Research Article
An Improved Method of Theabrownins Extraction and Detection in Six Major Types of Tea (Camellia sinensis)

Tzan-Chain Lee 1,2 Qian-Nan Zang 1, Kuan-Hung Lin 1, Hua-Lian Hu 1, Ping-Yuan Lu 1, Jing-Yao Zhang 1, Chun-Qin Kang 1, Yan-Jie Li 4 and Tzu-Hsing Ko 5

1 Department of Tea Science, Anxi College of Tea Sciences, Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University, Fuzhou 350002, China
2 Department of Foods and Pharmaceutical Engineering, Wuzhou University, Wuzhou 543002, Guangxi, China
3 Faculty of Applied Sciences, Ton Duc Thang University, Ho Chi Minh 700000, Vietnam
4 Department of Horticulture, Guangxi University, Nanning 530004, Guangxi, China
5 Fujian Provincial University Key Laboratory of Green Energy and Environment Catalysts, College of Chemistry and Materials, Ningde Normal University, Ningde, Fujian 352100, China

Correspondence should be addressed to Tzu-Hsing Ko; hsingko@gmail.com

Received 13 July 2022; Revised 17 August 2022; Accepted 20 August 2022; Published 27 September 2022

Academic Editor: Marwa Fayed

Copyright © 2022 Tzan-Chain Lee et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Tea pigments consisting of theabrownins (TBs), theaflavins (TFs), and thearubigins (TRs) affect the color and taste of tea. TBs include a variety of water-soluble compounds, but do not dissolve in n-butanol and ethyl acetate. Previously, the traditional method of TB extraction only mixed tea with n-butanol, and TBs were retained in the water phase. However, without ethyl acetate extraction, TFs and TRs remained in the water phase and affected the detection of TB content. Although an improved method had been devised by adding an ethyl acetate extraction step between tea production and n-butanol extraction, the proportional equation for calculating TB content (%) was not yet developed. In this study, we compared the absorbance at 380 nm ($A_{380}$) of TB solutions from six major types of tea (green, yellow, oolong, white, black, and dark teas) extracted by improved and traditional methods from the same tea samples. Significantly lower $A_{380}$ values were obtained from TB solutions via the improved method compared to the traditional method for six major types of tea, and the highest and lowest slopes in TB concentrations from $A_{380}$ analyses were from dark tea and green tea, respectively. Moreover, newly developed equations for TB content in those six tea types extracted by the improved methods were also established.

1. Introduction

Tea is either prepared by infusion or decoction of Camellia sinensis dried leaves, which are classified into six major types (green, oolong (or cyan), black, white, yellow, and dark) based on the manufacturing process. Both black and oolong teas are two kinds of aerated tea leaves. After plucking, these fresh leaves are processed by withering, rolling, aeration, and then inactivation by drying (Figure 1(a)). During the aeration process, polyphenols are oxidized by endogenous enzymes such as polyphenol oxidase and peroxidase, thus producing many oxidative compounds. Polyphenol oxidation results in the pigment’s dynamic transition into tea pigments that include TFs, TRs, and TBs [1, 2]. The relationship among TFs, TRs, and TBs is shown in Supplementary Figure 1. The transition induces color changes in tea leaves ranging from green to red brown [3]. All the pigments affect the color and flavor of liquid tea [3–7]. TBs give tea leaves a brown color and can be formed by TFs or TRs oxidation or polyphenol aggregation with other sugars and acidic compounds [8, 9]. The leaves of oolong tea are green with red edges (Figure 1(b)III) due to the formation and accumulation of oxidized polyphenols from leaf margins during the aeration process. As the aeration period proceeds, the surfaces of all tea leaves become reddish brown (Figure 1(b)I) and black tea leaves are produced. Therefore,
oolong tea is “semioxidized” tea, and black tea is “fully oxidized” tea [10]. White tea is obtained by only withering and drying, as more prolonged withering leads to a severe water deficiency that induces membrane disintegration and polyphenol oxidation by endogenous enzymes. In addition, white tea can be stored for a long time, during which chemical reactions such as catechin and amino acid oxidation can occur that induce better flavor and taste (more sweetness and smoothness) and more health benefits [11–13].

The objective of our study was to “improve” (Figure 2) the abovementioned “traditional” method by adding an ethyl acetate extraction step between liquid tea production and n-butanol extraction. Moreover, our method’s new equations for the TB content (%) of the six major types of tea extraction had different absorbance values at 380 nm ($A_{380}$) and slope compared to black tea analyses by the traditional method.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Samples. The six major types of tea samples obtained are listed in Table 1. All were purchased from local tea markets located in Anxi, Fujian Province, Dali, Yunnan Province, and Chongqing City, China. Each tea sample was ground into tea powder using a grinder (Joyoung Co., Shandong, China) and then stored in sealed cans until analysis.

2.2. Preparation of Liquid Tea Samples. Boiling distilled and deionized water (d.d. H$_2$O; 125 mL) was added to 3.0 grams of tea powder in a 250 mL conical flask and shaken in a water bath at 90°C for 10 min. The liquid tea was then centrifuged at 1,800 × g for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was diluted to 125 mL with d.d. H$_2$O and then divided into two aliquots, one for TB extraction by the traditional method and the other by our improved method (Figure 2).

2.3. TB Extraction. The traditional method was based on Yao et al. [33] and Roberts and Smith [35, 36], with a few modifications. Briefly, 25 mL of tea solution was extracted with the same volume of n-butanol (Xilong Scientific Co., Guangdong, China) and shaken for 3 min. The lower layer of the solution was then centrifuged at 1,800 × g for 10 min at 4°C. Two mL of the supernatant was then mixed with 2 mL of saturated (10.2%) oxalic acid (SINOPHARM Co., Shanghai,
2.4. Moisture. Moisture in the tea powder was measured using a vacuum oven according to an international standard method (ISO1573 (BS6049-2), 1980).

2.5. Data Analysis. Paired data with $A_{380}$ values of both traditional and improved methods were subjected to paired $t$-tests using Microsoft Excel 2019. TB contents (%) are presented as mean values ± standard deviations (SD) of twelve independent sets of experiments with similar results. Paired $t$-tests were calculated with high significance at $p \leq 0.01$ using SPSS version 23.0 (SPSS, Chicago, USA). Linear equations were established by regression analysis between $A_{380}$ measurements and TB concentrations of the six tea types using SigmaPlot ver. 12.5 (SYSTAT Software, San Jose, CA).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Comparisons of TB Extractions between Traditional and Improved Methods. Figure 3 illustrates $A_{380}$ values from TB solutions extracted by traditional and improved methods. Readings from the improved method were significantly lower (around 80–90%) compared to the traditional method in all six tea types, indicating that ethyl acetate extraction removes TFs and portions of TRs from liquid tea [33] and decreases TB $A_{380}$ values. TB compositions were different between these extraction methods, and revised parameters for the improved method should therefore be established.

After plucking, yellow, green, and dark tea leaves are first fixed by steaming or pan-frying (Figure 1(a)) to inactivate all endogenous enzymes. Green tea is produced after rolling and drying. Yellow tea is obtained when tea leaves are kept wet and under high temperatures for 6 to 12 h (Figure 1(a)) between fixing and drying, during which chlorophylls are degraded and polyphenols are auto-oxidized. Dark tea is harvested after leaves have been kept wet and microorganisms grow on their surfaces for many days between fixing and drying (Figure 1(a)). During this piling process, microbes (mainly Aspergillus fumigatus, Aspergillus Niger, and Saccharomyces cerevisiae) secrete many enzymes to induce polyphenol oxidation, cell wall degradation, and fermentation [14–17]. TB content increases during dark tea processing [18], and the leaves become dark brown (Figure 1(b)).

Similar plant secondary metabolites can reduce the risk of age-related chronic diseases and promote health benefits [19, 20]. TBs have physiological functions such as reducing blood lipid and blood sugar levels [21–23]; controlling of diabetes mellitus [24]; attenuation of hypercholesterolemia [25, 26]; reducing serum levels of total cholesterol, low-density cholesterol, and triglycerides [27]; and osteoclastogenesis suppression and prevention of bone loss [28], together with inhibition of cell cycling and tumor cell growth [29]. In addition, TB content is a positive parameter in evaluating fragrance and flavor in dark tea and white tea [9, 18, 30, 31]. Zhu et al. [32] and Cheng et al. [18] reported that stringent taste levels were decreased and stale and fungal aromas increased with TB content. Furthermore, dark tea and white tea leaves can be stored for a long time, and longer storage times result in higher TB content [14]. In contrast, during storage, an increased TB content worsens tea quality in both black tea and oolong tea due to the loss of aroma and sweetness molecules [5, 7, 33]. Therefore, TB content may be an objective measure of tea quality [34]. Yao et al. [33] combined three methods [35–37] to analyze TF, TR, and TB contents and constructed a “traditional” method of TB extraction (Figure 2). However, TBs are defined as a variety of water-soluble compounds but are not dissolved in n-butanol and ethyl acetate [22, 27]. In the traditional method, without ethyl acetate extraction, TFs or TRs would be retained in the TB layer solution and thus affect the accuracy of TB content analysis, because $A_{380}$ is detected from TF, TR, and TB solutions. In addition, the TB equation was based on black tea samples extracted from the traditional method [33, 35, 36]. Whether the slope parameter of the black tea equation is the same as other types of tea remains unknown.

3.2. Equations Established for the Improved Method. The traditional method’s empirical equation for determining TB content (%) is $[21.18 \times 2 \times A_{380} \times 100%]/w$ (1-M), where "w" stands for the weight (in grams) of tea sample powder and 21.18 is the inverse slope of $A_{380}$ based on black tea [33, 35, 36]. In our study, six major types of tea were extracted by the improved method, their solutions were freeze-dried, and TB powder was collected. After TB
powders were dissolved in d.d. H₂O, different A₃₈₀ values were observed from the samples. Figure 4 shows that A₃₈₀ values were significantly (p < 0.0001) and positively correlated with the TB concentrations of green tea (r = 0.9963, R² = 0.9926), yellow tea (r = 0.9961, R² = 0.9922), oolong tea (r = 0.9977, R² = 0.9954), black tea (r = 0.9987, R² = 0.9975), white tea (r = 0.9973, R² = 0.9947), and dark tea (r = 0.9975, R² = 0.9950). Regression equation slopes for dark tea, white tea, black tea, oolong tea, yellow tea, and green tea were 0.0704, 0.0475, 0.0381, 0.0350, 0.0166, and 0.0160, respectively. Furthermore, the inverse slopes of dark tea, white tea, black tea, oolong tea, yellow tea, and green tea were 14.205, 21.053, 26.247, 28.571, 60.241, and 62.5, respectively. The equations for the six tea types using the improved method were as follows: dark tea:

Traditional method

Sample (tea powder) 3.0 g+125 mL of boiled d.d. H₂O (90 °C), and shaken for 10 min.
The supernatant was diluted to 125 mL with d.d. H₂O.

Improved method

Regeneration equation slopes for dark tea, white tea, black tea, oolong tea, yellow tea, and green tea were 0.0704, 0.0475, 0.0381, 0.0350, 0.0166, and 0.0160, respectively. Furthermore, the inverse slopes of dark tea, white tea, black tea, oolong tea, yellow tea, and green tea were 14.205, 21.053, 26.247, 28.571, 60.241, and 62.5, respectively. The equations for the six tea types using the improved method were as follows: dark tea:

Sample (tea powder) 3.0 g+125 mL of boiled d.d. H₂O (90 °C), and shaken for 10 min.
The supernatant was diluted to 125 mL with d.d. H₂O.

Figure 2: Flow chart of the traditional and improved methods of TB extractions.

Table 1: List of six major types of tea sample and producing location.

| Type of tea | Tea sample and producing location |
|-------------|----------------------------------|
| Black tea   | Lapsang Souchong, produced in Fujian province, China |
|             | Yunnan black tea, produced in Yunnan province, China |
| Oolong tea  | Wuyi Dahongpao, produced in Fujian province, China |
|             | Anxi Tieguanyin, produced in Fujian province, China |
| Dark tea    | Ripened Pu-erh teas, produced in Yunnan province, China, storage for 4 years |
|             | Ripened Pu-erh caked tea, produced in Yunnan province, China, storage for 4 years |
| White tea   | Gong Mei, produced in Fujian province, China, storage for 4 years |
|             | Baimudan, produced in Fujian province, China, storage for 4 years |
| Yellow tea  | Huoshan Huangya, produced in Anhui province, China |
| Green tea   | Longjing, produced in Zhejiang province, China |
|             | Jinyun Maofeng, produced in Chongqing city, China |
Figure 3: Continued.
white tea: $[21.053 \times A_{380} \times 100\%]/w \times (1-M)$, black tea: $[26.247 \times 2 \times A_{380} \times 100\%]/w \times (1-M)$, oolong tea: $[28.571 \times 2 \times A_{380} \times 100\%]/w \times (1-M)$, and green tea: $[62.5 \times 2 \times A_{380} \times 100\%]/w \times (1-M)$. In those empirical equations, “M” means the tea sample’s moisture content (%) and “w” stands for the weight (in grams) of tea sample powder. Figure 4 shows that two types of aerated tea (black tea and oolong tea) had similar variations, but green tea and yellow tea almost completely overlapped, indicating that the TB compositions were similar in these two types of tea. Wang et al. [38] demonstrated that green tea and yellow tea had similar chemical components according to metabolome analysis. After high-temperature treatments in fixation and drying processes during storage, isomer flavanols and chlorophyll metabolites (e.g., pheophytins) were produced in the autooxidation process, and the color of tea leaves turned olive brown [39–43]. The slope of white tea was higher than that of black tea and lower than that of dark tea (Figure 4), implying that the TB composition in white tea is notably different from that in dark tea and black tea. Although liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis was used to determine the chemical composition in white tea after long-term storage [11, 12, 44], the TB composition still remained unknown. In addition, the TB of dark tea contains some fungi-specific metabolites detected by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry or liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry-based metabolomics [18, 23, 32, 45–49].

### 3.3. Comparison of TB Content between Traditional and Improved Methods in Tea Extractions

TBs were extracted by both traditional and improved methods, and calculations were made with appropriate equations at $A_{380}$. Figure 5 shows that the TB contents of these two methods were significantly different ($p < 0.01$) in all types of liquid teas.

We repeated many studies by using the traditional extraction method and found that dark tea had the highest TB content (10%–14%) of the six tea types [14, 15, 50, 51], followed by black tea (7%–9%) [14, 50, 52], and ranges of 2%–3.5% in green tea and yellow tea [50, 52]. The improved method showed that black tea had the highest TB content (7.97%–11.19%, average 9.75%), and oolong tea ranged...
2.65%–6.23% with an average of 5.25%. Black tea and oolong tea were oxidized by endogenous enzymes in a longer aeration process and had higher TB contents. The TB contents of white tea ranged from 5.35% to 8.02%, averaging 7.03%, suggesting that four years of storage was sufficient to transfer high levels of TB content in the leaves. The TB contents of dark tea ranged from 5.66 to 7.66%, averaging 6.96%, while green tea and yellow tea ranged from 2.63 to 4.46% with an average of 3.87 to 5.2% with an average of 4.61%, respectively, indicating that their values differed significantly from levels derived from the traditional extraction method. Dark tea had the highest $A_{380}$ of the six tea types (Figure 3); however, high slop in TB concentrations (Figure 4) resulted in TB content not being as high as with the traditional method (Figure 5). TB composition is formed during tea processing, and the aeration procedure is one of the most important steps in black tea and oolong tea processing, while it does not occur in other teas. Therefore, different equations are proposed to calculate TB content in different types of tea, especially dark tea, yellow tea, and green tea.

4. Conclusion

This study provided an improved method for the analysis of TB content (%) from six major types of tea. This method decreases the $A_{380}$ values of TBs with differing TB absorbance capabilities in six major types of tea. Six equations have been developed to analyze TB content (%) in those six tea types extracted by an improved method, and the ranges of TB content (%) showed significant differences compared to the traditional method.

Abbreviations

SD: Standard deviation

Data Availability

The data used to support this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this article.

Authors’ Contributions

T-C L. designed the experiments; T-C L. and Q-N Z. collected the sample, conducted experiments, and analyzed the data. T-C L. and K-H L. wrote the article; T-C L., Q-N Z., H-L H., P-Y L., J-Y Z., C- K., and Y-J L. collected the sample and investigated the study; T-H Ko projected-ministration and reviewed and edited the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Starting Research Fund from the Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University (KXR19001), and the Starting Research Fund from the Wuzhou University (WZUQDJJ30173).

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Figure 1: the simplified scheme of relationships among TF, TR, and TB. (Supplementary Materials)

References

[1] E. Haslam, “Thoughts on thearubigins,” Phytochemistry, vol. 64, pp. 61–73, 2003.
[2] G. S. Gill, A. Kumar, and R. Agarwal, “Monitoring and grading of tea by computer vision—a review,” Journal of Food Engineering, vol. 106, pp. 13–19, 2011.

[3] C. Dong, G. Liang, B. Hu et al., “Prediction of congou black tea fermentation quality indices from color features using non-linear regression methods,” Scientific Reports, vol. 8, Article ID 10535, 2018.

[4] M. Obanda, P. Okinda O, and R. Mang’Oka, “Changes in the chemical and sensory quality parameters of black tea due to variations of fermentation time and temperature,” Food Chemistry, vol. 75, no. 4, pp. 395–404, 2001.

[5] M. Obanda, P. O. Owuor, R. Mang’Oka, and M. M. Kavoi, “Changes in thearubigin fractions and theaflavin levels due to variations in processing conditions and their influence on black tea liquor brightness and total colour,” Food Chemistry, vol. 85, no. 2, pp. 163–173, 2004.

[6] M. Cavia-Saiz, M. D. Busto, M. C. Pilar-Izquierdo, N. Ortega, M. Perez-Mateos, and P. Muñiz, “Antioxidant properties, radical scavenging action and biomolecule protection capacity of flavonoid naringenin and its glycoside naringin, a comparative study,” Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture, vol. 90, no. 7, pp. 1238–1244, 2010.

[7] K. Wang, Q. Chen, Y. Lin, and Z. Liu, “Comparison of phenolic compounds and taste of Chinese black tea,” Food Science and Technology Research, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 639–646, 2014.

[8] J. T. Dwyer and J. Peterson, “Tea and flavonoids: where we are, where to go next,” The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, vol. 98, no. 6, pp. 1615–1618S, 2013.

[9] Q. P. Wang, J. S. Gong, Y. Chisti, and S. Siriansaneeyakul, “Production of theabrownins using a crude fungal enzyme concentrate,” Journal of Biotechnology, vol. 231, pp. 250–259, 2016.

[10] Q. Zhang, J. Ruan, B. Caballero, P. M. Finglas, and F. Toldrà, “Tea: analysis and tasting,” in Encyclopedia of Food and HealthAcademic Press, Oxford, U K, 2016.

[11] J. M. Ning, D. Ding, Y. S. Song, Z. Z. Zhang, X. Luo, and X. C. Wang, “Chemical constituents analysis of white tea of different qualities and different storage times,” European Food Research and Technology, vol. 242, pp. 2093–2104, 2016.

[12] D. Qi, A. Miao, J. Cao et al., “Study on the effects of rapid aging technology on the aroma quality of white tea using GC-MS combined with chemometrics: in comparison with natural aged and fresh white tea,” Food Chemistry, vol. 265, pp. 189–199, 2018.

[13] F. Y. Fan, C. S. Huang, Y. L. Tong et al., “Wide-tailed metabolomics analysis of white peony tea with different storage time and association with sensory attributes,” Food Chemistry, vol. 362, Article ID 130257, 2021.

[14] Q. Wang, C. Peng, and J. Gong, “Effects of enzymatic action on the formation of theabrownin during solid state fermentation of Pu-erh tea,” Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture, vol. 91, no. 13, pp. 2412–2418, 2011.

[15] W. N. Wang, L. Zhang, S. Wang et al., “8-C N-ethyl-2-pyrrolidinone substituted flavan-3-ols as the marker compounds of Chinese dark teas formed in the post-fermentation process provide significant antioxidative activity,” Food Chemistry, vol. 152, pp. 539–545, 2014.

[16] D. Haas, B. Pfeifer, C. Reiterich, R. Partenheimer, B. Reck, and W. Buzina, “Identification and quantification of fungi and mycotoxins from Pu-erh tea,” International Journal of Food Microbiology, vol. 166, no. 2, pp. 316–322, 2013.

[17] Z. J. Zhao, H. R. Tong, L. Zhou, E. X. Wang, and Q. J. Liu, “Fungal colonization of Pu-erh tea in Yunnan,” Journal of Food Safety, vol. 30, no. 4, pp. 769–784, 2010.

[18] L. Cheng, Q. Yang, Z. Chen et al., “Distinct changes of metabolic profile and sensory quality during qingzhuan tea processing revealed by LC-MS-based metabolomics,” Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, vol. 68, no. 17, pp. 4955–4965, 2020.

[19] I. Shah, M. A. Shah, M. A. Nawaz et al., “Analysis of other phenolics (capsaicin, gingerol and alkylresorcinols),” Recent Advances in Natural Products Analysis, Elsevier, Amsterdam, Netherlands, 2020.

[20] M. Bule, I. A. Issa, F. Khan et al., “Development of new food products based on phytoneutrients,” Phytonutrients in Food from Traditional to Rational Usage, Woodhead Publishing, Cambridge, UK, 2020.

[21] R. A. Anderson and M. M. Polansky, “Tea enhances insulin activity,” Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, vol. 50, no. 24, pp. 7182–7186, 2002.

[22] J. S. Gong, C. X. Peng, T. Chen, B. Gao, and H. J. Zhou, “Effects of theabrownin from Pu-erh tea on the metabolism of serum lipids in rats: mechanism of action,” Journal of Food Science, vol. 75, no. 6, pp. H182–H189, 2010.

[23] Y. Xiao, M. Li, Y. Wu, K. Zhong, and H. Gao, “Structural characteristics and hypolipidemic activity of theabrownins from dark tea fermented by single species Euromit Cristatum PW-1,” Biomolecules, vol. 10, no. 2, Pub. ID. 204, 2020.

[24] S. Culas, R. A. U. J. Marapana, I. R. Palangasinghe, and A. C. Liyanage, “Development of liquid-based tea and its antidiabetic effect,” Journal of Chemistry, vol. 2021, pp. 20216 pages, Article ID 8863936, 2021.

[25] Y. Hou, W. F. Shao, R. Xiao et al., “Pu-erh tea aqueous extracts lower atherosclerotic risk factors in a rat hyperlipidemia model,” Experimental Gerontology, vol. 44, no. 6-7, pp. 434–439, 2009.

[26] F. Huang, X. Zheng, X. Ma et al., “Theabrownin from Pu-erh tea attenuates hypercholesterolemia via modulation of gut microbiota and bile acid metabolism,” Nature Communications, vol. 10, no. 1, Pub. ID. 4971, 2019.

[27] C. X. Peng, Q. P. Wang, H. R. Liu, B. Gao, J. Sheng, and J. S. Gong, “Effects of Zijuan pu-erh tea theabrownin on metabolites in hyperlipidemic rat feces by Py-GC/MS,” Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis, vol. 104, pp. 226–233, 2013.

[28] T. Liu, Z. Xiang, F. Chen et al., “Theabrownin suppresses in vitro osteoclastogenesis and prevents bone loss in ovarietomized rats,” Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy, vol. 106, pp. 1339–1347, 2018.

[29] L. Zhou, F. Wu, W. Jin et al., “Theabrownin inhibits cell cycle progression and tumor growth of lung carcinoma through c-myc-related mechanism,” Frontiers in Pharmacology, vol. 8 Pub. ID. 75, 2017.

[30] P. O. Owuor and M. Obanda, “The use of green tea (Camellia Sinensis) leaf flavan-3-ol composition in predicting plain black tea quality potential,” Food Chemistry, vol. 100, no. 3, pp. 873–884, 2007.

[31] P. Tang, D.-Y. Shen, Y.-Q. Xu, X.-C. Zhang, J. Shi, and J.-F. Yin, “Effect of fermentation conditions and plucking standards of tea leaves on the chemical components and sensory quality of fermented juice,” Journal of Chemistry, vol. 2018, Article ID 4312875, 7 pages, 2018.

[32] M. Z. Zhu, N. Li, F. Zhou et al., “Microbial bioconversion of the chemical components in dark tea,” Food Chemistry, vol. 312, Article ID 126043, 2020.
Y. Ma, T.-J. Ling, X.-Q. Su et al., “Integrated proteomics and P. Long, M. Wen, D. Granato et al., “Untargeted and targeted L. Zhang, W.-W. Deng, and X.-C. Wan, “Advantage of LC-MS D. Xie, W. Dai, M. Lu et al., “Nontargeted metabolomics X. Yu, S. Hu, C. He et al., “Chlorophyll metabolism in X. Li, R. Zhou, K. Xu et al., “Rapid determination of chlorophyll and phaeophytin in green tea using fourier transform infrared spectroscopy,” Molecules, vol. 23, no. 5, Pub. ID.1010, 2018. X. Yu, S. Hu, C. He et al., “Chlorophyll metabolism in postharvest tea (Camellia sinensis L.) leaves: variations in color values, chlorophyll derivatives, and gene expression levels under different withering treatments,” Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, vol. 67, no. 38, pp. 10624–10636, 2019. D. Xie, W. Dai, M. Lu et al., “Nontargeted metabolomics predicts the storage duration of white teas with 8-C-N-ethyl-2-pyrrolidinone-substituted flavan-3-ols as marker compounds,” Food Research International, vol. 125, Article ID 108635, 2019. L. Zhang, W.-W. Deng, and X.-C. Wan, “Advantage of LC-MS metabolomics to identify marker compounds in two types of Chinese dark tea after different post-fermentation processes,” Food Science and Biotechnology, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 355–360, 2014. P. Long, M. Wen, D. Granato et al., “Untargeted and targeted metabolomics reveal the chemical characteristic of pu-erh tea (Camellia assamica) during pile-fermentation,” Food Chemistry, vol. 311, Pub. ID. 125895, 2020. Y. Ma, T.-J. Ling, X.-Q. Su et al., “Integrated proteomics and metabolomics analysis of tea leaves fermented by Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus tamarii and Aspergillus fumigatus,” Food Chemistry, vol. 334, Article ID 127560, 2021. J. Shi, W. Ma, C. Wang et al., “Impact of various microbial-fermented methods on the chemical profile of dark tea using a single raw tea material,” Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, vol. 69, no. 14, pp. 4210–4222, 2021. W. Zhang, J. Cao, X. Li et al., “HS-SPME and GC/MS volatile component analysis of Yinghong No. 9 dark tea during the pile fermentation process,” Food Chemistry, vol. 357, Article ID 129654, 2021. G. Xie, M. Ye, Y. Wang et al., “Characterization of pu-erh tea using chemical and metabolic profiling approaches,” Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, vol. 57, no. 8, pp. 3046–3054, 2009. C. Tan, J. S. Gong, and L. P. Bao, “Study on theabrownin physicochemical and microbial change in the fermentation process of Zizhuan green tea,” Food and Fermentation Industries, vol. 12, pp. 43–48, 2011. C. X. Peng, J. Liu, H. R. Liu, H. J. Zhou, and J. S. Gong, “Influence of different fermentation raw materials on pyrrolizates of Pu-erh tea theabrownin by Curie-point pyrolysis-gas chromatography–mass spectroscopy,” International Journal of Biological Macromolecules, vol. 54, pp. 197–203, 2013.