

# Assessing Long-Term Effects of Tea (*Camellia sinensis*) Cultivation on Soil Quality in Highland Agroecosystems: A Case Study in Lam Dong, Vietnam

Ph.D. Tao Anh Khoi  
Bao Loc College of Technology and Economics, Lam Dong Province, Vietnam  
ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0009-0008-7250-6920>  
Email: [anhkhoibaoloc@gmail.com](mailto:anhkhoibaoloc@gmail.com)

## Abstract

Long-term monoculture systems such as tea (*Camellia sinensis*) plantations can lead to significant changes in soil quality, directly influencing crop productivity and sustainability. This study investigates the impacts of tea cultivation over a 20-year period on key soil quality indicators in Lam Dong province, Vietnam—a major highland tea-growing region.

Soils were sampled from plantations of varying ages (5, 10, and 20 years) and compared with native forest soils. Chemical, physical, and biological properties were assessed, including soil organic carbon (SOC), nutrient availability (N, P, K), pH, bulk density, plant-available water capacity (PAWC), aggregate stability, and earthworm populations. Results show a significant decline in SOC, available P and K, and PAWC with increasing plantation age, while bulk density and mechanical resistance increased, indicating progressive soil compaction.

A multiple regression analysis revealed that SOC, available P, total K, and PAWC were the most predictive indicators of long-term tea productivity. Cost-benefit analysis suggested that tea cultivation remains marginally profitable after 20 years, provided that adequate fertilization is maintained. This study proposes threshold values for soil quality indicators to support sustainable tea production in tropical highland systems.

*Keywords:* Soil degradation, Tea cultivation, Organic carbon, Nutrient availability, Soil compaction, Economic sustainability, Ferralsols.

## 1. Introduction

Tea (*Camellia sinensis*) is one of the most important perennial crops worldwide, cultivated on more than 5.1 million hectares and providing livelihoods for millions of smallholder farmers (FAO, 2023). Vietnam ranks among the top ten tea-producing countries, with Lam Dong province recognized for high-quality green and oolong teas (Vietnam Tea Association, 2022). However, the long-term sustainability of tea plantations is increasingly questioned due to observed declines in yield and deterioration of soil quality. Continuous monoculture on sloping terrain, often without soil conservation practices, has been linked to erosion, compaction, and nutrient loss in tropical systems (Lal, 1998; Zhou et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2021).

Numerous studies in China, India, and Kenya have documented soil acidification, organic carbon decline, and nutrient depletion under long-term tea cultivation (Li et al., 2019; Das et al., 2020; Wachira et al., 2017). For example, SOC was reported to decrease by 25–30% within two decades of continuous tea monoculture in southern China (Li et al., 2019), while similar declines in nutrient availability were observed in Indian and Kenyan plantations (Das et al.,

45 2020; Wachira et al., 2017). These findings highlight the fragility of Ferralsols and Nitisols  
46 under intensive management, emphasizing the need for better soil stewardship.  
47 Nevertheless, empirical evidence from Southeast Asia, particularly Vietnam, remains scarce,  
48 despite the country's growing role in global tea production.

49 Existing Vietnamese studies have focused primarily on short-term yield responses or  
50 fertilizer management strategies (Nguyen et al., 2021), while systematic assessments of long-  
51 term soil quality dynamics and their economic implications are lacking. In particular, critical  
52 thresholds for soil indicators that sustain both yield and profitability under continuous tea  
53 cultivation are poorly defined.

54 This study addresses these knowledge gaps by evaluating chemical, physical, and biological  
55 changes in soils under tea plantations aged 5, 10, and 20 years in Lam Dong province,  
56 compared with native forest controls. Specifically, we aimed to: (i) quantify changes in soil  
57 organic carbon, nutrient availability, bulk density, plant-available water capacity, aggregate  
58 stability, and earthworm populations across plantation ages; (ii) identify key soil indicators  
59 most predictive of tea yield through regression analysis; and (iii) propose threshold values  
60 of soil quality parameters that support sustainable tea production in tropical highland  
61 systems.

## 62 **2. Materials and Methods (Revised Draft)**

### 63 **2.1 Study Area**

64 The study was conducted in Bao Loc district, Lam Dong province, Vietnam (11°32'–11°36' N,  
65 107°42'–107°47' E), located at an elevation of 850–950 m. The region is characterized by a  
66 tropical monsoon climate with an annual rainfall of 2,300–2,500 mm, mean temperature of  
67 21–22 °C, and Ferralsols derived from basalt. Four land-use types were selected: native  
68 evergreen forest (control), and tea plantations cultivated for 5, 10, and 20 years. Each plot  
69 measured 0.5 ha, with GPS coordinates recorded for all sites.

### 70 **2.2 Experimental Design and Soil Sampling**

71 In each land-use type, five subplots were established, and composite soil samples (0–20 cm)  
72 were collected using an auger at five random points per subplot. Bulk density was measured  
73 using the core method (Topp et al., 1997). Plant-available water capacity (PAWC) was  
74 determined with a pressure plate apparatus at 0.33 bar (field capacity) and 15 bar  
75 (permanent wilting point). Soil mechanical resistance was measured with a cone  
76 penetrometer (Ehlers et al., 1983).

### 77 **2.3 Soil Chemical and Biological Analyses**

78 SOC and total N were determined by dry combustion using an Elementar analyzer (Reeves et  
79 al., 1997). Total P and K were analyzed after H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>–HClO<sub>4</sub> digestion (Lal, 1998). Available P  
80 was extracted using the Bray-1 method, and available K was determined by ammonium  
81 acetate extraction (Jackson, 1973). Soil pH was measured in a 1:2.5 soil-to-water suspension.

82 Earthworm populations were estimated by hand-sorting from 0.25 m<sup>2</sup> × 20 cm deep soil  
 83 monoliths.

#### 84 **2.4 Fertilizer Management**

85 Fertilizer input was categorized into two levels based on farmer practices:

86 (i) Adequate fertilization: ~ 150 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>, 35 kg P ha<sup>-1</sup>, 66 kg K ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>.

87 (ii) Inadequate fertilization: <100 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>, <20 kg P ha<sup>-1</sup>, <40 kg K ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>.

88 Nutrient contents are expressed as % element rather than oxide forms, in accordance with  
 89 reviewer suggestions.

#### 90 **2.5 Crop Yield and Economic Analysis**

91 Fresh leaf yield was measured from ten randomly selected bushes per subplot and scaled to  
 92 per-hectare yields. Economic analysis was based on farm-gate prices, production costs  
 93 (fertilizer, labor, mechanization), and calculated net benefit and benefit–cost ratio (BCR).

#### 94 **2.6 Statistical Analysis**

95 One-way ANOVA with Tukey’s post hoc test was applied to detect differences among land-  
 96 use types. Regression analysis was used to identify soil indicators predictive of yield.  
 97 Statistical significance was set at p < 0.05.

### 98 **3. Results**

#### 99 **3.1 Changes in Soil Properties**

100 Table 1 presents the chemical, physical, and biological soil indicators across plantation ages  
 101 and the forest control.

102 **Table 1. Soil quality indicators across tea plantation ages (0–20 cm depth).**

Indicator	Forest	5 years	10 years	20 years	Direction
SOC (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	23.4 ± 1.2	17.1 ± 1.0 *	14.3 ± 1.3 **	12.1 ± 1.1 **	↓
Avail. P (µg g <sup>-1</sup> )	11.5 ± 0.6	8.4 ± 0.4 *	6.9 ± 0.5 **	6.0 ± 0.3 **	↓
Avail. K (µg g <sup>-1</sup> )	18.7 ± 1.1	14.0 ± 1.3	12.1 ± 1.0 *	9.8 ± 0.7 **	↓
Total N (%)	0.21 ± 0.01	0.18 ± 0.01	0.15 ± 0.01 *	0.12 ± 0.01 **	↓
Total P (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	0.82 ± 0.04	0.69 ± 0.03	0.58 ± 0.02 *	0.50 ± 0.02 **	↓
pH (H <sub>2</sub> O)	5.7 ± 0.1	5.3 ± 0.1	5.1 ± 0.2	5.0 ± 0.2	↓

Indicator	Forest	5 years	10 years	20 years	Direction
Bulk density (Mg m <sup>-3</sup> )	0.98 ± 0.04	1.10 ± 0.03 *	1.22 ± 0.05 **	1.33 ± 0.04 **	↓
PAWC (% vol.)	14.6 ± 0.8	11.2 ± 0.5 *	10.0 ± 0.6 **	9.4 ± 0.4 **	↓
Earthworm density (m <sup>-3</sup> )	22.5 ± 2.3	14.3 ± 2.1 *	9.8 ± 1.8 **	4.1 ± 0.7 **	↓

103 *Values are means ± SE. Asterisks indicate significance level compared with forest control ( p <*  
104 *0.05, \*\* p < 0.01).\**

105 Analysis:

106 SOC showed a progressive decline of ~48% after 20 years, reflecting loss of organic matter  
107 inputs and accelerated decomposition under monoculture. Available P and K decreased by  
108 nearly half, suggesting nutrient mining and insufficient replenishment through fertilization.  
109 The decline in PAWC (-36%) indicates deteriorating soil structure and porosity, while the  
110 ~82% reduction in earthworm populations highlights severe biological degradation. These  
111 findings are consistent with reports from China (Li et al., 2019) and India (Das et al., 2020),  
112 but the magnitude of change in Lam Dong appears stronger, reflecting the fragility of  
113 Ferralsols under intensive management.

### 114 3.2 Crop Yield

115 **Table 2. Tea yield under different plantation ages and fertilizer inputs.**

Plantation Age	Yield (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Adequate Fertilization	Inadequate Fertilization
5 years	5.06	5.20	4.91
10 years	4.72	4.95	4.50
20 years	3.30	3.84	2.82

116 Analysis:

117 Tea yield declined steadily with plantation age (-35% from 5 to 20 years). Adequate  
118 fertilization consistently improved yields compared with inadequate fertilization,  
119 particularly at 20 years where the difference reached +1.02 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. However, even with  
120 sufficient fertilization, yields at 20 years remained significantly lower than at 5 years,  
121 indicating that soil degradation outweighed fertilizer effects. This aligns with long-term  
122 studies in Kenya showing declining productivity despite fertilizer application (Wachira et al.,  
123 2017).

### 124 3.3 Soil-Yield Relationships

125 **Table 3. Regression model predicting tea yield from soil indicators.**

Predictor	Coefficient	Std. Error	p-value
SOC	0.141	0.031	<0.001
Avail. P	0.018	0.006	0.004
Total K	0.054	0.020	0.012
PAWC	0.090	0.027	0.001

126 Model  $R^2 = 0.764$ ;  $p < 0.001$ .

127 Analysis:

128 The regression model explained 76.4% of yield variation, confirming that SOC, available P,  
 129 total K, and PAWC are key drivers of productivity. SOC had the strongest effect, indicating its  
 130 central role in maintaining soil fertility, nutrient cycling, and water retention. The  
 131 significance of PAWC emphasizes that soil physical properties, not only chemical fertility, are  
 132 critical for sustaining yields. Bulk density and mechanical resistance were excluded due to  
 133 collinearity, but their indirect impacts on SOC and PAWC cannot be ignored.

### 134 **3.4 Economic Performance**

135 **Table 4. Economic performance of tea plantations by age.**

Plantation Age	Net Benefit (1,000 VND ha <sup>-1</sup> )	BCR
5 years	6,434	1.27
10 years	6,021	1.26
20 years	488	1.02

136 Analysis:

137 Economic returns declined drastically with plantation age. Net benefit at 20 years was  
 138 reduced by >90% compared with 5-year plantations, and the BCR dropped close to unity,  
 139 indicating that continued cultivation at this stage provides minimal financial advantage.  
 140 These results highlight the need for soil management interventions before plantations reach  
 141 20 years to avoid economic unsustainability. Comparable studies in China also reported  
 142 declining profitability after 15–20 years due to soil fertility loss (Zhou et al., 2014).

## 143 **4. Discussion**

#### 144 **4.1 Soil degradation under long-term tea monoculture**

145 The study demonstrated that tea monoculture significantly reduced soil fertility, physical  
146 quality, and biological activity compared with native forest. After 20 years of continuous  
147 cultivation, SOC declined by nearly 48%, available P and K by ~48%, and earthworm  
148 populations by ~82%. These results corroborate findings from China (Li et al., 2019; Chen et  
149 al., 2021), India (Das et al., 2020), and Kenya (Wachira et al., 2017), where long-term tea  
150 cultivation similarly depleted SOC and nutrients. However, the magnitude of decline in Lam  
151 Dong appears more severe, reflecting both the fragility of Ferralsols and the steep slopes  
152 common in the Vietnamese highlands.

#### 153 **4.2 Soil physical degradation and biological decline**

154 Increased bulk density ( $0.98 \rightarrow 1.33 \text{ Mg m}^{-3}$ ) and reduced PAWC ( $14.6 \rightarrow 9.4\%$ ) indicate  
155 structural deterioration, likely driven by frequent mechanized operations (~120 kPa ground  
156 pressure) and low organic matter return. This is consistent with studies on Ferralsols in  
157 Brazil and Indonesia, which highlight their susceptibility to compaction and water stress  
158 under intensive use (Craswell & Lefroy, 2001; Hartemink, 2006). The sharp decline in  
159 earthworm density confirms the loss of soil biological resilience, which further exacerbates  
160 poor aggregation and nutrient cycling.

#### 161 **4.3 Linking soil quality with yield performance**

162 Regression analysis revealed SOC, available P, total K, and PAWC as the strongest predictors  
163 of yield ( $R^2 = 0.764$ ). SOC contributed  $0.141 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  per  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ , underscoring its role in  
164 nutrient supply, moisture retention, and soil structure. Similar associations have been  
165 reported in Chinese and Kenyan tea systems (Li et al., 2019; Wachira et al., 2017). Bulk  
166 density was excluded due to collinearity, but its indirect effects on SOC and PAWC highlight  
167 the importance of maintaining favorable soil structure.

#### 168 **4.4 Economic implications and sustainability thresholds**

169 Declining soil fertility directly translated into reduced economic returns. Net benefits  
170 dropped from  $6,434 \times 10^3 \text{ VND ha}^{-1}$  at 5 years to only  $488 \times 10^3 \text{ VND ha}^{-1}$  at 20 years, with  
171 the BCR approaching unity. This suggests that without intervention, plantations older than  
172 20 years are no longer economically viable. Threshold values identified in this study—SOC  $\approx$   
173  $12 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  and available P  $\approx 6 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ —represent critical limits below which both yield and  
174 profitability collapse. These thresholds provide practical benchmarks for monitoring soil  
175 health in tropical tea systems.

#### 176 **4.5 Management recommendations**

177 The findings highlight the urgent need for improved soil management strategies in  
178 Vietnamese tea plantations. Potential interventions include: (i) organic matter amendments  
179 (compost, green manure), (ii) cover cropping to reduce erosion and enhance SOC, (iii)  
180 reduced mechanization to limit compaction, and (iv) balanced nutrient application tailored

181 to site-specific conditions. Such measures have proven effective in rehabilitating degraded  
182 tea soils in China and India (Das et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2021).

## 183 **5. Conclusion**

184 This study demonstrated that long-term tea (*Camellia sinensis*) cultivation on Ferralsols in  
185 Lam Dong province, Vietnam, leads to severe soil degradation and declining economic  
186 returns. After 20 years of monoculture, SOC declined by ~48% ( $23.4 - 12.1 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ ), available  
187 P and K by ~48%, PAWC by ~36% ( $14.6 - 9.4\%$ ), and earthworm density by ~82% ( $22.5 -$   
188  $4.1 \text{ m}^{-3}$ ), while bulk density increased by ~36% ( $0.98 - 1.33 \text{ Mg m}^{-3}$ ). These changes  
189 corresponded to yield reductions from 5.06 to 3.30 t ha<sup>-1</sup> and a drop in benefit-cost ratio  
190 from 1.27 to 1.02.

191 Regression analysis confirmed SOC, available P, total K, and PAWC as the strongest predictors  
192 of yield ( $R^2 = 0.764$ ), with critical thresholds identified at SOC  $\approx 12 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  and available P  $\approx$   
193  $6 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ . Beyond these thresholds, both yield and profitability collapse.

194 To sustain tea productivity in tropical highlands, integrated soil management is essential,  
195 including organic matter addition, cover crops, reduced mechanization, and balanced  
196 nutrient inputs. The threshold values identified here provide practical benchmarks for  
197 monitoring and managing soil quality in Vietnamese tea plantations and similar  
198 agroecosystems.

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