

GOVERNMENT OF KERALA

DISTRICT SURVEY REPORT OF MINOR MINERALS (EXCEPT RIVER SAND)

ERNAKULAM DISTRICT

Prepared as per
Environment Impact Assessment (EIA) Notification, 2006 issued
under Environment (Protection) Act 1986
by

DEPARTMENT OF MINING AND GEOLOGY
www.dmg.kerala.gov.in

November, 2016
Thiruvananthapuram

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DISTRICT SURVEY REPORT OF MINOR MINERALS

ERNAKULAM DISTRICT

(This report is to be submitted along with application for Environmental Clearance (EC) for mining of all minor minerals except river sand)

1 Introduction

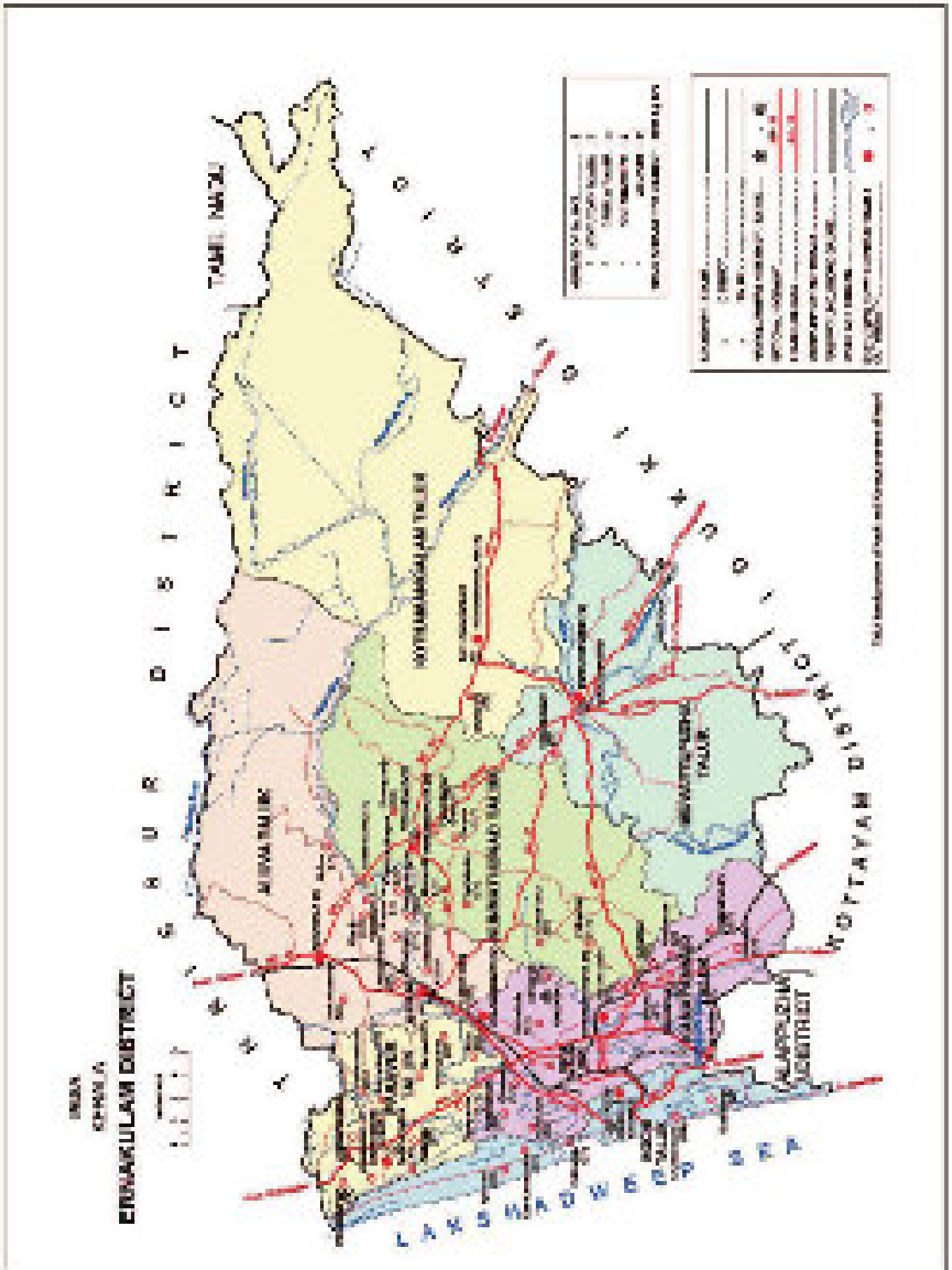
Ernakulam district occupies the Central part of Kerala state and is bound by Trichur district on the north, Idukki on the east and south east, Kottayam and Alappuzha districts on the south and the Lakshadweep Sea on the west. The district is spread over an area of 3068 Sq. km. earlier the district covered an area of only 2408 sq. km. But, later on Kuttampuzha panchayat of the Nedumkandam block, Idukki district was also attached to it and the district attained the present area. Its maximum length in an E-W direction is about 48km and the maximum width in N-S direction is about 38km. Ernakulam district lies between North latitudes $09^{\circ} 47' 13''$ and $10^{\circ} 10' 44''$ and East longitudes $76^{\circ} 10' 05''$ and $77^{\circ} 05' 24''$. Kochi known as the Queen of Arabian Sea is the headquarters of Ernakulam district. Its maximum length It is a major port city on the west coast of India. Ernakulam is having a coastline of about 30km. The district is well connected with a good network of roads and railways. The Nedumbassery International airport is located in the district.

2 Administration

For administrative purposes, the district is divided into two revenue divisions and seven taluks. Muvattupuzha revenue division with Muvattupuzha as its headquarters comprises of 43 villages belonging to Kunnathunadu, Muvattupuzha and Kothamangalam taluks, while Kochi division with its headquarters at Kochi consists of 71 villages of Aluva, Paravur, Kochi and Kanayanur taluks. There are 14 community development blocks, 88 gram panchayats, eleven municipalities and one corporation in the district. The district has a population of 32, 79,860 persons with 16, 17,602 males and 16, 62,258 as per 2011 census.

3 Drainage

The district is drained by the Periyar and its tributaries in the north and Muvattupuzha River in the south. Periyar, the longest river in the state with a total length of 244 km originates from the cardamom hills of the Western Ghats flows in a Northerly direction initially and then in North-west direction as it flows through Idukki district before



entering Ernakulam district at Neriamangalam. In the district the river takes almost a straight line course roughly in a North Western direction and at near Bhuthathankettu dam, it is joined by major tributaries Cheruthoni and Idamalayar. Further downstream at Aluva, the river bifurcates into two: the Marthandavarma and the Mangalapuzha branches. The Mangalapuzha branch joins Chalakkudy river and empties into the Lakshadweep sea at Munambam, and the Marthandavarma branch flows southwards, through the Udhyogamandal area and joins the Cochin backwater system (part of Vembanad Lake) at Varapuzha. The Periyar is a perennial river and is source of drinking water for several major towns. The Idukki dam across the Periyar generates a significant proportion of Kerala's electrical power.

The Muvattupuzha River is formed by the confluence of Thodupuzha River, Kaliyar River and Kothamangalam River at Muvattupuzha. These rivers originate from the Thodupuzha reserve forest. The Muvattupuzha River takes a rough east-west course up to Ramamangalam and thereafter it flows towards south leaving the districts south of Pazhur. In the upstream areas the drainage pattern in both Periyar and Muvattupuzha basin are trellis to sub-trellis. In the lower reaches dendritic pattern of drainage is observed.

Ernakulam district is bordered to south-west by Vembanad Lake which is the largest lake in Kerala. Besides Ernakulam, the lake is bordered by Alappuzha and Kottayam districts. The lake is separated from the Lakshadweep Sea by a narrow barrier island and opens to the sea at Cochin. And at Munambam further north. The port of Kochi (Cochin) is located at the lake's southern outlet to the Sea. The stretch from *Kochi Azhi* to *Munambam Azhi*, is popularly known as Varapuzha. Canals link the lake to other coastal lakes to the north and south. The portion of the Vembanad Lake located in and around the Kochi mainland is known as Kochi kayal. The lake bears many an islands and in Ernakulam district itself it hosts island like Vypin, Mulavukad, Vallarpadam, Willingdon Island etc. The lake is a part of Vembanad-Kol wetland system which extends from Alappuzha in the south to Azheekkode in the north, making it by far, India's longest lake at just over 96.5 km in length. The lake is fed by 10 rivers flowing into it including the six major rivers of central Kerala namely the Achenkovil, Manimala, Meenachil, Muvattupuzha, Pamba and Periyar. The total area drained by the lake is 15,770 km², which accounts for 40% of the area of Kerala. Its annual surface runoff of 21,900 mm accounts for almost 30% of the total surface water resource of the state.

The lake has become a major tourist location due to its scenic beauty. The Vembanad Wetland system is the largest of the three Ramsar Sites in the state of Kerala. But Vembanad Lake has been heavily reclaimed over the course of the past century with the water spread area reducing from 290.85 km² in 1917 to 227 km² in 1971 and 213.28 km² in 1990. In the same period almost 63.62 km of erstwhile water spread were reclaimed primarily for formation of polders and to enlarge the extent of the Wellington

island of Cochin port. The lake faces a major ecological crisis and has reduced to 37 per cent of its original area, as a result of land reclamation.

4 Land use

On the basis of land use the district is divided into three units – arable, forest land and waste land. Major part of the district is arable land which includes irrigated and unirrigated land. Forest is mostly in the east, within which some areas are developed as rubber and cashew plantations. Extensive waste land formed of hard laterite, unsuitable for cultivation lies in the midland region. Most of the area is covered by lateritic soil. Forest loam soil occurs in the east and the alluvial soil is along the coast (*Figure 2*).

About 83% of the total area of the district is cultivable land, 10% is under forest cover including reserve forest and plantations; water bodies constitute 5.3% and built up area constitutes nearly 2% of the total area.

An area of 26,825 hectares is under irrigation (net area) in the district. Periyar valley irrigation project with a barrage at Bootathankettu which uses the tail race water of Sengulam, Panniyur and Pallivasal Hydro-electric projects and Chalakudy diversion project are source for canal irrigation in the district.

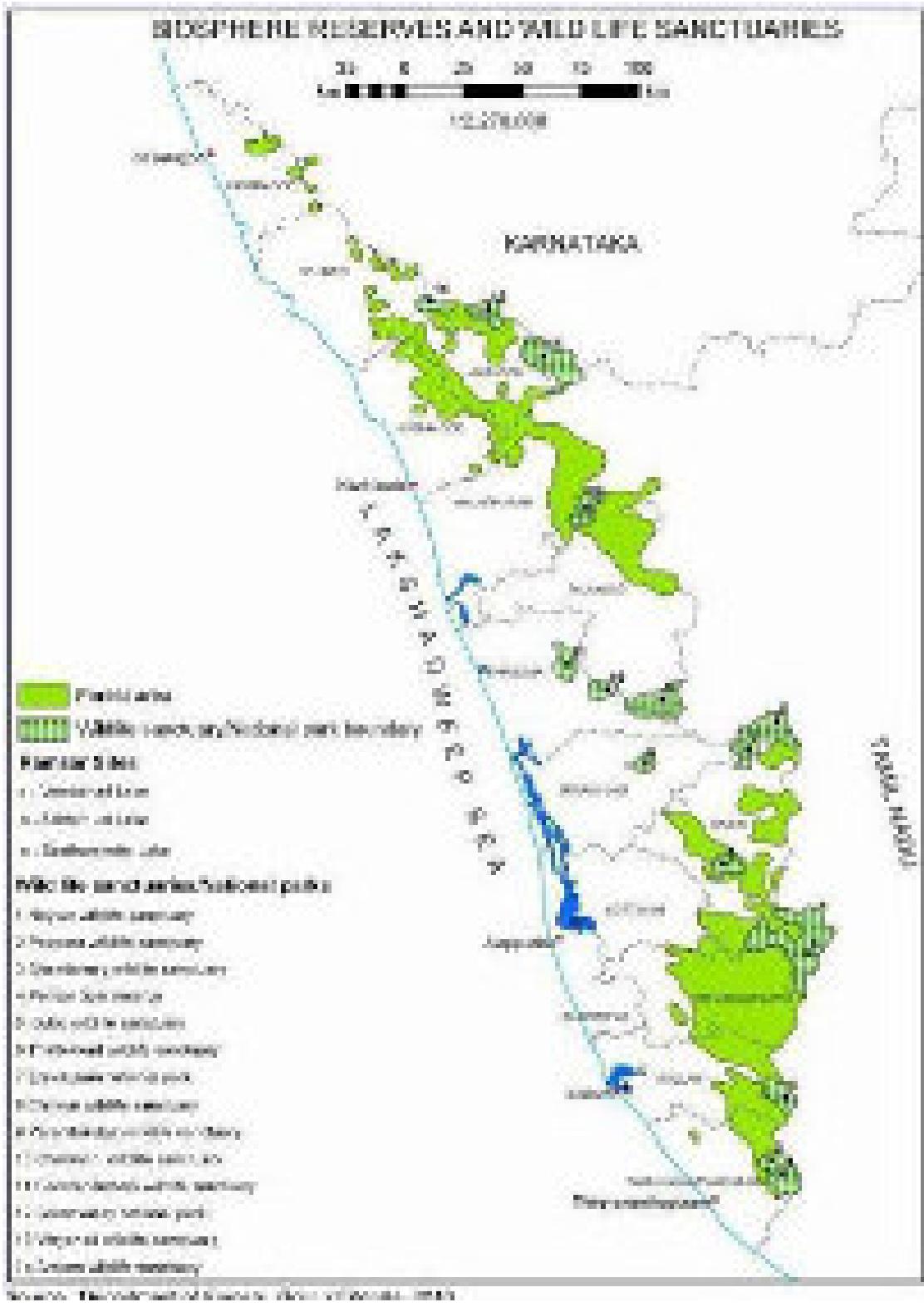
The major crops under irrigation in the district are paddy, coconut, rubber, banana and arecanut. Paddy is cultivated in more than one season. Rubber is the major crop in the district followed by Coconut, Paddy, and Banana. Spices, Areca nut, oil seeds and vegetables are also cultivated in the district. The area falling under forest is given in the forest map given below.

5 Rainfall and climate

Ernakulam district has wet monsoon type of climate. The district experiences heavy rainfall during southwest monsoon season followed by northeast monsoon. During the other months the rainfall is considerably less. March, April and May are the hottest months. December to February are the coldest months

The district receive on an average 3359.2 mm (based on 1901-99 data) of rainfall annually. The annual rainfall ranges from 3233 to 3456 mm at different places of the district.

The rainfall is less in the western part of the district and gradually increase towards the east. Maximum rainfall is received around Neriamangalam area in the eastern part where the normal annual rainfall is found to be 5883 mm. While Kochi, which is in the western part receives around 3233 mm rainfall annually. The annual average rainfall of Ernakulam district from 2007 to 2011 is given in **Table 4**



South-west monsoon season contributes nearly 67.4% of total rainfall of the year, followed by the north-east monsoon which contributes nearly 16.6% and the balance of 16% is received during the month of January to May as summer showers.

6 Meteorological Parameters

6.1 Temperature

The mean monthly maximum temperature ranges from 28.1 to 31.4°C and the minimum ranges from 23.2 to 26 °C. The maximum temperature occurs during March and April months and the minimum temperature occurs during December and January months.

6.2 Relative Humidity

The humidity ranges from 68 to 89% during morning hours and 64 to 87% during evening hours. The maximum humidity is observed during May to October months.

6.3 Evaporation

Evaporation is more during summer months of January to April and it is low during the rainy months May to August. The maximum rate of 4.8 mm per day is recorded in March and the lowest rate of 2.6 mm is recorded during July.

6.4 Sunshine Hours

Sunshine ranges from 4.3 to 9.7 hours/day. Maximum sunshine is during the month of February. The months of June to August record the minimum sunshine due to the cloudy sky. Generally good sunshine hours are recorded in the months of November to May.

6.5 Wind

The wind speed ranges from 6.7 to 10.9 km/hour with mean speed of 9.1 km/hour. The wind speed is high during the period from March to September.

6.6 Potential Evapotranspiration (PET)

The PET ranges from 94.5 to 159.2 mm. The maximum PET occurs during March and minimum occurs during June. The PET is less than the rainfall from May to November indicating water surplus for recharge into ground water regime.

7 Geology

Geologically two distinct lithounits are discernible in the area. The eastern part is occupied by hard rocks representing Precambrian metamorphosed rocks while the coastal tract in the west is covered by soft rock or the unconsolidated coastal alluvium. Major part of the district is occupied by charnockite and moigmatite groups of rocks of Precambrian age. The charnockite group is composed of pyroxene granulite, magnetite quartzite and charnockite. Charnockite, which is very widely distributed, is coarse-grained, granulitic and dark coloured. Pyroxene granulite and magnetite quartzite occur as linear bands. Calc-gneiss and quartzite of khondalite group are the oldest rocks of the area and they are seen as linear lensoidal bodies within the charnockites. The migmatite group includes biotite gneiss and quartzofeldspathic gneiss which are next to

charnockite in abundance. These older rocks are intruded by both acid (syenite) and basic (gabbro and dolerite) intrusive. Patchy outcrops of Warkalli beds, consisting of pebble bed, grit, friable sandstone and variegated clay is seen in the western part around Edappalli, kalamasseri areas. Both the Warkalli beds as well as the basement rocks are subjected to intense lateritisation, which is confined to the midland region only. The coastal tract is covered by Quaternary sediments like beach sand, palaeo-beach ridge deposits (sand), flood plain deposits (sand, silt, clay) and tidal deposits (clay, mud) (*Figure 1*). The geology of the district given above may be read with the “Geology of Kerala” which is given as Annexure 1 for better understanding of geological succession and stratigraphic sequence.

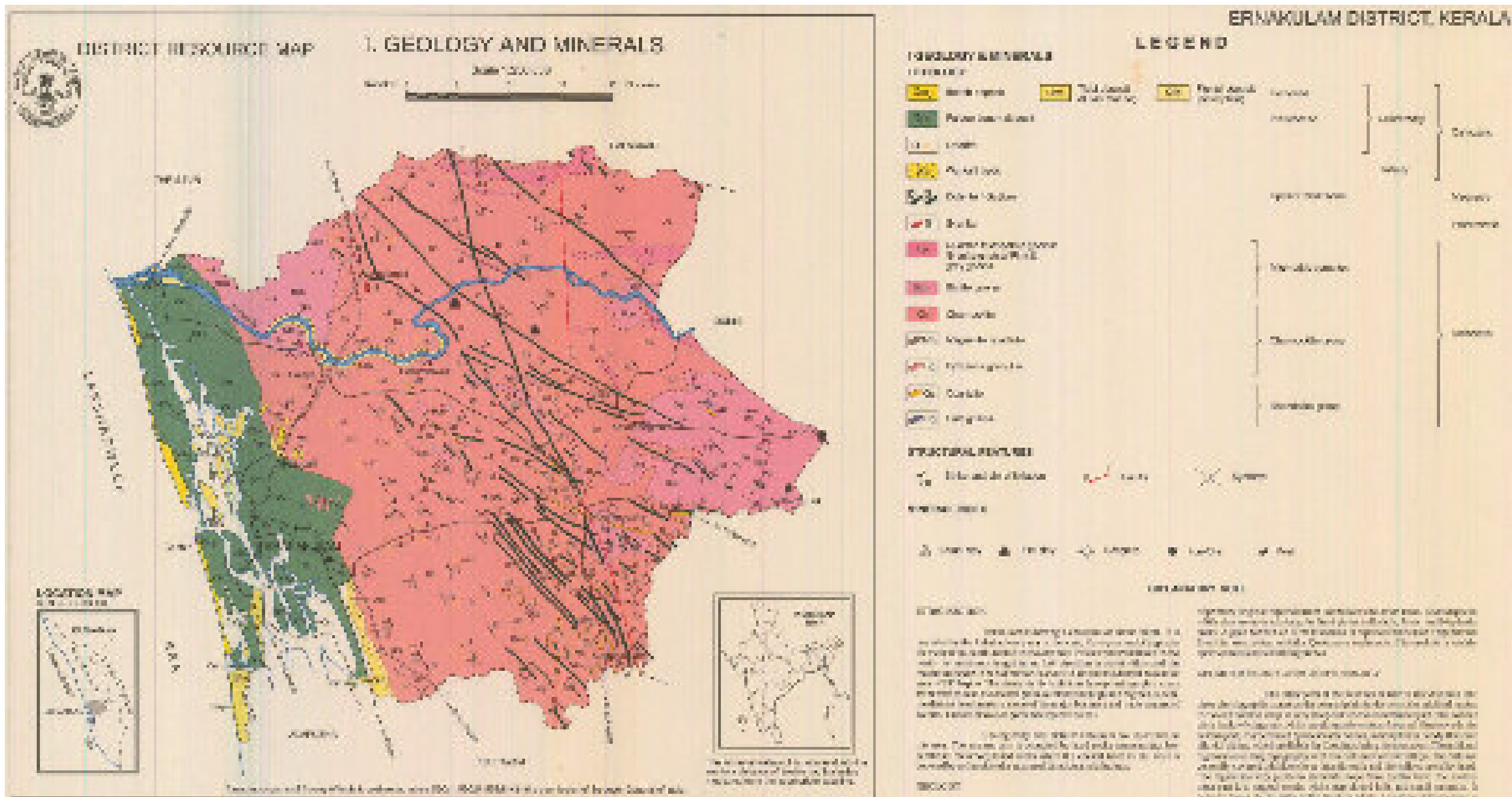


Figure 1: Geology and mineral resources of Ernakulam. (Source: District Resource map, Ernakulam district, Geological Survey of India)

8 Geomorphology

The district is divisible into three physiographic zones as (i) the coastal plains in the west, the midland region in the east and the steep to very steep hills in the easternmost part. The coastal plain is a low lying area, with a maximum elevation of around 10m towards the eastern part, characterised by backwater bodies, marshy lands, sandy flats and alluvial plains, which are liable for flooding during the monsoon. The midland region has a rolling topography with low hills and narrow valleys. The hills are generally covered with laterite or lateritic soils and the valleys are alleviated. The region has a very gentle to moderate slope from east to west. The easternmost part is a rugged terrain with steep sloped hills and small summits. It actually forms the foothills of the Western Ghats. Elevation of this terrain is generally more than 300m above mean sea level. As the area is covered by forest soil, thick forest and cultivation of cash crops like rubber and pepper can be seen in the area (*Figure 2*).

9 Soil type

On the basis of morphological features and physico-chemical properties, the soils of the district are classified as Lateritic, Hydromorphic saline, Brown hydromorphic, Riverine alluvium and Coastal alluvium.

Lateritic soil is the most predominant soil type of the district. In Muvattupuzha, Kothamangalam, Kunnathunadu and parts of Aluva taluks lateritic soil is encountered. These soils are well drained, low in organic matter and plant nutrients. The major crops grown are coconut, tapioca, rubber, arecanut, pepper, cashew and spices. Small patches of hydromorphic saline soil are encountered in the coastal tracts of the district in Kanayannur and Cochin taluk. The tidal backwaters contribute to the salinity of the soil. Coconut is grown in these soils.

Brown hydromorphic soil is the second most prevalent soil type of the district and they are encountered in valley bottoms. The soil is enriched in clay content and plant nutrients. The soil is suited for paddy cultivation.

Riverine alluvium is restricted to the banks of rivers and their tributaries. They are composed of sandy to clayey loam and are enriched in plant nutrients. It is suited for a large variety of crops like coconut, paddy arecanut, pepper, vegetables etc. In Cochin taluk and the western parts of Paravur and Aluva taluk coastal alluvium is encountered and is composed of sand and clay. Coconut is the major crop in these soils.

10 Groundwater scenario

Groundwater generally occurs under phreatic conditions in weathered and fractured crystalline rocks, laterites and unconsolidated coastal sediments. It occurs under semi-confined to confined conditions in the deep seated fractured aquifer of the crystallines

rocks and Tertiary sediments. The weathered zone in the crystallines below acts as good storage for groundwater.

Based on nature of formation, the aquifer can be classified into hard rock aquifers and sedimentary aquifers.

The district is endowed with good water resources as the rainfall is one of the highest in India and also two rivers Muvattupuzha and Peiryar are flowing in the district. Potential aquifers occur all along the coastal alluvium, whose thickness varies from a few metres to 100m. Depth to water table is 0-3m. Groundwater development in the area is mainly by means of dug wells. Laterites are the potential aquifers for groundwater. Depth to water level ranges from less than a metre to 3 metres. But the problem with laterites is groundwater drains off immediately after the rainy season. In crystallines groundwater occurs in the weathered and partly weathered, fractured and jointed rocks. Bore wells dug in potential fracture zones give high yields. There are about 55 National Hydrographic stations in the district i.e., roughly one for 43.8 sq. km., which would monitor the water levels in the area (*Figure 3*).

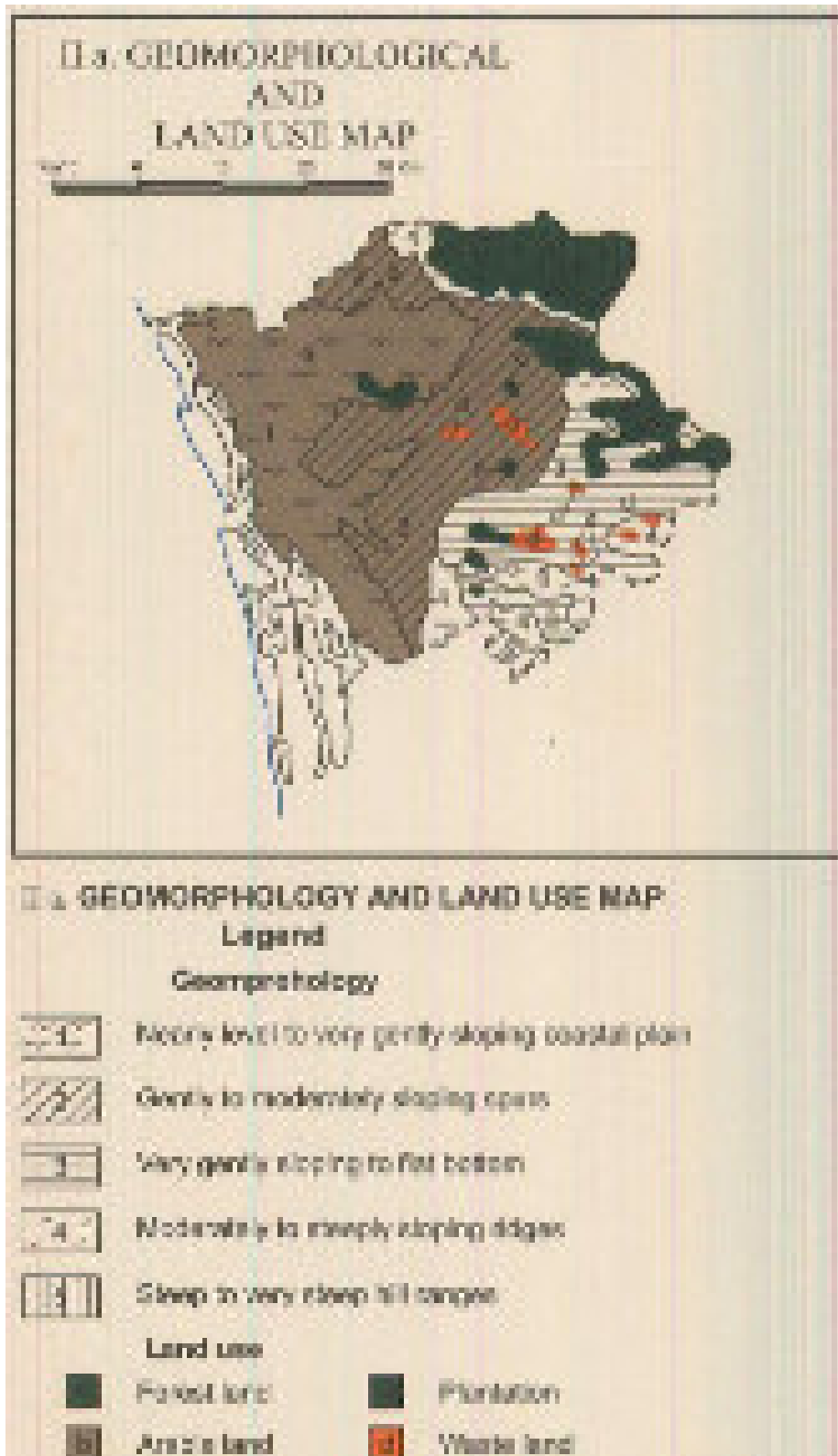


Figure 2: Geomorphology and land use of Ernakulam. (Source: District Resource map, Ernakulam district, Geological Survey of India)

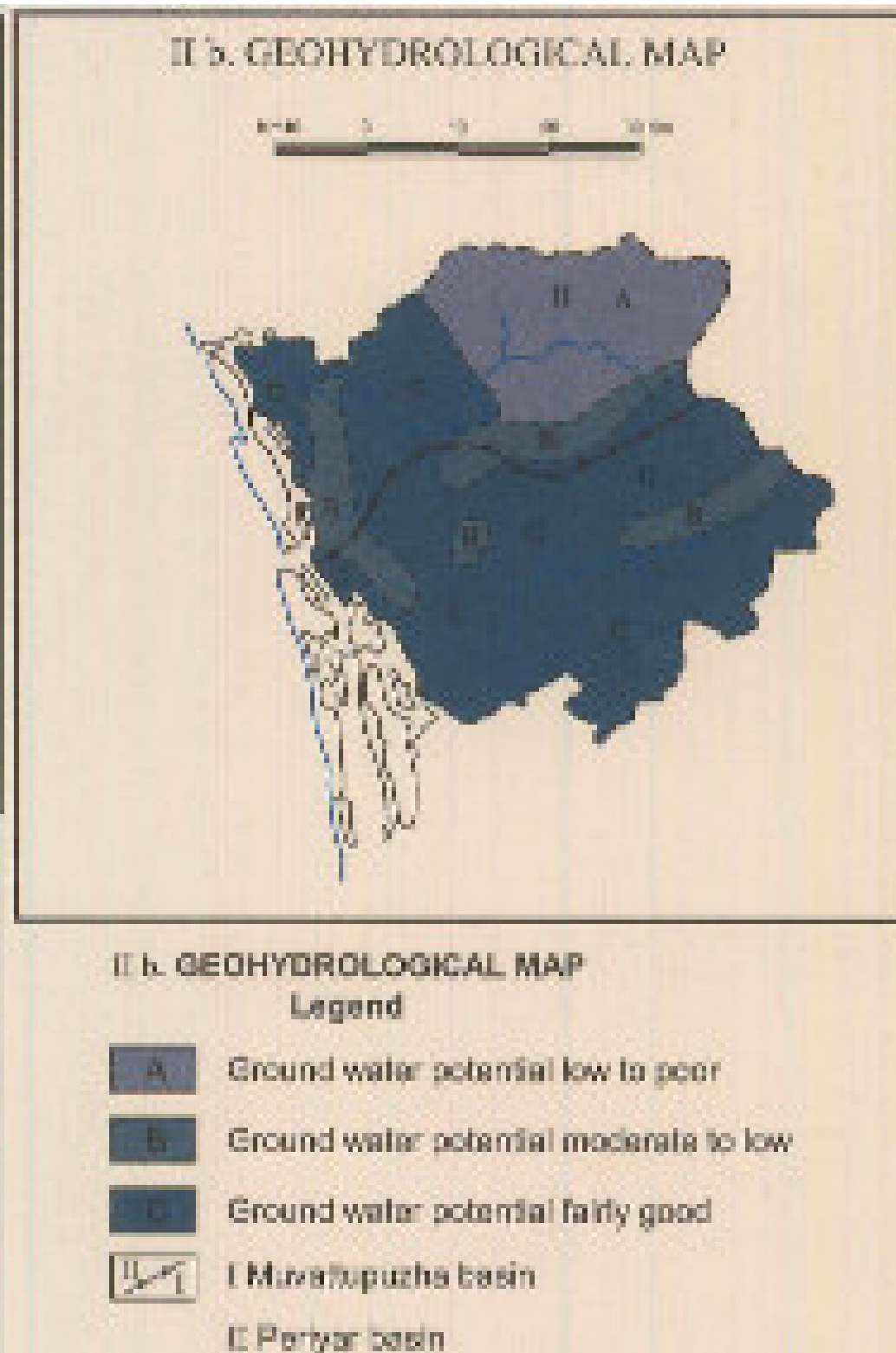


Figure 3: Geohydrology of Ernakulam. (Source: District Resource map, Thiruvananthapuram district, Geological Survey of India)

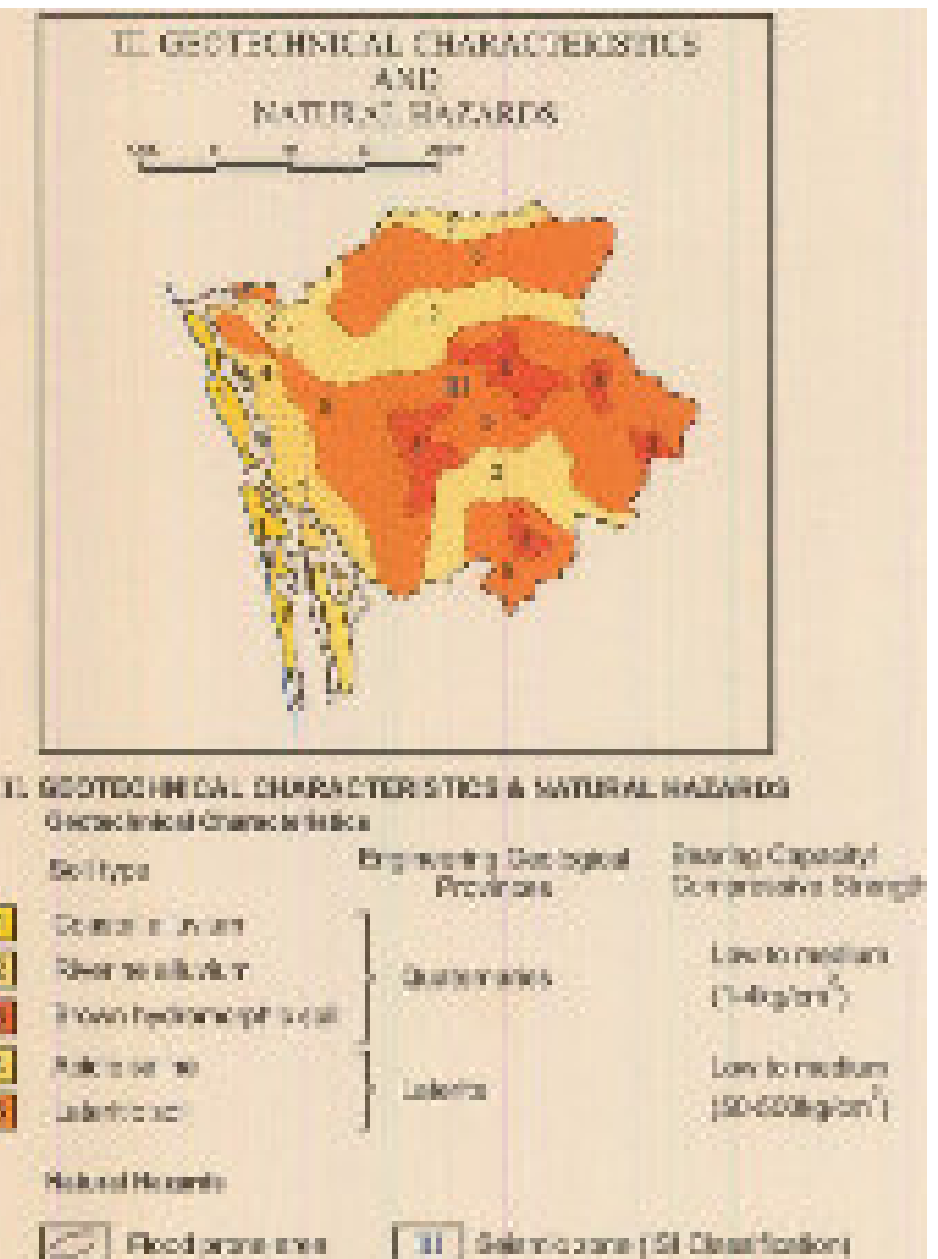


Figure 4: Geotechnical and natural hazards map of Ernakulam. (Source: District Resource map, Thiruvananthapuram district, Geological Survey of India)

11 Natural hazards

The area comes under zone III and indicates moderate seismicity (*Figure 4*).

12 Mineral Resources

12.1 Major minerals

The minerals found in the district are graphite and china clay. Graphite is found in association with the Khondalite Group of rocks.

Good deposits of graphite are noticed in places like Avoli, Peringazha, Memadangu and Kuthattukulam. One mining lease is granted to M/s Thomson Graphite Mines and Crucible Works, Vellanad, Thiruvananthapuram to mine graphite in 1.2544 hectares of land in Kalloorkad village, Muvatupuzha Taluk.

Iron ore is reported from Mangalam and Nadarayan areas. The district has fairly good resources of china clay. China clay of primary origin is reported from Amballoor and other areas. China clay is not mined in this district

12.2 Minor minerals

12.2.1 Ordinary Earth

Ordinary earth is the common name used for the soils. Soil is made up of three main components – minerals that come from rocks below or nearby, organic matter which is the remains of plants and animals that use the soil, and the living organisms that reside in the soil. The proportion of each of these is important in determining the type of soil that is present. But other factors such as climate, vegetation, time, the surrounding terrain, and even human activities (eg. farming, grazing, gardening, landscaping, etc.), are also important in influencing how soil is formed and the types of soil that occur in a particular landscape. The formation of soils can be seen as a combination of the products of weathering, structural development of the soil, differentiation of that structure into horizons or layers, and lastly, of its movement or translocation. In fact, there are many ways in which soil may be transported away from the location where it was first formed. Soils represent one of the most complex and dynamic natural systems and are one of the three major natural resources, other than air and water. Knowledge of their chemical, physical and biological properties is a prerequisite both for sustaining the productivity of the land, e.g. agriculture, and for

conservation purposes. Soil is an integral part of a terrestrial ecosystem and fulfills numerous functions including the capacity to generate biomass and the filtering or buffering activities between the atmosphere and the groundwater in the biosphere. Soils have many important functions. Perhaps the best appreciated is the function to support the growth of agricultural and horticultural crops. Soil is the mainstay of agriculture and horticulture, forming as it does the medium in which growth and ultimately the yield of food producing crops occurs. Farmers and gardeners have worked with their soils over many centuries to produce increasing amounts of food to keep pace with the needs of a burgeoning world population. The soil's natural cycles go a long way in ensuring that the soil can provide an adequate physical, chemical and biological medium for crop growth. As well as being essential to agriculture, horticulture, forestry and natural and semi-natural systems, soil also plays an important role for our fauna. The soil itself contains millions of organisms, the exact nature and role of which we are still trying to determine. Undoubtedly, the soil flora and fauna play a vital role in cycles which are fundamental to the ability of the soil to support natural and semi-natural vegetation without additions of fertilizer and other support mechanisms. They breakdown plant debris, take in components from the atmosphere; aerate the soil together with many other functions that make the soil such an important medium.

Classification of soils (ordinary earth) commonly found in the district

The topo-lithosequence along with variation in rainfall, temperature and alternate wet and dry conditions particularly from the western coast to high ranges in the east and swift flowing rivers lead to the development of different types of natural vegetation and soil. The soils can be broadly grouped into coastal alluvium, mixed alluvium, acid saline, kari, laterite, red, hill, black cotton and forest soils. Soil map given below may be referred to find out its occurrences.

Coastal Alluvium

These soils of marine origin are identified along the coastal plains and basin lands as a narrow strip. The elevation of the coastal area is generally below 5m MSL. The area has high water table and in some areas it reaches above the surface during rainy season. The soils of the coastal plains are very deep with sandy texture. The texture generally ranges from sand to loamy sand with greyish brown to reddish brown and yellowish red colour. Sand content ranges from 80% and clay up to 15%. Even though these soils have high water table, the water holding capacity is poor due to the predominance of sand. Coconut is the major crop in the area. Cashew and other fruit trees are also grown.

Mixed Alluvium

These soils are developed from fluvial sediments of marine, lacustrine and riverine sediments or its combinations. They occur below 20m MSL in the lowland plains, basins, valleys and along the banks of major rivers. The mixed alluvium is mainly noticed close to coastal alluvium, Kuttanad and adjacent area and kole lands of Thrissur district. The soils are frequently flooded and submerged. The soils of depressions and broad valleys are subject to occasional flooding and stagnation. The ground water table of these soils is generally high and it reaches above the surface during rainy season. A wide variation in texture is noticed in these soils. Sandy clay loam to clay is the predominant texture. Sandy loam soils are also met with. Light grey to very dark brown is the common colour of the soil. Paddy, other annuals and seasonal crops like banana, tapioca and vegetables are grown here.

Acid Saline Soil

Acid saline soils are present throughout the coastal area in patches with very little extent. Major area of this soil is identified in the coastal tract of Ernakulam, Thrissur and Kannur districts. The area under these soils comprise of low-lying marshes, waterlogged and ill drained areas near the rivers and streams, which are subject to tidal waves. Sea and backwater tides make these soils saline. During monsoon season, when rainwater and fresh water from rivers enter the fields, salinity is partially washed off. The area under these soils occur mostly on plains at or below sea level. A wide variation in texture from sandy loam to clay is noticed with dark grey to black colour. Paddy is the only crop that can be cultivated.

Laterite soil

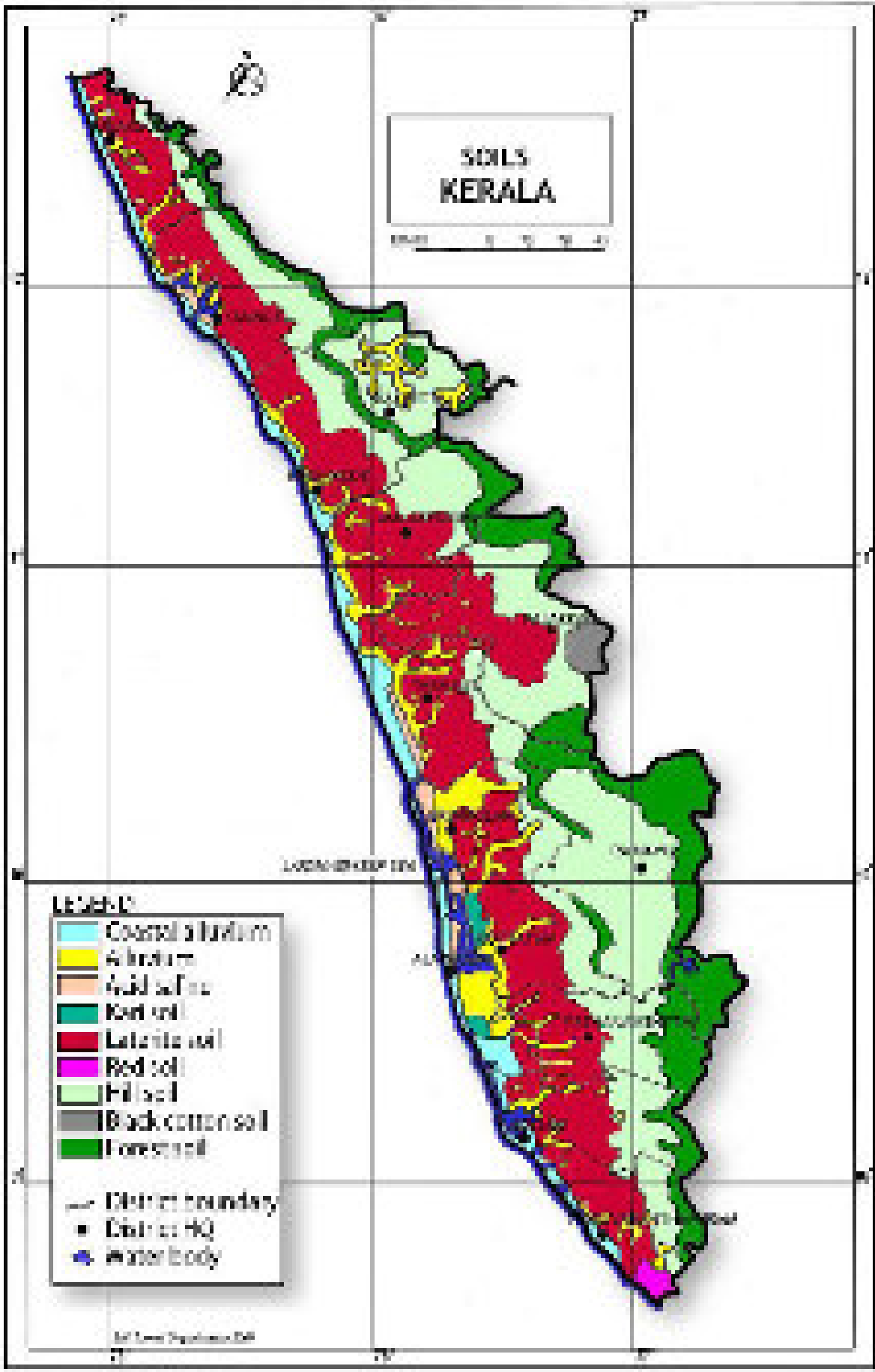
Laterite and laterite soil are the weathering products of rock in which several course of weathering and mineral transformations take place. This involves removal of bases and substantial loss of combined silica of primary minerals. In laterite and laterite soils, over acidic rocks, induration and zonation are more pronounced. This induration is greater if the iron content is higher. These soils mainly occur in the midlands and part of lowlands at an elevation of 10 to 100m above MSL as a strip between the coastal belt and hilly midupland. The area comprises of mounds and low hills with gentle to steep slopes. Laterite soils are generally suitable for most of the dryland crops. It is mainly cultivated with coconut, arecanut, banana, tapioca, vegetables, yams, pepper, pineapple, fruit trees etc. The percentage of gravel content in the soil and reduced soil depth limits the choice of crops. In laterite outcropped area with shallow soils, only cashew can be grown with vegetables.

Hill Soil

The hill soils mostly occur above an elevation of 80m MSL. The area is hilly and has highly dissected denudational hills, elongated ridges, rocky cliffs and narrow valleys. The general slope range is above 10%. The texture of these soils generally range from loam to clay loam with average gravel content of 10 to 50%. In addition, stones and boulders are noticed in the subsoil. These soils have reddish brown to yellowish red/strong brown colour. Generally, increase in clay content is noticed down the profile. The depth of the soil varies considerably from 60 to 200 cm depending on the lie of the land, erodibility of soil and past erosion. These soils are mostly friable and subject to heavy soil erosion. The area is suitable for all dryland crops like rubber, coconut, arecanut and fruit trees based on the topography. Crops such as banana, pepper, pineapple, vegetables can be grown in foot slopes.

Forest Soil

These soils are developed from crystalline rocks of archaean age under forest cover. They occur along the eastern part of the State, generally above an elevation of 300m above MSL. The area is hilly and mountainous with steep slopes, escarpments, elongated rocky summits and narrow 'V' shaped valleys. The depth of the soil varies considerably depending on erosion and vegetative cover. The soils are generally immature due to slow weathering process. Rock outcrops and stones are noticed on the surface. Gneissic boulders under different stages of weathering are noticed in the subsoil. The texture of the soil ranges from sandy clay loam to clay with reddish brown to very dark brown colour. Forest trees, shrubs and grasses are grown here.



Mining of ordinary earth

Usually ordinary earth is mined for leveling of ground for construction of buildings. Since ordinary earth is very important to mankind, it is not wise to mine ordinary earth for filling purposes alone. However, for the construction of roads and other infrastructure, ordinary earth as mined after obtaining quarrying permit from the Department of Mining and Geology. Mining and transporting ordinary earth/soil without the permission of Department of Mining and Geology is an offence. Department issues pass for transport of ordinary earth. Dealer's license is not issued for ordinary earth as it is not considered as a mineral mined for commercial purposes.

12.2.2 Ordinary Clay (tile/brick clay)

Clays and clay minerals occur under a fairly limited range of geological conditions and are produced by weathering of silicate minerals containing calcium, magnesium, sodium, or potassium reacting with carbonic acid, carbonates, and bicarbonates. These soluble products are removed by ground water, while the remaining elements, aluminum, silicon, and oxygen combine with water to produce stable clay minerals. The environment of formation include soil horizons, continental and marine sediments, geothermal fields, volcanic deposits, and weathering rock formations. Extensive alteration of rocks to clay minerals can produce relatively pure clay deposits that are of economic interest. Clay formed at the site of the parent rock is known as primary or residual clay; the one carried away or transported and deposited elsewhere is known as secondary clay. For obvious reasons, the former is purer with less impurity (5%–15%), while the latter may contain mica, quartz, and iron oxide as impurities. Geological factors such as conditions at the time of deposition and post-depositional changes have an important influence on the properties of sediment.

Buildings and utensils made of clay date back to the earliest periods of man's civilized development, and the use of clay is intimately associated with his history. Tile and brick kilns are closely associated with Kerala's culture and traditional architecture, which is continued in modern buildings as well.

In Kerala, tile/brick clay occurs in the wetlands/paddy fields in the lowlands and midlands. The clay extracted is used for a variety of purposes such as manufacture of roofing, flooring, and decorative tiles, wire cut (mechanically made) and ordinary bricks (manually made), and pottery wares. Studies carried out in clay mining areas of Kerala have proved that unprecedented increase in the development needs of the state and the subsequent increase in the resource extraction scenarios, especially that of clay mining, have led to rapid

degradation of the wetlands (paddy fields), which is significantly reflected in the declining agricultural productivity of the state. Mining of clays several meters below the prescribed levels, water draining from the unaffected paddy lands into the adjacent mine pits, and subsequent pumping of water for further mining impose severe problems on the hydrological regime, lowering the water table and creating severe water shortage problems in the mining areas. The additional expenditure incurred to meet the freshwater requirements of the people living in areas adjacent to mining sites is increasing year after year, which undermines the short-term economic benefits of resource extraction.

Tile and brick clay mining and its processing provide employment opportunities to a considerable section of the people in the midland and lowland areas of Kerala. Adding to this, thousands of laborers in the construction industry also indirectly depend on the products manufactured from these clays. Under these circumstances and also with respect to the demand incurred, complete restriction of extraction activities does not prove to be viable.

In the study report published by National Center for Earth Science Studies on the impact of clay mining, following recommendations were given with respect to tile/brick clay mining: “It is of imminent importance to regulate random mining from the paddy fields/wetlands of Kerala by allowing only location-specific resource extraction under well-conceived guidelines. It is also crucial to limit the extraction of tile and brick clays to meet indigenous and local demand only. This is to save the prime agricultural land and also to increase the rice production in the area. The depth of mining should be demarcated so as to regulate mining with respect to the water table condition in the summer season. Also, adequate measures are to be taken to regenerate the natural ground water table using the stored water in the clay mine pits for irrigating the agricultural crops of the hinterland areas. This will enhance the net agricultural productivity of the area in addition to saturating the aquifer systems in the hinterlands. Awareness creation among the public about the adversities of clay mining and as well as the economic benefits of using clay bricks for construction purposes will serve in the protection of our wetlands/paddy fields. Recycling of building materials should also be considered in order to reduce mining of tile and brick clays. The abandoned clay mine areas left behind as fallow lands or water logged areas can be used for productive purposes such as fish farm ponds or irrigation ponds that promise some utility to the society. Also, suitable guidelines should be framed to streamline the tile and brick clay mining activities of the state on an ecofriendly basis.”

The Kerala Conservation of Paddy Land and Wetland Act, 2008 and Rules made thereunder which was enacted for conservation of paddy land and wetlands of Kerala imposes

restrictions in mining of tile/brick clays in such areas. The said Act and Rules are implemented by Revenue Department. In addition, Government have setup District Expert Committee to monitor and control the mining activities of ordinary clay. In Kerala Minor Mineral Concession Rules 2015, it is mandated that No Objection Certificate from the District Collector concerned, based on the recommendation of the District Expert Committee constituted by the Government in this regard, is to be produced by the applicant in the case of application for extraction of ordinary clay. In addition, Bank guarantee from any Nationalized or Scheduled Bank at the rate of Rs. 300 (Rupees three hundred only) per cubic metre for the purpose of reclamation of pits that will be formed after quarrying in the area permitted, in respect of application for extraction of ordinary clay. Based on the request of the entrepreneurs working in tile/brick clay based industry, Government have instructed the Department of Mining and Geology to carry out survey to identify the mineable tile/brick clay deposits of Kerala and the work in this respect is progressing.

The district has fairly good resources of tile/brick clay. Good deposits of tile clay are noticed along the flood plains of Kalady, Parur and Neythodu areas.

12.2.3 Ordinary Sand

In Kerala Minor Mineral Concession Rules, 2015, the ordinary sand is defined as sand used for non-industrial purpose. This includes both river sand and sand excavated from inland areas like palaeo-channels. Since a separate Act has been enacted by Government of Kerala namely, The Kerala Protection of River Banks and Regulation of Removal of Sand Act, 2001 (hereafter referred to as Sand Act, 2001) and since the mining of river sand is controlled by Revenue Department by virtue of the powers conferred by the said Act and the Rules made thereunder, the Department of Mining and Geology now regulates the mining of sand which do not comes under the purview of Sand Act, 2001.

The ordinary sand (other than river sand) occurs in the palaeo-channels. The word paleo-channel is formed from the words “paleo” or “old,” and channel; i.e., a paleo-channel is an old channel. Paleo-channels are deposits of unconsolidated sediments or semi-consolidated sedimentary rocks deposited in ancient, currently inactive river and stream channel systems. These are typical riverine geomorphic features in a location representing drainage streams, rivers, rivulets which were flowing either ephemeral or perennial during the past time and now stands either buried or lost or shifted due to tectonic, geomorphologic, anthropogenic process/activities, as well as climatic changes. When a channel ceases to be part of an active river system, it becomes a paleo-channel. In order to tap the ordinary sand occurring in

palaeo-channels, the Department entrusted the study of identification of palaeo-channels in major river basins of Kerala to Geological Survey of India (GSI). GSI resorted to remote sensing studies using satellite imageries and delineated some of the palaeo-channels. However, since such deposits falls in paddy land/wetlands of Kerala, it is difficult to extract such sand on account of restrictions imposed by various Acts and Rules.

The Kerala Conservation of Paddy Land and Wetland Act, 2008 and Rules made thereunder which was enacted for conservation of paddy land and wetlands of Kerala imposes restrictions in mining of ordinary sands occurring in wetlands and paddy fields. The said Act and Rules are implemented by Revenue Department. In addition, Government have setup District Expert Committee to monitor and control the mining activities of ordinary sand. In Kerala Minor Mineral Concession Rules 2015, it is mandated that No Objection Certificate from the District Collector concerned, based on the recommendation of the District Expert Committee constituted by the Government in this regard, is to be produced by the applicant in the case of application for extraction of ordinary sand. In addition, Bank guarantee from any Nationalized or Scheduled Bank at the rate of Rs. 300 (Rupees three hundred only) per cubic metre for the purpose of reclamation of pits that will be formed after quarrying in the area permitted, in respect of application for extraction of ordinary sand.

The mining of ordinary sand from palaeo-channels also case some environmental concerns. Since sand is a good aquifer, the mining of aquifer system poses threat to ground water availability in surrounding areas. However in certain cases, the mining of such sand from paddy lands increase the productivity of paddy as excess sand in the paddy lands are not good for paddy.

In Kerala, due to shortage of river sand and ordinary sand occurring in palaeo-channels, the construction industry now uses manufactured sand obtained by crushing of crystalline rocks. **It may be noted that since the Revenue Department is taking care of all types of mining activities related to river sand and since sand auditing and other studies are carried out under the aegis of the Revenue Department, this report shall not be used for the purpose of obtaining prior environmental clearance for mining of river sand.**

12.2.4 Laterite

Laterite is a soil and rock type rich in iron and aluminium, and is commonly considered to have formed in hot and wet tropical areas. Nearly all laterites are of rusty-red coloration, because of high iron oxide content. They develop by intensive and long-lasting weathering of the underlying parent rock. Tropical weathering is a prolonged process of chemical

weathering which produces a wide variety in the thickness, grade, chemistry and ore mineralogy of the resulting soils. The majority of the land area containing laterites is between the tropics of Cancer and Capricorn.

Angadipuram Laterite is a National Geological Monument identified in Angadipuram town in Malappuram district. The special significance of Angadipuram to laterites is that it was here that Dr. Francis Buchanan-Hamilton, a professional surgeon, gave the first account of this rock type, in his report of 1807, as "indurated clay", ideally suited for building construction. This formation falls outside the general classification of rocks namely, the igneous, metamorphic, or sedimentary rocks but is an exclusively "sedimentary residual product". It has a generally pitted and porous appearance. The name laterite was first coined in India, by Buchanan and its etymology is traced to the Latin word "letritis" that means bricks. This exceptional formation is found above parent rock types of various composition namely, charnockite, leptynite, anorthosite and gabbro in Kerala. The laterite profiles in different types of rocks varies depending on the composition of parent rock. For example in Charnockites, the thickness of the profile ranges from 2 m to 10 m with humus zone on the top with thin pebbly zone (with ferruginous pellets in clayey matrix), underlain by vermicular laterite with tubular cavities of various shapes and size filled with kaolinitic clay. This is followed by thin layer of lithomarge. Further below completely weathered, partly weathered or fresh parent rock occur. In some places one can see hard duricrust at the top. The mineralogical study of laterites reveals that all the silicate minerals have been transformed to a mixture of goethite, hematite and kaolinite in laterite samples developed over charnockite. Further studies revealed that pyroxenes have been altered to goethite while feldspars gave rise to kaolinite. Quartz is cracked, eroded and disintegrated. Monazite and Zircons are found as accessory minerals.

Laterite and bauxite show a tendency to occur together. Aluminous laterites and ferruginous bauxites are quite common. The most common impurity in both is silica. Laterite gradually passes into bauxite with decrease in iron oxide and increase in aluminium oxide. The laterite deposits may be described on the basis of the dominant extractable minerals in it: (i) aluminous laterite (bauxite), (ii) ferruginous laterite (iron ore), (iii) manganiferous laterite (manganese ore), (iv) nickeliferous laterite (nickel ore) and (v) chromiferous laterite (chrome ore). Laterite with $Fe_2O_3:Al_2O_3$ ratio more than one, and $SiO_2:Fe_2O_3$ ratio less than 1.33 is termed as ferruginous laterite, while that having $Fe_2O_3:Al_2O_3$ ratio less than one and $SiO_2:Al_2O_3$ ratio less than 1.33 is termed as aluminous laterite. Laterite can be considered as polymetallic ore as it is not only the essential repository for aluminium, but also a source

of iron, manganese, nickel and chromium. Furthermore, it is the home for several trace elements like gallium and vanadium which can be extracted as by-products. In Kerala laterites are extracted as building stones which are used for construction of building. Laterite as a building stone possesses one advantage that it is soft when quarried and can be easily cut and dressed into blocks and bricks which on exposure to air become hard. In addition, laterite (aluminous laterite) is extracted for industrial purposes (for eg. Cement industry). In addition to aluminous laterite, bauxites are also mined in Kerala. Hence, while granting mineral concession for laterite it is necessary to carry out the chemical analysis to establish whether the mineral is bauxite or aluminous laterite.

Laterite, the main construction material of the area, has a very wide distribution. It is quarried in the form of large bricks and is used in building construction. The basement rocks are also good source of construction material.

12.2.5 Granite Dimension Stone and Granite (building stone)

For administrative purpose the hard crystalline rocks which do not have any economic minerals are classified as granite dimension stones and granite (building stones). The definition given in the Kerala Minor Mineral Concession Rules 2015 is as follows:-

‘Granite dimension stones include all types of granites, dolerite, charnockite, leptynite and other crystalline rocks of Acid, Intermediate, basic and ultra basic groups of igneous and metamorphic origin which are suitable for cutting to pre-determined sizes, polishing, carving and amenable for making value-added products in decorative monumental and ornamental fields of industry as a high-value item. Granite (building stone) include all those group of rocks specified above which are not suitable for using as dimension stones as specified therein, but can be used as ordinary building stones, road metal, rubble and ballasts after breaking into irregular pieces by blasting or otherwise as low value item. The Rules insists that the rocks having the quality of granite dimension stone shall not be quarried for granite building stone as these two types of rocks have different values/royalties’.

The major granite dimension stone belt of Kerala can be classified by its geologic setting into three categories:

- Charnockite-Khondalite belt (colour ranges from pale green with mottled red, bluish green with cordierite, deep dark green, greyish white).
- True intrusive or anatectic granites and associated migmatites of Proterozoic age (colour: Pink, light pink, Gray, yellowish white and bluish pink with wavy patterns).
- Dolerite-Gabbro dykes, Proterozoic intrusive hypabasal dyke swarms (colour: dark greenish blue, black and dark gray with black spots).

In Ernakulam district, though Charnockite is present, the same is not mined as dimension stone as it is not suitable on account of joints and hairline cracks. Occasionally, leucogabbro is mined in some places for making paving stones.

All Archean and Proterozoic rocks of Kerala (refer section on Geology of Kerala) which are not listed above as granite dimension stone falls under the category of granite (building stone) and are found below ordinary earth/laterites/and other sedimentary rocks. In some cases such rocks are exposed as hillocks without any overburden.

13 Details of minor mineral concessions

Permission for mining will be granted on case to case basis on ascertaining the availability at the site and only if conditions stipulated in the KMMC Rules 2015 are satisfied (The reader may refer the KMMC Rules 2015 available in the website www.dmg.kerala.gov.in for more details in this regard) The concession will be granted only if other statutory licenses like Environmental Clearance, Explosive Licence, consent to operate issued by State Pollution Control Board, NOC issued by Revenue Department (as the case may be), Dangerous and Offensive Trade Licence issued by Local Self Government Institutions, NOC related to Coastal Regulation Zone (as the case may be), NOC issued by Forest (as the case may be) etc. The mineral concession will not be granted in the ecologically sensitive areas, ecological fragile zones etc.

(Will be updated soon)

14 References

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Geology of Kerala

Physiography

Physiographically the state can be divided into four domains from east to west, viz., the Western Ghats, the foothills, the midland and the coastal low-land.

Western Ghats

The hill ranges of the Western Ghats rise to an altitude of over 2500m above the MSL and the crest of the ranges marks the inter-state boundary in most of the places. A breach in the continuity of the ranges marks the Palghat Gap with a sinistral shift of 50 km between the shifted crests. The Wynad plateau and the Munnar (10°57'00": 77°31'00") upland fall within this zone.

Foothills

The foothills of the Western Ghats comprise the rocky area from 200 to 600m above MSL. It is a transitional zone between the high-ranges and midland.

Midland region

This forms an area of gently undulating topography with hillocks and mounds. Laterite capping is commonly noticeable on the top of these hillocks. The low, flat-topped hillocks forming the laterite plateau range in altitude from 30-200m and are observed between coastal low-land and the foothills.

Coastal low-land

Coastal low-land is identified with alluvial plains, sandy stretches, abraded platforms, beach ridges, raised beaches, lagoons and estuaries. The low-land and the plains are generally less than 10m above MSL.

Rivers

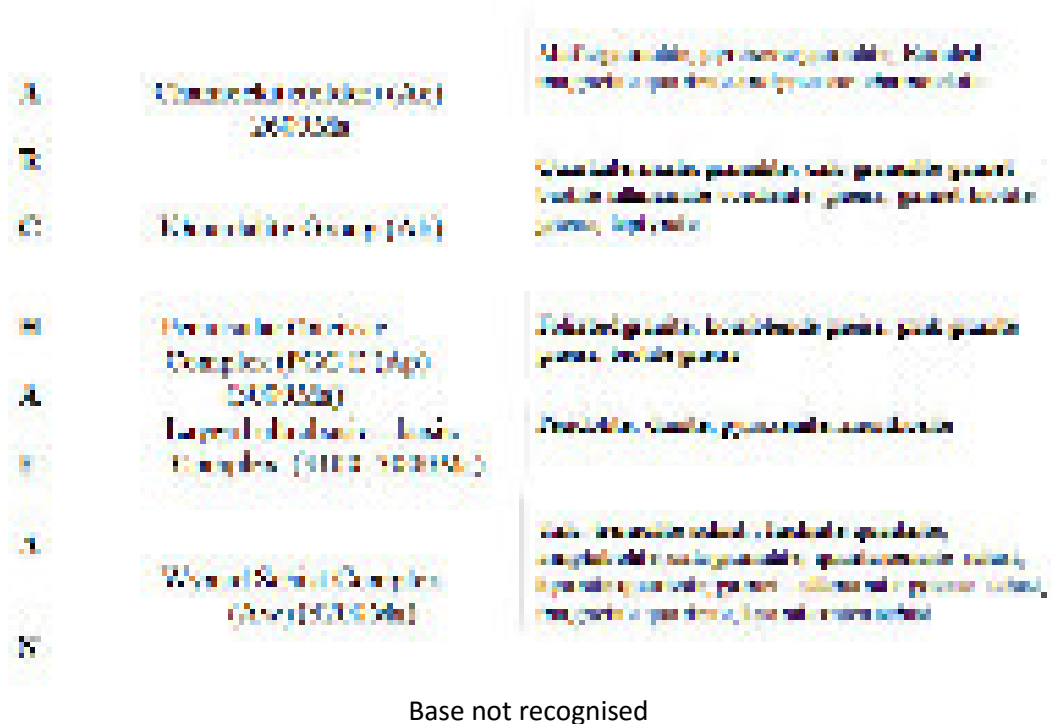
Kerala is drained by 44 rivers, many of which originate from the Western Ghats. Except Kabini, Bhavani and Pambar which are east-flowing, the rest of rivers are west-flowing and join the Arabian Sea. A few of them drain into the backwaters. Most important rivers (with their length in km in parenthesis) of the state, are Chandragiri(105), Valapatnam (110), Achankovil (120) Kallada (121), Muvattupuzha (121), Chalakudy (130), Kadalundi(130), Chaliyar (169), Pampa (176), Bharathapuzha (209) and Periyar (244).

Geology

Geologically, Kerala is occupied by Precambrian crystallines, acid to ultra basic intrusives of Archaean to Proterozoic age, Tertiary (Mio-Pliocene) sedimentary rocks and Quaternary sediments of fluvial and marine origin (Fig.I). Both the crystallines and the Tertiary sediments have been extensively lateritised.

Based on the detailed studies by GSI during the last three decades, the following stratigraphic sequence has been suggested.

	<p>Quaternary (Q)</p> <p>Mio-Pliocene (M1) (Tertiary/Tt)</p> <p>Miocene (M1-1+M2a)</p>	<p>Fluvial lens Eolupine (Pleistocene/Quaternary) Fragile Pliocene (Pliocene) Veg. and vegetation (Pliocene/Quaternary) Shore and formation of Pliocene/Quaternary Lenses</p> <p>Shallow Pliocene (Sandstone and clay with lignite/coal/lignite) Quaternary Pliocene (Coastal/Quaternary and subterranean)</p> <p>Quaternary/Quaternary/Quaternary</p>
T	Younger granite (Y1) (Y1a)	(Older granite, granite, Gneiss/Quartzite and other old granites)
K		
U	Charnoferrite (Younger) (Y1a)	Magnetite/Charnoferrite, magnetite/Charnoferrite, Charnoferrite/Charnoferrite
T		
K	Ultrabasic basalt (Younger) (Y1a)	Trachyte/Charnoferrite, Charnoferrite/Quartzite, Charnoferrite/Quartzite, Magnetite/Quartzite
R		
D	Dark basalt (Y1a)	Appl. - Charnoferrite/Quartzite
X		
U	Megacrystic granite (Older granite) (PGC II) (P1a) (Y1a-1200Ma)	P1a - Granite - granite with mineral of megacrysts, quartzite/Charnoferrite granite, Charnoferrite - Magnetite granite, quartzite/Charnoferrite granite
I	Vegetal (A/P1a) Group	Quaternary/Quaternary and quartzite, conglomerate
C		



The Archaeans

Rocks of Archaean Era encompass a wide spectrum of litho-assemblages ranging from khondalite, charnockite, gneiss and meta-sedimentary rocks occupying the Western Ghats including the foothill region. The Khondalite and Charnockite Group are correlated with the Eastern Ghat Supergroup based on the overall similarity in lithology and geochronology.

Wynad Supracrustals

The meta-sedimentary, and ultramafic rocks occurring in the Wynad District generated keen interest among the GSI geologists in 1970s. The high-grade Wynad supracrustal rocks are correlated with the Sargur Schist Complex of the Karnataka (Nair, *et al*, 1975; Adiga, 1980). The schistose rocks are characterised by intense deformation, medium to high-grade metamorphism, migmatitisation and lack of sedimentary structures. The schist complex consists of meta-ultramafites, schist, meta-pelites, meta-pyroxenite, serpentinite, talc-tremolite rock and amphibolite.

The meta-sedimentaries occur as thin linear bodies within the migmatites. These consist of pelites, psammopelites and quartzites. The predominant rock types are corundum- mica schist, kyanite schist, quartz- mica schist and iron stone.(Anil Kumar *et al*,1993).

These rocks occur as narrow arcuate belts, lenses, and other forms of enclaves within Peninsular gneisses and charnockite. The group can be divided into medium-to low- grade metasedimentary rocks and meta-mafic and meta-ultramafic rocks. The lithology of the high-grade schists consist of quartz-mica schist with kyanite, quartz-sericite schists, quartzites, magnetite quartzite, fuchsite quartzite and meta-ultramafites. Their contact with the surrounding gneisses are concordant due to later co-folding. Several linear belts of such high-grade schists and ultramafite enclaves occur as isolated bands within the granulite and gneissic terrain of Kasaragod and Kannur districts.

Layered ultrabasic- basic complex

Remnants of layered basic- ultrabasic complex are reported from Attappadi area (Nambiar 1982). The ultramafics are represented by meta-pyroxenite, meta-dolerite, peridotite with chromite and meta-gabbro (Lahiri *et al*, 1975). The anorthosite of Attappadi is only a few metre thick. Occurrences are around Narsimukku, Pudur and Melmulli areas. An east-west trending narrow lenticular body of serpentinitised dunite is reported from Punalur mica mine belt.

A minor body (200 m long and 10-15m wide) of anorthosite was reported within pyroxene-granulite-charnockite terrain from Katanjari *parambu* of Kasargod district (Adiga, 1979).

Another dismembered layered igneous complex consisting of alternate layers of peridotite and pyroxenite within charnockite was traced around Panathadi area of Kannur District (Adiga, 1980).

Peninsular Gneissic Complex- I (PGC-I)

The rocks of Peninsular Gneissic Complex (PGC) are exposed in the northern parts of Kerala adjoining Karnataka. This consists of a heterogeneous mixture of granitoid materials. The equivalent rocks of PGC in Kerala include hornblende-biotite gneiss (sheared), biotite-hornblende gneiss, foliated granite and pink granite gneiss. Granite gneiss is exposed along the intra-State boundary of Palakkad District as well as in Idukki District. Pink granite gneiss, though widespread, is best developed in Devikolam (10°04'00": 77°06'30"), and Udumbanchola (10°00'00":77°15'00") areas of Idukki District.

This consists of gneisses showing preponderance of either hornblende or biotite. The percentage of hornblende and biotite varies from place to place. This can be traced from Manantoddy to further northwest upto the west coast. West of Manantoddy, the rock is hornblende gneiss. It shows coarse granulitic to gneissic texture and is composed of hornblende, feldspar, quartz, pyroxene, biotite and garnet. Alkali feldspar shows alteration to clay and sericite. Biotite is mainly secondary after hornblende.

Around Mahe and Thalasseri, the biotite gneiss (Nair *et al.*, 1974) is medium-grained and gneissose rock consisting of alternate layers of mafics and felsics.

Khondalite Group

The Khondalite Group of rocks include calc-granulites, quartzite and para-gneisses of pelitic parentage. Para-gneisses are ubiquitous and are well-developed in the southern part of the state, particularly, in Thiruvananthapuram and Kollam districts. Calc-granulite and quartzite occur as bands within the para-gneisses and amidst the Charnockite Group and migmatitic gneisses.

Calc-granulite

Calc-granulite occurs as linear bands mainly in the eastern part of Kollam and Thiruvananthapuram District, northeast and east of Munnar in Idukki district and in parts of Palakkad District. The rock is generally medium to coarse-grained, inequigranular and granoblastic in texture. It consists of diopside and plagioclase. Minerals like wollastonite, scapolite, calcite, garnet, spinel, sphene, quartz and apatite are also present in different proportions.

Quartzite

Quartzite occurs as linear bands amidst the khondalitic gneiss, charnockite and migmatitic gneisses. These bands are exposed between Pathanamthitta (9°15'45": 76°47'00"), and Muvattupuzha (9°59'00": 76°35'00") in Ernakulam District. The rock is coarse-grained and generally white in color with a brownish coating on the weathered surface. It consists of granular quartz with subordinate feldspar, garnet and iron oxide.

Garnetiferous biotite-sillimanite gneiss

Garnetiferous biotite- sillimanite gneiss is well-developed in the southern part of the state. It occurs in close association with the migmatitic gneisses, charnockite and charnockite gneisses, mostly as weathered outcrops. Sillimanite- rich bands occur alternating with garnet - rich portions or with quartzo-feldspathic layers. Rutile and iron oxides are the common accessory minerals.

Charnockite Group

Charnockite Group shows great diversity in lithology comprising pyroxene granulite, hornblende pyroxenite, magnetite quartzite, charnockite and hypersthene-diopside gneisses and cordierite gneiss. Charnockite and charnockitic gneiss have preponderance over all other crystalline rocks covering 40 -50% of the total area of the State. The charnockites are well-exposed in the central and northern parts of Kerala including the high-hills of the Western Ghats. Charnockite has lesser predominance in Thiruvananthapuram and Kollam districts. In Attappady, the Bhavani Shear Zone is limited by the charnockite massif of the Nilgiri plateau on the north. Though the interrelationship of the Charnockite and the Khondalite is not clear, in many places there are intercalations rather than interlayering of one with the other. In Palakkad District, the Khondalite Group of rocks structurally overlie the charnockite. The occurrence of pyroxene granulite as fine and linear bodies within the charnockite of Tirur, suggests that charnockite is a product of migmatization of pyroxene granulite (Vidyadharan and Sukumaran, 1978). Charnockite and charnockitic gneiss consist of quartz, feldspar and biotite. Garnet-bearing variants are also observed. The basic charnockite is more granulitic and contains clino- and ortho- pyroxenes, feldspar, biotite and garnet whereas the acid variety (alaskite/ enderbite) is greenish black, coarse-grained, massive to poorly foliated rock consisting of quartz, feldspar and pyroxenes. Basic charnockite has low- potash feldspar and more clinopyroxene. This is devoid of garnet and graphite, but shows a little amount of biotite (Chacko, 1922). Due to the polygenetic nature of the rock, geochemical and

mineralogical variations do exist between charnockites reported from Kerala. In the Periyar valley region, in Idukki and Kottayam districts, pyroxenite and alaskite constitute the Charnockite Group (Nair, and Selvan, 1976).

The available age data indicate that the massive charnockites are older and their ages range between 2155 and 2930 ± 50 Ma (Soman, 1997).

Also charnockite has been subjected to retrogression and migmatization.

Archaean to Palaeo-Proterozoic

Vengad Group

A succession of schistose rocks in parts of Tellicherry taluk in Kannur district is described as Vengad Group of rocks (Nair, 1976). The Vengad Group comprises of basal conglomerate, quartzite and quartz-mica schist. The contacts are highly gradational. The conglomerate shows graded bedding and quartzite shows current-bedding.

An angular unconformity marked by conglomerate horizon extending from Kuthuparamba ($11^{\circ}49'30''$: $75^{\circ}34'00''$) to Vengad ($11^{\circ}53'30''$: $75^{\circ}32'00''$) in Kannur district, separates the younger quartz-mica schist and quartzite from the older schistose and gneissic rocks. The lithology consists of basal oligomictic conglomerate, quartzite, quartz-biotite-muscovite schist and biotite quartzite. The schists are exposed over an area of 300 sq km having a lensoidal shape with its longer axis trending in NW-SE direction. The basement rock is gneissic or migmatitic with relicts of high-grade schists, ultramafites and quartzites of the Wynad Schist Complex. Four major occurrences of conglomerate are noticed in a NW-SE direction over a length of 10 km.

Lack of migmatization, presence of primary structures and low-grade metamorphic minerals characterize these rocks.

Migmatite\ Gneiss\ Granitoid (PGC-II)

Quartzo-feldspathic gneiss

Migmatite includes variety of gneissic rocks which are next in importance to charnockite as a dominant litho-assemblage. Quartzo-feldspathic gneiss occurring along the contact zone between garnet-biotite gneiss and garnet-sillimanite gneiss of Thiruvananthapuram area represents an original intrusive phase. It is a feebly foliated, fine-grained, leucocratic granulitic

rock occurring in close association with garnet-sillimanite gneiss and garnet-biotite gneiss with gradational contact relationship in the southern parts of Kerala. The origin of this rock is attributed to stress-induced injection of acid materials into the host rocks (Nageswara Rao and Raju, 1970).

Garnet- biotite gneiss

Garnet-biotite gneiss is well-developed in the northeastern parts of Kollam and Thiruvananthapuram districts. This carries inclusions of pyroxene granulite and disseminations of graphite at many places (Jacob, 1965). It consists of quartz, microperthite, biotite, plagioclase and graphite. This rock also occurs in the northern parts of Palakkad District in close association with khondalite, charnockite and hornblende gneiss. These rocks are subsequently formed by retrogression and migmatization of the Khondalite Group.

East of Kottayam and Idukki districts, light grey, pink garnet-bearing biotite gneiss is widely seen. It is a gneissic granulite. The presence of biotite and concentration of garnet in layers give the rock a banded appearance. (GSI, 1995).

Hornblende gneiss, hornblende-biotite gneiss, quartz- mica gneiss

These rock types occur within the migmatites and associated retrograded charnockite. The naming is purely based on the preponderance of the minerals and these rocks occur in the Periyar valley area east of Thodupuzha. (Nair and Selvan, 1976). These medium-grained, foliated, banded rocks consist of alternate layers rich in hornblende or biotite. Bands of coarse to medium-grained light grey to pink granite traverse these rocks. Hornblende- biotite gneiss showing lit par lit relationship with the granite gneisses is the dominant rock type in the Periyar valley. This is admixed with contorted bands and enclaves of pyroxene granulite, calc-granulite and hornblende- biotite granulite. These are highly deformed.

In the Palakkad gap area, these gneisses occur over a large area, showing migmatitic structures such as agmatites, nebulites, schlierens, ptygmatic folds, quartzo-feldspathic neosomes and ferromagnesian palaeosomes. (Muraleedharan and Raman, 1989).

Proterozoic

Basic intrusives

Basic dyke emplacements within the Archaean crystalline rocks of Kerala are spread throughout the entire length and breadth of the state. Of these, dolerite dyke occurring north of the Palakkad gap had given Proterozoic age whereas in the south this dyke is of Phanerozoic

age. The older basic dykes are metamorphosed along with the country rocks and are now recognised as epidiorite and amphibolite. Another set of dykes, apparently post-dating the regional metamorphic event are subjected to thermal metamorphism. Clouding and sericitisation of feldspars and uralitisation of pyroxenes are common in such dykes. In the absence of chronological data such dykes are considered to be of Proterozoic age. Most of the dykes are vertical in disposition and are traced as linear features. *En-echelon* pattern of some dyke swarms suggests that magmatic intrusion was controlled by shearing of the host rock., Mineralogically, the dykes are made up mostly of plagioclase feldspar and pyroxene(augite and aegirine-augite) with magnetite, apatite and olivine as accessories. The ENE-WSW dolerite dyke swarm of Agali- Anakkati area in Palakkad District within the Bhavani Shear zone showed in isotopic age from 1900 to 2000 Ma (Radhakrishna and Mathew Joseph, 1993). The rock is highly jointed and altered (Jacob, 1965). Similar basic intrusive bodies are traced in the Achankovil shear zone in Vazhamuttam (9°14'00":76°46'40"), Kulasekhara pettah (9°16'00":76°47'45") (Thomas Mathai *et al*, 1984). Sheet-like bodies of fine to medium-grained, dark coloured meta-gabbro occurs in Periyamuli (11°13'00"; 76°43'00") for about 20 km in ENE-WSW direction, Karuvarai (11°04'00"; 76°32'30") and few gabbro bodies south of Thuvapattu (11°06'30"; 76°44'45") in Attapady valley, Palakkad district. Meta-gabbro forms small hillocks east of Payyanam (10°31'00"; 76°21'00"), southwest of Kainur (10°36'00"; 76°09'00") and Chemmannur (10°41'00"; 76°01'00"), Vaga (10°35'00"; 76°06'00") and Arthat (10°37'00"; 76°03'00") in Trichur District (Mahadevan, 1962).

Dykes in north Kerala show , NW-SE, NE-SW and NNW-SSE trends. Host rocks are charnockite, gneisses and supracrustals(Radhakrishna *et al* 1991). Dykes are mainly dolerite but occasional meta-gabbro or meta-norite are also traced. In Agali- Anaikatti area of the Attapadi- Bhavani shear zone, dykes are confined within a 20-25km wide zone and extend from west of Agali to eastward for about 100km following a ENE-WSW direction.(Radhakrishna, *et al*, 1999).

The rock consists of 95% calcic plagioclase, 5% clinopyroxenes and subordinate amounts of magnetite. There are a number of concordant and discordant basic intrusive of dolerite and gabbro,meta-gabbro, meta-norite, meta-pyroxenite and anorthositic gabbro. These are not mappable and are seen in Pappinpra (11°06'20", 76°05'56") Velli(11°04'00":76°07'45"),

Kalpetta (11°04'12":76°05'32). An extensive basic diorite has been mapped over an area of 25 sq km at Panavalli (11°53'30",76 ° 2'30"; Nair, *et al* 1976).

The rock is composed predominantly of calcic plagioclase (95%) rest clinopyroxene with subordinate amount of magnetite. Another relatively small body of anorthosite is around Kalivalli (11°51'30"; 76°12'30") in south Wynad taluk, Wynad District.

Ultrabasic/ basic intrusive (younger)

Perinthatta Anorthosite

A major elliptical body of anorthosite spread over an area of more than 50 sq.km is reported from Perinthatta (12°10'00":75°17'30";Vidyadharan *et al*, 1977). The anorthosite is with a very irregular border and a tongue-like projection into the country rock of charnockite and pyroxene granulite of Kannur District.The anorthosite is coarse to very coarse-grained, and shows variations from pure anorthosite to gabbroic anorthosite and gabbro from the centre to the periphery suggestive of zoning. The modal composition corresponds to nearly 95% plagioclase (An₅₈₋₇₂) and <10% clinopyroxene, apatite, calcite and magnetite. The gabbroic variants have more of mafics.

The structural configuration suggests that the anorthosite was emplaced in synformal structure as a phacolith. The flow-banding in anorthosite indicates its syntectonic emplacement. The Perinthatta anorthosite is assigned a Proterozoic age.

Ezhimala gabbro-granophyre complex

The major high-relief feature proximal to the Perinthatta anorthosite is constituted by the gabbro-granophyre Complex (Nair and Vidyadharan, 1982). The granophyre massif is fringed by the gabbro to the east and south. The Bavali fault running north of the complex is presumed to have dismembered the body from the Perinthatta anorthosite. Locally, the gabbro has anorthositic differentiates within it. Veins of granophyre traverse the gabbro at places give rise to breccia-like structures. The granophyre shows a sharp contact with the gabbro into which it intrudes. Rapakivi structure is observed within the granophyre. According to Nair and Vidyadharan (1982) rocks of Ezhimala complex display bimodal character with conspicuous basic and silicic components.

Kartikulam and Karraug Gabbro

Two gabbro bodies namely Kartikulam gabbro and Karraug gabbro are located northeast of Manantoddy bordering the Karnataka (Nair *et al*, 1975).The gabbro body at Kartikulam

occupies an area of about 45 sq.km. with an elliptical shape within the gneissic terrain. The actual contact with the gneiss is concealed but it is believed to be sharp. At many places, the gabbro is agmatized by coarse quartzo-feldspathic material.

The gabbro is coarse-grained and of uneven texture consisting essentially of plagioclase and pyroxene. Variation to anorthositic composition is noticed. The plagioclase is of labrodorite composition and shows alteration to sericite at places (Rema Warriar and Venkataraman, 1986). The pyroxenes are uraltized to varying degrees.

The Karraug gabbro body is located east of it and south of the Kabini River. It shows similar features as that of the Kartikulam gabbro. The rock shows phenocrysts of feldspar set in a fine matrix of flaky minerals.

Adakkathodu gabbro

At Adakkathodu (12°31'35"; 75°10'25"), northwest of Manantoddy, a 8 km long meta-gabbro, is intrusive into the basement gneisses on three sides and the Wynad schists in the east. It occurs proximal to the Bavali fault/lineament. It encloses patches of quartz-sericite schists and biotite gneiss. (Nair *et al*, 1975). The rock is mesocratic to melanocratic, medium to coarse grained consisting mainly of pyroxene and plagioclase. The rock shows sub-ophitic texture and consists of enstatite and intermediate plagioclase of andesine-labrodorite composition (Nair *et al*, 1976). While the gabbro bodies of Kartikulam and Karraug to the east are olivine-bearing, the Adakkathodu gabbro is enstatite-bearing. Olivine, augite and zoned feldspars are recorded from the eastern body while the western body is enstatite-bearing, without the zoning in feldspar.

Begur diorite

An extensive basic diorite body (25 sq.km.) has been traced north of Manantoddy in the Begur Reserve Forest (Nair, *et al*, 1976). It extends from Thirunelli to the Karnataka State border. The southern contact is with augen gneisses indicating emplacement along shear zones while the northern one with sillimanite gneisses. Aplite and dolerite veins are seen traversing the rock mostly parallel to the regional foliation. The rock is mesocratic to melanocratic, coarse-grained and consists of pink to grey feldspar, hornblende and biotite.

The rock is feebly gneissic and at places porphyritic (Rema Warriar and Venkataramana, 1986). The phenocrysts are mostly plagioclase. Mafics at times swerve round the phenocrysts

giving rise to augen structure. Hornblende is altered to biotite and chlorite. Accessories include epidote, apatite, zoisite and opaques.

The diorite shows tholeiitic characteristics. The diorite is considered as a transitional rock from the gabbro with which it is spatially associated in the nearby area with the plagioclase become more sodic.

Charnockites [younger]

The area south of Palakkad exposes charnockite over large areas. The charnockites are represented by acid microperthitic charnockite and intermediate gneissic charnockite occurring in association with garnetiferous biotite gneiss and khondalite (Narayanaswamy and Purna Lakshmi, 1967). Massive charnockites are developed on a regional scale and occur as mappable litho-units (Raju and Gopalakrishnan, 1972), around Nedumangad. The massive charnockites in majority of the cases are acid and intermediate in composition. The rock is medium to coarse-grained and shows xenoblastic texture. It is composed of quartz, feldspar, pyroxenes, garnet and graphite with accessories like biotite, zircon, apatite and monazite.

Small patches, lenses or veins of charnockite occur in the gneisses of amphibolite facies in the Thiruvananthapuram area (Nageswara Rao and Raju, 1970). Here, the incipient charnockites are thought to have formed by transformation of paragneisses. (Hansen *et al*, 1987; Santosh *et al*, 1990). A few dominant varieties of incipient charnockites have been categorized by Ravindra Kumar and Chacko (1986) on the basis of their mode of occurrence, association and chemical processes involved in their development. At Kottavattom, north of Thiruvananthapuram, the charnockite consisting of quartz, K-feldspar, plagioclase, biotite, garnet and orthopyroxene as essential minerals and graphite, zircon, ilmenite, monazite, apatite, rutile and magnetite as accessory minerals are products of transformation of gneisses into coarse-grained charnockites along a system of conjugate fractures and foliation planes. (Saritha and Santosh, 1996).

Cordierite or Charnockite Gneiss

Cordierite bearing large linear zones of charnockites were reported around Pathanamthitta (Nageswara Rao and Jacob, 1967) area. Cordierite charnockites or orthopyroxene-garnet-cordierite bearing gneisses (Sinha Roy *et al*, 1984; Santosh, 1987) occur as discontinuous bodies in the northern parts of Thiruvananthapuram and in selected stretches further south around Koliakode. The rock is composed of cordierite, orthopyroxene, plagioclase, K-feldspar, spinel and quartz and a little garnet and biotite.

The growth of cordierite and orthopyroxene took place concomitantly during the conversion of gneisses to charnockites. At Nellikala in Pathanamthitta, the cordierite occurs as anhedral grains of variable sizes in the charnockites (Nandakumar, 1996).

Younger granites

The granites and its variants occur around Chengannur in Alappuzha and Pathanamthitta districts, Munnar in Idukki District, Peralimala in Kannur district and Kalpetta and Ambalavayal in Wynad District. Many of these granites occur as later emplacements along crustal fractures and faults. The Achenkovil – Tamraparni tectonic zone, the Attapadi shear zone, Bavali shear zone and the Moyar shear zone are all marked by granitic emplacements

Ambalavayal granite

The Ambalavayal (11°37'15"; 76 °03'30") granite having an oval shape covers an area of 50 sq.km. The granite is light pink in color and is composed of quartz, pink feldspar, hornblende and biotite. The pegmatites traversing the granite show occasional flakes of molybdenite. The Amabalavayal granite occurring in the proximity of the Bavali lineament is thought to be emplaced during its reactivation. The granite is intrusive into the hornblende-biotite gneiss (migmatite) and the Wynad Supracrustals (Anilkumar *et al*, 1993). Four types of granites are recorded, viz., foliated granite, pink granite, grey granite and aplitic granite.

The foliated granite consists of quartz, microcline, orthoclase, plagioclase, biotite, hornblende, chlorite, calcite and zircon. The pink granite is a medium-grained consisting of quartz, microcline, plagioclase, sericite, chlorite, apatite, rutile, zircon and biotite. The grey granite is a medium-to fine-grained rock consisting of quartz, microcline, sericite, biotite, chlorite and calcite. The aplitic granite is a very fine-grained massive rock consisting of quartz, microcline, orthoclase, plagioclase, sericite, biotite, calcite, chlorite, apatite and opaques.

K-Ar age of Ambalavayal granite (560± 30 Ma, Nair, *et al*, 1985) is lower than Rb-Sr age (595 ± 20 m.a Santhosh *et al*, 1986), but is higher than that of U-Pb-age (505±20ma, Odom, 1982). The reason for this variation in the date may be attributed to the different techniques adopted and also to the presence of biotite of multiple generation.

Munnar granite

The Munnar (10°05'00"; 77°05'00") granite with an areal extent of 50 sq km is an E-W trending irregular body emplaced within the migmatite and apophyses extend into the surrounding gneisses. The granite dated to be 740 ± 30 m.y (Odom, 1982) is traversed by pegmatite, aplite

and quartz veins. Three types of granite are recorded. Foliated granite, Coarse pink granite and medium grey granite. The foliated granite consists of stringers and streaks of mafics consisting of biotite, hornblende, chlorite and magnetite alternating with felsics consisting of quartz and potash feldspar. Potash feldspar is predominantly orthoclase. The closely spaced foliations are persistent but discontinuous. This granite forms a domal structure south of Munnar. It has a sharp contact with the migmatite. Coarse pink granite consists of pink feldspar, quartz and a little amount of mafics. Mafics are biotite, sphene and hornblende. Medium grained grey granite, consists of quartz, feldspar, biotite, chlorite, zircon, sphene, epidote, calcite and sericite.

Major element data of Munnar granites do not show any significant variation amongst the three granites. Content of iron is more in medium grey granite and foliated granite. Different variation diagrams reveal a slight tendency towards alkali granite. The foliated granite shows more percentage of orthoclase than the other two granites. (Nair and Anil Kumar, 1990)

Ezhimala granophyre – granite complex

A prominent granophyre body forms the hill known as Ezhimala, covering an area of 20 sq km in Kannur District. The granophyre is associated with gabbro and granite and is traversed by dolerite dykes. Two types of granophyres have been deciphered; coarse-grained leucocratic one and medium-grained one with more mafics. Drusy type, confined to higher elevation contain numerous vug lines with secondary minerals like quartz and calcite. Rocks of Ezhimala Complex display bimodal character with conspicuous basic and silicic components and total lack of rocks of intermediate composition typical of anorogenic suites (Nair and Vidyadharan, 1982). The granophyre is pink to ash grey coloured, massive, fine to coarse-grained, holocrystalline with equigranular texture. The granites are of two types. The major light pink granite with less of mafics show gradational relationships with the more greyish porphyritic variant (Varadan and Venkataraman, 1976).

Granophyre shows a typical granophyric intergrowth of quartz and feldspar forming the ground mass with phenocrysts of potash feldspar and some zoned plagioclase. The groundmass is totally of orthoclase. Augite is the chief ferro-magnesium mineral. Accessories include apatite, sphene, epidote, calcite and magnetite. Texturally the rock shows variation from coarse-grained leucocratic types with less mafics in the southern portion of the hill and medium to coarse grained type towards northern parts.

Minor outcrops of rapakivi granites are recorded within the granophyres of Ezhimala Complex. Anorthosites of Perinthatta and Kadannappally and granite, granophyre of Ezhimala together form the Ezhimala Complex. The light pink granite with less mafics is the major variety showing a gradational relationship with the more greyish porphyritic variety. The porphyritic variety, at places, shows rapakivi structure. The porphyritic granite shows mantled feldspar megacrysts. This variety grades into porphyritic granites without mantled feldspar and at higher levels grades into granophyre. The granite contains 60% of orthoclase feldspar, 5-10% of plagioclase, 20-25% of quartz with 4% of biotite, epidote, magnetite and fluorite. The low initial Sr_{87}/Sr_{86} ratio indicate that the rocks have a relatively minor amount of older sialic material. The Rb-Sr age of the granophyre is estimated to be 678 m.y (Nair and Vidyadharan, 1982). The Ezhimala Complex lies in close proximity to the Bavali lineament suggesting reactivation along the lineament and intrusion of the body.

Kalpatta granite

The Kalpatta ((11°36'15";76°05'15")) granite is an oval- shaped intrusive into the Wynad schist and covers an area of 44 sq km (Rao and Varadan, 1967). The rock is grey coloured, medium-grained, homogenous biotite granite and has sharp contact with the country rock. A feeble foliation is imparted to the granite at places by biotite flakes. Xenoliths of amphibolite / hornblende gneiss are visible near the periphery. Irregular veins of pegmatite / aplite traverse the granite and also the enclaves. The K-Ar age of the biotite from the Kalpatta granite is dated as 512 ± 30 m.a (Nair *et al*, 1985) and 527 m.a (GSI). Presence of enclaves and absence of significant replacement textures along with the geochemical characteristics assign a magmatic parentage for the granite. The proximity of the pluton to the Bavali lineament probably suggests intrusion along this fracture.

Three types of granites such as coarse grained biotite-granite, fine grained biotite granite, and porphyritic granite are mapped on the basis of texture, colour and mode of occurrence. Coarse-grained granite is a massive bluish grey rock with large xenoblasts of quartz and feldspars. The accessories include biotite, zircon, apatite and sphene. Blastesis of feldspar and sphene are common. Microcline, orthoclase, and plagioclase are seen as the major feldspar. Plagioclase composition varies from albite to oligoclase. This rock is exposed in Trikkaiappetta (11°35'04":76°08'41":), Manikkunnu (11°35'41":76° 07'09"), Kuttamangalam (11°30'08":76°07'11":) (Anilkumar *et al*, 1993).

Fine biotite-granite is a fine grained massive rock exposed around Muttimala (76°06'38":11°37'06"). It consists of orthoclase, quartz, microcline, biotite, sericite, zircon, sphene, apatite and opaques. Myrmekitic quartz is recorded. Pophyritic granite consists of myrmekitic quartz, microcline, sericite and biotite. Very coarse grained biotite with included crystals of orthoclase, microcline and albite are common. Except for the texture, all the three granites show similar characters. (Anilkumar, *et al* 1993). Based on Rb-Sr dating , Kalpatta granite is dated 765 Ma. (Odom 1982).

Chengannur granite

The Chengannur (9°18'45"; 76°31'00") granite in Pathanamthitta District is an oval shaped body with the long axis trending in east-west direction covering an area of 15 sq.km in and around Chengannur. The granite is intrusive into the charnockite gneisses. The body is emplaced close to the Achankovil shear zone. K-Ar date of the hornblende indicates an age of 550 m.a (Soman *et al*, 1983). The Chengannur granite is inferred to be a post kinematic granite of magmatic parentage.

Two types of granites are recorded. One is medium-grained pink granite and the other is coarse-grained grey granite. The former consists of quartz, perthitic feldspar, plagioclase, biotite, hornblende, apatite and zircon. The composition of plagioclase varies from albite to oligoclase. Microcline perthite is also seen. The coarse grained grey granite consists of perthite, plagioclase, hornblende, biotite, quartz with occasional occurrence of hypersthene,apatite and zircon. Hornblende and biotite are less common by occurred minerals than hypersthene. Relicts of hypersthene are also seen. This granite may be a product of granitisation of charnockite. K₂O content always exceeds that of Na₂O . The high SiO₂,high alkali, high Fe/Mg ratio, high values of Gallium indicate that the granite belongs to alkali type. It might have an origin from recycled and rehydrated continental crust. (Nair and Anil Kumar,1990).

Peralimala granite

The Peralimala (11°09'19":75°38'46") alkali granite is a linear intrusive body emplaced along the axial trace of a mega fold in EW direction. Peralimala intrusive body occurs as a diatreme of alkali composition with a maximum linear extension of 15 km and a width of 3 km. Based on colour, texture, composition and mode of occurrence four types of granites are identified. These are pink gneissic granite, porphyritic granite, grey granite and pink granite. Pink alkali granite is a coarse-grained rock consisting of microcline, orthoclase, plagioclase, quartz,

hornblende, epidote, aegirine, sphene, calcite, perthite and apatite. Quartz is present in only subordinate amounts. Feldspar content is very high. The preferred orientation of feldspar gives a crude alignment. At Perumpunna, (75°44'00":11°55'28") pink gneissic granite shows preferred orientation of biotite and pyroxene. The porphyritic granite occurs as a lensoidal body containing quartz, feldspar, pyroxene and hornblende. Feldspar forms the phenocrysts in a matrix of quartz-feldspar and mafics. Grey granite is a coarse- to medium- grained rock with microcline, quartz, orthoclase, perthite, hornblende and zoisite. Light grey granite is a medium-grained rock consisting of microcline, orthoclase, plagioclase (albite to oligoclase), epidote, aegirine, hornblende and rutile. The major element chemistry of the granite do not show much variation. The pink granite shows high content of potash. A negative correlation for K₂O content with respect to SiO₂ is very pronounced for pink granite owing to its alkaline nature. Barium and strontium show very high values for Peralimala granite. (Anilkumar *et al*,1993).

Sholayur granite

The Sholayur (11°04'15";76°42'00") granite, is exposed around Kuttiyadikal Mala (11°01'52":76°42'00") and Vachchpathi (11°04'15":76°44'00"). It is a homophanous medium-grained, pink coloured granite, consisting of quartz, orthoclase, microcline, oligoclase, perthite, aegirine augite, biotite, hornblende and sphene. In some places, calcite, apatite, sericite are also observed. The schlierens mark the contact zone of the granites with the host rock. This granite is emplaced within the Wynad supracrustals. SiO₂ varies from 58.76 to 73%, Al₂O₃ 14% to 17%, Na₂O 1.8% to 2.4% and K₂O 0.8 to 1.5%. The distribution of SiO₂ is highly non-uniform within the same type of granite. The pink granite is becoming alkali granite at places.(Anil Kumar and Nair,1992).

Intermediate intrusives

The syenite body at Mannapra (10°30'00";76°32'00") is exposed as an elongated NW-SE trending body covering an area of 8 sq km in Thrissur District. The syenite intrusive, makes sharp contact with the charnockite near the charnockite-migmatite contact. The rock is medium to coarse- grained at its peripheries and tends to be coarse-grained towards the centre. Mineralogically, the rock is composed of alkali feldspar, orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene and amphibole with minor amounts of plagioclase, biotite and opaques. A small syenite (Angadimugar syenite) body is located in Kumbala village (12°35'15"; 76°07'00") and about 20 km east of Kumbala in Kasaragod District. The intrusive body has an elliptical outline and covers an area of 5 sq km. The body is intrusive into the Khondalite Group and encloses

enclaves of amphibolite in the peripheral parts. The rock is medium to coarse grained, light grey and massive.

Mesozoic intrusives

Basic intrusives

Basic intrusives in Kerala, mainly represented by dyke swarms in NNW-SSE to NW-SE trend, cut across all the metamorphic rocks and the earlier structural trends. Their unmetamorphosed nature and stratigraphic relation with the country rocks prompted their correlation to the Deccan Trap volcanism.

The basic dykes have been emplaced into the migmatites and charnockite in NNW-SSE to NW-SE and ENE-WSW directions along distensional and shear fractures respectively. Dolerite dykes of Kerala are mostly quartz tholeiites rarely clinotholeiite. The basic dykes of Pathanamthitta ($9^{\circ}15'45''$: $76^{\circ}45'30''$) are genetically unrelated types. These dykes have not undergone any internal differentiation during intrusion.

The variation in the chemistry of individual dykes may be due to the cogenetic differential sequence. Dolerite dykes intrude the country rocks at an angle greater than 80° . The dolerite dykes of Kuttuparamba ($11^{\circ}49'30''$: $75^{\circ}34'00''$) in Kannur District shows cross cutting relationship with all the formations. The basic dykes of Vamanapuram ($8^{\circ}43'00''$: $76^{\circ}54'00''$) are either gabbroic or doleritic intruding the gneissic rocks. These are trending NNE to SSW and NNW to SSE directions and are unmetamorphosed. Mineralogically all these dykes show more or less same composition except the meta-dolerites. Variation in the trace elements like Ti, Zr can be attributed to the differential degree of partial melting of the mantle material. (Nair and Gopala Rao, 1989).

The unmetamorphosed Idamalayar gabbroic dyke with a NNW-SSE trend is traced for over 80 km in the central part of Kerala. The rock is mesocratic, medium-grained, porphyritic and is composed of plagioclase (andesine to labradorite), hornblende and opaques. The reported age of 75 m.y for the Idamalayar dyke (Subramaniam, 1976) links it in time-relationship with Deccan Trap volcanism.

The NNW-SSE trending leucogabbro dykes in central Kerala dated by whole rock K-Ar method gave an age of 81 ± 2 m.y and the NW-SE trending dolerite dyke 69 ± 1 m.y. The

dolerite dykes are thought to have represented the feeder system for Deccan Trap volcanic sequences (Radhakrishna *et al*, 1994).

Basic dykes of Pathanamthitta area yielded ages of 99 Ma to 117 Ma and there are dykes which have yielded ages 104 ± 5 Ma, $127 \pm$ Ma and $476 \pm$ Ma. These wide variations may be due to a protracted history of emplacement and the effect of Eocambrian to palaeozoic tectonothermal events affecting this region (Sinha Roy and Ramakrishnan, 1983.)

In Thiruvananthapuram District, Anakudi and Nedumannur dolerite dykes are dated by K-Ar method and the whole rock ages are 104 ± 5 Ma and 127 ± 2 Ma respectively (Sinha Roy and Ramakrishnan, 1983).

Tertiary Sedimentary rocks

Mio-Pliocene sedimentary rocks are fairly widespread in the southern coastal belt, their remnants being noticeable in the central and northern coastal areas. These sedimentary rocks consist of a series of variegated clay and sandstones with lenticular seams of lignite, known as Warkalli Formation, underlain by more compact marly sands with shell fragments and thin horizons of limestone (Quilon Formation).

The Tertiary sediments have a gentle dip towards west. The Warkalli Formation extends in a narrow belt from Thiruvananthapuram ($8^{\circ}28'30''$: $76^{\circ}57'20''$) to Kasaragod ($12^{\circ}30'00''$: $74^{\circ}59'00''$) between coastal and midland regions with intervening promontories of the crystalline rocks. The Quilon Formation is mainly seen at Paravur ($08^{\circ}48'00''$: $76^{\circ}40'00''$) Padappakkara ($08^{\circ}58'30''$: $76^{\circ}38'00''$) and some other places around Kollam and Alappuzha districts.

Quilon Formation

The Quilon Formation consisting of fossiliferous shell limestone alternating with thick beds of sandy clays and calcareous clays have been reported from Padappakkara (type locality), Nedumgolam, Edavai ($8^{\circ}45'20''$: $76^{\circ}42'00''$) and Varkala ($8^{\circ}44'00''$: $76^{\circ}43'00''$) and Cherthala ($9^{\circ}41'00''$: $76^{\circ}20'00''$) along the west coast of Kerala. The Quilon limestone contains numerous fossils of foraminifera, corals, echinoids and molluscs. The Lower Miocene age for lower stratigraphic horizons and the Upper Miocene age for the topmost beds of the Quilon Formation indicate the lower and upper age limits of these marine sediments. The

predominance of black clays, sandstone, bluish grey brackish water shell limestone and nodular limestone clearly indicate deposition in a lagoonal condition .

Warkalli Formation

The Warkalli Formation of Mio-Pliocene age extends all along the Kerala coast. The type section of the Warkalli Formation described by King (1882) is from the sea cliff at Varkala. The exposed section at Varkala cliff is 28-30 m thick consisting of unconsolidated sands of variegated clays, white plastic clays, and carbonaceous sandy clays enclosing impersistent seams and lenses of lignite. The carbonaceous clays and lignite are often impregnated with nodules of marcasite.

Fairly thick beds of carbonaceous clays with lignite seams occur around Nadayara kayal, Tamarakulam (9°08': 76°37'), Puliur (9°18'00": 76°35'00"), Payangadi (12°00'20": 75°15'40"), Nileswaram (12°15'00": 75°07'00"), Kanhangad (12°17'40': 75°05'00") and in the cliff sections near Cheruvathur (12°13'00": 75°09'50"). The most characteristic feature of the Warkalli Formation is the impersistent nature of the constituent beds, suggestive of shallow basin margin deposits.

Laterite

Kerala is the home of the laterite as it was first named by the Dutch traveller, Buchanan 1807. Laterite is widespread in its distribution in the midland region of Malappuram, Kannur and Kasaragod districts where it forms well-defined mesas. The Archaean crystalline rocks and the Tertiary sedimentary rocks are extensively lateritised. The laterite has wide areal distribution in the State and occurs at all levels upto 2000 m, height though mostly restricted to an altitude of 50-150 m above MSL. in the coastal and midland region. A few bauxitic patches also occur within the laterites. The thickness of laterite cappings varies from a few metres to 50 metre at places. At Chovvara (8°21'30"; 77°01'30") in Thiruvananthapuram District and Chattannur (8°50'30"; 76°46'30") and Kundara (8°57'00": 76°40'30") in Kollam District, a zone of about 2 m thick bauxite is recognised at the contact between the crystallines and the overlying sedimentary rocks. The overlying sedimentary column is also blanketed by laterite of varying thickness. The bauxite at the base of the sedimentaries indicates an earlier pre-Warkalli spell of lateritisation. Further, the erosional features on the top part of the bauxite horizon corroborates the antiquity of the earlier spell of lateritisation (Mallikarjuna and Kapali, 1980).

Generally, the laterite after the crystalline rocks is compact and the top crust moderately indurated. The dark brown crust passes downward to pink and buff coloured soft laterite. Quartz veins, joints and fractures can be traced from the top to the bottom of the laterite profile. The laterite profile over pyroxene granulites, meta-ultramafites and gneisses are characterised by relict foliation that conforms to those of the subjacent rocks which indicate the *insitu* nature of the laterite. Porous and spongy texture is discernible in laterites, after meta-ultramafites. Laterite after the Tertiary sedimentaries is well indurated at the top for about 2 to 5 m. Downwards, the profile grades into soft laterite with remnants of gritstone and culminates into a zone of variegated clay.

Quaternary sediments

Recent to sub-Recent sediments of coastal sands, sticky black clay with carbonized wood, silty alluvium and lagoonal deposits are observed mostly in the low-lying areas from Kollam (11°27'00": 75°40'30") to Ponnani and between Kannur (11°51'30":75°21'45") and Nileswaram (12°15'30":75°08'16"). Alluvium is observed along the major river valleys. At places, along coastal tracts, there are raised sandy beaches composed of fine grained reddish sandy loam known as "terri" sands. Palaeo-beach ridges alternate with marshy lagoonal clay in the coastal area.

The sandy stretches are widest between Alappuzha (9°30': 76°20') and Kottayam (9°35': 76°31'), upto 25 km inland from the shoreline. The Quaternaries of the coastal plain have been classified into (i) the Guruvayur Formation representing the earlier strandline deposits with an elevation of 5-10 m; (ii) the Viyyam Formation of tidal plain deposits; (iii) Periyar Formation being mainly of fluvial deposits and (iv) the Kadappuram Formation representing the beach deposits (Krishnan Nair, 1989).

A pebble bed is traced in Valapattanam and Taliparamba river banks in Kannur district. It is exposed south of Valapattanam (11°55'30": 75 °21'30"), Kambil maloth (11°58':75 °24'), Morazha (11 °58'30": 75°20'30") and Arathiparamba (12°06'00": 75°15'30"). The size of the pebbles ranges in dimension from 4.5 cm x 3 cm to 7 cm x 3 cm with occasional cobbles of size 13 cm x 12 cm. The base of the pebble bed is generally 20 to 40 m above MSL and at places, the pebble bed directly rests over the basement rocks. The pebbles are mostly of quartz and rarely of granite and pyroxene granulite. The distribution of the pebble bed along the major river banks demonstrate it to be flood plain deposits, probably of early Quaternary period (Nair *et al*, 1976). In Malappuram and Kozhikode districts, the pebble bed is traced in the riverine

terraces at Mavur (11°17'45":75°59'00"), Cheruvannur (11°12'8": 75°49'35") and Chellepparambu (11°14'30":75°59'00"). In Thiruvananthapuram District, the Quaternary pebble bed occurs at an elevation of 45 to 50 m above MSL at Pothenkode (8°37'00": 76°48'56"), Idaikode (8°40'11":76°50'49"), Attingal (8°41'49": 76°48'56") and Andoorkonam (8°36'00": 76°52'30").

Submerged upright tree trunks have been reported from a number of places in the coastal area of Kottayam and Alappuzha districts, indicating neotectonic reactivation in the area. Carbon dating of a sample from the submerged forest at Iravimangalam indicate an age of 7050 ± 130 B.P (Pawar *et al*, 1983).

Structure

The structural grain of the southern Peninsula is controlled mainly by the NNW-SSE trending near longitudinal Dharwarian trend which had folded all earlier structures. Since Kerala State falls in the western limb of the mega-structure almost all the rock distribution is aligned in NW-SE direction. However, detailed structural studies carried out in selected parts of the Kerala (Nair and Nair, 2001) had shown that (a) the earliest folds (F₁) which are represented both on mesoscopic and megascopic scale are tight appressed folds of asymmetrical nature which had given rise to axial plane foliations with characteristic platy mineral alignments (b) the F₂ folds on these foliations (post-folial) are open symmetrical and have developed mainly on megascopic scale and control the disposition of the major lithologies. (c) Subsequent folds (F₃) which deform F₁ and F₂ axial plane traces are broad folds on mega-scale identified with the longitudinal Dharwarian trends and (d) a broad swerve on these Dharwarian trends in ENE-WSW is also decipherable (Fig.2).

Detailed analysis of the remote sensing data had revealed the presence of a number of significant lineament patterns in WNW-ESE, NW-SE, NNW-SSE, NNE-SSW and ENE-WSW directions (Nair, 1990). Mega and intermediate lineaments in WNW-ESE were originally crustal fractures and shears which got sealed or obliterated by a number of igneous emplacements of alkali granite, syenite, gabbro, anorthosite, granophyre etc. The emplacements along the Bavali lineament and those along the Achenkovil lineament both of which trending in this direction had given ages ranging from 500 – 678 Ma. Hence they are identified to be the oldest lineament. The Bavali lineament forms the western termination of the Moyar shear. The NW-SE trending lineaments constitute mega lineaments and coincide with the basic dykes occurring throughout the length and breadth of the state. These dykes have

given ages ranging from 61 to 144 Ma. The NNW-SSE trending lineaments are generally intermediate lineaments and are attributed to fractures, faults and major joint patterns in the area. It is recognized that the NNW-SSE trending lineaments define a weak zone along which the west coast evolved by faulting. The eastern limit of the Tertiary basin is found restricted along this lineament direction. These lineaments occurring along the west coast are be active as suggested by the progradation of the coast west of these lineaments (Nair, 1987). The lineaments in NNE-SSW are prominent and are identified with major fractures and this together with those in NNW-SSE are taken to constitute a conjugate system of faults in a N-S compressive regime due to the collision of the Indian plate. The ENE-WSW trending lineaments are intermediate lineaments and are well- developed in the northern parts of the Kerala . Since these lineaments truncate other lineaments as evidenced especially in the coastal stretches it is considered the youngest. Many a recent tremors reported are aligned in this direction and hence considered neotectonically active.

Metamorphism

The Precambrian crystalline rocks of Kerala are chiefly metapelites, charnockites with associated gneisses and granulites, schistose rocks with distinct metapelitic and metamafic / ultramafic affinity and granitic derivatives which include the Peninsular gneisses and migmatites. Except the Wynad schists and the Vengad group, the bulk of the crystalline rocks show granulite to upper amphibolite facies of metamorphism. Wynad schist displays a prograde amphibolite facies metamorphism and the retrogression of these rocks leads to lower amphibolite facies metamorphism. The vast charnockite belt occurring on either side of the Wynad schist belt, in north Kerala, shows petrographic evidences of prograde and retrograde reactions (Nambiar, 1996). The rocks of the Vengad Group show greenschist to lower amphibolite facies of prograde metamorphism. The older intrusive bodies show effects of incipient metamorphism, marked by clouding of feldspar and bending of twin lamellae.

Recent investigations on the pressure – temperature range for the formation of characteristic mineral suits within the metamorphic rocks provide a fair idea on the poly-metamorphic history of the rock suits. Rocks of the Khondalite belt of south Kerala indicate a temperature range of 650 to 850°C and pressures 5 to 6 kb (Srikantappa *et al*, 1985). In the Thiruvananthapuram area, the temperature at the peak of metamorphism indicated by the mineral assemblages of the calc-silicate rocks is about 830°C at 5 K bar considering the vapour absent garnet forming equilibria (Satish Kumar and Santosh, 1996). The scapolite equilibria indicates a peak metamorphic temperature of above 800°C. Stable isotopes in the marble bands suggest that there was no

pervasive infiltration of external fluids. Local infiltration of external carbonic fluid took place during decomposition. Synthesis of such data from different lineament/shear bound segments in Kerala indicate varying metamorphic conditions and uplift history. It is also summarised that there is a progressive decline in the uplift of different segments from north to south (Soman, 1997).

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

