and Analysis

The land sat data collected was from 02.02.2021 without cloud. The Landsat data collected are of 30m resolution. The imageries from LC08\_L1TP\_140045\_20210202\_20210306\_01\_T1 with data from Band source data of Cell Size (X, Y) - 30, 30, with Spatial Reference WGS\_1984\_UTM\_Zone\_45N used for aspect contour and the shape map where in Landsat-8 considered. For Land use and land cover the steps followed are Landsat 8 collection 1 level 2 data collected from USGS earth explorer, Composite map was in produce from bands 1-7. Shape file of the study area was under insertion and the after masking out the required area.

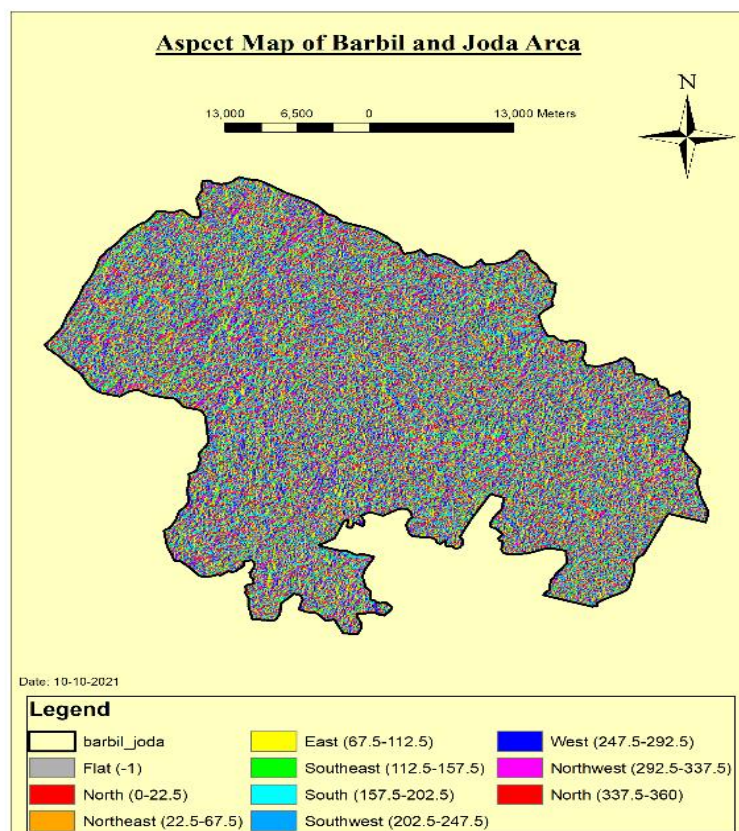


Fig 4: The aspect map of the Joda and Barbil area, Odisha

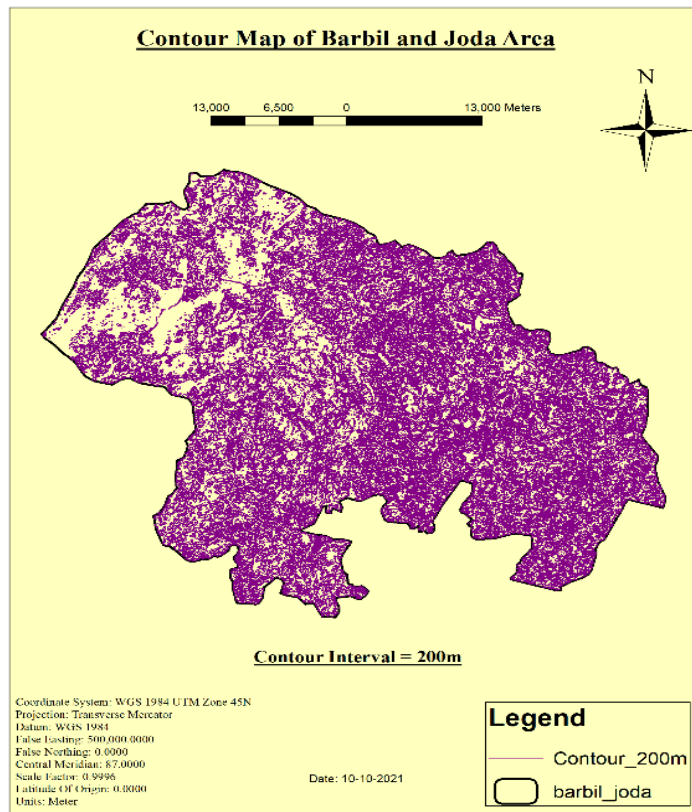


Fig 5: The Contour map of the Joda Barbil area, Odisha

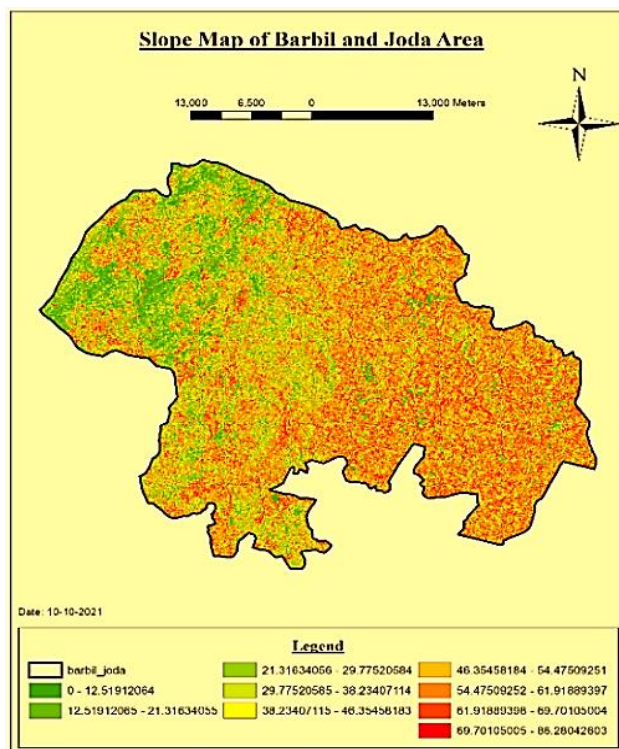


Fig 6: The slope map of the Joda and Barbil area, Odisha

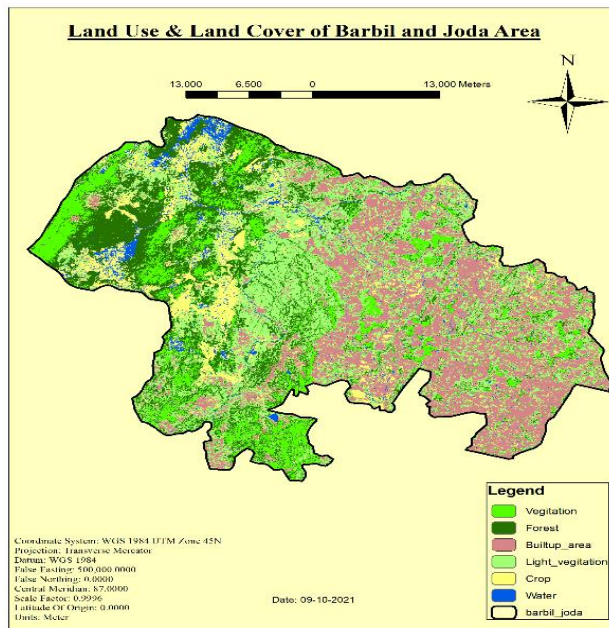


Fig 7: The Land use and land cover Map of Joad and Barbil area, Odisha

By using the image classification tool, the features of the area distinguished, and sampled by the training sample manager. After sampling, the similar samples were categorized and assigned names and colours. Later by help of the tool - Most Likelihood Classification, the groups were under analysis and the land use and land cover map to obtain the LU/LC map.

**Climate:** Mining activity has made the area very hot summer, cold winter, and dusty atmosphere. The area experiences northwesterly thunderstorm activities with a high lightening prone area. The undulated roads with large potholes, with continuous mining activities have made the climate unhealthy, suffocating and make the dwellers fatigue soon (Imran et al., 2021<sup>[26,]</sup>)

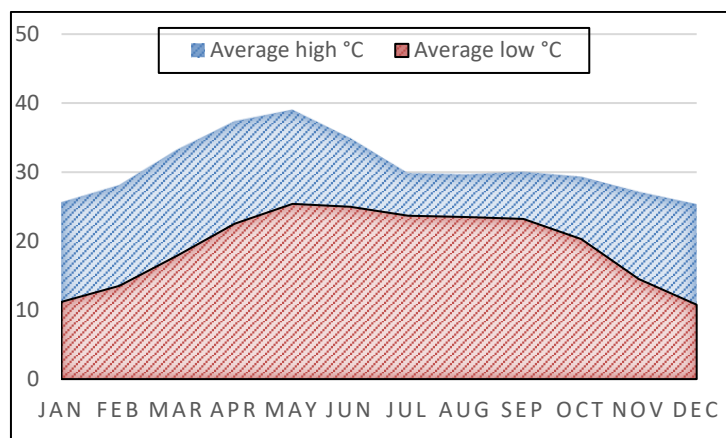


Fig 8: The averaged high and low temperature of Joda area (GOO Masterplan -2030<sup>[27]</sup>)

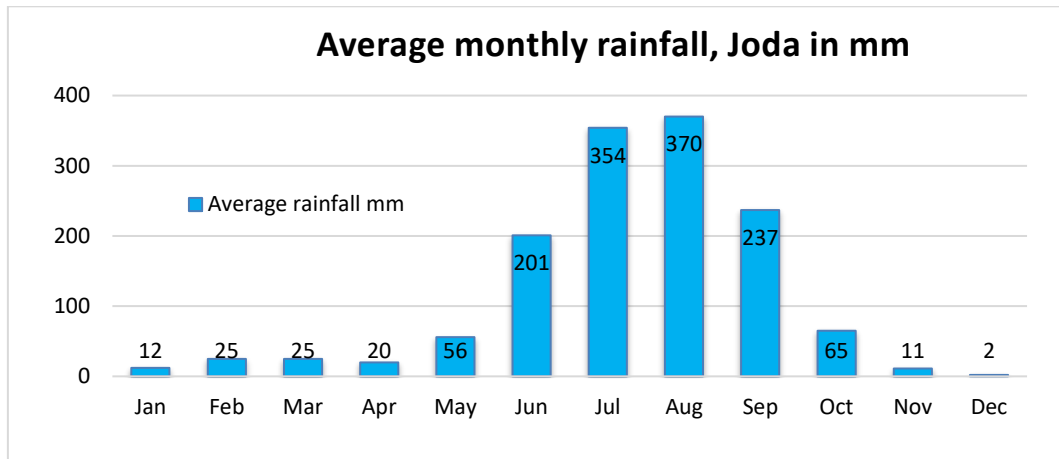


Fig 9: Mean monthly Average r/f of Barbil the year (GOO Masterplan -2030)

The mean monthly temperature of the study with high and low temperatures are 30.77°C and 19.29 °C respectively (Fig 8). The average annual rainfall is about 1378mm (Fig 9).

**Soil of the area:** The study area covers mainly laterite and lateritic soils are compact to vesicular, and at places honeycombed, composed mainly of a mixture of oxides of iron and aluminum. These soils are less fertile as permeable, acidic and are poor in nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium and calcium.

**Flora and Fauna:** The gorgeous flora & fauna adorns the mines area and houses wild elephants, Tigers, sambhar, etc. adjoining forest areas. The area is ironic in forest resources with large forest areas such as Thakurani, Ulliburu, and Saranda Reserve Forests. They are dense forest and hilly region (Behera et al., 2015<sup>[28]</sup>),

### Methods and Methodology

The present study involves the mining area changes, management of Barbil Tehsil area using Geospatial detection method for strategic planning to protect forest vegetation, existing agriculture set up from further deterioration in the mines area. The methodologies applied are collection of images and data from the USGS websites (open source) like SRTM and CARTO DEM (30 m spatial resolution). The images are georeferenced and further used for terrain, and drainage pattern analysis using slope, elevation etc. of Joda and Barbil. The geographical features like contour and datum further abstracted for the analysis.

Satellite imageries and data (LISS III and LISS IV) is in use for the intended mining area management, and change detection through various imageries (multi spectral) collected from NRSC “Bhuban” website and NIRD & PR lab. Image classification for the LULC at 6 years interval on LISS data is the focus of the study. Landsat 8 TIRS (Thermal Infrared) and, Landsat 5 TM (Thematic Mapper). These data, collected from the USGS websites are of use in Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and Land Surface Temperature (LST).

## Map from the satellite imagery

- Download / Collection of satellite Image
- Selection of Ground Control Points (GCPs)
- GPS observation and computation of GCPs
- Geo-referencing of Imagery with GCPs
- Creation of layers
- Digitization of feature classes
- Attribute collection and added to the feature class
- Analysis and storing database in required format
- Symbolization
- Preparation of Lay out map with required layers
- Printing of the hardcopy Map

## Hard copy map to feature class

- Scanning of Map
- Geo-referencing of map with map co-ordinates
- Creation of layers
- Digitization of feature classes
- Attribute collection and added to the feature class
- Analysis and storing database in required format
- Symbolization
- Preparation of Lay out map with required layers
- Printing of the hardcopy Map

Fig 10: The map from the satellite imagery & the hard copy map to feature class:

The GIS method is opted for comparison of the environmental losses that has occurred due to mining activities in Joda and Barbil area. The various steps involved are getting the map from the satellite imagery and the hard copy map to feature class:

### Sat-Data Used

Present study uses Landsat 5, 8 and CARTOSAT DEM data of acquisition on various temporal and spatial resolutions various satellite imageries used in the study and LISS data, collected from NRSC Bhuban website and NIRD & PR lab (**Tab 2**).

Table 2: The inheritance of satellite data and spatial resolution of the study area

Sl.No.	Resolution (Spatial)	Sat- Data used	Acquisition date
I	30.00m	CARTO DEM	23-1-2016
II	23.00m	LISS III	10- 05- 2016
III	5.80m	LISS IV	February 2003, June 2009
IV	30.00m	Landsat 5	22 – 01 -2007
V	30.00m	Landsat 8	15 – 12 -2018

### SOFT WARE USED

Software are used in the study are **Arc GIS 10.1** (GIS software of ESRI, USA), is a platform for designing managing, solution to create by using geographical maps, geographic data

compile, and analyze mapped information using boundary as shape file, classification to find Isohyet and Isopleth maps. **ERDAS Imagine 9.2** (remote sensing (RS) application software) is image-processing software.

### **Land use and land cover (LULC) changes**

Hasty vicissitudes in the LULC of an area have turn out to be a major environmental distress in recent times (Imran et al., 2021<sup>[26]</sup>, Li X., 2021<sup>[28]</sup>). This has commanded untenable development with the drop of green corridor along with variations in local climate and creation of urban heat islands (UHI's) (Guha et al., 2017<sup>[30]</sup>). Land use are in use for the analysis of environmental processes and problems. In present study for LULC classification, LISS data are in use .The multiple year of LISS data are in use for LULC classification, like LISS III, IV (2003, 2009, and 2014).These multispectral data submit for supervised classification using ERDAS 2014 Image Processing software (Kayet et al, 2016<sup>[31]</sup>).

### **Supervised Classification**

The collected RS data was geo-referenced and properly clipped assigning to the study area. The LULC classification made by ERDAS 2014 image processing software by supervised classification techniques. The supervised classification involves development of spectral signatures in some definite location or training sites in the imagery. The vector layer related to different polygons overlaying for various LU types digitized over the raster section. The training locations help ERDAS to grow spectral signatures for the outlined locations. The classification of images executed with the (MLA), Maximum Likelihood algorithms. Presently the land use categories are water body, agriculture land, grassland, built up land, mining area and forest.

### **Land Use and Land cover**

Maximum Likelihood classifier is a supervised classification technique. When classifying an unknown pixel, that evaluates both variance and covariance of the spectral response pattern.

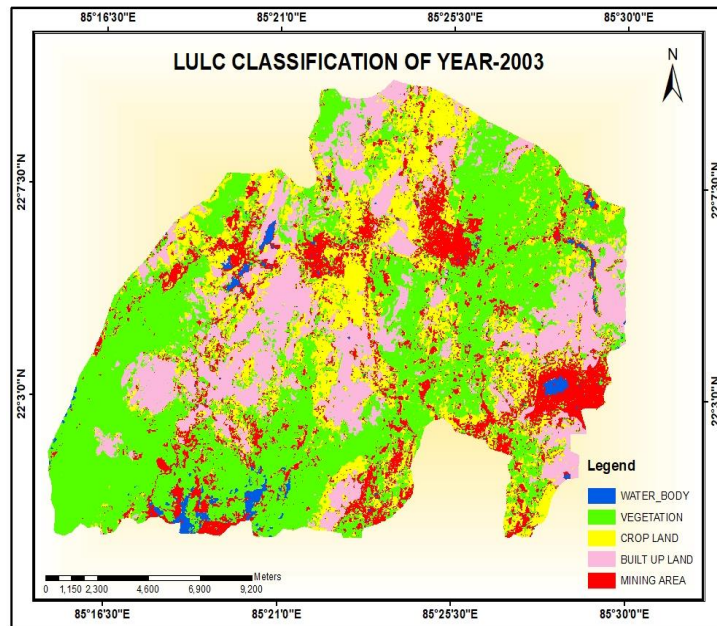


Fig 11: LULC classification Joda area of LISS IV in the year 2003, (LISS III data)

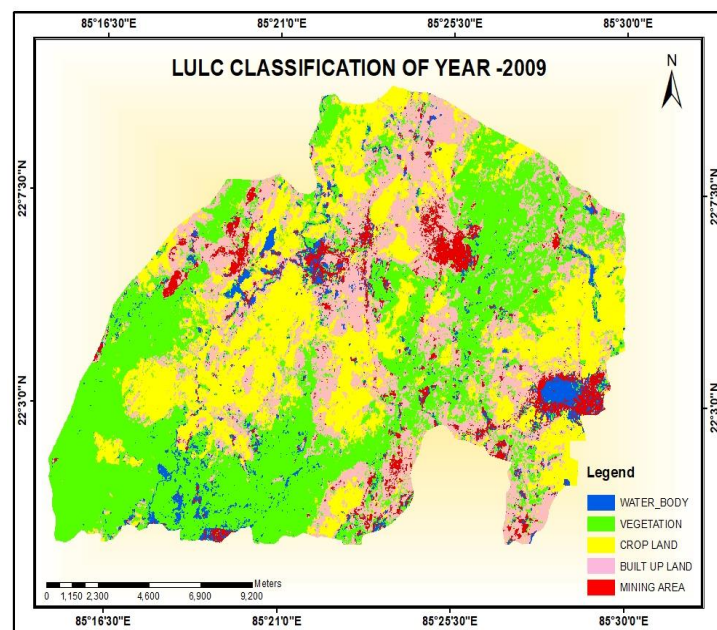


Fig 12: LULC classification Joda area of LISS IV in the year 2009, (LISS III data)

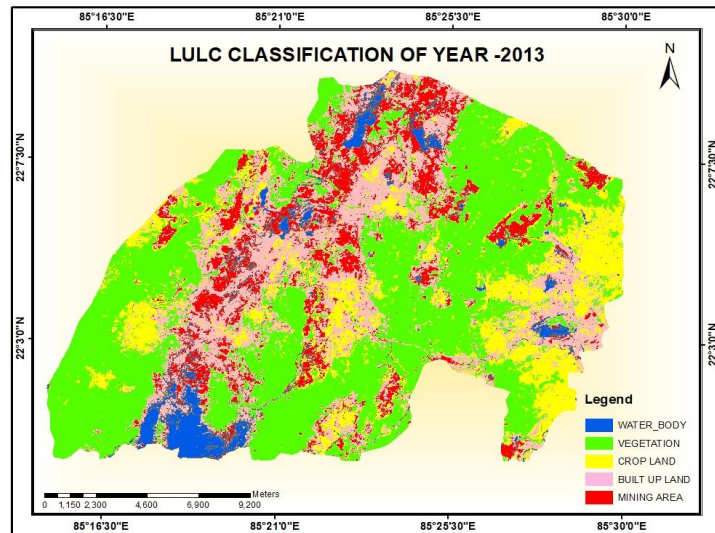


Fig 13: LULC classification Joda area of LISS IV in the year 2013, (LISS III data) The LULC under **Table 3 & Fig 11, Fig 12, and Fig 13** shows the vegetation cover decline (including the open, dense forest and shrubs) area from 141.51 km<sup>2</sup> to 110.45Km<sup>2</sup> within the year 2003 to 2013.

Table 3: Class statistics of each land use class from 2003 to 2013 of single watershed area.

Class	Area in square meter		
	2003	2009	2013
Vegetation	141507054	132955943	110446690
Crop land	60236030	53440760	46612965
Built up land	57035927	72313523	84567395
Mining area	44707156	46063650	59803042
Waterbody	14705880	13415353	16800557

This might have caused due to increase in mining area or may built up land. In **Fig 4** show classified land use and Land cover were shown using MLC techniques. All the land use land cover changes (LULCC) take place, given in table below **Fig-4**.

### Accuracy assessment

The amount of accuracy depending upon the data quality is the grade of nearness of results to the ground trothing values i.e. accepted and approach the real world. The accuracy of the assessment model was to find the extent how many ground truth pixel are correctly classified. The procedure of precision valuation in thematic maps can improve land use and land cover classification by permitting unambiguous response of heterogeneity units and scale in the map.

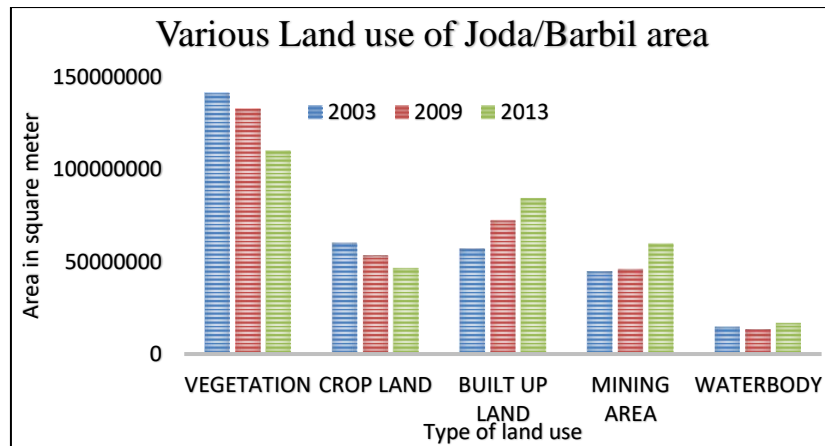


Fig 14: The various land use and land cover in Joda/Barbil areas 2003, 2009 and 2013

Consistency of the supervised classification used for validating the results from the results of accuracy assessment performance on the LU/LC map. Valuation results obtained from the stratified random sampling method of classified image from the year 2003 showed a total accuracy of 93.55 with a kappa coefficient of 0.9031. The same for 2009 and 2013 of the classified images were 94 % and 88.75% with kappa coefficient of 0.9103, and 0.8392. The producer's accuracy, user's accuracy and Kappa coefficient for different classes (**Table 4**).

Table 4: Comparison of accuracy assessment results of LULC maps (Fig 14)

Year	2003		2009		2013	
	Prod. Acc.	User Acc.	Prod. Acc.	User Acc.	Prod. Acc.	User Acc.
Water body	100	100	90	85.02	0	0
Built up area	100	62.02	100	100	100	90
Crop land	100	100	100	92.67	100	77.78
Mining area	92.86	92.86	91.67	91.67	100	75
Vegetation	100	88.05	0	0	100	90
Overall accuracy	93.55%		94%		88.75%	
Kappa Coefficient.	0.9031		0.9103		0.8392	

### Surface Air Temperature (SAT)

The surge in demography has demanded human settlements, rise in mining and industrial activities. The exploded urban areas due to rural migration has influenced, the surface air temperature (SAT), and upper air temperature (Connors *et al.*, 2013<sup>[32]</sup>, Guha *et al.*, 2020<sup>[33]</sup>, Faisal *et al.* 2021<sup>[34]</sup>, Nagassa *et al.*, 2021<sup>[35]</sup>). The township has turned up as urban heat island (UHI's) which refers to the relative warmth of urban surfaces, and urban atmosphere. The players for the UHI's include climate change, weather adversities, topography, and chaos in

city life. The anthropogenic activities, especially in urban development, have transformed the natural landscape cover to built-up areas. The vicissitudes can have substantial consequences on native meteorological parameters (Choudhury et al., 2019<sup>[36]</sup>, Abulibdeh, A., 2021<sup>[37]</sup>).

Satellites employed to gather information about various surficial changes like LU/LC and SAT. Landsat-8 can identify the contribution of urban settlements, UHI's and the significances of land use change in the forest areas. Landsat-8 has two bands 10 and 11 that uses for evaluating the SAT: influence through CO2 in 11 band (Nagassa et al., 2020<sup>[35]</sup>).

### Surface air temperature (SAT)

Present study have used the Landsat-5, 2007 and the Landsat-8 of 2018 and satellite data. Images of thermal bands (band 10) for year 2018, the band six (thermal band) in year 2007 was analyzed to identify the surface air temperature. In Landsat 8, band 11 shows less temperature when compared with band 10, because band 11, being closer to powerful 15μm band of CO2 that influences atmosphere than band 10. Ground trothing of SAT data of meteorological stations tallied to assess the real-time variation. The calculation of SAT involves the following steps: (Rajeshwari et. al., 2014<sup>[38]</sup>).

**Step (I):-** The conversion from digital number (DN) to Top of Atmosphere (TOA) radiance (upper air)

$$L_{\lambda} = M L Q \text{ cal} + A L \text{-----Eq. (1)}$$

Where;  $L_{\lambda}$  = TOA Spectrum radiance;  $M L$  = Band specific multiplicative rescaling factor;  $A L$  = Band specific additive rescaling factor;  $Q$  calories = Quantized, and calibrated standard product pixel values

**Step (II):-** To convert TOA values to TOA Brightness Temperature in Kelvin  $T$

$$T = K_2 \ln(k_1 K_{\lambda} + 1) \text{----- Eq. (2)}$$

Where;  $T$  = TOA (upper air) brightness temperature;  $L_{\lambda}$  = TOA (upper air) spectral radiance;  $K_1$  = thermal change constant (Band specific);  $K_2$  = Band specific thermal change constant

**Step: - (III)** To convert Kelvin to Degree Celsius

$$T^{\circ} \text{Celcius} = T^{\circ} K - 273 \text{-----Eq. (3)}$$

The values obtained from bands 10 and 11 were collected from Meta data.  $K_1$  &  $K_2$ , rescaling factor were derived using above equations (1 & 2) (Rajeshwari et. al., 2014<sup>[38]</sup>).

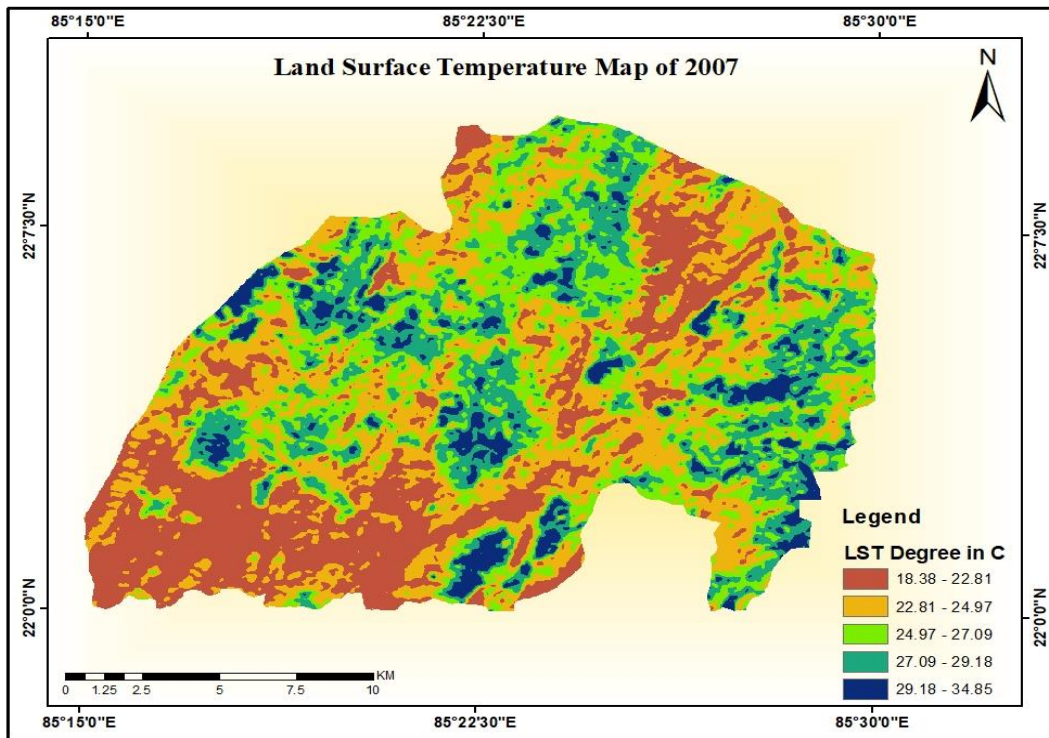


Fig.15: Land surface temperature Map for the Year 2007  
(Min Temperature 18.38 oC, Maximum Temperature 34.85 oC)

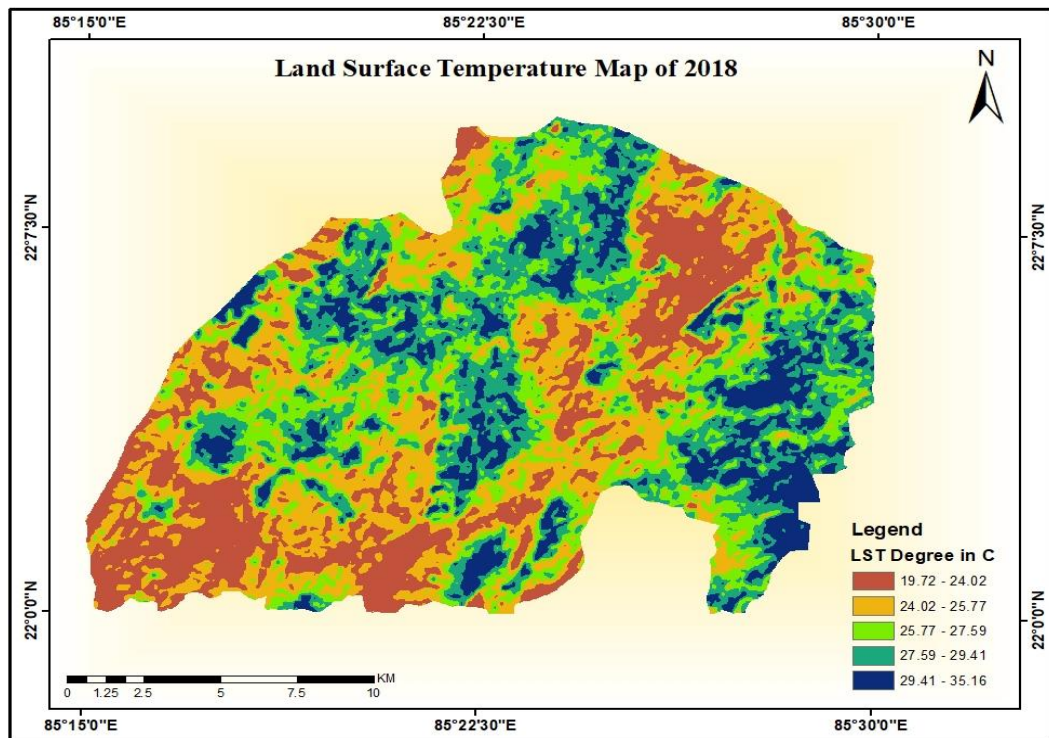


Fig 16: Land surface temperature Map for the Year 2018  
(Min Temperature 19.72 oC, Maximum Temperature 35.16 oC)

In the year 2007, the minimum Temperature 18.38 0C, maximum Temperature 34.85 0C), and during 2018 the minimum temperature 19.72 0C, and maximum Temperature 35.16 0C. The temperature of sturdy area are estimated by using the wavelength of sixth band ranging from 10.4 to 12.50µm (micrometer) of the electromagnetic spectrum. The wavelength of band 10 ranges from 10.60-11.19µm, and value for 11<sup>th</sup> band ranges from 11.50-12.51µm (**Fig 15, & Fig 16**).

Table 5: Changes in temperature in different classes of LULC (during 2007 and 2018)

Land cover	year	
	2007	2018
Class	Band 6	Band 10
Water body	19°C	22 °C
Vegetation	20 °C	22 °C
Crop land	23 °C	25 °C
Built up land	27°C	28 °C
Mining area	32°C	34 °C

The SAT is well distributed (**Fig 15, & Fig 16**), and the minimum 18.38°C, and maximum 34.85°C temperature was recorded for the Barbil mining area in the year 2007 and of 19.72°C (minimum), and maximum temperature of 35.16 °C in the year 2017 is observed (**Table 5**).

### Normalized Difference Vegetation Index

Normalized Difference Vegetation Index, the NDVI compute greenly vegetation by determining the changes between near infrared (that reflects vegetation strongly) and red light (that vegetation absorbs). NDVI always ranges from - 1 to +1. NDVI used to estimate crop yields, pasture performance, *etc.* Luxuriant flora absorbs a lion’s share of the spectra of visible light that is incident on it, and reflects a major part of the near infrared light. Unhealthy or sparse vegetation reflects light that is more visible and less near infrared light. The NDVI statistics utilizes by concentrating on the bands of the satellites, those are sensitive to vegetation data (near infrared and red). The bigger the difference point to higher vegetation.

### Estimation of NDVI

Present study, uses Landsat images of different years 2007 and 2018 for NDVI estimation. Classification for the change in forest cover, mining area, cropland and watershed ranging for a period of 11 years. The variations were examined by using three types of datasets separately and generated maps for the five classes i.e., lacustrine areas, built up land, mining area, vegetation and cropland. There had been dense forests during 2003, but the forest cover became sparse in the years 2007, and 2018, which has been under consideration for comparison **Fig 6 (A), and Fig 6B**.

.The NDVI using the visible and near infrared region can reflect the greenness, and the amount and thickness of vegetation can be obtained. Greenly vegetation absorbs major share of the visible light that hits and reflects a large portion of the NIR. Poor and sparse vegetation reflects more visible but less NIR light.

$$NDVI = \frac{NIR-RED}{NIR+RED} \text{-----Eq. (4.4)}$$

Where: NIR =Reflectance in near infrared Band, and RED=Reflectance in Red Band

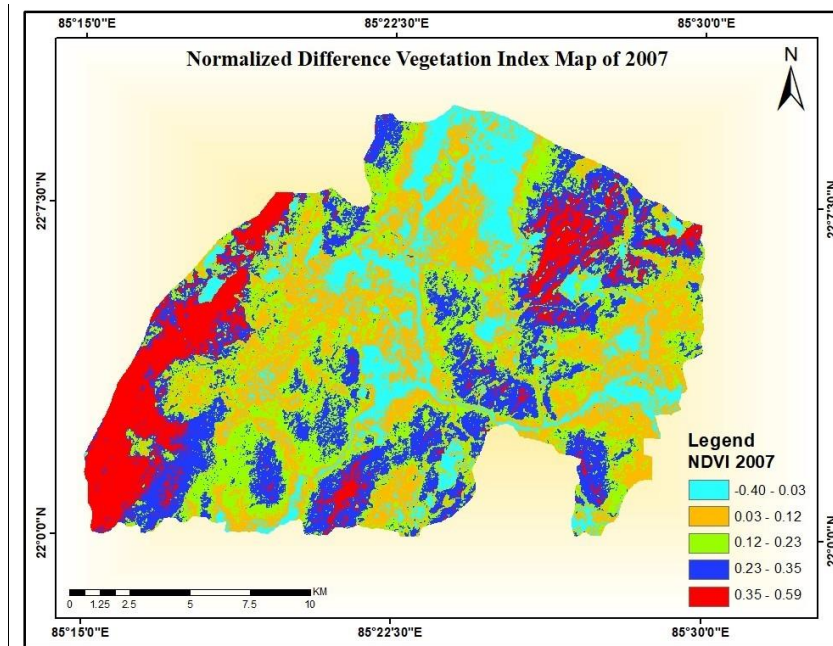


Figure.17: NDVI Map of Joda Barbil area for the Year 2007

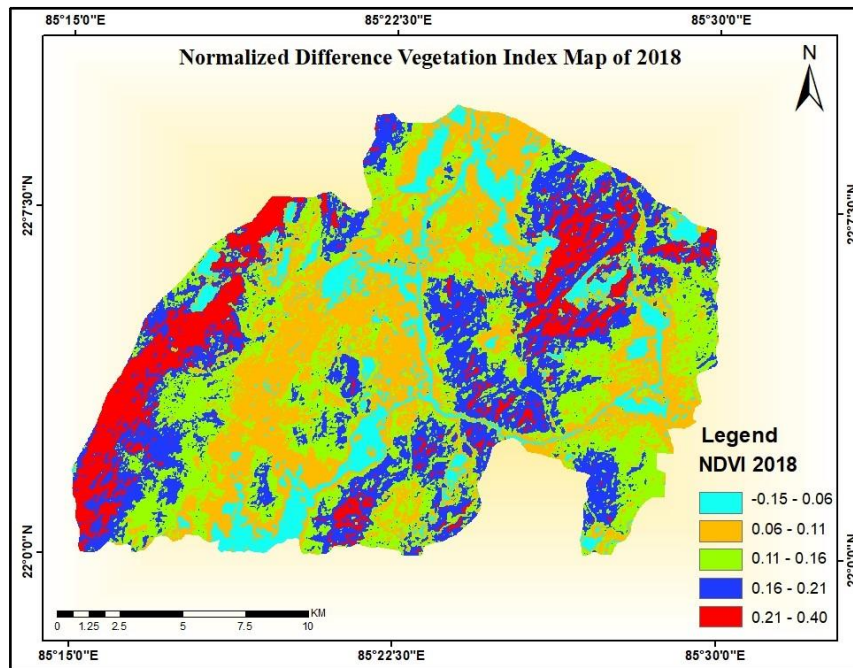


Fig 18: NDVI Map of Joda Barbil area for the Year 2018

In the present study, **Fig. 17 and Fig 18** clearly infers the NDVI variation over the Barbil watershed. The NDVI values varying between - 1 to + 1 has been segregated as - 1 to 0 (water bodies), 0.2 to 0.4(sparse open forest), and 0.4 to 0.8 (scrubs, and light vegetation), and built up area 0.8 to1 as dense vegetation. The pixels considered in the NDVI images of all class are in **(Table 6)**.

Table 6: NDVI values considered for various classes NDVI indices.

Classes	NDVI Values (-1 to +1)
Water Bodies	-1 to 0.06
Built up & light vegetation	0.06 to 0.13
Mining Area	0.16 to 0.3
Heavy vegetation	0.3 to 0.4

NDVI are helpful to differentiate the Land use and Land cover type in the area of study in order to study the co-relation with Land surface temperature variation in the selected lacustrine area. The loss of vegetation is because of increase in mining activity and increase in built up area.

#### **Co-relation between SAT and NDVI**

In the Fig 15 &16, 17, 18, clearly shows a strongly -ve correlation between SAT and NDVI within the Watershed. The SAT and greenly vegetation depends on the variations of rainfall in the rainy season of the year and the +ve correlation between NDVI and SAT found in the warm months from May to October (Sun and Means, 2007). The correlation between SAT and NDVI indicate that Barbil has turned out as drought prone area due to reduction in forest cover.

### **Discussion:**

Odisha state shares from the country's production of some minerals are Iolite, and Chromite 100%, 70.95% of Bauxite, 59.64% of Iron Ore, and 39.28% of Graphite, Manganese Ore of 18.51%, and Limestone of (1.57%) as per Annual report of Ministry mines, Government of India 2020-2021.

The sectors that mining area lagging are illegal mining which collapse the mining regulation stipulations. The Consequences are due to deficiency in Governance, failing to track basic norms and agreement with the indicators. The tendering procedure, evaluation, identification of mining volume, production figures, and clashes of interest, and accusations of corruption are the focusing factors in the mines management in the area.

Before leasing the mines, it is essential to have the environment impact assessment considering the human right and aboriginal tribes health, ecology and livelihood concerns. The portable water, ground water, irrigation and water supply to the mines area needs attention. The usual threats, violence, protests, responses, inevitable scandals in the area needs responsive action and management.

Last two to three decades there is collapse in mining sector management. There is poor operational strategies in mines, which has age-old criticisms, and complaints against corruption, lack of accountability for losses in wastes, environmental degradation, waterlogging in open cast mine pits, regular seizures, and human rights violations. It is essential to frame regulations, regular seizures, GIS application to assess volume of excavations, to have strict vigilance of existing mines, and afforestation, reforestation of degraded/lost forests in Barbil area.

The mines and minerals (development, and regulation) amendment act (1957) have superseded by the Mines and Minerals (Development and Regulation) Amendment Act, 2021 in India for judicious management of the mines and its associated natural resources. The Act can regulates the mining sector as:

- a) Removal of imposition on end-use minerals,
- b) Use/ reuse of minerals by captive mine,
- c) Auction of mineral concessions (except coal & atomic minerals) as per Govt. norms.
- d) Rights of certain existing concession holders,
- e) Allocation of mines with expired leases,
- f) Extension of leases to government companies,
- g) Conditions for lapse of mining lease, and
- h) Non-exclusive reconnaissance permit.

Strict implementation of the act, the mining areas can reduce/reuse wastes, stagnant ponds, and save the environment, (MoL&J-2021<sup>[39]</sup>).

. The effect is that the mining growth needs support by cost-benefit analysis, Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), and appropriate regulation not complying to MMDR Act, 1957 but as per Mineral Laws (Amendment) Act, 2020 *inter alia*, can maintain sustained and transparent mineral production, <https://thewire.in/environment/odisha-mining-tribals-access-to-air-water>

## **Conclusion**

The mines area management of land, forests and water resource (Surface and underground) is a growing concern worldwide. The impacts of over exploitation, illegal mining, mines area land management, trailing deposit put grave concerns and is inviting climate variation, deteriorating water quality, and quantity has developed a number of simulation models. Improving infrastructure facilities like afforestation/reforestation, water quality improvement, reuse of trailing, and saving the agriculture are the prime concern for effective mines area management.

From GIS studies for LULC of Barbil area, it is inferred that the due to excessive lease, illegal mining, and population surge there constant increase in mine area and built up areas in and around Barbil Tehsil at the cost of forests and agricultural land since 2003 onwards. The SAT and NDVI studies shows that there is average temperature rise in the area due mining activities and infrastructural development. Before leasing a mine, it is imperative to have EIA studies, provisions for non-violation of the human rights and aboriginal tribe's safety, health, ecology and livelihood concerns. The portable water, ground water, irrigation and water supply to the mines area needs attention along with strict implementation of the Mines and Minerals (Development and Regulation) Amendment Act, 2021

### **COMPETING INTERESTS DISCLAIMER:**

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist. The products used for this research are commonly and predominantly use products in our area of research and country. There is

absolutely no conflict of interest between the authors and producers of the products because we do not intend to use these products as an avenue for any litigation but for the advancement of knowledge. In addition, the producing company rather funded by personal efforts of the authors but not funded by anybody for the research.

## References:

1. Maus, V., Giljum, S., Gutschlhofer, J. et al., (2020), A global-scale data set of mining areas. *Sci Data* 7, 289, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-020-00624-w>
2. Liu, H. R., Chen, S. Q. & Li, S., (2015), Fuzzy evaluation of the impact of the open-pit limestone mining on geological environment. *Adv. Mater. Res.* 1073–1076, 454–459
3. Wang, Y., Wu, X., He, S. et al. Eco-environmental assessment model of the mining area in Gongyi, China. *Sci Rep* 11, 17549 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-96625-9>
4. Ministry of Environment Forests & Climate Change, (MoEF & CC), (2018) District survey report (DSR), of Keonjhar district, Odisha for road metal / building stone / black stone, Odisha Notification No. S.O. 3611(E) New Delhi, <https://cdn.s3waas.gov.in/s307cdfd23373b17c6b337251c22b7ea57/uploads/2020/02/2020021836.pdf>.
5. Government of India, 2012. Census India - 2011.
6. Panda S. R., Barik K. K., Mishra S. P. (2020), Watershed Management of Joda-Barbil Mining Area, Odisha, India: A Geospatial Approach. *Current Journal of Applied Science and Tech.* 39(31): 105-115, 2020; DOI: 10.9734/CJAST/2020/v39i3130995
7. Malaviya, S., Munsii, M., Oinam, G., Joshi P.K., (2010). Landscape approach for quantifying land use land cover change (1972–2006) and habitat diversity in a mining area in Central India (Bokaro, Jharkhand). *Env. Monit Assess*, 170, 215–229 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-009-1227-8>
8. Panda, G., (2014), Mining Sector and Its Impact on Odisha Economy: proper utilization of limited resources using forecasting techniques. *J. of Business & Management Sc.* 2.3: 41-45.
9. Haddaway, N.R., Cooke, S.J., Lesser, P., Macura, B., Nilsson, A. E., Taylor J., J., Raito K. (2019). Evidence of the impacts of metal mining and the effectiveness of mining mitigation measures on social–ecological systems in Arctic and boreal regions: a systematic map protocol. *Environ Evid*, <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13750-019-0152-8>
10. Hota, P., Behera B., (2015), Coal mining in Odisha: An analysis of impacts on agricultural production and human health. Elsevier, *The Extractive Industries and Society*, 2(4), 683-693, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.exis.2015.08.007>
11. Entwistle, J.A., Hursthouse, A.S., Marinho Reis, P.A., Stewart A. G., (2019). Metalliferous Mine Dust: Human Health Impacts and the Potential Determinants of Disease in Mining Communities. *Curr. Pollution Rep* 5, 67–83 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40726-019-00108-5>

12. Stewart, A.G., (2020). Mining is bad for health: a voyage of discovery. *Environ Geochem Health* 42, 1153–1165, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10653-019-00367-7>
13. Zobrist, J., Sima, M., Dogaru, D. et al., Balteanu D., (2009). Environmental and socioeconomic assessment of impacts by mining activities—a case study in the Certej River catchment, Western Carpathians, Romania. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 16, 14–26 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-008-0068-2>
14. Matthew, R. V. R., McGlynn, B. L., Bernhardt E. S., (2016), Deep impact: effects of mountaintop mining on surface topography, bedrock structure, and downstream waters. *ACS Publ. Environ. Sci. Technol.* 50(4), 2064–2074; <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.5b04532>
15. Manna, A., Maiti R., (2016). Alteration of surface water hydrology by opencast mining in the Raniganj coalfield area India, *Mine Water Environ.*, 35 (2), 156-167
16. Manna, A., Maiti R., (2018). Landscape approach for quantifying land use land cover change (1972–2006) and habitat diversity in a mining area in Central India (Bokaro, Jharkhand). *Geosc. Frontiers*, 9(5), 2018, 1577-1590, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gsf.2017.10.01>
17. Garai, D., Narayana, A.C., (2018), Land use/land cover changes in the mining area of Godavari coal fields of southern India, *The Egyptian J. of Remote Sensing and Space Sc.*, 21(3),375-381,<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejrs.2018.01.002>.
18. Khan, R., Jhariya, D.C. (2018). Assessment of Land-use and Land-cover Change and its Impact on Groundwater Quality Using Remote Sensing and GIS Techniques in Raipur City, Chhattisgarh, India. *J Geol Soc India* 92, 59–66,<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12594-018-0953-3>
19. Chang, X., Zhang F., Cong, K., Liu X., (2021). Scenario simulation of land use and land cover change in mining area. *Scientific Reports*, 11(1), DOI: 10.1038/s41598-021-92299-5
20. Punia, A., Joshi, Neelam P. K., Siddaiah, S., (2021). Characterizing Khetri copper mine environment using geospatial tools. *Springer, SN Applied Sciences*; 3(2), DOI: 10.1007/s42452-021-04183-6
21. Sengupta, S., Acharyya, S.K., DeSmeth, J.B., (1997) Geochemistry of Archaean volcanic rocks from Iron Ore Supergroup, Singhbhum, eastern India. *Proc. Indian Acad. Sci. (Earth Planet Sci.)* 106, 327, <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02843457>
22. De, S., Sarkar, B.C., Jana, A., Mukhopadhyay, J., Sinha D. K., Verma M. B., (2021). Internal Stratigraphy of the Mesoarchean Keonjhar Siliciclastics, Singhbhum Craton, Eastern India: Paleogeo-graphic Implications. *J Geol Soc India* 97, 125–132; <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12594-021-1642-1>
23. Ministry of Mines, 2020-2021, Annual report 2020=2-21, MoEF, Govt. of India, [https://mines.gov.in/writereaddata/UploadFile/Mines\\_AR\\_2017-18\\_English\\_Final%2017052021.pdf](https://mines.gov.in/writereaddata/UploadFile/Mines_AR_2017-18_English_Final%2017052021.pdf)
24. Estornell, J.,. Martí-Gavilí J. M, Sebasti M. T., Mengua J., (2013). Principal component analysis applied to remote sensing. *Modelling in Science Education and Learning* 6 (2)(7):83-89, DOI: 10.4995/msel.2013.1905
25. Erikstad, L, Bakkestuen. V., (2021), Calculating cumulative effects in GIS using a stepless multivariate model. *MethodsX*,101407, doi:10.1016/j.mex.2021.101407

26. Imran, H.M., Hossain, A., Islam, A.K.M.S. et al., Rahman, A., Bhuiyan, Md A. E., Paul, S., Alam, A. (2021). Impact of Land Cover Changes on Land Surface Temperature and Human Thermal Comfort in Dhaka City of Bangladesh. *Earth Syst Environ* 5, 667–693 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41748-021-00243-414>.
27. Government of Odisha. Barbil master plan -2030.Special Planning Authority, REPL New Delhi, 1 -304, <https://kendujhar.nic.in/document/notification-of-final-master-plan-barbil/>,
28. Behera, D. R., Sethi, K. M., (2015). Impact of mining activities in Joda and Barbil regions of Keonjhar District Orissa. Thesis submitted to Utkal University, Geography Dept., and Odisha.
29. Li X, Stringer LC, Chapman S, Dallimer M., (2021), How urbanization alters the intensity of the urban heat island in a tropical African city. *PLoS ONE* 16(7): e0254371. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0254371>
30. Guha, S., Govil, H., Mukherjee, S. (2017). Dynamic analysis and ecological evaluation of urban heat islands in Raipur city India. *Journal of Applied Remote Sensing*, 11(3), 36020. <https://doi.org/10.1117/1.JRS.11.036020>.
31. Kayet, N., Pathak, K., Chakrabarty, A., Sahoo S., (2016), Spatial impact of land use/land cover change on surface temperature distribution in Saranda Forest, Jharkhand. *Model. Earth Syst. Environ.* 2, 127, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40808-016-0159-x>
32. Connors, J.P., Galletti, C.S. & Chow, W.T.L. Landscape configuration and urban heat island effects: assessing the relationship between landscape characteristics and land surface temperature in Phoenix, Arizona. *Landscape Ecol* 28, 271–283 (2013). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10980-012-9833-1>
33. Guha, S., Govil, H., (2020). Land surface temperature and normalized difference vegetation index relationship: a seasonal study on a tropical city. *SN Appl. Sci.* 2, 1661, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42452-020-03458-8>
34. Faisal A.A., Kafy A. A., Rahman, A N M F., Rakib, A.A., Raikwar, V., et al., (2021), Assessment and prediction of seasonal land surface temperature change using multi-temporal Landsat images and their impacts on agricultural yields in Rajshahi, B-desh, *Environmental Challenges*, 4, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envc.2021.100147>.
35. Negassa, M.D., Mallie, D.T, Gemed, D.O., (2020). Forest cover change detection using Geographic Information Systems and remote sensing techniques: a spatio-temporal study on Komto Protected forest priority area, East Wollega Zone, Ethiopia. *Environ Syst Res* 9, 1 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40068-020-0163-z>
36. Choudhury D, Das K, Das A., (2019). Assessment of land use / land cover changes and its impact on variations of land surface temperature in Asansol-Durgapur development region. *Egypt J Remote Sens Space Sci* 22(2):203–218. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejrs.2018.05.004>.
37. Abulibdeh, A., (2021). Analysis of urban heat island characteristics and mitigation strategies for eight arid and semi-arid gulf region cities. *Environ Earth Sci* 80, 259, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-021-09540-7>

38. Rajeshwari A., Mani N D., (2014). Estimation of land surface temperature of Dindigul, district using Landsat 8 data, International Journal of Research in Engineering and Technology, 3(5), 122-126.
39. Ministry of Law and Justice, 2021, The mines and minerals (development and regulation) amendment act, 2021 no. 16 of 2021, Gazette of India, CG-DL-E-28032021-226207; <https://mines.gov.in/writereaddata/UploadFile/mmdr28032021.pdf>