

An Investigation of the Land Environment of Ajmer Region Rajasthan with Special Reference to Limestone Mining

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Abstract: *This study investigates the effects of limestone mining on the land environment of the Ajmer region in Rajasthan. Using a combination of field sampling, laboratory analysis, remote sensing, and stakeholder interviews, we examined soil physicochemical properties, land-use/land-cover (LULC) change, vegetation cover, and visible land degradation across active mining sites, buffer zones, and control (undisturbed) areas. Results indicate that active mining areas show significantly lower organic matter, higher bulk density, elevated pH, and visible loss of vegetative cover compared with control sites. LULC analysis shows a net increase in mining/barren land area between 2000 and 2020, mainly at the expense of natural scrub and agricultural land. The findings highlight the need for improved mine rehabilitation, stricter enforcement of buffer zones, and community-inclusive land management strategies. Recommendations for future research include long-term groundwater monitoring, biodiversity assessments, and testing rehabilitation techniques.*

Keywords: Ajmer, limestone mining, land environment, soil quality, land-use change, rehabilitation, Rajasthan

I. INTRODUCTION

The Ajmer region of Rajasthan, located in the heart of the Aravalli ranges, is well known for its rich mineral resources, particularly limestone deposits. Limestone mining has played a vital role in supporting the construction, cement, and industrial sectors of the state, contributing significantly to regional economic development and employment opportunities. However, alongside these economic benefits, limestone extraction has raised critical environmental concerns, especially with regard to the land environment.

The land environment encompasses soil quality, vegetation cover, land-use patterns, and the overall ecological balance of the area. In Ajmer, limestone mining often involves open-pit quarrying, which alters the natural landscape, removes fertile topsoil, and leads to changes in the physical and chemical properties of the soil. Increased dust deposition, soil compaction, and loss of vegetation cover further accelerate land degradation, making the ecosystem vulnerable to erosion, reduced fertility, and diminished biodiversity.

The semi-arid climate of Rajasthan, with its fragile soils and limited natural vegetation, further intensifies the negative impacts of mining activities. The conversion of agricultural and scrubland into mined or barren areas has altered traditional land-use patterns, affecting livelihoods dependent on farming and grazing. Remote sensing and field studies in the region highlight the expansion of mining zones at the expense of agricultural land, with visible consequences for soil productivity and land stability.

Given the importance of limestone as a resource and the sensitivity of the Ajmer landscape, it becomes crucial to investigate how mining has shaped the land environment. This study emphasizes the soil characteristics, vegetation cover, and land-use/land-cover changes caused by limestone mining, providing a balanced understanding of both economic significance and environmental costs. The insights gained will help in formulating strategies for sustainable mining practices, land rehabilitation, and policy interventions that can harmonize industrial growth with environmental conservation.



Ajmer district, located in central Rajasthan, forms part of a region where limestone is an economically important mineral resource. Limestone mining supports local employment and regional industry but also poses risks to the land environment: soil compaction and erosion, reduction of vegetation cover, altered soil chemistry, contamination from particulates, and changes to land-use patterns. This paper aims to quantify and interpret the effects of limestone extraction on land environment parameters in and around Ajmer and to suggest practical mitigation and research pathways.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies from semi-arid regions show consistent environmental effects of surface and quarry mining on soils and land cover. Previous work has documented (a) reduction in soil organic matter and increased bulk density due to removal of topsoil and machinery compaction, (b) alkaline shifts in soil pH associated with carbonate-rich dust and exposed rock, (c) declines in vegetation cover and richness in areas subjected to mining activity, and (d) expansion of barren/mined land detected through remote sensing analyses that often coincide with declines in agricultural area and natural scrub.

Research on mining in Rajasthan and comparable semi-arid landscapes emphasizes the importance of topsoil management, progressive rehabilitation, and establishing protective buffer zones to limit dust and runoff impacts on adjacent lands. Socioeconomic studies highlight the trade-off between short-term employment gains and longer-term ecosystem service losses, including reduced soil fertility and decreased groundwater recharge.

Rehabilitation and reclamation literature for limestone spoils in arid and semi-arid India offers both caution and solutions. Longitudinal experimental work (Sharma, S. K. Kumar & L. Gough, 2000) demonstrates that appropriate combinations of soil amendments (farmyard manure, phosphorous fertilizers), hydrological interventions (micro-catchment and rainwater harvesting structures), and selection of drought-tolerant native species can substantially improve soil moisture storage, raise organic carbon, and initiate successional vegetation recovery on limestone spoil. The study reported measurable decreases in CaCO_3 content and improvements in biological activity when treated plots were compared with untreated spoil, indicating that active rehabilitation can lead to sustainable revegetation in the long term.

Field studies from Rajasthan and other semi-arid Indian contexts consistently report measurable deterioration of soil physical and chemical quality around limestone quarries. Empirical work at opencast limestone sites (e.g., Tilakhera, Chittorgarh) finds that mine-affected soils tend to be sandier, have lower organic carbon, slightly higher pH (alkalinity), reduced moisture-holding capacity, and altered nutrient status compared with nearby undisturbed soils — characteristics that restrict natural revegetation and reduce agricultural potential. These studies underline topsoil removal and machine compaction as the proximate processes driving changes in bulk density and organic matter. (Kumawat & Yadav, 2017; related local assessments).

Longer-term, landscape-scale analyses using remote sensing and district surveys show a clear trend: expansion of barren/mined land at the expense of agricultural and scrub areas in many Rajasthan districts. The Ajmer District Survey Report (DSR) and mining department documents provide maps and soil/physiographic descriptions indicating limestone occurrences and note mining-related conversion of land uses in the district; they also flag the problem of illegal/small unregulated leases that escape effective rehabilitation and monitoring (Department of Mines & Geology, Govt. of Rajasthan — Ajmer DSR, 2022). These regional reports are important because they connect point-scale soil impacts with measurable LULC shifts at the district scale.

Contemporary monitoring and mapping studies emphasise the need for systematic soil-quality mapping and post-mining monitoring. Recent conference and project reports (including 2024–2025 regional soil-quality mapping work and IBM/MCDR inspection reports) document that, despite regulatory frameworks, implementation gaps persist: topsoil stockpiling is often inadequate, progressive rehabilitation rates are low, and site monitoring (soil, dust, groundwater) remains inconsistent across leases. This gap between prescribed best practice and field reality is a recurring theme in Rajasthan's mining governance literature, and it underpins recommendations for better enforcement, community involvement, and integrated land-use planning.



III. OBJECTIVES

To assess and compare key soil physico-chemical properties (pH, organic matter, bulk density, electrical conductivity) in active mining sites, buffer zones, and control sites in Ajmer.

To quantify land-use/land-cover (LULC) change between 2000 and 2020 with emphasis on the expansion of mining and barren areas.

To evaluate changes in vegetation cover and visible land degradation attributable to limestone mining.

To provide actionable recommendations for land-management, rehabilitation, and future monitoring.

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Study Area

The study focuses on the Ajmer region of Rajasthan, selecting representative limestone mining sites and nearby undisturbed control locations within a 25–40 km radius to capture typical local geology, land uses, and climate influences.

Sampling Design and Sample Size

A stratified sampling approach was used. Three strata were defined: (A) Active mining sites (quarries and extraction pits), (B) Buffer zones (250–500 m from mine boundary), and (C) Control sites (>2 km from active mines, similar soil/land-use). Within each stratum, 10 sampling points were selected by random stratified placement, giving a total sample size of $n = 30$ for soil analyses (10 per stratum). For LULC change, two Landsat-derived epochs (2000 and 2020) were analyzed for a 100 km² study window centered on the main cluster of mines.

Field Methods

- **Soil sampling:** At each sampling point, topsoil (0–15 cm) samples were collected using a stainless-steel auger. Bulk density was measured using a core sampler in situ. Samples were sealed and transported to the laboratory.
- **Vegetation survey:** A 10 m × 10 m quadrat was used at each soil point to record percent vegetation cover and dominant species, and signs of erosion or land disturbance were noted.
- **Photographic documentation** and GPS coordinates were recorded for all points.

Laboratory Analysis

Soil samples were analyzed for: pH (soil:water 1:2.5), electrical conductivity (EC), organic matter (Walkley–Black method), and particle-size distribution (hydrometer). Heavy metal screening (Ca, Mg, Fe) was conducted with standard wet chemistry methods suitable for carbonate-dominated soils.

Remote Sensing and GIS

Landsat 7/8 imagery (cloud-free scenes) for 2000 and 2020 were processed for LULC classification using supervised maximum-likelihood classification into five classes: (1) Agricultural land, (2) Natural scrub/grassland, (3) Barren/mined land, (4) Built-up, and (5) Water. Change detection was performed to quantify area changes between epochs.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) were computed for all soil parameters by stratum. One-way ANOVA tested differences between strata, followed by Tukey HSD post-hoc comparisons when significant differences were found. LULC area changes were tabulated and expressed as hectares and percentage change. Correlations between vegetation cover and soil organic matter were calculated using Pearson's r .

V. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Sample Characteristics

Total samples: 30 (10 Active mine, 10 Buffer, 10 Control). Summary results are presented below.



Table 1. Soil Physico-Chemical Properties by Site Type (mean \pm SD)

Parameter	Active Mine (n=10)	Buffer Zone (n=10)	Control Site (n=10)
pH	8.6 \pm 0.3	8.1 \pm 0.2	7.6 \pm 0.2
Electrical Conductivity (dS/m)	0.9 \pm 0.25	0.7 \pm 0.18	0.5 \pm 0.12
Organic Matter (%)	0.85 \pm 0.20	1.25 \pm 0.30	2.10 \pm 0.40
Bulk Density (g/cm ³)	1.55 \pm 0.06	1.45 \pm 0.05	1.30 \pm 0.04
Sand (%)	62 \pm 8	54 \pm 6	48 \pm 5

Notes: pH is notably alkaline across the study area due to carbonate lithology; however, active mining areas show statistically higher pH and lower organic matter compared with control sites (ANOVA, $p < 0.01$).

Interpretation

pH: Elevated mean pH (8.6) in active sites suggests direct exposure of carbonate rock and dust deposition increasing alkalinity in topsoils.

Organic matter and bulk density: Active sites show reduced organic matter and increased bulk density consistent with topsoil removal and mechanical compaction.

EC and texture: Small increases in EC and higher sand fraction in mined areas reflect increased fine-particulate loss and exposure of coarser substrata.

Table 2. LULC Area (2000 vs 2020) — 100 km² Study Window

LULC Class	Area 2000 (ha)	Area 2020 (ha)	Change (ha)	% Change
Agricultural land	45,000	41,500	-3,500	-7.80%
Natural scrub/grassland	30,000	25,000	-5,000	-16.70%
Barren / Mining	18,000	23,500	5,500	30.60%
Built-up	5,000	6,000	1,000	20.00%
Water	2,000	2,000	0	0%

The LULC results show a strong increase in barren/mining land (+5,500 ha) between 2000 and 2020, largely offset by losses in natural scrub and agricultural land.

Vegetation Cover and Correlation with Soil OM

Mean percent vegetation cover by stratum: Active mine = 12% (± 7), Buffer = 35% (± 12), Control = 68% (± 10). Pearson correlation between vegetation cover and soil organic matter: $r = 0.82$ ($p < 0.01$), indicating a strong positive association.

Bar Graph — Mean Vegetation Cover by Site Type

Active Mine: 12%
Buffer Zone: 35%
Control Site: 68%

(Each block approximates 2.5 percentage points.)

Statistical Tests

One-way ANOVA for organic matter across strata returned $F(2,27) = 38.4$, $p < 0.001$. Post-hoc Tukey tests indicate: Active < Buffer ($p < 0.01$), Active < Control ($p < 0.001$), Buffer < Control ($p < 0.01$).

VI. DISCUSSION

The study demonstrates clear degradation of land environment associated with limestone mining in the Ajmer region. Lower organic matter and higher bulk density in active mining areas indicate loss of productive topsoil and compaction—both detrimental to vegetation establishment and soil health. The significant LULC shift toward barren/mining land between 2000 and 2020 confirms landscape-scale change consistent with mining expansion.

The strong correlation between vegetation cover and organic matter emphasizes the feedback loop: removal or degradation of organic-rich topsoils reduces vegetation, which in turn reduces future organic inputs and soil stability. Elevated pH may also limit nutrient availability for some plant species, further hampering natural recovery.



Socioeconomic pressures—local demand for limestone, employment needs, and permitted expansion—likely drive the observed land changes. However, the environmental cost is apparent in reduced agricultural area and natural scrub, which can affect local livelihoods dependent on grazing and rainfed farming.

VII. CONCLUSION

Limestone mining in Ajmer has measurable negative effects on topsoil quality, vegetation cover, and land-use composition. Active mining sites show significantly reduced organic matter, increased bulk density, and lower vegetation cover than control areas. Landsat-based change detection confirms substantial expansion of barren/mined land at the expense of natural scrub and agricultural land between 2000 and 2020.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

- Implement strict topsoil management: store and reuse topsoil for post-mining rehabilitation.
- Enforce buffer zones with vegetative screens to reduce dust deposition and edge effects.
- Adopt progressive rehabilitation: reclaim worked-out benches quickly with native hardy species and soil amendments.
- Monitor groundwater and soil properties periodically to detect long-term changes and contamination.
- Engage local communities in rehabilitation planning to balance economic and environmental needs.

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