

Spatial variability of soil quality in Cooch Behar urban area and surrounding peri-urban area

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Uttar Banga Krishi Viswavidyalaya
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the Degree of Master of Science (Agriculture)
in

SOIL SCIENCE AND AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY

By

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This is to certify that the thesis entitled "**Spatial variability of Soil Quality in Cooch Behar Urban area and surrounding Peri-urban areas**", submitted to the Faculty of Agriculture, Uttar Banga Krishi Viswavidyalaya in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the M.Sc. (Ag) programme in Soil Science and Agricultural Chemistry by Ms Arpita Sarkar embodies the results of bonafide work carried out by her under my supervision and guidance. No part of the thesis has been submitted by her for any other Degree or Diploma. I further certify that any help or information received during the work on this thesis has been acknowledged.

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Certified that the thesis entitled “**Spatial variability of soil quality in Cooch Behar urban area and surrounding peri-urban area**”, submitted by **Ms. ARPITA SARKAR** bearing Registration number **A-2018-7-M** towards partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Master Degree from the **Department of Soil Science and Agricultural Chemistry** under Uttar Banga Krishi Viswavidyalaya has been checked against plagiarism through **URKUND software** on **8th September, 2020** and that the similarity index has been achieved as **1%** which is below the maximum tolerable range as per stipulation of this Viswavidyalaya. The thesis of **Ms. Sarkar** may be accepted for the award of the Master Degree in Soil Science and Agricultural Chemistry of Uttar Banga Krishi Viswavidyalaya.

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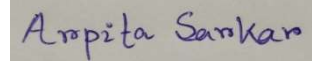
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Date- 16/09/2020



(Arpita Sarkar)

Spatial variability of soil quality in Cooch Behar urban area and surrounding peri-urban areas

Abstract

Maximum of the global urban soil researches are concentrated in megacities only. Very little importance has been given to the soils of small cities and towns till date. Although big cities have higher anthropogenic pressure, the sewage management system is also very functional there. On the contrary, small cities and towns have less urban pollutants, but also very weak waste management and disposal system. Therefore, soil pollution and quality of small cities and towns are matters of concern. In this context, this study selected Cooch Behar, a town in Northern part of West Bengal, India, along with its peri-urban areas with the objectives (i) to understand the impact of urbanization on soil quality and peri-urban area, and (ii) to estimate the extent of microplastics pollution in and around Cooch Behar town.

Soils of the study area belong to two soil series viz. Lotafela series (sandy loam) and Balarampur series (silty loam). The soils were predominantly acidic to neutral in pH. However, a small portion of urban area showed higher soil pH (>7). The possible reason was dumping of unused and waste building materials like lime and cement in the soil. All the soils showed very high organic C (\bar{x} 19.7 Mg ha⁻¹), which was much more than the national average (0.42 %). Soil available N was low (\bar{x} 125.4 kg ha⁻¹) and spatially homogeneously distributed. Soil NO₃⁻-N concentration was high (\bar{x} 46.9 mg kg⁻¹) and even exceeded the permissible limit in some places. High soil available P status was observed in all the municipality area and also in few discrete peri-urban areas. The possible reason of high organic C, NO₃⁻-N and P concentration were urban waste dumping and improper waste management. Peri-urban agricultural activities and high fertilizer application might also be another reason. This was alarming as leaching of excess NO₃⁻ into groundwater and P-runoff in the surface waterbodies were possible. Soil available K status was found moderate. Among the heavy metals, the whole study area was found high in bio-available Cr (\bar{x} 2.31 µg g⁻¹), while a small area of Cooch Behar municipality had bio-available Cd more than the critical limit. No lead (Pb) toxicity was found in any of the soils. This study found high concentration of microbial biomass C in discrete areas of Cooch Behar municipality and North-Western peripheral area. Soil respiration, which represents microbial activity, was found high in the municipality area mainly. A high correlation was observed among microbial biomass C, soil respiration and soil organic C. On the contrary, no correlation of heavy metals was found with any other soil properties. It indicated that the heavy metals were not associated with soil properties but with point source anthropogenic activities. Analysis of microplastic contamination in the soils showed high presence in certain part of municipality area and surrounding peri-urban area. Surprisingly, other urban areas had

much less microplastic load. Detailed ground analysis indicated that microplastic pollution was not directly associated with urban population but with plastic waste dumping and improper waste removal. Observation under stereo-microscope and scanning electron microscope indicated presence of different types of microplastic particles in soil like thermocol fragments, microplastic films and fibres etc. Even presence of nano-plastic particles ($< 10 \mu\text{m}$) were found in the soil. Plant can uptake these nano-plastic particles and thus there is a chance that, these particles can enter into the food chain. This study indicated contamination and degraded soil health in Cooch Behar town and its peripheral area. It is recommended that number of future studies should focus on the soil quality and pollution status of small cities and towns worldwide.

Keywords: Urban soil; soil quality; contamination; heavy metal; microplastics

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1. Introduction

1. Introduction

Currently, over 50% of total population lives in urban areas worldwide (Dye, 2008). In 2007, the United Nations has predicted that, the number of people residing in urban areas will reach to 9.2 billion from 6.7 billion globally between 2007 and 2050. Since the past 50 yrs, due to rapid urban growth the population density is increasing in very large cities of numerous developing countries. As a result, the rate of urban growth is more rapid in developing countries than in developed one (Godfrey and Julien, 2005). Mainly, population density is high in urban areas and maximum of the land area is occupied by building infrastructure. In general sense, urban ecosystem constitutes not only centre of the city but also surrounding areas of city core. The United States Census Bureau characterizes urban areas as the areas having min population of 2500 and population density of atleast 1000 people per square mile in center part.

Sometimes the expansion of urban area can create unhealthy environment for human being that may lead to the transmission of various diseases (Moore et al., 2003; Godfrey and Julien, 2005) and mental problems (Bhugra and Mastrogianni, 2004). The sealing of soil and contamination with various organic or inorganic pollutants are considered as main risks to soil in urban and surrounding peri-urban soil (Andrews and Carroll, 2002). The quality of soil is generally associated with several soil characteristics such as soil reaction or pH, organic carbon content, available nutrient content, microbial biomass content. Soil is considered as significant part of the urban ecology and the assessment of soil quality is important from management point of view. Generally, the soil quality of urban and adjacent areas varies spatially and depends on various anthropogenic activities and environmental condition of that area. It has been reported that, Phosphorus rich layer may form in soil of urban areas (Shen, 1990) and these soils normally show higher level of organic matter and nutrient content (Nitrogen, Potassium) (Jim, 1998; Zhang et al., 2011). Urban soils may have reduced hydraulic conductivity, increased compaction, poor structure and inadequate aeration facility (Scharenbroch et al., 2005). Usually, surface runoff increases from 10% to 30% in urban areas as compared to non-urban areas (Hough, 1995). The presence of various toxic substances in urban soil may pose threat to humans as these

substances can enter the body (Abrahams, 2002). There are several negative impacts of urbanization on environment, economy and these impacts include decline in agricultural land and quality degradation, increased land utilization (Gayda et al., 2004). It is evidenced that, soil organisms are responding to altered soil physicochemical characteristics related to urbanization (Steinberg et al., 1997; Pavao-Zuckerman and Coleman, 2007). Air pollution is also a growing concern in urban and adjacent areas due to increased industrial activities, excessive traffic emission. Air pollution has adverse effects on urban and peri urban agriculture (Te Lintelo et al., 2002) and it may hamper the yield, quality of crops (Ashmore and Marshall, 1999). Increasing urban growth has the potential to contaminate water in several ways. Various water sources in urban and adjacent areas may be polluted from dumping of untreated solid waste, leaching from landfills (Zhang et al., 2012), ineffective treatment of waste water (Le Pape et al., 2013), industrial effluents. There is temperature difference between urban and adjacent areas mainly due to spatial heterogeneity of landscape in urban areas (Arnfield, 2003) and usually the core part of urban area is more warm than surrounding areas and this elevated temperature may increase ozone formation (Sukopp, 1998).

Perhaps the most important characteristic feature of urban soil is the pollution. Generally heavy metal pollution is seen in urban soil and several works have been conducted on behaviour of heavy metals in soil of cities, towns and in adjacent areas (Kelly and Thornton, 1996; Imperato et al., 2003; Biasioli et al., 2006; Wong et al., 2006). These studies in urban areas indicated that, soils of urban areas show greater concentration of Cu, Zn, Pb (Li et al., 2001; Wong et al., 2006) and Cd (Imperato et al., 2003) than that of rural areas. Lead pollution in urban environment usually occur from industrial discharge, coal burning, tyres etc (Andersen et al., 1978; Kuang et al., 2013). High level of Pb and Fe is found in groundwater of some cities (Kumar et al., 2009). Heavy metals may enter the food chain by way of plant uptake (Hu et al., 2006). So, evaluation of heavy metal contamination in urban and surrounding areas is becoming an important environmental issue in several countries. The increased concentration of heavy metals also has harmful effects on soil system (Cui et al., 2005).

Many cities have problems regarding disposal of wastes as the production of wastes is rising gradually due to urban growth and increase in population (Salleh et al., 2002; Idris et al., 2003). Due to rapid urban growth and variation in lifestyles, the composition of wastes is also changing and generally they are plastic materials or other wastes of inorganic nature. Usually open dumping is followed for urban waste disposal but this method is not an appropriate way of disposal as it poses several threats to soil, air and water quality (Kansal, 2002). The occurrence of microplastic pollution is also reported in many cities, industrial areas and neighbouring areas (Fuller and Gautam, 2016). Presence of microplastics in soil environment may have negative effects on the activity of earthworms (Huerta-Lwanga et al., 2017) and can alter soil physical, biological characteristics like soil aggregation, water holding capacity and bulk density (Wan et al., 2019). It's abundance in soil affects various functions of plants by altering soil structure (Peres et al., 2013), microbial activity (Wagg et al., 2014; Powell and Rilling, 2018). Therefore, analysis of microplastics as potential threat to urban environment is become an important task.

With the shift of rural population to urban areas, the demand for food is also increasing. So, rural areas may not be able to supply food solely in urban areas as per the increasing demand. In this perspective urban and peri-urban agriculture have a significant role to ensure food supply in urban areas. The salient characteristic of this type of agriculture is that, it is an indispensable element of urban ecosystem (Mougeot, 2000) and highly determined by various urban situation. It is estimated that, urban and peri-urban agriculture share 10% of food supply globally (Schnitzler et al., 1998). Agricultural activities in urban and adjacent areas can act as considerable source of income (Freidberg, 1996; Moustier and Danso, 2006), mitigate malnutrition (Egziabher et al., 1994), ensure food security to urban people (Atkinson, 1995) and thus upgrade their standards of living.

In the past years, many studies have been carried out in big cities, metropolitan areas but less attention has been given to small cities (Bell and Jayne, 2009). However, large proportion of urban inhabitants (around 61%) reside in small and medium sized city or town areas. These areas may not have proper waste recycling or management facilities, health services, sanitary facilities, water supply and other basic amenities

(Cohen, 2006; Montgomery, 2008). Usually, waste generation is more in large cities and they have improved waste dumping, waste treatment facilities but the waste disposal and waste management system of small cities (less than 100,000 population) are faulty, unregulated, unplanned (Oakley and Jimenez, 2012). In spite of having several difficulties in terms of waste handling, sanitary issues, pollution control, governmental support, health hazard, the study in small cities are commonly neglected. For this reason we selected urban and surrounding peri-urban areas of Cooch Behar district as our study area. It is a small district located in northern side of West Bengal. According to census 2011, the population of Cooch Behar town was 77,935 and 10.27% of total population inhabited in urban regions of the district. This study was carried out with following objectives:

1. To understand the impact of urbanization on soil quality of Cooch Behar municipality and peri-urban area
2. To estimate the extent of microplastics pollution in and around Cooch Behar town

2. Review of Literatures

2. Review of Literatures

Following the set of objectives, this part is based on understanding of the subject matter of previous studies. This part tried to discuss about the reviews on variation of soil qualities in urban and surrounding peri-urban areas.

2.1. Urbanization

Generally, urbanization refers to the increase in the proportion of people living in cities, use of agricultural or unmanaged land for recreational, industrial, residential purpose. It is mainly the process by which towns, cities are formed. Urban expansion resulted in the change of land cover of existing cities, metropolitan areas (Dwyer et al., 2000; United Nations, 2001). Urban land areas are increasing globally and expected to become threefold between 2000 and 2030 (Seto et al., 2012). Studies showed that in 1800, 2% of the world population inhabited in cities or towns or metropolitan areas but gradually this number raised to 14% in 1900, 29% in 1950 and at present it become more than 50% (Wu et al., 2014). It is predicted that, 70% and 100% of world population will live in urban areas by 2050 and 2092 respectively (Batty, 2011). With this rapid urbanization, there is transformation of natural land to urban area and it has direct or indirect effects on soil, food security (Blum, 1997). Though urbanization has positive correlation with economic development, it has several negative impacts on environment (Grimm et al., 2008; Pickett et al., 2011; Ghosh et al., 2019). In urban areas, various anthropogenic activities are associated with urban pollution and may lead to the release of greenhouse gases. It has been studied that, the concentration of CO₂ is considerably higher in urban areas than nonurban, rural areas (Pataki et al., 2007). Anthropogenic activities in urban areas influence local and regional climate. It has been reported that higher surface and soil temperatures are prevalent in urban areas than neighbouring rural areas (Oke, 1985; Voogt, 2002). Water cycle and stream flows are also influenced by urbanization as it alters the runoff pattern, evaporation and transpiration rates, contaminates water, changes land cover (Pickett et al., 2001, 2011). Generally, soils in urban area have high degree of spatial variability in terms of carbon, nitrogen, soil organic matter, pollutants and other elements (Jenerette et al.,

2006; Wu et al., 2011; Ghosh et al., 2019). It has been reported that, expansion of urban areas and increase in population density lead to decrease in land for agricultural production (Yang and Li, 2000; Lin and Ho, 2003; Zhang et al., 2004).

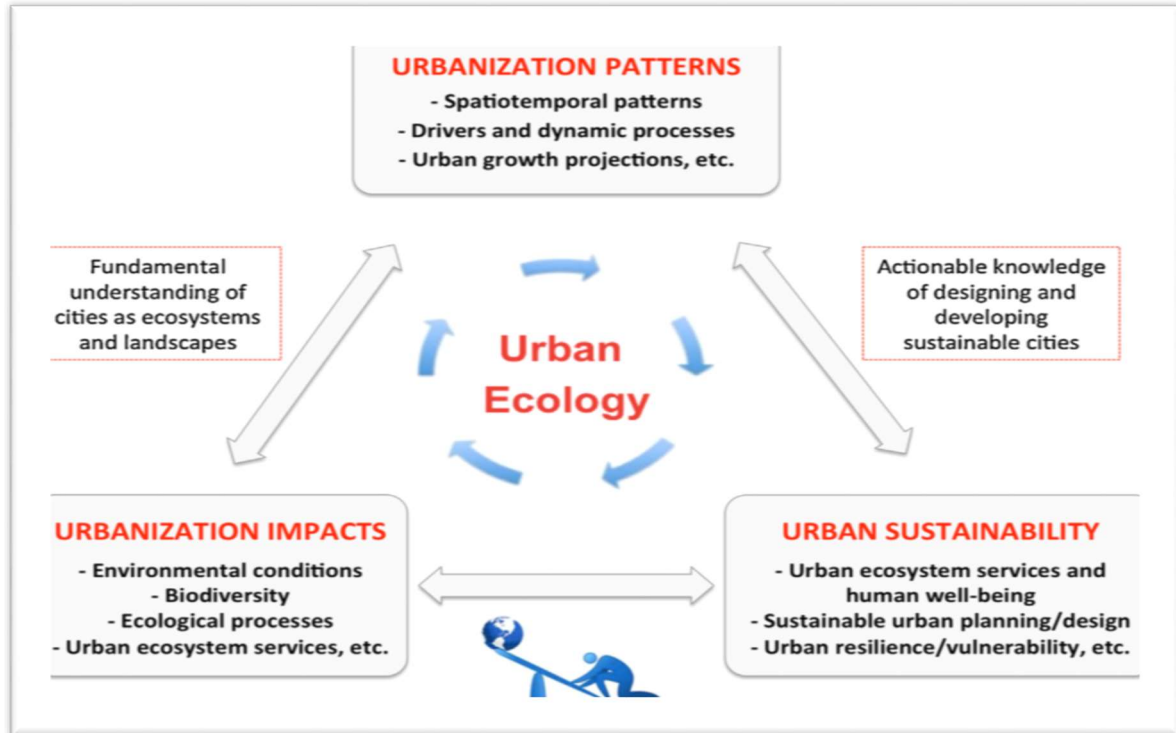


Fig 2.1. Conceptual diagram of urban ecology which shows interactions between spatiotemporal patterns, environmental and social impacts and sustainability of Urbanization (Wu, 2014).

2.2. Soil quality

Soil quality is an important component of environmental quality, besides air and water quality (Andrews et al., 2002). Sustaining soil quality is the most effective method to ensure sufficient food for supporting life. Soil quality is commonly defined as “the capacity of a specific kind of soil to function within the ecosystem boundaries, to sustain biological productivity, protect environmental quality, and ensure community viability” (Doran and Parkin, 1994). The various opinions associated with soil quality were introduced to allocate agricultural inputs in correct proportion and at right time (Warkentin and Fletcher, 1977). Soil quality has two aspects viz., inherent and dynamic soil quality (Seybold et al., 1999). Intrinsic or inherent part of soil quality depends on natural or inherent composition of soil like particle size distribution, mineralogical

composition and can't be altered easily whereas the dynamic part changes over a relatively short time period due to various anthropogenic activities and are affected by different agronomic practices (Larsen and Pierce, 1994). The abundance of soil organic carbon is an important factor for the soil quality (Deb et al., 2019). It is necessary to cover chemical, physical and biological characteristics of soil to understand the concept of quality of soil (Frankenberger and Dick, 1983; Nannipieri et al., 1990; Dick, 1994; Gelsomino et al., 2006). The quality of soil, generally the degree of pollution has various effects on human health and ecosystem (Chen et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011). Microbial biomass and enzymatic activity are reduced in heavy metal contaminated soil (Wang et al., 2007). Various human activities in urban area may change the physical characteristics of soils. Generally soil texture, structure, plasticity, hydraulic conductivity, temperature, moisture content and bulk density are the physical characteristics of soils. There are reduced soil structure, limited oxygen supply, surface crust, compaction, altered pH, temperature and restricted drainage in urban soils (Green and Oleksyszyn, 2002). Several development practices in urban areas may also result increase in bulk density, degradation of soil health, decrease of vegetative cover and disruption of Carbon cycles (Jim, 1998b; Kaye et al., 2006; Woltemade, 2010). In urban soils, the layers may not always parallel to the soil surface and sometimes may show abrupt changes at one or more layers within the profile and exhibit broken horizons in vertical plane (Craul, 1992). Soils in urban area show strong spatial heterogeneity (Schleuss et al., 1998).

2.3. Urbanization and soil pollution

Soil pollution in urban areas mainly caused by discharge of municipal and industrial sewage, urban wastes, irrigation with sewage and polluted water. Urbanization leads to the collapse of agro ecosystem and causes a significant deterioration of soil quality (Li et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2001). Various anthropogenic activities like urban expansion, transportation, industrial growth have negative impacts on the soil environment generally in terms of heavy metal accumulation (Zhong et al., 2007; Zhang et al. 2012). Generally urban centers are characterized by higher population densities, different anthropogenic activities and also produce a large amount of waste which may also contain plastics in significant amount (Fendall and Sewell, 2009;

Hidalgo-Ruz et al., 2012). It has been reported that microplastics are highly accumulated in some industrial areas. For example, in Australia, the neighboring soils of an industrial area received a large amount of microplastics which varied from 0.03% to 6.7% (Fuller and Gautam, 2016).

High concentration of nitrate may present in urban and peri-urban areas. In urban environment, nitrogen sources are landfills, atmospheric deposition, industries etc (Lerner et al., 1999; Wakida and Lerner, 2005). Nitrate also come from agricultural field due to use of fertilizers.

Heavy metal contamination

Rapid industrial development and increase in urban areas may lead to the soil pollution by accumulating heavy metals in soil and this problem is increasing day by day in several countries (Mireles et al., 2012; Wei and Yang, 2010; Yaylali-Abanuz, 2011). Availability of accumulated heavy metals in soil depends on different factors like soil temperature, pH, nutrient concentration, available water content (Alloway, 2013). The elements which are considered as heavy metals in soils include Cr, Cu, Cd, Hg, Pb, Zn, Mn, Mo and Co. These elements can convert to different forms and may develop toxicity in soil. The concentration of heavy metals in soil has significant influence in determining the quality of soil in urban areas and may be used to observe natural variability in the soil composition. The concentration of heavy metals in soil system and their bioavailable forms influence the rate of pollution in environment (Lu et al., 2003; Santos et al., 2005; Watmough et al., 2005). Heavy metals enter into soils through numerous ways, including atmospheric deposition (Han et al. 2006), use of pesticides, fertilizers for agricultural production (Lu et al. 1992), accumulation of solid waste (Zheng et al. 2005), use of sewage water for irrigation. It has also been studied that, the heavy metals in urban soil can be accumulated in excessive quantities mainly by traffic emission and industrial emission (Hamzeh et al., 2011; Faciu et al., 2012). Contamination of heavy metals in urban environment may change soil physical, chemical properties, deteriorate soil biological function and create other environmental problems (Papa et al., 2010).

Microplastics contamination

Microplastic contamination in soil or water may lead to several ecological problems due to their negative impacts on nature, extensive use, small particle size (Wright et al., 2013; Scheurer and Bigalke, 2018). Nowadays the use of plastic products is inevitable as they are cost-effective, durable, light-weight (Barnes et al., 2009). Therefore, enormous amount of plastics are transferred in the seas (Thompson et al., 2004) and also a large quantity of plastic wastes are accumulated in soil. Plastic pollution in marine environment was 1st reported in 1972 (Carpenter et al., 1972; Carpenter and Smith, 1972).

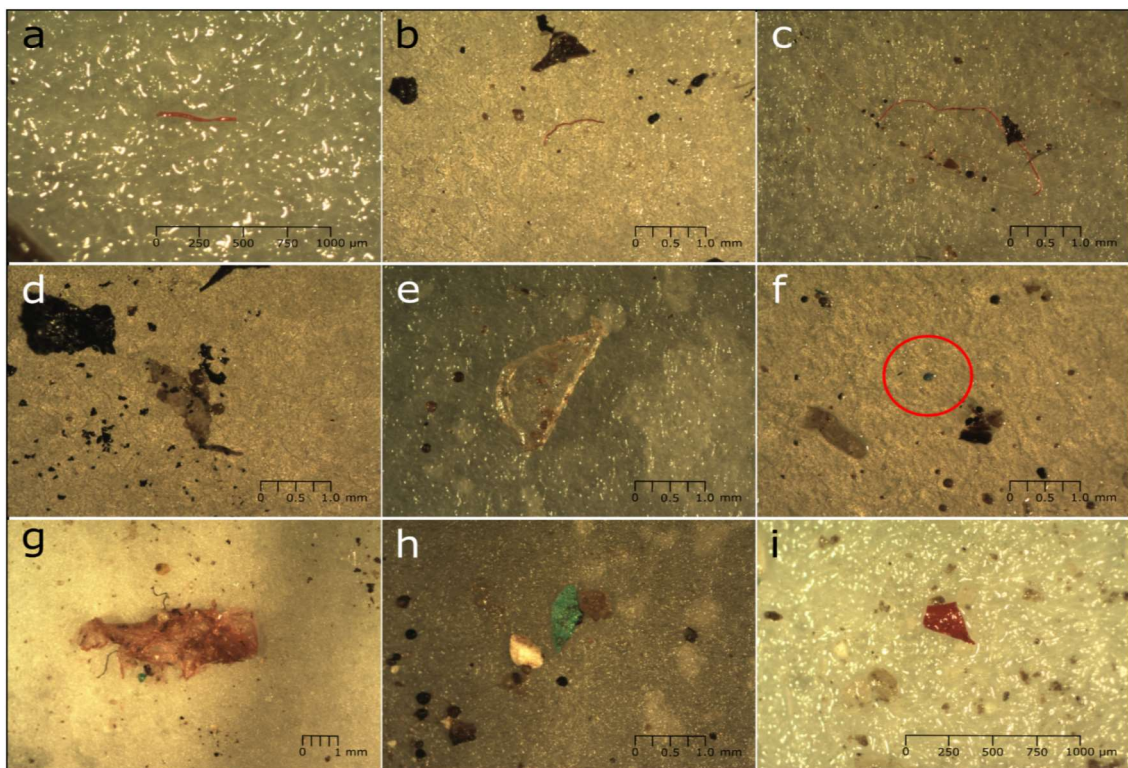


Fig 2.2. Microplastics images observed by microscope (SMZ 745 T, Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) Fibres (a, b, c) films (d, e) pellets (f) fragments (g, h, i) Source: Corradini et al., 2019)

Many researches have been carried out on the occurrence and impacts of microplastics in marine environment but only a few studies have been accomplished about terrestrial ecosystem. However, recently some studies have conducted to understand the sources, contamination level of microplastics in soil and their impacts on various organisms in soil system (Huerta Lwanga et al., 2016; Rodriguez-seijo et al.,

2017; Zhang and Liu, 2018). These studies show that, microplastics are generally omnipresent and persist in soil environment (Zhang and Liu 2018) and they have negative effects on survival, growth and health of many organisms in soil system (Huerta Lwanga et al., 2016). Microplastics are the small plastic particles generally <5 mm in size (Rilling et al., 2017). Nowadays, the most commonly used synthetic plastics include polypropylene, polyvinyl chloride, polyethylene terephthalate and polystyrene. These plastics constitute nearly 90% of world total plastic production (Andrady and Neal., 2009).

Different studies are showed that microplastics have been detected in aquatic environment and are detrimental to various aquatic organisms (Matthew et al., 2011; Rilling and Bonkowski, 2018). Several researches also pointed out the undesirable impacts of plastic materials and microplastic particles in soil ecosystems (Rilling, 2012). It has been found that land may contain 4-23 times more microplastics than oceans (de Souza Machado et al., 2018). It has been reported that, plastic may account 54% by mass of anthropogenic wastes which are liberated to environment (Hoellein et al., 2014). The bioavailability of microplastics depends on their various physicochemical properties (Zhang et al., 2018). Various pathways by which microplastics can enter in terrestrial environment are use of organic fertilizers and sludge as an input in agricultural field (Zubris and Richards, 2005; Zhang and Liu, 2018), use of personal care products like cosmetics, bath foam, toothpaste etc. (Mason et al., 2016), atmospheric deposition (Dris et al., 2016), plastic greenhouse covers (Song et al., 2017), use of plastic mulches in agriculture (Yan et al., 2015). Other routes of entry of microplastics in environment are the use of wastewater for irrigation, illegal dumping of wastes near roads, runoff from urban area, plastic packaging materials, water pipes (Bläsing and Amelung, 2018). It has been reported that sludge may contain upto 90% of microplastics of influent wastewater (Mintenig et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018). In urban environment 70% of microplastics may come from tire materials (Lassen et al., 2015). In soil, the accumulated plastic materials are subjected to various physical stresses, chemical, biological degradation (Barnes et al., 2009; Briassoulis et al., 2015). This break down of plastic materials into smaller fragments results microplastics or even nanoplastics and these small pieces release to

the environment and soil may act as sink for contamination (Rilling, 2012; Zubris and Richards, 2005). Generally, topsoil provides favourable condition for degradation of plastic wastes due to direct impact of weathering agents, comparatively high temperature and increased O₂ availability (Chae and An, 2018). Moreover, agricultural practices like tillage and crop rotation may enhance the fragmentation process. However, the breakdown of plastic debris in soil may occur at slower rate. It has been reported that, after 1 year of soil accumulation, there is only 0.4% weight loss of Polypropylene (Ali et al., 2014).

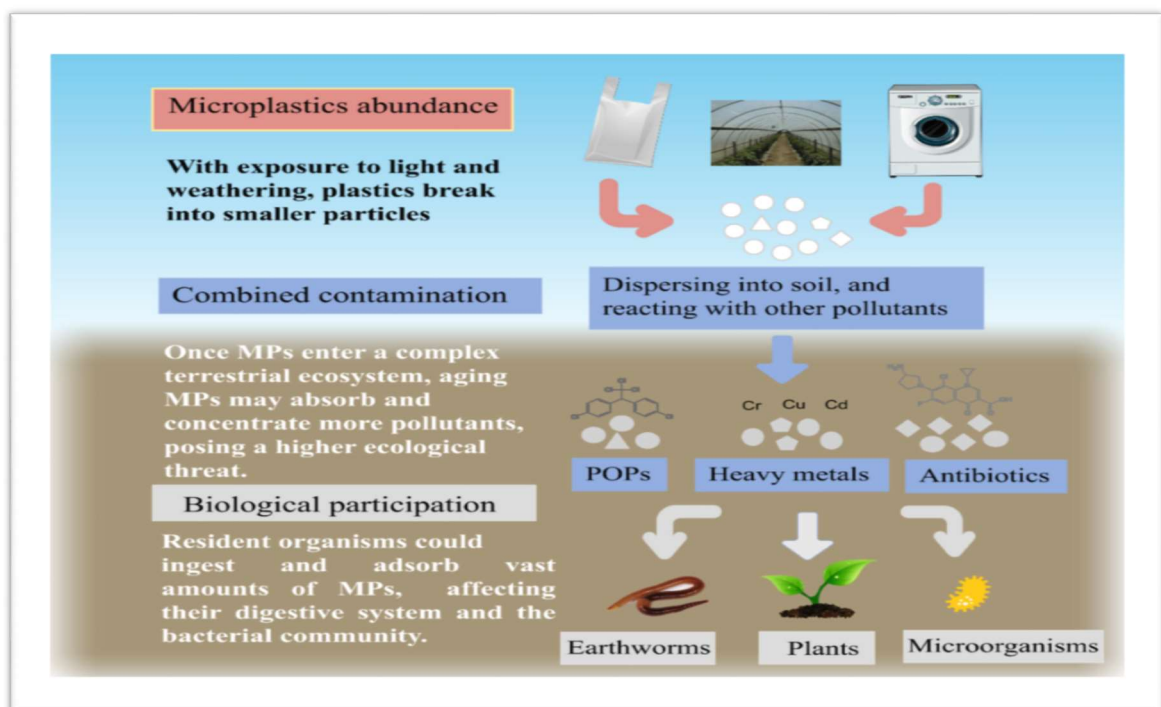


Fig 2.3. Interactions of microplastics in soil system (Wang et al., 2019)

Microplastics may be stored in soil aggregates for longer period and this process depends on environmental condition as the stability of soil aggregates is correlated with soil health (Gupta and Germida, 2015). After entering in terrestrial environment, microplastics react with other pollutants like heavy metals, persistent organic pollutants (POPs) such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon, polychlorinated biphenyls and antibiotics (Hodson et al., 2017). For example, polyethylene film used in horticulture may act as vector of transport of pesticides (Ramos et al., 2015). Zinc, a terrestrial contaminant may be adsorbed by microplastics and by ingestion process it can be transported from microplastics to earthworm (Hodson et al., 2017). Interactions between plastics and other pollutants depend on environmental conditions

(Karapanagioti and Klontza, 2008; Bakir et al., 2014; Koelmans et al., 2016). Texture and particle size are also considered as important factors which determine the binding capacity of microplastics with other contaminants. It has expected that physical weathering of particles results greater surface area (Ivar do Sul and Costa, 2014). It has also been studied that microplastics have adverse effects on terrestrial birds (Zhao et al., 2016) and seabirds (Tanaka et al., 2013; Van Franeker and Law, 2015).

2.4. Impact of urbanization on plants, soil organisms and human health

Heavy metals have adverse effects on human health as they are very toxic, non-biodegradable and liable to bioaccumulate (Wei and Yang, 2010). Heavy metals in urban area can be accumulated in human body by inhalation, ingestion or dermal absorption. However, the soil-crop system is considered as an important pathway of entry of heavy metals in human body in agricultural area (Oliver, 1997; Boim et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017). It has been reported that risk is involved to human being due to lead (Pb) contamination in soil as it can damage the nervous system (Kaufmann et al., 2003). Long term exposure to Cd can cause bone fractures and kidney failure. The negative impact of human exposure to contaminated soil depends on various factors like the several ways of exposure, ingestion and behaviour of contaminants in human body (Madrid et al., 2008; Morton-Bermea et al., 2009; Dao et al., 2010). It has also been reported that, another important factor is age. Generally, children and infants are at higher risk of exposure than adults to soil contaminants (Johnsson and Bretsch, 2002; Yáñez et al., 2003; Ljung et al., 2007; Madrid et al., 2008).

Only a few studies have focused on effect of microplastics on the growth, survival, reproduction, feeding habit and metabolic activity of soil organisms including nematodes, earthworms. In urban areas microplastics can be inhaled by humans and animals and create problem to human health. Microplastics may also enter in food chain via aquatic organisms and thus poses potential threat to human (Wright et al., 2013; Nelms et al., 2018). Huerta Lwanga et al. (2016) reported that mortality of earthworms is increased in microplastics contaminated soil, whereas growth rate followed the opposite pattern. Terrestrial organisms may ingest microplastics by mistaking those as food or use as habitat (Sun et al., 2012). Size is considered as an important factor to determine toxic effects of microplastics on nematodes (Lei et al.,

2018; Kim et al., 2019). It has been studied that different factors like soil physical, chemical, biological properties, types of microplastics and their concentration in soil influence the interactions between microplastics and microorganisms (de Souza Machado et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). Bacterial community structure can be altered by microplastics (Zhang et al., 2019).

Few researches have focused on the impacts of microplastics on plants. Root growth of duckweed (*Lemna minor*) can be affected by microbeads by reducing root cells viability (Kalčíková et al., 2017; Abel et al., 2018). Plant-soil-microorganism systems can also be influenced by microplastics and it has adverse effects on symbiotic associations in soil (Abel et al., 2018). Nitrate contamination in surface and ground water can create many health problems to infants and animals (Fennesy and Cronk, 1997).

3. Materials and Methods

3. Materials and Methods

The materials and methods for research were selected scientifically to estimate various parameters in surface soils (0-15 cm).

3.1. Study area

The study was carried out in urban area and surrounding peri-urban areas of Cooch Behar District, West Bengal, India. In order to achieve the objectives, agricultural land, industrial area, forest and town area were chosen for soil sampling. The location of Forest is 26°33' N latitude, 89°46' E longitude and that of industrial area is 26°34' N latitude, 89°48' E longitude. Climatic parameters like rainfall, temperature of the study area have been obtained from ClimWat (FAO). The average min. and max. temperature of the area varied from 23°C to 33°C. The study area belongs to warm and humid climate and there is a short spell of winter from December to February.

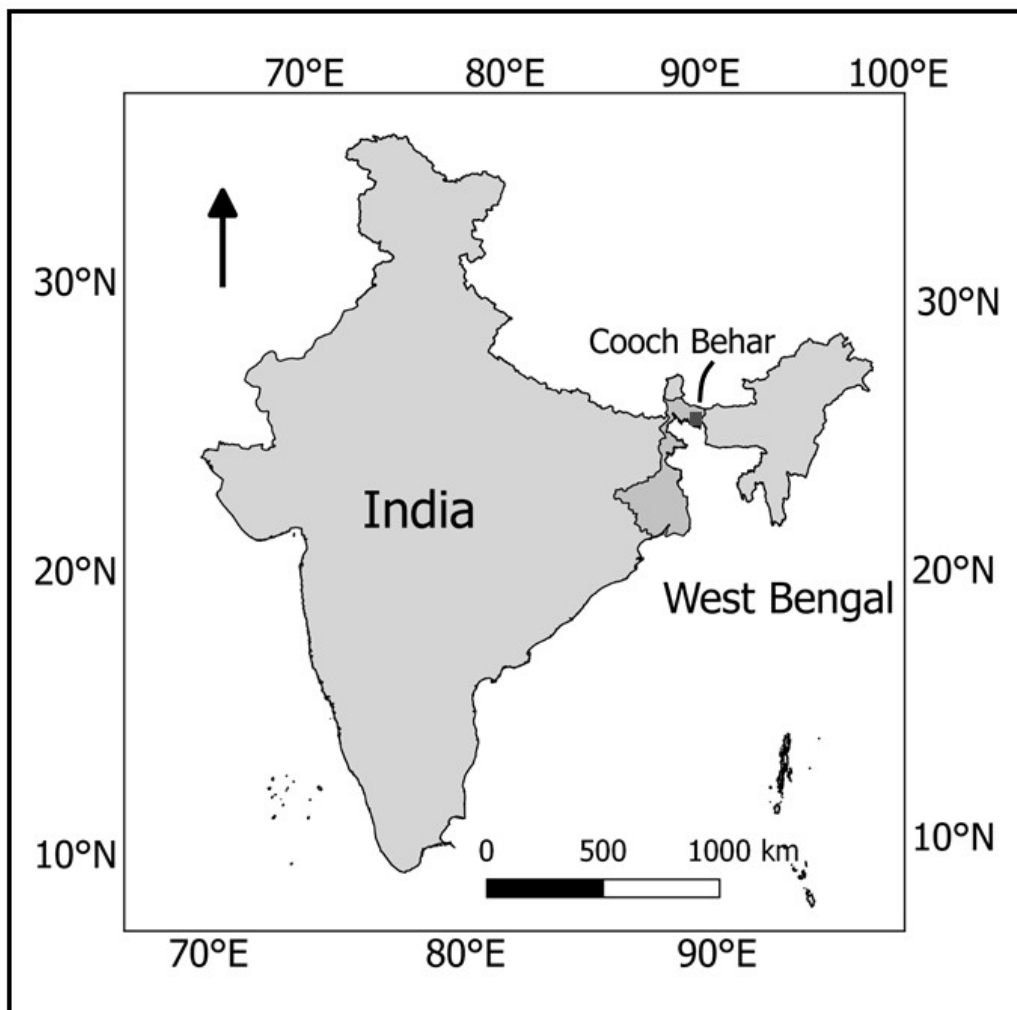


Fig 3.1. Study Area and Sampling locations

3.2. Soil Sampling

Soil sampling was done in the month of December, 2018 from forest, agricultural land, town area and industrial area. Total 26 number of soil samples (0-20 cm) were collected from agricultural land, town area, forest land, industrial area. To know the exact sampling locations, hand-held GPS receiver (Garmin, Olathe, KS, USA) was used.



Fig 3.2. Soil sampling

3.3. Soil analysis

A part of soil samples were kept in the refrigerator for determination of the biological parameter and the rest of the soils were air dried (Deb et al., 2018). This air dried soil samples were then passed through 2 mm sieve and finely ground for different chemical analysis (Deb et al., 2020). Separate sub-samples were collected using Core sampler for determination of soil bulk density. The methods associated with estimation of different parameters are mentioned below.

Soil reaction (pH)

To determine the pH of the soil samples, a pH meter (Utech instrument pH 700) with glass electrode was used. At first, the pH meter was set for the temperature and then

calibrated using buffers. In this case soil to water suspension ratio of 1:2.5 was used. After that, the suspension was stirred occasionally for 30 min by using a glass rod and the pH of the samples was determined.

Calculation of bulk density

Bulk density was determined by tube core method (Blake and Hartge, 1986). The samples were collected from undisturbed surface soil by core sampler, then kept the samples in aluminium box and oven dried for 48 hrs (105°C). Then bulk density was calculated from the measurement of the bulk volume, using the length and diameter of the sampler.

Determination of soil texture

Soil texture was measured using international pipette method (Gee and Or, 2002). It was further verified as per the soil resource map from National Bureau of Soil Survey and Land Use Planning (2001).

Estimation of organic C

Soil organic carbon was estimated by oxidizing the soil samples with potassium dichromate ($K_2Cr_2O_7$) solution and titrating the excess potassium dichromate against 0.5 N Ferrous ammonium sulphate (Walkley and Black, 1934; Deb et al., 2016). In this case, after mixing of potassium dichromate solution with soil samples, concentrated sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) was added to it to raise the heat of reaction as this increased temperature is favourable for oxidation. Phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4) was also used in the analysis to get sharper end point at the time of titration.

Determination of available nitrogen

Alkaline potassium permanganate ($KMnO_4$) method was followed to determine available nitrogen in soil (Subbiah and Asija, 1956; Bandyopadhyay et al., 2010). For the analysis a Kelplus distillation semi autolyzer was used. In this process soil was treated with 0.32% $KMnO_4$ solution in the presence of 2.5% NaOH solution and distillate was collected in boric acid mixed indicator and then absorbed ammonia was titrated against 0.005 N H_2SO_4 .

Estimation of NO₃⁻-nitrogen

For estimation of NO₃⁻-N, the soil sample was extracted with 2M KCl and analyzed by Kjeldahl steam-distillation method using magnesium oxide, Devardas alloy, sulfamic acid (Bremner and Keeney, 1966; Russow et al., 2009; Peralta et al., 2015). In this case, distillate was collected in boric acid indicator mixture and the absorbed ammonia was titrated with 0.005 N H₂SO₄. For extraction, soil to KCl ratio of 1:10 was used. In this analysis, magnesium oxide was added to liberate ammonium, Devardas alloy to reduce nitrate and nitrite to ammonium and sulfamic acid to destruct nitrite.

Determination of available phosphorus

For determination of available phosphorus content in soil the Bray and Kurtz 1 method was followed (Bray and Kurtz, 1945; Frank et al., 1998; Heuck et al., 2015). The chemical composition of Bray and Kurtz 1 extractant is 0.03 N NH₄F in 0.025 N HCl. Soil to extractant ratio of 1:10 was taken for the analysis. After filtration, sample reading was taken using Spectrophotometer at 882 nm wavelength.

Analysis of available potassium

Available potassium was estimated by shaking the soil sample with 1 N ammonium acetate (NH₄OAc) solution (McLean and Watson, 1985; Meena et al., 2014a). In this case, the pH of the extracting solution should be kept at 7. After filtration, the amount of potassium was determined by a flame photometer. In this method soil to extractant ratio of 1:5 was used.

Estimation of microbial biomass carbon

For this analysis, field moist soil samples which were stored at 4°C were exposed to Chloroform vapour (CHCl₃) for 24 hr. After that, K₂SO₄ (0.5 M) was used for extracting the soil samples. Then another non-fumigated set of samples was extracted with 0.5 M K₂SO₄ after keeping them at room temperature for 24 hrs. In this case soil to K₂SO₄ ratio of 1:4 was taken for extraction. The difference between carbon derived from the fumigated and non-fumigated soil samples was expressed as microbial carbon flush and converted to microbial biomass carbon by following the formula as mentioned by Voroney and Paul (1984).

Estimation of soil respiration (CO₂-carbon release)

For analysis of CO₂-carbon release, field moist soil samples, kept at 4°C, were used. In this method 50 g of soil samples were placed in 1 L glass jars along with vials which contain 10 ml NaOH (0.5 N) to trap the evolved CO₂. These soil samples were incubated for 23 days at 27±2°C. The alkali traps were changed at 3rd, 6th and 13th day and finally removed at 23rd day. The amount of CO₂ evolved was estimated by titration with 0.5 N HCl (Deb et al., 2018). Soil respiration was evaluated from the rate of CO₂-carbon release during this incubation period (Deb et al., 2018). The total quantity of CO₂-carbon released during incubation period was considered as the measure of mineralizable carbon of the soil (Franzluebbers and Arshad, 1996; Gan et al., 2012).

Quantitative estimation of microplastics

For estimation of microplastics, a technique was developed from previous testing procedures of soil texture determination and studies associated with marine sediments (Abbott, 1987; Imhof et al., 2012; Nuelle et al., 2014). In this method, 30 g soil sample was taken and 10 ml of 35% hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) was added to it in increments to remove organic particles. Then, the sample was treated with 1 ml of 10% Ferrous Sulfate (FeSO₄) and heated on sand bath at 50°C. To control excessive frothing, little amount of butyl alcohol was added. After complete destruction of organic matter, again 1 ml of 10% ferrous Sulfate (FeSO₄) was added. Then the sample was stored for 24 hr after addition of 30 ml NaOH (0.5 M). Next, volume make up was done to 150 ml with distilled water and then agitated properly by a sonifier for 20 min. After that, centrifugation of the sample was carried out at 2300 rpm for 10 min. Then 150 ml saturated Sodium iodide (NaI) solution was added to the sample after removing the supernatant and mixed well, then centrifuged at 2300 rpm for 10 min. Microplastic particles should present in supernatant as the density of saturated Sodium iodide solution (1.8 g cm⁻³) is more than that of microplastic particles (for example density of Polyvinyl chloride is ≤1.58 g cm⁻³) (Nuelle et al., 2014). After collecting the supernatant, a 0.05 mm sieve was used for filtration. Then microplastic particles were air dried and weighted for quantitative estimation. Images were also taken under Zeiss Stemi 508 Stereo Microscope.

Analysis of heavy metals (Cd, Pb, Cr) in soil

DTPA-extraction method was followed to estimate bio-available levels of heavy metals (Cd, Pb, Cr) in soil (Lindsay and Norvell, 1978; Zahedifar et al., 2017). DTPA extractant consists of 0.005M Diethylene triamine penta acetic acid (DTPA), 0.01 M $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 0.1 M Triethanolamine (TEA) at pH 7.3. Then available form of Pb, Cd, Cr were analyzed by an atomic absorption spectrophotometer (AAS) (Perkin Elmer PinAAcle 900 F).

3.4. Estimation of spatial distribution

The spatial distribution of each of the soil parameters were done by interpolation method as per Inverse Distance Weight in Quantum GIS 2.18.

3.5. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel software with XLstat (add-on) data analysis software (Addinsoft, France).



Fig 3.3. Soil analysis at laboratory

4. Results and Discussion

4. Results and discussion

Following the set of objectives of the present study, first soil quality parameters were assessed in and around Cooch Behar town. Next, the extent of microplastic pollution in these soils were studied along with their spatial distribution. The following sub-sections described the findings and discussed the possible reasons for that.

4.1. Land Use and Land Cover (LULC) of the study area

As evident from the Google Earth™ image and ground survey (Fig 4.1), the study area (Cooch Behar municipality area and peripheral peri-urban area) is having settlements (built-up area), water bodies, urban greeneries, bare earth and even some crop lands.

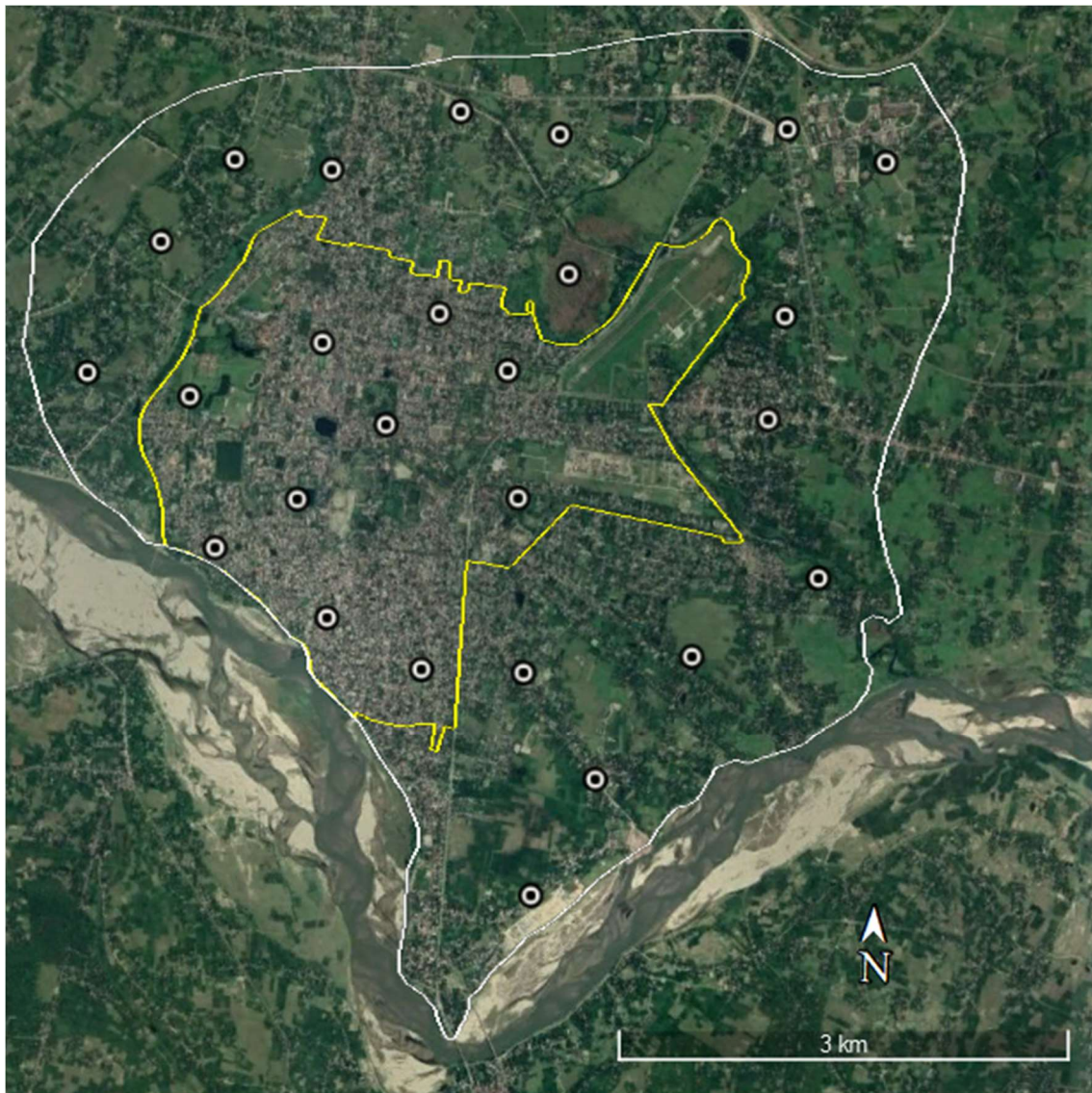


Fig 4.1. Land use land cover of the study area

The distribution of settlement is mainly concentrated in the municipality area and bit towards the northern side as well as in the South-East side. Detailed ground survey indicated presence of number of waterbodies in this area. Among them, some are even maintained by regulatory bodies. The urban greenery is mainly comprised of urban parks and roadside trees. A small social plantation (local name Salbon) is located just outside the municipality area in the northern side.

4.2. Study of soil properties along with their spatial distribution

To understand the type of soil and its physicochemical behaviour, study of the basic soil parameters is important. Following that we estimated the soil texture and found that, average soil clay % was >20 for the Cooch Behar municipality as well as for the peri-urban area (Table 4.1). For Cooch Behar municipality average silt % was approximately 60 while 51 % silt was present on an average in all the soils. Urban soil had comparatively lesser sand % (\bar{x} 19.13 %) in comparison to the peri-urban soils (\bar{x} 28.83 %) (Table 4.1). However, spatial distribution showed a very interesting trend.

Table 4.1. Distribution of basic soil properties in Cooch Behar municipality and surrounding peri-urban area

| Soil parameters | Urban soil | | Peri-urban soil | |
|--|------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | Mean | Standard deviation | Mean | Standard deviation |
| Bulk density (Mg ha^{-1}) | 1.16 | 0.06 | 1.16 | 0.06 |
| Clay (%) | 20.88 | 1.73 | 20.28 | 3.82 |
| Silt (%) | 60.02 | 5.04 | 50.89 | 17.33 |
| Sand (%) | 19.13 | 4.26 | 28.83 | 20.87 |
| pH | 6.5 | 0.47 | 5.8 | 0.53 |
| Organic C (Mg ha^{-1}) | 26.98 | 6.50 | 16.39 | 6.30 |
| Available N (kg ha^{-1}) | 136.6 | 57.45 | 120.4 | 26.91 |
| $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ (mg kg^{-1}) | 52.51 | 21.17 | 44.33 | 10.73 |
| Available P (kg ha^{-1}) | 81.4 | 66.44 | 27.30 | 38.88 |
| Available K (kg ha^{-1}) | 203.7 | 60.87 | 168.5 | 58.69 |

The sand, silt and clay % shifted widely spatially. In the South-Western part of the study area, just outside the municipality boundary, sand % was >30, while silt % was <50 and in some place even <25. The clay % of this area was <20. On the contrary, clay

and silt % were >20 and >50 respectively in rest of the study area (Fig 4.2). Upon comparing with the NBSSLUP soil resource map, we identified presence of two series in this area viz. Lotafela series (sandy loam) and Balarampur series (silty loam) in this area (Nayek et al., 2001). The average soil bulk density was found 1.16 Mg ha⁻¹.

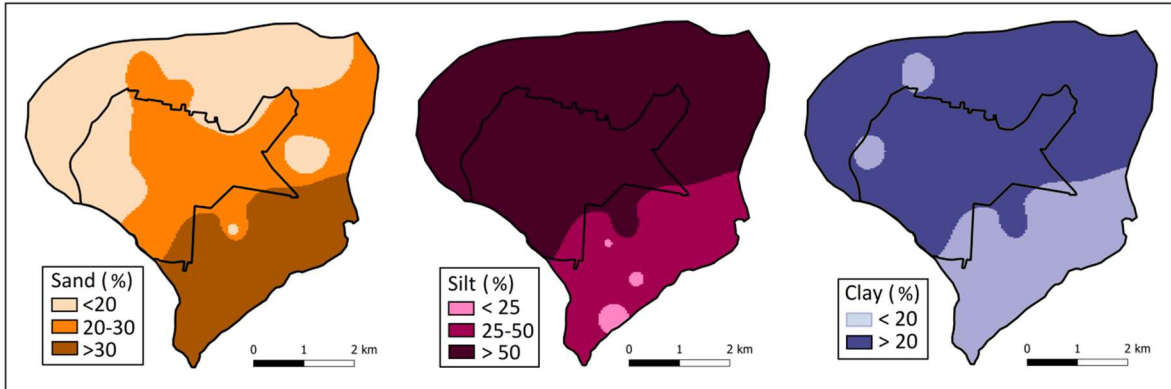


Fig 4.2. Distribution of soil separates in Cooch Behar municipality and surrounding peri-urban area

In general, soils of Northern part of West Bengal is acidic in nature due to high rainfall, sandy parent material and leaching of bases (Panwar et al., 2011). Outcome of this study also showed soil pH <7 (Fig 4.3). However, it was more acidic in peri-urban areas (\bar{x} 5.8) in comparison to urban areas (\bar{x} 6.5) (Table 4.1). Ground survey indicated that, dumping of wasted building materials (lime, cement) rich in Ca, was the principle reason of comparatively higher pH in urban area. Possibly due to this, a small urban area also showed pH > 7.

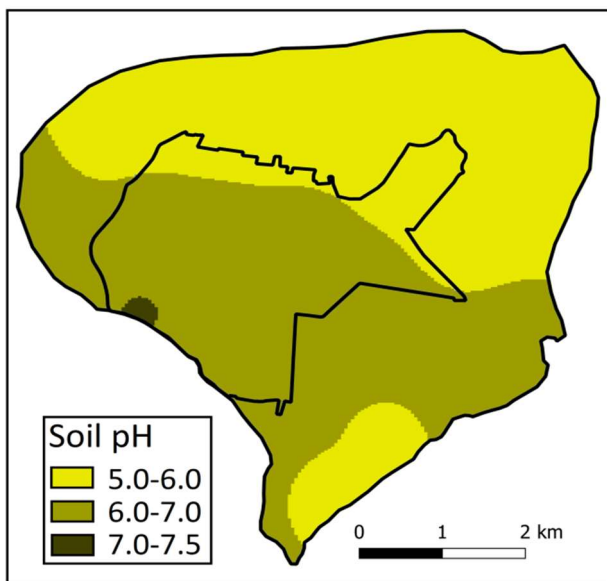


Fig 4.3. Soil pH status in Cooch Behar municipality and surrounding peri-urban area

Soil organic C is one of the major parameters towards soil quality (Deb et al., 2018). Unfortunately, Indian soils are deficient in C due to its tropical condition and high temperature (Deb et al., 2020). However, soils of this study area showed much higher C than the National average (0.42 %) (Minasny et al., 2017). The organic C status in the soils were found even higher (\bar{x} 26.98 Mg ha⁻¹) in the municipality areas in comparison to peri-urban soils (\bar{x} 16.39) (Table 4.1, Fig 4.4). Earlier studies also showed high organic C in urban soils (Ghosh et al., 2019). The possible reason was uncontrolled dumping of urban and municipal wastes in the soil.

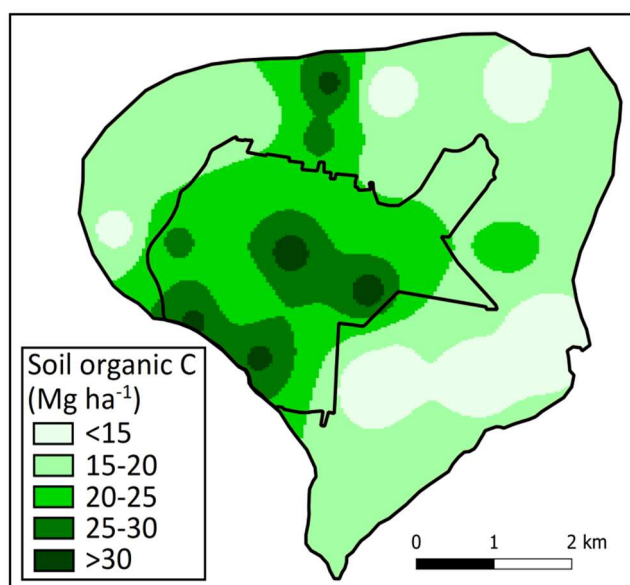


Fig 4.4. Soil organic C status in Cooch Behar municipality and surrounding peri-urban area

Along with organic C, dynamics of available N, P and K in soil are important as in limited quantity they help in plant growth while in their excess presence results environmental pollution (Strebel et al., 1989; Wakida and Lerner, 2005). Analysis of soils showed low N status (Urban soil: \bar{x} 136.6 kg ha⁻¹; Peri-urban soil: \bar{x} 120.4 kg ha⁻¹) (Table 4.1) (Baruah and Barthakur, 1997). The spatial distribution of N was also homogenous (Fig 4.5). NO₃⁻-N represents a significant portion of soil available N. The presence of NO₃⁻-N in soil in excess amount might lead to environmental pollution (Zupanc et al., 2011) as leaching of NO₃⁻-N from soil profile and accumulation in below ground aquifer is a serious risk for human health. Following that 50 mg NO₃⁻-N per kg soil is considered as a permissible limit (Pattison et al., 2010). This study showed NO₃⁻-N concentration more than this limit in urban soils (\bar{x} 52.51 mg kg⁻¹) while the peri-

urban soils were also high in NO_3^- -N (\bar{x} 44.33 mg kg⁻¹) (Table 4.1). Now, NO_3^- -N is considered as an agricultural pollutant principally (Wakida and Lerner, 2005). Application of high amount of fertilizers is considered as the main reason of NO_3^- -N pollution worldwide. Therefore, NO_3^- -N pollution in urban areas, as found in this study, was a bit surprising. Spatial distribution of NO_3^- -N showed high concentration specifically in certain parts of study area i.e. in the North and North-Eastern part (Fig 4.5). Detailed ground survey indicated peri-urban agricultural activities in these areas. It resulted addition of NO_3^- -N in the form of fertilizer. In the municipality areas, the main source of NO_3^- -N pollution was municipal waste deposition and waste water pollution.

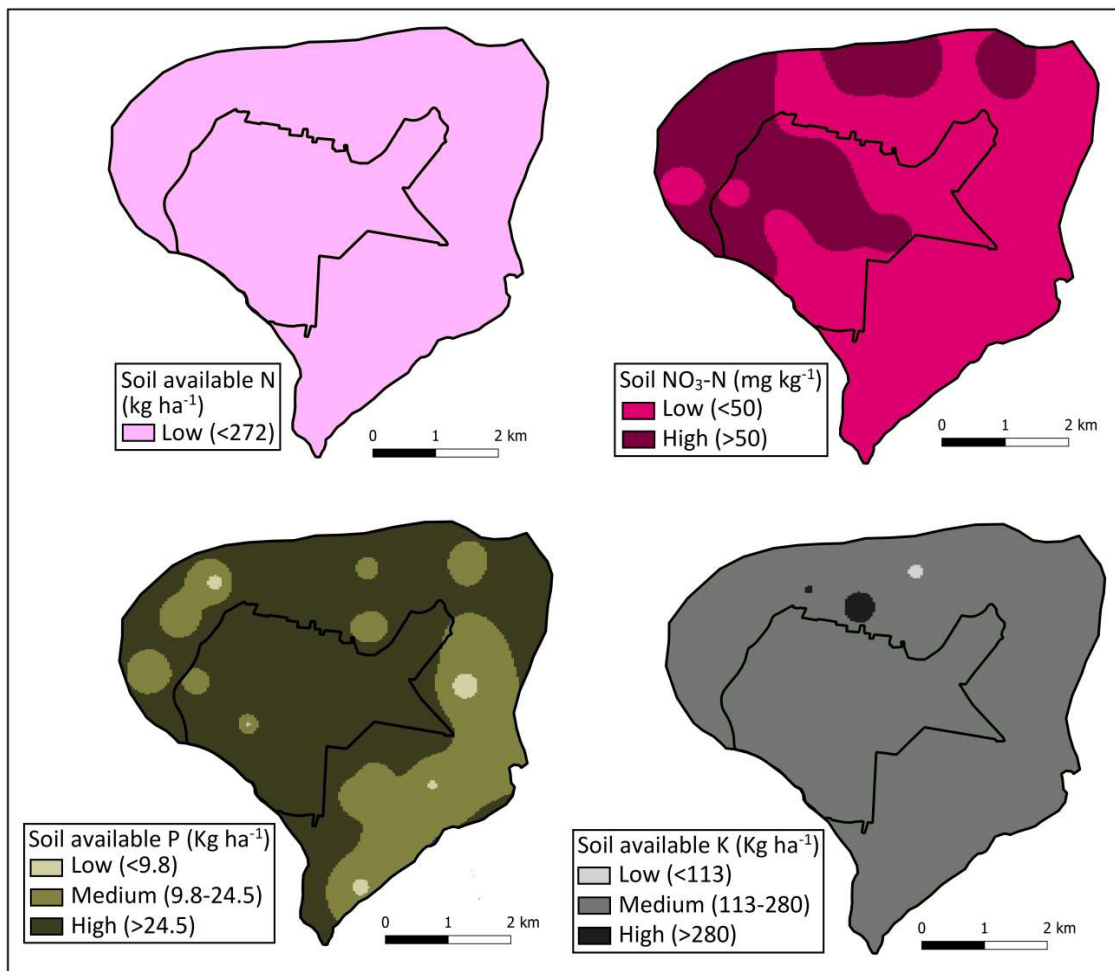


Fig 4.5. Soil available N, NO_3^- -N, available P and available K status in Cooch Behar municipality and surrounding peri-urban area

Analysis showed high P content in major areas. However, in some peri-urban areas, the P content was medium and even low (Fig 4.5). The average available P content in

municipal soils was 81.4 kg ha⁻¹ while it was much low in peri-urban soils (\bar{x} 27.3 kg ha⁻¹) (Table 4.1). The possible source of this high P was anthropogenic activities like dumping of wastes. In some parts of peri-urban areas, application of phosphatic fertilizers was also found. Now, in acid soils P is generally get fixed as Fe-P or Al-P. However, there was a little chance that excess P pollution may even lead to P runoff to the nearby waterbodies, which might lead to P accumulation in surface water and subsequent eutrophication.



Fig 4.6. Algal bloom in different waterbodies

This study did not measure the P content in any waterbody. However, through ground survey, many waterbodies with algal bloom were noticed (Fig 4.6). Might be this was

related to P runoff. Soils of the study area had moderate concentration of available K (Urban soils: \bar{x} 203.7 kg ha⁻¹; Peri-urban soils: \bar{x} 168.5 kg ha⁻¹) (Table 4.1). Similar available K status in soils of this region was also observed by earlier studies (Patra et al., 2016).

This study also considered heavy metal pollution in the study area. Particularly Pb, Cd and Cr were considered as concentration of these heavy metals are related with anthropogenic activities and urban pollution. Arsenic (As) was not considered in this study as arsenic (As) concentration in soils is mainly associated with geochemical or pedochemical As addition. This part of West Bengal, India do not have history of such As contamination. Instead of soil total heavy metals, bio-available forms were considered in this study as bioavailability of pollutants determines actual risk towards health hazards. DTPA-extractable bio-available form of Pb, Cd and Cr was used and the critical limit for these heavy metals in soil were determined following Wallace and Wallace (1994) and Cheng et al. (2004). Outcomes indicated no Pb pollution in study area (Fig 4.7) while presence of high Cr in all the soils (Urban soil: \bar{x} 2.18 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$; Peri-urban soil: \bar{x} 2.37 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) (Table 4.2, Fig 4.7). Cd concentration was observed below critical level in maximum areas (Fig 4.7) while a certain part of municipality area had high Cd concentration in soil above critical limit. The high concentration of Cr in all the soils and Cd in certain areas was expected to be associated with anthropogenic activities as heavy metal pollution in urban soils are generally associated with point source pollution activities. Municipal waste dumping, traffic pollution and improper disposal of urban waste were considered as the main reason of these heavy metal pollution (Liu et al., 2012). Higher clay % of municipal area than the south-eastern peripheral area might also be associated with this higher Cd accumulation.

Table 4.2. Distribution of heavy metals in soils in Cooch Behar municipality and surrounding peri-urban area

| DTPA extractable heavy metal in soil ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) | Urban soil | | Peri-urban soil | |
|---|------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | Mean | Standard deviation | Mean | Standard deviation |
| Lead | 5.36 | 3.48 | 3.59 | 1.80 |
| Chromium | 2.18 | 0.69 | 2.37 | 1.38 |
| Cadmium | 0.07 | 0.12 | 0.01 | 0.02 |

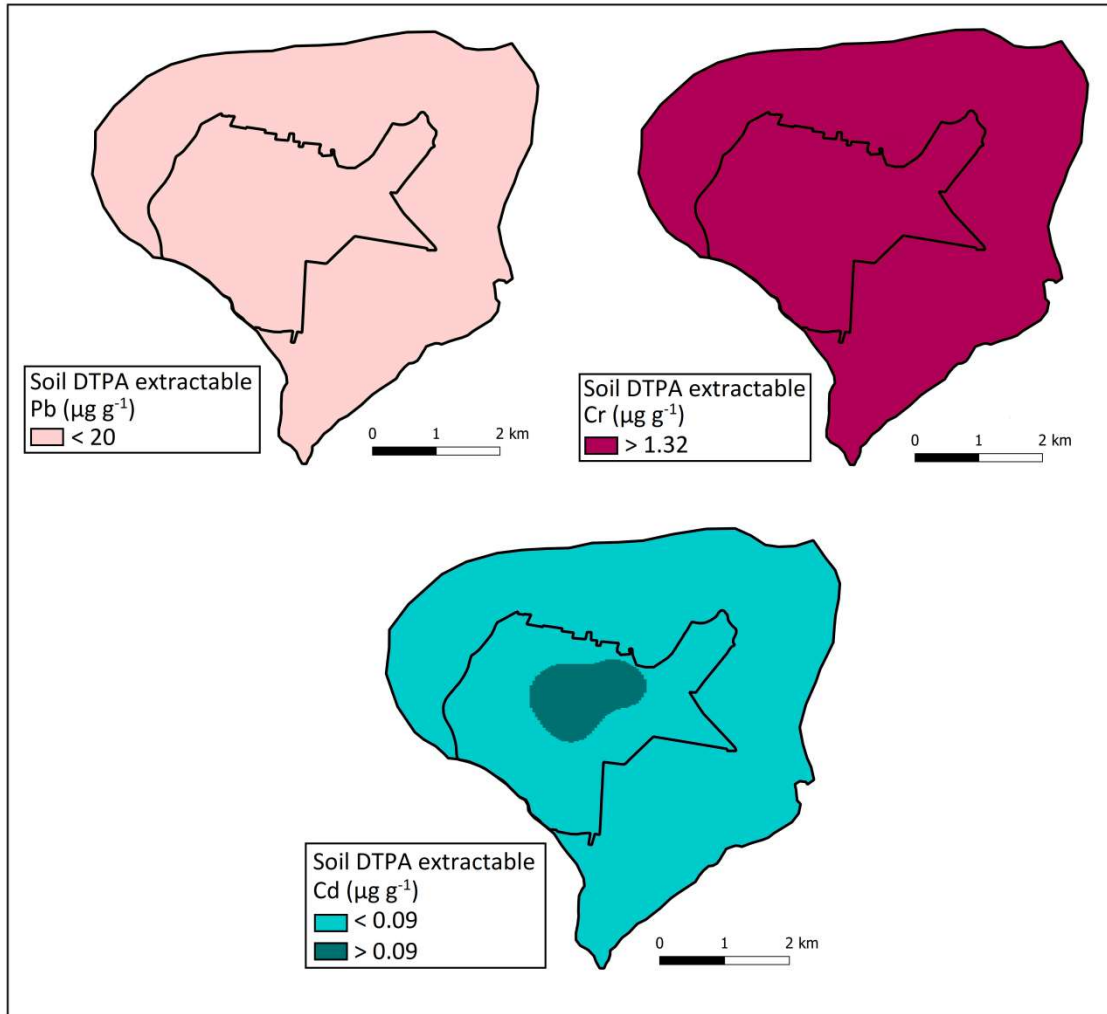


Fig 4.7. Bio-available (DTPA extractable) Pb, Cd and Cr in soils of Cooch Behar municipality and surrounding peri-urban area

Microbial dynamics is an important part of soil quality (Schutter and Dick, 2002). Microbes are the living section of soil and only they control soil C, nutrients, pollutants dynamics (Deb et al., 2018). In this study, soil microbial biomass C and soil respiration status were studied (Fig 4.8). Among these parameters, microbial biomass C basically represents the biomass of soil microbes while soil respiration represents microbial activity in any soil (Majumdar et al., 2008). Outcomes indicated a very high microbial biomass C in all the soils. Further, the urban soils (\bar{x} 855.96 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) showed even more microbial biomass C in comparison to peri-urban soils (\bar{x} 719.06 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) (Table 4.3). North-West part of peri-urban area also showed high microbial biomass C. Study of soil respiration showed an initial high rate of CO_2 emission from all the soils followed by a curbed rate of soil respiration. This is quite natural as in controlled laboratory

condition high microbial activity prevails in initial stage, where there is high amount of organic C as a food source. The microbial activity go reduced with utilization of the maximum amount of soil C in the later days. Comparison of initial soil respiration indicated a highly diverse spatial distribution. Comparatively higher concentration was observed in Cooch Behar municipality area (\bar{x} 32.76 $\mu\text{g CO}_2$ 24h⁻¹ g⁻¹) (Table 4.3). However, advancement of incubation period in laboratory study resulted spatial homozenization of soil respiration in the study area (Fig 4.8). A comparison in spatial distribution indicated high correlation among soil organic C, soil microbial biomass C and initial soil respiration rate.

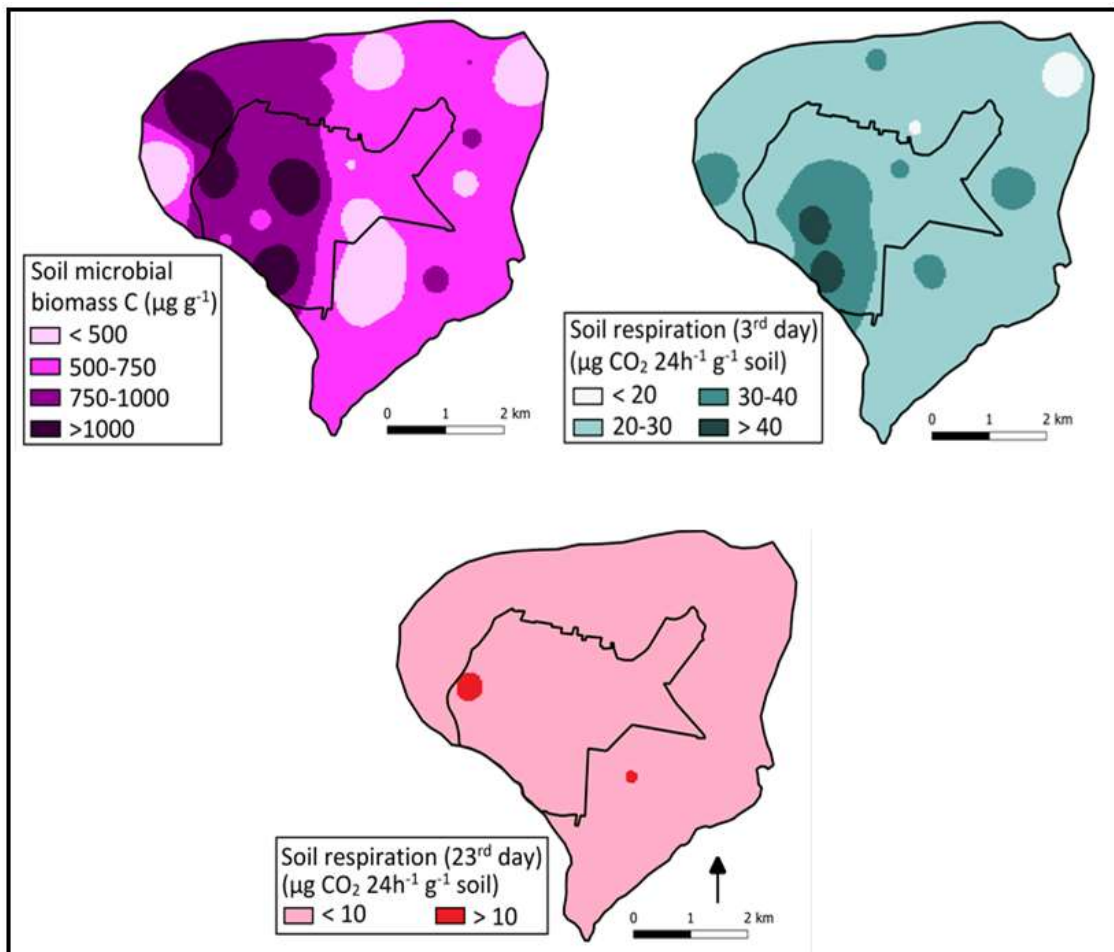


Fig 4.8. Spatial distribution of soil microbial biomass C and soil respiration (at 3rd and 23rd day)

Sometimes, soil microbes get involved in heavy metal remediation through their reduction. However, this was not the case in this study as Cr concentration remained high throughout the study area.

Table 4.3. Microbial biomass C and soil respiration status in soils of the study area

| Microbial parameters | Urban soil | | Peri-urban soil | |
|--|------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | Mean | Standard deviation | Mean | Standard deviation |
| Microbial Biomass C ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) | 855.96 | 183.28 | 719.06 | 158.52 |
| Soil respiration ($\mu\text{g CO}_2 \text{ 24h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1}$ soil) | | | | |
| 3 rd day | 32.76 | 10.64 | 25.06 | 5.46 |
| 6 th day | 30.06 | 5.28 | 25.49 | 4.92 |
| 13 th day | 13.92 | 3.27 | 8.72 | 3.04 |
| 23 rd day | 7.61 | 2.33 | 7.71 | 1.40 |
| Cumulative soil respiration ($\mu\text{g CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ soil}$) | 362.05 | 63.92 | 289.80 | 52.29 |

4.3. Extent of microplastics pollution in and around Cooch Behar town

Following the 2nd objective, this study tried to find out the microplastic contamination in the soils of study area. Microplastic is a comparatively newly identified soil contaminant, which can cause serious damage to soil structure, physico-chemical properties and soil biology, biochemistry (Rilling et al., 2017). Further, presence of nano-plastic particles ($<10 \mu\text{m}$) in soil might lead to their uptake by plant roots. Separation of microplastics from soil following Nuelle et al. (2014) and their quantitative estimation showed a high contamination in the soils of study area (Table 4.4). While soils of Cooch Behar municipality area had higher presence of microplastic (\bar{x} 0.19 mg g^{-1}), the peri-urban soil also showed an alarming presence (\bar{x} 0.12 mg g^{-1}). However, spatial distribution of microplastic was found to be very discrete (Fig 4.9).

Table 4.4. Soil microplastic pollution status of the study area

| Soil parameter | Urban soil | | Peri-urban soil | |
|-------------------------------------|------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | Mean | Standard deviation | Mean | Standard deviation |
| Microplastic (mg g^{-1}) | 0.196 | 0.181 | 0.106 | 0.0454 |

Highest microplastic contamination was found near the Cooch Behar railway station and in surrounding urban and peri-urban location. On the contrary, other municipality area showed much less microplastic contamination. Detailed ground survey indicated that not the anthropogenic pressure but dumping of plastic wastes and poor waste management were the main reason behind the microplastic pollution.

Stereomicroscopic observation indicated presence of diverse type of microplastics viz. thermocol fragments, microplastic films and fibres. Images taken by Scanning Electron Microscope showed presence of nano-plastic particles in the soils. It indicated a high chance of plant uptake and plastic contamination in the food chain.

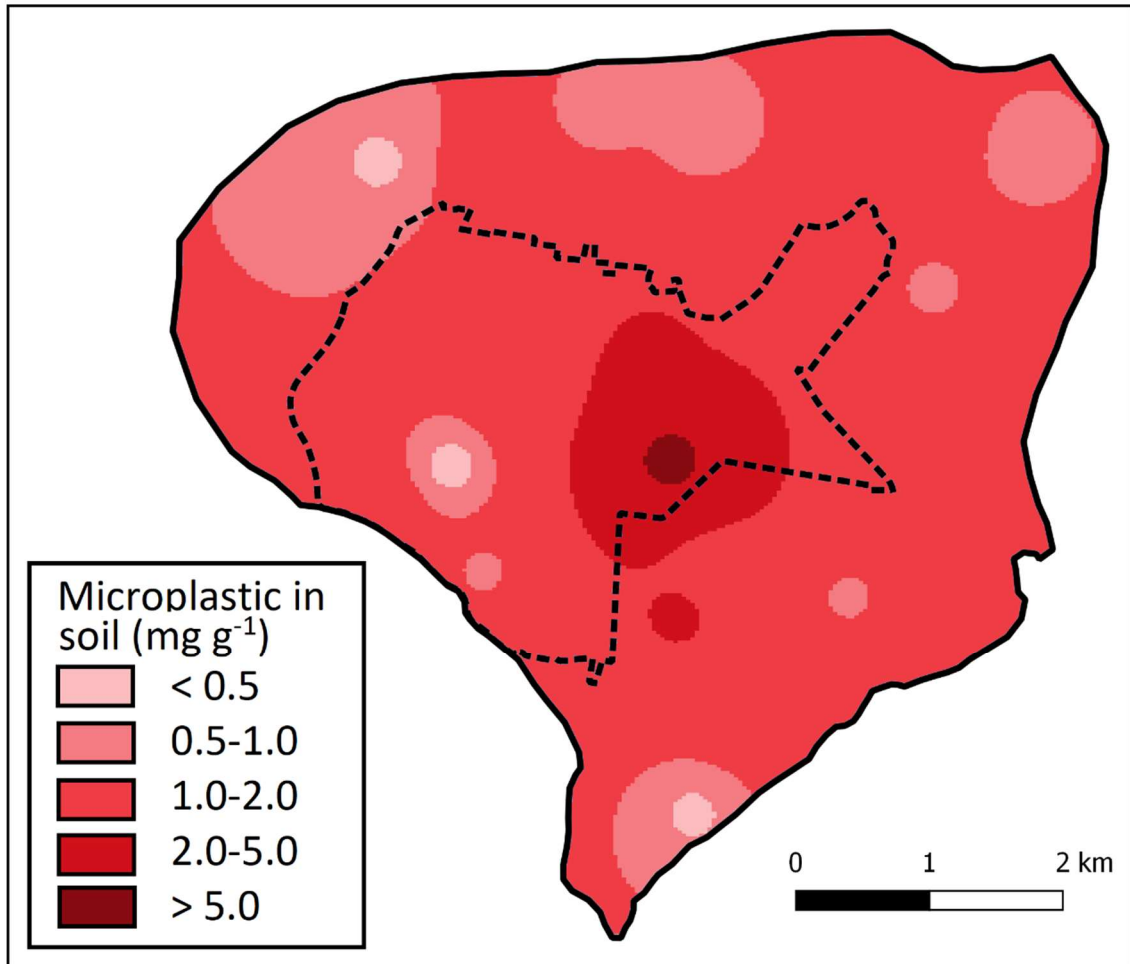


Fig 4.9. Microplastic pollution in the study area

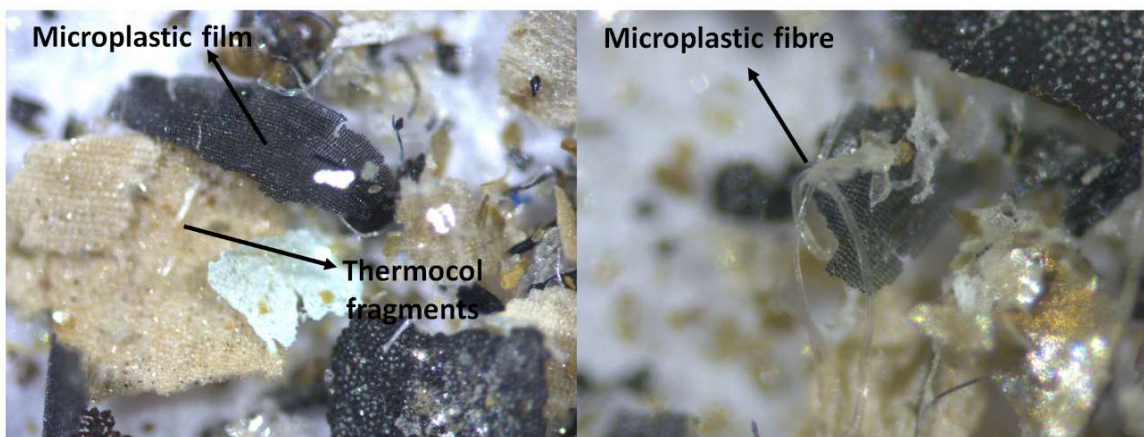


Fig 4.10. Types of microplastic particles in soils (as seen in stereomicroscope)



Fig 4.11. Plastic dumping in the roadside in Cooch Behar

4.4. Quality of spatial interpolation

This study used Inverse Distance Weighing (IDW) technique in Quantum GIS software for spatial interpolation. The IDW computes an average value for unsampled locations using values from nearby weighted locations. To understand the quality of this spatial interpolation, Root mean square error (RMSE) of the interpolated data were estimated (Table 4.5). In addition, the laboratory measured data and interpolated data of the same known points were correlated using Pearson's correlation. Low RMSE error indicated the high accuracy of the interpolation, which was further confirmed by correlation values > 0.99 for all the parameters.

This study showed the soil pollution status and deterioration of soil quality in Cooch Behar town and surrounding peri-urban areas. Although it is a town without any large industry, heavy metal pollution was observed along with the presence of high amount of soil NO_3^- -N and P. Further, soils of this town store alarming level of microplastic, which is enough to deteriorate soil physico-chemical, detrimental to soil biota and also

risky for human health. This study clearly indicated the importance of study of urban soil of small cities and towns.

Table 4.5. Quality testing of spatially interpolated data

| Parameters | RMSE | Parameters | RMSE |
|---------------------------------|---------------|---|---------------|
| Sand | 0.2406 | Available K | 0.6018 |
| Silt | 0.2300 | Bio-available Pb | 0.0297 |
| Clay | 0.0873 | Bio-available Cr | 0.0256 |
| pH | 0.0051 | Bio-available Cd | 0.0007 |
| Organic C | 0.0932 | Microbial biomass C | 1.6227 |
| Available N | 0.5570 | Soil respiration (3 rd day) | 0.1242 |
| NO ₃ ⁻ -N | 0.2182 | Soil respiration (23 rd day) | 0.0197 |
| Available P | 0.4789 | Microplastics | 0.0014 |

5. Summary and Conclusions

5. Summary and Conclusions

The increasing population pressure and related anthropogenic activities have several negative impacts on soil, human health and surrounding environment in urban area and adjoining peri-urban areas. This impact is even more prominent in countries like India and specially in West Bengal, which is having one of the highest population density in World. Besides, urbanization is a global trend, which results continuous flow of people from rural areas to cities. This trend started during industrial revolution and become intense in last few decades.

As per the United Nations, 70 % of world population will reside in urban areas by 2050. To feed this burgeoning population, partial support will need to be taken from urban and peri-urban agriculture. So, urban and peri-urban soils also have a significant role in meeting the challenges of a growing city.

Urban soil also acts as a sink for waste disposal. It acts as a buffer between the anthropogenically dumped wastes and pure drinking water in below ground aquifer. Therefore, the soil health of urban and peri-urban areas is a matter of concern for continuous food supply as well as for human health. In this view, this study analysed the soil quality and pollution status of a town of Northern part of West Bengal. Soils from the Cooch Behar municipality and peripheral areas were collected, analysed for several parameters and their spatial distribution were studied. In a nutshell, this study highlighted the following:

- The organic C concentration of the study area was much higher than the national average as well as the agricultural soils of Cooch Behar district. Dumping of urban waste, municipal waste water were considered as the principal reason for that.
- The study area showed high concentration of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ and available P. Deposition of urban waste in municipality areas as well as intense peri-urban agricultural practices and fertilizer application were considered as the principal reason for that. Now, high $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ in soil indicated potential risk of nitrate contamination in below ground aquifer water. Besides, runoff and

seepage loss of P might be resulted nutrient enrichment in the surface waterbodies and algal bloom.

- This study found high bio-available Cr concentration in the soils of study area. Bio-available Cd concentration above permissible limit was also observed in few parts of the municipality area. Intense anthropogenic activities, dumping of garbage, waste water and traffic pollution were considered as the principal reason for this.
- The study area showed discrete spatial distribution of microplastics in soils. This microplastic pollution was higher in some parts of the town and peri-urban area in comparison to the other areas.

Therefore, this study found alarming health condition of the soils of Cooch Behar town and surrounding peri-urban areas. This study recommends proper waste disposal, management of urban waste, restricted use of plastic bags and continuous and proper monitoring of the soil quality of Cooch Behar municipality and surrounding areas. This is important for soil itself as well as for the human health.

6. Future Scopes

6. Future Scopes

The spotlight of soil research was always focussed to the agricultural soils, soil fertility and crop productivity. Urban soil, although occupying a large portion of earth surface and holding a lion's share of global population, always remained in the shadow. However, with increase in urban population, pressure on peri-urban soil for food production got increased several fold in last few decades. In addition, continuous anthropogenic malpractices degrade the quality of urban and peri-urban soil itself. Scientists started to give importance to urban soil quality and soil pollution since the starting of this century. However, the focus of urban soil studies principally remains on and around megacities. Small cities and towns got least priority.

Small cities and towns have less population, less anthropogenic pressure in comparison to megacities and metropolitan areas. However, they also do not have proper waste disposal and management system and sewage network like the megacities. Thus, chances of accumulation of waste in the soils of these small cities and towns are also very acute. Lack of any significant research on this topic makes the condition worse. Number of studies in future should be done about the soil health and soil pollution of the small cities and towns across the globe. In addition, this study only focused on surface soil dynamics. In future, depthwise soil studies should be considered to understand a few soil pollutant dynamics (like NO_3) in a better way.

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