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Problems with the application of hydrogeological science to regulation of Australian mining projects: Carmichael Mine and Doongmabulla Springs

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1	Problems with the application of hydrogeological science to regulation of Australian
2	mining projects: Carmichael Mine and Doongmabulla Springs
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17 Abstract

18 Understanding and managing impacts from mining on groundwater-dependent ecosystems 19 (GDEs) and other groundwater users requires development of defensible science supported by 20 adequate field data. This usually leads to the creation of predictive models and analysis of the 21 likely impacts of mining and their accompanying uncertainties. The identification, monitoring 22 and management of impacts on GDEs are often a key component of mine approvals, which need 23 to consider and attempt to minimise the risks that negative impacts may arise. Here we examine 24 a case study where approval for a large mining project in Australia (Carmichael Coal Mine) was 25 challenged in court on the basis that it may result in more extensive impacts on a GDE 26 (Doongmabulla Springs) of high ecological and cultural significance than predicted by the 27 proponent. We show that throughout the environmental assessment and approval process, 28 significant data gaps and scientific uncertainties remained unresolved. Evidence shows that the 29 assumed conceptual hydrogeological model for the springs could be incorrect, and that at least 30 one alternative conceptualisation (that the springs are dependent on a deep fault) is consistent 31 with the available field data. Assumptions made about changes to spring flow as a consequence 32 of mine-induced drawdown also appear problematic, with significant implications for the spring-33 fed wetlands. Despite the large scale of the project, it appears that critical scientific data required 34 to resolve uncertainties and construct robust models of the springs' relationship to the 35 groundwater system were lacking at the time of approval, contributing to uncertainty and 36 conflict. For this reason, we recommend changes to the approval process that would require a 37 higher standard of scientific information to be collected and reviewed, particularly in relation to 38 key environmental assets during the environmental impact assessment process in future projects. 39 Keywords: Springs, Mining, Groundwater-dependent ecosystem, Water conflict, Environmental 40 management

1. Introduction

42	Globally, water management is one of the most critical environmental sustainability challenges
43	for the mining industry (ERMITE, 2004; Amezaga et al., 2011; Northey et al, 2016), and there is
44	increasing conflict over impacts to water resources from mining in some regions (e.g.
45	Bebbington and Williams, 2008; Bebbington and Bury, 2009; Kemp et al., 2010; Gleik and
46	Heberger, 2014). Recently in Australia, such conflicts have often focussed on groundwater, upon
47	which many regional communities and ecosystems depend (Harrington and Cook, 2014).
48	Aquifers and the springs and streams they support may be impacted by lowering of the water-
49	table to allow open-pit or underground mining, as well as water withdrawal for mineral
50	processing and other on-site requirements. Water contamination issues are also common.
51	In this context, mining companies, environmental decision makers and water
52	management agencies must assess the likely impacts of proposed mines on groundwater and any
53	connected surface water and ecosystems. Open-pit mining may lead to impacts that are slow to
54	eventuate and subsequently permanent, and therefore investigations need to predict the post-
55	mine closure hydrogeological conditions. Should a project be approved, monitoring and
56	management strategies must be in place to recognise adverse impacts and, most importantly,
57	remediate them if they occur. These requirements remain for prolonged periods after mining has
58	ceased, given that the full impacts may take decades to eventuate (Northey et al., 2016).
59	Scientific input, including collection and assessment of field data, development of conceptual
60	hydrogeological models and predictive (e.g., numerical) modelling, is integral to this process.
61	The available methods for investigating impacts on hydrogeological systems arising from
62	new stresses, such as mining, lead to significant uncertainties in the resulting predictions of
63	future conditions - such as impacts on a particular groundwater-dependent ecosystem (GDE).
64	An area which can introduce conceptual uncertainty in impact assessment models is the

65 representation of subsurface heterogeneity. In particular, faults and other preferential flow 66 pathways may be neglected or highly simplified. However, these types of heterogeneity may 67 have a strong influence on groundwater flow and the hydraulic connectivity between aquifers 68 and the land surface (Smerdon and Turnadge, 2015). Assessing model uncertainty, which can 69 arise from various conceptual and numerical sources, is critical in guiding monitoring, 70 management and mitigation strategies (Delottier et al., 2016). 71 Recently, a number of court cases have been heard in Australia where approvals to 72 mining projects have been challenged on the basis that impacts to groundwater have not been 73 adequately considered in the decision and/or design of operating conditions. The concept of 74 'adaptive management' has been employed in many of these cases, whereby resolution of key 75 scientific uncertainties regarding groundwater have been deferred until after the mine has been 76 approved to commence construction, on the basis that groundwater management can adapt to 77 adverse impacts as they develop. Lee (2014), Lee and Gardner (2014) and Slattery (2016) 78 discuss some of these cases and argue that adaptive management concepts are being misused in 79 some cases in the context of mining approvals. 80 In Australia, as in many countries, companies applying for approval of a mining project 81 must generally prepare an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) if the project is considered by 82 the relevant government authority to be significant. The EIS typically considers, amongst other 83 things, the impact of the proposed mine on groundwater, surface water and ecosystems in the 84 vicinity of the mine. After the EIS is released, it is reviewed by State government bodies, e.g. the 85 Coordinator-General in Queensland (Australia). Large coal mine and coal seam gas (CSG) 86 projects impacting on matters of national environmental significance, including water resources, 87 are referred to the Australian Federal Minister for the Environment. The Minister must ask the 88 Independent Expert Scientific Committee for Large Coal Mining and Coal Seam Gas

Bevelopment (IESC) for advice before making a decision to approve proposals. The IESC was established due to community concern in Australia over impacts of mining and CSG projects on water resources, and provides independent scientific advice on potential water-related impacts. The EIS for a mining project, and the reviews of the EIS (including advice from the IESC), are typically released for public consultation as part of various approval processes and may be subject to objections, which can be assessed during a court hearing.

95 Worldwide, there are relatively few studies examining how hydrogeological science 96 informs decisions about mining projects. Younger et al. (2005) examined how scientific and 97 socio-economic considerations were incorporated into risk-based decisions about the treatment 98 of polluted mine waters in the UK, exploring the trade-offs between these. Amezaga et al. (2011) 99 and Northey et al. (2016) provide global overviews of long-term sustainability of mining with a 100 focus on water management, stressing the importance of up-front assessment of likely water 101 impacts through a project's life-cycle, including the post-closure phase. The Comparative 102 Groundwater Law and Policy Program (Casey and Nelson, 2012) examined the science-policy 103 interface in relation to groundwater issues, including the different approaches of scientists and 104 policy makers to groundwater problems, although mining projects were not considered 105 specifically.

In this paper, we discuss a high-profile case study involving a large coal mine proposal (the Carmichael Coal Mine) in central Queensland, examining how hydrogeological science was incorporated into its assessment. The key decision makers in the case included State and Federal government departments and the Land Court of Queensland. Throughout the approval process and design of operating conditions, large uncertainties remained unresolved regarding the conceptual hydrogeological model and numerical model for the mine. This was acknowledged in the Land Court judgement on the case, and the Federal Minister for the Environment's approval

113 conditions for the mine specify that, prior to commencement of excavation, research and 114 monitoring plans must be submitted that address these issues. We discuss in detail how 115 hydrogeological disagreements and misconceptions informed the decision to approve the 116 Carmichael Mine, and were ultimately reflected in the conditions of approval for the mine. We 117 make targeted recommendations which we believe could address such issues in future. 118

119

120 2. Hydrogeological Setting of the Carmichael Coal Mine

121 In 2010, a subsidiary of the Adani Group (Adani), an Indian resource, energy and infrastructure 122 group, submitted a proposal to the Queensland Government to build the Carmichael Coal Mine 123 and Rail Project to supply coal to its Indian power stations (GHD & Adani Mining, 2013a). If 124 constructed, the mine would be the largest open-cut and underground coal mine in Australia's 125 history, covering ~28,000 hectares and extending ~30 km along strike, producing an estimated 126 2.3 billion tonnes of thermal coal over 60 years. The mine is situated ~300 km inland and there 127 is no local infrastructure; it will be necessary to construct a railway and expand port facilities to 128 export the coal. The proposed mine is located in the catchment of the Burdekin River in an area 129 predominantly used for beef cattle grazing.

130 (Figure 1)

The proposed mine is in a semi-arid environment with strongly seasonal rainfall (mean annual rainfall ~500 mm) and there are no permanent watercourses nearby except for part of the Carmichael River, which is spring-fed (see below). Two salt lakes, Buchanan and Galilee, lie in internal drainage basins west of the mine. The topography of the area is subdued, with a maximum relief of 300 m. The drainage divide of the Great Dividing Range, with a maximum

136 elevation of ~500 m above sea level, runs north-south approximately 50 km west of the 137 Carmichael mining lease. The area is mostly covered with open eucalypt woodland. 138 The Carmichael mining lease lies within the Galilee Basin. The geology consists of a 139 Permian siliciclastic sequence dominated by fluvial sandstones and shales; in stratigraphic order 140 - the Joe Joe Formation, Colinlea Sandstone and Bandanna Formation (Moya et al., 2014). 141 Overlying the Permian strata are the Triassic Rewan Formation, Dunda Beds and Clematis 142 Sandstone, capped by Tertiary laterite (McKellar and Henderson, 2013; Figure 2). These 143 Triassic units form part of the Eromanga Basin sequence within the Great Artesian Basin. Coal 144 seams are confined to the Colinlea Sandstone which outcrop or sub-crop at shallow depth along 145 the eastern margin of the basin (Figure 1), dipping westwards at 2-5° for 10-20 km and then 146 becoming sub-horizontal. The Galilee Basin is yet to be developed for mining; however, a 147 number of coal mines to the south of the Carmichael mining lease have also been proposed and 148 granted approval in the last five years (Lee and Gardner, 2014). 149 (Figure 2)

150 The main aquifer in the mine area is the Colinlea Sandstone/Bandanna Formation; the 151 lower sandstone beds are porous and high yielding with good quality groundwater (electrical 152 conductivities are mostly 2000-3000 µS/cm), which is extensively used for stock watering and 153 domestic purposes in the region. Many properties in the area depend almost entirely on this 154 water source. The Dunda Beds and particularly the Clematis Sandstone also contain porous 155 sandstone beds, and the Clematis Sandstone is a major aquifer in the Great Artesian Basin to the 156 west. The intervening Rewan Formation is predominantly shale and is regarded as a regional 157 aquitard (e.g. GHD and Adani Mining, 2013b). The hydraulic conductivity (K) measurements 158 from this formation are variable according to field surveys conducted by Adani, ranging from

159 9.5 x 10^{-5} to 2.9 x 10^{-1} m/day with a median of 3.1 x 10^{-4} m/day (GHD and Adani Mining, 160 2013b).

161 As faults are a major issue for mine planning, geological surveys have been conducted -162 predominantly seismic lines and core-hole logging - to characterise faulting within the proposed 163 mine site (Xenith Consulting, 2009; McClintoch, 2012). Faults with significant displacement 164 have been interpreted on the basis of these surveys, including at least one that appears to extend 165 to depths of hundreds of meters across multiple strata, from the target coal seams in the Colinlea 166 Sandstone through the Rewan Formation (Figure 3) (McClintock, 2012). These surveys occurred 167 entirely within the mine lease, and did not extend to the vicinity of the springs discussed below. 168 While some faults may act as barriers to horizontal groundwater flow in the Galilee and 169 Eromanga Basins (e.g. Ransley and Smerdon, 2012), there is also evidence of groundwater 170 discharging from deep strata to the surface through faults that cross regional aquitards in these 171 basins. For example, Moya et al., (2014) found evidence of possible upwards discharge of 172 groundwater from hundreds of meters below the surface along regional faults (e.g., Thomson River Fault), some ~400 km southwest of the proposed mine. Similar evidence has been 173 174 documented on the basis of geophysical and modelling techniques (Smerdon and Turnage, 2015; 175 Inverarity et al, 2016).

176 (Figure 3)

The mine will use approximately 12.5 billion litres of water per year (12.5 GL/year) for on-site requirements at peak production (IESC, 2013). This will be derived from both surface water imported through a pipeline and groundwater. The Colinlea Sandstone/Bandanna Formation aquifer in the vicinity of the mine will be dewatered, and the hydrogeological modelling shows that inflow of groundwater from surrounding aquifers to the mine pits is expected to peak at approximately 10 GL/year. This will significantly depressurise the strata

183 over a considerable distance around the mine site, and cause permanent changes to the region's

184 water balance (GHD & Adani Mining, 2013b).

185 2.1 Doongmabulla Springs Complex (DSC)

186 Approximately 8 km west of the proposed Carmichael Mine is the Doongmabulla Springs 187 Complex, consisting of a large number of permanent freshwater springs feeding ~160 wetlands 188 up to 8.7 ha in size (Fensham et al., 2016). Doongmabulla Springs represent a rare source of 189 reliable water in this region and are of high cultural and ecological significance (Wangan and 190 Jagalingou Family Council, 2015). They are protected under a Nature Refuge Conservation 191 Agreement between the landholders and the State of Queensland, and also the Federal 192 Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999, Australia's primary federal 193 environmental legislation. This protection recognises the diversity of vegetation types and the 194 high level of ecological endemism associated with these springs and others within the Great 195 Artesian Basin (Fensham et al., 2010; Fensham et al., 2016). 196 The largest spring, Joshua Spring, has a flow rate of approximately 5 L/sec into a small 197 earth dam (locally known as a "turkey-nest dam"), within which the water level is 2-3 m above 198 the surrounding land surface. The outflow from Joshua Spring and other nearby springs 199 (including Moses and Little Moses Springs) provides base flow to the Carmichael River, which 200 subsequently flows for approximately 20 km downstream of the springs, discharging into the 201 Belyando River. The river is otherwise dry in sections upstream of the springs. The discharge 202 from Doongmabulla Springs occurs both as prominent vents and as diffuse discharge through an 203 immeasurable number of surface seeps and low-flowing features within and adjacent to the 204 extensive system of wetlands.

A second spring complex, the Mellaluka Springs, is found near the proposed mine site.
 This group of three artesian, freshwater springs (Mellaluka, Lignum and Stories Springs) lie

207	approximately 35 km southeast of Doongmabulla Springs and 5 to 10 km south of the proposed
208	mine. Flow rates are low relative to the main vents at Doongmabulla Springs (e.g. Joshua
209	Spring). The Mellaluka Springs lie to the east of the sub-crop of the coal seams and are thought
210	to receive water from the basal sandstone in the Colinlea Sandstone and/or a permeable unit at
211	the top of the underlying Joe Joe Formation (GHD and Adani Mining, 2014). The three springs
212	lie in an approximately north-south orientation, likely representing the influence of a fault or
213	other preferential flow pathway (e.g. fractures), although this requires further investigation.
214	Because these springs are small, heavily disturbed and are not known to provide habitat for any
215	threatened or endemic species, they are considered to have lesser ecological significance than the
216	Doongmabulla Springs (GHD and Adani Mining, 2014).
217	
218	3. Environmental approval and objection to the Carmichael Mine
219	After Adani applied for the Carmichael mining lease in 2010, the Queensland Government
220	Coordinator-General declared it a significant project for which an EIS was required. The EIS
221	and Supplementary EIS were published and public submissions were invited in 2012 and 2013.
222	The Coordinator-General's report on the project, delivered in May 2014, recommended that the
223	mine be approved subject to conditions. The mine was also granted approval (with conditions)
224	by the Federal Minister for the Environment in October 2015. Objections to the Carmichael
225	mine by several parties, including Land Services of Coast and Country Inc. (LSCC), were
226	referred to the Queensland Land Court in September 2014 and heard in 2015. Regarding impacts
227	of the mine on groundwater, LSCC argued (among other things) that: "If the mine proceeds, it
228	will impact groundwater dependent springs and systems that are important for human use,
229	agriculture and biodiversity, including but not limited to: (a) the Doongmabulla Springs
230	Complex – including Moses, Little Moses and Joshua; (b) the Mellaluka Springs Complex –

231 *including Mellaluka Spring, Lignum Spring and Stories Spring.*" (Land Court of Queensland,
232 2015a).

233 Before the court hearing, independent expert hydrogeologists engaged by both the 234 objector (LSSC) and the applicant (Adani Mining) prepared reports on the hydrogeological 235 evidence presented in the EIS and Supplementary EIS, and then met in order to determine issues 236 of disagreement. The relevant reports are: Bradley (2015), Merrick (2015a), Webb et al. (2015), 237 Webb (2015), and Werner (2015). The expert witness meeting is required by state legislation, 238 and can considerably shorten court proceedings by identifying areas of agreement and 239 disagreement between the experts and limiting the issues disputed in the hearing. Doongmabulla 240 Springs were agreed by all parties to possess "exceptional ecological value" and hence their 241 protection was a key environmental management priority (Land Court of Queensland, 2015a). It 242 was also agreed that the drawdown associated with dewatering for the Carmichael Mine will 243 decrease the groundwater pressure at Mellaluka Springs such that there will no longer be artesian 244 pressures and these springs will consequentially dry up. However, there was no agreement as to 245 the conceptual hydrogeological model of Doongmabulla Springs and the likely level of impact 246 (e.g., reduction in flow) due to proposed mining activities. During the court hearing, these areas 247 of scientific dispute were subjected to extended scrutiny.

248

249 **4. Key Areas of Scientific Dispute**

Several scientific issues were addressed throughout the court proceedings, in particular the conceptual and numerical hydrogeological models of the area and Doongmabulla Springs specifically, and the impact of mining on spring flow. These proved to be pivotal issues in the final judgment on the case, and are discussed in detail in the sections that follow.

254 4.1 Conceptual hydrogeological model of Doongmabulla Springs

255 Two different conceptual models were presented for the hydrogeology of the Doongmabulla 256 Springs. Bradley (2015) proposed that the springs issue from Triassic sandstones, and that 257 recharge was occurring through outcrops of these strata in the range to their north, with 258 "discharge occurring in topographically low areas where preferential pathways for upward 259 groundwater flow are developed" and where "groundwater pressure is able to exploit 260 weaknesses in the rock strata". In contrast, Webb (2015) proposed that the flow from the springs 261 was "derived at least partially from the underlying Permian aquifers", which are over 500 m 262 below the surface at this point (due to the regional dip of the strata), with upwards flow along a 263 fault through the confining beds of the overlying Rewan Formation. This conceptualisation was 264 based on several lines of evidence. Firstly, groundwater flow in the Colinlea Sandstone (from the 265 north, south and west) appears to converge on the springs, thereby indicating that the springs act 266 as discharge from that unit. Aside from discharge to the Doongmabulla Springs and the nearby 267 Carmichael River, there are limited alternative explanations for this flow pattern (such as 268 drawdown induced by groundwater extraction, which is minimal in the region) (GHD and Adani, 269 2013b). Secondly, the potentiometric surface of the Permian units is sufficiently elevated to 270 drive groundwater flow to the land surface at the location of the springs. The nearby Mellaluka 271 Springs are thought to rely on flow from the Permian strata (GHD and Adani Mining, 2014) 272 although this has also not been thoroughly investigated. Thirdly, there is seismic and borehole 273 evidence of faulting in the Colinlea Sandstone elsewhere in the region (within the mine lease), 274 including a fault which appears to cross the Rewan Formation (Figure 3). Webb (2015) found 275 that there is little evidence of major confining layers existing within the Triassic sandstones 276 sufficient to cause the artesian pressures necessary for spring flow. The model preferred by 277 Bradley (2015) was adopted primarily for its greater simplicity – in the absence of any field 278 evidence to confirm or negate the existence of faulting, the Rewan Formation was assumed to be

a competent aquitard, preventing connection with the deeper Permian strata. The limited data
available on the groundwater chemistry of Doongmabulla Springs (major ion chemistry and
strontium isotopes) were inconclusive as to the source aquifer at the time of the case (Webb,
2015).

283 The source aquifer of the springs is critical to considering any potential impact of the 284 proposed mine. For example, if the springs are fed entirely from the Triassic strata (see Figure 2), 285 and the Rewan Formation acts as a regional aquitard, then the de-watering of the Colinlea 286 Sandstone may cause only minor drawdown in the overlying Triassic aquifers. This is the 'best-287 case scenario' for the Doongmabulla Springs, and the scenario adopted in GHD and Adani 288 Mining, (2013b) for the modelling and predictions of impacts on the springs from mining. Under 289 this case, groundwater modeling suggests that the springs will lose some 19 cm of driving head 290 during peak mine operation (GHD and Adani Mining, 2013b). The alternative possibility, 291 whereby the springs are fed from the Colinlea Sandstone via a preferential pathway through the 292 Rewan Formation, would mean that de-pressurisation due to mining would have a far more 293 significant effect on the springs. The four experts agreed that in all likelihood they would cease 294 to flow if this was the case (Land Court of Queensland, 2015a). This outcome would likely be 295 catastrophic for GDEs of the region, leading to complete loss of spring wetlands and eradication 296 of all spring-dependent ecosystems, including rare endemic plant species (Fensham, 2015). 297 Some combination of the two scenarios (a mixture of water sourced from the two aquifers 298 providing spring flow) is also plausible (Webb, 2015). GHD and Adani Mining (2013b) did not 299 explore scenarios in which some element of spring flow is sourced from preferential pathways 300 through the Rewan Formation, and therefore, their modelling of impacts is not valid for studying 301 these latter scenarios.

The cross-examination of expert witnesses during the court proceedings did not resolve this issue. In a joint report by all groundwater experts prior to proceedings, it was agreed that: "the source of the Doongmabulla Springs is inconclusive and that there are two potential sources that need to be considered; one a source below the Rewan Formation, the other a source from above the Rewan Formation. Methods such as isotope sampling, in conjunction with analysis of existing data (water chemistry, water level, geology) would potentially assist in resolving the question." (Webb et al, 2015).

309 However, Adani relied heavily on the absence of positive physical evidence of faulting at 310 the Doongmabulla Springs, and the hypothesis that the springs are inherently coupled to the 311 existence of faulting was dismissed due to the lack of field data. No seismic survey or drilling to 312 investigate faulting had been conducted in the immediate vicinity of the springs, despite such 313 surveys having been undertaken to the east within the mining lease. As shown in Figure 3, those 314 surveys indicated significant offset of bedding planes in at least one location, which continued 315 through the Rewan Formation, consistent with the presence of a major fault. Adani disputed that 316 this evidence could be applied to infer faulting as a potential source of groundwater flow at the Doongmabulla Springs. Other evidence that faults are important controls on the hydrogeology of 317 318 the Galilee and Eromanga Basins, allowing flow from hundreds of meters depth to the surface in 319 some cases (e.g., Moya et al., 2014; Smerdon and Turnadge, 2015) was also not considered in 320 the Land Court's decision. Thus, limited previous attempts to characterise the Doongmabulla 321 Springs and a lack of data served to obviate what were considered by all the expert witnesses to 322 be plausible scenarios for the springs' occurrence. There was agreement by the experts that if the 323 excluded scenarios were correct, mining would potentially lead to springs disappearing (Land 324 Court of Queensland, 2015a).

325 4.2 Modelling the impact of mining on spring flow

326 The hydrogeological study conducted by GHD and Adani Mining (2013b) predicted that peak 327 mine-induced drawdown within the Triassic Clematis Sandstone aquifer (i.e. above the Rewan 328 Formation, modelled as a competent aquitard) would be 0.19 m, or up to 0.3 m accounting for 329 model parameter sensitivities (Merrick, 2015b). The model presumed this was the source aquifer 330 of the Doongmabulla Springs, and therefore the drawdown in this aquifer was taken to be the 331 same as the drop in driving head for the springs. However, there was disagreement as to: (a) 332 whether this was indeed the most likely drop in driving head for the springs, and (b) if so, how 333 this amount of drawdown (or a greater amount) would affect the number, area and flow rates of 334 the springs (Land Court of Queensland, 2015a). 335 In regard to the head drop applicable to the springs, there was disagreement as to the 336 source aquifer (described above), which has direct bearing on the relevant drawdown prediction. 337 Other issues contribute to uncertainty in the prediction by GHD and Adani Mining (2013b). 338 Firstly, there was no representation of the Doongmabulla Springs within the model. The spring 339 discharge was not simulated and no physical mechanism for upward flow to the surface at the 340 location of the springs was embedded into the model. Only flow to the nearby Carmichael River 341 was represented, through the simulation of river-aquifer interaction with shallow aquifers. Given 342 that the numerical model did not simulate groundwater discharge at the springs, it lacked inherent capability to simulate any decrease in spring flow. Subsequently, the applicability of the 343 344 model to the prediction of spring flow impacts, and indeed the study area's water balance more 345 generally, were brought into question (Land Court of Queensland, 2015a). 346 In lieu of this lack of capability within the numerical model, a relationship between the 347 drop in driving head and spring flow was developed by Merrick (2015b), upon which Adani 348 relied on during the case, using a simple Darcy's Law analysis, as follows: The objective was to 349 obtain the spring flow reduction (ΔO) as the difference between spring flow before (O_B) and

350 after (Q_A) mining. It was presumed that spring flow can be represented by Darcy's Law 351 $(Q = KA(\Delta H / \Delta z))$, where Q is spring flow, K is vertical hydraulic conductivity representing 352 the resistance of upward groundwater flow to the spring, ΔH is the 'driving head difference', and Δz is the elevation difference. Darcy's Law was used to show that $\Delta Q/Q_B = DD/\Delta H_B$, where DD 353 354 is drawdown in the source aquifer (estimated at between 0.16 to 0.3 m) and ΔH_B is the difference 355 between the source aquifer head and the spring 'threshold elevation'. This was defined by 356 Merrick (2015b) as "ground surface for discharge of water to pools", but would be at "a higher 357 elevation (the lip of the mound or other overflow elevation or pipe invert level) for water that is 358 transferred from the mound pool to an associated wetland". This theory, albeit simplified, was 359 not disputed in the hearing. 360 However, Werner (2015) argued that the application of the theory was flawed, leading to 361 a potential order-of-magnitude under-estimation of impacts of spring flow. A schematic diagram 362 of the key parameters in the theory of the relationship between water levels and spring flow is 363 provided in Figure 4. 364 (Figure 4) 365 Spring flow requires that the source aquifer (Aquifer 2 shown in Figure 4) must have a 366 head (h_2) greater than the spring land surface (h_s) or the ponded water level at the spring $(h_s +$ Δh_p), whichever is higher, resulting in upward flow. Depending on the conceptualisation, 367 368 Aguifer 2 could represent either Permian or Triassic sediments, and is intended only as a 369 schematic of the general spring flow mechanism. Limited measurements of the shallow aquifer 370 head (h_1) close to the spring showed that the head was lower than land surface (Merrick, 2015b), 371 and therefore Aquifer 1 in Figure 4 is clearly not the springs' source aquifer. The application of 372 the simple relationship $\Delta Q/Q_B = DD/\Delta H_B$ by Merrick (2015b) presumed that ΔH_B is equal to h_2 –

 h_1 , i.e., the head difference between the source aquifer and the overlying unconfined aquifer.

374	Merrick (2015b) adopted $\Delta H_B = 5$ or 6 m in estimating spring flow reduction, on the basis that
375	the overlying unconfined aquifer has a water level 2-3 m below ground surface, and Joshua
376	Spring has a small dam raised some 3 m above ground surface. This however does not accord
377	with the definition of 'threshold elevation' above, which should be based on the spring's surface
378	elevation, not the unconfined aquifer head. If the correct threshold elevation $(h_s + \Delta h_p)$ is
379	adopted, where Δh_p is only a few centimetres above the land surface in situations of the many
380	seeps and other less prominent discharge features that characterise the Doongmabulla Springs
381	Complex, then the reduction in flow to these features due to mining would be much greater (i.e.,
382	100%, on the basis of the range of predicted drawdown of h_2 of 0.19 to 0.3 m in GHD and Adani
383	Mining (2013b) and Merrick (2015b)). Thus, decline in the flow from Doongmabulla Springs,
384	even adopting GHD and Adani's (2013b) predicted source aquifer drawdown of 0.19 m, is
385	plausibly a significant or complete loss of the DSC.
386	In spite of the disagreement among experts, and the lack of field data required to resolve
387	the issue conclusively, the Court accepted Merrick (2015b)'s proposed model of the springs and
388	predicted reduction in spring flow due to mining of between 3 and 6%, consistent with GHD and
389	Adani Mining (2013b)'s modelling. This was in spite of the admission by Dr Merrick, under
390	cross examination, that a reduction in driving head on the order of 5cm would lead to a number
391	of the smaller springs within the DSC drying up completely. This evidence was addressed by
392	LSCC in its submissions (LSCC, 2015), but was not ultimately reflected in the Court's decision.
393	In the federal approval conditions designed for the project, 20 cm was considered to be an
394	acceptable level of water level drawdown to safeguard the springs from adverse impacts
395	(Department of the Environment, 2015).
396	A lack of site-specific field data once again prevented a clear resolution of the

397 uncertainty about the impacts of reduction in hydraulic head in the modelled aquifers on spring

398	flow. There were no basic quantitative hydrological data for the springs - no gauged outflow rate
399	(only a visual estimate of ~5 L/sec at Joshua Spring) and no hydraulic head measurements from
400	nested piezometers in the direct vicinity of the springs available at the time. As noted above, the
401	water surface in the 'turkey's nest' dam at Joshua Spring is 2-3 m above the surrounding plain,
402	however the height of the water level in the dam has not been surveyed accurately, and the actual
403	hydraulic head is unknown. This was also identified by LSCC in its submissions to the Court
404	(Land Court of Queensland, 2015b).
405	The ecological value of the DSC is directly linked to the rates of discharge from spring
406	vents, which support a large wetland complex in the otherwise semi-arid setting (Fensham,
407	2015). Therefore, determining the hydrogeological setting of the springs (as discussed in Section
408	4.1) and linking spring flow to the projected influence of mining on groundwater levels in
409	different aquifers (discussed in Section 4.2) are critical to understanding the likely ecological
410	impacts of the mine. The Land Court acknowledged the remaining uncertainty with respect to
411	these matters in its decision, stating:
412	Given the exceptional ecological significance of the DSC (which is detailed further below) I
413	consider that the lack of direct investigation or modelling is concerning." (Land Court of
414	Queensland, 2015a).
415	Nonetheless, the Court accepted Adani's conclusions about these matters ahead of those reached
416	by LSSC's groundwater experts.
417	G
418	5. Approval decisions and conditions for the Carmichael mine
419	Prior to the Land Court case, the Queensland Coordinator-General reviewed the project EIS and

420 Supplementary EIS and recommended approval of the mine subject to a number of conditions

421 (State of Queensland, Department of State Development and Infrastructure and Planning, 2014).

422 In 2015, following the hearing of the evidence from the groundwater expert witnesses, the Land 423 Court ruled in favour of Adani, also recommending approval of the mine. Following the court 424 hearing, the federal Minister for the Environment also approved the mine and released an 425 updated list of operating conditions for the mine (Department of the Environment, 2015). In the 426 light of the discussion above regarding the uncertainties surrounding the hydrogeological impact 427 of the mine, particularly the effect of dewatering on Doongmabulla Springs, these decisions are 428 discussed further, in order to understand how the approving bodies reconciled the uncertainties 429 and believed they could be overcome.

It was acknowledged in all the approval decisions that considerable uncertainty existed
regarding the impact of the mine on the Doongmabulla Springs. For example, the Land Court
judgement stated:

433 "... after considering the evidence as to the source aquifer of the DS...I was concerned at the

434 lack of direct investigation by the applicant of the area of the DS to determine the likelihood of

435 faulting in the area. While I considered that on balance, it is unlikely that there was a

436 continuous preferential pathway from the Colinlea Sandstone through the Rewan Formation,

437 there was evidence to the contrary which raised some uncertainty as to the existence of faulting.

438 There was also uncertainty as to the source aquifer of at least the Little Moses Spring and Dr

439 Webb's evidence about the groundwater flow directions in the Colinlea Sandstone also raised

440 *further uncertainty as to the source aquifer of the DS.*" Nevertheless, "As discussed at length

441 above, I concluded that, on balance, the DS are not fed by the Colinlea Sandstone." (Land Court

442 of Queensland, 2015a).

443 More than a year before the court case, the IESC had pointed out that the evidence base 444 for conceptualising the Rewan Formation as a regional aquitard was poor:

445 "The current groundwater model assumes the Rewan Formation will respond uniformly as an 446 aquitard. However, the Committee questions this assumption based on variability in the 447 hydraulic conductivity field data. Further data collection and assessment of the Rewan 448 Formation is necessary...Information on the degree of groundwater connectivity between the 449 coal seams and the GAB is essential to understand the potential impacts of this project" (IESC, 450 2013).

451 The uncertainty around these issues was also acknowledged in the conditions applied to 452 approval of the lease by the Federal Minister for the Environment. Adam must carry out research 453 that includes "geological and geochemical surveys to inform the source aquifer(s) for the DSC" 454 and characterises the Rewan Formation within the area impacted by the mine "to determine the 455 type, extent and location of fracturing, faulting and preferential pathways...and an examination 456 of the hydraulic properties.....to better characterise the Rewan Formation and the contribution of 457 fracturing, faulting and pathways to connectivity..." (Department of Environment, 2015) 458 These conditions emphasise the data gaps and the importance of addressing them prior to any 459 effective management or mitigation strategy being implemented. To our knowledge, there has 460 still been little geochemical/isotopic sampling of the groundwater from the aquifers and springs, 461 which could provide more conclusive evidence as to the source aquifer, e.g., if the 462 mineralization and/or isotopic signature of spring water is indicative of a deep source (or 463 component). Similarly, to our knowledge there has been limited additional investigation of the 464 hydraulic properties of the Rewan Formation aguitard, no monitoring of the flow or hydraulic 465 head of the springs, and no geophysical survey of the area of the springs to determine if they are 466 fed by a fault from depth. The approval conditions for the project require Adani to fill these data 467 gaps in order to resolve the uncertainty, and these mandated research programs are clearly a 468 valuable and warranted step. However, we argue that much of this investigation could (and

should) have been conducted during the Environmental Impact Assessment, following which

470 they could be assessed by the public and made subject to expert review and technical assessment,

471 for example in objection hearings in the Land Court.

472 It was acknowledged during the approval process that the new information gathered 473 would be likely to require revision of the modelling of the hydrogeological impact of the mine. 474 Thus the Coordinator-General's report states that "review of the collated data should continue 475 throughout all stages of the project life (including post mine rehabilitation) and the predictive 476 groundwater model should be reviewed and updated at regular intervals" (State of Queensland, 477 Department of State Development, Infrastructure and Planning, 2014). However, the conditions 478 governing future operation of the mine need not be subject to any revision if the updated 479 modeling produces different results to the original modeling. Furthermore, neither the 480 Coordinator-General nor the Land Court judgement mentioned any requirement to develop 481 detailed mitigation strategies to overcome any unforseen negative impacts to the springs 482 (impacts which, in the absence of conclusive field data, cannot be ruled out at this stage). 483 The approval by the Federal Minister for the Environment stipulates that a groundwater 484 management plan must be established that sets trigger values for detecting impacts on 485 groundwater levels at and around Doongmabulla Springs, and which specifies "corrective 486 actions and/or mitigation measures to be taken if the triggers are exceeded where caused by 487 mining operations, to ensure that groundwater drawdown does not exceed an interim threshold 488 of 0.2 m at the Doongmabulla Springs Complex". The plan must also give details of "potential 489 mitigation activities, such as but not limited to, re-injection to the groundwater source aquifer to 490 maintain pressure head, flows and ecological habitat at the Doongmabulla Springs Complex" 491 (Department of Environment, 2015).

492	The presence of mitigation/remediation plans in the approval conditions is an advance on
493	the previous conditions set by the Coordinator General that required only monitoring to
494	determine if adverse impacts appeared. However, the conditions do not specify what will occur
495	if remediation is not successful or if the Doongmabulla Springs dry up as a result of the mine.
496	Once a mine is approved, it is in our experience highly unlikely that the mine's operating
497	conditions will be modified or revoked, notwithstanding the fact that decision makers under the
498	relevant State and Federal legislation are afforded the power to do so.
499	The conditions released by the Federal Minister for the Environment set a drawdown
500	threshold of 0.2m for the Doongmabulla Springs Complex. However, the approach of applying a
501	drawdown threshold at a spring or stream is problematic, as discussed in detail in Currell (2016).
502	Drawdown at a set of springs is unlikely to be a good predictor of changes to spring flow rates,
503	and is a poor 'early warning' indicator because a change in water level will typically only reach
504	springs after the groundwater flow direction has reversed towards the region being
505	pumped/dewatered. Such a change can take place with minimal drawdown occurring where the
506	springs emerge at the surface, but it could still significantly reduce (or eliminate) the flow. Due
507	to the high level of inertia (time-lag) in groundwater systems, impacts such as reduction in
508	discharge can be 'locked in' by a water balance change in advance of the detection of a
509	drawdown response (Bredehoeft and Durbin, 2009). Subsequent mitigation actions may then be
510	of limited effectiveness.
511	What is more important than monitoring drawdown at a spring is to establish, through
512	rigorous pre-development hydrogeological field work and modelling, the relationships between

513 water levels in key aquifer(s) and flow at the springs (neither of which have been precisely

- 514 gauged to date at the Doongmabulla Springs to our knowledge), and the likely water balance
- 515 changes that will occur during mining, including the amount of discharge 'captured' (e.g.

516 Bredehoeft and Durbin, 2009; Konikow and Leake, 2014). Such an assessment should be based 517 on identification of the source aquifer (using multiple lines of evidence such as flow maps and 518 geochemistry), hydraulic properties of relevant units, and a robust conceptual model. As 519 discussed and acknowledged in the Court's decision (see sections 4.1 and 4.2), these key pieces 520 of scientific information were still absent at the time of the decision to recommend the mine's 521 approval, notwithstanding that data gaps will be filled by future mandated research programs.

522

538

523 6. Recommendations and Conclusion

524 The scientific uncertainties and misconceptions accepted by decision makers and 525 reflected in the approval conditions for the Carmichael project highlight an urgent need to better 526 bridge the gaps between science and policy with respect to groundwater and mining projects. 527 Because the problems are currently unresolved, we argue that there remains considerable 528 uncertainty about the environmental impacts of the Carmichael Mine on areas of high 529 conservation value, to the degree that approval should have been deferred until the data gaps responsible for the uncertainty were filled. Furthermore, only in the federal approval conditions 530 (publicised as the "the strictest conditions in Australian history") are there provisions for 531 532 corrective actions to be taken if mining activity has a more serious impact on groundwater than 533 is currently modelled; all previous reports and assessments for the mine omitted mention of 534 remediation/mitigation strategies altogether. This omission is typical of mine approval 535 conditions in Australia, and we argue that it is a major oversight that should not be allowed to 536 continue. 537 On this basis, we contend that even with the current system of checks and approvals,

539 environmental decision making for mining projects in Australia, an issue with significant

there remain fundamental problems with the way hydrogeological science is incorporated into

540 national and global ramifications. Casey and Nelson (2012) pointed out that a key aspect of the 541 overall challenge for groundwater management is improving communication between scientists 542 and policy makers. We propose that additionally, there are some simple steps that could help to 543 bridge the science-policy divide and ensure that future decisions about projects with potential 544 impacts on high-value GDEs (such as the Doongmabulla Springs) are based on the best possible 545 scientific evidence: 546 1. Greater emphasis should be placed on identifying and resolving scientific uncertainties 547 relating to groundwater during the upfront environmental impact assessment (EIA), as argued by 548 Lee, (2014). The EIA is the most transparent part of the approval process for mining projects, 549 and it is where deficiencies such as data gaps, competing conceptual models and points of 550 potential scientific conjecture can be identified and resolved through additional/supplementary 551 work. Such an emphasis would reduce the chances of uncertainties and scientific misconceptions 552 carrying through to approval decisions and designing of project conditions, and of subsequent 553 conflicts emerging. 554 2. There needs to be a stronger role for independent scientific opinion in the approvals process. 555 The IESC is an example of one body in Australia which currently provides advice on mining 556 projects. However, their advice is only sought for coal mining and CSG projects. Also, their 557 advice is not binding, and mining companies are not strictly required to resolve all technical and 558 scientific issues identified in the committee's advice (such as those identified in this case) prior 559 to project approval. 560 3. Monitoring criteria and proposed mitigation strategies should be available for public review

and scrutiny prior to project approval, rather than being deferred to a post-approval process (Lee,
2014; Slattery, 2016). After approval, monitoring and management plans are generally overseen
by mining companies and the relevant government department(s), but need not involve public

564 consultation. Monitoring the compliance with environmental conditions in jurisdictions such as 565 the state of Queensland, Australia (where our case study is situated) is hampered by a lack of 566 resources and expertise (e.g. Queensland Audit Office, 2014), and this is likely true in other 567 jurisdictions also. A greater degree of transparency and up-front effort in the design of 568 monitoring criteria and proposed mitigation plans would thus allow the public and technical 569 experts to provide input, helping to ensure environmental objectives will be effectively 570 monitored and met.

571 This case study has emphasised the universal need for rigour by hydrologists to 572 understand the uncertainty of modelling relating to major projects. It also emphasises the 573 perceived significance of this uncertainty in formal and legal decision making among different 574 stakeholders (Liu et al., 2008). As demonstrated, what are seen as acceptable risks may vary 575 between different hydrologists and others such as project proponents, ecologists, lawyers and 576 politicians. It is thus important to acknowledge that the traditionally defined roles of hydrologists 577 may be inadequate to positively affect decision making, unless their intervention is carefully 578 planned within the decision-making system (Syme, 2012). In some cases, this may mean that 579 well intentioned hydrological professionals may end up on opposite sides of an argument when 580 disputes occur, such as in this case. However, this is a challenge that must be seen as a priority if 581 hydrologists are to contribute to improving our current environmental decision-making. We 582 believe that the recommendations derived from this study provide a necessary step in that 583 direction and would enhance the prospects for an environmentally sustainable mining industry -584 a major global challenge.

585

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- 588 or not-for-profit sectors
- 589
- 590 Figure captions
- 591 Figure 1 Location of Carmichael mine and the Doongmabulla Springs (J = Joshua Spring; 10
- 592 = seismic line 2011-10).
- Figure 2 Galilee Basin stratigraphy (from McKellar and Henderson 2013; Allen and Fielding
 2007).
- 595 Figure 3 Interpreted east-west 2D seismic survey line 2011-10 showing probable fault (red line)
- 596 offsetting top coal seams (thick black lines) in Colinlea Sandstone by 6-10 m. Note westwards
- 597 dip of strata. See Fig. 1 for location. From McClintock (2012).
- 598 Figure 4 Schematic of a spring used in estimating the mine-induced spring flow reduction to
- 599 the Doongmabulla Springs.
- 600

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Approximate distance across seismic survey line running southwest to northeast (m)



748 **Article highlights**

- 750 Case study reveals problems in way hydrological science applied in mine approvals •
- 751 Water-related conflict exacerbated by unresolved scientific uncertainties •
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- 753