Project Report

On

"Long-Term Traditional Fertilization Alters Tea Garden Soil Properties and Tea Leaf Quality in Bangladesh"



Submitted By

Name: Afrin

Roll: 03

Batch -65

Instructed By

Name: Dr. Tania Islam

Assistant Professor

Department of Computer Science and Engineering University of Barishal.

EDGE: BU-CSE

Digital Skills Training

Computer Fundamentals & Office Application

Abstract

Soil acidity is one of the major soil-degradation events throughout the world, and the long term application of nitrogenous fertilizers is thought to be a main cause of soil acidity. In the present experiment, we collected soil and tea leaf samples from five representative tea gardens in Bangladesh and evaluated soil nutrient pools and biochemical properties of tea leaves. The results showed that there was a negative relationship between soil pH and the amount of applied nitrogenous fertilizers. Moreover, continuous application of traditional fertilizers over twenty-five years promoted not only the deficiency of phosphorus (P) and mineral-based cations, such as potassium (K+), calcium (Ca2+), and magnesium (Mg2+), but also increased manganese (Mn2+) and aluminum (Al3+) toxicity in soils, which suppressed the yield and quality of tea. Crucially, tea leaf production remained almost similar (average 1079.77 kg ha-1) from 1995 to 2015, while the application doses of urea, TSP, and MoP increased by 24.69%, 18.92%, and 16.67%, respectively, in garden soils. However, the pH value of soil declined up to 24% from 1992 to 2020 in the tested gardens. Consequently, the availability of K+, P, Ca2+, and Mg2+ decreased by 56%, 25%, 55%, and 49%, respectively, in those tea garden soils. In addition, the quality of tea leaves was severely affected, as evident by the reduced levels of total flavonoids, polyphenols, soluble solids, vitamin C, vitamin B1, and vitamin B2. Moreover, free-radical scavenging activity (DPPH), caffeine, and tannin concentration were increased in tea leaves, which indicated that tea plants were potentially being stressed. Therefore, we study concluded that long-term application of traditional nitrogenous fertilizers can be an important regulator of lowering garden soil pH, which reduces native soil nutrient pools and thereby the yield and quality of tea leaves.

Table of Contents

1. Introduction	4
2. Materials and Methods	5
2.1. Sampling Area	5
2.2. Collection, Preparation, and Storage of Soil Samples	6
2.3. Collection and Analysis of Tea Leaves	6
2.4. Analysis of Soil Chemical Properties	6
2.5. Biochemical Assay of Tea Leaves	7
2.6. Detection of Nutritional Properties of Tea Leaves	
2.7. Statistical Analysis	8
3. Results	g
3.1. Effect of Conventional Fertilization on Tea Leaves Production	g
3.2. Effect of Conventional Fertilization on Soil Nutritional Properties	g
4. Discussion	
5. Conclusions	
6 Deferences	1.4

1. Introduction

The tea plant (Camellia sinensis) is an evergreen species of the Camellia genus and Theaceae family. It is one of the most popular and affordable golden beverages on the planet and second only to freshwater in terms of global consumption [1]. Almost three billion cups of tea are consumed every day around the world [2]. The primary locations of tea origin were Southeast Asia, south and southwest China, and the Indian subcontinent.

Afterward, tea moved to Europe and Russia, and now it is grown in more than 50 countries across the world [3]. In terms of tea production, Bangladesh ranks 12th in the world. Tea was introduced to Bangladesh in 1840 at Chittagong for research purposes. In 1854, tea was commercially grown in Malnicherra, Sylhet. Tea is grown in three geographical zones of Bangladesh: Surma valley in greater Sylhet, Halda valley in Chittagong, and Karatoa valley in Panchagarh district [2]. Tea is one of the most important cash crops and an export item of Bangladesh [4]. However, compared to other tea-growing countries, the yield is extremely poor, as only 1239 kg ha–1 is produced in Bangladesh, while India, Kenya, Sri Lanka, Argentina, and Turkey produce about 1690, 2106, 1684, 2338, and 1921 kg ha–1, respectively [5]

It is one of the most popular and affordable golden beverages on the planet and second only to freshwater in terms of global consumption [1]. Almost three billion cups of tea are consumed every day around the world [2]. The primary locations of tea origin were Southeast Asia, south and southwest China, and the Indian subcontinent. Afterward, tea moved to Europe and Russia, and now it is grown in more than 50 countries across the world [3]. In terms of tea production, Bangladesh ranks 12th in the world. Tea was introduced to Bangladesh in 1840 at Chittagong for research purposes. In 1854, tea was commercially grown in Malnicherra, Sylhet. Tea is grown in three geographical zones of Bangladesh: Surma valley in greater Sylhet, Halda valley in Chittagong, and Karatoa valley in Panchagarh district [2]. Tea is one of the most important cash crops and an export item of Bangladesh [4]. However, compared to other tea-growing countries, the yield is extremely poor, as only 1239 kg ha-1 is produced in Bangladesh, while India, Kenya, Sri Lanka, Argentina, and Turkey produce about 1690, 2106, 1684, 2338, and 1921 kg ha-1, respectively [5]

Tea quality and yield have an undeviating impact on the incomes of large numbers of tea farmers, who hence use a high quantity of nitrogenous fertilizers to boost the yield. It has been observed that the average inorganic nitrogen (N) fertilizer application rate in Bangladeshi tea plantations is around 300 kg ha-1, critically exceeding the required amount [2,6]. However, the application of excess fertilizer does not always result in higher production. There is a variety of reasons for reduced tea yields, among them low soil pH or excessive soil acidity, which is considered one of the key factors. Soil acidity is one of the most serious land-degradation issues, affecting around half of the world's potentially arable soils [7]. In addition to meteorological factors, such as rainfall, leaching, and acidic parent material, continual long-term application of acid-forming inorganic nourishments to replenish native nutrient pools is one of the principal drivers of soil acidification [7,8]. The deposition of ammoniac fertilizers induces soil acidification by releasing H+ during plant uptake, microbial oxidation of NH4 +, and co-occurring deposition of H+ with

NO3 – (nitrification of ammonia) in soils [7,8]. It has been reported that application of N urea over 30 years not only showed a negative relationship with soil pH but was also associated with Al toxicity, P deficiency, leaching loss of base mineral cations, such as potassium (K+), calcium (Ca2+), magnesium (Mg2+), and sodium (Na+), suppression of below-ground carbon allocation, microbial biodiversity, respiration, and crop productivity [9–11]. Moreover, it can also raise heavy metal, e.g., (Pb) and fluorine (F), toxicity in leaves by crusting layers of garden soil, thus degrading the quality of tea leaves and posing a potential health risk [9,11,12]

Correspondingly, the biochemical attributes, such as proteins, vitamins, phenolic compounds, tannin substances, amino acids, antioxidants, aroma, caffeine, and alkaloids of tea leaves are severely affected by soil acidity [13]. Although those biochemical compounds are beneficial for human health, tea can be extremely poisonous in awfully acidic environments, leading to a variety of health disorders, such as Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia [14]. Hence, it is fundamental to establish the appropriate management strategies to avoid excessive fertilizer applications. Low soil pH or acidification due to traditional fertilization enhances many soils beneath processes in tea farms that ultimately affect tea plant development and tea leaf quality by reducing the nutrient intake rate and use to Agronomy 2022, 12, 2128 3 of 1 produce quality leaves [15]. However, research on long-term conventional N-ammoniacal fertilization effects on soil nutrient availability and tea leaf quality remains elusive, especially in the context of Bangladesh. In light of the aforementioned issues, we investigated the effects of long-term conventional fertilization on garden soil properties and nutritional qualities of tea leaves, essential to shed new light on the current nutrient management strategy for boosting the tea-production metrics of Bangladesh.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Sampling Area

The study area was Sylhet and Moulovibazar district of Sylhet division in Bangladesh. Sylhet district is located between 23°590 and 25°13' north latitude and 90°540 and 92°2905000 east longitude in the delta of the Surma River. The BTRI tea garden (BTG, 24°290 north latitude and 91°740 east longitude), Nurjahan tea garden (NTG, 24°300 north latitude and 91°780 east longitude), and Finlay tea garden (FTG, 24°300 north latitude and 91°740 east longitude) in Sreemangal, Moulovibazar district and the Lakkatora tea garden (LTG, 24°300 north latitude and 91°780 east longitude) and Malnichara tea garden (MTG, 24°910 north latitude and 91°880 east longitude) were chosen as sampling locations cultivating BT2 as a common tea variety. The climatic conditions of twenty-five consecutive crop years (1995–2020) are presented in Supplementary Table S1. The selected tea gardens are situated in the eastern Surma Kushiyara floodplain and northern and eastern piedmont plain agroecological zone of Bangladesh, containing silt loam soil with high porosity [16].

2.2. Collection, Preparation, and Storage of Soil Samples

Soil samples were collected and prepared throughout the months of October and November 2020 in each of the tea gardens from a depth of 0–45 cm, since the major tea roots are found at 20–60 cm depths [17]. Six to seven randomly selected spots of each garden soil sample were collected from below the canopy of the tea plants using an auger with a diameter of 5 cm and all of the samples properly mixed before composite samples were formed. They were transported to a laboratory where they were air-dried. Bigger aggregates were shattered by mild pounding and then entirely merged to generate a composite sample after air-drying for several days in a clean room away from direct sunshine and dust. Before using the samples in additional tests, dry roots, grasses, and other particulate components were removed. One kg soil was crushed and sieved through a 4 mm sieve in four portions. For chemical examination, these materials were stored in plastic containers with proper labels. Secondary sources were used to collect data on temperature, rainfall, relative humidity, fertilizer dose, and production of tea over twenty-five years in Bangladesh. Secondary data were collected from a variety of sources, including books, annual reports, and websites of the Bangladesh Tea Board (BTB), Bangladesh Tea Research Institute (BTRI), and Soil Resource Development Institute (SRDI)

2.3. Collection and Analysis of Tea Leaves

Tea leaf samples, which included two expanded leaves with one single bud from the top, were taken randomly from each of the tea gardens at the same time as the soil, kept in zipper bags, and preserved in an icebox (Coleman, 2A-COM-169138-Blue, Wichita, USA) with proper labels. Then, the samples were transferred to the lab and washed with tap water before being dried in an oven (XU058, Chelles, France) at 65 °C for 72 h and crushed into powder using a grinder (FZ102, Beijing, China). One gram of each crushed sample was then extracted with 100 mL of distilled water at 100 °C for 1 h. The sample infusions were stored at 4 °C in a refrigerator (BPR-5V360, Shangodong, China) for further investigation

2.4. Analysis of Soil Chemical Properties

The soil pH was measured at a ratio of 1:2.5 (w/v) soil water suspension with a digital pH meter (Model No: HI-2211, Rhode Island, USA). The organic carbon content was esti- Agronomy 2022, 12, 2128 4 of 16 mated volumetrically using wet oxidation [18]. The organic matter content was computed by multiplying the current organic carbon by the Van Bemmelen factor of 1.73. The electrical conductivity values of obtained samples were measured using a conductivity bridge (model WTW LF SE 521). For the determination of nitrate (NO3 –) concentrations, 100 μ L sample extract was added to 1000 μ L reagent, prepared by dissolving 0.4 g vanadium(III) chloride (VCl3),

25 mg sulfanilamide, and 1.2 mg N-(1-naphthyl) ethylenediamine dihydrochloride in 50 mL 1 M HCl, as discussed by Doane and Horwáth [19]. Finally, the NO3 – concentrations were measured at 540 nm wavelength using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (model T60U, PG Instrument Ltd., Wibtoft Leicestershire, UK). The Bray and Kurtz method was used to extract phosphorus from the soil by shaking samples with 0.03 M NH4F and 0.025 M HCl solutions [20]. Potassium (K) was extracted using 1.0 N NH4OAc (pH 7) and was quantified using a flame emission spectrophotometer (FP910, Wibtoft Leicestershire, UK). Zinc was also quantified using an AAS at a 1:2 soil-extractant ratio [21]. Manganese and iron were measured at wavelengths of 248.3 nm and 279.5 nm, respectively, with an AAS (Shimadzu AA-6300, Kyoto, Japan). Calcium and magnesium were determined by complexometric titration of method titration [22]. Using a high-performance doublebeam spectrophotometer (model T60U, PG instruments Ltd, Wibtoft Leicestershire, UK) at 420 nm, the S content of extractant was determined turbidimetrically. Similarly, aluminum was measured at a wavelength of 495 nm using morin hydrate reagent [23].

2.5. Biochemical Assay of Tea Leaves

Total soluble solid (TSS) content in tea leaf infusions was analyzed by a hand refractometer (NR151,J.P. Selectra, Spain) and the results were recorded as 0Brix [24]. To analyze the total polyphenol content (TPC), gallic acid concentrations of 0, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, and 2.5 mg/mL were made for the calibration curve. Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (2.0 mL, 1 M) and 2.0 mL of 7.5% (w/v) Na2CO3 solution were added to a 1 mL sample infusion. The mixture was properly mixed by centrifuging for 10 min at 2000 rpm (Gyrozen benchtop centrifuge, model 416G, Daejeon, South Korea), kept at room temperature for 30 min, and measured at 765 nm using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (model T60U, PG instruments Ltd., Wibtoft Leicestershire, UK) [25]. Quercetin concentrations of 0, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, 0.05, and 0.06 mg mL-1 were prepared as a calibration curve for analyzing total flavonoid content (TFC). Similarly, the TFC was analyzed from a 1 mL infusion sample with 0.3 mL of 5% NaNO2 solution, 0.3 mL of 10% AlCl3 solution, and 2 mL of 1 mol L-1 NaOH solution, which was determined by a UV-visible spectrophotometer, as discussed in [26]. The antioxidant activity of the extractant was measured by 2,2-diphenyl-1picryl-hydrazyl (DPPH) radical-scavenging assay [26]. In a nutshell, 2 mL of tea extracts were added to 3 mL of a 6 × 10-5 M methanolic solution of DPPH in cuvettes. These solutions were left to stand for 30 min in the dark at room temperature and measured absorbance spectrophotometrically (model T60U, PG instruments limited, Wibtoft Leicestershire UK) at 517 nm wavelength (A sample). A solution without the extract was used as blank (A control) and the absorbance was recorded. The ability of the sample to scavenge DPPH radicals was determined by the following equation: Antioxidant activity (%) = Abs control – Abs sample/Abs control \times 100 (where Abs control = the Abs of control at initial time and Abs sample = the sample's Abs after 30 min).

To determine the caffeine content, 2.0 mL tea infusion was added to 50 mL chloroform and stirred for 10 min. The organic phase was isolated from the aqueous phase using a separating funnel (chloroform). The organic solution was placed in the quartz of the UV cell, and the absorbance at

260 nm was measured. The caffeine content of tea leaves was evaluated using a standard calibration curve derived from known caffeine values (0 to 20 ppm) [27]. The tannins were measured using the Folin–Ciocalteu phenol reagent, as previously discussed in [28]. The 0.2 mL sample extract was combined with 0.5 mL Folin–Ciocalteu phenol reagent and kept at room temperature for 5 min. Then, 1 mL of 35% Na2CO3 solution was added. The mixture was thoroughly mixed before being left at room temperature for 20 min and absorbance measured at 725 nm wavelength.

2.6. Detection of Nutritional Properties of Tea Leaves

To determine the vitamin C (ascorbic acid) content, 1 mL of leaf infusions was added to 10 mL of 0.056 M sodium oxalate. After homogeneous mixing, the sample was quiesced for 5 min, and absorbance measured at 266 nm by a UV-visible spectrophotometer (model T60U, PG Instruments Limited, Wibtoft Leicestershire UK) as discussed in [29]. For calibration curves, L-ascorbic acid was employed as a standard. The vitamin B content of tea leaves was also determined spectrophotometrically following Fernandes et al. [30]. Briefly, 0.5 g leaf sample was homogenized for 2 min in 10 mL distilled water. The extraction mixture was treated with 0.25 M (1 mL) sulfuric acid before being placed in a water bath at 70 °C for 30 min. The extraction liquid was then chilled in an ice bath before being adjusted to a pH of 4.5 with a 0.5 M sodium hydroxide solution. The material was centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 25 min before being filtered (Gyrozen benchtop centrifuge, model 416G, Daejeon, South Korea). After collection of B vitamin-rich supernatant, absorbance was measured at 254 nm for vitamin B1 and 320 nm for vitamin B2. The standard chemicals thiamine hydrochloride (B1) and riboflavin (B2) were used to make the calibration curves.

2.7. Statistical Analysis

The mean was calculated by averaging the values of three replications and then the standard deviation was calculated. The ANOVA analysis was performed to test the differences among the gardens. If significant effects were found, means were separated by least significant differences (LSD) [30]. All the statistical analysis was performed using R software (version: R × 64 3.6.2, Auckland, New Zealand). Principal component analysis (PCA) was accomplished using Origin 2018 (OriginLab Inc., Northampton, Massachusetts, USA) and a heatmap generated by using ClustVis 2.0 software (https://biit.cs.ut.ee/clustvis, accessed on 10 March 2022) [22].

3. Results

3.1. Effect of Conventional Fertilization on Tea Leaves Production

In general, the major fertilizers, such as urea, triple super phosphate (TSP), and muriate of potash (MoP), are used in tea gardens to produce quality leaves. However, among these, application of ammoniacal N fertilizers on a regular basis may reduce soil fertility by decreasing nutrient availability and eventually affecting tea leaf quality. For example, experimental results showed that the tea leaf production remained almost similar (average 1079.77 kg ha-1) during the years 1995–2015, while application of ammoniacal N as urea fertilizer increased by 24.69% (Figure 1a,b) in garden soils of Bangladesh. Interestingly, results also found that the total tea leaf production in those years of 2016-2020 increased by 24.93% (Figure 1b) due to increased fertilizer doses and favorable weather conditions (Supplementary Table S1). To further investigate the individual responses of different tea gardens, we studied five years' of production trends and fertilizer supplementation statistics of some popular and oldest tea gardens (most likely Bangladesh Tea Research InstituteBTRI (BTG), Nurjahan (NTG), Finlay (FTG), Lakkatora (LTG) and Malnichara (MTG)) of Bangladesh. Surprisingly, results showed that among the tested gardens, urea, TSP. and MoP doses increased by 10%, 34%, and 38%, respectively (Supplementary Table S2) and tea leaf production also increased by only 20%, which was economically less viable because of the increasing benefit-cost ratio.

3.2. Effect of Conventional Fertilization on Soil Nutritional Properties

To investigate the impact of traditional fertilizers, especially urea as nitrate (NO3 -) fertilizers, initially we studied the correlations with soil pH. Surprisingly, those high-nitrogen fertilizers increased soil acidity by lowering soil pH. Tea is a leaf-harvested perennial crop that thrives on acidic soils with an ideal pH of 4.5 to 5.6 [1]. For example, during 1992, BTG, NTG, FTG, LTG, and MTG garden soil pH was 5.1, 5.05, 5.2, 5.3, and 5.2 respectively (Figure 2a), but in the present study, we found that the soil pH of the investigated gardens varied from 3.87 to 4.24 (Supplementary Table S3). During 1992–2020, the pH value of BTG, Agronomy 2022, 12, 2128 6 of 16 NTG, FTG, LTG, and MTG garden soil decreased by 15.73%, 18.11%, 18.51%, 23.76%, and 23.87%, respectively (Figure 2b). The nitrate (NO3 –) concentration of MTG, LTG, NTG, and FTG increased by 50%, 34%, 17%, and 9% compared to the BTG tea garden (Table 1). The nitrate (NO3 –) concentration of the tested gardens declined significantly as the pH value increased slowly. For example, the nitrate (NO3 –) concentration increased by 1.5-fold in MTG when the pH was reduced by 1-fold (Table 1 and Supplementary Table S3). To further investigate how this degraded soil pH affects other nutritional availability of plants, we studied OM, EC, available phosphorus (Av.P), potassium (K+), calcium (Ca2+), magnesium (Mg2+), sulfur (S), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn2+), aluminum (Al3+), and zinc (Zn) and tested the soils of BTG, NTG, FTG, LTG and MTG. The organic matter content decreased and the electrical conductivity of the soil

under the tested garden increased as the pH dropped. When compared to BTG, soil organic matter in NTG, FTG, LTG, and MTG decreased by 21%, 13%, 24%, and 33%, respectively (Figure 3a). The electrical conductivity increased by 2.4, 2.1, 1.9, and 1.4-fold in MTG, LTG, NTG and FTG garden compared to BTG (Figure 3b). With their respective pH values, BTG and FTG greatly improved phosphorus (P) and potassium (K+) concentrations, whereas NTG tea garden somewhat raised it.

Garden neme	Establishment	Age (Years)	pH (2020)
BTG (BTRI tea garden)	1957	64	4.24
NTG (Nurjahan tea garden)	1879	142	4.07
FTG (Finlay tea garden)	1932	89	4.17
LTG (Lakkatora tea garden)	1875	146	3.95
MTG (Malnichara tea garden)	1854	167	3.87

Table 1 Age of different tea Garden in Bangladesh.Source: Fertilizer Recommendation Guide (FRG) 2005, 2012, 2018 and Bangladesh Tea Board (BTB), 2020.

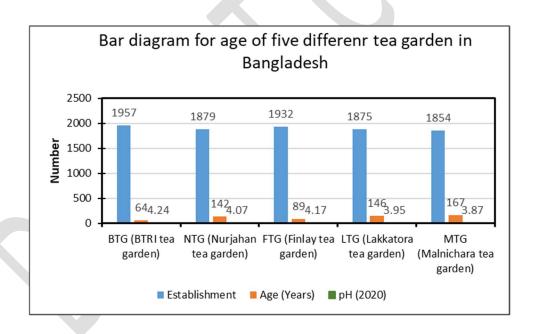


Figure 1 Age of different tea Garden in Bangladesh.Source: Fertilizer Recommendation Guide (FRG) 2005, 2012, 2018 and Bangladesh Tea Board (BTB), 2020.

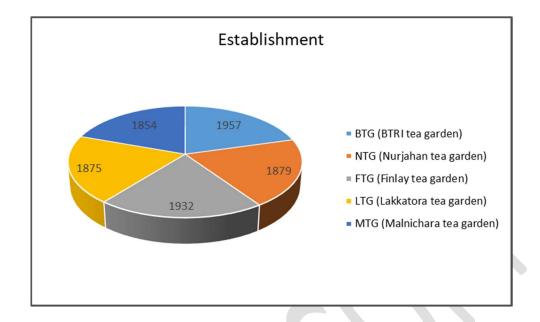


Figure 2 Pie Chart for the Age of different tea Garden in Bangladesh.Source: Fertilizer Recommendation Guide (FRG) 2005, 2012, 2018 and Bangladesh Tea Board (BTB), 2020.

Effect of Conventional Fertilization on Soil Nutritional Properties To investigate the impact of traditional fertilizers, especially urea as nitrate (NO3 $^-$) fertilizers, initially we studied the correlations with soil pH. Surprisingly, those high-nitrogen fertilizers increased soil acidity by lowering soil pH. Tea is a leaf-harvested perennial crop that thrives on acidic soils with an ideal pH of 4.5 to 5.6 [1]. For example, during 1992, BTG, NTG, FTG, LTG, and MTG garden soil pH was 5.1, 5.05, 5.2, 5.3, and 5.2 respectively (Figure 2a), but in the present study, we found that the soil pH of the investigated gardens varied from 3.87 to 4.24 (Supplementary Table S2). During 1992–2020, the pH value of BTG, NTG, FTG, LTG, and MTG garden soil decreased by 15.73%, 18.11%, 18.53%, 23.76%, and 23.87%, respectively (Figure 2b). The nitrate (NO3 $^-$) concentration of MTG, LTG, NTG, and FTG increased by 50%, 34%, 17%, and 9% compared to the BTG tea garden (Table 1). The nitrate (NO3 $^-$) concentration of the tested gardens declined significantly as the pH value increased slowly. For example, the nitrate (NO3 $^-$) concentration increased by 1.5-fold in MTG when the pH was reduced by 1-fold (Table 1 and Supplement).

4. Discussion

In the tea-growing process, the quantity and quality of the tea are the most significant aspects [15]. Surprisingly, here we observed that tea leaf production almost remained constant from 1995 to 2015 while fertilizer doses increased several-fold (Figure 1a,b). For example, in the LTG garden, fertilizer dose increased by about 1.14-fold urea, 1.40-fold TSP, and 1.34-fold MoP, respectively

(Supplementary Table S2). Interestingly, tea leaf production was found to be increased from 2016 to 2020, which may be due to the favorable weather conditions, such as temperature, rainfall, and relative humidity (Figure 1b; Supplementary Table S1) [14,19]. Long-term traditional fertilization reduced not only the production but also hampered the quality of tea leaves. Due to the low soil pH or acidification with traditional fertilization enhancement [20], many soils beneath tea gardens severely affect tea plant development and leaf quality by reducing the nutrient intake rate [11]. Xie et al. [15] also reported that the quality and production of tea leaves are directly affected by the excess usage of N, P, and K nutrients. Likewise, we observed that long-term conventional fertilizers cause significant alteration (p < 0.01) in the accumulation of antioxidants, phenolic compounds, flavones, total soluble solids (TSS), vitamins, caffeine, and tannin concentration in tea leaves.

In tea leaves, total polyphenol concentration (TPC) and total flavonoid concentration (TFC) are important biochemical substances and powerful antioxidants [18,12]. While it has been observed that large amounts of nitrogenous fertilizers depress TPC and TFC in younger leaves by lowering soil pH with P and K+ availability for plants [53], in the present study, the lowest levels of TPC and TFC were identified in relation to the reduced garden soil pH. For example, among the tested gardens, low levels of TPC and TFC (0.79, 1.08 g/100 g sample and 314.83 and 319.35 mg/100 g sample) were observed in MTG and LTG gardens with pH levels of 3.87 and 3.95, respectively (Figure 4b,c; Figure 2a). Singh and Pathak [16] reported that the enhanced content of TPC and TFC in tea leaves positively correlated with phosphate and K fertilizers. Surprisingly, we also observed that the TPC and TFC content increased by 2.46, 2.34 and 1.8, 2.3-fold higher in BTG and FTG than MTG garden, with the 1.2–1.3 fold and 2.0–2.1 fold increased level of P and K+ concentration in respective garden soils (Figure 4c,d, Table 1). In fact, reduced soil pH causes Mn2+ and Al3+ toxicity, which induces oxidative damage by generating reactive oxygen species (ROS) in tea leaves (Table 1) [14,15]. Although results showed that DPPH content was enhanced, the ascorbic acid (AsA) concentration decreased in leaves (Figure 4b,e), which can be due to long-term stress [26,27]. Such an imbalance of ROS damages cell membranes and promotes cell death, even reducing the ultimate yield [25]. The availability of Fe decreased with decreased soil pH, consequently increasing tannic acid content in tea leaves (Figures 4g and 5a,b and Table 1), as previously reported [61]. Additionally, we observed a higher amount of vitamin B1 and vitamin B2 in BTG and FTG (Figure 4 and Table 1), which can be due to the higher amount of soil S and Fe content than MTG [14,22]. Notably, S and Fe are important components of vitamin B1 and B2, and the insufficiency of these vitamins is linked to many human diseases, such as neurological disorders, cardiac death, and even cancer [30]

5. Conclusions

Acidification of tea garden soil is a critical issue throughout the world for the production of quality tea beverages. The continuous application of nitrogenous fertilizers in the form of urea decreased soil pH by releasing nitrate (NO3 –), ions which caused depletion in essential plant nutrients and toxicity of manganese (Mn2+) and aluminum (Al3+) in soils, thereby suppressing leaf quality, with a reduction in overall harvest. The high amounts of Mn2+ and Al3+ would induce toxicity and lower the availability of phosphorus (P), potassium (K+), calcium (Ca2+), magnesium (Mg2+), sulfur (S), and iron (Fe) ions in garden soil due to long-term traditional fertilization. As a result, plant availability, uptake, transport, and utilization of these essential nutrients were severely hampered. Consequently, the quality of tea leaves deteriorated, as evidenced by lower levels of TSS, TFC, TPC, vitamin C, vitamin B1, and B2 concentration. Moreover, the rapid increases of free-radical scavenging activity (DPPH) and caffeine and tannin concentration in tea leaves indicating plants were under stress, as shown in Figure 6. Therefore, this study concludes that the lower soil pH induced by continuous application of nitrogenous fertilizers decreased the availability of native nutrient pools in soil and decreased tea leaf quality and production.

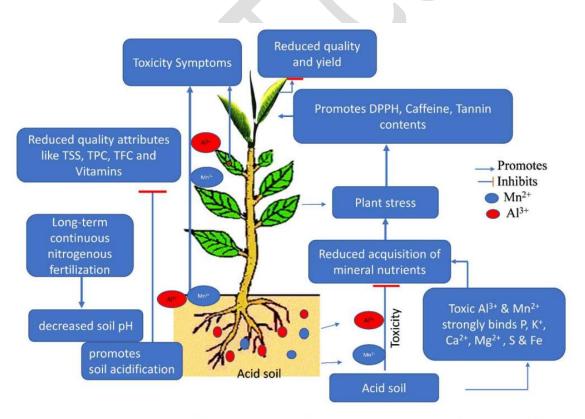


Figure 6. Schematic representation of the effects of long-term traditional fertilization on tea garden soil and tea leaf quality.

6. References

- 1. Hajiboland, R. Environmental and nutritional requirements for tea cultivation. Folia Hortic. 2017, 29, 199–220.
- 2. Mamun, M.S.A. Tea production in Bangladesh: From bush to mug. In Agronomic Crops; Springer: Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany, 2019; pp. 441–505.
- 3. Falla, N.M.; Demasi, S.; Caser, M.; Scariot, V. Phytochemical profile and antioxidant properties of italian green tea, a new high quality niche product. Horticulturae 2021, 7, 91.
- 4. Rabbani, M.G.; Ali, S. Productions, Consumptions and Exports of Tea in Different Timeline in Bangladesh. J. Ext. Educ. 2020, 32, 159–164.
- 5. Hossain, M.; Aziz, M.; Arefin, M.; Ali, M.; Rahman, M.; Ashrafuzzaman, M.; Hossain, M. Study of the performance of four biclonal stocks and their three parental clones as control on the yield and quality of tea. Tea J. Bangladesh 2015, 44, 1–8.
- 6. Rahman, S. Requirement of lime in tea soils to improve tea growth and yield. Tea J. Bangladesh 2015, 44, 10–18.
- 7. Yirga, C.; Erkossa, T.; Agegnehu, G. Soil Acidity Management; Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research (EIAR): Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 2019.
- 8. Chen, D.; Li, J.; Lan, Z.; Hu, S.; Bai, Y. Soil acidification exerts a greater control on soil respiration than soil nitrogen availability in grasslands subjected to long-term nitrogen enrichment. Funct. Ecol. 2016, 30, 658–669.
- 9. Obour, A.K.; Mikha, M.M.; Holman, J.D.; Stahlman, P.W. Changes in soil surface chemistry after fifty years of tillage and nitrogen fertilization. Geoderma 2017, 308, 46–53. [CrossRef]
- 10. Schroder, J.L.; Zhang, H.; Girma, K.; Raun, W.R.; Penn, C.J.; Payton, M.E. Soil acidification from long-term use of nitrogen fertilizers on winter wheat. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 2011, 75, 957–964.
- 11. Wang, Y.; Liu, R. Improvement of acidic soil properties by biochar from fast pyrolysis. Environ. Prog. Sustain. Energy 2018, 37, 1743–1749.
- 12. Ni, K.; Shi, Y.-z.; Yi, X.-y.; Zhang, Q.-f.; Fang, L.; Ma, L.-f.; Ruan, J. Effects of long-term nitrogen application on soil acidification and solution chemistry of a tea plantation in China. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 2018, 252, 74–82.
- 13. Drywien, M.; Podkowska, J.; Frackiewicz, J.; Górnicka, M. Consumption of black and green teas as a dietary source of polyphenols in Polish inhabitants of the Mazovian region. Rocz. Pa 'nstwowego Zakładu Hig. 2015, 66, 35–38.

- 14. Czernicka, M.; Zagula, G.; Bajcar, M.; Saletnik, B.; Puchalski, C. Study of nutritional value of dried tea leaves and infusions of black, green and white teas from Chinese plantations. Rocz. Pa 'nstwowego Zakładu Hig. 2017, 68, 237–245.
- 15. Xie, S.; Feng, H.; Yang, F.; Zhao, Z.; Hu, X.; Wei, C.; Liang, T.; Li, H.; Geng, Y. Does dual reduction in chemical fertilizer and pesticides improve nutrient loss and tea yield and quality? A pilot study in a green tea garden in Shaoxing, Zhejiang Province, China. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 2019, 26, 2464–2476.
- 16. Islam, M.; Hasan, M.; Farukh, M. Application of GIS in General Soil Mapping of Bangladesh. J. Geogr. Inf. Syst. 2017, 9, 604–621.
- 17. Yan, P.; Shen, C.; Fan, L.; Li, X.; Zhang, L.; Zhang, L.; Han, W. Tea planting affects soil acidification and nitrogen and phosphorus distribution in soil. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 2018, 254, 20–25.
- 18. Walkley, A.; Black, I.A. An examination of the Degtjareff method for determining soil organic matter, and a proposed modification of the chromic acid titration method. Soil Sci. 1934, 37, 29–38.
- 19. Doane, T.A.; Horwáth, W.R. Spectrophotometric Determination of Nitrate with a Single Reagent. Anal. Lett. 2003, 36, 2713–2722.
- 20. Lalrinfela, T. Impact of Phosphorus Management in Lowland Paddy Cultivation under Hnahthial District of Mizoram, India. Int. J. Plant Soil Sci. 2022, 34, 48–52.
- 21. Lindsay, W.L.; Norvell, W. Development of a DTPA soil test for zinc, iron, manganese, and copper. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 1978, 42, 421–428.
- 22. Page, A.; Miller, R.; Keeney, D. Methods of soil analysis. Part 2. In American Society of Agronomy; Soil Science Society of America: Madison, WI, USA, 1982; Volume 4, pp. 167–179.
- 23. Oter, O.; Aydogdu, S. Determination of aluminum ion with morin in a medium comprised by ionic liquid—water mixtures. J. Fluoresc. 2011, 21, 43–50.
- 24. Abeywickrama, K.; Kularathna, L.; Sarananda, K.; Abeygunawardena, D. Cymbopogon citratus (lemongrass) and citral a + b spray treatments alone or in combination with sodium bicarbonate in controlling crown rot in Embul banana (Musa acuminata AAB). Trop. Agric. Res. Extention 2004, 7, 104–111.
- 25. Sarkar, A.; Rahman, M.; Sarkar, J.; Alam, M.; Rashid, M. Growth and quality parameters of tea (Camellia sinensis) mediated by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. Nova Biotechnol. Chim. 2020, 19, 232–239.
- 26. Chang, C.-C.; Yang, M.-H.; Wen, H.-M.; Chern, J.-C. Estimation of total flavonoid content in propolis by two complementary colorimetric methods. J. Food Drug Anal. 2002, 10.
- 27. Maidon, A.B.; Mansoer, A.O.; Sulistyarti, H. Study of various solvents for caffeine determination using UV spectrophotometeric. J. Appl. Sci. Res. 2012, 2439–2442.

- 28. Amorim, E.L.; Nascimento, J.E.; Monteiro, J.M.; Peixoto Sobrinho, T.; Araújo, T.A.; Albuquerque, U.P. A simple and accurate procedure for the determination of tannin and flavonoid levels and some applications in ethnobotany and ethnopharmacology. Funct. Ecosyst. Communities 2008, 2, 88–94. Agronomy 2022, 12, 2128 15 of 16.
- 29. Salki'c, M.; Keran, H.; Jaši'c, M. Determination of L-ascorbic acid in pharmaceutical preparations using direct ultraviolet spectrophotometry. Agric. Conspec. Sci. 2009, 74, 263–268.
- 30. Fernandes, F.A.; Rodrigues, S.; Cárcel, J.A.; García-Pérez, J.V. Ultrasound-assisted airdrying of apple (Malus domestica L.) and its effects on the vitamin of the dried product. Food Bioprocess Technol. 2015, 8, 1503–1511.