A Foliar Pigment-Based Bioassay for Interrogating Chloroplast Signalling Reveals that Chlorophyll Biosynthesis Requires Carotenoid Isomerisation.

Namraj Dhami  
Western Sydney University

Barry J Pogson  
The Australian National University

David T Tissue  
Western Sydney University

Christopher I Cazzonelli  
(✉️ c.cazzonelli@westernsydney.edu.au)  
Western Sydney University  https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3096-3193

Research

**Keywords:** Carotenoid isomerisation, chlorophyll, chloroplast, retrograde signal, plastid development, apocarotenoid, Arabidopsis, Mutations

**Posted Date:** December 21st, 2021

**DOI:** https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1177573/v1

**License:** ☺️ This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. Read Full License
Abstract

**Background:** Plastid-derived metabolites can signal control over nuclear gene expression, chloroplast biogenesis, and chlorophyll biosynthesis. Norflurazon (NFZ) inhibition of carotenoid biosynthesis in seedlings can elicit a protoporphyrin retrograde signal that controls chlorophyll and chloroplast biogenesis. Recent evidence reveals that plastid development can be regulated by carotenoid cleavage products called apocarotenoids. The key steps in carotenoid biosynthesis and catabolism that generate apocarotenoid signalling metabolites in foliar tissues remains to be elucidated. Here, we established an *Arabidopsis* foliar pigment-based bioassay using detached rosettes to differentiate plastid signalling processes in young expanding leaves containing dividing cells with active chloroplast biogenesis, from fully expanded leaves containing mature chloroplasts.

**Results:** We demonstrate that environmental (extended darkness and cold exposure) as well as chemical (norflurazon; NFZ) inhibition of carotenoid biosynthesis can reduce chlorophyll levels in young, but not older leaves following a 24 h of rosette treatment. Mutants that disrupted xanthophyll accumulation, phytohormone biosynthesis (abscisic acid and strigolactone), or enzymatic carotenoid cleavage, did not alter chlorophyll levels in young or old leaves. Perturbations in acyclic cis-carotene biosynthesis revealed that disruption of CAROTENOID ISOMERASE (CRTISO), but not ZETA-CAROTENE ISOMERASE (Z-ISO) activity, reduced chlorophyll levels in young but not older leaves of plants growing under a long photoperiod. NFZ-induced inhibition of PHYTOENE DESATURASE (PDS) activity triggered phytoene accumulation more so in younger relative to older leaves from both WT and the *crtiso* mutant, indicating a continued substrate supply from the methylerythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathway for carotenogenesis. NFZ treatment of WT and *crtiso* mutant rosettes reveal similar, additive, and opposite effects on individual pigment accumulation.

**Conclusion:** The *Arabidopsis* foliar pigment-based bioassay was used to differentiate signalling events elicited by environmental, chemical, genetic, and combinations thereof, that control chlorophyll biosynthesis. Genetic perturbations that impaired xanthophyll biosynthesis and/or carotenoid catabolism did not affect chlorophyll biosynthesis. The lack of CAROTENOID ISOMERISATION generated a signal that rate-limited chlorophyll accumulation, but not phytoene biosynthesis in young *Arabidopsis* leaves exposed to a long photoperiod. Findings generated using this new foliar pigment bioassay implicate that carotenoid isomerisation and NFZ elicit different signalling pathways to control chlorophyll homeostasis in young emerging leaves.

Introduction

The level of photosynthetic pigments (chlorophylls and carotenoids) in leaves is tightly coordinated with chloroplast development and can change during development or in response to environmental stress. Older *Arabidopsis* leaves contain enlarged chloroplasts with more pigments that can sustain steady state turnover (Beisel et al., 2010, Beisel et al., 2011, Gugel and Soll, 2017). Yet *Arabidopsis* younger leaves contain approximately 40% more chlorophylls and carotenoids in comparison to older leaves (Dhami et
Younger Arabidopsis leaves, in comparison to older leaves, harbour smaller dividing and expanding cell types, leading to a net increase in total cell number and chloroplast capacity to store pigments for photosynthesis (Gonzalez et al., 2012, Dhami and Cazzonelli, 2020). This observation correlates with higher rates of photosynthesis in recently emerged leaves compared to mature leaves of Arabidopsis (Stessman et al., 2002). The younger leaves of Arabidopsis are more tolerant to the excessive light exposure compared to mature leaves (Bielczynski et al., 2017, D’Alessandro et al., 2018), and unlike older leaves they can modify their pigment levels upon exposure to elevated CO₂ (Dhami et al., 2018). Developing chloroplasts within dividing cell types of younger leaves can alter their biogenesis in response to environmental change, while older leaves that contain fully expanded cells with mature chloroplasts are turned over slowly (Dhami and Cazzonelli, 2020). This plasticity intrinsic to young Arabidopsis leaves could be utilised to develop an in planta biossay to decipher how environmental, chemical, and/or genetic perturbations signal control chloroplast development.

In leaves, chloroplasts develop from either the etioplast or proplastid (Cazzonelli and Pogson, 2010, Sadali et al., 2019). Photosynthetic complexes in the chloroplast thylakoid antennae require the assembly of chlorophylls, carotenoids (lutein, β-carotene, violaxanthin, and neoxanthin), nucleus-encoded protein subunits, and redox-active co-factors (e.g. hemes and iron–sulfur clusters) to contribute to electron transfer reactions during photosynthesis as well as facilitate light harvesting and photo-protection (Baranski and Cazzonelli, 2016). Blocking carotenoid biosynthesis in foliar tissues impacts plastid development by disrupting thylakoid formation, triggers changes in photosynthesis-associated nuclear gene expression (Oelmuller et al., 1986). Norflurazone (NFZ) is commonly used to inhibit PHYTOENE DESATURASE (PDS) activity and block downstream carotenoid accumulation (Figure 1A). The supply of substrates from the methylerythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathway continue to facilitate phytoene biosynthesis in Arabidopsis leaves, etiolated seedling and/or shoot derived calli, despite the NFZ-induced impairment in plastid development (Simkin et al., 2003, Rodriguez-Villalon et al., 2009, Park et al., 2002, Schaub et al., 2018). The NFZ-treated tissues accumulated chlorophyll biosynthesis intermediate metabolites (e.g. protoporphyrin IX; Mg-ProtopIX) that act as retrograde signals to downregulate photosynthesis-associated nuclear gene expression during leaf formation (Hernandez-Verdeja and Strand, 2018). Retrograde metabolites generated by the chloroplast provide “biogenic control” during early chloroplast differentiation from proplastids or etioplasts in emerging leaves, and/or “operational control” in mature leaf chloroplasts in response to environmental stimuli (Pogson et al., 2008, Wu and Bock, 2021). What remains unknown, is if NFZ also perturbs the biosynthesis of a downstream carotenoid-derived signal that regulates chloroplast biogenesis in young leaves.

Catabolism of carotenoids is a continuous process in leaves occurring via enzymatic and non-enzymatic oxidative cleavage (Beisel et al., 2010, Beisel et al., 2011, Schaub et al., 2018). Carotenoids can be cleaved enzymatically by CAROTENOID CLEAVAGE DIOXYGENASE (CCD) and 9-CIS-EPOXYCAROTENOID DIOXYGENASE (NCED) to generate apocarotenoids such as strigolactone (SL) and abscisic acid (ABA) phytohormones, respectively (Havaux, 2014, Ramel et al., 2012, Schaub et al., 2018). SL and ABA control developmental and physiological processes such as shoot bud outgrowth and stomatal closure.
respectively, yet a function in modulating chloroplast development remains less clear (Moreno et al., 2021, Felemban et al., 2019). Exogenous application of apocarotenoids such as β-cyclocitral, anchorene, lollilode, β-cyclogeranic acid, and β-ionone have been shown to regulate nuclear gene expression, pigment accumulation in plastids, and/or stress acclimation responses in plant tissues (Moreno et al., 2021, Felemban et al., 2019). Some β-carotene-derived apocarotenoids require enzymatic cleavage by CCD1 or CCD4, mutants of which accumulate β-carotene in seeds and/or senescing leaves (Auldridge et al., 2006, Gonzalez-Jorge et al., 2013, Rottet et al., 2016). Zeaxanthin can be cleaved by a CCD subfamily member to generate xazinone in rice that regulates growth (Wang et al., 2019), or oxidatively cleaved into apocarotenoids that exert an ABA-independent regulation upon gene expression (Jia et al., 2021). What remains unknown is if mutants that perturb xanthophyll biosynthesis, or CCD mediated carotenoid catabolism, can alter chlorophyll levels in young and/or old leaf types.

An unidentified apocarotenoid signal (ACS) generated during acyclic cis-carotene biosynthesis has been shown to regulate nuclear gene expression and chloroplast biogenesis in Arabidopsis tissues (Cazzonelli et al., 2020, Avendano-Vazquez et al., 2014, Escobar-Tovar et al., 2021). The loss of ZETA-CAROTENE DESATURATE (ZDS) function causes lethality following photomorphogenesis, yet the albino seedlings accumulate cis-carotenes that were linked to the control of plastid development and formation of needle-like leaf phenotype (Dong et al., 2007, Avendano-Vazquez et al., 2014, Escobar-Tovar et al., 2021). The loss-of-function in ZETA-CAROTENE ISOMERASE (Z-ISO) causes cis-carotenes to accumulate in etiolated tissues and can delay chlorophyll biosynthesis during seedling photomorphogenesis (Chen et al., 2010, Beltran et al., 2015). The loss-of-function in CAROTENOID ISOMERASE (CRTISO) activity in Arabidopsis causes cis-carotenes to accumulate during seedling skotomorphogenesis, as well as in newly emerged leaves from plants grown under a shorter photoperiod, and triggers accumulation of an unknown cis-ACS that regulates plastid development and photosynthetic nuclear gene expression in a retrograde-like manner (Park et al., 2002, Cazzonelli et al., 2020). Light-mediated photoisomerization of cis-carotenes compensates for the lack of isomerase activity in foliar tissues, presumably by reducing substrate availability required to make cis-ACS. What remains untested is if a cis-ACS can be generated under longer photoperiods to regulate chlorophyll levels accordingly in leaf-age specific manner.

In this paper, we demonstrate that extended darkness, cold exposure, and NFZ treatment reduce chlorophyll and carotenoid accumulations in young, but not old leaves of Arabidopsis. An Arabidopsis foliar pigment-based signalling bioassay was established to decipher key steps in carotenoid biosynthesis and/or degradation that generate a carotenoid-derived signal that can feedback to control chlorophyll levels in younger leaves. Genetic and chemical inhibitors of carotenogenesis were used to differentiate between the effects of carotenoid- and chlorophyll-derived signals respectively. We assume a change in chlorophyll levels in younger leaves can reflect a change in chloroplast biogenesis. We reveal new insights into how carotenoid isomerisation is the key rate-limiting step in the pathway mediating production of a signal that controls chlorophyll accumulation in Arabidopsis foliar tissues grown under a long photoperiod.
Methods And Materials

Plant material and growth conditions

This study was performed using wild type (WT) and a wide array of mutant and transgenic lines of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (ecotype Col-0) including *ziso* (*z-iso*) (Chen et al., 2010), *crtiso* (*crr2.1*) (Park et al., 2002), *lut2* (Pogson et al., 1998), *ccd1*(*ccd1-1*), *ccd4* (SALK097984C) and *ccd7* (*max3-11*) (Cazzonelli et al., 2009), 35S::At*CRTISO* (Cazzonelli et al., 2010), 35S::At*PSY#23* (Maass et al., 2009), *npq2*, *lut2 npq2*, and *aba4 npq1 lut2* (Ware et al., 2016), and *ccd1 ccd4*, *ccd1 ccd7*, and *ccd4 ccd7* (Rivers, 2017).

*Arabidopsis* plants were grown in growth cabinets (Climatron Star700, Thermoline Scientific, Australia) or walk-in room equipped with the controlled plant growth conditions. Debco Seed Raising and Superior germinating mix (Scotts Australia) was supplemented with 3% Osmocote slow-releasing fertiliser (Garden City Plastics Australia) and used to grow plants in 30-Cell Kwikpot trays (Cell dimensions: 50x50x60 mm, Cell volume: 100 ml, Garden City Plastics, Australia). *Arabidopsis* seeds were sown on the moistened soil mix and stratified for three days at 4 °C in the dark. Individual plants were grown under a 16/8 hr light/dark photoperiod illuminated by cool fluorescent lamps (130-150 µ mol m⁻² sec⁻¹) at 22/18 °C (day/night) temperature cycle, unless otherwise stated.

*Arabidopsis* rosette leaves at different developmental stages were collected (20-50 mg/sample) 7 to 9 hours after illumination, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored in -80 °C prior to quantify pigment levels. The ontogeny-based numbering of rosette leaves was numbered serially as described (Boyes et al., 2001, Granier et al., 2002).

Pigment-based signalling bioassay for *Arabidopsis* leaves

The three-week-old soil-grown *Arabidopsis* plants were used in a pigment-based retrograde signal bioassay developed *in-planta*. Plants were kept in the dark for four hours prior to experimentation to establish a metabolic equilibrium. Dark-adapted rosettes were detached from the rootstock keeping a 5 mm portion of the hypocotyl intact and transferred onto a Kimwipe paper towel within a plastic Petri dish saturated with 10 ml of NF (50 µM; or as indicated) solution or MilliQ. Three to four plants (10 to 15 leaves) were incubated per petri dish, covered with a clear plastic lid, and incubated (24 hours: or as indicated) under the continuous light or darkness at 22 °C. The mature fully expanded (leaves 1 to 4; old) and recently emerged (leaves 9 to 13, young) leaves (Figure 1B) were collected after 24 h of treatment and stored in -80°C prior to quantifying pigments. For the dark incubation experiments, leaf tissues were harvested under a green LED light.

Pigment extraction and quantification

Pigment extraction, quantification and analysis was performed as previously described (Dhami et al., 2018, Dhami et al., 2020). In brief, frozen tissues were milled in TissueLyser® (QIAGEN; 2 min, 20 Hz) using stainless steel beads (~3 mm diameter) until finely powdered. Pigments were extracted in 1 ml of acetone and ethyl acetate (60:40 v/v) containing 0.1% (w/v) butylated hydroxytoluene. The mixture was
vortexed, centrifuged (15,000 rpm for 5 minutes at 4 °C) and the upper ethyl acetate phase analysed using a HPLC (Agilent 1260 Infinity) equipped with YMC-C30 (250 x 4.6mm, S-5 µm) column and Diode Array Detector (DAD) detector. A 35-minute reverse phase method was used to separate carotenoids. This consisted of a 5 min isocratic run of 100% solvent A (methanol: triethylamine, 1000:1 v/v) followed by 20 min ramp to 100% solvent B (methyl tert-butyl ether) and 2 min isocratic run of 100% solvent B with a solvent flow rate of 1 ml/min. Carotenoids and chlorophylls were identified based upon retention time relative to known standards and their light emission absorbance spectra at 440 nm (chlorophyll, β-carotene, xanthophylls), 340 nm (phytouene) and 286 nm (phytoene). Absolute quantification and determination of composition of pigments was performed as described (Alagoz et al., 2020, Anwar et al., 2022, Cazzonelli et al., 2020). Quantification of phytoene and phytouene was expressed as peak area per fresh weight.

Data analysis

One- or Two-Way ANOVA was performed using the Holm-Sidak post-hoc multiple comparisons to determine significant interactions within, and across, the test groups in response to the various treatment conditions.

Results

Norflurazon inhibition of PDS activity reduces chlorophyll levels in young expanding leaves

An in-planta pigment-based signalling bioassay was developed using detached whole rosettes from Arabidopsis treated with different concentrations and durations of NFZ that inhibits carotenoid biosynthesis (Figure 1A, B). Under control growth conditions, chlorophyll and carotenoid levels were significantly higher in younger (leaves 9 to 13) compared to old (leaves 1 to 4) leaf types (Figure 1B-D). All NFZ concentrations (1 µM to 100 µM) caused phytoene to accumulate in both young and old leaf types, yet detectable levels of phytouene were only apparent in young leaves at lower concentrations (1 and 10 µM) (Figure 1E, F). At lower NFZ concentrations (1 µM), young leaves showed a reduction in total carotenoids, but not total chlorophylls (Figure 1C, D). Total chlorophyll and carotenoid levels were significantly reduced in young leaves exposed to 5, 10, 50 and 100 µM of NFZ, yet their levels remained almost unchanged in older leaves. The absence of phytouene and reduced chlorophyll levels in younger leaves exposed to 50 µM NFZ indicated this concentration was best suitable to further optimise the duration of NFZ treatment.

The impact of three durations (8, 20, 24 h) of NFZ treatment (50 µM) on pigment levels were assessed in young and old leaves. Phytoene levels were 2- to 3-fold higher in young relative to old leaves after 8, 20 and 24 h of NFZ treatment (Figure 1G). Detectable levels of phytoene could be observed within 4 h of NFZ treatment in younger leaves (data not shown). After 8 h of NFZ treatment, the total chlorophyll and carotenoid levels remained higher in younger leaves, whereas a significant reduction was observed in
young leaves after 20-24 hrs (Figure 1H, I). Therefore, 24 h of treatment with 50 uM NF shows a clear reduction in chlorophylls in young, but not old mature leaves, thereby providing a *in planta* pigment-based bioassay to decipher which environmental factors and what rate-limiting steps in carotenogenesis impact plastid development.

**Exposure of young leaves to cold and darkness reduces pigment levels**

The impact of warm (32°C) and cold (7°C) temperatures, and extended darkness (24 h) on plastid development was examined using the pigment-based signalling bioassay. These treatments did not impact chlorophyll or carotenoid levels in older mature leaves (Figure 2A-F). Similarly, these treatments did not cause phytoene to accumulate (Figure 2G-I). Young leaves exposed to the cold and darkness showed reduced chlorophyll and carotenoid levels like that of old leaves (Figure 2B, C, E, F). Whereas warmer temperatures only slightly decreased chlorophyll levels and had no significant impact on carotenoid content (Figure 2A, D). Therefore, young leaves were highly amenable to alter their pigment levels in response to cold and darkness, while old leaves remained resilient to any environmental change.

The impact of environmental change on pigment levels in aging leaf types was further investigated in combination with NFZ, to determine what might be perturbing chloroplast biogenesis. Young leaves from the NFZ-treated plants accumulated phytoene under warm, cold, and illuminated conditions, that was significantly higher than older leaves (Figure 2G-I). Warmer conditions significantly increased phytoene content in both leaf types, whereas cold exposure substantially reduced phytoene levels compared to the standard 22°C growth temperature (Figure 2G-I). Intriguingly, dark-exposed young and old leaves did not accumulate phytoene upon simultaneous NFZ treatment (Figure 2I). Compared to their respective control without NFZ, total chlorophylls and carotenoids were significantly reduced in young, but not old leaves from plants treated with NFZ and exposed to 32°C, 7°C, and darkness (Figure 2A-F). The trends with or without NFZ were rather similar. Overall, NFZ in combination with warm, cold or dark treatments does not create an obvious additive change on total chlorophyll or carotenoid levels in either leaf-type, despite higher, lower and absent levels of phytoene in NFZ-treated leaf tissues exposed to warm, cold and dark treatments respectively.

**Perturbing strigolactone, abscisic acid or xanthophyll biosynthesis does not alter chlorophyll content in young leaves**

We investigated if blocking SL, ABA, and xanthophyll biosynthesis could impact chlorophyll biosynthesis in young leaves. Total chlorophyll and carotenoid levels in young leaves remained high relative to old leaves in the loss-of-function in single (*ccd1, ccd4, ccd7*) or double (*ccd1 ccd4, ccd7 ccd 4, ccd 1 ccd 7*) mutants that impaired CAROTENOID CLEAVAGE DIOXYGENASE (CCD) activity (Figure 3A-B). Therefore, it appears unlikely that SL generated from CCD7 cleavage, or an ACS produced from cleavage by CCD1 and/or CCD4, regulates chlorophyll levels in young leaves.
Mutants that block the production of lutein (\textit{lut2}), violaxanthin and neoxanthin (\textit{npq2}), lutein, violaxanthin and neoxanthin (\textit{npq2 lut2}), lutein and neoxanthin (\textit{npq1 lut2 abaa4}), or hyperaccumulate zeaxanthin (\textit{npq2, npq2 lut2}), did not affect the higher chlorophyll levels in younger relative to older leaves (Figure 3C-D). There were differences in the total carotenoid content among the different mutant combinations, however, it was always higher in young relative to older leaves mirroring the same trend observed in chlorophyll levels. Therefore, perturbations in xanthophylls that are required for canonical ABA biosynthesis does not appear to affect chlorophyll accumulation in young \textit{Arabidopsis} leaves.

**Carotenoid isomerase activity regulates chlorophyll levels in young leaves**

We investigated if the major rate-limiting step in carotenoid biosynthesis enabled by PSY could regulate pigment levels in leaves. The content of individual, as well as total chlorophylls and carotenoids, were higher in young compared to old leaves from a transgenic line overexpressing \textit{PSY} (35S::\textit{AtPSY#23}) (Maass et al., 2009) (Figure 4A-J). There were no significant differences in pigment levels between \textit{PSY-OE} and WT in both leaf types, with the exception for a subtle reduction in neoxanthin in older leaves from \textit{PSY-OE}. Therefore, overexpression of \textit{PSY} did impact chlorophyll levels in young or old leaves.

Next, we investigated if the loss-of-function in \textit{z-iso} or \textit{crtiso} mutants, that accumulate acyclic \textit{cis}-carotenes under light limiting conditions, could trigger a change in chlorophyll levels in young leaves from plants grown under long photoperiod. The chlorophyll content in \textit{z-iso} young leaves was higher than old leaves (Figure 4A-C). The level of lutein, \textit{β}-carotene, violaxanthin, and, hence, total carotenoids was slightly lower in young leaves of \textit{z-iso} compared to the young leaves from the WT. The carotenoid content in old leaves from both \textit{z-iso} and WT were identical (Figure 4D-J). The loss-of-function of \textit{CRTISO} (\textit{ccr2.1}) caused a reduction in total chlorophyll content in young leaves, such that it was similar to old leaves (Figure 4C). The young leaves from \textit{crtiso} showed lower \textit{chlorophyll b} content compared to WT, whereas \textit{chlorophyll a} content was severely reduced and identical to WT older leaves. The level of chlorophylls in older leaves of \textit{crtiso} and WT were similar (Figure 4A-B). Total carotenoid content was significantly lower in young leaves from \textit{crtiso} relative to WT, yet carotenoid levels were similar in older leaves (Figure 4J). Transgene overexpression of \textit{CRTISO} (35S::\textit{AtCRTISO pMDC32:CRTISO: CRTISO-OE}) in the \textit{crtiso} mutant (\textit{ccr2.1}) restored total chlorophyll and carotenoid levels in young leaves back to WT levels (Figure 4C, J). Unlike WT, the level of lutein and \textit{β}-carotene were similar in young and old leaves from \textit{crtiso} (Figure 4D-E). Whereas violaxanthin, antheraxanthin, zeaxanthin and neoxanthin were all significantly higher in younger compared to older leaves from \textit{crtiso}. Therefore, the reduction in chlorophyll in young but not older leaves of \textit{crtiso}, reveals that photoisomerization of \textit{cis}-carotenes cannot maintain the higher chlorophyll levels normally quantified in young WT leaves.

**NFZ and carotenoid isomerase activity regulate chlorophyll levels differently in young leaves**

We next assessed whether NFZ treatment and \textit{crtiso} have synergistic effects on pigmentation in young leaves. NFZ-treatment further elevated phytoene levels in both young and old leaves of \textit{crtiso} compared
to WT (Figure 5A). Curiously, phytoene content was significantly higher in young, relative to older leaves from *crtiso* and WT plants treated with NFZ revealing there is a continued isoprenoid supply for carotenoid biosynthesis. NFZ caused a reduction of chlorophylls in young leaves from WT, that was even more pronounced in young *crtiso* leaves displaying chlorophyll levels below that of older leaves (Figure 5B-D). Similarly, total carotenoid content in young leaves from *crtiso* plants treated with NFZ were significantly lower than older leaves, while young leaves from NFZ treated WT plants showed carotenoid levels similar to older leaves (Figure 5K). Hence, NFZ and *crtiso* might affect chlorophyll levels and perhaps chloroplast biogenesis by independent signalling pathways.

The impact of NFZ on individual carotenoid levels in young leaves from WT and *crtiso* treated with NFZ were assessed to determine how they impact the carotenoid biosynthetic pathway. NFZ reduced β-carotene levels in young leaves from both WT and *crtiso* to levels below that observed in older leaves (Figure 5F). However, while NFZ reduced lutein levels in WT young leaves, it further reduced lutein content in the *crtiso* mutant to levels below that of older leaves, revealing an additive effect (Figure 5E). Violaxanthin levels were reduced in young WT and *crtiso* leaves from plants treated with NFZ; even though the levels were substantially higher in older leaves from the *crtiso* mutant (Figure 5G). NFZ treated younger leaves contained more antheraxanthin and zeaxanthin compared to older leaves, which was further elevated almost 3-fold in the *crtiso* mutant, evidence of continued carotenoid biosynthesis or reduced catabolism (Figure 5H-I). The levels of neoxanthin were similar in young and older leaves from WT and *crtiso* plants treated with NFZ (Figure 5J). The impact of NFZ on individual carotenoid levels in young leaves from WT and *crtiso* are complex and highlight a continued supply of isoprenoid substrates for carotenoid biosynthesis. The additive effect of NFZ treatment on accumulation of some chlorophylls and carotenoids in *crtiso* relative to WT, reveal they might signal different pathways to regulate chloroplast development.

**Discussion**

The higher pigment content in young relative to old *Arabidopsis* leaves results from a greater cell and hence chloroplast density, that undergo rapid differentiation, division and expansion in emerging leaves providing them with plasticity to change in response to environmental, chemical and/or genetic perturbations (Dhami et al., 2018, Gugel and Soll, 2017, Gonzalez et al., 2012, Dhami and Cazzonelli, 2020). We demonstrate that extended darkness and prolonged cold for 24 hrs can reduce chlorophyll by 20-50% to match levels displayed by the more resilient older leaves. The optimised pigment-based signalling bioassay allowed detached *Arabidopsis* rosettes to be exposed to chemicals such as NFZ, that in addition to inhibiting carotenoid biosynthesis, trigger a plastid derived signal that can impair plastid biogenesis and reduce chlorophyll levels in young, but not old leaf types. Mutations that disrupted xanthophyll biosynthesis and degradation into downstream phytohormones such as SL and ABA, as well as other apocarotenoids did not affect chlorophyll levels in young leaves. An unidentified acyclic cis-carotene derived ACS produced in tissues from *Arabidopsis* plants lacking function of the CAROTENOID ISOMERASE was recently shown to regulate chloroplast biogenesis in newly emerged leaves that manifested as a virescent phenotype in plants grown under a shorter photoperiod (Cazzonelli et al.,
Here we demonstrate that *crtiso* mutant plants grown under a longer photoperiod have lower chlorophyll levels indicating that photoisomerisation can rate-limit the generation of a *cis*-ACS that perturbs plastid development. NFZ treatment of WT and *crtiso* mutant young leaves, revealed similar, opposite, as well as additive effects on individual pigment accumulations in young leaves. We propose that carotenoid isomerisation controls an unidentified *cis*-ACS that mediates a different signalling process to that elicited by NFZ (e.g. chlorophyllide or Mg-ProtoIX) in controlling chlorophyll biosynthesis and perhaps chloroplast development.

**Norflurazon and environmental factors impede pigmentation in young emerging leaves**

Our pigment-based signalling bioassay showed that NFZ caused a 2-3-fold higher accumulation of phytoene in young compared to old leaves in agreeance with previous reports (Beisel et al., 2011). Despite a presumable impairment in plastid biogenesis in young leaves containing dividing cells and developing plastids, phytoene biosynthesis continued revealing a sufficient substrate availability from the MEP pathway. Inhibition of carotenoid biosynthesis by NFZ was previously shown to initially enhance pathway flux, presumably compensating for the short supply of β-carotene (Beisel et al., 2011). The fact that total pigment levels in old leaves following NFZ treatment were similar to the control revealed less plasticity and resilience in mature chloroplasts to maintain chlorophyll. The capacity for pigment accumulation in leaves varies by chloroplast developmental gradients along a given leaf axis (e.g. mature plastids at the tip in expanding cells, and differentiating plastids at the base of dividing cells), as well as between leaves of different ages (e.g. smaller/fewer plastids in young immature leaves undergoing cell division and expansion, and larger/numerous plastids in old mature leaves undergoing steady state turnover) (Gugel and Soll, 2017, Gonzalez et al., 2012, Dhami and Cazzonelli, 2020). There are proplastid to chloroplast transitions occurring within the shoot apical meristem (SAM) of the shoot apex, where flanking leaf primordia emerge as young leaves containing chloroplasts and leucoplasts with developing grana and thylakoids (Charuvi et al., 2012). While mature chloroplasts can undergo a slow steady-state carotenoid turnover (Beisel et al., 2010), this was not evident within our 24 h bioassay. Therefore, we attribute the concurrent NFZ-induced decrease in chlorophyll and carotenoid content in young leaves to a perturbation in chloroplast biogenesis in rapidly dividing and expanding cell types.

Extended darkness reduced total chlorophyll and carotenoid levels in young leaves mimicking the pattern exerted by NFZ. In *Arabidopsis*, carbon stored in the chloroplasts during the day as starch are remobilized during the night to support sugar metabolism, and excessive accumulation of sugars in the *maltose excess 1* mutant (*mex1*) cause chloroplast dysfunction to signal a retrograde signal and trigger chloroplast degradation (Stettler et al., 2009). Perhaps an extended period of darkness triggers the accumulation of sugars that cause a similar degradation of pigments in young leaves. The recently emerged leaves of *Arabidopsis* comprise smaller dividing cells containing fewer, smaller-sized chloroplasts undergoing differentiation and biogenesis that could become interrupted by a plastid-derived signal generated during extended darkness. Indeed, chloroplast division/replication can become restricted...
in spinach leaf discs cultured in the dark or under low intensity green light (Possingham et al., 1975). Whereas, the enlarged mature cells within older leaves that comprise numerous mature chloroplasts with well-developed thylakoid grana stacks, retain their chlorophylls embedded within the thylakoids and hence remain unaffected by darkness (Gonzalez et al., 2012, Gugel and Soll, 2017, Jarvis and Lopez-Juez, 2013, Pyke, 2010). The biosynthesis and degradation of carotenoids and chlorophylls continuously take place in leaves during light exposed conditions as evident from the carbon isotope labelling with $^{14}$CO$_2$ in Arabidopsis (Beisel et al., 2010). However, dark exposure of pepper leaves downregulated the expression of PSY and PDS thereby stalling carotenoid biosynthesis (Simkin et al., 2003). In concert, there was an absence of phytoene accumulation in both young and old Arabidopsis leaves from the NFZ treated leaves subject to darkness. Whether darkness and NFZ reduce chlorophyll accumulation and impair chloroplast biogenesis in young leaves by similar signalling mechanisms remains unclear. We propose that darkness blocks the first committed step in carotenoid biosynthesis and/or stalls the supply of isoprenoid substrates from the MEP pathway.

Low temperature affects a broad spectrum of cellular components in plants, including chloroplast development and metabolism (Liu et al., 2018, Gan et al., 2019). Cold stress can cause irreversible damage to chloroplast structure and photosynthetic capacity and trigger ABA biosynthesis in order to enhance cold acclimation in maize (Guo et al., 2021). We showed that colder exposure reduced chlorophyll and carotenoid accumulation in younger leaves. It was previously shown that spinach leaf discs grown at lower temperatures (12°C continuous) contained small cells and fewer chloroplasts (Possingham and Smith, 1972). Cold exposure at 4°C was also shown to inhibit cell division and arrest growth as evident in Arabidopsis roots and maize leaves (Ashraf and Rahman, 2019, Rymen et al., 2007). Hence, exposure of young leaves to cooler temperatures could suppress cell cycle progression, thereby limiting chloroplast biogenesis and/or division during leaf cell division and/or expansion. The reduction of phytoene and total carotenoid levels in both young and old leaves from the cold exposed plants support an overall reduction in cellular growth processes. This contrasts to higher temperatures that enhanced phytoene accumulation in both young and old leaves yet had no effect on total carotenoid levels and only slightly reduced chlorophyll levels. The reduction in chlorophyll a could be a cellular strategy to reduce heat-induced oxidative stress as was shown in flag leaves at the grain-filling stage of different heat-resistant winter wheat varieties (Wang et al., 2018, Feng et al., 2014). The increased level of phytoene in response to higher temperature could compensate for the higher rate of carotenoid degradation and higher demand of xanthophylls, particularly zeaxanthin which is crucial to maintain functional integrity of chloroplasts (Grudzinski et al., 2017) and the biosynthesis of apocarotenoids that signal stress events (Havaux, 2014). Low temperature and NFZ exposure have similar effects on chlorophyll and carotenoid biosynthesis in young Arabidopsis leaves, contrasting a different signalling mechanism to that induced by darkness which blocks phytoene biosynthesis.

Chlorophyll levels in young leaves are not altered in mutants that disrupt abscisic acid, strigolactone, and/or aporcarotenoid biosynthesis
Strigolactone and \( \beta \)-apocarotenoid signalling metabolites regulate stress acclimation and plant development (Hou et al., 2016, Beltran and Stange, 2016, Moreno et al., 2021). CCD1 cleaves various carotenoid bonds to generate multiple apocarotenoid products (Vogel et al., 2008). CCD4 cleaves \( \beta \)-carotene (Gonzalez-Jorge et al., 2013). CCD7 catalyses the production of strigolactone from \( \beta \)-carotene (Jia et al., 2018). The mature leaves we used to quantify pigment accumulation were unlikely to have transitioned into a phase of senescence and likely harbor mature chloroplasts (Gugel and Soll, 2017). It was not surprising that a single \( ccd \) mutant (\( ccd1, ccd4 \), or \( ccd7 \)) or double mutant combination (\( ccd1 ccd4, ccd1 ccd7, ccd4 ccd7 \)), were unable to significantly alter chlorophyll or carotenoid levels in older leaves containing mature chloroplasts. The pigment levels reached a threshold in older leaves that remained unchanged in the absence of SL or CCD-derived \( \beta \)-apocarotenoids. The significantly higher level of carotenoid content in the young leaves from \textit{Arabidopsis} single and double mutants indicates that lower carotenoid content in older leaves could not be attributed to CCD catalysed carotenoid degradation. The lower pigment levels of older leaves are more likely due to a combination of lower cell density, less cell division, and a low rate of chloroplast turnover (Jarvis and Lopez-Juez, 2013, Pyke, 2010, Kutík et al., 1999, Dhami and Cazzonelli, 2020). The recently emerged leaves of \textit{Arabidopsis} comprise numerous smaller and dividing cell types with developing chloroplasts (Gugel and Soll, 2017, Gonzalez et al., 2012) making them amenable to metabolite signals that control chloroplast biogenesis (Dhami and Cazzonelli, 2020, Dhami et al., 2018). SLs were shown to positively regulate photosynthesis related genes in tomato (Mayzlish-Gati et al., 2010). Yet, the chlorophyll levels in younger leaves also remained consistently stable, and higher than older leaves in CCD mutant combinations. In conclusion, it appears that SL or \( \beta \)-apocarotenoid signals are unlikely to regulate chlorophyll accumulation, and hence chloroplast biogenesis in either young emerging or older mature \textit{Arabidopsis} leaves from plants grown under a long photoperiod.

Xanthophylls such as lutein, violaxanthin, and neoxanthin are abundant carotenoids found in photosynthetic leaves, whereas antheraxanthin and zeaxanthin are crucial to maintain the functional integrity of chloroplasts during excessive light or heat stress (Dhami et al., 2020, Sacharz et al., 2017). Violaxanthin and neoxanthin are precursors of abscisic acid that regulates guard cell closure in stomata, mediates stress acclimation and plant development (Du et al., 2013). Mutants such as \( npq2 \) (ZEP; also known as \( aba1-3, aba deficient 1 \)) and \( aba4 \) (NKS) alter xanthophyll accumulation and block ABA biosynthesis in \textit{Arabidopsis} (Ware et al., 2016). The consistently higher level of chlorophyll pigments in younger compared to older leaves in \( lut2, npq2, lut npq2, \) and \( aba4 npq1 lut2 \) mutants, revealed that altering xanthophyll composition and/or their derived oxidation products did not alter chlorophyll levels and therefore may not have affected chloroplast biogenesis. In addition, the lack of ABA biosynthesis in \( npq2, lut npq2, \) and \( aba4 npq1 lut2 \) mutants revealed that ABA may not regulate chlorophyll levels in young expanding \textit{Arabidopsis} leaves in plants grown under a long photoperiod. Taken together, chlorophyll levels and hence chloroplast biogenesis in young leaves of \textit{Arabidopsis} were not impacted by perturbations in ABA biosynthesis.

**A cis-carotene derived ACS could regulate chloroplast development and chlorophyll accumulation in young leaves**
The higher carotenoid and chlorophyll levels in younger compared to older leaves of the PSY-OE plants showed that substrate supply was not rate-limiting. The substantially higher level of phytoene accumulation in response to NFZ treated leaves, further supported a continual supply of substrates for carotenoid biosynthesis in young leaves, even when NFZ inhibited chloroplast biogenesis. Therefore, substrate supply into the carotenoid pathway does not necessarily have to be affected for a plastid derived signal to mediate a change in chloroplast biogenesis. cis-carotenes have been recently proposed to act as substrates in generating an ACS that controls plastid development (e.g. etioplast, chromoplast, and chloroplast) (Avendano-Vazquez et al., 2014, Escobar-Tovar et al., 2021, Cazzonelli et al., 2020). Phytoene and phytofluene accumulation in response to NFZ treatment are unlikely to be signals themselves, although a burst in their production was shown to elicit artificial chloroplast-to-chromoplast differentiation in leaves (Llorente et al., 2020). Etiolated cotyledons of z-iso accumulate cis-carotenes; 15-cis-phytoene, 15, 9’ di-cis-phytofluene, and 9,15,9’-tri-cis-zeta-carotene (Cazzonelli et al., 2020). The z-iso mutant was shown to generate a subtle yellow leaf phenotype when plants were grown under a shorter photoperiod, and there was a slight effect on plastid development as de-etiolated seedlings showed a subtle reduction in chlorophyll accumulation in cotyledons after light exposure (Cazzonelli et al., 2020). However, the younger leaves from z-iso mutants grown under a longer photoperiod displayed chlorophyll levels similar to that of WT. Therefore, cis-carotenes that accumulate when isomerisation is impaired by z-iso are not provide the right precursors for the biosynthesis of a cis-ACS that regulates chlorophyll accumulation and plastid development in photosynthetic tissues.

ζ-carotene, neurosporene and/or tetra-cis-lycopene have been direct linked to the generation of a yet to be identified cis-ACS in crtiso mutant tissues that regulate PLB formation in etioplasts and chloroplast biogenesis in plants grown under a shorter photoperiod causing young leaves to display a virescent phenotype (Park et al., 2002, Cazzonelli et al., 2020). Sufficient light exposure facilitates photoisomerisation of tetra-cis-lycopene into all-trans-lycopene, thereby reducing cis-carotene accumulation, restoring plastid development, and greening in older leaves of the Arabidopsis crtiso as well as tomato tangerine mutants (Cazzonelli et al., 2020, Isaacson et al., 2002). Indeed, we observed similar levels of chlorophyll in older leaves of the crtiso mutant relative to WT plants growing under a longer photoperiod. Surprisingly, the level of total chlorophyll, lutein, and β-carotene were similar between young and old leaves of crtiso when plants are grown under a longer photoperiod, revealing that a cis-carotene derived ACS could be produced under longer photoperiods in order to control plastid development. However, the levels of violaxanthin, zeaxanthin and antheraxanthin were considerably higher in younger relative to older leaves revealing that such a cis-ACS regulates chlorophyll pigmentation and individual carotenoid biosynthesis by different mechanisms. We conclude that isomerisation mediated by CRTISO, and perhaps photoisomerisation, are major rate-limiting steps in regulating a plastid-derived signal that controls chloroplast development during cell division and expansion in young emerging leaves.

Given there were similarities (e.g. reduced chlorophyll accumulation) and differences (differential carotenoid biosynthesis) in how crtiso and NFZ impact upon pigment levels in young leaves, this prompted us to explore if they perturb similar signalling pathways. We previously proposed that the
crtiso-mediated cis-ACS regulated gene expression was independent of gun-mediated NFZ retrograde signalling (Cazzonelli et al., 2020). Here, we demonstrated that NFZ heightened the accumulation of phytoene and in crtiso revealing that neither NFZ nor crtiso, or both in combination, impaired substrate supply for carotenogenesis. However, NFZ should have blocked the production of the downstream cis-ACS, as it was able to restore PLB formation in crtiso etiolated seedlings (Cuttriss et al., 2007). The treatment of crtiso with NFZ further decreased chlorophylls, lutein and total carotenoids below that of NFZ treated WT older leaves, and collectively reduced violaxanthin and antheraxanthin to levels below that of crtiso older leaves. This additive effect indicated that NFZ and crtiso generate different signals, neither of which affected the level of the stress pigment zeaxanthin that remained higher in younger leaves, irrespective of the treatment or genotype. It seems likely that the cis-ACS produced by crtiso and retrograde signal (e.g. Mg-ProtoIX) generated by NFZ inhibition of PDS activity, act in different manners to control chloroplast development and maintain pigment homeostasis in young leaves.

Conclusion

The Arabidopsis foliar pigment-based signalling bioassay has utility to combine chemical (e.g NFZ), environmental (darkness and temperature), and genetic (e.g. crtiso or gun signalling mutants) perturbations to decipher how plastid-generated signalling metabolites operate mechanistically in planta to control chlorophyll biosynthesis and chloroplast development. NFZ treatment of whole rosettes likely triggered a chlorophyll-derived signal that affected chloroplast biogenesis during early leaf development leading to a reduction in chlorophyll levels. The Arabidopsis foliar pigment-based signalling bioassay allowed us to demonstrate that carotenoid isomerization was the rate-limiting step in the carotenoid pathway that regulates an unidentified apocarotenoid signal controlling chlorophyll biosynthesis. Photoperiod and light quality are factors affecting photoisomerization of cis-carotenes in a tissue-specific manner in this bioassay can differentiate between signalling processes by growing plants under different light conditions. Here, we utilised the Arabidopsis foliar pigment-based signalling bioassay to demonstrate that plants grown under a longer photoperiod and lacking carotenoid isomerisation trigger the production of a signal that is likely to control chloroplast biogenesis.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

All authors have contributed to the research, read the article, and agreed to submission.

Availability of data and materials
The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

**Competing Interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

**Funding**

This work was partially supported by Grant DP130102593 (CIC and BJP). ND was supported by an International Postgraduate Research fellowship awarded by Western Sydney University, Australia.

**Author contributions**

ND and CIC conceived ideas and designed research. ND performed experiments, analysed data, prepared figures, and wrote the manuscript with assistance from primary supervisor CIC. BJP and DTT co-supervised ND. All authors have read and edited the manuscript.

**Acknowledgements**

ND appreciates the generous support and supervision from Christopher I Cazzonelli, David T Tissue and by Barry J Pogson. We are thankful to Luca Dall’Osto (University of Verona, Italy) for kindly providing the seeds of npq2, lut2 npq2 and aba4 npq1 lut2 and Barry Pogson and John Rivers (Australian National University) for providing ccd1 ccd4, ccd1 ccd7, and ccd4 ccd7 seed stocks. We thank Rishi Aryal, Eric Brenya, Yagiz Alagoz, and Chris Mitchell for their technical support.

**References**

1. ALAGOZ, Y., DHAMI, N., MITCHELL, C. & CAZZONELLI, C. I. 2020. cis/trans Carotenoid Extraction, Purification, Detection, Quantification, and Profiling in Plant Tissues. *Plant and Food Carotenoids*. Springer.

2. ANWAR, S., NAYAK, J., ALAGOZ, Y., WOJTALEWICZ, D. & CAZZONELLI, C. I. 2022. Purification and use of carotenoid standards to quantify cis-trans geometrical carotenoid isomers in plant tissues. *In: WURTZEL, E. T. (ed.) Methods in Enzymology Carotenoids: Carotenoid and apocarotenoid analysis*. Elsevier.

3. ASHRAF, M. A. & RAHMAN, A. 2019. Cold stress response in Arabidopsis thaliana is mediated by GNOM ARF-GEF. *The Plant Journal*, 97, 500-516.

4. AULDRIIDGE, M. E., BLOCK, A., VOGEL, J. T., DABNEY-SMITH, C., MILA, I., BOUZAYEN, M., MAGALLANES-LUNDBACK, M., DELLAPENNA, D., MCCARTY, D. R. & KLEE, H. J. 2006.
Characterization of three members of the Arabidopsis carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase family demonstrates the divergent roles of this multifunctional enzyme family. *The Plant Journal*, 45, 982-93.

5. AVENDANO-VAZQUEZ, A. O., CORDOBA, E., LLAMAS, E., SAN ROMAN, C., NISAR, N., DE LA TORRE, S., RAMOS-VEGA, M., GUTIERREZ-NAVA, M. D., CAZZONELLI, C. I., POGSON, B. J. & LEON, P. 2014. An uncharacterized apocarotenoid-derived signal generated in zeta-Carotene desaturase mutants regulates leaf development and the expression of chloroplast and nuclear genes in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Cell*, 26, 2524-2537.

6. BARANSKI, R. & CAZZONELLI, C. 2016. Carotenoid biosynthesis and regulation in plants. *In: KACZOR, A. & BARANSKA, M. (eds.) Carotenoids: Nutrition, Analysis and Technology*. Wiley-Blackwell.

7. BEISEL, K. G., JAHNKE, S., HOFMANN, D., KOPPCHEN, S., SCHURR, U. & MATSUBARA, S. 2010. Continuous turnover of carotenes and chlorophyll a in mature leaves of *Arabidopsis* revealed by $^{14}$CO$_2$ pulse-chase labeling. *Plant Physiol*, 152, 2188-99.

8. BEISEL, K. G., SCHURR, U. & MATSUBARA, S. 2011. Altered turnover of beta-carotene and Chl a in *Arabidopsis* leaves treated with lincomycin or norflurazon. *Plant Cell Physiol*, 52, 1193-203.

9. BELTRAN, J., KLOSS, B., HOSLER, J. P., GENG, J., LIU, A., MODI, A., DAWSON, J. H., SONO, M., SHUMSKAYA, M., AMPOMAH-DWAMENA, C., LOVE, J. D. & WURTZEL, E. T. 2015. Control of carotenoid biosynthesis through a heme-based cis-trans isomerase. *Nat Chem Biol*, 11, 598-605.

10. BELTRAN, J. C. & STANGE, C. 2016. Apocarotenoids: A new carotenoid-derived pathway. *Subcell Biochem*, 79, 239-72.

11. BIELCZYNSKI, L. W., LACKI, M. K., HOEFNAGELS, I., GAMBIN, A. & CROCE, R. 2017. Leaf and plant age affects photosynthetic performance and photoprotective capacity. *Plant Physiol*, 175, 1634-1648.

12. BOYES, D. C., ZAYED, A. M., ASCENZI, R., MCCASKILL, A. J., HOFFMAN, N. E., DAVIS, K. R. & GORLACH, J. 2001. Growth stage-based phenotypic analysis of *Arabidopsis*: a model for high throughput functional genomics in plants. *Plant Cell*, 13, 1499-510.

13. CAZZONELLI, C. I., CUTTRISS, A. J., COSSETTO, S. B., PYE, W., CRISP, P., WHELAN, J., FINNEGAN, E. J., TURNBULL, C. & POGSON, B. J. 2009. Regulation of carotenoid composition and shoot branching in *Arabidopsis* by a chromatin modifying histone methyltransferase, SDG8. *Plant Cell*, 21, 39-53.

14. CAZZONELLI, C. I., HOU, X., ALAGOZ, Y., RIVERS, J., DHAMI, N., LEE, J., MARRI, S. & POGSON, B. J. 2020. A cis-carotene derived apocarotenoid regulates etioplast and chloroplast development. *Elife*, 9, e45310.

15. CAZZONELLI, C. I. & POGSON, B. J. 2010. Source to sink: regulation of carotenoid biosynthesis in plants. *Trends Plant Sci*, 15, 266-74.

16. CAZZONELLI, C. I., ROBERTS, A. C., CARMODY, M. E. & POGSON, B. J. 2010. Transcriptional control of SET DOMAIN GROUP 8 and CAROTENOID ISOMERASE during *Arabidopsis* development. *Mol Plant*, 3, 174-91.

17. CHARUVI, D., KISS, V., NEVO, R., SHIMONI, E., ADAM, Z. & REICH, Z. 2012. Gain and loss of photosynthetic membranes during plastid differentiation in the shoot apex of Arabidopsis. *Plant Cell,*
24, 1143-57.
18. CHEN, Y., LI, F. & WURTZEL, E. T. 2010. Isolation and characterization of the Z-ISO gene encoding a missing component of carotenoid biosynthesis in plants. *Plant Physiol*, 153, 66-79.
19. CUTTRISS, A. J., CHUBB, A. C., ALAWADY, A., GRIMM, B. & POGSON, B. J. 2007. Regulation of lutein biosynthesis and prolamellar body formation in *Arabidopsis*. *Funct Plant Biol*, 34, 663-672.
20. D’ALESSANDRO, S., KSAS, B. & HAVAUX, M. 2018. Decoding beta-cyclocitral-mediated retrograde signaling reveals the role of a detoxification response in plant tolerance to photooxidative stress. *Plant Cell*, 30, 2495-2511.
21. DHAMI, N. & CAZZONELLI, C. I. 2020. Environmental impacts on carotenoid metabolism in leaves. *Plant Growth Regul*, 92, 455-477.
22. DHAMI, N., DRAKE, J. E., TJOELKER, M. G., TISSUE, D. T. & CAZZONELLI, C. I. 2020. An extreme heatwave enhanced the xanthophyll de-epoxidation state in leaves of Eucalyptus trees grown in the field. *Physiology and Molecular Biology of Plants*, 26, 211-218.
23. DHAMI, N., TISSUE, D. T. & CAZZONELLI, C. I. 2018. Leaf-age dependent response of carotenoid accumulation to elevated CO2 in *Arabidopsis*. *Arch Biochem Biophys*, 647, 67-75.
24. DONG, H., DENG, Y., MU, J., LU, Q., WANG, Y., XU, Y., CHU, C., CHONG, K., LU, C. & ZUO, J. 2007. The *Arabidopsis* spontaneous Cell death1 gene, encoding a zeta-carotene desaturase essential for carotenoid biosynthesis, is involved in chloroplast development, photoprotection and retrograde signalling. *Cell Res*, 17, 458-470.
25. DU, H., WU, N., CHANG, Y., LI, X., XIAO, J. & XIONG, L. 2013. Carotenoid deficiency impairs ABA and IAA biosynthesis and differentially affects drought and cold tolerance in rice. *Plant Mol Biol*, 83, 475-88.
26. ESCOBAR-TOVAR, L., SIERRA, J., HERNANDEZ-MUNOZ, A., MCQUINN, R. P., MATHIONI, S., CORDOBA, E., COLAS DES FRANCS-SMALL, C., MEYERS, B. C., POGSON, B. & LEON, P. 2021. Deconvoluting apocarotenoid-mediated retrograde signaling networks regulating plastid translation and leaf development. *Plant J*, 105, 1582-1599.
27. FELEMBAN, A., BRAGUY, J., ZURBRIGGEN, M. D. & AL-BABILI, S. 2019. Apocarotenoids Involved in plant development and stress response. *Front Plant Sci*, 10, 1168.
28. FENG, B., LIU, P., LI, G., DONG, S. T., WANG, F. H., KONG, L. A. & ZHANG, J. W. 2014. Effect of Heat Stress on the Photosynthetic Characteristics in Flag Leaves at the Grain-Filling Stage of Different Heat-Resistant Winter Wheat Varieties. *Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science*, 200, 143-155.
29. GAN, P., LIU, F., LI, R., WANG, S. & LUO, J. 2019. Chloroplasts- Beyond Energy Capture and Carbon Fixation: Tuning of Photosynthesis in Response to Chilling Stress. *Int J Mol Sci*, 20.
30. GONZALEZ, N., VANHAEREN, H. & INZE, D. 2012. Leaf size control: complex coordination of cell division and expansion. *Trends Plant Sci*, 17, 332-40.
31. GONZALEZ-JORGE, S., HA, S. H., MAGALLANES-LUNDBACK, M., GILLILAND, L. U., ZHOU, A., LIPKA, A. E., NGUYEN, Y. N., ANGELOVICI, R., LIN, H., CEPILA, J., LITTLE, H., BUCELL, C. R., GORE, M. A. &
DELLAPENNA, D. 2013. Carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 4 is a negative regulator of beta-carotene content in Arabidopsis seeds. *Plant Cell*, 25, 4812-26.

32. GRANIER, C., MASSONNET, C., TURC, O., MULLER, B., CHENU, K. & TARDIEU, F. 2002. Individual leaf development in Arabidopsis thaliana: a stable thermal-time-based programme. *Ann Bot*, 89, 595-604.

33. GRUDZINSKI, W., NIERZWICKI, L., WELC, R., RESZCZYNSKA, E., LUCHOWSKI, R., CZUB, J. & GRUSZECKI, W. I. 2017. Localization and Orientation of Xanthophylls in a Lipid Bilayer. *Scientific Reports*, 7, 9619.

34. GUGEL, I. L. & SOLL, J. 2017. Chloroplast differentiation in the growing leaves of Arabidopsis thaliana. *Protoplasma*, 254, 1857-1866.

35. GUO, Q., LI, X., NIU, L., JAMESON, P. E. & ZHOU, W. 2021. Transcription-associated metabolomic adjustments in maize occur during combined drought and cold stress. *Plant Physiology*, 186, 677-695.

36. HAVAUX, M. 2014. Carotenoid oxidation products as stress signals in plants. *Plant J*, 79, 597-606.

37. HERNANDEZ-VERDEJA, T. & STRAND, A. 2018. Retrograde Signals Navigate the Path to Chloroplast Development. *Plant Physiol*, 176, 967-976.

38. HOU, X., RIVERS, J., LEON, P., MCQUINN, R. P. & POGSON, B. J. 2016. Synthesis and function of apocarotenoid signals in plants. *Trends Plant Sci*, 21, 792-803.

39. ISAACSON, T., RONEN, G., ZAMIR, D. & HIRSCHBERG, J. 2002. Cloning of tangerine from tomato reveals a carotenoid isomerase essential for the production of beta-carotene and xanthophylls in plants. *Plant Cell*, 14, 333-42.

40. JARVIS, P. & LOPEZ-JUEZ, E. 2013. Biogenesis and homeostasis of chloroplasts and other plastids. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*, 14, 787-802.

41. JIA, K.-P., MI, J., ALI, S., OHYANAGI, H., MORENO, J. C., ABLAZOV, A., BALAKRISHNA, A., BERQDAR, L., FIORE, A., DIRETTO, G., MARTÍNEZ, C., DE LERA, A. R., GOJOBORI, T. & AL-BABILI, S. 2021. An alternative, zeaxanthin epoxidase-independent abscisic acid biosynthetic pathway in plants. *Molecular Plant*.

42. JIA, K. P., BAZ, L. & AL-BABILI, S. 2018. From carotenoids to strigolactones. *J Exp Bot*, 69, 2189-2204.

43. KUTÍK, J., KOČOVA, M., HOLÁ, D. & KÖRNEROVÁ, M. 1999. The development of chloroplast ultrastructure and Hill reaction activity during leaf ontogeny in different maize (Zea mays L.) genotypes. *Photosynthetica*, 36, 497-507.

44. LIU, X., ZHOU, Y., XIAO, J. & BAO, F. 2018. Effects of Chilling on the Structure, Function and Development of Chloroplasts. *Frontiers in plant science*, 9, 1715-1715.

45. LLORENTE, B., TORRES-MONTILLA, S., MORELLI, L., FLOREZ-SARASA, I., MATUS, J. T., EZQUERRO, M., D'ANDREA, L., HOUHOU, F., MAJER, E., PICO, B., CEBOLLA, J., TRONCOSO, A., FERNIE, A. R., DAROS, J. A. & RODRIGUEZ-CONCEPCION, M. 2020. Synthetic conversion of leaf chloroplasts into carotenoid-rich plastids reveals mechanistic basis of natural chromoplast development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 117, 21796-21803.
46. MAASS, D., ARANGO, J., WUST, F., BEYER, P. & WELSCH, R. 2009. Carotenoid crystal formation in Arabidopsis and carrot roots caused by increased phytoene synthase protein levels. PLoS One, 4, e6373.
47. MAYZLISH-GATI, E., LEKKALA, S. P., RESNICK, N., WININGER, S., BHATTACHARYA, C., LEMCOFF, J. H., KAPULNIK, Y. & KOLTAI, H. 2010. Strigolactones are positive regulators of light-harvesting genes in tomato. J Exp Bot, 61, 3129-36.
48. MORENO, J. C., MI, J., ALAGOZ, Y. & AL-BABILI, S. 2021. Plant apocarotenoids: from retrograde signaling to interspecific communication. Plant J, 105, 351-375.
49. OELMULLER, R., LEVITAN, I., BERGFELD, R., RAJASEKHAR, V. K. & MOHR, H. 1986. Expression of nuclear genes as affected by treatments acting on the plastids. Planta, 168, 482-92.
50. PARK, H., KREUNEN, S. S., CUTTRISS, A. J., DELLAPENNA, D. & POGSON, B. J. 2002. Identification of the carotenoid isomerase provides insight into carotenoid biosynthesis, prolamellar body formation, and photomorphogenesis. Plant Cell, 14, 321-32.
51. POGSON, B. J., NIYOGI, K. K., BJORKMAN, O. & DELLAPENNA, D. 1998. Altered xanthophyll compositions adversely affect chlorophyll accumulation and nonphotochemical quenching in Arabidopsis mutants. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 95, 13324-9.
52. POGSON, B. J., WOO, N. S., FORSTER, B. & SMALL, I. D. 2008. Plastid signalling to the nucleus and beyond. Trends Plant Sci, 13, 602-9.
53. POSSINGHAM, J. V., CRAN, D. G., ROSE, R. J. & LOVEYS, B. R. 1975. Effects of Green Light on the Chloroplasts of Spinach Leaf Discs. Journal of Experimental Botany, 26, 33-42.
54. POSSINGHAM, J. V. & SMITH, J. W. 1972. Factors Affecting Chloroplast Replication in Spinach. Journal of Experimental Botany, 23, 1050-1059.
55. PYKE, K. A. 2010. Plastid division. AoB Plants, 2010, plq016.
56. RAMEL, F., BIRTIC, S., GINIES, C., SOUBIGOU-TACONNAT, L., TRIANTAPHYLIDES, C. & HAVAUX, M. 2012. Carotenoid oxidation products are stress signals that mediate gene responses to singlet oxygen in plants. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 109, 5535-40.
57. RIVERS, J. Y. 2017. Volatile apocarotenoid biosynthesis and carotenoid catabolism in Arabidopsis thaliana. PhD, PhD thesis, Australian National University.
58. RODRIGUEZ-VILLALON, A., GAS, E. & RODRIGUEZ-CONCEPCION, M. 2009. Phytoene synthase activity controls the biosynthesis of carotenoids and the supply of their metabolic precursors in dark-grown Arabidopsis seedlings. Plant J, 60, 424-35.
59. ROTTET, S., DEVILLERS, J., GLAUSER, G., DOUET, V., BESAGNI, C. & KESSLER, F. 2016. Identification of plastoglobules as a site of carotenoid Cleavage. Front Plant Sci, 7, 1855.
60. RYMEN, B., FIORANI, F., KARTAL, F., VANDEPOELE, K., INZÉ, D. & BEEMSTER, G. T. S. 2007. Cold Nights Impair Leaf Growth and Cell Cycle Progression in Maize through Transcriptional Changes of Cell Cycle Genes. Plant Physiology, 143, 1429-1438.
61. SACHARZ, J., GIOVAGNETTI, V., UNGERER, P., MASTROIANNI, G. & RUBAN, A. V. 2017. The xanthophyll cycle affects reversible interactions between PsbS and light-harvesting complex II to control non-photochemical quenching. *Nat Plants*, 3, 16225.

62. SADALI, N. M., SOWDEN, R. G., LING, Q. & JARVIS, R. P. 2019. Differentiation of chromoplasts and other plastids in plants. *Plant Cell Rep*, 38, 803-818.

63. SCHAUB, P., RODRIGUEZ-FRANCO, M., CAZZONELLI, C. I., ALVAREZ, D., WUST, F. & WELSCH, R. 2018. Establishment of an *Arabidopsis* callus system to study the interrelations of biosynthesis, degradation and accumulation of carotenoids. *PLoS One*, 13, e0192158.

64. SIMKIN, A. J., ZHU, C., KUNTZ, M. & SANDMANN, G. 2003. Light-dark regulation of carotenoid biosynthesis in pepper (*Capsicum annuum*) leaves. *J Plant Physiol*, 160, 439-43.

65. STESSMAN, D., MILLER, A., SPALDING, M. & RODERMEL, S. 2002. Regulation of photosynthesis during *Arabidopsis* leaf development in continuous light. *Photosynth Res*, 72, 27-37.

66. STETTLER, M., EICKE, S., METTLER, T., MESSERLI, G., HORTENSTEINER, S. & ZEEMAN, S. C. 2009. Blocking the metabolism of starch breakdown products in *Arabidopsis* leaves triggers chloroplast degradation. *Mol Plant*, 2, 1233-46.

67. VOGEL, J. T., TAN, B. C., MCCARTY, D. R. & KLEE, H. J. 2008. The carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 1 enzyme has broad substrate specificity, cleaving multiple carotenoids at two different bond positions. *J Biol Chem*, 283, 11364-73.

68. WANG, J. Y., HAIDER, I., JAMIL, M., FIORILLI, V., SAITO, Y., MI, J., BAZ, L., KOUNTCHE, B. A., JIA, K.-P., GUO, X., BALAKRISHNA, A., NTUI, V. O., REINKE, B., VOLPE, V., GOJOBORI, T., BLILOU, I., LANFRANCO, L., BONFANTE, P. & AL-BABILI, S. 2019. The apocarotenoid metabolite zaxinone regulates growth and strigolactone biosynthesis in rice. *Nature Communications*, 10, 810.

69. WANG, Q. L., CHEN, J. H., HE, N. Y. & GUO, F. Q. 2018. Metabolic Reprogramming in Chloroplasts under Heat Stress in Plants. *Int J Mol Sci*, 19.

70. WARE, M. A., DALL’OSTO, L. & RUBAN, A. V. 2016. An in vivo quantitative comparison of photoprotection in *Arabidopsis* xanthophyll mutants. *Front Plant Sci*, 7, 841.

71. WU, G. Z. & BOCK, R. 2021. GUN control in retrograde signaling: How GENOMES UNCOUPLED proteins adjust nuclear gene expression to plastid biogenesis. *Plant Cell*, 33, 457-474.

**Figures**

**Figure 1**

Optimisation of a pigment-based signalling bioassay in *Arabidopsis* detached rosettes. (A) Pathway for carotenoid biosynthesis and catabolism into an apocarotenoid signal (ACS) or phytohormone such as strigolactone (SL) and abscisic acid (ABA). Norflurazone (NFZ) inhibits PDS activity and aryl-C3N hydroxamic acid (D15) impairs CCD activity. Green arrows and red lines represent positive and negative
regulation, respectively. Blue lines denote a pathway towards the generation of a carotenoid cleavage product specified in the grey box. Mutants used in this study include; z-carotene isomerase (z-iso) and carotenoid chloroplast regulatory 2 (ccr2), lutein deficient 2 (lut2), nonphotochemical quenching 1 (npq1), nonphotochemical quenching 2 (npq2), abscisic acid deficient 4 (aba4), more axillary branching 3 (max3). Abbreviations: GERANYLGERANYL PYROPHOSPHATE (GGPP), PHYTOENE SYNTHASE (PSY), PHYTOENE DESATURASE (PDS), ζ-CAROTENE DESATURASE (ZDS), ZETA-CAROTENE ISOMERASE (Z-ISO), CAROTENOID ISOMERASE (CRTISO), LYCOPENE EPSILON CYCLASE (LCY), and LYCOPENE BETA CYCLASE (bLCY), ZEAXANTHIN EPOXIDASE (ZE), VIOLAXANTHIN DEEPOXIDASE (VDE), NEOAXANTHIN SYNTHASE (NXS), CAROTENOID CLEAVAGE DIOXYGENASE (CCD).

(B) Visual display of the whole rosette bioassay showing the rosettes incubating on kim wipes saturated with NFZ contained with a petri dish. The numbered rosette shows the leaf position by chronological age (1 to 15; oldest to youngest). Three week old Arabidopsis rosettes were treated with different NFZ concentrations (0-100 μM) for 24 hours (D-F) and various time points over a 24 hr period (G-I). Arabidopsis trays were kept in dark for 4-5 hours before transferring Arabidopsis plants to NF under continuous light (130-150 μmol m-2 sec-1, cool fluorescent lamps) at 22 °C. Mature (leaf 1-2; old) and recently emerged (leaf 9-11, young) leaves were collected after treatments and pigment levels quantified.

(C-F) Absolute concentrations of phytofluene (C), phytoene (D), total carotenoids (E), and total chlorophylls (F) in response to the different concentration of NF. (G-I) Absolute concentrations of phytoene (G), total carotenoids (H), and total chlorophylls (I) in response to the different NF incubation times over a 24 hour period. Plots represent the mean values with standard error of means (n=3-4; C) from a representative dataset of at least two independent experimental repetitions. Letter codes in the plots indicate the level of statistical variation (p<0.05) in carotenoid content within and across the test groups determined by One-Way ANOVA adopting Holm-Sidak post-hoc multiple comparisons.
Figure 2

Chlorophyll and carotenoid content in Arabidopsis rosette leaves exposed to changes in temperature and extended darkness with or without norflurazon. Total chlorophyll (A-C), total carotenoid (D-F), and photoene (G-I) content in young and old leaves from the Arabidopsis rosettes exposed to warm (32 °C; A, D, G), cold (7 °C; B, E, H), and darkness (C, F, I) in the presence or absence of NF. Error bars display standard error of the mean (n=4). Dataset is representative of two independent experiments. Letter codes
denote statistical variation (p<0.05) determined by Two-Way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak *post-hoc* multiple comparison.

**Figure 3**

Chlorophyll and carotenoid content in young and old leaves from *carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase (ccd)*, xanthophyll, SL and ABA mutants. The average total chlorophyll (A, C), and carotenoid (B, D) content in young and old leaves from WT and mutants are displayed with error bars denoting the standard error (n=x). Data is representative of two experimental repetitions. Letters denote statistical variation (p<0.05) within leaf types across different germplasm determined using a Two-Way ANOVA and *post-hoc* Holm-Sidak multiple comparison. *ccd1; carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase, ccd4; carotenoid cleavage*
dioxygenase 4, ccd7; carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 7 (max3), ccd8; carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 8 (max4); npq1; nonphotochemical quenching 1 (violaxanthin deepoxidase), npq2, nonphotochemical quenching 2 (zeaxanthin deepoxidase), aba4; abscisic acid deficient 4 (neoxanthin synthaseS), lut2, lutein deficient 2 (epsilon-lycopene cyclase).

Figure 4
Chlorophyll and carotenoid content in young and old leaves of *Arabidopsis* germplasm that alter cis-carotene biosynthesis. (A) Chlorophyll b, (B) chlorophyll a, (C) total chlorophyll, (D) Lutein, (E) β-carotene, (F) Violaxanthin, (G) Neoxanthin, (H) Antheraxanthin, (I) Zeaxanthin, and (J) total carotenoids were quantified in young and old leaves of different germplasm. Mean values are displayed with standard error (n=x) being a representative dataset from two experimental repetitions. Letters denote statistical variation (p<0.05) within leaf types across different germplasm determined using a Two-Way ANOVA and *post-hoc* Holm-Sidak multiple comparison. *ziso* and *crtiso* are loss of function mutants in ζ-carotene isomerase and carotenoid isomerase, respectively. *PSY-OE* enables higher PSY activity (35S::AtPSY#23) (Maass et al., 2009) and 35S::AtCRTISO restored CRTISO activity to the loss-of-function *ccr2.1* mutant (Cazzonelli et al., 2010).
Figure 5

Norflurazon-induces additive changes in chlorophyll and carotenoid content in the *carotenoid isomerase* mutant leaves. (A) Phytoene, (B) Chlorophyll b, (C) chlorophyll a, (D) total chlorophyll, (E) Lutein, (F) β-carotene, (G) Violaxanthin, (H) Antheraxanthin, (I) Zeaxanthin, and (J) Neoxanthin, (K) total carotenoids in young and old leaves from *crtiso* and Wt plants exposed to norflurazon. Mean values are displayed with standard error (n=4) being a representative dataset from two experimental repetitions. Letters denote statistical variation (p<0.05) within leaf types across different germplasm determined using a Two-Way ANOVA and post-hoc Holm-Sidak multiple comparison. *crtiso*, *carotenoid isomerase*. 