

A Case Study of Management of Ground Water Resources in India

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Abstract – Groundwater in India, due to its nearly universal quality, constancy and ease of capital, is the most preferred water source in different customer areas. The developing dependence on groundwater as a solid wellspring of water has brought about the unpredictable extraction, regardless of water reviving capacity and other ecological components, of different pieces of the nation. Then again, there are territories in the country where, given the availability of sufficient resources, groundwater production is inoptimal as well as canal command areas with water logging difficulties and soil salinity due to the rising of soil water levels. Accordings to the most recent assessment are measured at 433 billion cubic meters (bcm) of the country's annual replenishable groundwater assets, of which 399 bcm is deemed usable for different uses. The irrigation industry also keeps 92 percent of its annual withdrawal as the largest consumer of ground water. The nation has extremely unequal groundwater production and there are major variations everywhere. Although the overall development stage is around 58%, in Northwest Plain States (98%), the average production of the soil is much higher than in the Eastern Plain (43%) and Central Plain (42%). In the Indian sense, the management of groundwater resources is an extremely difficult idea. The very uneven distribution and its use make it impossible for the country as a whole to have a single management strategy. Any practical management strategy for groundwater should include, depending on the regional climate, a combination of supply side and demand side steps. As regards the availability of water resources in the Eastern Plain, Orissa (part), West Bengal and the Eastern Pradesh, Delhi, Haryana and Punjab, West Uttar, Chandigarh are alluvial areas; this is approximately 44% of the total resources available. The total amount of the water supplies available in the EasternPlain is approximately 42.9%. Nevertheless, average results in these classes of states are 43% and 98% respectively. Because of the significant differences in the stage of groundwater in these areas, the factors responsible for technical and socio-economic imbalances must be critically analyzed. Those should also be included in the design of any systematic policies on water resource management. A number of Governments and Non-Governmental Agencies, social service organisations and stakeholders desperately need concerted efforts to develop an implementable plan to manage the valuable natural resource effectively.

Keywords: Management, Ground Water Resources, India, Governments, Non-Governmental Agencies, Natural Resource

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INTRODUCTION

The principle popularity based wellspring of water has been groundwater and an instrument to diminish neediness in provincial India. It is the most favored wellspring of water to meet the prerequisites of different buyer areas in India, in spite of its almost general accessibility, dependability, and low capital expenses. Groundwater has had a significant impact in India's monetary development and was a significant impetus for its financial development. It very well may be seen that over 85% of India's provincial household water prerequisites, 5% of its urban water necessities and half of its water system necessities have been fulfilled by groundwater assets

as a significant characteristic assets in the Indian setting. The that dependence on ground-water as a solid water source has prompted its broad and frequently unpredictable development in various pieces of the nation, regardless of water revive potential and other ecological variables. Expanding weight on the assets accessible was the impromptu and non-logical creation of soil water assets, which were driven for the most part by singular activity. The unfriendly impacts can be viewed as a long haul decline in groundwater levels, de-immersion in spring zones, expanding vitality request to gather water gradually from more profound profundities and a debasement in quality because of salt water interruption in waterfront territories in different

pieces of the nation. Then again, zones in the Country where the creation of ground water is still low regardless of satisfactory assets accessible are likewise influenced by water protection and groundwater saltiness issues as an outcome of the slow increment in groundwater levels. An itemized guide with distinguished methodologies for science and maintainable administration of the accessible ground-water asset in the nation should be created so as to address the mind boggling issues identified with ground-water and in perspective on environmental change. Notwithstanding tending to the issues of declining water levels, the procedure ought to likewise concentrate on the lopsided characteristics in the nation's groundwater advancement, the reasons and recommendations for activities, for example, quickening groundwater improvement in low-lying regions.

India is a vast, hydrogeologically highly diversified country. In the Indian subcontinent, groundwater activity is very difficult due to the presence of different geological arrangements, with noteworthy lithological and worldly varieties, complex structural casings, climatic contrasts and different hydrochemical conditions. The stone developments extend in age from Archaean and Quaternary.

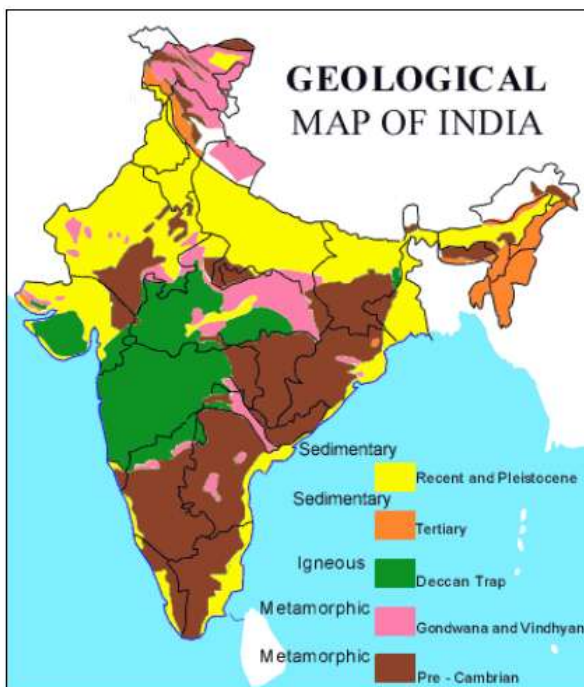


Figure 1: Geological Map of India

In the southern states, Archaean rocks, where late dregs are confined to the alluvial fields of the IndoGangetic. The principle land arrangements are:-

- 1) Solidified rocks with significant kinds of stones, charnockites, quartzites and related phyllite, slate..., basalt and so forth., and related volcanic rocks. The main geological formations include:

- 2) The semi-consolidated rock formations represent mesozoic and tertiary rocks of major types of rock represented by conglomerates of calaxy, sandstone, pebbles and boulder.
- 3) Pleistocene belongs to the last years in unconsolidated deposits, defined by big rocks such as cliffs, caves, specific sand layer, silt-cleaning. Such rocks are the central aquifer areas of opportunity.

The Indian subcontinent is comprised of large geographical stone sorts, for example, pre-Cambrianmetamorphics, overlooked rocks spoke to by basaltic stone rocks from the cretaceous-eocene time frame, gondwana and vindhyan rocks overlaid by quaternary to late sedimentary stores.

In view of the arrangement and pressure driven properties utilized in the hydrogeological stockpiling and transmission of ground water, all litho units can be set in two enormous gatherings of water conveying developments Viz. Viz. Permeable sorts which can be additionally arranged in unconsolidated and semi-developed arrangements with for the most part auxiliary or inferred porosities, and which have fissured arrangement or combined shapes.

Among the important factors that govern the occurrence and distribution of groundwater are physiographic and geomorphological conditions. Based on these factors, the country has been broadly divided into five distinct regions as below:

i) Northern Mountainous Terrain and Hilly areas:

Skilful slopes and high rivers differentiate the highly rugged mountain terrain in the Himalayan Region in the northern part of the country, which ranges from Kashmir to Arunachal Pradesh. This area is primarily defined by rocks of the Paleozoic era to the Cenozoic period, including granites, slate, sandstone and lime. The output potential is between 1 and 40 lps. While this area provides very little groundwater storage capacity, it is the main source for charging the vast alluvial plains of Indo-Gangetic and Brahmaputra.

ii) Indo-Gangetic-Brahmaputra Alluvial Plains:

The region comprises approximately 850,000 square kilometers of land covering the States of Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Assam and West Bengal, comprises the vast plains of Ganges and the Brahmaputra and are underpinned by large stacks of tertiary and fourth-century sediments. The country's most possible and efficient groundwater storage reservoir is this massive and wide alluvial fill, with its excess of 1,000 metres. These are

characterized by highly productive multi-aquifer systems at regional and regional level. The production of groundwater in the region, except in Haryana and Punjab, remains sub-optimal. The deeper aquifers in these areas offer good opportunities for further groundwater use with appropriate measures. The deeper wells range from 25-50 lps in Indo-Gangetic-Brahmaputra.

iii) **Peninsular Shield Area:**

These consist of the compact sedimentary rock, the Deccan Trap baselines and a crystal-clear rock in the States of Karnataka, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Kerala. This is located in the south of the Indo-Gangetic and Brahmaputra Plains. In these settings, the occurrence and movement of soil water is limited to weathered debris and interconnected fractures within deeper levels with little capacity for surface water. In the central and southern part of the peninsular, the rocks are often weathered at a depth of 30 meters under tropical conditions. Groundwater mostly occurs in weathered and eroded rock areas, at depths below 50 m, often up to 100 meters, and rarely under this depth. Locally deep water diffusion as shown by striking solution cavities or deeper water with fractures is suggested. Groundwater is primarily created by wells drilled. Many reliable water sources are valley fills in this area. The output of wells in hard rocks that tap deeper fractured areas varies from 2 to 10 lps.

iv) **Coastal Area:**

Coastal areas have a wide coverage of Pleistocene alluvial deposits up to the last few years and form possible MU systems in Gujarat, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa states. However, serious constraints on development of such aquifers are placed upon the inherent quality problems and the risk of seawater intake. Moreover, the overdevelopment of groundwater in these areas poses the risk of entering the salt water. In such aquifers, groundwater prospects vary widely according to local conditions and can range from 5-25 lps.

v) **Cenozoic Fault Basin and Low Rainfall Areas:**

Due to the unique presence of three discrete fault basins, the Narmada valley, the Purna and Tapti valleys, which contain extensive reservoirs of valley filled, this region has been separately grouped. The fill is approximately 50 to 150 m in thickness. In parts of Rajasthan and Gujarat, the aquifers in arid and semi-arid areas of that region receive insignificant recharge from scanty rains and groundwater occurrences in those areas are limited to deep water treatment systems with fossil water. The ground water, for instance, is mostly salt and inappropriate for several purposes in parts of the Purna valley. The capacity of the wells varies between 1-10 lps.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Gupta, S. (2016) announced that Punjab is involved by Quaternary alluvial stores of Indus stream bowl. In significant piece of the state, groundwater levels are in the scope of 10 to 20 meters. Nonetheless, around significant urban areas like Jalandhar, Ludhiana, Patiala, Amritsar and Sangrur, water levels are 20 to 40 meters down. He found that long haul water level vacillation information shows that water levels in significant pieces of the state have declined radically. The momentum status of groundwater in India and examined different arrangement and tradeoffs and recognizes a few uses for the viability of groundwater strategy.

Singh, R. (2016) underlined the job of little water supplies in the desert zone as a piece of a complex between connecting regular resource the executives system in India. Conventional strategies for water gathering were utilized by the neighborhood networks to restore a nearby waterway Saraswati, for energizing the groundwater and re-green the town. The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment satellites for hydrological displaying and found that groundwater has being drained at a mean pace of 4.0 10 cm/yr-1 over the Indian conditions of Rajasthan, Punjab and Haryana.

Yadav, S. furthermore, Kumar, D. (2014) depicted the pattern of groundwater change in Rewari locale of Haryana. He established that water table is declining descending due to over misuse of groundwater causing of disappointment of shallow tubewells. The conduct of groundwater table during the most recent three decades has been examined by past Groundwater Directorate, Karnal, since 1974. As indicated by this examination, the state has been confronting a twin issue of water table ascending in saline territories in west and decrease of water table in crisp zones under cutting edge phase of abuse in the east and south. Haryana has an agriculture-based economy stood up to with unending deficiency of water. Channel water system is increasingly conspicuous in dry regions of the State. Since the trench water isn't adequate to meet the necessities of development, the ranchers are abusing groundwater through an enormous number of shallow and profound tubewells. Because of population pressure applied on this resource, consumption has begun in numerous regions of southern Haryana in the areas of Mahendergarh, Rewari, Gurgaon, Faridabad, Mewat, Palwal, and Bhiwani. The pace of exhaustion is disturbing in these regions, for example more than one meter/year. Consequently the present research is worried about the investigation of conduct of sinking water table in southern Haryana and its spatial and transient varieties with precipitation. Such examination may prompt the distinguishing proof of

size and pace of groundwater consumption, and investigate the reason liable for them.

Wang, X (2015), planned for the simulation of preservative or non-conservative transport of contaminant transport in simple or complex geohydrological conditions, using steady-state underground and contaminant transport models in isotropic aquifers. Upon reviewing research goals, available data and modeling criteria, the models collection offers detailed information about four classes of groundwater templates and selects one class of floorwater models. The system compiles available data and compares it with the information needed by several groundwater models to pick suitable class models for the sample, after the user defines the studies boundary and contaminant.

Calvete, FJS & Vera, MAG (2015), the hydrogeological model was developed for order to assess the potential environmental effects of the major Los Monegros II irrigation project as well as for the area hydrogeology. Two main aquifers connected to the leaky aquitard were designed for a numerical model. The numerical model was calibrated under constant conditions using the automatic parameter estimation method of maximum probability. The measured hydraulic heads are replicated quite well in the calibrated model, which corresponds with independent groundwater release information. Reliable parameter estimates have been obtained by solving the inverse problem. In some parts of the lower aquifer, anisotropy played a major role. The geometrical average conductivity is nearly 2 orders larger than the small field test average conductivity.

Okavango, Dolta, Botswana, was established by Thangarajan, M, Linn, F, Uhi, v, Bakaya, TB & Gabaake, GG (2017). In the valley portion of the river there are three major aquifers. The two top water tanks are freshwater areas with salt in the lower one. In the upper, uncontained and lower, the hydrological set-up of the basin is complex, because the directions for the flood flow are opposite. In order to find suitable management choices for locating the well field (large well diameter) in the top aquifer by making use of the river infiltration during the flux seasons, hydrodynamic activity was then analyzed under two prediction scenarios. It has shown from the aquifer response that the topless aquifer system will sustain the pumping rate of the low, high diameter wells of 6,000 m³/day.

Azraq Basin, Jordan, Abdulla, F & Al-Assade, TA (2016) has developed a three-dimensional model of groundwater flow. Three hydrogeological layers are used in the analysis as a conceptual model. The hydraulic conductivities during sequence models were adjusted with the test and error calibration. The drawdown for the Shallow Aquifer of the basin was estimated by four different scenarios. There was a healthy yield of about 25 Mm³ per year for the Upper Aquifer System.

MODFLOW (2016) used the MODFLOW System for the development of a Mujib aquifer groundwater flow system to simulate the flow system behavior under various stress conditions. The model has been optimized for both the stable and temporary status. In the sensitivity analysis, the model was revealed to be sensitive to particular performance. For the water balance for the aquifer's steady state, the total annual outflow was higher than the inflow. In order to predict the drainage of the Mujib basin between 2003 and 2030 four different scenarios have been considered.

Morocco, Idrysy, HE & Smedt FD (2016) has developed a hydrological, hydrogeological model. The MODFLOW PMWIN environment was used to create two layers of groundwater flow. Use the distributed WetSpa hydrological model to measure the recharge of soil water and pump the volume of soil water for irrigation. This agreed that a decrease of at least 25 per cent in groundwater depletion may be necessary to achieve sustainability.

Palma, HC and Bentley, LR (2017) to explore the impacts of the development of future groundwater. The aquifer identifies two flow systems and clearly states that stable state simulations are incapable of taking into consideration critical elements of the groundwater system and that transient simulations are necessary in order to estimate key hydrological elements such as minimum base flow.

Ayenew, T, Demile, M&Wohnlich, S(2018), in which groundwater flows are being quantified and sub-surface hydrodynamics analyzed in Akaki catchment, with special attention given to the well area that water supplies the city of Addis Abeba. The model was calibrated with head observations from 131 wells and the model was performed under well-defined boundary conditions, in a two-layer limitless aquifer with spatially variable charging and hydraulic behavior. The optimized model was used to estimate groundwater flow levels, interaction between groundwater and surface water in different scenarios and the impact of pumping on the well area. The results show that the groundwater flows to the south of the main well sector. The aquifer is recharged by lakes and rivers. The review of the scenarios showed that the capacity of groundwater is not sufficient to sustain Addis Ababa's constantly increasing demand for water.

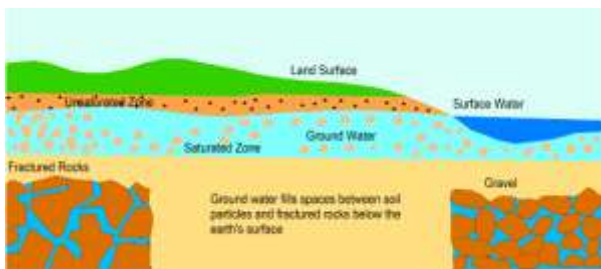
Zume, J&Tarhule A (2018) tried to assess the impact of groundwater operations on stream depletion in the Beaver-North Canadian River Aquifer, north-west of Oklahoma, the USA. The model stated the groundwater pumping and the stream-aquifer interaction with the stream-flow-routing packing kit, which can also be augmented by the additional t-flow capacity, was simulated. Iteratively calculated the stream stage with the coefficient of roughness of Manning. For both stable and non-stable state conditions simulations have

been conducted. We find that non-flow in the Beaver North Canadian River network is highly dependent on the contribution of base flows from the alluvial aquifer.

Ahmed, I & Umar, R (2019), developed a groundwater flow model to simulate flow system conduct and assess the water balance in Yamuna-Krishni interfluves ' efficient groundwater in India. The interaction between water and the river was simulated with the package at the river limit. Specific zones were subject to hydraulic conductivity values ranging between 9.8 m and 26.6 m / day. The zone budget showed that for the period June 2006 to June 2007, the deficit was on the water balance. The total charge is 160.21 Mm³ for the study area. The pumping ground water draft amounts to 233,56 Mm³ and therefore leaves a balance of deficits of-73,35 Mm³. Three scenarios were taken into account to predict aquifer reactions under different groundwater conditions and additional charges by distributors and deficit drains.

OVERVIEW OF GROUND WATER IN INDIA

Ground water is the water that flows into rocks and soil and is collected underneath the surface. The ground-water storage rocks are referred to as aquifers. Grave, sand, sandstone, or limestone typically consists of aquifers. Water is moving across those rocks as they have large spaces that are connected to them. The saturated zone is the area in which water fills the aquifer. The water table is called the depth from the surface where groundwater is found. The water table can be shallow to a few hundred meters deep under the ground. High rainfall could lead to an increase in the water table and reverse, constant groundwater extraction will bring the level down. The main definitions used in groundwater are illustrated in the figure.



GRAPHICAL REPRESENTATION OF GROUND WATER AND ASSOCIATED TERMS

The underground (hydrogeological) setting of ground water characterizes the capability of this asset and its helplessness to irreversible corruption. This setting in India can be separated into following classifications, which are described below:

- **Hard-rock aquifers of peninsular India:** These aquifers account for about 65% of the total area of Indian aquifers. Most finds

themselves in central India on the peninsula, which is marked by hard-rock formations. The rocks contribute to a complex system of low-storage aquifers, which appear to drop very rapidly on water levels once the table falls in excess of 2-6 meters. In addition, the water is poorly permeable* and its recovery is limited by rainfall. It means water is not replenishable in these aquifers and will eventually dry out due to constant use.

- **Alluvial aquifers of the Indo-Gangetic plains:** The water tanks located in Northern India's Gangetic and Indus plains have large storage areas and are therefore a valuable source of fresh water supplies. Such aquifers are nevertheless at risk of permanent overexploitation as a result of excessive soil extraction and poor recharge levels.

GROUND WATER RESOURCES AVAILABILITY:

Rainfall is India's primary wellspring of groundwaters, enhanced by different sources, for example, channels, inundated fields and surface water bodies. The greater part of the recovered soil water from the upper unconfined springs, which are additionally dynamic refueling zones, contains the topped off soil water asset. The Central Ground Water Board and the State Government specialists concerned together assessed the battery-powered ground water assets in the nation's dynamic energize zone. The evaluation was done by the Ground Water Estimation Committee - 1997 with Block/Mandal/Taluka/Watershed as the unit and in accordance with standards. The latest assessment estimates for an annual replenishable resource of surface water in the region at 432 trillion cubic meters (bcm) out of which 399 bcm for different purposes, after 34 bcm has been deposited for non-monsoonal discharge to sustain flow in springs, rivers and rivers (Central Ground Water Board 2006). (Central Ground Water Commission. The principal components of the groundwater drainage are groundwater extraction for various uses and evapotranspiration from the shallow water table areas. The irrigation field is typically still the primary consumer of groundwater. Approximately 92 per cent of the land water draft was used for irrigation and the remaining 8 percent were for domestic and industrial use (Central Ground Water Board, 2006, 231 bcm) was estimated for the entire country. Consequently, the production stage of the groundwater, measured as the groundwater waste-flow ratio, for the country as a whole works as about 58 percent. Nevertheless, the groundwater production is highly inconsistent in the country and shows significant differences from one place to another. The measurement units were classified as part of the resource estimate following the GEC criteria, based on the stage of development of groundwater and the long term trend of decreasing

soilwater levels. Out of the 5723 assessment units in the country, the assessment found that the development of groundwater in 839 units (14.7 percent) which are classified as 'overexploited' exceeded 100 percent of the natural replenishment. Groundwater was established in the 226 evaluation units (3.9%) that were classified as 'important,' in the range of 90 to 100% of utilizable resources. 550 groundwater development phase evaluation units of 70-100% and long-term water level decline either during or after pre-monsoon cycles have been rated as "semi-critical" and 4078 groundwater development phase evaluating units of less than 70 percent have been ranked as "secure" assessment units. In consideration of the salinity of groundwater in aquifers in the replenishable region 30 units have been removed from this evaluation. Table 1, with the geographical distribution of different category of evaluation units shown in Fig. 3, provides details of accessibility, utilization, stage of development and classification of assessment bodies for the above-mentioned regions of the country. Figure 2.

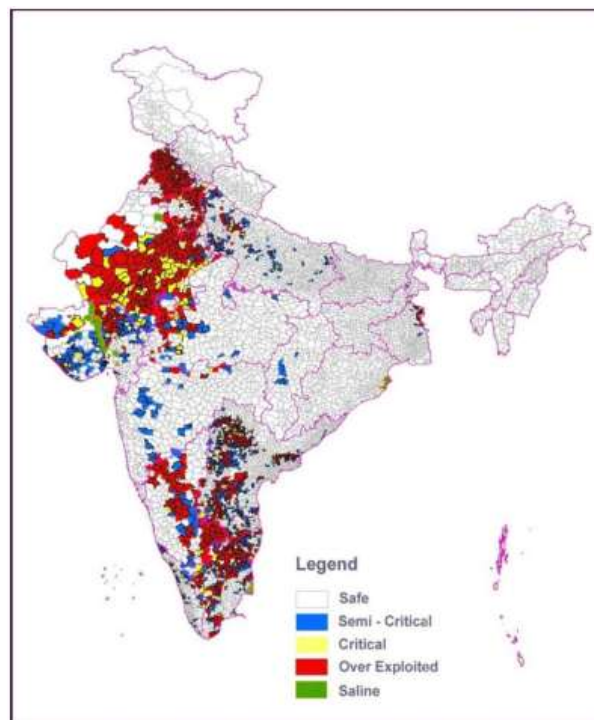


Fig. 2 Geographical Distribution of Various Categories of Assessment Units in India

In the deeper contained aquifers of the country, the main section of which is in the Ganga-Brahmaputra alluvial lands, has been shown to have extensive ground-water resources, in addition to available resources for water level fluctuations (Romani, 2016). The delta and coastal aquifers also have to a smaller extent these resources available. The recharge areas of the aquifers lie in the top of the basins. The supplies in these deep-seated aquifers are known as the 'soil water resources in storage.' It has been determined that the quantity of these commodities is ~10,800 bcm. While in parts of Punjab, Haryana and West Uttar Pradesh, the advantages of ground water in these aquifers are limitedly being used, detailed studies must be carried out to understand the yield capacity and characteristics of these water bodies.

Table 1. Ground Water Resources Availability and Status of its Utilization in India

S. No.	Region	Annual Replenishable Ground Water Resource (km ³)	Natural Discharge during monsoon season (km ³)	Net Annual Ground Water Available (km ³)	Annual Ground Water Debit (km ³)	Stage of Ground Water Development (%)	Classification of Assessment Units (Blocks)		
							Total Assessment Units	Over Exploited, No. (%)	Critical No. (%)
1	North	3.4	0.86	2.54	1.84	57	30	2 (6.67)	0
2	North Eastern (Hilly) States	31.89	3.82	28.07	3.65	13	139	0	0
3	Eastern Plain States	111.81	6.81	105.0	83.97	81	1895	1.89	2 (1.1)
4	North Western Plain States	80.76	0.81	79.95	72.17	90	277	248 (72.26)	26 (9.1)
5	Western and Central Plains	37.39	1.87	35.52	24.48	68	462	172 (37.23)	62 (13.4)
6	States	86.721	4.09	82.63	58.13	67	864	515 (59.5)	81 (9.4)
7	Southern Peninsular States	82.76	7.14	75.62	46.4	61	1446	412 (28.5)	126 (8.7)
8	Islands	0.34	0.01	0.33	0.01	3	0	0	0
	Country Total	411.81	15.77	396.04	236.61	68	6719	839 (12.3)	226 (3.4)

MANAGEMENT OF GROUND WATER RESOURCES:

In the sense of Indian management of groundwater resources, the relationship between the human company and the physical environment is an extremely complex proposition. The extremely uneven distribution and use of the available resources indicates that the nation as a whole cannot follow a single management strategy. On the other hand the solution requires that the geomorphic arrangements, climatic, hydrological and hydrogeological settings, groundwater availability, water usage patterns for different sectors and the region's socioeconomic set-up be taken into account for every situation. A combination of A) Supply side measures to increase ground water recovery depend on its availability and B) Demand side measures to monitor the storage, protection and conservation of available resources is a technique for the science of water resource management. The following sections detail various options falling under these categories.

A) **Supply Side Measures:** Such initiatives, as already mentioned, aim to increase the availability of groundwater, taking account of natural, social and economic factors. The so-called 'structural steps' include the growth and increase of soil water resource research. This category coincides with the creation of new groundwater supplies through the use of appropriate resources and the increase of groundwater resources through artificial recovery and rainwater production. To order to be effective to

supply side management, complete awareness of the hydrological and hydrogeological controls regulating water supplies and groundwater actions under abstractor stress is imperative. Also important in this regard is the interaction of surface and groundwater and flux and recharge rate changes.

(i) Scientific Development of Ground Water Resources

- a) Ground Water Development in Alluvial Plains:
- b) Ground Water Development in Coastal Areas:
- c) Ground Water Development in Hard Rock Area
- d) Ground Water Development in Water-logged Areas
- e) Development of Flood Plain Aquifers

(ii) Rainwater Harvesting and Artificial Recharge

B) Demand Side Measures: Aside from logical improvement of accessible assets, legitimate ground water assets the board requires to concentrate consideration on the sensible use of the assets for guaranteeing their long haul manageability. Responsibility for water, need-based designation estimating of assets, inclusion of partners in different parts of arranging, execution and checking of activities and successful usage of administrative estimates any place essential are the significant contemplations with respect to request side ground water the executives.

GROUND WATER CONTAMINATION

Groundwater tainting is a contamination of certain groundwater contaminants over the allowable degrees of drinking water⁹. Arsenical, arsenic, nitrate and iron, geogenic* in nature, are ordinarily watched. The wellsprings of defilement incorporate contamination through waste dump, septic tanks, cracked underground gas tanks, and abuse of composts and pesticides. Different contaminants incorporate microscopic organisms, phosphates and substantial metals that emerge out of human action, including residential water sewage, farming practices and mechanical effluents.¹⁰ Almost 60% of all locale in the nation are concerned either with groundwater accessibility or nature of surface water, or with both. It has been called attention to. In assessing the pervasiveness of significant level arsenic in groundwater the 2014-15 Estimates Committee

revealed that 68 locale in 10 states are influenced by elevated level arsenic tainting. Such nations are Haryana, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh and West Bengal.

GROUNDWATER DEVELOPMENT PROSPECTS IN INDIA:

The review of available data shows that the contribution of groundwater to India's agriculture has been growing steadily ever since the beginning of the 1970s. Over the last two decades, India has seen a rise of close to 105% in groundwater irrigated lands; this transition has been the most striking of the green revolution in northern India. A thorough reviewing the availability and use by various geomorphological terrains of land resources in the country as set out in table 1 indicates that the proportion of alluvial areas covering Bihar's Eastern, Orissa (part), and Eastern Uttar Pradesh as well as West Bengal out of the 433 BCM of yearly refill resources available in the country. In the east of the Plain States the enigma is around 43%, while in the north-west countries, Punjab, Delhi and Haryana are 98%. The overall level of the development is about 50%. A large part of the state is overexploited, except in the west part of Uttar Pradesh.

A review of the statistics showing how rapidly groundwater irrigation has developed in a combination of mechanized wells and tube wells. The last census record shows that in the past 40 years, the number of wells rocked from less than one million to over 19 million in the year 2000. Ground-water irrigation also has a greater impact in alleviating poverty, as poor farmers are better represented in their use of ground-water than wealthy farmers when it comes to the amount of land they cultivate. Just 20% of the total agricultural area is made up of small and marginal farmers (less than 2 hectares). However, 38% of the area irrigated by wells and 35% of the pipe wells equipped with electric pump kits make up these small farmers. It is probably time we turned our attention to the study of groundwater imbalances. There's no question about the overuse and devastating effects of groundwater in isolated areas. It leads to two tough questions about the leakage of groundwater, why are some areas affected and not others? How can it be predetermined or forecast? One key point that becomes apparent is that groundwater use is based on demand and not supply. It may not be valid in the strictest sense if groundwater is only collected in broad aquifers or if there is a great deal of precipitation or surface irrigation systems. The fact that the exploitation in the eastern plain states of Bihar, West Bengal is considerably less compared to Punjab and Haryana is quite evident because of its abundance of groundwater resources. This indicates that the use of groundwater is solely driven by demand. The eastern states may have had several reasons for lower water demand, but the fact remains that there is a wide scope for ground water

in those areas to balance the country's groundwater use. A detailed accelerated ground water strategy is therefore urgently needed in areas with low development stage and additional potential for groundwater production that would go hand in hand with groundwater increase initiatives. Groundwater management must include management on the supply side.

LEGISLATIVE AND POLICY FRAMEWORK

The 1882 Easement Act currently grants each landowner the right to collect and dump all water under and on the land within its own limits. 12 This makes the extraction of ground water as owned by the person to whom the ground belongs difficult to regulate. It means that developers have considerable power over groundwater. The law also excludes landless users of groundwater. Water falls within the Constitution's State List. It ensures that the national legislatures will make legislation on the matter. The central government has released some framework laws or model bills with a view to providing specific guidance to state governments for designing their own legislation relating to sustainable water use. The government published a Ground Water Management Model Bill in 2011, according to which the states could enact their rules. In 2012 the National Water Policy outlined key principles for the management of demand, quality of use, infrastructures and price issues of water. The Policy also outlines these principles. In 2013, the government published a National Water Framework Bill, as recommended in this policy. The Bills Framework and the National Water Policy cover land-water governance according to public confidence doctrine. The principle of a public trust policy guarantees that resources for public use cannot be turned into private ownership. It is the trustee's responsibility for and on behalf of the beneficiaries of this natural resource, that is, the public. They also require the basic right to water of acceptable quality to be granted to every citizen. The fundamental right to water has evolved as part of the "Right to Life" under Article 21 of the Constitution by the High Court and other High Courts of the world. Courts have issued judgements as fundamental rights on issues such as access to drinking water and the right to safe drinking water.

ENERGY SUBSIDIES AND GROUND WATER EXTRACTION

Agriculture has played an important role in decreasing Indian water levels through power subsidies. As the main component of groundwater extraction cost is energy, the accessibility of modest/financed power in numerous states adds to the more prominent extraction of that resource.⁸ However there is no meter of power and a level levy is paid low. In 2009, the measure of groundwater separated is 89 percent and the all-out volume of water utilized was utilized for water system. The National Water Framework Bill 2013 has proposed a

decrease of the utilization of vitality expected to separate groundwater.²³ The undertaking is to find some kind of harmony between the requirements of ranchers and the need to guarantee a sheltered utilization of groundwater. Right now, 2012 National Water Policy suggests that the over-extraction of water by controlling the utilization and creation of vitality ought to be diminished to a base. The inquiry could be unraveled by independent electric feedingstuffs for groundwater siphoning for farming use. Likewise, if ranchers can utilize less water or power than the roofs they have fixed for them, they ought to be paid money pay proportionate to unused water/influence units at the paces of their families, and the value arrangement of Kharif Crops (2015-16) prescribed that they use water in farming by setting quantitative roofs at hectare water and power use. This will urge ranchers to utilize dribble water system and other water the board methods on the homestead to expand water creation.

CONCLUSION

In many parts of India, including the study area, unsustainable mining of groundwater takes place. Until recently, the developers and administrators of this natural resource paid little attention to the extent of the issue of ground water depletion. While groundwater fulfills almost half of the droughts, it has not been protected as surface water as far as it is required. The main problem is that the mining of groundwater is properly managed to sustain this natural resource for a long time. The problem of groundwater depletion can be significantly minimized by the use of proper management practices. In an attempt to understand the issue of depletion and other related groundwater use issues, scientific studies are important to consider the extent and the depletion rate together with the reasons responsible. The field of study has gradually acknowledged groundwater use for a variety of purposes, due to a lack of surface water and low rainfall. The overdevelopment of groundwater resources was therefore recognized as a major environmental effect in the study area. In order to avoid negative ecological implications in the study area, more scientific studies on the issue of groundwater depletion are therefore required. This study focused on quantitatively evaluating the magnitude and rate of depletion by using the techniques and methods developed earlier and its relationship with the factors affecting its dynamics. The depletion rate is approximately 0.529 m / year. The huge number of tubes that farmers are building in the area shows clearly the wholesale use of groundwater. It meant that the rising water table increases the cost of building pipe, maintaining and running. Several important water balance elements were calculated using the Thornthwaite's (1948) technique, such as actual evapotranspiration, potential evapotranspiration, precipitation, soil moisture refill, soil moisture utilization and water surplus as well as water deficit. This approach is

commonly used in Indian weather conditions, given some derivatives. The water table fluctuation method was adopted for measurement of the groundwater budget for each unit. For the estimation of different waste and refill components, the methodology approved by the Groundwater Estimation Committee (GEC-1997) and CGWB 2013 was adopted. In computing for the changes in storage, magnitude and rate of groundwater depletion in each block, the standards advised in 1982 for the National Bank for Agricultural and Rural Development.

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