Concepts and Strategies in Plant Sciences
Series Editor: Chittaranjan Kole

## Liang Chen <br> Jie-Dan Chen Editors

## The Tea

 PlantGenome

# Concepts and Strategies in Plant Sciences 

Series Editor<br>Chittaranjan Kole, Raja Ramanna Fellow, Government of India, ICAR-National Institute for Plant Biotechnology, Pusa, Delhi, India

This book series highlights the spectacular advances in the concepts, techniques and tools in various areas of plant science. Individual volumes may cover topics like genome editing, phenotyping, molecular pharming, bioremediation, miRNA, fasttrack breeding, crop evolution, IPR and farmers' rights, to name just a few. The books will demonstrate how advanced strategies in plant science can be utilized to develop and improve agriculture, ecology and the environment. The series will be of interest to students, scientists and professionals working in the fields of plant genetics, genomics, breeding, biotechnology, and in the related disciplines of plant production, improvement and protection.

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Liang Chen • Jie-Dan Chen

Editors

## The Tea Plant Genome

Editors

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## Preface

The tea plant, Camellia sinensis (L.) O. Kuntze, originated in the southwestern part of China. Tea is the largest non-alcohol healthy beverage next to water in the world. According to the Annual Bulletin Statistics of International Tea Committee (2023), the tea plant has been cultivated in more than 50 countries with 5.32 million ha of plantation and 6.48 million tonnes of made tea in 2022. It is a very important cash crop for family income and social welfare in many countries, such as China, India, Sri Lanka, Turkey, Viet Nam, Kenya, Malawi, Japan, etc., and scientific research in tea plant is booming.

The tea plant is cross-pollinated, largely self-incompatible, with high heterozygosity, and a very large genome ( $\sim 3.0 \mathrm{~Gb}$ ), which has greatly hindered research and breeding in this crop. In recent years, modern genetic and genomic tools have contributed to the development of significant valuable resources for tea genetic improvement. Consequently, a book providing comprehensive and updated information on tea plant genomics and molecular breeding approaches is needed to fill a gap in the current literature on the tea plant. The chapter authors are top and highly reputed researchers in the field.

This book, The Tea Plant Genome, includes 20 chapters that cover the most relevant and hot topics in tea plant genetics and genomics. A first set of chapters includes its global economic and health importance, the botany and taxonomy, and main quality and functional components. A second group of chapters deals with genetics and breeding and includes genetic resources, commercial breeding, genetic transformation techniques, as well as the use of marker assisted-selection (QTL, GWAS). This is followed by a set of chapters on omics, including genomics, transcriptomics, metabolomics, proteomics, organelle genome, small RNA and DNA methylation. Two chapters are devoted to biotic and abiotic stresses, followed by two others focused on the SNP array and databases for molecular design breeding. Finally, a chapter deals with future perspectives in the omics era for tea breeding.

We hope that this book will be useful not only to the world tea community to enhance the understanding of tea genetics and omics, promote the progress of global tea breeding, and help us breed more desirable new tea cultivars to meet the demands
of different markets and consumers in the increasing world market, but also as a reference for other woody perennial species.

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We would like to express sincere thanks to Professor Chittaranjan Kole, Chairman of Professor Chittaranjan Kole Foundation for Science \& Society, President of International Climate Resilient Crop Genomics Consortium, President of International Phytomedomics \& Nutriomics Consortium, and President of Genome India International, for his critical guidance. We would like to thank Drs Zhao-Tang Ding, Qing-Sheng Li, Hui-Ling Liang, Chun-Lei Ma, Ze-Jiang Pan, Jie Qiu, BinMei Sun, Lu Wang, Ming-Le Wang, Peng-Jie Wang, Tian-Li Wang, Wei-Wei Wen, En-Hua Xia, Zhi-Qiang Xia, Yong-Quan Xu, Shi-Xiong Yang, Zi-Yin Yang, Meng Ye, Chuan Yue, Liang-Sheng Zhang, Qun-Feng Zhang, Qun-Jie Zhang, Wei Zhang, Xing-Tan Zhang, Zhao-Liang Zhang, Zheng-Qun Zhang, Chao Zheng, Xin-Qiang Zheng, etc., for their constructive peer reviews and revisions. The editors want to express special acknowledgment to Ms Amanda Laverick for her professional language editing.

Hangzhou, China
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## Contents

1 Tea Plant: A Millennia-Old Cash Crop for a Healthy and Happy Life Worldwide ..... 1
Chang-Jian Pan, Xu-Lin Yang, and Liang Chen
2 Botany and Taxonomy of Tea (Camellia sinensis, Theaceae) and Its Relatives ..... 13
Dong-Wei Zhao
3 The Main Quality and Functional Chemical Composition of Tea ..... 39
Gao-Zhong Yang, Qiu-Shuang You, Ying Yang, Jiang Shi, Zhi Lin, and Hai-Peng Lv
4 Tea Genetic Resources: Diversity and Conservation ..... 59
Zhi-Lu Fu, Shu-Ran Zhang, Fang Li, Jie-Dan Chen, and Liang Chen
5 Classic Genetics and Traditional Breeding of Tea Plant ..... 79
Jian-Qiang Ma, Samson M. Kamunya, Satoshi Yamaguchi, Mahasen A. B. Ranatunga, and Liang Chen
6 Tea Plant Genetic Transformation and Gene Function Research Techniques ..... 121
Xin-Yuan Hao, Jian-Yan Huang, Heng-Ze Ren, Jiao-Jiao Shi, Yan Shen, Lin Zhao, and Xin-Chao Wang
7 Achievements and Prospects of QTL Mapping and Beneficial Gene and Allele Mining for Important Quality and Agronomic Traits in Tea Plant (Camellia sinensis) ..... 141
Zhi-Hua Wang, Rong Huang, Doo-Gyung Moon, Sezai Ercisli, and Liang Chen
8 Genome-Wide Association Study (GWAS) for Economically Important Traits in Tea Plant ..... 179
Yi-Han Wang, Xiu-Ling Deng, and Su-Zhen Niu
9 Genome Assembly of Tea Plants (Camellia spp.) ..... 195
Fang Li, Shu-Ran Zhang, Liang Chen, and Jie-Dan Chen
10 Genomic Variation and Adaptative Evolution of Tea Plants ..... 213
Wei Tong, Qiong Wu, Yanli Wang, and Enhua Xia
11 Tea Plant Chloroplast and Mitochondrial Genome ..... 243
Da-He Qiao
12 Transcriptomics for Tea Plants ..... 263
Chun-Fang Li, Yu Tao, and Sa-Sa Song
13 Metabolomics of Tea Plants ..... 283
Xiao-Liang Zhang, Xin-Xin Jia, Yu-Jia Ren, Da-Wei Gao, and Wei-Wei Wen
14 Proteomics for Tea Plant ..... 315
Jiang Shi, Abdelkader Bassiony Mahmoud, Jia-Tong Wang, Kang-Ni Yan, Hai-Peng Lv, and Zhi Lin
15 Small RNA and DNA Methylation of Tea Plants ..... 341
Yu-Qiong Guo, Chen Zhu, Cheng-Zhe Zhou, Cheng Zhang, and Cai-Yun Tian
16 Abiotic Resistance of Tea Plant in the Functional Genomic Era ..... 383
Wen-Jun Qian, Takashi Ikka, Hiroto Yamashita, Shu-Ning Zhang, Huan Wang, Yu Wang, Jia-Xuan Yue, and Zhao-Tang Ding
17 Response and Resistance Mechanisms of Tea Plants to Biotic Stress ..... 425
Shuang-Shuang Wang, Xiu-Xiu Xu, and Zhao-Tang Ding
18 Development and Utilization of High-Density Genome-Wide SNP Array for Tea Plants ..... 449
Kang Wei
19 Tea Plant Genomic, Transcriptomic, and Metabolic Databases ..... 461
Jie-Dan Chen and Qian-Xi Mi
20 Future Perspectives in the Omics Era for Tea Breeding ..... 477
Wei-Long Kong and Xing-Tan Zhang

## Editors and Contributors


#### Abstract

About the Editors

Liang Chen is a world-renowned professor in the Tea Research Institute of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (TRICAAS) located at Hangzhou, China. He has extensive research experience in tea germplasm, genetics, breeding, and genomics. He received his Ph.D. in Tea Science from Zhejiang University, China, and had postdoctoral research from Cornell University, USA. He visited Ehime University in Japan, University of Florence in Italy, and Wageningen University and Research in the Netherlands as senior visiting professor. He has been appointed three times as Honorary Scientist and Advisor of the Rural Development Administration of the Republic of Korea. He has been the curator of the world's largest collection of tea genetic resources, National Tea Germplasm Repository at Hangzhou for 20 years and bred 3 dozens of national released and plant variety protection covered tea cultivars for the tea industry.


Jie-Dan Chen is an associate professor of tea genomics, genetics, and databases in the Tea Research Institute of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (TRICAAS) located at Hangzhou, China. He has constructed a comprehensive database of genomic variations for molecular breeding in tea plants (TeaGVD).

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## Abbreviations

| 1,2,6-TGG | 1,2,6-tri-O-galloyl- $\beta$-D-glucopyranose |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1,4,6-TGG | 1,4,6-tri-O-galloyl- $\beta$-D-glucopyranose |
| 2,4-D | 2,4-dichloro phenoxy acetic acid |
| 2-DE | Two-dimensional gel electrophoresis |
| 3D | Three-dimensional |
| 4CL | 4-coumaric acid CoA ligase |
| A3SS | Alternative 3' splice site |
| A5SS | Alternative 5' splice site |
| AAO3 | ABA aldehyde oxidase |
| AB | Apical buds |
| ABA | Abscisic acid |
| ABC | ATP-binding cassette |
| ABCC1-2 | ABC transcripters |
| ABE | Adenine base editor |
| ABFs | Abre-binding factors |
| ACE | Angiotensin-converting enzyme |
| ACRs | Accessible chromatin regions |
| ACX | Acyl-CoA oxidase |
| AD | Anno domini |
| ADC | Arginine decarboxylase |
| ADH | Alcohol dehydrogenase |
| AEC | Anion exchange |
| AFLP | Amplified fragment length polymorphism |
| AGO | Argonaute |
| AI | Artificial intelligence |
| Al | Aluminum element |
| AlaDC | Alanine decarboxylase |
| Alt3 | Alternative 3' splice site |
| Alt5 | Alternative 5' splice site |
| AMADH | Aminoaldehyde dehydrogenase |
| AMY | $\alpha$-amylase |
|  |  |


| ANN | Annexin |
| :--- | :--- |
| ANR | Anthocyanidin reductase |
| ANS | Anthocyanidin synthase |
| AOC | Allene oxide cyclase |
| AOs | Apoplastic ascorbate oxidase |
| AOS1 | Allene oxide synthase 1 |
| AP2 | Apetala2 |
| AP2/ERF | Ethylene-responsive transcription factors |
| APCI | Atmospheric pressure chemical ionization |
| APS | Aspartic proteases |
| APX | Ascorbate peroxidase |
| APX1 | Cytosolic ascorbate peroxidase 1 |
| AREBs | Abre-binding proteins |
| ARF | Auxin responsive factor |
| AS | Alternative splicing |
| AsA | Ascorbic acid |
| ASEGs | Allele-specific expression genes |
| ASMT | 5-serotonin-N-acetyltransferase |
| AsODN | Antisense oligodeoxynucleotide |
| Asp | Aspartic acid |
| ATAC-seq | Assay for transposase accessible chromatin with high- |
|  | throughput sequencing |
| B | Boron element |
| Ba | Barium |
| BADHs | Betaine aldehyde dehydrogenases |
| BAM | B-amylase |
| BDL | Below detectable limit |
| BE | Base editors |
| bHLH | Basic helix-loop-helix |
| BIN2 | Brassinosteroid insensitive 2 |
| BLC | Bud leaf color |
| BM | Bud mutation |
| BR | Brassinosteroid |
| BRI | Belt and Road Initiative |
| BRR | Bayesian ridge regression |
| BSP | Bisulfite treatment includes bisulfite sequencing PCR |
| BSR-Seq | Bulked segregant RNA-sequence |
| bZIP | Basic leucine zipper |
| C | (-)-catechin |
| C4H | Cinnamic acid 4-hydroxylase |
| Ca | Calcium element |
| CA | Cold acclimation |
| CA MTA | CaM-binding transcription activator |
| CAF | Caffeine |
| CALS3 | Callose synthase 3 |
|  |  |
| AF |  |


| CaMs | Calmodulins |
| :---: | :---: |
| CAPS | Cleaved amplified polymorphic sequences |
| Cas | CRISPR-associated |
| CAT | Catalase |
| CBE | Cytosine base editor |
| CBF | C-repeat/DRE-binding factor |
| CBFs | C-repeat binding factors |
| CBLs | Calcineurin B-like proteins |
| CBPs | $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$-binding proteins |
| CCaMK | $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+} / \mathrm{CaM}$-dependent protein kinase |
| CCoAOMT | Caffeoyl-CoA O-methyltransferase |
| CDPKs | $\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}$-dependent protein kinases |
| CDPs | Catechin-derived peptides |
| CE-MS | Capillary electrophoresis-mass spectroscopy |
| CGIR | Chloroplast Genome Information Resource |
| CH | Controlled hybridized progenies |
| CHI | Chalcone isomerase |
| CHS | Chalcone synthase |
| CHXB | $\beta$-carotene hydroxylase |
| CI | Chemical ionization |
| CK | Cytokinin |
| CLR | Continuous long reads |
| CMLs | CaM-like proteins |
| CMT3 | Chromomethylase 3 |
| CNGCs | Cyclic nucleotide-gated channels |
| Co | Cobalt element |
| COLD1 | Chilling tolerance divergence 1 |
| COS | Chitosan oligosaccharide |
| CPD | Cytochrome P450 90A1 |
| Cr | Chromium element |
| CRE1 | Cytokinin receptor 1 |
| CRISPR | Clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats |
| CSA | C. sinensis var. assamica |
| CSD4 | $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{Zn}$-Superoxide dismutases4 |
| CSDs | $\mathrm{Cu} / \mathrm{Zn}$-SODs |
| CSS | C. sinensis var. sinensis |
| CTD | C-terminal dimerization domain |
| CTR | Copper transporter |
| Cu | Copper element |
| CuAO | Amine oxidase |
| DA | De-acclimated |
| DAO | Diamine oxidase |
| DBD | DNA-binding domain |
| DCA | 3,5-dichloroanthranilic acid |
| DCAPS | Derived cleaved amplified polymorphic sequences |


| DCL | Dicer-like |
| :--- | :--- |
| DEGs | Differentially expressed genes |
| DE-lncRNAs | Differentially expressed long ncRNAs |
| DEMs | Differentially expressed metabolites |
| DEPs | Differentially expressed proteins |
| DFR | Dihydroflavonol-4-reductase |
| DGE | Digital gene expression |
| DHAR | Dehydroascorbate reductase |
| DIA | Data-independent acquisition |
| DMNT | $\alpha$-farnesene, $\beta$-Ocimene and (E)-4,8-dimethyl-1,3,7-nonatriene |
| DMTase | DNA demethylase |
| DNA | Deoxyribonucleic acid |
| Dof | DNA binding with one finger |
| DPE2 | Disproportionating enzyme 2 |
| DREBs | Dehydration-responsive element-binding proteins |
| DRM2 | Domains rearranged methylase 2 |
| DSBs | Double-strand breaks |
| DSGs | Differentially spliced genes |
| dsRNA | Double-strand RNA |
| DTBIA | Direct tissue blot immunoassay |
| DUS | Distinctness, uniformity, and stability |
| DXS1 | 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate synthase 1 |
| EC | (-)-epicatechin |
| ECG | (-)-epicatechin gallate |
| ECP | Enzymatic-catalyzed processes |
| EGC | (-)-epigallocatechin |
| EGCG | (-)-epigallocatechin gallate |
| EI | Electron ionization |
| ELISA | Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay |
| ENCODE | Encyclopedia of DNA elements |
| EPSFs | N-ethyl-2-pyrrolidinone-substituted flavan-3-ols |
| ER | Endoplasmic reticulum |
| EREB | Ethylene responsive element binding factor |
| ERF | Ethylene responsive factor |
| ES | Exon skipping |
| ESI | Electrospray ionization |
| EST | Expressed sequence tags |
| EST-SSR | Expressed sequence tag simple sequence repeat |
| ET | Ethylene |
| ETI | Effector-triggered immunity |
| eTMs | Endogenous target mimics |
| F $_{1}$ | Filial 1 |
| F3',5'H | Flavonoid 3', $5^{\prime}$-hydroxylase |
| F3H | Free amino acids |
| FAAs |  |


| FAIMS | Field asymmetric waveform ion mobility spectrometry |
| :--- | :--- |
| Fe | Iron element |
| FL | Flowers |
| FLS | Flavonoid synthase |
| FR | Young fruits |
| FRK | Fructokinase |
| FSDs | Fe-SODs |
| FST | F-statistic |
| FT | Fourier transform |
| FT-ICR-MS | Fourier transform on cyclotron resonance mass spectroscopy |
| GA | Gibberellic acid |
| GA20ox | GA 20-oxidase |
| GA2ox | GA 2-oxidases |
| GA2ox8 | Gibberellin 2-oxidase 8 |
| GA3ox | GA 3-oxidase |
| GABA | Gamma amino butyric acid |
| GAD | Glutamate decarboxylase |
| GAI | Gibberellin-insensitive |
| Gb | Gigabyte |
| GB | Glycine betaine |
| GBLUP | Genomic best linear unbiased prediction |
| GBS | Genotyping-by-sequencing |
| GC | (-)-gallocatechin |
| GCG | (-)-gallocatechin-3-gallate |
| GC-IMS | Gas chromatography-ion mobility spectrometry |
| GC-MS | Gas chromatography-mass spectroscopy |
| GCN | Gene coexpression networks |
| GC-O | GC-Olfactometry |
| GCs | Galloylated catechins |
| GDP | Gross domestic product |
| GEBVs | Genomic estimated breeding values |
| GLM | General linear model |
| Glu | Glutamate |
| GLVs | Green leaf volatiles |
| GolS | Galactinol synthase |
| GOPX | Guaiacol peroxidase |
| GP | Genomic predictions |
| GPX | Glutathione peroxidase |
| GR | Glutathione reductase |
| GRF1, 4, and 13 | Growth-regulating factors 1, 4, and 13 |
| GRX | Glutaredoxin |
| GS | Glutamine synthetase |
| GS FLX | Genome sequencer FLX system |
| GSH | GST |


| GWAS | Genome-wide association studies |
| :--- | :--- |
| GWD | Glucan water dikinase |
| H | Heterozygosity |
| HAPs | Heme activator proteins |
| hc-siRNAs | Heterochromatic small interfering RNAs |
| HD | Heat-drought combined |
| HDAC19 | Histone deacetylase 19 |
| HDMF | 4-hydroxy-2,5-dimethylfuran-3(2H)-one |
| HDR | Homology-directed repair |
| HD-ZIP III | Homeodomain-leucine zipper III |
| HESO1 | Hen1 suppressor 1 |
| HGT | Horizontal gene transfer |
| Hi-C | High-throughput chromosomal conformation capture |
| HILIC | Hydrophilic interaction chromatography |
| HIPVs | Herbivore-induced plant volatiles |
| HPL | Hydroperoxide lyase |
| HPLC | High performance liquid chromatography |
| HR | Hypersensitive response |
| HR-MS | High-resolution mass spectrometry |
| Hsf | Heat stress factors |
| HT | Heat |
| HTH | Helical-turned-helical |
| HXK | Hexokinase |
| HYL1 | Hyponastic leaves 1 |
| IAA | Indole-3-acetic acid |
| IBA | Indobutyrate |
| ICR | Ion cyclotron resonance |
| IGAE | Information gain attribute evaluation |
| ILP | Intron length polymorphic |
| IM-MS | Ion mobility mass spectrometry |
| InDel | Small insertion/deletion |
| INV | Invertase |
| IR | Intron retention |
| ISA3 | Isoamylase |
| ISSR | Inter-simple sequence repeat |
| iTRAQ | Isobaric tag for relative and absolute quantitation |
| JA | Jasmonic acid |
| JAZ | Jasmonate Zim-domain |
| JMT | Jasmonic acid carboxyl methyltransferase gene |
| K | Potassium element |
| KASP | Kompetitive allele-specific polymerase chain reaction |
| KOR2 | K PLUS_SPI outward-rectifying channel 2 |
| KPIs | Kunitz-type protease inhibitors |
| Kub | Lysine ubiquitinated |
| LAC | Haccase |


| L-APX | L-ascorbate peroxidase |
| :--- | :--- |
| LAR | Leucoanthocyanidin reductase |
| LC-MS | Liquid-chromatography mass spectroscopy |
| LD | Linkage disequilibrium |
| LGs | Linkage groups |
| LIS1 | Linalool synthase |
| LLE | Liquid-liquid extraction |
| lncRNAs | Long ncRNAs |
| LOX | Lipoxygenase |
| LP | Landraces or old tea seedling population |
| LRR-RLKs | Leucine-rich repeat receptor-like protein kinases |
| LSC | Large single copy |
| LTR | Long terminal repeat |
| MALDI | Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization |
| MAPK | Mitogen-activated protein kinase |
| MAS | Marker-assisted selection |
| MCS | Multi-cloning site |
| MDHAR | Monodehydroascorbate reductase |
| MeDIP | Methylated DNA immunoprecipitation |
| MeDIP-seq | Methylated DNA immunoprecipitation coupled with sequencing |
| MeJA | Methyl jasmonate |
| MEP | Methylerythritol phosphate |
| MeSA | Methyl salicylate |
| MEX1 | Maltose excess1 |
| Mg | Magnesium element |
| mg/g | Milligrams per gram |
| mg/kg | Milligrams per kilogram |
| miRISC | RNA-induced silencing complex |
| miRNA | MicroRNA |
| MITEs | Miniature inverted-repeat transposable elements |
| ML | Mature leaves |
| MLC | Mature leaf colors |
| MLS | Mature leaf shapes |
| MLT | Mature leaf texture |
| MLZ | Mature leaf size |
| Mn | Manganese element |
| MPSS | Massively parallel signature sequencing |
| MR | Middle region |
| MS | Mass spectrometry |
| MSAPs | Methylation-sensitive amplification polymorphisms |
| MSD | Mn-SOD |
| MST | Monosaccharide transporter |
| MVA | Mevalonic acid |
| Mya | Milon ago |
| MYB | N |


| NADP-ME | Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate-dependent <br> malic enzyme |
| :--- | :--- |
| NBS-LRR | Nucleotide-binding site with leucine-rich repeat |
| NCED | 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase |
| ncRNAs | Non-coding RNAs |
| NES | Nerolidol synthase |
| NFY | Nuclear transcription factor Y |
| NF-Y | Nuclear factor Y |
| NGCs | Nongalloylated catechins |
| NGDC | National Genomics Data Center |
| NGS | Next-generation sequencing |
| NHEJ | Non-homologous end-joining pathway |
| Ni | Nickel element |
| NLRs | Leucine-rich repeat receptors |
| NLS | Nuclear localization signal |
| NMR | Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy |
| NMT | N-methyltransferases |
| NO | Nitric oxide |
| NSC | Nonstructural carbohydrates |
| OAVs | Odor activity values |
| OL | Old leaves |
| ONT | Oxford nanopore technologies |
| OP | Open pollinated progenies |
| OP/INT | Open pollinated seeds introduced from other countries |
| OS2 | B-Ocimene synthase |
| OTV | Off-target variants |
| P | Phosphorus element |
| P5CR | Pyrroline 5-carboxylate reductase |
| P5CS | Pyrroline 5-carboxylate synthetase |
| PAL | Phenylalanine ammonia lyase |
| PAMPs | Pathogen-associated molecular patterns |
| PAO | Polyamine oxidase |
| PBR | Plant breeder's rights |
| PCA | Principal component analysis |
| PCD | Host-programmed cell death |
| PCR | Polymerase chain reaction |
| PCS1 | Phytochelatin synthase |
| PD | P-Primeverosidase |
| PE | Prime editor |
| PEG | Polyethylene glycol |
| PGC | Porous graphitic carbon |
| phyB | Phytochrome B |
| PIC | PIR |


| PLD | Phospholipase D |
| :---: | :---: |
| PLS-DA | Correlation analysis, partial least squares-discriminant analysis |
| POD | Peroxidase |
| Pol II | RNA polymerase II |
| POX | Peroxidase |
| PP2C | 2C protein phosphatase |
| PPO | Polyphenol oxidase |
| PR | Pathogenesis-related |
| pre-mRNA | Precursor mRNA |
| pri-miRNAs | Primary miRNAs |
| Pro | Proline |
| PRRs | Pattern recognition receptors |
| PrxR | Peroxiredoxin |
| PSY1 | Phytoene synthase 1 |
| PTI | Pathogen-associated molecular patterns-triggered immunity |
| PTMs | Posttranslational modifications |
| PVP | Plant varieties protection |
| PWD | Phosphoglucan water dikinase |
| QC | Quality control |
| QTL | Quantitative trait loci |
| RAD-seq | Restriction-site associated DNA sequencing |
| RAPD | Random amplified polymorphic DNA |
| RdDM | RNA-directed DNA methylation |
| RDRs | RNA-dependent RNA polymerases |
| RGA | Repressor of gal-3 |
| RGA1 | G-protein $\alpha$ subunit 1 |
| RICE1 | Risc-interacting clearing 3'-5' exoribonuclease 1 |
| RISC | RNA-induced silencing complex |
| RLK-LRR | Receptor-like kinases with LRR domain |
| RLM | RNA ligase-mediated |
| RM | Radiation mutation |
| RNA-seq | RNA sequencing |
| ROS | Reactive oxygen species |
| RP | Reversed-phase |
| RS | Raffinose synthase |
| RT | Tender roots |
| RT-LAMP | Reverse transcription loop-mediated isothermal amplification |
| RT-qPCR | Real-time quantitative PCR |
| RWC | Relative water content |
| S | Sodium element |
| SA | Salicylic acid |
| SAGE | Serial analysis of gene expression |
| SAMT | Salicylic acid carboxyl methyltransferase |
| SBP | S-RNase binding protein |
| SCL | Scarecrow-like |
| SCoT | Start codon targeted |


| SCPL | Serine carboxypeptidase-like |
| :---: | :---: |
| scRNA-seq | Single-cell RNA sequencing |
| SCT | Sum of caffeine and theobromine |
| SCX | Strong cation exchange |
| Se | Selenium element |
| SE | Serrate |
| Sect. Thea | Section Theaceae |
| SEX4 | Phosphoglucan phosphatase starch excess 4 |
| SHH1 | Sawadee homeodomain homologue 1 |
| siRNA | Small interfering RNA |
| SKI2 | Superkiller2 |
| SKOR2 | Stelar K ${ }^{+}$outward rectifier |
| SLAF seq | Specific location amplified fragment sequencing |
| SLE | Solid-liquid extraction |
| SM | Secondary metabolite |
| SMRT | Single-molecule real-time sequencing |
| SNAT | Serotonin-N-acetyltransferase |
| SNP | Single nucleotide polymorphism |
| SnRK1 | Suc-nonfermenting1-related protein kinase 1 |
| SOD | Superoxide dismutase |
| SOS | Salt-overly-sensitive |
| SP | Self-pollinated progenies |
| SPE | Solid-phase extraction |
| SPL-3 | Squamosa promoter-binding-like protein |
| SPP | Sucrose phosphate phosphatase |
| SPS | Sucrose-phosphate synthase |
| SqRT-PCR | Semi-quantitative reverse PCR |
| SRAP | Sequence-related amplified polymorphism |
| SS | Phosphorylases, limit dextrinase, starch synthase |
| SSC | Small single copy |
| SSR | Simple sequence repeat |
| ssRNA | Single-strand RNA |
| ST | Young stems |
| STK1 | Ser/Thr-protein kinase |
| SUS | Sucrose synthase |
| SUT | Suc transporter |
| SVM-FS | Support vector machine feature selection |
| T2T | Telomere-to-telomere |
| T5H | Tryptophan hydroxylase |
| TALENs | Transcription activator-like effector nucleases |
| TBCs | Tea bioactive compounds |
| TBF | Timing of spring bud flush |
| TBR | Theobromine |
| TBs | Theabrownin |
| TC | Total catechins |
| TCS1 | Tea caffeine synthase 1 |


| TDC | Tryptophan decarboxylase |
| :--- | :--- |
| TF | Transcription factor |
| TFs | Theaflavins |
| Thea | Theanine |
| TI | Terpene index |
| Ti | Titanium element |
| TIC | Total ion chromatogram |
| TLP | Thaumatin-like proteins |
| TMT | Tandem mass tag |
| TMV | Tobacco mosaic virus |
| TOF | Time of flight |
| TOF-MS | Time-of-flight mass spectroscopy |
| TPP | Trehalose-6-phosphate phosphatase |
| TPs | Tea polyphenols |
| TPS | Trehalose-6-phosphate synthase |
| TRAP | Target region amplified polymorphism |
| TRIC | Trihydroxylated catechin |
| TRs | Thearubigin |
| TRV | Tobacco rattle virus |
| TS | Theanine synthetase |
| TSA | Tryptophan synthase $\alpha$-subunit |
| TSB2 | Tryptophan synthase $\beta$-subunit |
| UDP | Uridine diphosphate |
| UGT | UDP-glycosyltransferases |
| UGT85A53 | Uridine diphosphate-glucosyltransferase |
| UHPLC | Ultra-high pressure liquid chromatography |
| UHRMS | Ultra-high resolution mass spectrometry |
| UPS | Ubiquitin-26S proteasome system |
| URT1 | Uridylyl transferase 1 |
| UTRs | Uninc-finger nucleases technology |
| VIGS | Untranslated regions |
| VOCs | Virus-induced gene silencing |
| VTs | Volatile organic compounds |
| WES | Volatile terpenes |
| WGBS | Whole-exome sequencing |
| WGCNA | Whole-genome bisulfite sequencing |
| WGD | Weighted gene co-expression network analysis |
| WGRS | Whole-genome duplication |
| WGS | Whole-genome re-sequencing |
| WOX | Whole genome sequencing |
| YL | Wuschel-related homeobox |
| ZA | Young leaves |
| ZEP | Zeatin |
| Zn | Zeanthin epoxidase |
|  |  |

# Chapter 1 <br> Tea Plant: A Millennia-Old Cash Crop for a Healthy and Happy Life Worldwide 

Chang-Jian Pan, Xu-Lin Yang, and Liang Chen

### 1.1 Introduction

As an ancient crop, the tea plant has a long history and diverse cultural backgrounds. Tea is a popular drink with rich nutritional health benefits that bring many advantages worldwide. This section introduces the origin and spread of tea plants and then provides an analyses of the current situation of the global tea industry, including planting, production, and trade, and the importance of the tea industry to life and international exchange of tea.

### 1.2 The Center of Origin and Dissemination of Tea Plants

There is great interest in the scientific issues related to the origin and birthplace of the tea plant, and the origins of the tea plant have been explored from many historical sources and its geological heritage. The overall consensus is that the tea plants was discovered long ago and has been utilized for thousands of years. The home of the tea plant is the southwestern region of China, specifically Yunnan province.

[^1][^2]
### 1.2.1 The Origins of Tea Plants

Origin is the natural process from zero to one. Evolution is the process from less to more and from simple to complicated. It is a challenge to explore the origin of tea plants. Historical traces and evidence do however provide substantial support for the origin of tea plants, allowing people to understand and explore it in depth and from various perspectives. With the continuous development of scientific technology, this question has gradually received scientific conclusions (Chen and Yang 2011).

According to Chen (1994), tea plants evolved from Camellia species, and Camellia sinensis appeared 40 million years ago. Analysis by botanists found that the origin of tea plants was $60-70$ million years ago (Yao and Chen 2012).

The origin of tea plant is the distribution area before its domestication. There is more evidence to support the claim that the tea plant originated in China than the claim of Indian origin (CTSS 2022). Some scientists believe it is the same as the original center. The origination of tea plants from China has been acknowledged as being the case for a long period of time. A dispute was raised after a so-called wild tea plant was found to have originated from India in 1824. Actually, there are no real "wild tea plants" in Assam, India. A renowned taxonomist, Chang (1981), reported that, following careful investigation, the tea plant in India was the same as the widely distributed and cultivated large leaf tea plants in Yunnan province, China.

Tea plants originated from China. Only, there are different views about the actual origination center. A world-famous taxonomist of Theaceae and other families, Chang (1981), reported that over $90 \%$ of the genus Camellia species distributed in the southwest and south of China, centered on the Tropic of Cancer along Yunnan, Guangxi and Guangdong provinces, the adjacent area of Yunnan, Guangxi, and Guizhou provinces. So, this adjacent area is considered the original center for the genus Camellia species. Wild tea plants were first discovered in Yunnan Province in southwestern China, where abundant and diverse wild tea plants were found growing in the primeval forest (Yu 1986). Yu also found that Yunnan is the origin of tea plants according to the results of tea germplasm investigation, the theory of species origin, the quantity of species, the discovery of new species, the regularity of horizontal and vertical species distribution, and the morphological characterization of species in Sect. Thea (L.) Dyer in Yunnan. Yu further indicated that the long-narrow region of Wenshan and Honghe cities (southeast of Yunnan, China), located at $22^{\circ} 40^{\prime}-24^{\circ} 10^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 103^{\circ} 10^{\prime}-105^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$, is the original center for tea plants, based on the geological history and concentrated distribution of primitive species of sect. Thea in the southeast of Yunnan, China. Another famous taxonomist of Theaceae, Min (2000), pointed out the Sect. Thea is evolved from sect. Archecamellia Sealy. The subtropical limestone area of southeast of Yunnan, west of Guangxi, and southwest of Guizhou is the original center of Sect. Thea plants. In further studies, Yunnan is believed to be the original center of tea plants, based on Yunnan having high levels of species diversity of tea plants (wide distribution of tea plants and its wild related species) (Chang 1981; Yu 1986; Min 2000); high levels of phenotypic diversity (Yu 1986); Chinese Tea Encyclopedia shows that China possesses the largest number of
wild tea plants and the richest genetic diversity of tea germplasm resources, and southwestern China has the most Camellia plants. Among them, Yunnan tea plants [Camellia L. Sect. Thea (L.) Dyer] have the most species, the richest variants, and the closest affinity to Camellia spp. (Chen and Yang 2011). Yunnan tea plants also exhibit high levels of biochemical component diversity (Jin et al. 2014), high levels of DNA genetic diversity (Yao et al. 2012), and, in particular, whole genome level diversity (Wang et al. 2020).

In conclusion, the southwest of China, specifically Yunnan, is the original center of tea plants.

### 1.2.2 The Dissemination from the Origin to the Rest of the World

The spreading of tea plants includes the spreading from the original center Yunnan to other tea-growing places in China, the dissemination from China worldwide, and the spread of tea from China to the world.

### 1.2.2.1 From the Origin to the Other Parts of China

Chemical experiments and DNA marker tests have demonstrated transmission routes from Yunnan province, Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, and other teagrowing regions in China. Yao et al. (2012) used simple sequence repeat (SSR) DNA markers to analyze the genetic diversity of 450 accessions of Chinese core tea germplasms. The genetic diversity $(H)$ and polymorphic information content (PIC) decrease as the distance from the center of origin (Yunnan province and the neighboring Guangxi) toward the north and east regions increases. Lower allele numbers, $H$ and PIC, are observed as being farther away from Yunnan and Guangxi provinces.

The ratio of linalool and geraniol (terpene index, $\left.T I=\frac{(\text { Linalool }+ \text { Linalool oxides })}{(\text { Linalool }+ \text { Linalool oxides })+\text { Geraniol }}\right)$ in tea volatiles was used to explain the origin and dispersion of tea plants (Tadakazu et al. 1992). The tea plants growing in Yunnan province, which is proposed as the original center of tea plants, had a TI of near 1.0, and the TI of tea plants in the rest of China decreased gradually from near 1.0 in Yunnan to very low in the east of China. They proposed four possible dispersion routes of tea plants from Yunnan to other parts of China: (1) spreading along the sea, from Yunnan to Guangxi, Guangdong, Fujian to Zhejiang, (2) dispersing from Yunnan via Sichuan to Shaanxi, (3) spreading from Yunnan, via Sichuan, Hubei, to Anhui and Jiangsu along the Yangtze River, and (4) dispersing from Yunnan via Sichuan to Guizhou, Hunan, Jiangxi, and Zhejiang.

The path of the spread of tea plants from southwestern regions to Jiangxi, Zhejiang, and Fujian provinces can also be corroborated from the perspective of
historical and cultural transmission. In this process, Taoism and Buddhism played an important role in the spread. According to the Chinese Tea Encyclopedia, Taoist priests and monks brought tea from Yunnan to Sichuan and Jiangxi among other places.

### 1.2.2.2 From China to the Rest of World

Chinese tea planting techniques and tea processing technologies have gradually spread to other parts of the world. From China, the tea plants spread to other Asian countries, as well as to Africa, Europe, and the Americas, and adapted to local climatic and soil conditions, developing distinctive varieties of tea. During the Sui dynasty in China, tea was introduced to Japan by Buddhist monks. Tea use spread during the sixth century AD (Kiple and Ornelas 2000). During the twentieth century, tea plants and the production technology were distributed to Africa and other parts of Asia, such as Guinea, Mail, Algeria, Pakistan, etc., by the Chinese government (Chen and Yang 2011; Ma and Chen 2018). The main force and channel through which the tea plant spread to other countries and regions, besides royalty and religion, was via ancient traders. They brought tea seeds and tea, ceramics and silk, etc., to other countries in the world along the land-based and also sea-based Silk Road.

### 1.3 The Worldwide Tea Industry

The tea industry is a global industry, and many countries or regions have been involved in tea planting, production, and trade, and even some countries or regions that have never planted tea before have begun to develop a tea industry. The tea industry occupies an important position in the economy of some countries and has also become an important link for socioeconomic cooperation among the countries concerned. The tea industry has an important role to play in the global socioeconomic development of quality.

### 1.3.1 Global Tea Planting and Production

To 2022, the world's tea plantation area reached 5318 kilo-hectare. According to the Annual Bulletin of International Tea Committee (ITC 2023), the top ten countries and regions with the largest tea planting areas in 2022 were China (Mainland), India, Kenya, Sri Lanka, Vietnam, Indonesia, Myanmar, Turkey, Bangladesh, and Uganda, accounting for $94.19 \%$ of the world's tea acreage (Fig. 1.1).

To 2022, total global tea production reached 6477 kilotons, an increase of 1456 kilotons compared to 2013. The top ten countries and regions of tea production in


Fig. 1.1 Top ten countries and regions of tea plantation in 2022 (kilo-hectare). (Data source: Annual Bulletin of International Tea Committee 2023)

2022 were China (Mainland), India, Kenya, Sri Lanka, Turkey, Vietnam, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Uganda, and Argentina (see Fig. 1.2).

The countries and regions of the world producing tea were mainly in Asia and Africa. Tea production and its share in each continent are shown in Fig. 1.3. Asian countries are the major players and contributors to the global tea industry. The major tea-producing countries and regions in Asia include China, India, and Sri Lanka. China is the home of tea and has vast tea-producing regions. Major tea-producing provinces include Fujian, Zhejiang, Anhui, Yunnan, Guizhou, Sichuan, and Hubei. India is the second largest tea producer in the world, with major producing areas including Assam, Darjeeling, Kangra, and Nilgiris. Sri Lanka is an important tea exporting country, with the main producing areas located in the central highland and southern inland areas of the island. Bangladesh is located in the South Asian subcontinent, neighboring Myanmar and India. The country produces mainly black tea and, to a lesser extent, green tea in Moulvibazar and Habiganj which are the main producing areas. Turkey is now one of the most important tea producers in the world; all tea gardens in Turkey are established through seedlings and show great heterogeneity. The tea industry in Turkey consists of black tea production and a small amount of green tea, mixed with some fruits. In addition, tea improvement activities which concentrate on clonal selection to decrease seedling populations


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