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PHYTOMORPHOLOGY

Comparative microstructural analysis of *Camellia sinensis* leaves across different nodes

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Department of Botany, Plant Biotechnology Laboratory, Ramniranjan Jhunjhunwala College (Empowered autonomous), Ghatkopar (West), Mumbai, 400086, India	Abstract Tea, esteemed for its therapeutic properties, enjoys widespread consumption worldwide. Derived from the dried leaves of <i>Camellia</i> <i>sinensis</i> , it boasts a rich composition of polyphenols, including flavanols, gallic acid, and catechins, with epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG) standing out as the most prevalent catechin. Microscopic analysis reveals that while young leaves exhibit fewer microstructures, older leaves showcase well-developed and diverse formations.
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Introduction

The tea plant, *Camellia sinensis* from Theaceae family, is a versatile species from which black, oolong, and green teas are derived. While it can reach heights of up to 30 feet, it is typically pruned to a more manageable height of around two meters to facilitate harvesting. The leaves of the tea plant are characterised by their dark green colour, alternate stem node arrangement, oval shape, and serrated margin, ranging from 4 to 15 cm in length and 2 to 5 cm in width. Fragrant white blossoms, appearing either singly or in

clusters, further enhance the tea plant's allure.

Tea, often consumed as a beverage second only to water, has been extensively researched for its medicinal properties. The beverage is crafted from the dried leaves of *C. sinensis*, which contain various polyphenols, notably flavanols, gallic acid, and catechins. These polyphenols constitute a significant portion of 30 to 40% of the extractable solids in dry green tea leaves. Among the primary catechins found in tea are epicatechin, epicatechin-3-gallate, epigallocatechin, and epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG), known for their high concentration. Widely utilised in traditional medicine systems such as Ayurveda, Unani, and Homoeopathy, the tea plant holds cultural and medicinal significance among tribal communities across India, China, and beyond. Consequently, extracting these tea polyphenols for medicinal purposes has garnered considerable attention in scientific research, underscoring the plant's therapeutic potential (Foster, 2002; Namita et al., 2012).

The detailed analysis of *Camellia sinensis* leaf microstructures across different stem nodes is particularly intriguing. Mature tea leaves often exhibit an increase in mechanical tissues as part of their defence mechanisms. This phenomenon underscores the dynamic interplay between plant anatomy and its adaptive strategies (Metcalfe et al., 1950; Das et al., 2012; Pamila et al., 2018). The article deals with a detailed study of the microstructures of *C. sinensis* leaves from different stem nodes.

Material and methods

Source of plant

The drought-resistant tea variety UPASI-9, developed through grafting from biclonal seed stocks, was generously provided by Hindustan Unilever Ltd., Bangalore. Ten saplings of this variety were transplanted into standard nutrient soil with a slightly acidic pH, as per requirements, and nurtured for six months in the greenhouse facilities at Ramniranjan Jhunjhunwala College, Ghatkopar, Mumbai, India.

Upon reaching a uniform height suitable for sampling, indicative of similar leaf age and size across saplings, a stratified random sampling approach was employed. From each of the ten plants, one leaf was carefully selected from the seven different nodal segments (Node 1 – young followed by older one), ensuring they were healthy and devoid of any infections or stressors.

Fixation of plant tissue

The leaves were gathered, cleaned, and trimmed to sizes ranging from 1 to 1.5 cm² before being immersed in a fixative solution composed of Formalin (5 mL), Acetic acid (5 mL), and 70% Ethyl alcohol (90 mL), known as FAA. Following a 24hour fixation period, the specimens underwent dehydration using a graded series of tertiary-butyl alcohol, employing a well-established method outlined by Sass (1940) and Johansen (1940). Subsequently, the specimens were gradually infiltrated with paraffin wax (melting point 58-60°C) until the tertiary butyl alcohol solution reached supersaturation. This process facilitated the embedding of the specimens into paraffin blocks, following protocols described by Das et al. (2012) and Pamila et al. (2018).

Tea leaf sectioning

Microtomy work was done at the Plant Anatomy Research Centre in Chennai. Using a rotary microtome, the paraffinembedded specimens were sectioned. Each section had a thickness ranging between 10 and 12 μ m. Subsequently, the sections underwent dewaxing, following a traditional procedure outlined by Johansen (1940).

Staining of tissue

The sections were stained with Toluidine blue in accordance with the method by O'Brien et al. (1964). Toluidine blue is a type of polychromatic stain which resolves the component cell types by colouring in various types (shades) as listed in Table 1. When necessary, sections were stained with safranin, fast green, and IKI (for starch identification). For the examination of stomatal morphology, venation patterns and trichome distribution, paradermal sections (taken parallel to the leaf surface) were utilized. Epidermal peeling was facilitated by leaf clearing using a 5% (w/ v) sodium hydroxide solution, aided by partial maceration with Jeffrey's maceration fluid (Sass, 1940). Provisional preparations of the macerated/cleared materials were made using glycerine mounts. Additionally, powdered materials from various parts were cleared with NaOH, stained, and mounted in a glycerine medium to examine different cell components.

Photomicrographs

Table 1. Tissue colour observed after staining with Toluidine blue (adapted from O' Brein et al., 1964)

Colour
Pink
Blue
Dark green
Violet
Blue
Reddish purple
Unstained

Microscopic examinations of tissues were complemented with relevant photomicrographs as needed. Images at various magnifications were captured using a Nikon Labophot 2 binocular microscope equipped with a CF optical system and a 6-volt, 20-watt Kohler illumination system comprising a halogen lamp and illuminator controller. Normal observations were conducted using a wide range of Nikon bright-field objectives. For the examination of crystals, starch grains, and lignified cells, polarized light microscopy was employed. These structures exhibit birefringent properties, causing them to appear bright against a dark background under polarized light. Scale-bars were included in the figures to indicate magnifications. The anatomical features were described in accordance with the terminology (Table 2) outlined by Esau (1964, 1977).

Table 2. Abbreviations used in figures (photomicrographs)

Abe: Abaxial epidermis LM: Leaf margin AC: Air chamber LV: Lateral view Ade: Adaxial epidermis MR: Midrib Adh: Adaxial hump Ph: Phloem Ads: Adaxial side PM: Palisade mesophyll Cu: Cuticle SC: Sclerenchyma Dr: Druses Scl: Sclereid DPP: Dilated phloem parenchyma SM: Spongy mesophyll **EP**: Epidermis St: Stomata GT: Ground tissue X: Xylem La: Lamina XF: Xylem fibres

Results

Comparative analysis of leaf (entire) microstructures in Camellia sinensis across various stem nodes

Stem Node 01- The leaf features a noticeable midrib and robust lamina. The midrib, 440 µm thick, has a biconvex shape

with an elevated adaxial portion forming a wide hump (370 μ m wide), while the abaxial part is semicircular and 570 μ m thick. The vascular strand, 120 μ m thick and 400 μ m wide, consists of several vertical parallel lines of xylem elements. Phloem comprises wide parenchyma cells and small clusters of narrow, darkly stained sieve elements; (Fig. 1 A, B).

Stem Node 02⁻ The leaf is bifacial with a prominently protruding midrib and heterofacial lamina. The midrib, 600 μ m thick, has a short, wide abaxial hump and a thick, broad abaxial part. While the adaxial part measures 400 μ m wide, the abaxial part is 700 μ m wide. The vascular strand, 450 μ m wide and 150 μ m thick, features short to fairly long parallel lines of xylem elements with phloem elements distributed along the abaxial arc (Fig. 2 A, B, C).

Stem Node 03⁻ The leaf exhibits a wide and thick adaxial hump and a broad semicircular abaxial midrib. The midrib, 850 μ m thick, includes thick-walled cells in the adaxial epidermis and small, slightly papillate cells in the abaxial epidermis. The ground tissue comprises small parenchyma cells with a sparse distribution of brachysclereids. The vascular strand, 400 μ m wide and 250 μ m thick, consists of long, thin parallel lines of xylem elements, with phloem occurring in uniseriate small clusters; (Fig. 3 A, B, C).

Stem Node 04⁻ The leaf features a robust midrib and a slender, smooth lamina. The midrib, 1.1 mm thick, has a short, wide adaxial hump and a broad, thick abaxial portion. The vascular strand, 450 μ m thick and 1 mm wide, contains long, straight lines of xylem elements and a thick arc of phloem on the abaxial side; (Fig. 4 A, B, C)

Stem Node 05⁻ The leaf exhibits a thick, smooth lamina and a biconvex midrib, 900 μ m thick, with an adaxial hump (500 μ m thick) and a wide abaxial part. The vascular strand, singular and extending horizontally for 850 μ m, comprises compact parallel lines of xylem elements with thick phloem containing numerous sieve elements; (Fig. 5 A, B, C).

Stem Node 06⁻ The vascular strand, 1 mm wide and 450 μ m thick, is surrounded by sclerenchyma cells and comprises long, parallel lines of xylem elements with thick phloem on the abaxial side; (Fig. 6 A, B, C).

Stem Node 07- The leaf is bilaterally symmetrical with a prominent midrib and thick, smooth lamina. The midrib, 1 mm thick, features vertically oblong cells in the adaxial epidermis and small, papillate cells in the abaxial epidermis. The vascular strand, 1 mm thick, contains numerous xylem elements and a thin arc of phloem on the abaxial side: (Fig. 7 A, B, C).

Comparative analysis of leaf lamina microstructures in C. sinensis across various stem nodes

Stem Node 01⁻ The leaf lamina is 180 μ m thick, exhibiting heterofacial (bifacial) characteristics with distinct adaxial and abaxial sides. Adaxial epidermis comprises spindle-shaped or narrow rectangular cells with prominent cuticles, while the abaxial epidermis is apostomatic, featuring small squarish cells with thin walls. Palisade cells measure 40 μ m in height (Fig. 1 C, D).

Stem Node 02- Lamina thickness measures 150 μ m, with thin epidermal layers on both adaxial and abaxial sides comprising rectangular and squarish cells. Palisade layer consists of a single row of

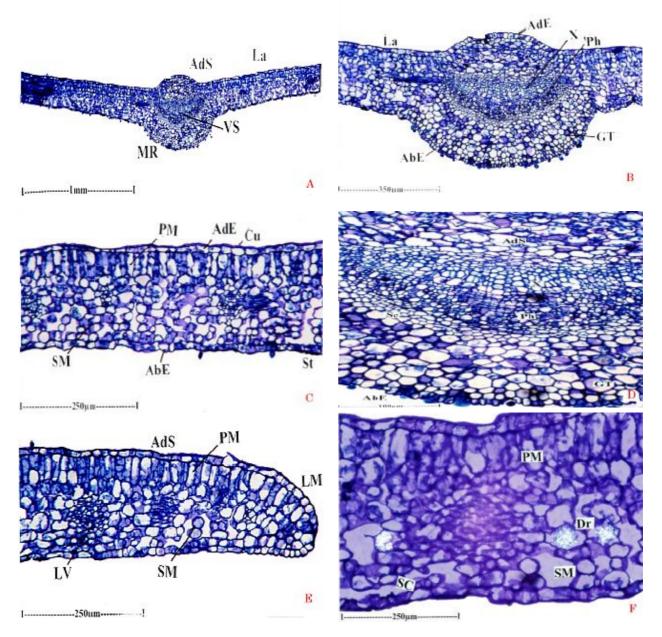


Fig. 1. A – Transverse section of node 1 leaf (4X), B – Transverse section of the midrib of node 1 leaf (10X), C – Transverse section of lamina of node 1 leaf (16X), D – Transverse section of the midrib (enlarged view) of node 1 leaf (40X), E – Transverse section of margin of node 1 leaf (16X), F – Transverse section of lamina showing druses (polarized light) of node1 leaf (16X)

short, cylindrical, compact cells measuring 30 μ m in height. Spongy parenchyma exhibits smaller, less compact cells, approximately eight layered with the height of 60 μ m (Fig. 2 D).

Stem Node 03⁻ Lamina thickness is 250 μ m, displaying bifacial symmetry with distinct adaxial and abaxial sides. Adaxial epidermis comprises vertically oblong, thick-walled cells, while abaxial epidermal cells are small, rounded, or squarish, and

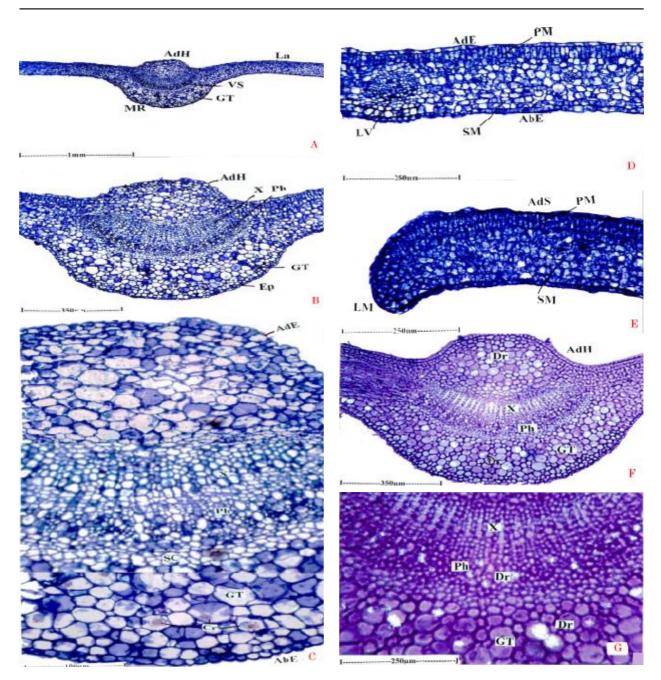


Fig. 2. A – Transverse section of node 2 leaf (4X), B – Transverse section of the midrib of node 2 leaf (10X), C – Transverse section of the midrib (enlarged view) of node 2 leaf (40X), D – Transverse section of lamina of node 2 leaf (16X), E – Transverse section of margin of node 2 leaf (16X), F – Transverse section of midrib showing the distribution of druses (polarized light) of node 2 leaf (10X), G – Transverse section of midrib showing the distribution of druses (enlarged) of node 2 leaf (16X)

thick-walled. Palisade band consists of two layers of cylindrical compact cells, 90 μ m high, while the spongy parenchyma zone comprises about seven layers of spherical or lobed cells (Fig. 3 D).

Stem Node 04- Lamina thickness is 300 μ m, and hypostomatic. Adaxial and abaxial epidermal cells are similar in shape and size, both being rectangular and thick-walled. Palisade cells measure 50 μ m in height, forming a single layer of short,

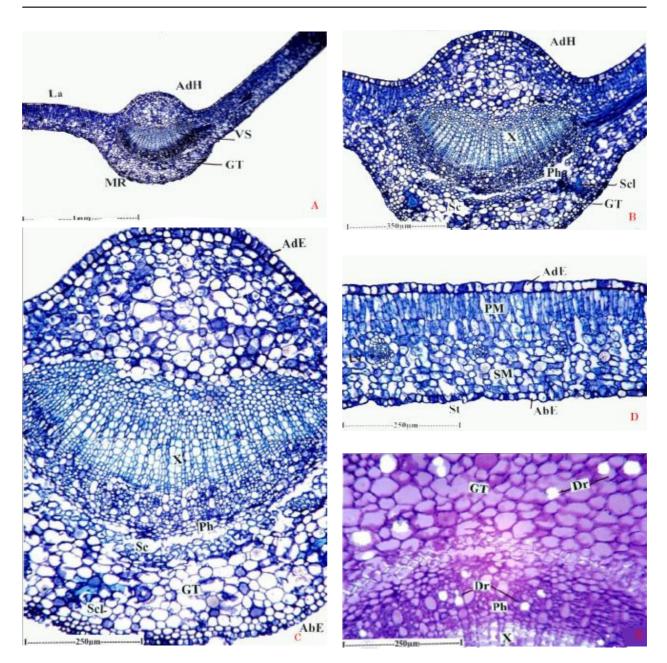


Fig. 3. A – Transverse section of node 3 leaf (4X), B – Transverse section of the midrib of node 3 leaf (10X), C – Transverse section of the midrib (enlarged view) of node 3 leaf (16X), D – Transverse section of lamina of node 3 leaf (16X), E – Transverse section of midrib showing the distribution of druses (polarized light) of node 3 leaf (16X)

cylindrical, less compact cells. Spongy parenchyma comprises 10-12 layered cells, small and spherical, forming a network of filaments enveloping wide air chambers (Fig. 4 D).

Stem Node 05- Lamina is 240 µm thick, smooth, and even on both surfaces. Adaxial

epidermal cells are 20 µm thick and rectangular, while abaxial epidermal cells are spindle-shaped, thin-walled, and stomatiferous. Mesophyll tissues comprise two layers of cylindrical vertical palisade cells and about eight layers of loosely arranged spherical lobed spongy

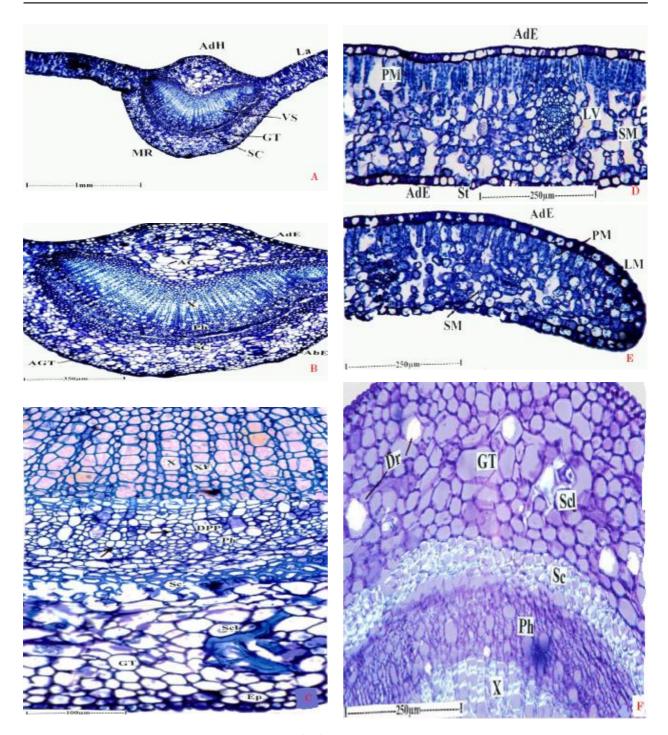


Fig. 4. A – Transverse section of node 4 leaf (4X), B – Transverse section of the midrib of node 4 leaf (10X), C – Transverse section of the midrib (enlarged view) of node 4 leaf (40X), D – Transverse section of lamina of node 4 leaf (16X), E - Transverse section of margin of node 4 leaf (16X), F -Transverse section of lamina showing druses (polarized light) of node 4 leaf (16X)

parenchyma cells, with vertically aligned surfaces. Both adaxial and abaxial sclereids (Fig. 5 D).

μm, hypostomatic, with smooth and even in height, consisting of upper longer cells

epidermal layers comprise tabular cells Stem Node 06- Lamina thickness is 290 with thick walls. Palisade zone is 100 µm

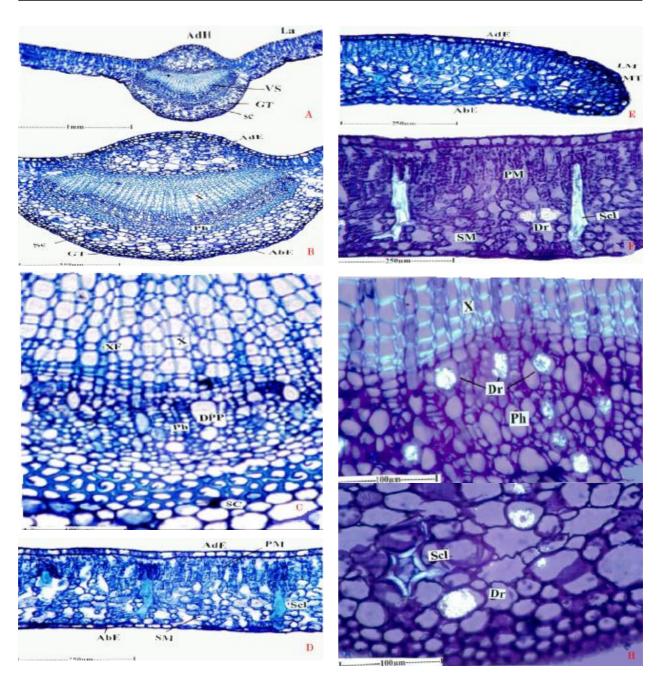


Fig. 5. A – Transverse section of node 5 leaf (4X), B – Transverse section of the midrib of node 5 leaf (10X), C – Transverse section of the midrib (enlarged view) of node 5 leaf (40X), D – Transverse section of lamina of node 5 leaf (16X), E - Transverse section of margin of node 5 leaf (16X), F - Transverse section of midrib showing the sclereids and druses (polarized light) of node 5 leaf (40X), G – Transverse section of midrib showing the sclereids, druses and styloids (polarized light) of node 5 leaf (40X)

and lower shorter cells. Spongy cells, small, lobed (Fig. 6 D).

epidermal layers comprising tabular or parenchyma comprises about eight layered squarish cells. Palisade zone is 130 µm in height, with cells arranged in two Stem Node 07- Lamina is distinctly horizontal bands, narrowly cylindrical and dorsiventral, with adaxial and abaxial less compact. Spongy parenchyma

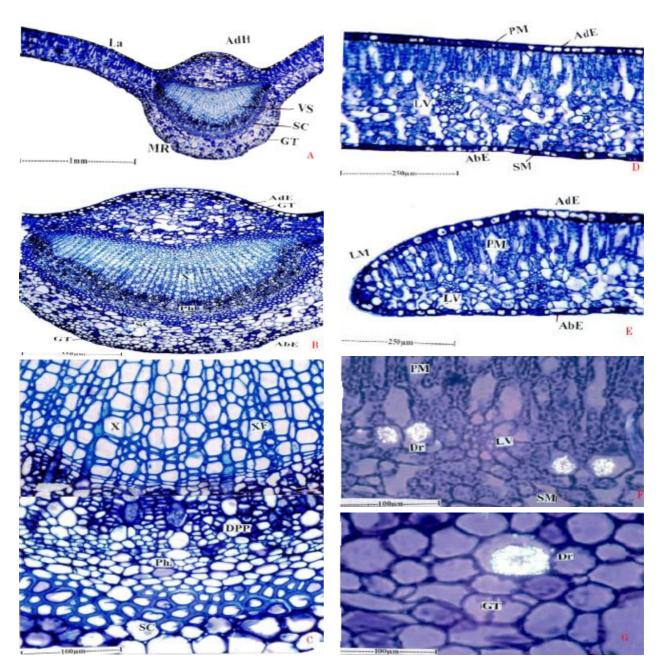


Fig. 6. A – Transverse section of node 6 leaf (4X), B – Transverse section of the midrib of node 6 leaf (10X), C – Transverse section of the midrib (enlarged view) of node 6 leaf (40X), D – Transverse section of lamina of node 6 leaf (16X), E – Transverse section of margin of node 6 leaf (16X), F – Druses in the mesophyll of node 6 leaf (40X), G – Druses in midrib-ground tissue of node 6 leaf (40X)

comprises about seven-layered cells, spherical and lobed, forming small air chambers. Vascular bundles are collateral and circular, with lateral veins located in the median part of the lamina (Fig. 7 D).

Comparative analysis of leaf margins microstructures in C. sinensis across various nodes

Stem Node 01⁻ Marginal part thickness is $120 \mu m$, bluntly conical with a semicircular end. Adaxial epidermal cells are

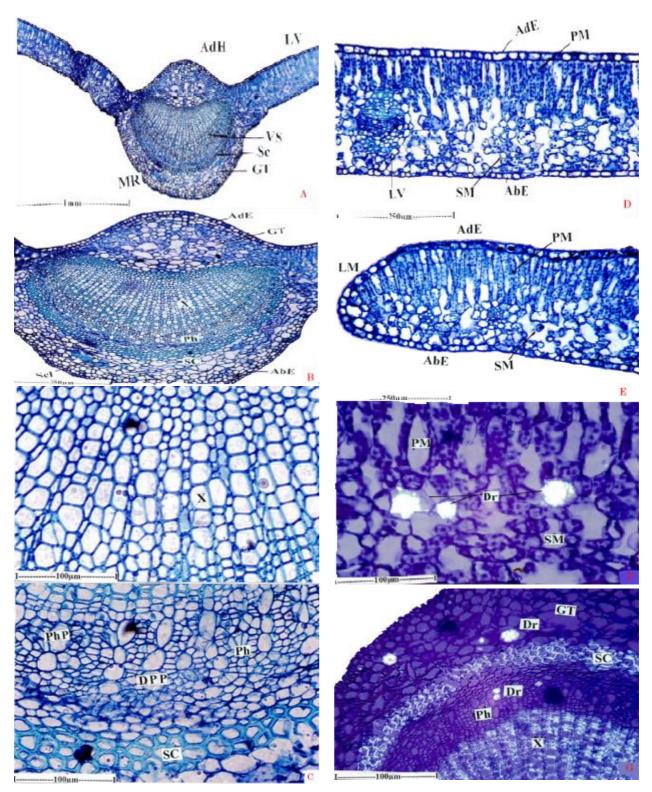


Fig. 7. A – Transverse section of node 7 leaf (4X), B – Transverse section of the midrib of node 7 leaf (10X), C – Transverse section of the midrib (enlarged view) of node 7 leaf (40X), D – Transverse section of lamina of node 7 leaf (16X), E – Transverse section of margin of node 7 leaf (16X), F – Druses in the mesophyll of node 7 leaf (40X), G – Transverse section of midrib, druses in the ground parenchyma and phloem parenchyma (as seen under polarized light) of node 7 leaf (40X)

horizontally elongated and tubular, while abaxial epidermal cells are small, squarish, and slightly thick-walled. Spongy mesophyll cells are small and compact with limited air spaces (Fig. 1 D, E).

Stem Node 02⁻ Marginal part thickness measures 100 μ m, blunt and conical, slightly bent down. Mesophyll tissues are not differentiated into palisade and spongy parenchyma cells, consisting of compact and homogeneous cells (Fig. 2 E).

Stem Node 03- Marginal part is thick, bluntly conical, and slightly bent down. Epidermal cells are thick with thick cuticles, and spongy mesophyll cells are compact with limited air spaces (Fig. 3).

Stem Node 04- Marginal end of the lamina is semicircular and 150 μ m thick. Epidermal cells are very thick with thick cuticles, and undifferentiated mesophyll cells appear as compact, circular, thick-walled cells at the extreme margin (Fig. 4 E).

Stem Node 05⁻ Marginal part thickness is $150 \mu m$, slightly curved and semicircular. Epidermal cells along the semicircular part are small and thick-walled, with undifferentiated, compact and thick-walled mesophyll tissue (Fig. 5 E).

Stem Node 06⁻ Marginal part thickness is 150 μ m, conical with a semicircular end. Epidermal cells of the leaf margin are small and thick-walled. Palisade mesophyll cells are single-layered and short, retaining differentiation in the marginal part, while the spongy parenchyma is 3 or 4 layered with less compact cells (Fig. 6 E).

Stem Node 07- Leaf margin thickness measures $150 \mu m$, slightly thin and conical. Epidermal cells become smaller and thickwalled along the marginal part, with retention of palisade-spongy mesophyll tissues in the marginal part (Fig. 7 E).

Comparative examination of crystal microstructures in C. sinensis leaves across different nodes

Stem Node 01- Calcium oxalate crystals of 60 μ m in diameter druses are sparsely distributed within the unmodified ordinary cells with spongy parenchyma cells (Fig. 1 F).

Stem Node 02- Calcium oxalate druses are fairly abundant in the ground parenchyma of the midrib, less in the mesophyll tissue. They are diffuse in unmodified parenchyma cells. Small Druses are also located in the phloem zone (Fig. 2 F, G).

Stem Node 03⁻ Calcium oxalate druses measuring 30 μ m in diameter are common in the ground parenchyma cells and 20 μ m wide in phloem parenchyma cells (Fig. 3 E). Stem Node 04⁻ The calcium oxalate druses are 40 μ m wide sparsely distributed in the ground parenchyma of the midrib and also in the phloem parenchyma (Fig. 4 F).

Stem Node 05⁻ Calcium oxalate druses are $30 \mu m$ in diameter, common in the leaf mesophyll in the phloem parenchyma cells, and ground parenchyma cells of the midrib. The crystals are sphaerocrystals i.e.,; druses with a central core of dark organic substance (Fig. 5 G, H).

Stem Node 06⁻ Druses of calcium oxalate are 20-50 μ m in diameter, sparse in the leaf mesophyll tissue. The druses also occur in ground parenchyma cells of the midrib (Fig. 6 F, G).

Stem Node 07- The calcium oxalate crystals druses are $10-15 \mu m$ in diameter, sparsely seen with palisade tissues and with ground parenchyma and phloem parenchyma of the midrib. The druses in the phloem zone are smaller than those in the outer ground tissue (Fig. 7 F, G). A summary of comparative analysis is listed in Table 3.

Node	Observed area	Size (in µm)	Calcium oxalate crystals
1	Midrib, adaxial and abaxial hump	440,370 & 570	Sparse & druses are 60 µm in
	Lamina	180	diameter
	Leaf margin	120	
2	Midrib, adaxial and abaxial hump	600,400 & 700	Fairly abundant & druses are
	Lamina	150	smaller in size
	Leaf margin	100	
3	Midrib, adaxial and abaxial hump	850,550 & 800	Druses in the ground
	Lamina	250	parenchyma cells are 30 µm &
	Leaf margin	120	in phloem parenchyma cells are
			20 μm wide
4	Adaxial hump	450	Sparse & druses are 40 µm wide
	Lamina	300	
	Leaf margin	150	
5	Midrib, adaxial and abaxial hump	900,500 & 900	Druses are 30 µm in diameter
	Lamina	240	
	Leaf margin	150	
6	Adaxial hump	550	Druses are 20-50 μm in
	Lamina	290	diameter
	Leaf margin	150	
7	Adaxial and abaxial hump	500 & 950	Druses are 10-15 µm in
	Lamina	130	diameter
	Leaf margin	150	

Table 3. Comparative analysis of anatomical features in tea leaves

Discussion

Erxu et al. (2008) showed the diverse microstructures found within Camellia sinensis leaves, thus, offering valuable insights into systematic classification. Through the application of safranin and fast-green staining techniques. researchers observed a wide range of thicknesses in palisade and spongy tissues Johansen (1940). The correlation between leaf micromorphology and boron deficiency conditions, as highlighted by Hajiboland et al. (2012), provides intriguing insights into the impact of altered physical properties, such as extensibility and plasticity of cell walls, on cellular elongation. This correlation not only enhances our understanding of cell wall

formation but also underscores the distinctiveness of micromorphological features influenced by environmental factors.

Study by Naing et al. (2019) reveals fascinating variations in leaf morphology and anatomy of *C. sinensis* plants from different localities. Variations in leaf and cell sizes, including the number and thickness of cell layers, were observed between different geographical regions, highlighting the dynamic nature of plant morphology in response to environmental factors. Our anatomical examination unveiled a bilateral leaf structure with a prominent midrib and a fairly thick smooth lamina. Notably, the midrib displayed variations in thickness and morphology, with distinct epidermal characteristics observed on the adaxial and abaxial sides. Additionally, the intricate arrangement of ground tissue, vascular strands, and sclerenchyma sheaths further enriched the understanding of leaf anatomy and microstructural adaptations.

The present study investigated different regions of the leaf, including the lamina, leaf margins, and even the presence of calcium oxalate crystals. These analyses revealed the heterofacial nature of the lamina, the structural composition of leaf margins, and the distribution patterns of calcium oxalate crystals, each contributing to the intricate tapestry of tea leaf micromorphology. Intriguingly, the presence of sphaerocrystals, characterized by a central core of dark organic substance, within different tissue zones further underscores the complexity of tea leaf microstructures and their potential implications for physiological processes.

Tea quality hinges on cultivar, plucking standard, processing, storage, taste, and health benefits. aroma. Environmental factors like soil, climate, and altitude shape the flavour and aroma. Each cultivar offers distinct traits, with younger leaves boasting delicate flavours. Processing techniques, spanning withering to drying, determine tea types. Proper storage ensures freshness. Taste and aroma, subjective and influenced by preferences, enhance the sensory experience. Health benefits, including antioxidants and vitamins, contribute to value. Assessing quality requires a holistic view, considering personal preferences and cultural traditions. Standardising these factors for specific products can be aided by microstructure data analysis in tea production.

Conclusion

The revelation that older leaves of the *C*. sinensis plant exhibit well-developed and diverse microstructures compared to younger leaves opens up a plethora of fascinating applications in the studied variety. Firstly, these detailed studies of microstructures play a crucial role in species validation and identification. By analysing the unique patterns and arrangements of stomata, leaf venation, and other microstructural features, we can accurately distinguish between different tea varieties and even detect potential adulteration or mislabelling in tea products. This is particularly important in ensuring product authenticity and maintaining quality standards in the tea industry.

In summary, the detailed study of microstructures in C. sinensis leaves holds immense promise for a wide range of applications, from ensuring product authenticity and quality to optimizing tea processing techniques and advancing agricultural practices. By leveraging this knowledge, other researchers and industry professionals can unlock new opportunities for innovation and improvement in the fascinating world of tea.

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