

# URBAN DEVELOPMENT DIRECTORATE (UDD)

**Ministry of Housing and Public Works Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh**

> FINAL Report On HYDRO-GEOLOGICAL

SURVEY UNDER MIRSHARAI

UPAZILA DEVELOPMENT PLAN

(MUDP)

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# <span id="page-4-0"></span>**1. Introduction**

Water is the most important constituent of life. Every human activity requires water. The Mirashrai Upazila of Chittagong district is likely to experience rapid industrialization and urbanization in the near future as the largest economic zone in Bangladesh is proposed to be developed in this Upazila. Both industrialization and urbanization have large impacts on water as these activities increases demands of water as well as poses threat to water contamination. To characterize the current water situation, to identify suitable locations for water resources development, and to identify risk of water contamination the Urban Development Directorate (UDD) have initiated a hydrogeological investigations throughout the Upazila. 'Center for Geoservices and Research' was employed by UDD to carry out the study in the Upazila.

The aim of hydrology and hydro-geological study for the study areas of Mirshari Region is to identify the surface water body and aquifer of the region including its seasonal variation. The study is also intended to identify the availability fresh ground water, which would be required for the additional people including tourists after implementation of the project, i.e. the foundation of the economic zone. This study comprises of Hydro-geological and geophysical investigations and ground water modeling, water quality mapping, surface water distribution and its management planning by using those data.

# **1.1. Location and Accessibility**

<span id="page-4-1"></span>Mirsharai Upazila (Chittagong District) is located between 22˚39ʹ and 22˚59ʹ north latitudes and between  $91^{\circ}27'$  and  $91^{\circ}39'$  east longitudes and has an area of 482.88 km<sup>2</sup> (BBS). It is bounded by the Feni River in the North, Sitakunda upazila in the south, Chittagong hill tracts in the east, and the Sandwip Chanel in the west. Mirsharai Thana was founded in 1901 and it was turned into an Upazila in 1983. Mirsharai Upazila consists of 2 Municipality, 16 Union and 113 Mouza with a total population of 398,716 (Three Lakh Ninety Eighty Thousand Seven Hundred Sixteen).

The Upazila is located at a distance of 192.2 km from Dhaka. It can be accessed by both train and bus from the capital city Dhaka. Both mode of transport takes about 4 and half hours to reach there. 4.5 hours long bus journey. It can also be accessed from the Chittagong Divisional headquarters which is located about 56 km to the south of the Upazila and takes 1.5 hour travel by either bus or train. The Bangladesh Road Transport Corporation introduced a direct bus service from Dhaka to Mirsharai via Comilla (Source: Bangalapedia, 2012)

Mirsharai, the combination of lake and hilly area contains attractive scenic beauty on the southeastern part of Bangladesh. The most important attraction of the upazila is that one can travel Mohamaya Chara Lake by speed boat and explore hilly area and can enjoy Khoyachora, Baghbani, Napitachora, Sonaichora, Mithachora and Boyalia waterfalls.



*Figure 1: Map Showing Location and Accessibility (Source: LGED)*

# **1.2. Topography and Relief**

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Topographically the Upazila contains both hilly areas and plain lands. Approximately, one half of the Upazila lies in the low lying hills of the Chittagong hill tracts in the east. The hilly region has high relief and is sparsely populated. The highest elevation in the hills is about a100 m and the lowest elevation in the hills is about 30 m. The western half of the area is plain lands with an average elevation of only about 5 m above mean sea level. This area is heavily populated. Numerous small streams crossed the hilly region and flows towards Sandwip Channel across the plain land (Figure 1).

# <span id="page-6-1"></span>**2. Methodology**

This study utilizes both field and laboratory procedures to assess the hydrological and hydrogeological conditions of the study area. Field study includes- a) drilling of boreholes at 5 locations for lithological sample collection for laboratory analysis as well as installation of monitoring wells, b) electrical resistivity survey, c) water quality survey including field measurement of important water quality parameters as well as sample collection for laboratory analysis, d) measurement of the depth to groundwater levels, and d) slug test to determine aquifer properties. Details of each of the above mentioned field activities are discussed in the subsequent sections.

# <span id="page-6-2"></span>**2.1. Field Investigations**

# *2.1.1. Drilling and Installation of Monitoring Wells*

<span id="page-6-3"></span>A total of 5 boreholes were drilled at different locations within the study area (Figure-2 and Table-1) for direct assessment of subsurface geological conditions with depth and space as well as to install wells to monitor groundwater level and water quality. Locations of the boreholes/monitoring wells were chosen carefully to ensure their distribution throughout the Upazila and to maximize the data coverage.



*Table 1: Details of the boreholes and monitoring wells.*

Reverse circulation conventional drilling method was used in drilling the monitoring wells (Figure 3). Subsurface Geological variations with depth were recorded at each drilling locations during the time of the drilling by investigating the drilling cuttings at a regular interval of 3.0 m. The information was then recorded using a standard data recording format in Appendix-I. Additionally, the drilling cuttings were sampled at every 3.0 m and approximately 500 gm (Figure 3) of sample from each depth points were preserved in a polybag for transporting to a lab for grain size analysis.



*Figure 2: Digital Elevation Model of the study area (Source:UDD) along with the locations of the monitoring wells and drilling sites.*

Monitoring well was installed at each borehole site. After careful investigation of the drillers log prepared during the drilling, a suitable aquifer zone was chosen at each site for well screen. At each location, 9.0 m long screen with 1.5 inches diameter were installed.



*Figure 3: Monitoring well drilling and Wash samples.*

The borehole depth interval between the top of the screen to the land surface was cased using 1.5 inches PVC pipe except in two locations. The exceptions were in areas where the water table was relatively deeper than other areas. In these locations 40.0 m long and 3 inches diameter housing was installed (Figure 4). After installation of a monitoring well it was washed properly following standard procedure. The standard lithological log is attached in Appendix-I.



*Figure 4: Established Monitoring well with 3 Inches Housing Pipe.*

# *2.1.2. Electrical Resistivity Survey*

<span id="page-10-0"></span>**Vertical Electrical Sounding (VES)** is by far the most used method for geo-electric surveying, because it is one of the cheapest geophysical method and it gives very good results in many area of interest.

The field measurements technique is adjustable for the different topographic conditions and the interpretation of the data can be done with specialized software, with a primary interpretation immediately after the measurements. The results of **VES**  measurements can be interpreted qualitatively as well as quantitatively.

The principle of this method is to insert a electric current, of known intensity, through the ground with the help of two electrodes (power electrodes – AB) and measuring the electric potential difference with another two electrodes (measuring electrodes – MN) (Figure-5). The investigation depth is proportional with the distance between the power electrodes.



*Figure 5: Schulumberger array of VES.*

Since direct investigation of the surface geology by drilling boreholes is costly and usually done in widely distributed locations, the information gap in-between drill sites is usually fulfilled using various geophysical surveys. In this study vertical electrical sounding

(VES) method was used to deduce the subsurface lithological/hydrogeological variation with depth at a number of locations distributed all over the study area (Figure 6).



*Figure 6: Vertical Electrical Sounding Locations in the project area.*



*Figure 7: Sounding Curve VES 20 and the respective subsurface geo-electric model (Left), layer resistivity, thickness and depth to the right.*



*Table 2: Interpreted result for VES-20 obtained from geo-electric model*

Raw data from field for VES, Sounding Curves and subsurface geo-electrical model as well as interpretation from geo-electrical model of rest of the VES are given in Appendix-II.



*Figure 8: Resistivity Survey (VES) in Presence of UDD personnel and Local Pouroshova Commissioner.*

# *2.1.3. Water Quality Survey and Sampling*

<span id="page-13-0"></span>A number of field parameters were measured in the field using field kits and handheld filed instrument at more than 76 locations including shallow and deep wells in the study area (Figure 9). At every location, at least two wells, one at depth shallower than 100 m and the other at depth deeper than 100.0 m were surveyed.



*Figure 9: Water sampling and testing location map*



*Figure 10: Water Sampling and Field Tests of Arsenic, EC, PH, EH, Temperature etc.*

Water samples were also collected from these wells for detail chemical analysis in the laboratory. For each well, two samples each 125 ml and one acidified, was collected in plastic bottles. Each well was purged for at least 10 minutes before field measurements and sampling. The field parameters measured using handheld meters include- pH, Eh, EC, and Temperature. Arsenic was measured in the field using Econo-Quick<sup>™</sup> Field kit. Details of the field data are given in Appendix-III.

# *2.1.4. Groundwater Level Survey*

<span id="page-15-0"></span>Depth to groundwater was measured in the filed using the Kaizen Imperial<sup>TM</sup> level meter at each of the water sampling locations (Figure 9). Like the water sampling, water level was measured in both a shallow and a deep well at every location except when the pair was

not available. The depth to water data collected from the field was later converted to groundwater level with the help of the DEM supplied by UDD.



*Figure 11: Water Level data collection in various location in Field.*

# *2.1.5. Slug Test*

<span id="page-16-0"></span>Slug test was carried out in 22 locations almost uniformly distributed within the Upazila (Figure 10). During the test procedure a slug (2.0 m long iron rod of 0.75 inches diameter) was rapidly lowered in the well (after removing well head) (Figure 11). The slug displaces water in the well equal to its volume and caused the water level in the well to rise almost instantaneously and decays to its original position with time. Time required for the water level to reach its original position provides estimates of hydraulic conductivity of the aquifer zone surrounding the screen. An automatic water level logger was kept in the well before the slug was lowered. The logger recorded the changes of water level in the well with time. (Figure 12 & 13). The interpretation of slug test is given in Appendix-IV.



*Figure 12: Map showing the locations where slug tests were carried out in the field. Most of the location has a pair of a deep and a shallow wells. Not all data have been analyzed yet, data points are highlighted for which hydraulic conductivity has be*



*Figure 13: Slug Test in field.*

The Hvorslev equation (1) was used to analyze the slug test data for wells with overdamped response (Figure 14). A few wells showed underdamped response (Figure 15), slug test data for these wells were analyzed using Bouwer and Rice equation (2).



*Figure 14: Overdamped Response.*



*Figure 15: Underdamped Response.*

Hvorslev Equation (1):

$$
K = \frac{{r_c}^2 \cdot \ln\left(\frac{L_e}{r_w}\right)}{2 \cdot L_e \cdot t_0}
$$

where  $r_c$  is the radius of the well casing (m),  $L_e$  is the length of the well screen (m),  $r_w$  is the radius of the well screen (m),  $t_0$  (s) is the basic time lag and the time value (t) is derived from a plot of field data. Generally,  $t_{37}$  (s) is used, which is the time when the water level rises or falls to 37% of the initial hydraulic head  $H_0$  (m), the maximum difference respect the static level

Bouwer and Rice (1976) Equation (2):

$$
K = \frac{{r_c}^2 \cdot \ln\left(\frac{R_e}{r_w}\right)}{2L_e} \cdot \frac{1}{t} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{H_0}{H}\right)
$$

where  $R_e$  is the radius of influence (m), and t is the time since  $H=H_0$ .

Using the results from an electric analog model, Bouwer and Rice obtained two empirical formulas relating  $ln(R_e/r_w)$  to the geometry of an aquifer system, the first for  $L_w > B$  and the second for  $L_w < B$ , where B is the formation thickness (m) and  $L_w$  is the static water column height (m).



*Figure 16: Slug Test Operative Method.*

# <span id="page-20-0"></span>*2.1.6. Identification of Surface Water body, Flash Flood zoning and mitigation approach*

# *2.1.6.1. Catchment area and Prospective Artificial Reservoir*

A 10 m resolution DEM supplied by the client was used to construct a drainage map of the Mirasharai Upazila. Using the drainage map and topography prospective surface water reservoirs were delineated. It should be noted that this part of the study was beyond the scope of the ToR. The quality of the final output prepared largely depends on the quality of the supplied DEM.

# *2.1.6.2. Flash Flood Zoning and Mitigation*

Flash floods are one of the most common types of natural disasters that can be caused by many different naturally-occurring events such as thunderstorms, hurricanes, tidal waves and melting ice or snow. Among the negative effects great extent of damage that can be cause to man-made structures. The occurrence of this catastrophic phenomenon is directly related to population pressures which is the climate change and the environmental impact of human activity.

In Mirsharai, flood events occur mostly in small - to medium-sized catchments drained by ephemeral water courses. Usually, disasters, in these flash flood prone basins, are mainly caused by high- intensity rainfall falling over a short period of time. Several regions in Mirsharai suffer from frequent and extreme flood that is a phenomenon generally caused by intense rainstorms.

The drainage basins in Mirsharai are relatively small with moderate to steep slopes in hilly part and gentle slope in the plain land. These systems become particularly active during extreme rain events and this may be a source of significant damage to human infrastructure. Despite the importance of these floods, the hydrological analysis of catchments in Mirsharai has been especially difficult due to the lack of precipitation discharge gauges and soil property data. Generally, Flash floods in this area are linked to storming events, but there are additional factors that can intensify flooding such as the pattern of the drainage network, the morphology of the catchment and the human interventions.

It has been shown that a catchment's morphometric variables control its hydrologic response. Understanding a basin's response to extreme rainfall based on geomorphological indices can be valuable when studying flood hazard in catchments.

The objective of the study is to present the risk zoning for Flash flood events of the area, prefecture and to model surface runoff by creating a system based on GIS technology. Particularly, a unit hydrograph is constructed for the excess rainfall by estimating the stream flow response at the outlets of the existing sub-basins extracted from the UDD provided 10 m DEM prepared from high resolution (50 cm) stereo-pair satellite image.

The model is based on raster data structures. Grids such as elevation, land use, soil type, are used to describe spatially distributed soil parameters. Moreover, hydrologic features of

each grid, like slope, flow accumulation, flow direction and flow length were calculated using standard function included in GIS.

### *Methodology and Data Set:*

#### *Data Set:*

The topography of the land surface is one of the most fundamental geophysical measurements of the Earth, and it is a dominant controlling factor in virtually all physical processes that occur on the land surface. Consequently, topographic information was the most important data used at the current study. This information was provided by the Client (UDD) came with 10m DEM prepared from high resolution (50 cm) stereo-pair satellite image from Digital Globe (Figure-19). The particular geomorphological and morphological characteristics such as slope map, flow direc- tion, flow accumulation and flow length layers as well as hydrological basins and the drainage net- work were estimated for the study area. ArcGIS version 10.4.1 and especially spatial analysis exten- sion contributed to this procedure.

Another layer that was important for the study purpose was the land cover map. This map was derived from the Sentinel-2A satellite image dated 17 January 2018 with spatial resolution 10 m and spectral resolution 13 band (used Band 2, 3 and 8).

Finally, geological data of year 2001 from Geological Survey of Bangladesh (GSB), Soil Map data of year 1997 were also used for the study's purposes. They have been collected from Soil Research Development Institute (SRDI), Bangladesh.

All these derived maps were used for the construction of the runoff model for the flood event that was described previously. Consequently, the collection of the meteorological data, which have been provided from Bangladesh Meteorological Department (BMD) was an important part of the study. These data refer to Sitakund station which is the nearest station to the selected basin.

# *Method:*

All the basic steps that were needed for the study are illustrated in Figure 18. The most important steps in order to simulate the real rainfall event were the calculation of the traveltime layer which indicates the time needed for the water to reach the outlet of the basin, as well as the extraction of the isochrones map which are lines of equal travel time to the outlet of basin. Subsequently, a routing model which combines all the above maps was created in GIS environment. The estimation of the direct runoff at the outlet of the

catchment was produced by assuming that the extreme rainfall event was a phenomenon with a spatially homogeneous distribution.





*<sup>(</sup>w =the weight of each flood causative factor). Figure 18: Methodology for flood hazard mapping (Modified after Ismail Elkhrachy, 2015)*

If the rainfall intensity exceeds the evaporation rate and infiltration capacity of the soil, surface runoff occurs as a flash flood. It also occurs when rainfall falls on impervious surfaces, such as roadways and other paved areas. There are many factors affecting flood hazard identification and modeling, varying from one study area to another. For instance

urban flood modeling is extremely complex due to interactions with various man-made structures such as buildings, roads, culverts, channels, tunnels, and underground structures. A composite flood hazard index based on seven causal factors is used during this work. These factors, which are listed here, have been elected based on different case studies with similar characteristics (Eimers et al., 2000; Yalcin and Akyurek, 2004; Pramojanee et al., 2001; El Morjani, 2011; Pedzisai, 2010 and Ho et al., 2010, Ismail Elkhrachy, 2015 ).

- 1. **Run off:** The likelihood of a flood increases as the amount of rain at a location increases. Higher pre- cipitation intensity can result in more runoff because the ground cannot absorb the water quickly enough.
- 2. **Soil Influences:** Soil type and texture are very important factors in determining the water holding and infiltration characteristics of an area and consequently affect flood sus- ceptibility. Some soil types can cause very rapid runoff even in dry conditions. As a general rule, runoff from intense rainfall is likely to be more rapid and greater with clay soils than with sand.
- 3. **Surface slope:** Land surface slope is one of the effective ele- ments in floods. The danger from flash flood increases as the surface slope increases. It is a reliable indicator for flood susceptibility. When river slope increases then the flow velocity in the river also will increase.
- 4. **Surface roughness:** Surface roughness in terms of hydrody- namic friction is an essential input for flash flood simula- tion (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 2010). From Manning's which are empirical values. Reducing channel roughness results in faster stream flow velocities and less infiltration.
- 5. **Drainage density:** Drainage density is the length of all chan- nels within the basin divided by the area of the basin. If the drainage network is dense at any area, it will be a good indi- cator to high flow accumulation path and more likely to get flooded.
- 6. **Distance to main channel:** Areas located close to the main channel and flow accumulation path are more likely to get flooded.
- 7. **Land cover:** This describes the appearance of the landscape and is generally classified by the amount and type of vegetation, which is a reflection of its use, environment, cultivation and seasonal phenology. Land cover is other essential influences on runoff (Alexakis et al., 2014).

Channel depth and river bed characteristic is an important factor in hydrodynamic modeling. For example, when the discharge of a river increases, the channel may become completely full. Any discharge above this level will result in the river over- flowing its banks and causing a flood. But vertical resolution for used DEMs is not enough to get an accurate cross section information for delineated streams or Drainage Rivers. The sequences of operations are schematically shown in Figure-20 and can be summarized as following:

- a. Georeferencing the satellite imagery and registering of the result to the UTM coordinate system zone 46 doing unsupervised classification for the study area, converting physical feature information to raster file.
- b. Calculating surface slope from DEM. Slope means the maximum rate of change from every cell to its neighbors.
- c. Calculating drainage density from draining network and basin information.
- d. Extracting main channel from draining network (which has maximum stream order) followed by calculating perpendicular distance from zone centroid to main channel.
- e. Preparing model file by Arc Hydro and HEC-GeoHMS tools and computing hydrologic parameters by HEC-HMS software.
- f. Integrating all data in a GIS environment using the Analytical Hierarchical Process (AHP) method to calculate flood hazard map.

Figures show some of data layers used in the analysis. Each is depicted in a stretch color scale, where black represents the highest values and white the lowest values. ArcMap 10.4.1 was used to execute the above steps for both DEM and Sentinel-2A images to extract drainage flow net and LU/LC in the study area. The flow networks and basin boundaries were then vectored. The basin characteristics and the morphometric parameters were calculated from 10m DEM.

# <span id="page-26-0"></span>**2.2. Laboratory Analysis**

# *2.2.1. Grain Size Analysis*

<span id="page-26-1"></span>Lithologic samples collected from the monitoring wells were sorted and depending on the lithological variability samples from each aquifer unit was selected for grain size analysis.

Grain size analysis includes oven drying the samples and then sieving through various mesh sizes and calculation of weight percentage for different size fraction (Figure 19). Grain size data was later used in calculation of hydraulic conductivity of the aquifer unit using empirical formula.

In 1893, Hazen published his formula for estimating hydraulic conductivity:

 $K = C_H x D_{10}^2$ 

 $K = Hydraulic conductivity [m/s]$ 

 $C_H$  = Empirical constant, in this study set to 0.01157 [-]

 $d_{10}$  = The particle size for which 10% of the material is finer [mm]

The Hydraulic Conductivity obtained from the grain size analysis of the samples from monitoring wells are attached in Appendix-V.



*Figure 19: Grain size Analysis in Laboratory*

# *2.2.2. Water Quality Analysis*

<span id="page-27-0"></span>Water samples collected from the field were brought to the laboratory for detail chemical analysis. Chemical analysis includes determination of the concentration of major ions and trace elements. All the samples were tested in the laboratory. The water quality data

are given in Appendix-VI. List of chemical species and analytical methods are given in Table -3.



*Table 3: List of chemical species and analytical methods*

#### **2.3. Groundwater Modeling**

<span id="page-28-0"></span>A three dimensional groundwater flow model has been developed using the USGS finite difference flow code MODFLOW. The model consists of 345 rows and 210 columns, each 100 m in length and width, respectively, resulting in a total number of 72450 cells per layer (Figure 20). There are a total of 6 layers in the model representing three aquifers, two aquitards, and a thin low permeability layers at the top. Thickness and depth of each layer varies from place to place as depicted from the 3D lithological modelling.



*Figure 20: Groundwater Model Setup and discritization*

The left boundary of the model is represented by constant head in response to the presence of the Feni River in the North West, and the Sandwip Channel in the West, South West. Head along the Feni River is approximated to be decreasing from north to south following the same gradient as the land surface elevation along the river. Head for the Sandwip channel is considered to be zero since this is located very close to the sea. The southern boundary of the model is represented by another constant head boundary; the head value along this boundary is based on the head measurement from the field. The eastern part of the study area is bounded by hills; therefore, it was represented by a no-flow boundary condition in the model. At the bottom of aquifer three there is a clay layer ubiquitously present in the study area, therefore, the bottom boundary of the model also represented by a no-flow boundary. The top boundary was approximated using a constant value of recharge along with a drain allowing the model to accept as much recharge as required and reject the access recharge water through the drains. This trick was applied in the modelling because field estimation of groundwater recharge is difficult and never gives a reliable estimate. The model was run in steady state condition.



*Figure 21: Model layers and their hydraulic conductivities*

Hydraulic conductivity values that were estimated from slug test and grain size analysis for different aquifer layers were assigned in the model. It should be noted that the hydraulic conductivity is scale dependant, meaning its value depends on the scale of measurement. Usually, small scale measurements tend to underestimate it. Both slug test and grain size analysis provides estimate on a scale of cm to m, therefore, the estimated values are the lower estimate (Table: 4). The modelling began with the exact value of the field estimated average value of hydraulic conductivity for each layer and later these parameters were adjusted to obtain a match of the simulated head data to the observed head data. It should be noted that the observed head data is highly affected by the topography and elevation of the well head, due to poor data on topography the exact match between the simulated head and the observed head is not possible. Therefore, emphasis was given to match the overall trend in flow direction and the ranges of head values between the observation and model simulation.

# *2.3.1. Calculation of Pumping Rate*

<span id="page-31-0"></span>There are rarely any data quantify the exact amount of groundwater withdrawal anywhere in Bangladesh. However, there are ways to get some estimates of water demand/withdrawal based on population in an area. Michel and Voss  $(2009)^1$  considered 50 litre of water consumption per person per day in rural settings in Bangladesh, while Khan et al.  $(2016)^2$  found that the per capita water consumption in urban settings increases by a factor of about 4 times increment of pumping for various future scenario was calculated based on the total union population every five years.

# <span id="page-31-1"></span>*2.3.2. Model Scenarios*

Three different future scenarios has been tested using model. They are as follows-

# *2.3.2.1. Business as usual*

Under this scenario a population growth rate of 0.77% per year has been considered. Using this population growth rate total union wise population at every 5 years interval was calculated for the next 20 years.

# *2.3.2.2. High population growth rate in rural and urban setting*

If the proposed Economic Zone is established in the study region there is likely to be a high influx of population in near future. However, it is difficult to predict the temporal and spatial trend in the population growth rate in the study area. UDD expect that there will be a total of 5 million people in the study area after 20 years from now, which is a 10 fold increase of the current population is requiring a growth rate of about 13% per year. Of course, the population growth in various unions won't be uniform; some union will have very high population growth while some other will have low to moderate growth. Also, the growth may not be uniform with time; some years might have flux of population while the other might not. In the study however, we have assumed uniform growth in space and time. This assumption may not be accurate but it will provide insights about the likely drawdown caused by future pumping.

Total annual pumping rate was calculated considering both rural and urban settings. For rural settings 50 liter/person/day was considered and for urban settings 200 liter/person/day was considered.

Only domestic pumping was considered in the modeling, future industrial and irrigation pumping was not considered as there are no data about those.

# <span id="page-32-1"></span><span id="page-32-0"></span>**3. Result**

### **3.1. Groundwater Resources**

#### *3.1.1. Aquifer Framework*

<span id="page-32-2"></span>Aquifer framework in the study are has been delineated based on the interpreted VES data, borehole logs from the five monitoring wells, and additional 4 borehole logs from the Department of Public Health Engineering (DPHE) located in the study area. At ecah location of borehole and VES, lithological data has been grouped into layers of aquifers and aquitards based on lithological characteristics and similarities. Available data indicate that there are three aquifers present in the study area separated by two aquitards. The depth and thickness of each aquifer varies considerably from place to place.



*Figure 22: Isopach map of the shallow (1st) aquifer*

The shallowest aquifer occurs at the surface and extends down to a depth of 20 to 45 m. The thickness of this aquifer is greatest towards the south and east towards the north and north west (Figure 22). Except the central part of the study area, the aquifer is exposed all over the study area below a very thin soil layer. In the central part of the study area the aquifer lies beneath a 5-7 m thick clay layer.



*Figure 23: Isopach map of the second (intermediate) aquifer.*

The second aquifer is 25 to 85 m thick and is separated from the first aquifer by an aquitard of variable thickness. The second aquifer is thickest in the west and thinnest in the south. In the north the aquitard is absent and both the first and second aquifers are connected. The aquitard separating the first and shallow aquifers are thickest in the south, about 50 m and absent in the north (Figure 23).



*Figure 24: Cross section showing the vertical distribution of aquifer and aquitards in the study area*



*Figure 25: Fence diagram showing aquifer framework in the study area*

The third or deep aquifer occurs around 100 m depth in the north and below 150m depth in the south. The aquifer is thinnest in the south and south east (20 m) and thickest in the north and North West (80 to 120m) (Figure 24). It is separated from the second aquifer by a 30-50 m thick aquitard in the south but connected with the second aquifer in the north (Figure 24 and 25). The thickness of the In fact, in the north the distinction between first, second, and third, aquifer is somewhat arbitrary as all these aquifers are connected to make only a single and very thick aquifer.



*Figure 26: Isopach map of the deep aquifer*

A three dimensional model of the aquifer architecture is produced using Rockworks software (Figure 27). This aquifer architecture provide the basic framework for the groundwater model. Layers shown in this model are included in the groundwater flow model. Hydraulic conductivity of each layer is estimated based on the interpretation of the slug test data and empirical equation derived estimate based on the grain size data. Hydraulic conductivity values for each layer are summarized in Table-4.


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*Figure 27: 3D model of aquifer architecture*

	Method									
			Slug Test		Grain Size Analysis					
Aquifer No.	No. of		$K \left[ m/d \right]$		No. of	$K \left[ m/d \right]$				
	Data	Average	Min.	Max.	Data	Average	Min.	Max.		
Aquifer-1	5	6.61	0.87	9.3	33	5.82	1.6	19		
Aquifer-2	<b>Nill</b>				34	4.6	0.5	22		
Aquifer-3	6	4.75	1	8.45	32	1.15	0.5	4.2		

*Table 4: Hydraulic properties derived from Grain Size analysis.*

#### *3.1.2. Groundwater Flow Direction*

Groundwater flow direction was determined based on the field measurement of depth to groundwater level. The depth data was later converted to groundwater elevation based on the DSM supplied by UDD.

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*Figure 28: Groundwater level contour in the study area of the shallow aquifer and deep aquifer.*

Figure-28 shows the groundwater level for both the shallow and deep aquifer. Groundwater level in the shallow aquifer varies between 4 m and 6 m. Though the data are very patchy, some regional trend in flow direction can be deduced from the figure. Generally, head is higher in the north and northeast and then that in the south and southwest. Groundwater flows from the north-northeast to south-southwest direction. The patchiness in the data is most likely due to inaccurate topography data together with uncertainties in the platform height of the wells. Groundwater level data for the deep aquifer is comparatively more coherent than the shallow data. There is a strong trend in groundwater level, groundwater flows from NNE to SSW direction.

It is worth noting that artesian flow has been observed in the field in the extreme north corner of the study area (Figure-24). Only the deep  $(>250 \text{ m}$  deep) aquifer in that location flows automatically with an approximate head of 5 m above the land surface.



*Figure 29: Artesian well the north-eastern part of the Project area.*

## *3.1.3. Groundwater Quality*

#### *3.1.3.1. Major ions*

Water chemistry data was analysed in the lab in the department of geology university of Dhaka using spectrophotometry. All the water samples were grouped in to shallow and deep aquifer samples and the analysed samples were plotted in piper diagram for both groups (Figure-30). Figure 30 shows that the water of the shallow aquifer ranges from  $MgCO<sub>3</sub>$ -HCO<sub>3</sub> type to NaCl type. The MgCO3-HCO3 water type is found in the north and usually indicates recently recharges water, while the NaCl type water is found in the south indicating seawater intrusion. In the central part of the study area water samples indicate mixing between these two end members.

In contrast to the shallow aquifer, water of the deep aquifer is mostly  $Ca-K-Mg-CO<sub>3</sub>$ -HCO3 indicating unaffected by seawater intrusion. However, the line extending from Na/K towards Mg indicates ion exchange within the aquifer, which is a common natural phenomena and indicating longer residence time of water.



a) Shallow/First aquifer

*Figure 30: Piper diagram showing the major ion chemistry of a) shallow aquifer sample, and b) deep aquifer water samples.*

#### *3.1.3.2. Salinity/Electrical Conductivity*

Electrical conductivity (EC) in groundwater is a measure of salinity and can indicate seawater intrusion or similar phenomenon. The EC in the shallow aquifer varies between 500 μS in the north to more than 8000 μS in the south and south west near the Sandwip Chanel. While, the groundwater in the deep aquifer is very fresh throughout the region with maximum EC value of 900 μS encountered in the extreme south. The EC value is

exceptionally low  $\langle 200 \mu S \rangle$  for both the shallow and deep aquifers in the northern tip of the study area.

The brackish water zone in the shallow aquifer is also picked clearly by the VES data (Figure 31). The lowest resistivity value is found between 20-50 m depth intervals in the resistivity pseudo profile, indicating the depth interval where the brackish water occurs. The low value below this depth is due to the influence of low resistivity at this depth and is not due to the presence of brackish water. Both the resistivity profile and EC contour indicate that only the shallow aquifer contains brackish water in the south, the second and third (deep) aquifer contain fresh water and can be used for drinking purpose.



*Figure 31: Map showing the spatial variability of electrical conductivity in the (a) shallow and (b) deep aquifer, respectively.*



*Figure 32: Resistivity pseudo section in north (VES-1) to south (VES-13) direction showing the extent of the brackish water in the shallow aquifer. For location of VES see Figure-6.*

The EC contour at the shallow aquifer align perfectly with the orientation of the Sandwip channel, indicating that the channel is well connected with the shallow aquifer in this region resulting in the intrusion of saline water from the channel to the shallow aquifer.

#### *3.1.3.3. Arsenic*

Field kit measured arsenic concentrations in a number of wells distributed within the study area are shown in Figure-26. Field kit data suggest that the shallow aquifer is heavily contaminated with elevated arsenic concentration throughout the Upazila except in the extreme northern corner. However, the deep aquifer is largely low in arsenic concentration except one or two locations. In these locations it is highly likely that the sampled wells are actually shallower than reported, depth verification is required before making any conclusion on the arsenic contamination of the deep aquifer in the study area. Moreover, field kits only provide indication of the likelihood of contaminated wells. Without laboratory analysis confirmation about the arsenic status for the deep aquifer where only a few samples show marginally high concentration would not be accurate.



*Figure 33: Arsenic distribution of Shallow and Deep Aquifer of the project area.*

#### *3.1.1. Groundwater Recharge Areas*

Some preliminary assumptions about the groundwater recharge locations in the study area can be made based on the field observations. Groundwater level is the most important dataset delineating recharge zone, however, because of the erratic nature of the groundwater level data of the shallow aquifer it is really difficult to conclude anything based on groundwater level data for the shallow aquifer. However, the EC map provides a nice indication of the groundwater recharge areas as well as groundwater flow direction for the shallow aquifer. In recharge areas, the EC values are expected to be exceptionally low, and an increasing trend in EC from recharge areas towards discharge area is expected. Figure 23 (EC map) clearly suggests that the shallow aquifer receives most of its recharge in the northern

part of the study area. This assumption is also supported by the arsenic concentration data. High arsenic is expected in old reduced water while there should be little or no arsenic in newly recharged oxidized water. The arsenic map of the shallow aquifer suggests that the northern part of the study area have very low arsenic concentration.

The groundwater level map of the deep aquifer readily indicates the location of the recharge area. It is also located in the north. Presence of artesian flow in some areas also indicates that some part of the deep aquifer must be exposed in the hills in the north where they receive bulk of the recharge.

The above discussed assumption has been verified using the groundwater model and found to be largely supported by the model. Figure 34 shows the distribution of model simulated recharge rate in the study area. The high recharge rate in the north is readily evident. However, the figure also indicates high recharge rate along the western boundary near the rivers and along the elevated eastern boundary. The high recharge rates along the western boundary is due to its location near a river, water infiltrates in to the shallow subsurface and quickly discharges off in to the nearby river. These recharges do not penetrate deeper in to the aquifer. Similarly, due to the presence of thick aquitard below the shallow aquifer along the eastern boundary, recharge along this elevated areas only add water to the shallow aquifer. In contrast, since all three aquifers are connected in the north and there is now aquitard present in between them, recharge in this region adds water to all three aquifers. The deep aquifer which provides suitable drinking water throughout the upazila is primarily recharged in the north. Additionally, the deep aquifer could also be recharged regionally in areas farther north. Flow in to the deep aquifer from the constant head boundary in the northwest would indicate this.



*Figure 34: Model simulated recharge rate in the study area*

## **3.2. Surface Water Resources and Flash Flood zoning and mitigation approach**

#### *3.2.1. Prospect of surface water reservoir*

The eastern part of the Upazila is hilly and demarcated from the plain land in the west by a sharp boundary, which is most likely a fault. Numerous streams, locally known as chharas, originate in the hill and flows towards west and joins larger rivers/channels in the plain lands. Analysis of digital elevation model (DEM) reveals that in addition to the existing Mahamaya lake a total of four other artificial reservoir can be made in the hills (Figure 18). Two of the prospects are located north of the Mahamaya lake, and the remaining two located at the south. The northern two are larger in size than the southern two. Estimated maximum of reserve of these four reservoir together would be 52.42 million m3/year. The largest reserve can be made in Prospect-2, followed by prospect-1, prospect-3. The smallest reservoir is the prospect-4. Water reserve in individual prospect is shown in Table-5.

Water reserve calculation										
ID	Sq. km	Sa. mile			Annual Water Reserve in ft <sup>3</sup>   Annual Water Reserve in mft <sup>3</sup>   Annual Water Reserve in mm <sup>3</sup>					
Reservoir-1	4.87	1.88031674	646799211.3	646.7992113	18.31528391					
Reservoir-2	5.31	2.05020162	705236922.3	705.2369223	19.97005288					
Mohamaya Project	10.53	4.06565406	1398520676	1398.520676	39.60163029					
Reservoir-3	2.65	1.0231703	351954396.3	351.9543963	9.966222248					
Reservoir-4	1.11	0.42857322	147422407.5	147.4224075	4.174530829					
	92.02772016									

*Table 5: Proposed artificial and existing reservoirs reserve calculation*



*Figure 35: Prospective artificial reservoir locations*

#### *3.2.2. Flash Flood Zonation*

In Mirsharai Upazila Main River is Feni; Sandwip Channel is notable; Canal is about 30 nos, most noted of which are Feni Nadi, Isakhali, Mahamaya, Domkhali, Hinguli, Molisaish, Koila Govania and Mayani Khal. All the rivers, khals, and canals are coming from eastern hilly region and falling in Bay of Bengal. In the high tide, sea water enters into the canal and goes back into sea in low tide time. Besides, these notable large rivers there are numerous small streams and channels criss-cross the Upazila (Figure 36). Based on the drainage distribution five (5) major basins/watersheds were delineated which is shown in figure 36.



*Figure 36: Major basin/watershed identified in the project area.*

During the monsoon season heavy rainfall occurs in this area. As the project area is bounded by hills at eastern side and west by sea, the rainwater influx affects the project area by flash flood. By discussing with local people it is very clear that flash flood effect is prominent in monsoon season.

A flash flood susceptibility map is prepared for the entire Upazila in GIS environment considering the following factors-

- i) Runoff lag time
- ii) Soil type
- iii) Surface slope
- iv) Surface roughness
- v) Drainage density
- vi) Distance to main channel
- vii) Land sue

Each factors were assigned a numeric value and the weighted average of these factors were calculated. Area with the highest weighted average has high susceptibility and that with the lowest average weight has the least susceptibility. It was found that only 13% of the total area of the Upazila has no risk of flash flood. The rest of the area has susceptibility of various degrees. Summary of the risk of flashflood is shown in the following table.







*Figure 37: Flash flood susceptibility Index Map*

## **3.3. Model Simulation**

## *3.3.1. Current condition*

The groundwater flow model was simulated in steady state to determine the current groundwater flow condition in the study area. Model simulated hydraulic head for all three aquifers (Figure 38) shows similar flow direction and generally shows the same trend as that based on the measured head data in the field.



*Figure 38: Model simulated hydraulic head at present condition.*

## *3.3.2. Future Prediction*

Considering the current population growth rate in Mirsharai Upazila there will be Little or no drawdown in the study area after 20 years compared to present day condition (Figure 39a). The increased withdrawal at the end of 20 years won't be able to alter the Current flow direction, indicating there is little or no risk in the business as usual scenario.

## *3.3.3. High population growth rate in rural settings*

Under this condition there will be a huge influx (10 time more than current population) of population in the next 20 years. Under this high pumping scenario, the model predict that there will be a total drawdown of more than 10 meters in some areas in the model (Figure 39b) which indicates that there will be a complete flow reversal in the southwest and western margin of the study area where the Sandwip channel is located. The reversal in flow direction means that there will be saltwater intrusion in the study area. Determination of the exact time frame and location of the saltwater front requires investigation in offshore region

to identify the current location of saltwater front the deep aquifer in the study region,



*Figure 39: Model predicted drawdown for various future pumping scenarios in the deep aquifer.*

which is out of the scope of this study.

#### *3.3.4. High population growth rate in urban setting*

Since per capita water consumption in urban settings is higher than in rural settings, for the same projected population growth the drawdown after 20 years become huge (as large as 60 m), completely disrupting the natural flow direction in the study area and making the aquifer vulnerable for both saltwater intrusions and compaction induced land subsidence (Figure 39c).

#### **4. Policy Recommendation:**

- 1. The aquifer condition in the BEZA area is not suitable for heavy groundwater withdrawal required for the project. The shallow groundwater in this part of the Upazila is brackish while the deep groundwater is fresh and occurs in a thin confined aquifer below a thick and soft clay layer. Heavy pumping from that aquifer would cause the compression of the aquitard and result in land subsidence. Besides, there is a high risk of later intrusion of sea water from the adjacent sea.
- 2. The water demand for BEZA might be supported by a combination of sources as outlined below-
- a. Artesian condition exists in the Northeastern corner of Mirsharai Upazila. Detail investigation on the extent and yielding capacity of this artesian aquifer is recommended. It could meet a part of the water demand in the project area.
- b. Water storage capacity of the Mahamaya and four other proposed surface reservoirs have been quantified in this study. These surface water sources should be able to meet a significant part of the total water demand in the BEZA project.
- c. Feasibility of Feni River for a water treatment plant should be assessed for additional sources of water.
- d. Feasibility of importing groundwater from adjacent Upazilas might be assessed for additional option.

The deep groundwater supplies most of the domestic water to the existing population in the Mirsharai Upazila. Modelling studies suggested that the deep aquifer recharge area lies in the northern part of the upazila. Development activities that might inhibit groundwater recharge or deteriorate the quality of recharge water should be avoided in that part of the Upazila to keep its quality and quantity unaffected to keep supporting the existing population.

#### **5. Discussion**

This study comprises of extensive field work, laboratory analysis, and modeling to assess the availability and sustainability of the groundwater resources in Mirasharai Upazila. In this upazila both surface water and groundwater are available for use. Groundwater occurs primarily in three aquifers at various depths. However, the water quality of the shallow aquifer in a large part of the upazila in the south is not suitable for drinking purpose due to the presence of both arsenic and salinity. The remaining two aquifers that occur on average below a depth of 70-100 m contain water suitable for drinking purpose. Both these deeper aquifers receive recharge in the northern part of the Upazila where all three aquifers are connected due to the lack of clay layers separating them. Presence of artesian condition in the northern part of the study area indicates that the recharge potential of the deep aquifer is very high. Development of the artesian aquifer in the north could be good option for drinking water supply throughout the Upazila, however, this need detail field and modeling investigation, which is not in the scope of the current study. Lack of clays and high recharge in the north also causes for some concern. Presence of water pollutants and contaminants in this area would be a potential threat for the groundwater to be contaminated. Care should be

taken for carrying out any future development activities in the north that might discharge contaminated water on the surface and shallow subsurface.

Presence of high EC in the shallow aquifer only and not in the deep aquifer indicates that the Sandwip channel and the shallow aquifer is well connected and it does not have any connectivity with the deeper aquifers. However, the shallow salinity could also be due to inundation during storm surges in near past (100 years scale) or during the high sea level stand 5000 years before present, though, the parallel alignment of the EC contour and Sandwip channel suggest intrusion from the channel.

A groundwater flow model has been developed to assess the sustainability of the Aquifers (deeper aquifers) to supply various projected high demand scenarios in near future. Three different future groundwater withdrawals were simulated in this study, namely a) Business as usual scenario, b) High population growth in rural setting, and c) High population growth in urban setting. Model shows that for the current population growth rate there is no future risk in the development of groundwater in the study area. However, for the projected high population growth rate both rural and urban settings makes the aquifers vulnerable for saltwater intrusion and pumping induced land subsidence. The two freshwater aquifers (aquifer-2 and 3) in the study area are underlain by very soft clays of 10-30 m thick. Pumping induced drawdown in the underlying aquifers would induce vertical migration of water from these aquitard to the adjacent aquifers leading to a release in fluid pressure in the aquitard causing compaction of the aquitard. Even a 10% compaction may cause land subsidence of 2- 3 m in the study area, especially in the south. Detail geotechnical and modelling exercise is required to characterize this risk in this region. The current model is very simplified and based on a number of assumptions, future monitoring of head in the study area is required to validate and update the model in future.

There is one important concern about deep pumping in the southern part of the study area, where the aquitard between the shallow and the deep aquifer is thicker than 50 m. Heavy pumping from below that aquitard would cause a drop in pressure in the aquifer, and would initiate draining the overlying aquitard. The aquitard is composed of very soft marine clay. Upon drainage such clay layers have potential to lose more than 50% of its thickness causing subsidence. On the other hand, this thick aquitard can provide protection against downward migration of brackish water in the deep aquifer if the pumping in the deep aquifer in this part of the study area kept low. The current model can be used to predict the possibility of the migration of shallow high saline water to deep aquifer but it cannot be used to predict

land subsidence. Land subsidence prediction requires more complex modelling which is not in the scope of this study.

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# **APPENDICES**

## **APPENDIX-I: LITHOLOGICAL DATA FROM MONITORING WELL**



















Light gray to gray, yellowish gray, medium to coarse grained sand, moderately sorted, subangular to subrounded, dark color minerals present, trace mica.






























Light brown to gray, silty fine sand, dark color minerals present, trace mica.

















# **APPENDIX-II: VERTICAL ELECTRICAL SOUNDING (VES) INTERPRETATION DATA**









































## **VES-12**

















## **VES-16**



### Lithology



## **VES-20**





# **APPENDIX-III: FIELD WATER QUALITY DATA (PHYSICO-CHEMICAL)**








## **APPENDIX-IV: SLUG TEST INTERPRETATION DATA**

## **Graqphical Curves Obtained from Slug Tests**

**Serial\_number:** 35

**Project ID:** DNBH-03

**Location:** Char Shorot, Economic zone, Ichakhali



*Figure-1: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-2: Rising Head curve*



*Figure-3: Falling Head curve*

**Project ID:** DNBH-03\_S

**Location:** Char Shorot**,** Economic zone, Ichakhali.



*Figure-4: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-5: Rising Head curve*



*Figure-6: Falling Head curve*

**Project ID:** DPHEOBS

**Location:** Baratakia Bazar, Mirsharai.



*Figure-7: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-8: Rising Head curve*



*Figure-9: Falling Head curve*

**Project ID:** DPHEOBS\_S

**Location:** Baratakia Bazar, Mirsharai.



*Figure-10: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-11: Rising Head curve*



*Figure-12: Falling Head curve*

#### **Project ID:** SLN33

**Location:** Jamadargram, Ichakhali.



*Figure-13: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-14: Rising Head curve*



*Figure-15: Falling Head curve*

#### **Project ID:** SLN39

**Location:** Purba Shaherkhali, Shaherkhali.



*Figure-16: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-17: Rising Head curve*

## **Project ID:** SLN40

#### **Location:** Paschim Mayani, Mayani



*Figure-18: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-19: Rising Head curve*



*Figure-20: Falling Head curve*

#### **Project ID:** SLN45

#### **Location:** Purba Mayani, Mayani.



*Figure-21: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-22: Rising Head curve*

## **Project ID:** SLN48

#### **Location:** Podua, Wahedpur



*Figure-23: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-24: Rising Head curve*

## **Project ID:** SLN49

#### **Location:** Podua, Wahedpur.



*Figure-25: Overdamped Response*



*Figure-26: Rising Head curve*

# **APPENDIX-V: HYDRAULIC CONDUCTIVITY BY GRAIN SIZE ANALYSIS**







# **APPENDIX-VI: WATER QUALITY DATA FROM LABORATORY ANALYSIS**







