Deciphering tea tree chloroplast and mitochondrial genomes of *Camellia sinensis* var. *assamica*

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Tea is the most popular non-alcoholic caffeine-containing and the oldest beverage in the world. In this study, we de novo assembled the chloroplast (cp) and mitochondrial (mt) genomes of *C. sinensis* var. *assamica* cv. *Yunkang10* into a circular contig of 157,100 bp and two complete circular scaffolds (701,719 bp and 177,329 bp), respectively. We correspondingly annotated a total of 141 cp genes and 71 mt genes. Comparative analysis suggests repeat-rich nature of the mt genome compared to the cp genome, for example, with the characterization of 37,878 bp and 149 bp of long repeat sequences and 665 and 214 SSRs, respectively. We also detected 478 RNA-editing sites in 42 protein-coding mt genes, which are ~4.4-fold more than 54 RNA-editing sites detected in 21 protein-coding cp genes. The high-quality cp and mt genomes of *C. sinensis* var. *assamica* presented in this study will become an important resource for a range of genetic, functional, evolutionary and comparative genomic studies in tea tree and other *Camellia* species of the Theaceae family.

Background & Summary

Tea is the most popular non-alcoholic caffeine-containing and the oldest beverage in the world since 3000 B.C.¹². The production of tea made from the young leaves of *Camellia sinensis* var. *sinensis* and *C. sinensis* var. *assamica*, together with ornamental well-known camellias (e.g., *C. japonica*, *C. reticulata* and *C. sasanqua*) and worldwide renowned wooden oil crop *C. oleifera*¹ has made the genus *Camellia* possess huge economic values in Theaceae. Besides its industrial, cultural and medicinal values, botanists and evolutionary biologists have increasingly paid attention to this genus. As a result of frequent hybridization and polyploidization, *Camellia* is almost commonly regarded as one of the most taxonomically and phylogenetically difficult taxa in flowering plants⁴. Thus, it has long been problematic for the taxonomic classification of the *Camellia* species based on the morphological characteristics⁵. The chloroplast (cp) genomes are able to provide valuable information for taxonomic classification, tracing source populations⁶,⁷ and the reconstruction of phylogeny to resolve complex evolutionary relationships⁸–¹⁰ due to the conservation of genomic structure, maternal inheritance and a fairly low recombination rate. Genetically speaking, cp genomes are comparatively conserved than plant mitochondria (mt) genomes which are more heterogeneous in nature. However, the presence of NUPT (nuclear plastid DNA) into cp genomes argues that cp genomes assembled from WGS data may include the heterogeneity due to the nuclear cp DNA transferred to the nucleus, resulting in erroneous phylogenetic inferences¹¹. It has long been acknowledged that mtDNA has the propensity to integrate DNA from various sources through intracellular and horizontal transfer¹²–¹⁴. Partially due to these reasons, the mt genomes vary from ~200 Kbp to ~11.3 Mbp in some living organisms¹⁵–¹⁷. The dynamic nature of mt genome structure has been recognized, and plant mt genomes can have a variety of different genomic configurations due to the recombination and differences in repeat content¹⁸,¹⁹. These characteristics make the plant mt genome a fascinating genetic system to investigate questions related to evolutionary biology. The first effort has been made to sequence the 13 representative *Camellia* chloroplast genomes using next-generation Illumina genome sequencing platform, which obtained novel insights into global patterns of structural variation across the *Camellia* cp genomes⁴. The reconstruction of phylogenetic relationships among these representative species of *Camellia* suggests that cp genomic resources are able to provide useful data to help to understand their
evolutionary relationships and classify the ‘difficult taxa’. Increasing interest in the Camellia plants have made up to thirty-eight of cp genomes be sequenced up to date 20–37. Recently, we decoded the first nuclear genome of C. sinensis var. assamica cv. Yunkang10, providing novel insights into genomic basis of tea flavors38. Besides the lack of the C. sinensis var. assamica cp genome among thirty-eight cp genomes that were sequenced in this genus4,20–37, up to data, none of mt genome has been determined in the genus Camellia.

In this study, we filtered cpDNA and mtDNA reads from the WGS genome sequence project 38 and de novo assembled the mt genome and cp genome of C. sinensis var. assamica. The information of both cp and mt genomes will help to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the taxonomy and evolution of the genus Camellia. These genome sequences will also facilitate the genetic modification of these economically important plants, for example, through chloroplast genetic engineering technologies.

Methods
Plant materials, DNA extraction and genome sequencing. Young and healthy leaves of an individual plant of cultivar Yunkang10 of C. sinensis var. assamica were collected for genome sequencing in April, 2009, from Menghai County, Yunnan Province, China. Fresh leaves were harvested and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen after collection, followed by the preservation at −80 °C in the laboratory prior to DNA extraction. High-quality genomic DNA was extracted from leaves using a modified CTAB method39. RNase A and proteinase K were separately used to remove RNA and protein contamination. The quality and quantity of the isolated DNA were separately checked by electrophoresis on a 0.8% agarose gel and a NanoDrop D-1000 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, DE). A total of eleven paired-end libraries, including four types of small-insert libraries (180 bp, 260 bp, 300 bp, 500 bp) and seven large-insert libraries (2 Kb, 3 Kb, 4 Kb, 5 Kb,
6 Kb, 8 Kb, 20 Kb) were prepared following the Illumina’s instructions, and sequenced using Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform by following the standard Illumina protocols (Illumina, San Diego, CA). We totally generated ~707.88 Gb (~229.31 ×) of raw sequencing data. Further reads quality control filtering processes yielded a total of ~492.15 Gb (~159.43 ×) high-quality data retained and used for subsequent genome assembly.

De novo chloroplast and mitochondria genome assemblies. The chloroplast reads were filtered from whole genome Illumina sequencing data of *C. sinensis* var. *assamica*, we mapped all the sequencing reads to the reference genomes using bowtie2 (version 2.3.4.3)40. The mapped chloroplast reads were assembled into a circular contig of 157,100 bp in length with an overall GC content of 37.29% using CLC Genomics Workbench v. 3.6.1 (CLC Inc., Rarhus, Denmark) (Fig. 1). For mitochondria genome assembly, the PE and MP sequencing reads were used separately. Briefly, we first performed de novo assembly with VELVET v1.2.0841, which was previously described42,43. Scaffolds were constructed using SSPACE v.3.044. False connection was manually removed based on the coverage and distances of paired reads. Gaps between scaffolds were then filled with GapCloser (version 1.12)45,46 using all pair-end reads. We obtained the two complete circular scaffolds (701719 bp and 177329 bp) of the *C. sinensis* var. *assamica* mt genome from the de-novo assembly of the filtered mitochondrial reads (Figs 2–4).

The two scaffolds of the mt genome had overall GC contents of 45.63% and 45.81%, respectively. The completed chloroplast and mitochondria genomes are publicly available in NCBI GenBank under accession numbers MH019307, MK574876 and MK574877 and BIG Genome Warehouse WGS000271, WGS000272.

Genome annotation and visualization. The complete chloroplast genome of *C. sinensis* var. *assamica* was preliminarily annotated using the online program DOGMA47 (Dual Organellar Genome Annotator) followed by manual correction. A total of 141 genes were annotated, of which 87 were protein-coding genes,
were tRNA genes and eight were rRNA genes (Table 1). MITOBY15 was used to characterize the complement of protein-coding and rRNA genes in the mitochondrial genome. A tRNA gene search was carried out using the tRNA scan-SE software (version 1.3.1)48. We annotated a total of 71 genes, including 44 protein-coding genes, 24 tRNAs and 3 rRNAs (Table 2). Circular genome maps were drawn with OrganellarGenomeDRAW49 (Figs 3–4).

Simple sequence repeats (SSRs) were identified and located using MISA (http://pgrc.ipk-gatersleben.de/misa/). All the annotated SSRs were classified by the size and copy number of their tandemly repeated: monomer (one nucleotide, n ≥ 8), dimer (two nucleotides, n ≥ 4), trimer (three nucleotides, n ≥ 4), tetramer (four nucleotides, n ≥ 3), pentamer (five nucleotides, n ≥ 3), hexamer (six nucleotides, n ≥ 3). A total of 214 SSRs were identified in cp genome with 74.42% of which were monomers, 19.07% of dimers, 0.47% of trimers, 4.65% of tetramers and 0.93% of hexamers (Table 3). There were no pentamers found in the cp genome. In mt genome, we obtained 665 SSRs distributed into monomers, dimers, trimers, pentamers, tetramers and hexamers with 31.53%, 45.35%, 4.95%, 15.17%, 2.70% and 0.15%, respectively (Table 3). Repeat sequences including forward and palindromic

| Category                      | Group                  | Genes                                                                 |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Photosynthesis related genes  |                        |                                                                     |
|                              | Rubisco                | rbcL                                                                 |
|                              | Photosystem I          | psaA, psaB, psaC, psaI, psaJ                                         |
|                              | Assembly/stability of  | ycf3                                                                 |
|                              | Photosystem II         | psbA, psbB, psbT, psbK, psbI, psbH, psbM, psbD, psbC, psbZ, psbL,    |
|                              |                        | psbE, psbF                                                            |
|                              | ATP synthase           | atpA, atpB, atpE, atpF, atpH, atpL                                     |
|                              | Cytochrome b/f complex | petA, petB, petD, petN, petL, petG                                    |
|                              | Cytochrome synthesis   | ccsA                                                                 |
|                              | NADPH dehydrogenase    | ndhA, ndhB (× 2), ndhC, ndhD, ndhE, ndhF, ndhH, ndhG, ndhJ, ndhK,    |
|                              |                        | ndhI                                                                 |
| Transcription and translation |                        |                                                                     |
| related genes                |                        |                                                                     |
|                              | RNA genes              |                                                                     |
|                              | Transfer RNA           | trnH-GUG, trnK-UUU (× 2), trnQ-UGG, trnS-GCU, trnG-UCC (× 2),       |
|                              |                        | trnR-UCC, trnC-GCA, trnD-GUC, trnY-GUA, trnE-UCC, trnF-GGU,         |
|                              |                        | trnS-UGA, trnG-UCC, trnM-CAU, trnS-GGA, trnT-UGU, trnL-UAA (× 2),   |
|                              |                        | trnF-GAA, trnV-UAC (× 2), trnM-CAU, trnW-CCA, trnP-UGG, trnL-CAU,   |
|                              |                        | trnL-CAA (× 2), trnV-GAC, trnL-CAU (× 3), trnA-UGC (× 2), trnB-AUG  |
|                              |                        | (× 2), trnN-GUU (× 2), trnL-UAG, trnN-GUU, trnR-AGG, trnA-UGC (× 2), |
|                              |                        | trnV-GAC, trnL-CAU                                                    |
|                              | Ribosomal proteins     | rps2, rps3, rps4, rps7 (× 2), rps8, rps11, rps12, rps14, rps15,     |
|                              |                        | rps16, rps18, rps19, rpl2 (× 2), rpl14, rpl16, rpl20, rpl23 (× 2), |
|                              |                        | rpl32, rpl33, rpl36                                                   |
|                              | Ribosomal RNA          | rnn16S (× 2), rnn23S (× 2), rnn4.5 (× 2), rnn5 (× 2)                  |
|                              | RNA processing         | matK                                                                 |
|                              | Carbon metabolism      | cemA                                                                  |
|                              | Fatty acid synthesis   | accD                                                                  |
|                              | Proteolysis            | clpP                                                                  |
| Other genes                  | Genes of unknown function | Conserved ORFs ycf1 (× 2), cfd, ycf4, ycf2, ycf15 (× 2)             |

Table 1. Gene annotation of the C. sinensis var. assamica cp genome.

| Group of genes | Name of genes | Scaffold 1 | Scaffold 2 |
|----------------|---------------|------------|------------|
| Complex I      | nad1, nad2, nad3, nad4, nad4L, nad5, nad6, nad7, nad9 (× 2) | nad1, nad2 |
| Complex II     | sdh3, sdh4    |            |            |
| Complex III    |               |            |            |
| Complex IV     | cox1, cox2, cox3 |            |            |
| Complex V      | atp1, atp4, atp6, atp8, atp9 | atp9 |           |
| Cytochrome c biogenesis | ccmFn, ccmB, ccmC | ccmFc |           |
| Ribosome large subunit | rpl2, rpl10, rpl16 | rpl5 |           |
| Ribosome small subunit | rps1, rps3, rps4, rps7, rps12, rps13, rps19 | rps14, rps19 |
| rRNA genes     | rnu5, rnu8, rnu16 |            |            |
| tRNA genes     | trnS(Ser), trnD(Asp), trnK(lys), trnM(Met) (× 2), trnI(Ile)-cp, trnE(Glu), trnH(His)-cp, trnP(Pro), trnW(Trp)-cp, trnG(Gly), trnQ(Gln), trnC(Cys), trnD(Asp), trnS(Ser), trnV(Val)-cp | trnI(Ile), trnM(Met)-cp, trnC(Cys), trnN(Asn)-cp, trnY(Tyr), trnS(Ser), trnF(Phe), trnP(Pro) |
| chloroplast-derived genes | trn(Ile)-cp, trn(His)-cp, trnW(Trp)-cp, trnV(Val)-cp | trnM(Met)-cp, trnN(Asn)-cp |
| Other proteins  | matR, mttB     |            |            |

Table 2. Gene content of the C. sinensis var. assamica mt genome.
repeats, were also searched by REPuter $^{50}$ with the following parameters: minimal length 50 nt; mismatch 3 nt. Long repeat sequences (repeat unit > 50 bp) of forward and palindromic repeats were further annotated, resulting in 149 bp from 4 paired repeats in the cp genome (Table 4) and 37,878 bp from 58 paired repeats in the mt genome (Online-only Tables 1–2). Our repeat content analyses indicate that the mt genome is more abundant in repeat sequences and more variable than the cp genome of C. sinensis var. assamica (Table 4; Online-only Tables 1–2).

**Prediction of RNA-editing sites.** Putative RNA editing sites in protein-coding genes were predicted using the PREP-cp and PREP-mt Web-based program (http://prep.unl.edu/) $^{51,52}$. To achieve a balanced trade-off between the number of false positive and false negative sites, the cutoff score (C-value) was set to 0.8 and 0.6, respectively $^{53}$.

Almost all transcripts of protein encoding genes in the plant mitochondria are subject to RNA editing except the T-urf13 gene $^{54}$. Our results showed that the extent of RNA editing varied by gene for both cp and mt genomes of C. sinensis var. assamica. In the C. sinensis var. assamica cp genome, we detected 54 RNA-editing sites in 21 protein-coding genes, ranging from one editing site in atpF, atpI, petB, psaI, psbE, psbF, rpoA, rps2 and rps8 to 8 editing sites in ndhB (Online-only Table 3). In the C. sinensis var. assamica mt genome, we predicted 478 RNA-editing sites in 42 protein-coding genes; they varied from two editing site in atp9 (of scaffold2), sdh3 (of scaffold1 and scaffold2, respectively) and rps14 (of scaffold2) to 35 editing sites in cmrF (of scaffold1) (Online-only Table 4–5).
To further determine the phylogenetic position of *C. sinensis* var. *assamica* we performed phylogenomic analysis of 20 complete cp genomes using the GTR + R + I model under the maximum likelihood (ML) inference in MEGA v.7.0.\(^{55}\) Besides *C. sinensis* var. *assamica* cv. *Yunkang10*, we selected cp genomes from the eighteen Camellia species (*C. oleifera*, *C. crapnelliana*, *C. szechuanensis*, *C. mairei*, *C. elongata*, *C. grandibracteata*, *C. leptophylla*, *C. petelotii*, *C. pubicosta*, *C. reticulata*, *C. azalea*, *C. japonica*, *C. cuspidata*, *C. danzaiensis*, *C. impressinervis*, *C. pitardii*, *C. yunnanensis* and *C. taliensis*) using Apterosperm oblata as outgroup. Our results showed that *C. sinensis* var. *assamica* was grouped with *C. grandibracteata* with 100% bootstrap support (Fig. 5).
The same method was used for phylogenetic analysis with mt genome. A total of thirteen conserved mt protein-coding genes among \textit{C. sinensis} var. \textit{assamica} and 14 other plant species were individually aligned with ClustalW \cite{24}, and then concatenated to construct a contiguous sequence in the order of \textit{cob}, \textit{cox1}, \textit{cox2}, \textit{cox3}, \textit{nad1}, \textit{nad2}, \textit{nad3}, \textit{nad4}, \textit{nad4L}, \textit{nad5}, \textit{nad6}, \textit{nad7} and \textit{nad9}. The selected 14 species includes \textit{Cycas taitungensis}, \textit{Ginkgo biloba}, \textit{Triticum aestivum}, \textit{Oryza sativa}, \textit{Sorghum bicolor}, \textit{Zea mays}, \textit{Gossypium arboretum}, \textit{G. barbadense}, \textit{Carica papaya}, \textit{Vitis vinifera}, \textit{Hevea brasiliensis}, \textit{Bupleurum falcatum}, \textit{Glycine max} and \textit{Salvia miltiorrhiza}. The alignment file was used for the construction of Neighbor-Joining Tree at 1000 bootstrap replicates with MEGA 7.0.26 \cite{25}.

Our results showed that \textit{C. sinensis} var. \textit{assamica} is clearly grouped with other dicots that were separated from monocots of the angiosperms while the two gymnosperms (\textit{Cycas taitungensis} and \textit{Ginkgo biloba}) were formed the basal clade (Fig. 6).

**Data Records**

Raw reads from Illumina are deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) \cite{26,27} and BIG Genome Warehouse \cite{28}. Assembled cp genome sequences and accompanying gene annotations of \textit{C. sinensis} var. \textit{assamica} are deposited in the NCBI GenBank \cite{29} and BIG Genome Warehouse \cite{30}. The mt genome final assembly and accompanying gene annotations are deposited at NCBI GenBank \cite{31,32} and BIG Genome Warehouse \cite{33}. The alignment and tree files of the chloroplast genome and mitochondrial genome form the Camellia genus were deposited in Figshare database \cite{34}.

**Technical Validation**

**Quality filtering of raw reads.** The initially generated raw sequencing reads were evaluated in terms of the average quality score at each position, GC content distribution, quality distribution, base composition, and other metrics. Furthermore, the sequencing reads with low quality were also filtered out before the genome assembly and annotation of gene structure.

**Assembly and validation.** The chloroplast reads were filtered from whole genome Illumina sequencing data of \textit{C. sinensis} var. \textit{assamica}. We mapped all the cleaned reads to the reference chloroplast sequence \cite{35} using bowtie2 \cite{36} (version 2.3.4.3) \cite{37} with default parameters. The mapped chloroplast reads were \textit{de novo} assembled into the complete chloroplast genome.
For mitochondria genome assembly, the PE and MP sequencing reads were used separately. Briefly, we first performed de novo assembly with VELVET v1.2.08, which was previously described. Scaffolds were constructed using SSPACE v.3.0. False connection was manually removed based on the coverage and distances of paired reads. Gaps between scaffolds were then filled with GapCloser (version 1.12) using all pair-end reads.

**Code Availability**

The following bioinformatic tools and versions were used for generating all results as described in the main text:

1. Bowtie2, version 2.3.4.3, was used for aligning sequencing reads to long reference sequences with default parameters: http://bowtie-bio.sourceforge.net/bowtie2/index.shtml
2. CLC Genomics Workbench, version 3.6.1, was used for genome assembly with default parameters: https://www.qiagenbioinformatics.com/products/clc-genomics-workbench/
3. Velvet, version 1.2.08, was used for genome de novo assembly, which was previously described: https://www.ebi.ac.uk/~zerbino/velvet/
4. SSPACE, version 3.0, was used for genome scaffolds assembly with default parameters: https://www.basclear.com/services/bioinformatics/basetools/sspace-standard/
5. GapCloser, version 1.12, was used to fill the gaps between scaffolds with default parameters: https://sourceforge.net/projects/soapdenovo2/files/GapCloser/
6. DOGMA (an online tool), accessed at 12/2018, was used for annotating cp genomes with default parameters: http://dogma.ccbb.utexas.edu/
7. Mitofy (an online tool), accessed at 12/2018, was used for annotating plant mt genomes with default parameters: http://dogma.ccb.b.utexas.edu/mitofy/
8. tRNAscanSE, VERSION 1.3.1, was used to search tRNA with default parameters: http://lowelab.ucsc.edu/tRNAscan-SE/
9. Organellar Genome DRAW (an online tool), accessed at 12/2018, was used for creating high quality visual representation of cp genome with default parameters: https://chlorobox.mpimp-golm.mpg.de/OGDraw.html
10. MISA, version 1.0, was used for annotating SSR with monomer (one nucleotide, n ≥ 8), dimer (two nucleotides, n ≥ 4), trimer (three nucleotides, n ≥ 4), tetramer (four nucleotides, n ≥ 3), pentamer (five nucleotides, n ≥ 3), hexamer (six nucleotides, n ≥ 3): http://pgrc.ipk-gatersleben.de/misa/misa.html
11. REPuter (an online tool), accessed at 1/2019, was used for annotating long repeated sequences with the following parameters: minimal length 50 nt; mis match 3 nt: https://bibiserv.cebitec.uni-bielefeld.de/reputer/
12. PREP-cp (an online tool), accessed at 1/2019, was used for predicting RNA editor for plant cp genes with the cutoff score (C-value) setting to 0.8: http://prep.unl.edu/
13. PREP-mt (an online tool), accessed at 1/2019, was used for predicting RNA editor for plant mt genes with the cutoff score (C-value) setting to 0.6: http://prep.unl.edu/
14. MEGA, version 7.0.26, was used for phylogenomics and phylomedicine at 1000 bootstrap: https://www.megasoftware.net/
15. ClustalW, version 2, was used for multiple sequence alignment with default parameters: https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalw2/
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Author Contributions
Li-zhi Gao designed the study; Fen Zhang, Wei Li and Dan Zhang assembled, annotated and analyzed the mt genome; Cheng-wen Gao assembled, annotated and analyzed the cp genome; Fen Zhang, Wei Li and Cheng-wen Gao drafted the manuscript; Li-zhi Gao revised the manuscript.

Additional Information
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