5.2.3 Soil Pollution

Introduction: We can no more manufacture a soil with a tank of chemicals than we can invent a rain forest or produce a single bird. We may enhance the soil by helping its processes along, but we can never recreate what we destroy. The soil is a resource for which there is no substitute. (Environmental historian Donald Worster reminds us that fertilizers are not a substitute for fertile soil).

Soil is a thin covering over the land consisting of a mixture of minerals, organic material, living organisms, air and water that together support the growth of plant life. Several factors contribute to the formation of soil from the parent material. This includes mechanical weathering of rocks due to temperature changes and abrasion, wind, moving water, glaciers, chemical weathering activities and lichens. Climate and time are also important in the development of soils. Extremely dry or cold climates develop soils very slowly while humid and warm climates develop them more rapidly. Under ideal climatic conditions soft parent material may develop into a centimeter of soil within 15 years. Under poor climatic conditions a hard parent material may require hundreds of years to develop into soil.

Mature soils are arranged in a series of zones called soil horizons. Each horizon has a distinct texture and composition that varies with different types of soils. A cross sectional view of the horizons in a soil is called a soil profile.

The top layer or the surface litter layer called the O horizon consists mostly of freshly fallen and partially decomposed leaves, twigs, animal waste, fungi and other organic materials. Normally it is brown or black.

The uppermost layer of the soil called the A horizon consists of partially decomposed organic matter (humus) and some inorganic mineral particles. It is usually darker and looser than the deeper layers. The roots of most plants are found in these two upper layers. As long as these layers are anchored by vegetation soil stores water and releases it in a trickle throughout the year instead of in a force like a flood. These two top layers also contain a large amount of bacteria, fungi, earthworms and other small insects that form complex food webs in the soil that help recycle soil nutrients and contribute to soil fertility.

The B horizon often called the subsoil contains less organic material and fewer organisms than the A horizon. The area below the subsoil is called the C horizon and consists of weathered parent material. This parent material does not contain any organic materials. The chemical composition of the C-horizon helps to determine the pH of the soil and also influences the soil's rate of water absorption and retention.

Soils vary in their content of clay (very fine particles), silt (fine particles), sand (medium size particles) and gravel (coarse to very coarse particles). The relative amounts of the different sizes and types of mineral particles determine soil texture. Soils with approximately equal mixtures of clay, sand, silt and humus are called loams.

Causes of soil degradation

Erosion

Soil erosion can be defined as the movement of surface litter and topsoil from one place to another. While erosion is a natural process often caused by wind and flowing water it is greatly accelerated by human activities such as farming, construction, overgrazing by livestock, burning of grass cover and deforestation.

Loss of the topsoil makes a soil less fertile and reduces its water holding capacity. The topsoil, which is washed away, also contributes to water pollution clogging lakes, increasing turbidity of the water and also leads to loss of aquatic life. For one inch of topsoil to be formed it normally requires 200-1000 years depending upon the climate and soil type. Thus if the topsoil erodes faster than it is formed the soil becomes a non-renewable resource.

Thus it is essential that proper soil conservation measures are used to minimize the loss of top soil. There are several techniques that can protect soil from erosion. Today both water and soil are conserved through integrated treatment methods. Some of the most commonly employed methods include the two types of treatment that are generally used.

- Area treatment which involves treating the land
- Drainage line treatment which involves treating the natural water courses (nalas)

Continuous contour trenches can be used to enhance infiltration of water reduce the run-off and check soil erosion. These are actually shallow trenches dug across the slope of the land and along the contour lines basically for the purpose of soil and water conservation. They are most effective on gentle slopes and in areas of low to medium rainfall. These bunds are stabilized by fast growing tree species and grasses. In areas of steep slopes where the bunds are not possible, continuous contour benches (CCBs) made of stones are used for the same purpose.

Gradonies can also be used to convert wastelands into agricultural lands. In this narrow trenches with bunds on the downstream side are built along contours in the upper reaches of the catchment to collect run-off and to conserve moisture from the trees or tree crops. The area between the two bunds is use for cultivation of crops after development of fertile soil cover.

Some of the ways in which this can be achieved are:

Live check dams which barriers created by planting grass, shrubs and trees across the gullies can be used for this purpose.

A **bund constructed out of stones** across the stream can also be used for conserving soil and water.

Area Treatment

Purpose	Treatment Measure	Effect
Reduces the impact of rain drops on the soil	Develop vegetative cover on the non arable land	Minimum disturbance and displacement of soil particles
Infiltration of water where it falls	Apply water infiltration measures on the area	In situ soil and moisture conservation
Minimum surface run off	Store surplus rain water by constructing bunds, ponds in the area	Increased soil moisture in the area, facilitate ground water recharge
Ridge to valley sequencing	Treat the upper catchment first and then proceed towards the outlet	Economically viable, less risk of damage and longer life of structures of the lower catchments

Drainage line treatment

Purpose	Treatment measure	Effect
Stop further deepening of gullies and retain sediment run-off	Plug the gullies at formation	Stops erosion, recharges groundwater at the upper level.
Reduce run-off velocity, pass cleaner water to the downstream side	Crate temporary barriers in nalas	Delayed flow and increased groundwater recharge
Minimum sedimentation in the storage basins	Use various methods to treat the catchments	
Low construction cost	Use local material and skills for constructing the structures	Structures are locally maintained

An Earthen checkbund is constructed out of local soil across the stream to check soil erosion and flow of water.

A **Gabion structure** is a bund constructed of stone and wrapped in galvanized chainlink.

A Gabion structure with ferrocement impervious barrier has a one inch thick impervious wall of ferrocement at the center of the structure which goes below the ground level upto the hard strata. This ferrocement partition supported by the gabion portion is able to retain the water and withstand the force of the runoff water.

An Underground bandhara is an underground structure across a nalla bed to function as a barrier to check the ground water movement.

Excess use of fertilizers: Approximately 25 percent of the world's crop yield is estimated to be directly attributed to the use of chemical fertilizers. The use of chemical fertilizes has increased significantly over the last few decades and is expected to rise even higher. Fertilizers are very valuable as they replace the soil nutrients used up by plants. The three primary soil nutrients often in short supply are potassium, phosphorus and nitrogen compounds. These are commonly referred to as macronutrients. Certain other elements like boron, zinc and manganese are necessary in extremely small amounts and are known as micronutrients. When crops are harvested a large amount of macronutrients and a small amount of micronutrients are removed with the crops. If the same crop is grown again depleted levels of thee nutrients can result in decreased yields. These necessary nutrients can be returned to the soil through the application of fertilizers. In addition to fertilizers a large amount of pesticides (chemicals used to kill or control populations of unwanted fungi, animals or plants often called pests) are also used to ensure a good yield. Pesticides can be subdivided into several categories based on the kinds of organisms they are used to control. *Insecticides* are used to control insect populations while *fungicides* are used to control unwanted fungal growth. Mice and rats are killed by *rodenticides* while plant pests are controlled by *herbicides.*

Problems with pesticide use

Pesticides not only kill the pests but also a large variety of living things including humans. They may be persistent or non-persistent. Persistent pesticides once applied are effective for a long time. However as they do not break down easily they tend to accumulate in the soil and in the bodies of animals in the food chain.

For example, DDT which was one of the first synthetic organic insecticide to be used was thought to be the perfect insecticide. During the first ten years of its use (1942-1952) DDT is estimated to have saved about five million lives primarily because of its use to control disease carrying mosquitoes. However after a period of use many mosquitoes and insects became tolerant of DDT, thus making it lose its effectiveness. DDT in temperate regions of the world has a half life (the amount of time required for half of the chemical to decompose) of 10 to 15 years. This means that if 100 kilograms of DDT were to be sprayed over an area, 50 kilograms would still be present in the area 10 to 15 years later. The half-life of DDT varies according to the soil type, temperature, kind of soil organisms present and other factors. In tropical parts of the world the half life may be as short as six months. The use of DDT has been banned in some countries. India still however permits the use of DDT though for purposes of mosquito control only. Persistent pesticides become attached to small soil particles which are easily moved by wind and water to different parts thus affecting soils elsewhere. Persistent pesticides may also accumulate in the bodies of animals, and over a period of time increase in concentration if the animal is unable to flush them out of its system thus leading to the phenomenon called bioaccumulation. When an affected animal is eaten by another carnivore these pesticides are further concentrated in the body of the carnivore. This phenomenon of acquiring increasing levels of a substance in the bodies of higher trophic level organisms is known as biomagnification. This process especially in the case of insecticides like DDT have been proved to be disastrous. DDT is a well known case of biomagnification in ecosystems. DDT interferes with the production of normal eggshells in birds making them fragile.

Other problems associated with insecticides is the ability of insect populations to become resistant to them thus rendering them useless in a couple of generations. Most pesticides kill beneficial as well as pest species. They kill the predator as well as the parasitic insects that control the pests. Thus the pest species increase rapidly following the use of a pesticide as there are no natural checks to their population growth. The short term and the long-term health effects to the persons using the pesticide and the public that consumes the food grown by using the pesticides are also major concerns. Exposure to small quantities of pesticides over several years can cause mutations, produce cancers, etc.

Thus the question that comes to mind is that if pesticides have so many drawbacks then why are they used so extensively and what are the substitutes for them? There are three main reasons for the use of pesticides. Firstly the use of pesticides in the short term has increased the amount of food that can be grown in many parts of the world as the damage by pests is decreased. The second reason for its extensive use is base on an economic consideration. The increased yields more than compensates the farmer for cost of pesticides. Thirdly current health problems especially in developing countries due to mosquitoes are impossible to control without insecticides.

However more and more farmers are increasingly opting to replace chemical fertilizers and use different methods of controlling pests without affecting their yield. Thus several different approaches that have slightly varying and overlapping goals have been developed. Alternative agriculture is the broadest term that is used that includes all non-traditional agricultural methods and encompasses sustainable agriculture, organic agriculture, alternative uses of traditional crops, alternative methods for raising crops, etc.

Sustainable agriculture advocates the use of methods to produce adequate safe food in an economically viable manner while maintaining the state of the ecosystem. Organic agriculture advocates avoiding the use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides. A wide variety of techniques can be used to reduce this negative impact of agriculture. Leaving crop residue on the soil and incorporating it into the soil reduces erosion and increase soil organic matter. Introduction of organic matter into the soil also makes compaction less likely. Crop rotation is an effective way to enhance soil fertility, reduce erosion and control pests. There have been arguments both for and against organic farming. Critics argue that organic farming cannot produce the amount of food required for today's population and it is economically viable only in certain conditions. However supporters for organic farming feel that of the hidden costs of soil erosion and pollution are taken into account it is a viable approach. Besides organic farmers do not have to spend on fertilizers and pesticides and also get a premium price for their products thus making it financially viable for them.

Another way to reduce these impacts is through the use of *integrated pest management.* This is a technique that uses a complete understanding of all ecological aspects of a crop and the particular pests to which it is susceptible to establish pest control strategies that uses no or few pesticides. IPM promotes the use of biopesticides. Biopesticides are derived from three sources: microbial, botanical and biochemical. Microbial pesticides are micro-organisms such as bacteria, fungus, virus or protozoa that fight pests through a variety of ways. They produce toxins specific to the pests and produce diseases in them. Biochemical pesticides contain several chemicals that affect the reproductive and digestive mechanisms of the pests. The most commonly used biopesticides are *Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt)*, neem (*Azadirachta indica*) and trichogramma. Although they are available in the market they are yet to become market favourites.

Excess salts and water

Irrigated lands can produce crop yields much higher than those that only use rainwater. However this has its own set of ill effects. Irrigation water contains dissolved salts and in dry climates much of the water in the saline solution evaporates leaving its salts such as sodium chloride in the topsoil. The accumulation of these salts is called salinization, which can stunt plant growth, lower yields and eventually kill the crop and render the land useless for agriculture. These salts can be flushed out of the soil by using more water. This practice however increases the cost of crop production and also wastes enormous amounts of water. Flushing salts can also make the downstream irrigation water saltier.

Another problem with irrigation is water logging. This occurs when large amounts of water is used to leach the salts deeper into the soil. However if the drainage is poor this water accumulates underground gradually raising the water table. The roots of the plants then get enveloped in this saline water and eventually die.

Thus in the long run it is better for us to adopt sustainable farming practices so as to prevent the degradation of soil.

5.2.4 Marine Pollution

Marine pollution can be defined as the introduction of substances to the marine environment directly or indirectly by man resulting in adverse effects such as hazards to human health, obstruction of marine activities and lowering the quality of sea water. While the causes of ma-