Exogenous gibberellin induced regreening through the regulation of chlorophyll and carotenoid metabolism in Valencia oranges

SURE 静岡大学学術リポジトリ Shizuoka University REpository

メタデータ	言語: eng		
	出版者:		
	公開日: 2022-05-20		
	キーワード (Ja):		
	キーワード (En):		
	作成者: Keawmanee, Nichapat, Ma, Gang, Zhang,		
Lancui, Yahata, Masaki, Murakami, Kan, Yamamo			
	Masashi, Kojima, Nami, Kato, Masaya		
	メールアドレス:		
	所属:		
URL	http://hdl.handle.net/10297/00028974		

1	Exogenous gibberellin induced regreening through the regulation of chlorophyll and carotenoid				
2	metabolism in Valencia oranges				
3	Nichapat Keawmanee <sup>a,b</sup> , Gang Ma <sup>b,c</sup> , Lancui Zhang <sup>b</sup> , Masaki Yahata <sup>b,c</sup> , Kan Murakami <sup>c</sup> , Masashi				
4	Yamamoto <sup>c</sup> , Nami Kojima <sup>c</sup> , Masaya Kato <sup>b,c*</sup>				
5					
6	<sup>a</sup> The United Graduate School of Agricultural Science, Gifu University, 1-1 Yanagido, Gifu-shi, Gifu				
7	501-1193, Japan				
8	<sup>b</sup> Department of Bioresource Sciences, Faculty of Agriculture, Shizuoka University, 836 Ohya, Suruga,				
9	Shizuoka 422-8529, Japan				
10	<sup>c</sup> Graduate School of Integrated Science and Technology, Shizuoka University, 836 Ohya, Suruga,				
11	Shizuoka 422-8529, Japan				
12					
13					
14					
15					
16	*Corresponding author: Masaya Kato				
17	Telephone: 81-54-238-4830 Fax: 81-54-238-4830				
18	E-mail address: kato.masaya@shizuoka.ac.jp				
19					
20					
21					
22					
23					
24					
25					
26					
27					
28					

# 29 Abstract

30	In the present study, we studied the effects of gibberellic acid (GA) on chlorophyll and
31	carotenoid metabolites and related gene expression during the regreening process in Valencia orange
32	fruits (Citrus sinensis Osbeck). During the regreening, fruits treated with GA turned green much faster
33	than those of the control. Compared with untreated fruits, chlorophyll accumulation was induced and
34	the content of carotenoids ( $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin, all- <i>trans</i> -violaxanthin, and 9-cis-violaxanthin) was
35	decreased by the GA treatment. Chlorophyll and carotenoid contents following GA treatment appeared
36	to be highly regulated at the gene transcription level. Correspondingly, the up-regulation of chlorophyll
37	biosynthesis genes (CitGGDR, CitCHL27, CitPORA, and CitCAO) and down-regulation of degradation
38	genes (CitCLH1, CitSGR, CitPPH, CitPAO, and CitRCCR) led to the increase of chlorophyll contents,
39	and the down-regulation of carotenoid biosynthesis genes (CitPSY, CitPDS, CitZDS, CitLCYb2, and
40	CitHYb) led to the decrease of carotenoid contents. These observations indicated that GA acted as a
41	crucial regulator in the regreening process of citrus fruits.
42	Keywords: Carotenoid, Chlorophyll, Gibberellic acid, Regreening, Valencia oranges
43	
44	
45	
46	
47	
48	
49	
50	
51	
52	
53	
54	
55	
56	

## 57 **1. Introduction**

58 Citrus fruits accumulate a diversity of pigments at different mature stages. In general, the color 59 of citrus fruits is determined by different classes of pigments, namely chlorophylls, carotenoids, and 60 anthocyanins. In the immature fruit, the fruit flavedos is abundant in chlorophylls during the summer 61 season in response to high temperatures of air and soil. The fruit development generally occurs in mid-62 autumn when the temperature goes down. During fruit maturation, the color development in the 63 flavedos is associated with the accumulation of carotenoids and the simultaneous degradation of 64 chlorophylls (Kato et al., 2004; Rodrigo et al., 2013).

65 In plants, geranylgeranyl diphosphate (GGPP) is a precursor for the synthesis of chlorophylls. 66 Chlorophyllide (a) is synthesized from glutamate in plastids, and the phytol side chain derives from 67 GGPP that is produced via isopentenyl diphosphate (IPP) in the plastidial methylerthritol 4-phosphate 68 (MEP) pathway. GGPP is then reduced to phytylPP by geranylgeranyl-PP reductase (GGDR). The 69 condensation of those molecules to form chlorophyll a (Chl a) is catalyzed by chlorophyll synthase 70 (CS). Chl a is the major component of chlorophylls in citrus fruit flavedos. Subsequently, Chl a can be 71 converted into chlorophyll b (Chl b) by chlide a oxygenase (CAO) (Joyard et al., 2009; Rodrigo et al., 72 2013; Ma et al., 2021a, b). The four basic steps of chlorophyll degradation start with the conversion of 73 Chl b to Chl a by Chl b reductase (CBR) and 7-hydroxymethyl Chl a reductase (HCAR), then the Chl 74 a is converted to chlorophyllide a by chlorophyllase (Chlase) to remove of the side chain attached to 75 the tetrapyrrole macrocycle. Afterwards, the magnesium in the center of chlorophyllide is removed by 76 action of magnesium dechelatase (STAY-GREEN, SGR), thereby producing pheophytin, which is then 77 catabolized to pheophorbide and free phytol by action of pheophorbide hydrolase (PPH). Finally, 78 pheophorbide a is converted to the "red chlorophyll catabolite" (RCC) by action of pheophorbide a 79 oxygenase (PAO), followed by conversion of RCC into "fluorescent chlorophyll catabolites" (FCCs) 80 by red chlorophyll catabolite reductase (RCCR) (Hörtensteiner, 1999; Joyard et al., 2009; Rodrigo et 81 al., 2013; Xie et al., 2019; Wang and Grimm, 2021).

In parallel, the synthesis of carotenoids starts from the condensation of two molecules of GGPP
to ultimately form phytoene by action of phytoene synthase (PSY). Then phytoene is converted to
lycopene by phytoene dehydrogenase (PDS) and ξ-carotene desaturase (ZDS). Lycopene molecules are

standing at a branching point leading either to α-carotene or to β-carotene, depending on two different cyclases, lycopene β-cyclase (LCYb) and lycopene ε-cyclase (LCYe). α-Carotene is converted to lutein catalyzed by ε-ring hydroxylase (HYe) and β-ring hydroxylase (HYb). β-Carotene is converted to βcryptoxanthin and zeaxanthin via a two-step hydroxylation by HYb. In addition, the conversion from zeaxanthin to violaxanthin is catalyzed by zeaxanthin epoxidase (ZEP) (Kato, 2012; Rodrigo et al., 2013; Xie et al., 2019).

91 In some citrus cultivars, when the fruit is left on the tree till the spring or summer season, the 92 color of the fruits will reverse from orange to green, and this process is called "regreening" of the citrus 93 fruits. Previous studies found that the regreening was depending on environmental conditions during 94 the summer season (Caprio, 1956). The conversion from chromoplasts to chloroplasts occurred in the 95 peel, which was correlated with the decrease in carotenoids and the gradual accumulation of chlorophyll 96 during fruit regreening (Thomson et al., 1967; El-zeftawi, 1977). The regreening fruits contained higher 97 levels of chlorophylls in the stem end area than in the apical and equatorial area of the peel (Coggins 98 and Lewis, 1962). In previous studies, Rasmussen (1973) and El-zeftawi and Garrett (1978) 99 demonstrated that the regreening in citrus was induced by exogenous gibberellic acid (GA). In another 100 study, Farag et al. (2014) reported that the occurrence of regreening was not only correlated with a high 101 accumulation of nitrogen, but also with the temperature of the branches and growth degree of Valencia 102 oranges. High temperature of the branches induced the uptake of nitrogen, and promoted the regreening 103 in the fruits. In addition, light can stimulate the regreening process in citrus fruits (Saks et al., 1988). 104 Ma et al. (2021a) reported that blue LED light irradiation stimulated regreening by inducing chlorophyll 105 accumulation and increasing the contents of all-*trans*-violaxanthin,  $\beta$ -carotene, and lutein, while 106 decreasing the content of 9-cis-violaxanthin in the fruit flavedo in vitro. This was correlated with the 107 expression of biosynthesis genes, such as the up-regulation of CitLCYe and down-regulation of 108 *CitLCYb2*. Moreover, citrus varieties, location on the trees, rootstock, and the number of seeds per fruit also affected the regreening process in citrus fruits (El-Zeftawi, 1977; Huff, 1983). In a previous study, 109 110 Hsu et al. (1989) found that application of the bioregulators [(N,N-diethylamino)] ethoxy 111 benzophenone, (N,N-diethylamino) ethyl p-bromobenzoate, and N,N-diethyloctylamine before harvest

112 not only reduced the regreening by reducing chlorophyll biosynthesis but also increased the total 113 xanthophyll content in the flavedo of Valencia oranges.

In previous studies, it was reported that treatment by exogenous GA induced regreening of citrus fruits on tree, but the effects of GA treatment on the expression of genes being associated with pigment accumulation during the regreening remained unknown. In the study here, we investigated the effects of GA on the accumulation of chlorophyll and carotenoid metabolites and on related gene expression during the regreening in Valencia oranges. The outcome of this research should help gaining a deeper insight into the role of phytohormones in regulating the pigment profiles during the regreening.

### 121 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 122 **2.1. Plant Materials and Treatments**

123 In this study, citrus fruits of 'Valencia orange' (Citrus sinensis Osbeck) were grown in the 124 Fujieda farm of the Shizuoka University (Japan), harvested and used as materials. Fruits on the tree 125 were separated into two parts, control (non-treated) and GA-treated group. In this study, we used GA<sub>3</sub> 126 solution from Meiji Seika Pharma, Tokyo, Japan. On the tree, plastic sheets were used to separate and 127 protect the control fruits when GA solution was sprayed. The fruits were sprayed with 500 µM GA on 128 the tree every 2 weeks for 3 times from April 1<sup>st</sup>, 2020. After that, the fruits in each treatment were 129 randomly harvested from the tree every 2 weeks. As to fruit sampling, the flavedos of fruit were 130 separated into two parts; the part from stem end to the middle of fruit was classified as the top part, and 131 the rest of fruit was classified as the bottom part. The flavedos in each part of the fruit were frozen 132 immediately in liquid nitrogen, and then stored at -80 °C until analysis. The samples were used for 133 chlorophyll, carotenoid, and related gene expression analyses.

134

# 135 2.2. Color Analysis

The peel color of fruits from each treatment was measured using a Nippon Denshoku NR-12A colorimeter at 3 positions on the equatorial plane of each part in top and bottom. The color changes were present by hue angle ( $H^\circ$ ) and citrus color index (CCI), which calculated from  $H^\circ$  = arctangent (b\*/a\*) and CCI = 1000×a\*/(L\*×b\*) (Zhou et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2019).

141

### 2.3. Extraction and Analysis of Chlorophylls

142 Chl a and Chl b were extracted from flavedos by using *N*,*N*-dimethylformamide and incubated 143 overnight at room temperature, followed by centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 10 min, and absorbance was 144 measured spectrometrically at 664 and 647 nm. The chlorophyll contents were calculated according to 145 Moron (1982) and expressed as milligrams per kilogram fresh weight. Chl a =  $(12.64 \times OD_{664}) - (2.99$ 146 × OD<sub>647</sub>); Chl b =  $(-5.6 \times OD_{664}) + (23.26 \times OD_{647})$ ; Total chlorophyll =  $(7.04 \times OD_{664}) + (20.27 \times OD_{647})$ .

148

149 **2.4. Extraction and Analysis of Carotenoids** 

150 The contents of  $\beta$ -carotene,  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin, all-*trans*-violaxanthin, 9-cis-violaxanthin, and 151 lutein in the flavedos were determined in three replications. About 0.5 g of the frozen sample was 152 homogenized with an extraction solution (hexane/acetone/ethanol, 2/1/1, v/v) containing 10 % (w/v) 153 basic magnesium carbonate, followed by centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 20 min. The organic solvents 154 were evaporated to dryness at 35 °C under vacuum condition. After this step, the samples were 155 saponified overnight with 12 mL diethylether containing 0.1 % (w/v) 2.6-di-tert-butyl-4-methylphenol 156 (BHT) and 8 mL 20 % (w/v) methanolic KOH. After saponification, the NaCl-saturated water was 157 added to remove water-soluble extracts. The samples were re-extracted with diethyl ether, which was 158 then removed by evaporation at 35 °C until dryness. Carotenoid residues were repeatedly dissolved in 159 5 mL of *tert*-butyl methyl ether (TBME)/methanol (1/1, v/v) containing 0.5 % (w/v) BHT and then kept 160 in amber vial under -20 °C. Carotenoids were analyzed by use of a reverse-phase HPLC system (Jasco, 161 Tokyo, Japan). The YMC Carotenoid S-5 column (Waters, Milford, MA, USA) was used. The 162 carotenoids contents were calculated using the calibration curves and expressed as milligrams per 163 kilogram fresh weight (Kato et al., 2004). The total carotenoids were calculated by summing  $\beta$ -carotene, 164 β-cryptoxanthin, all-*trans*-violaxanthin, 9-*cis*-violaxanthin, and lutein.

165

## 166 2.5. Extraction and qRT-PCR Analysis of Chlorophyll and Carotenoid Metabolisms

167 The total RNA from flavedos was extracted by phenol-chloroform according to Kato et al.
168 (2004). The RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with DNase digestion was used for purified
169 the total RNA. In order to synthesis cDNA, 2 μg of purified RNA were reverse transcribed using
170 TaqMan Reverse Transcription Reagent (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and random
171 hexamer at 37 °C.

In this study, qRT-PCR was carried out in the three replications. TaqMan MGB probes and the 172 173 set of primers for chlorophyll biosynthesis genes (CitGGDR, CitCHLH, CitCHLM, CitCHL27, 174 CitPORA, CitCAO, and CitCS), chlorophyll degradation genes (CitCLH1, CitCLH2, CitSGR, CitPPH, 175 CitPAO, and CitRCCR), and carotenoid biosynthesis genes (CitPSY, CitPDS, CitZDS, CitLCYb1, 176 CitLCYb2, CitLCYe, CitHYb, and CitHYe) were previously described by Kato et al. (2004, 2006); Ma 177 et al. (2021a). The Real-Time PCR reaction mixture contained 900 nM of primers (forward and reverse 178 primer), 250 nM of TaqMan MGB Probe. The RT-qPCR was carried out by using the StepOnePlus<sup>™</sup> 179 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems). The thermal cycling conditions of the cDNA template 180 were as follows: 95 °C for 10 min, then 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 60 s.

181

# 182 **2.6. Statistical Analysis**

183 All values are shown as the mean  $\pm$  standard error (SE). Statistical differences between control 184 and GA treatment were evaluated with *t*-test at \**p* < 0.05; \*\**p* < 0.01; and \*\*\**p* < 0.001 levels.

185

186 **3. Results** 

# 187 **3.1.** Changes of color in the flavedos of the GA-treated fruits

In order to explore the effect of GA treatment on the color change in flavedos of Valencia orange fruits on trees, 500  $\mu$ M of GA was sprayed on tree every 2 weeks for 3 times, which started from April 1<sup>st</sup>, 2021. The non-treated fruits were used as control. Evidently, the color of the flavedos changed from dark orange to pale orange, and then turned gradually green during the regreening process. As shown in Figure. 2, visible changes in the flavedo color were observed in the control as well as the GAtreated fruits during the experiment period. In the control, the green color of flavedo appeared from the 8<sup>th</sup> week. Clearly, GA treatment accelerated the regreening process, which occurred from the 6<sup>th</sup> week. 195 Moreover, the regreening appeared earlier in the top part of the fruits than the bottom parts in both 196 control and GA-treated fruit flavedos.

197 The color changes in the flavedos were determined by the hue angle and citrus color index 198 (CCI). The hue angle from 180° to 0° #epresents the color changing from green to red, and the CCI from 199 negative to positive values represents the color changing from green to orange (Zhou et al., 2010; Ma 200 et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2019). In the study here, the color changes were separately measured in the top 201 and bottom parts of the fruits. Evidently, with the color changing from orange to green, the value of the 202 hue angle increased rapidly, while that of the CCI decreased slightly in the control and after GA 203 treatment during the regreening process (Figure. 3). Compared with the control, the hue angle in GA-204 treated fruits was higher in both top and bottom parts throughout the experimental periods. In contrast, 205 the CCI values in the GA treated fruits were significantly lower than in the control throughout the 206 experimental periods. In addition, a faster change of color was observed in the top than in the bottom 207 part of the fruits. The hue angles in the top parts were higher and the CCI values were lower than the 208 bottom in the control and GA-treated fruits. These values were consistent with the visual color changes 209 in the fruits during the regreening process (Figure. 2).

210

# 3.2. Changes of chlorophyll contents and the expression of chlorophyll biosynthesis and degradation genes in the flavedos of GA-treated fruits

213 The change of color in flavedos could be attributed to the differences in the accumulation of 214 chlorophylls and carotenoids. During the regreening, the contents of Chl a, Chl b, and total chlorophyll 215 in the top and bottom parts of the fruits were simultaneously increased by the GA treatment as compared 216 with the control (Figure. 4). Moreover, the top part of the fruits in the GA treatment group showed significantly higher contents of Chl a, Chl b, and total chlorophyll than in the control at the 6<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> 217 218 weeks. At the bottom of the fruits, the contents of Chl a and of total chlorophyll was significantly higher in the GA treatment group than in control fruits at the 6<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> week, and the content of Chl b in the 219 GA group was significantly higher than in the control at the 6<sup>th</sup> week. 220

Regarding to the expression of chlorophyll metabolic genes, 7 genes (*CitGGDR*, *CitCHLH*,
 *CitCHLM*, *CitCHL27*, *CitPORA*, *CitCS*, and *CitCAO*) involved in chlorophyll biosynthesis and 6 genes

223 (CitCLH1, CitCLH2, CitSGR, CitPPH, CitPAO, and CitRCCR) involved in chlorophyll degradation 224 were investigated in this study. During regreening, the expression of CitGGDR, CitCHL27, CitPORA, 225 and CitCAO tended to increase throughout the experimental period (Figure. 5). In the top part of fruits, 226 the expression of *CitGGDR*, *CitPORA*, and *CitCAO* was significantly up-regulated by the GA treatment at the 4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> weeks. In addition, the expression of *CitCHLM* and *CitCS* in the GA treatment was 227 higher than the control in the top part at the 4<sup>th</sup> week. The expression of *CitCHL27* in the top part was 228 229 significantly up-regulated by the GA treatment throughout the experimental period. In the bottom part of fruits, the expression of CitPORA in the GA treatment was significantly up-regulated at the 6<sup>th</sup> and 230 8<sup>th</sup> weeks. The expression of *CitCAO* in the bottom part was significantly up-regulated by the GA 231 treatment at the 4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> weeks. As shown in Figure. 6, the results showed that the expression of 232 233 chlorophyll degradation related genes (CitCLH1, CitSGR, CitPPH, CitPAO, and CitRCCR) in the GA 234 treatment was markedly lower than the control in both the top and bottom parts of fruits during the 235 experiment period.

236

# 3.3. Changes of carotenoids contents and the expression of carotenoid biosynthesis genes in theflavedos of GA-treated fruits

239 In this study, the major carotenoids, including  $\beta$ -carotene,  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin, lutein, all-*trans*-240 violaxanthin, and 9-cis-violaxanthin, were detected in the flavedos. During regreening, the contents of 241 those five major carotenoids and the total carotenoids decreased in the control and after GA treatment 242 (Figure. 7). In the top part of fruits, the contents of  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin, all-*trans*-violaxanthin, 9-cis-243 violaxanthin, and total carotenoid in the GA treatment decreased more rapidly than the control. In the 244 top part of GA-treated fruits, the contents of all-trans-violaxanthin, 9-cis-violaxanthin, and β-245 cryptoxanthin were significantly lower than the control. Similarly, in the bottom part of GA-treated 246 fruits, the contents of β-carotene, β-cryptoxanthin, lutein, all-*trans*-violaxanthin, and 9-cis-violaxanthin 247 were significantly lower than the control throughout the experimental period.

In this study, the expression of 8 carotenoid biosynthesis genes (*CitPSY*, *CitPDS*, *CitZDS*, *CitLCYb1*, *CitLCYb2*, *CitLCYe*, *CitHYb*, and *CitHYe*) was investigated. In the control and GA treatment, the expression levels of the carotenoid biosynthesis genes were high at the beginning, and then decreased rapidly at the 4<sup>th</sup> week of the experiment period (Figure. 8). In the top and bottom parts of fruits, the expression of *CitPSY*, *CitPDS*, *CitZDS*, *CitLCYb2*, and *CitHYb* was significantly downregulated by the GA treatment, while the expression of *CitLCYe* was significantly up-regulated by the GA treatment compared with the control during the experiment period.

255

### 256 **4. Discussion**

257 In general, citrus fruits turn from green to yellow, orange, or red when they become mature in 258 winter season. However, in several citrus varieties, such as Valencia oranges, the fruits will reverse 259 from orange to green when left on the trees until spring or summer season (Caprio, 1956). In the past 260 decades, it was reported that exogenous plant hormones, such as GA and benzyl adenine (BA), not only 261 delayed the degreening, but also induced the regreening in flavedo of citrus fruits (Rasmussen, 1973). 262 However, the effects of exogenous GA on the expression of genes associated with pigment 263 accumulation were not explored. In the present study, in order to elucidate the molecular mechanism 264 underlying the regreening induced by exogenous GA, the changes of carotenoid and chlorophyll 265 contents and the expression of genes associated with carotenoid and chlorophyll biosynthesis were 266 investigated in the flavedo of Valencia oranges. The results showed that hue angle value increased 267 rapidly, while CCI values decreased slightly in the control and GA treatment group during the 268 regreening process. Compared with the control, the flavedos treated with GA turned green faster, and 269 showed higher hue angle and lower CCI values throughout the experimental period (Figure. 3). These 270 observations suggest that exogenous GA induced the regreening in the flavedo of Valencia oranges. In 271 addition, we found an interesting phenomenon that the regreening was more evident in the top part of 272 fruits than the bottom part in both control and GA treatment, which indicated that the regreening process 273 might start from the top part of the citrus fruits. In citrus fruits, it has been reported that the regreening 274 was affected by several factors, such as light, temperature, nutrition, and plant hormones. The 275 occurrence of regreening was stimulated by nature light in the flavedos. In addition, temperature was 276 also a key factor for inducing regreening in citrus fruits. In citrus, the regreening of fruits occurs in the 277 late spring and summer season. Iglesias et al., (2007) reported that the high temperature stimulated the 278 up-take of nitrogen and formation of vegetative growth hormone for the new re-growth such as

279 flowering and fruit set, which might result in the fruits on tree regreening. In a previous study of our 280 group (Ma et al., 2021a), it was found that blue LED light effectively induced regreening in the flavedos 281 in vitro. In the in vitro experiment, we sampled the flavedos from the whole citrus fruits, and then 282 excised and placed them on the MS medium randomly. The environmental conditions, such as light, 283 water stress, and temperature, were identical in the *in vitro* culture system, and no difference in the 284 occurrence of regreening was observed between the top and bottom parts in response to blue LED light. 285 Therefore, we deduced that the phenomenon that regreening started from the top part might be attributed 286 to the different environmental conditions and nitrogen accumulation between the top and bottom parts 287 of the fruits on the tree.

288 In plants, the appearance of green color was associated with the accumulation of chlorophylls 289 during the regreening (Koiwa et al., 1986; Preberg et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2012). In previous studies, 290 it was found that the regreening is accompanied with the reversion of chromoplasts to chloroplasts and 291 the formation of new chloroplasts (Mackinney, 1961). The reversion of chromoplasts to chloroplasts 292 occurred with the disappearance or reduction in size and number of plastoglobules and the formation of 293 new thylakoids or reformation of thylakoids, leading to normal chloroplast structure and photosynthetic 294 activity (Thomson et al., 1967; Preberg et al., 2008; Devidé and Ljubešić, 1974; Egea et al., 2010). In 295 the present study, the results showed GA treatment induced the accumulation of chlorophylls in the 296 flavedo of Valencia oranges. During regreening, the chlorophyll a, b and total chlorophyll contents were 297 increased by the GA treatment throughout the experimental period, and their contents in the top part 298 were significantly higher than those in the bottom part of the fruits. In citrus fruits, the accumulation of 299 chlorophylls was closely related to the expression levels of genes involved in chlorophyll metabolism. 300 Geranylgeranyl reductase (GGDR) is a key enzyme of chlorophyll biosynthesis catalyzing the 301 conversion of GGPP to phytyl-PP (Figure. 1), which is then followed by the condensation the phytol 302 chain with the porphyrin ring that is synthesized from glutamate in chloroplasts (Ma et al., 2021b). The 303 decrease in the gene expression of the GGDR was observed during fruit ripening, thereby explaining 304 the decrease in chlorophyll accumulation (Alós et al. 2006). Several studies reported that exogenous 305 GA was commonly used to delay senescence and loss of chlorophyll in various citrus fruits during pre-306 harvest or post-harvest (Porat et al., 2001; Alós et al., 2006; Gambetta et al., 2014). It delayed

307 degreening by upregulating the transcription of magnesium chelatase in the citrus fruits (Fujii et al., 308 2008). In addition, the expression of the gene encoding chlorophyll-degrading pheophorbide a 309 oxygenase (PAO) was repressed in citrus fruits treated with exogenous GA during fruit degreening 310 (Alós et al., 2006). Li et al. (2010) found that the expression of genes encoding chlorophyll catabolism 311 enzymes including Chlase and magnesium dechelatase was down-regulated by GA in the senescing 312 shoots of Paris polyphylla var. yunnanensis (Franch.). In the present study, we found that the expression 313 level of *CitGGDR* was higher in the top part of GA-treated fruits as compared with the control, while 314 the bottom part was not affected throughout the experimental period. This indicated that chlorophyll 315 synthesis was activated, resulting in the regreening process to occur earlier in the top part than in the 316 bottom part of fruit flavedos. In addition, *CitCHL27* and *CitPORA* were highly expressed in the top part 317 of GA-treated fruits as compared with the control. The expression of *CitCAO*, which was involved in 318 Chl b synthesis, was significantly up-regulated by the GA treatment during the regreening process. 319 Furthermore, the expression of chlorophyll degradation genes (CitCLH1, CitSGR, CitPPH, CitPAO, 320 and CitRCCR) was low in the GA-treated fruits during the regreening process. Thus, these results 321 suggested that the exogenous GA induced the accumulation of chlorophylls by enhancing the 322 expression of chlorophyll biosynthesis genes and repressing the expression of chlorophyll degradation 323 genes in the flavedos during the regreening process. The results from the previous studies and our study 324 as well convey that the application of GA not only delayed the degreening but also induced some 325 regreening in citrus fruits.

326 In citrus, carotenoids are massively accumulated in the mature fruits, which are the important 327 pigments responsible for the bright red, yellow, and orange colors in the flavedo of citrus fruits. In the 328 green stage, the fruit flavedos accumulated high levels of  $\beta_{\epsilon}$ -carotenoids ( $\alpha$ -carotene and lutein), which 329 were characteristic chloroplast carotenoids. When the fruits turned from green to orange, the contents 330 of  $\beta_{,\varepsilon}$ -carotenoids decreased, and an accumulation of  $\beta_{,\beta}$ -carotenoids ( $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin, all-*trans*-331 violaxanthin and 9-cis-violaxanthin) was observed, which were characteristic chromoplast carotenoids 332 of citrus fruits (Kato et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2016). The change in carotenoid composition was regulated 333 by the expression of genes involved in carotenoid biosynthesis. During fruit ripening, the accumulation 334 of  $\beta_i\beta_j$ -xanthophylls in the flavedos can be explained by the increase in transcription levels of *CitPSY*,

335 CitPDS, CitZDS, CitLCYb, and CitHYb genes in the flavedo of citrus fruits. In parallel, the contents of 336  $\beta$ ,  $\varepsilon$ -carotenoids (mainly lutein) decreased along with the down-regulation of *CitLCYe* during fruit 337 ripening (Kato et al., 2004; Rodrigo et al., 2004; Alquézar et al., 2008). In citrus fruits, GA was applied 338 to delay the degreening during fruit ripening, by down-regulating almost all carotenoid biosynthesis 339 genes, especially the expression of CitPSY, CitHYb, and carotenoid cleavage dioxygenases in flavedo of citrus fruits (Fujii et al., 2008 and Ma et al., 2021a). In addition, GA treatment not only repressed the 340 341 expression of carotenoid genes in flavedos but also in the juice sacs. Zhang et al. (2012) reported that 342 the accumulation of carotenoids was significantly decreased and the expression of genes related to 343 carotenoid metabolism (CitPSY, CitPDS, CitZDS, CitLCYb2, CitHYb, CitZEP, CitNCED2 and 344 CitNCDE3) was repressed in the juice sacs of Valencia oranges treated with GA in vitro. In the present 345 study, the results showed that the content of total carotenoid significantly decreased in the control and 346 GA treatment during the regreening process, which was well consistent with previous study of El-347 Zeftawi and Garrett (1978). Compared with the control, the contents of  $\beta_i\beta_i$ -xanthophylls, including all-348 *trans*-violaxanthin, 9-cis-violaxanthin, and  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin, were decreased by the GA treatment. In 349 our study here, it was shown that the expression of carotenoid biosynthesis genes significantly 350 decreased during the regreening process. In the GA treatment, the expression of CitPSY, CitPDS, 351 CitZDS, CitLCYb2, and CitHYb genes was down-regulated, which led to the reduction of  $\beta$ , $\beta$ -352 xanthophylls contents in the flavedos. These results suggested that GA treatment prevented the 353 accumulation of carotenoid by suppressing the expression of biosynthesis genes, which led to the color 354 of the flavedos turned from dark orange to pale orange during the regreening process.

355

#### 356 **5.** Conclusion

In the present study, the results showed that the regreening was induced by the GA treatment, and it was more obvious in the top part of the fruits than the bottom part. Evidently, the regreening process started from the top part of citrus fruits. The GA treatment induced the accumulation of chlorophyll *a* and *b*, and decreased contents of  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin, all-*trans*-violaxanthin, and 9-*cis*violaxanthin compared with the control. With regard to the expression of genes involved in chlorophyll metabolism, the up-regulation of chlorophyll biosynthesis genes (*CitGGDR*, *CitCHL27*, *CitPORA*, and *CitCAO*) and down-regulation of degradation genes (*CitCLH1*, *CitSGR*, *CitPPH*, *CitPAO*, and *CitRCCR*) led to the increase of chlorophyll contents in GA-treated fruits. In addition, the downregulation of the expression of *CitPSY*, *CitPDS*, *CitZDS*, *CitLCYb2*, and *CitHYb* led to a reduction of carotenoid contents in the GA treatment group. This study provided deeper knowledge on the roles of GA in regulating of chlorophyll and carotenoid accumulation during the regreening in plants.

368

### 369 Author contributions

Masaya Kato, Masaki Yahata, Gang Ma, Lancui Zhang and Nichapat Keawmanee:
conceived and designed the experiments. Nichapat Keawmanee: wrote the paper. Nichapat
Keawmanee: carried out the experiments and analyzed the data. Kan Murakami, Masashi
Yamamoto, Nami Kojima: contributed to sample collection and carried out the experiments. All
authors approved the final revision to be published.

375

# **Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

379

# 380 Acknowledgements

This work was supported by KAKENHI Grant Numbers JP20H02976 (to M.K.) and JP19K06015 (to L.Z.) from Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS).

383

### 384 **References**

Alós, E., Cercós, M., Rodrigo, M.J., Zacarías, L., Talón, M., 2006. Regulation of color break in Citrus
fruits. Changes in pigment profiling and gene expression induced by gibberellins and nitrate, two
ripening retardants. J. Agric. Food Chem. 54, 4888-4895. <u>https://doi.org/10.1021/jf0606712</u>.

- Alquézar, B., Rodrigo, M.J., Zacarias, L., 2008. Regulation of carotenoid biosynthesis during fruit
   maturation in the red-fleshed orange mutant Cara Cara. Phytochemistry. 69, 1997-2007.
- 390 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phytochem.2008.04.020</u>.

- Caprio, J.M., 1956. An analysis of the relation between regreening of Valencia oranges and mean
  monthly temperatures in Southern California. Proc. Amer. Soc. Hort. Sci. 67, 222-235.
- 393 Chen, J., Funnell, K.A., Lewis, D.H., Eason, J.R., Woolley, D.J., 2012. Relationship between changes
- 394 in colour and pigment content during spathe regreening of Zantedeschia 'Best Gold'. Postharvest

395 Biol. Technol. 67, 124-129. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.postharvbio.2011.12.019</u>.

- Coggins, C. W., Lewis, L. M., 1962. Regreening of Valencia orange as influenced by potassium
  gibberellate. Plant Physiology. 37, 625-627. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.37.5.625.
- 398 Devidé, Z., Ljubešić, N., 1974. The reversion of chromoplasts to chloroplasts in pumpkin fruits.
  399 Z.Pflanzenphysiol. 73, 296-306. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0044-328X(74)80130-3</u>.
- 400 Egea, I., Barsan, C., Bian, W., Purgatto, E., Latche, A., Chervin, C., Bouzayen, M., Pech, J.C., 2010.
- 401 Chromoplast Differentiation: Current Status and Perspectives. Plant Cell Physiol. 51, 1601-1611.
- 402 <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/pcp/pcq136</u>.
- El-Zeftawi, B.M., 1977. Factors Affecting Pigment Levels During Re-Greening of Valencia Orange. J.
  Hortic. Sci. 52, 127-134. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/00221589.1977.11514738</u>.
- El-Zeftawi, B.M. Garrett, R.G., 1978. Effects of ethephon, GA and light exclusion on rind pigments,
  plastid ultrastructure and juice quality of Valencia oranges. J. Hortic. Sci. 53, 215-223.
  https://doi.org/10.1080/00221589.1978.11514822.
- 408 Farag, K.M., Essa, A.A., Nagy, N.M.N., Haikal, A.M., Attia, S.M., 2014. Influencing of some factors
- 409 on regreening of "Valencia" orange fruits. Adv. Plants Agric. Res. 1, 135-140.
  410 http://dx.doi.org/10.15406/apar.2014.01.00022.
- 411 Fujii, H., Shimada, T., Sugiyama, A., Endo, T., Nishikawa, F., Nakano, M., Ikoma, Y., Shimizu, T.,

412 Omura, M., 2008. Profiling gibberellin (GA<sub>3</sub>)-responsive genes in mature mandarin fruit using a

- 413 citrus 2 2 K oligoarray. Sci. Hortic. 1 1 6 (3), 2 9 1 2 9 8.
  414 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2008.01.010.
- Gambetta, G., Mesejo, C., Martínez-Fuentes, A., Reig, C., Gravina, A., Agustí, M., 2014. Gibberellic
  acid and norflurazon affecting the time-course of flavedo pigment and abscisic acid content in
  'Valencia' sweet orange. Sci. Hortic. 180, 94-101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2014.10.021.

- Hörtensteiner, S., 1999. Chlorophyll breakdown in higher plants and algae. Cell. Mol. Life Sci. 56, 330347. https://doi.org/10.1007/s000180050434.
- Hsu, W. J., DeBenedict, C., Lee, S. D., Poling, S. M., Yokoyama, H., 1989. Preharvest prevention of
  regreening in Valencia orange [*Citrus sinensis* (L.) Osbeck]. J. Agric. Food Chem. 37 (1), 12-14.
- 422 <u>https://doi.org/10.1021/jf00085a003</u>.
- Huff, A., 1983. Nutritional control of regreening and degreening in citrus peel segments. Plant Physiol.
  73, 243-249. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.73.2.243.
- 425 Iglesias, D. J., Cercós, M., Colmenero-Flores, J.M., Naranjo, M.A., Ríos, G., Carrera, E., Ruiz-Rivero,
- 426 O., Lliso, I., Morillon, R., Tadeo, F.R. and Talón, M. 2007. Physiology of citrus fruiting (review).
- 427 Braz. J. Plant Physiol. 19(4), 333-362. <u>https://doi.org/10.1590/S1677-04202007000400006</u>.
- 428 Joyard, J., Ferro, M., Masselon, C., Seigneurin-Berny, D., Salvi, D., Garin, J., 2009. Chloroplast
- 429 proteomics and the compartmentation of plastidial isoprenoid biosynthetic pathways. Mol. Plant.
- 430 2, 1154-1180. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/mp/ssp088</u>.
- Kato, M., Ikoma, Y., Matsumoto, H., Sugiura, M., Hyodo, H., Yano, M., 2004. Accumulation of
  carotenoids and expression of carotenoid biosynthetic genes during maturation in citrus fruit.
  Plant Physiol. 134, 824-837. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.103.031104.
- 434 Kato, M., Matsumoto, H., Ikoma, Y., Okuda, H., Yano, M., 2006. The role of carotenoid cleavage
- dioxygenases in the regulation of carotenoid profiles during maturation in citrus fruit. J. Exp.
  Bot. 57, 2153-2164. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erj172</u>.
- Kato, M., 2012. Mechanism of carotenoid accumulation in Citrus fruits. J. Japan. Soc. Hort. Sci. 81,
  219-233. <u>https://doi.org/10.2503/jjshs1.81.219</u>.
- Koiwa, H., Ikeda, T., Yoshida, Y., 1986. Reversal of chromoplasts to chloroplasts in *Buxus* leaves. Bot
  Mag Tokyo. 99, 233- 240. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02488824</u>.
- Li, J., Yu, K., Wei, J., Ma, Q., Wang, B., Yu, D., 2010. Gibberellin retards chlorophyll degradation
  during senescence of *Paris polyphylla*. Biol Plant. 54, 395-399. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10535-</u>
- 443 <u>010-0072-5</u>.
- 444 Ma, G., Zhang, L., Kato, M., Yamawaki, K., Kiriiwa, Y., Yahata, M., Ikoma, Y., Matsumoto, H., 2015.
- 445 Effect of the combination of ethylene and red LED light irradiation on carotenoid accumulation

- and carotenogenic gene expression in the flavedo of citrus fruit. Postharvest Biol. Technol. 99,
  99-104. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.postharvbio.2014.08.002</u>.
- Ma, G., Zhang, L.C., Yungyuen, W., Tsukamoto, I., Iijima, N., Oikawa, M., Yamawaki, K., Yahata,
  M., Kato, M., 2016. Expression and functional analysis of citrus carotene hydroxylases:
  Unraveling the xanthophyll biosynthesis in citrus fruits. BMC Plant Biol. 16, 148.
  https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-016-0840-2.
- 452 Ma, G., Zhang, L.C., Kitaya, Y., Seoka, M., Kudaka, R., Yahata, M., Yamawaki, K., Shimada, T., Fujii,
- H., Endo, T., Kato, M., 2021a. Blue LED light induces regreening in the flavedo of Valencia
  orange in vitro. Food Chem. 335, 127621. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2020.127621.
- 455 Ma, G., Zhang, L., Kudaka, R., Inaba, H., Furuya, T., Kitamura, M., Kitaya, Y., Yamamoto, R., Yahata,
- 456 M., Matsumoto, H., Kato, M., 2021b. Exogenous Application of ABA and NAA Alleviates the
- 457 Delayed Coloring Caused by Puffing Inhibitor in Citrus Fruit. Cells. 10, 308.
  458 https://doi.org/10.3390/cells10020308.
- Mackinney, G., 1961. Coloring matters. In The Orange: Its Biochemistry and Physiology, W.B.
  Sinclair, ed. (Berkeley, CA, USA: University of California Press), 302-333.
- 461 Moran, R., 1982. Formulae for determination of chlorophyllous pigments extracted with *N*,*N*462 dimethylformamide. Plant Physiol. 69, 1376-1381. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.69.6.1376.
- 463 Porat, R., Feng, X., Huberman, M., Galili, D., Goren, R., Goldschmidt, E. E., 2001. Gibberellic acid
- 464 slows postharvest degreening of Oroblanco citrus fruits. Hortscience. 36, 937-940.
  465 https://doi.org/10.21273/HORTSCI.36.5.937.
- Preberg, T., Wrisher, M., Fulgosi, H., Ljubesic, N., 2008. Ultrastructural characterization of the
  reversible differentiation of chloroplasts in cucumber fruit. J. Plant Physiol. 51, 122-131.
  https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03030721.
- 469 Rasmussen, G.K., 1973. The effect of growth regulators on degreening and regreening of Citrus fruit.
  470 Acta Hortic. 34, 473-479. <u>https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.1973.34.65</u>.
- 471 Rodrigo, M.J., Marcos, J.F., Zacarías, L., 2004. Biochemical and molecular analysis of carotenoid
- biosynthesis in flavedo of orange (*Citrus sinensis* L.) during fruit development and maturation.
- 473 J. Agric. Food Chem. 52, 6724-6731. <u>https://doi.org/10.1021/jf049607f</u>.

- 474 Rodrigo, M.J., Alquézar, B., Alós, E., Lado, J., Zacarías, L., 2013. Biochemical bases and molecular
  475 regulation of pigmentation in the peel of Citrus fruit. Sci. Hortic. 163, 46-62.
  476 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2013.08.014</u>.
- 477 Saks, Y., Waks, Y., Weiss, B., Franck, A., Chalutz, E., 1988. Light induced postharvest regreening of
  478 pummelo fruit. Ann. Appl. Biol. 113, 375-381. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-</u>
  479 <u>7348.1988.tb03313.x</u>.
- Thomson, W.W., Lewis, N., Coggins, C.W., 1967. The reversion of chromoplasts to chloroplasts in
  Valencia oranges. Cytologia. 32, 117-124. https://doi.org/10.1508/cytologia.32.117.
- Wang, P, and Grimm, B., 2021. Connecting Chlorophyll Metabolism with Accumulation of the
  Photosynthetic Apparatus. Trends Plant Sci. 26(5), 484-495.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tplants.2020.12.005
- Xie, J., Yao, S.X., Ming, J., Deng, L.L., Zeng, K.F., 2019. Variations in chlorophyll and carotenoid
  contents and expression of genes involved in pigment metabolism response to oleocellosis in
  citrus fruits. Food Chem. 272, 49-57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.08.020.
- Zhang, L.C., Ma, G., Kato, M., Yamawaki, K., Takagi, T., Kiriiwa, Y., Ikoma, Y., Matsumoto, H.,
  Yoshioka, T., Nesumi, H., 2012. Regulation of carotenoid accumulation and the expression of
  carotenoid metabolic genes in citrus juice sacs in vitro. J. Exp. Bot. 63, 871-886.
  <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/err318</u>.
- 492 Zhou, J.L., Sun, C.D., Zhang, L.L., Dai, X., Xu, C.J., Chen, K.S. 2010 Preferential accumulation of 493 orange-colored carotenoids in Ponkan (Citrus reticulata) fruit peel following postharvest 494 application of ethylene ethephon, Sci. Hortic., 126, 229-235. or pp. 495 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2010.07.019
- 496
- 497
- 498
- 499
- 500
- 501

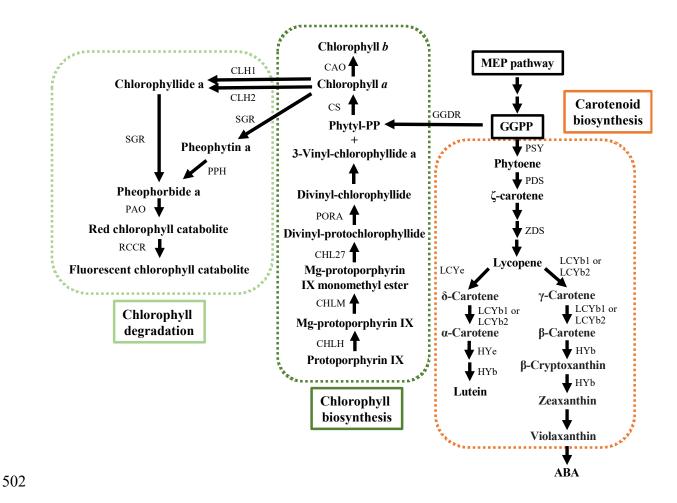


Figure 1. Metabolic pathways involved in biosyntheses of carotenoid and chlorophyll via the MEP pathway in plants. MEP pathway, methylerthritol-4-phosphate pathway; GGPP, geranylgeranyl diphosphate. The enzymes investigated in this study are: PSY, phytoene synthase; PDS, phytoene desaturase; ZDS,  $\zeta$ -carotene desaturase; LCYb, lycopene β-cyclase; LCYe, lycopene ε-cyclase; HYb, β-ring hydroxylase; HYe, ε-ring hydroxylase; GGDR, geranylgeranyl reductase; CHLH, magnesium chelatase; CHLM, magnesium-protoporphyrin IX methyltransferase; CHL27, Mg-Proto IX monomethyl ester cyclase; PORA, protochlorophyllide oxidoreductase a; CS, chlorophyll synthase; CAO, chlide a oxygeanase; CLH, chlorophyllase; SGR, Stay-Green; PPH, pheophytin pheophorbide hydrolase; PAO, pheophorbide a oxygenase; RCCR, Red chlorophyll catabolite reductase.

	Control		Gibberellic acid	
	Тор	Bottom	Тор	Bottom
0 week				
4 week				
6 week				
8 week				

518 Figure 2. The appearance of GA-treated and non-treated Valencia orange fruits during the regreening

- 519 process.

- -

- \_ \_ .

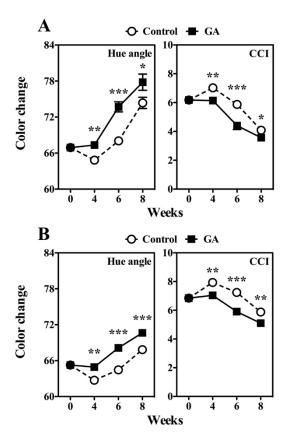
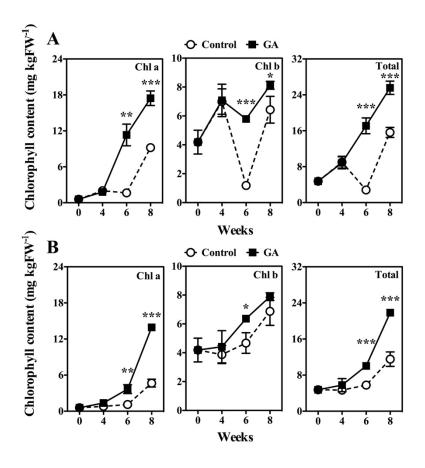




Figure 3. The values of Hue angle and citrus color index (CCI) in the top (A) and bottom (B) parts of Valencia orange flavedos treated with or without GA. The results shown are the mean  $\pm$  SE (n=8). The *t*-test was applied to analyze the difference between the GA-treated and non-treated fruits at \*p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; and \*\*\*p < 0.001 levels.





**Figure 4.** The values of chlorophyll content (Chl a, chlorophyll *a*; Chl b, chlorophyll *b*; Total, total chlorophylls) in the top (A) and bottom (B) parts of Valencia orange flavedos treated with or without GA. The results shown are the mean  $\pm$  SE for three replicates. The *t*-test was applied to analyze the difference between the GA-treated and non-treated fruits at \*p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; and \*\*\*p < 0.001 levels.

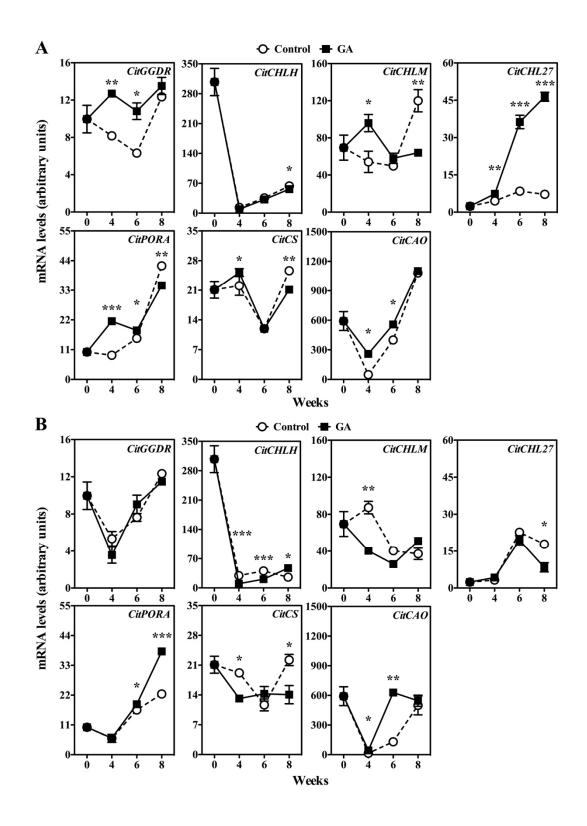


Figure 5. The expression of chlorophyll biosynthesis genes in the top (A) and bottom (B) parts of Valencia orange flavedos treated with or without GA. The results shown are the mean  $\pm$  SE for three replicates. The *t*-test was applied to analyze the difference between the GA-treated and non-treated fruits at \*p < 0.05; \*\*p< 0.01; and \*\*\*p < 0.001 levels.

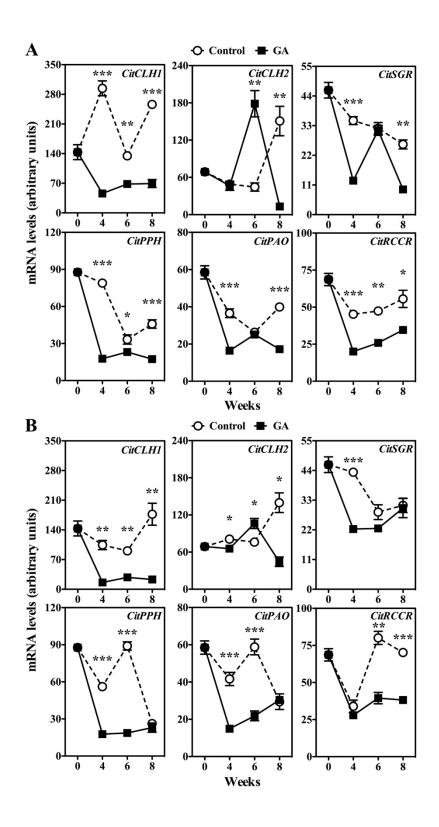
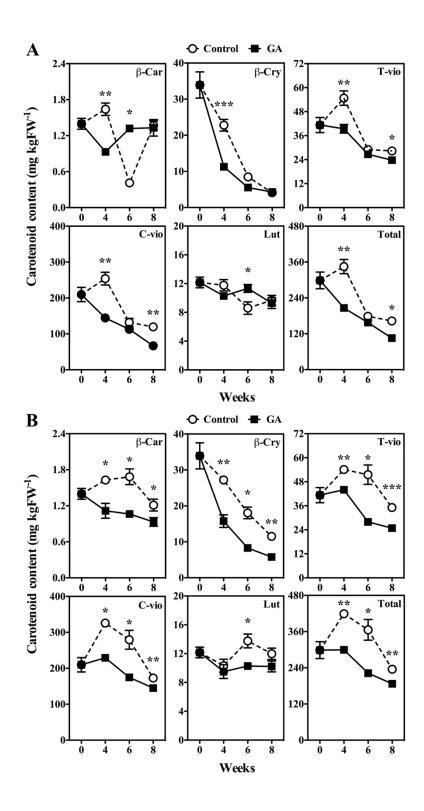


Figure 6. The expression of chlorophyll degradation genes in the top (A) and bottom (B) parts of Valencia orange flavedos treated with or without GA. The results shown are the mean  $\pm$  SE for three replicates. The *t*-test was applied to analyze the difference between the GA-treated and non-treated fruits at \*p < 0.05; \*\*p< 0.01; and \*\*\*p < 0.001 levels.



**Figure 7.** The values of carotenoid content in the top (A) and bottom (B) parts of Valencia orange flavedos treated with or without GA.  $\beta$ -Car,  $\beta$ -carotene;  $\beta$ -Cry,  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin; T-vio, all-*trans*-violaxanthin; C-vio, 9-*cis*-violaxanthin; Lut, lutein; Total, total carotenoid. The results shown are the mean  $\pm$  SE for three replicates. The *t*-test was applied to analyze the difference between the GA-treated and non-treated fruits at p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; and \*\*\*p < 0.001 levels.

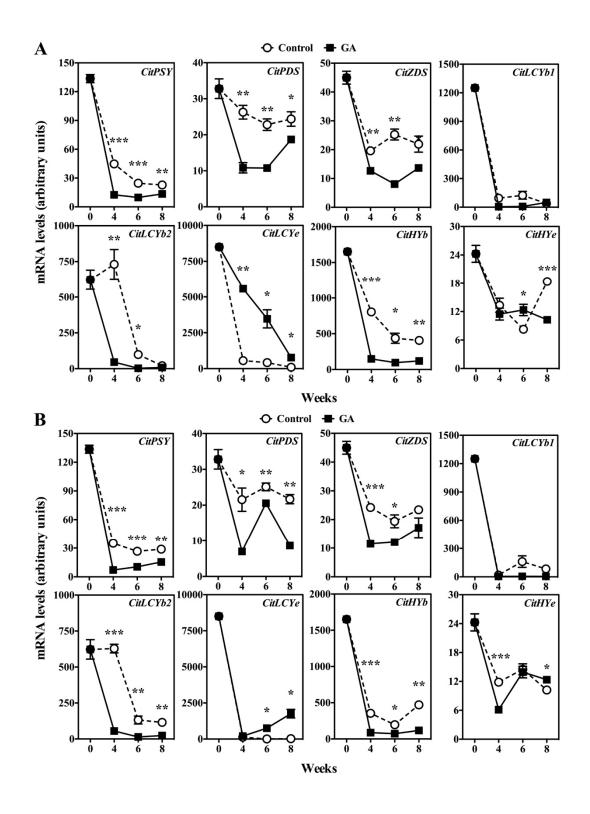


Figure 8. The expression of carotenoid biosynthesis genes in the top (A) and bottom (B) parts of Valencia orange flavedos treated with or without GA. The results shown are the mean  $\pm$  SE for three replicates. The *t*-test was applied to analyze the difference between the GA-treated and non-treated fruits at \*p < 0.05; \*\*p< 0.01; and \*\*\*p < 0.001 levels.

