# Genetic Control of Chloroplast Pigment Development in Soybeans as a Function of Leaf and Plant Maturity

Received for publication June 20, 1980 and in revised form November 13, 1980

KENNETH ESKINS Northern Regional Research Center, Agricultural Research, Science and Education Administration, United States Department of Agriculture, Peoria, Illinois 61604 LELAND HARRIS Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois 61401 RICHARD L. BERNARD Department of Agronomy, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801

## ABSTRACT

Changes in the major chloroplast pigments of pigment-deficient genotypes of soybeans were studied as a function of leaf age and plant age. The trends of pigment development are plotted as a function of relative leaf age at two periods of plant development. Comparisons are made between aging leaves from different nodes and leaves of different ages from the same node. In addition, trends of pigment development are expressed as a ratio of pigment-deficient/normal genotypes for five different genotypes and seven sampling periods. Those genotypes that exhibit a lag in production of pigments during leaf development show a similar lag in overall plant pigment development.

Genetic control of chloroplast development in higher plants can be effectively studied by use of pigment-deficient mutant genotypes which commonly occur in most plant species. These mutants run the full range of pigment composition but are usually deficient in Chl a, Chl b, or both carotenoids and Chl. Early descriptions of typical mutants occur in the literature for maize (9), barley (10), and soybeans (17). These early reports used spectroscopic methods and crude column separation to give information on Chl a and b, and ratios of carotenoids to Chl. Improved techniques of analysis, such as the two-dimensional paper chromatographic study of pigments in peanut mutants by Tai and Todd (15) or the thinlayer separation of carotenoids in soybean mutants by Keck et al. (13), allowed information on individual carotenoids and Chl to be determined. More recently, development of efficient liquid chromatographic methods of pigment separation (5, 6, 8) have been used by us and others to elucidate further the effects of genetic control on pigment development in tobacco (5), soybeans (7), and peanuts (7). In a previous study (7), we showed that a number of soybean and peanut mutants could be fitted into a progressive series of chloroplast pigment development. We speculated that these pigment-deficient mutants might represent evolutionary or arrested stages of chloroplast development. This is consistent with the suggestion of Benedict and Ketring (2) that mutation in virescent peanut leaves results in the limited synthesis of a factor necessary for cell and chloroplast differentiation. We were curious to know how this genetic control of pigment deficiency was expressed and how this expression was affected by plant and leaf maturity. To do this, we needed to be able to separate effects due

to LA<sup>1</sup> from those due to PA. For instance, if one takes samples of leaves from the same node over a period of time, both LA and PA increase and their effects overlap. This overlap can be resolved by choosing other samples which correspond to the same node samples in LA but differ in PA. This is possible if one chooses samples from different nodes. Comparison of these samples allows us to know if pigment development is directly related to LA and if this relation holds even when the leaves are taken from different nodes at different times. The comparison between same node and different node development is especially useful when comparing geotypes which have various rates of plant development, since plant effects are readily apparent. For instance, if a 7-day-old leaf from the first trifoliolate and a 7-day-old leaf from the fifth trifoliolate have similar pigment composition in three genotypes but differ considerably in a fourth, the discrepancy is a function of genetic control. If at a more mature stage all four genotypes are similar, the genetic effect is overridden by PA. We intended, therefore, to obtain quantitative information on the composition of chloroplast pigments in a wide range of mutant genotypes (all in the genetic background of the Clark variety) throughout a growing season and to compare the development of pigments in the mutants to the normal or parent plant. The mutant:parent ratio obtained would be a quantitative measure of individual gene expression as a function of plant and leaf maturity.

### **EXPERIMENTAL**

Genotype Description. Several genes controlling abnormal Chl development were selected for study from the USDA's Genetic Type Collection as listed below:

Strain Des- ignation	Genotype	Plant Appearance			
T139	<b>y</b> 3 <b>y</b> 3	Green plant parts turn yellowish green shortly after development			
T138	y7y7y8y8	Light yellow-green seedlings soon be- come green			
T135	УэУэ	Bright yellow-green color throughout growing season turning green in ma- turity			
Т219Н	Y11911	Bright yellow-green color throughout growing season turning greener in maturity			

The original genetic studies on these traits were made by R. L.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: LA, leaf age; PA, plant age; UF, unifoliolate leaf; TF, trifoliolate leaf; RLA, relative leaf age.

Plant Physiol. Vol. 67, 1981

					Pig	ments			
Sample	РА	RLA	Clark						
			Neoxanthin	Violaxanthin	Lutein	Chl b	Chl a	Carotene	
	d	ays			nma	ol/cm <sup>2</sup>			
Group I									
5th TF (1)	35	0	$1.44 \pm 0.19$	$2.39 \pm 0.83$	$5.81 \pm 0.54$	$11.03 \pm 2.09$	$30.21 \pm 5.03$	$3.52 \pm 0.44$	
lst TF	29	7	$1.92 \pm 0.05$	$3.49 \pm 0.04$	$6.17 \pm 0.53$	$13.14 \pm 1.27$	43.97 ± 3.57	$5.98 \pm 0.72$	
UF	22	9	$2.15 \pm 0.28$	$3.44 \pm 1.32$	8.40 ± 1.05	$15.00 \pm 0.83$	$51.24 \pm 26.6$	$6.91 \pm 0.76$	
Group II									
5th TF (1)	35	0	1.44 ± 0.19	$2.39 \pm 0.83$	$5.81 \pm 0.54$	$11.03 \pm 2.09$	$30.21 \pm 5.03$	$3.52 \pm 0.44$	
5th TF (2)	43	8	1.98 ± 0.44	$3.46 \pm 0.84$	$8.71 \pm 0.81$	$15.07 \pm 0.99$	$47.47 \pm 3.12$	$6.25 \pm 0.22$	
5th TF (3)	48	13	$2.78 \pm 0.07$	4.17 ± 0.50	9.72 ± 0.47	$18.54 \pm 2.16$	$56.64 \pm 1.82$	$7.56 \pm 0.49$	
5th TF (4)	55	20	$2.82 \pm 0.09$	$3.74 \pm 0.13$	9.45 ± 0.49	$19.90 \pm 0.66$	$59.17 \pm 1.16$	$7.29 \pm 0.30$	
5th TF (5)	63	28	$2.92 \pm 0.09$	$2.65 \pm 0.13$	8.85 ± 1.19	$21.31 \pm 2.31$	$63.93 \pm 4.91$	$8.06 \pm 0.54$	

Table I. Pigment Content of Parent Soybean Variety as a Function of Plant and Leaf Maturity



FIG. 1. Chl *a* content (nmol/cm<sup>2</sup>) as a function of LA and PA in the soybean variety Clark (C). CL1 ( $\oplus$ ), Cy<sub>7</sub>y<sub>7</sub>y<sub>8</sub>y<sub>8</sub> ( $\blacksquare$ ), Cy<sub>3</sub>y<sub>3</sub> ( $\blacktriangle$ ), Cy<sub>9</sub>y<sub>9</sub> ( $\odot$ ).

Bernard and M. G. Weiss (4). The origins of these strains are as follows:

T139—Found in the variety Illini by Dr. Brunson in Kansas about 1936.

T138—Unknown. Obtained by Dr. C. M. Woodworth, University of Illinois prior to 1935.

T135—Found in the variety Illini in 1938, presumably by Dr. Woodworth.

T219—Found in Richland X Linman 533 in 1941 at Iowa State University.

A normal green soybean variety, Clark (CL1) was chosen for study. Clark is of maturity group IV and was widely grown in the southern Midwest from 1955 to 1974. Isolines of the abnormal Ch1 types were developed by backcrossing to Clark as indicated below:

Strain Designation	Genotype	Backcross		
L63-2346 L63-1792 L69-4755	УзУз У7У7У8У8 УэУэ	Clark <sup>6</sup> × T139 Clark <sup>6</sup> × T138 L6 <sup>6</sup> × T135		
L72-1937	Y <sub>11</sub> y <sub>11</sub>	Clark <sup>6</sup> × T219		

L6 is an isoline of Clark with single genes for resistance to the diseases bacterial pustule leaf spot (rxp) and *Phytophthora* root rot  $(Rps_1)$  selected from  $(Clark^8 \times CNS) \times (Clark^8 \times Blackhawk)$ .

These isolines are homozygous for the transferred genes except

for  $Y_{11}y_{11}$  which is lethal; therefore, the line is maintained by bulking seeds from the distinctive  $Y_{11}y_{11}$  plants. In some cases, the segregating  $F_2$  plants from the final backcross made in producing the lines were studied; in other cases, the  $F_2$  of crosses between selected isolines was studied.

**Plants and Sample Preparation.** All genotypes were planted in an outdoor plot on May 15, 1979, in Peoria, Illinois, and sampled as follows: the UF at 22 days, first TF at 29 days, fifth TF<sub>1</sub> at 35 days, fifth TF<sub>2</sub> at 43 days, fifth TF<sub>3</sub> at 48 days, fifth TF<sub>4</sub> at 55 days, and fifth TF<sub>5</sub> at 63 days. RLA was calculated from the day of leaf expansion (12) to sampling.

For each sample time, eight leaves from separate plants were picked, and a small disc was removed from each leaf with a paper punch (eight discs =  $2.54 \text{ cm}^2$ ). This procedure was repeated twice more for a total of three replicates. Each of three replicates was processed and analyzed by our method of sample preparation and chromatography<sup>2</sup> (8). Mean pigment values and standard deviations were calculated from the data.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The samples comprise two groups. Group I is composed of three samples picked from different nodes of the plant at various plant and leaf ages. These samples are: UF (RLA, 9 days; PA, 22 days), first TF (RLA, 7 days; PA, 29 days), and fifth TF (RLA, 0 days; PA, 35 days).

The second group is composed of five samples all taken from the fifth TF at approximately weekly intervals. These samples are: fifth TF<sub>1</sub> (RLA, 0 days; PA, 35 days), fifth TF<sub>2</sub> (RLA, 8 days; PA, 43 days), fifth TF<sub>3</sub> (RLA, 13 days; PA, 48 days), fifth TF<sub>4</sub> (RLA, 20 days; PA, 55 days), and fifth TF<sub>5</sub> (RLA, 28 days; PA, 63 days). In group I samples, RLA does not correspond with PA, whereas in group II samples, RLA and PA both increase at the same rate.

The chloroplast pigment contents  $(nmol/cm^2)$  for the normal green parent plant, Clark (CL1) as a function of plant and leaf maturity, are shown in Table I. Similar data for Chl *a* only are illustrated in Figure 1 for CL1 and three of its pigment-deficient genotypes,  $y_7y_7$ - $y_8y_8$ ,  $y_3y_3$ , and  $y_9y_9$ .

Table I and Figure 1 demonstrate same node and different node pigment development as a function of increasing LA. Group I (fifth TF<sub>1</sub>; first TF, UF) has RLA from 0 to 9 days and illustrates the result of opposing trends in LA and PA whereas group II (fifth TF<sub>1</sub>; fifth TF<sub>5</sub>) has RLA from 0 to 28 days and illustrates their

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The mention of firm names or trade products does not imply that they are endorsed or recommended by the United States Department of Agriculture over other firms or similar products not mentioned.

Table II. Effects of LA and PA on Chl Content of the Mutants

			Chl a				
Sample	RLA days PA days		Genotype				-
			CLI	Cy <sub>7</sub> y <sub>7</sub> y <sub>8</sub> y <sub>8</sub>	Cy <sub>3</sub> y <sub>3</sub>	Cy9y9	ľ
	days		nmol/cm <sup>2</sup>				
lst TF	7	29	44	20	29	14	
5th TF	7	42	45	39	26	7	
UF	9	22	51	37	38	26	
5th TF	9	44	53	44	29	11	

cooperation. It is evident from Table I and Figure 1 that pigment composition of the parent plant (CL1) in group I is directly related to LA and is independent of or less dependent on PA. Pigment accumulation for CL1 in group II samples is also directly related to age, but a plateau is reached when Chl *a* becomes greater than 60 nmol/cm<sup>2</sup>. As in group I samples, the Chl *a* content is an indicator of leaf maturity in the early period of Chl *a* accumulation.

Although PA has small effect on pigment accumulation in aging leaves of normal plants, it exerts strong control in certain pigmentdeficient genotypes. These effects are apparent in Figure 1. In group I samples, each of the three pigment-deficient genotypes,  $y_3y_3$ ,  $y_7y_7y_8y_8$ , and  $y_9y_9$  exhibits some lag in Chl accumulation with increasing RLA in comparison to the normal parent plant. One genotype (y7y7y8y8), however, exhibits a particularly strong depression of pigment formation in the first TF (RLA 7 days), essentially a lag in chloroplast pigment development. No such lag is evident for this genotype in group II samples where leaf aging proceeds in a more mature plant. The PA control of pigment deficiency is also visually evident in the life cycle of the y<sub>7</sub>y<sub>7</sub>y<sub>8</sub>y<sub>8</sub> genotype. The cotyledons and UF leaves appear nearly normal, but the first TF emerges yellow and pigment-deficient. The recovery to normal is rapid, however, and parallels that of the normal plant thereafter.

The genotype  $y_9y_9$ , which shows a small lag in group I samples (young plant), shows a more pronounced lag period in group II samples (older plant). The extent of pigment depression is as large as that shown by  $y_7y_7y_8y_8$  but occurs later. However, unlike  $y_7y_7y_8y_8$ , the genotype  $y_9y_9$  experiences only moderate recovery with increasing age. The genotype  $y_3y_3$  exhibits a small lag in group I samples and a slightly greater lag in group II samples. It is difficult, however, to separate the effect of lag from that of premature senescence, which occurs midway through greening and causes a rapid plunge in pigment levels.

The relationships among LA, PA, and genetics can be further clarified by reference to Table II, where samples of the same LA but different PA are compared for selected genotypes. Chl *a* values for 7- and 9-day RLA samples are taken directly from group I and extrapolated from the curves in Figure 1 for group II samples. The relatively small effect of PA on the parent plants is evident. The other genotypes show the early deficiency of  $y_7y_7y_8y_8$  and the later deficiency of  $y_3y_3$  and  $y_9y_9$ .

Thus, the trends of pigment development as a function of maturity shown by the various pigment-deficient genotypes used in this study follow pathways controlled by their respective genes. To demonstrate further the effects of genetic control on all chloroplast pigments, it is helpful to normalize the pigment content of each genotype against its parent type. This minimizes the effects of leaf position in the canopy, LA, and weather and growth conditions. Thus, the ratio of mutant/parent gives an indication of how each genotype is synthesizing pigments during maturation in comparison to the normal parent plants. A ratio of 1.0 indicates that there is no discernible difference between mutant and parent. Lower ratios signify lower pigment content in the mutants. Table

Sample	Cy7y7y8y8	Cy <sub>3</sub> y <sub>3</sub>	Cy <sub>9</sub> y <sub>9</sub>	<b>CY</b> <sub>11</sub> <b>y</b> <sub>11</sub>	RLA	PA	
		ratio				days	
Neoxanthin							
UF	0.80	0.78	0.40	0.44	9	22	
lst TF	0.43	0.73	0.25	0.32	7	29	
5th TF (1)	0.77	0.76	0.19	0.34	0	35	
5th TF (2)	0.97	0.66	0.14	0.24	8	43	
5th TF (3)	0.87	0.68	0.25	0.22	13	48	
5th TF (4)	0.99	0.39	0.28	0.29	20	55	
5th TF (5)	0.97	0.16	0.41	0.26	28	63	
Violaxanthin							
UF	0.60	0.77	0.55	0.73	9	22	
lst TF	0.53	0.93	0.58	0.60	7	29	
5th TF (1)	0.92	0.94	0.51	0.89	0	35	
5th TF (2)	1.03	0.78	0.20	0.41	8	43	
5th TF (3)	0.94	0.71	0.35	0.43	13	48	
5th TF (4)	1.00	0.59	0.54	0.62	20	55	
5th TF (5)	0.96	0.28	0.46	0.38	28	63	
Lutein							
UF	0.88	1.05	0.92	0.89	9	22	
lst TF	0.45	0.79	0.54	0.58	7	29	
5th TF (1)	0.86	0.86	0.60	0.66	0	35	
Sth TF $(2)$	0.86	0.72	0.58	0.70	8	43	
5th TF $(3)$	0.92	0.73	0.52	0.51	13	48	
5th TF (4)	0.96	0.52	0.43	0.55	20	55	
5th TF (5)	1.05	0.50	0.52	0.42	28	63	
Chl <i>b</i>							
UF	0.73	0.69	0.25	0.24	9	22	
lst TF	0.46	0.63	0.20	0.21	7	29	
Sth TF (1)	0.16	0.02	0.13	0.26	0	35	
5th TF (2)	0.87	0.50	0.08	0.14	8	43	
5th TF(3)	1.00	0.50	0.00	0.15	13	48	
Sth TF $(4)$	1.00	0.34	0.20	0.15	20	55	
5th TF (5)	0.94	0.12	0.42	0.25	28	63	
Chla							
	0.71	0.75	0.42	0.47	٥	22	
	0.71	0.75	0.42	0.37	, 7	22	
	0.40	0.07	0.32	0.37	0	25	
$5\ln 1F(1)$	0.70	0.79	0.23	0.45	0	12	
5in IF(2)	0.62	0.00	0.30	0.45	12	45	
$5\ln 1F(3)$	0.91	0.74	0.40	0.51	20	40	
5th 1F (4)	0.99	0.28	0.48	0.00	20	23	
5th IF (5)	0.84	0.38	0.53	0.47	28	63	
Carotene	0 ( <b>7</b>		0.40		0		
UF	0.67	0.84	0.63	0./4	9	22	
Ist TF	0.43	0.74	0.4/	0.56	/	29	
5th TF (1)	0.64	0.84	0.52	0.72	U	35	
5th TF (2)	0.82	0.68	0.30	0.45	8	43	
5th TF (3)	0.91	0.74	0.46	0.51	13	48	
5th TF (4)	0.99	0.58	0.48	0.66	20	33	
5th TF (5)	0.84	0.38	0.53	0.47	28	63	

Table III. Mutant/Parent Pigment Ratios as a Function of Plant and Leaf

Maturity

III presents these data for increasing PA with subgroupings of maturity and genotype for individual pigments. Inasmuch as the effects of LA and PA on pigment content are cancelled by the normalizing procedure, the data in this table reflect the genetic effects. Nevertheless, genetic control of pigment deficiency may be more strongly expressed in a young leaf or young plant than in an old one, or vice versa. Examination of the data in Table III gives some partial answers to this problem. For the genotype  $y_7 y_7 y_8 y_8$ , the mature UF (RLA 9 days) and the immature fifth TF<sub>1</sub> (RLA 0 days) both contain approximately 70 to 80% of the pigments of the normal parent (CL1). The strong PA effect mentioned earlier occurs in the first TF (RLA 7 days), which has only about 45% of the pigments of the parent. The fifth  $TF_2$ -fifth TF<sub>5</sub> show the rapid recovery to normal behavior. The genotype y<sub>3</sub>y<sub>3</sub> generates about 70 to 80% of normal pigment levels with a slight dip in first TF and a larger one in fifth  $TF_2$ . In the fifth  $TF_4$ and fifth TF<sub>5</sub> the effect of senescence becomes apparent.

It is difficult to ascertain the exact effects occurring in  $y_9y_9$ . It appears from the first three samples that pigment deficiency is expressed more strongly in young leaves than in mature ones. That is, pigment content decreases with decreasing LA (RLA). However, in the next sample, RLA starts to increase again but the pigment deficiency continues. Thus, the lag in pigment development is not only PA dependent but also becomes stronger with increasing PA. The heterozygote  $Y_{11}y_{11}$  exhibits similar behavior.

A lag in Chl accumulation is also exhibited in the greening of etiolated virescent peanut seedlings exposed to continuous illumination. Benedict and Ketring (2) have shown that compared to wild-type leaves, a lag period of 72 h occurs in virescent peanut leaves before rapid Chl accumulation begins. The genetic message for lag is thus built into the original greening process and echoed in whole-plant development as well. Although light pretreatment of etiolated virescent leaves followed by a dark period allows Chl accumulation to commence rapidly upon reillumination, the dark period necessary is equal to the lag time (3). Some component synthesized during the dark period is necessary for plastic development to begin. Evidence gathered by previous investigators (14, 16) suggests that in higher plants this regulator may be phytochrome, although Holowinsky and Schiff (11) have shown that protochlorophyllide functions in this capacity in simpler systems such as Euglena and may be a secondary or back-up system in higher plants. Similar components may also be responsible for whole-plant development as well. The exact lag period for wholeplant pigment development is difficult to pinpoint but ranges from 20 to 30 days for  $y_7y_7y_8y_8$  to 40–50 days for  $y_9y_9$  and  $Y_{11}y_{11}$ .

Throughout this paper, the various genotypes have been characterized as pigment-deficient, not just Chl-deficient. All pigments are affected by the deficiency, but some more than others. The primary deficiency both in lag effects and in senescence occurs in

Chl a and b and in neoxanthin. Violaxanthin, lutein, and carotene also show these effects but to a more limited extent. Since pigment deficiency in many of these genotypes can be attributed to a reduction in the light-harvesting Chl a/b protein (1), these data suggest that neoxanthin may be associated with or be a part of this pigment protein complex.

#### LITERATURE CITED

- 1. ALBERTE RS, JD HESKETH, JS KIRBY 1976 Comparisons of photosynthetic activity and lamellar characteristics of virescent and normal green peanut leaves. Z Pflanzenphysiol 77: 152-159
- 2. BENEDICT CR, DL KETRING 1972 Nuclear gene affecting greening in virescent peanut leaves. Plant Physiol 49: 972-976
- 3. BENEDICT CR, DL KETRING, RN TOMAS 1974 Elimination of the lag period in chloroplast development in a chlorophyll mutant of peanuts. Plant Physiol 53: 233-240
- 4. BERNARD RL, MG WEISS 1973 Qualitative gentics. In BE Caldwell, ed, Soybeans: Improvement, Production, and Uses, Chap 4. American Society of Agronomy, pp 117-153
- 5. DEJONG DW, WG WOODLIEF 1978 High-speed, low-pressure liquid chromatography of chloroplast pigments from tobacco mutants. J Agric Food Chem 26: 1281-1288
- 6. ESKINS K, CR SCHOLFIELD, HJ DUTTON 1977 High-performance liquid chromatography of plant pigments. J Chromatogr 135: 217-220 7. ESKINS K, DJ BANKS 1979 The relationship of accessory pigments to chlorophyll
- a content in chlorophyll-deficient peanut and soybean varieties. Photochem Photobiol 30: 585-588
- 8. ESKINS K, HJ DUTTON 1979 Sample preparation of high-performance liquid chromatography of plant pigments. Anal Chem 51: 1885
- 9. EYSTER WH 1924 Inherited deficiency in carbohydrate metabolism in maize. Bot Gaz 78: 446-449
- 10. HIGHKIN HR 1950 Chlorophyll studies on barley mutants. Plant Physiol 25: 294-306
- 11. HOLOWINSKY AW, JA SCHIFF 1970 Events surrounding the early development of Euglena chloroplast. Plant Physiol 45: 339-347
- 12. JOHNSON HW, HA BORTHWICK, RC LEFFEL 1960 Effects of photoperiod and time of planting on rates of development of the soybean in various states of the life cycle. Bot Gaz 122: 77-95
- 13. KECK RW, RA DILLEY, CF ALLEN, S BIGGS 1970 Chloroplast composition and structure differences in a soybean mutant. Plant Physiol 46: 692-698
- 14. PRICE L, WH KLEIN 1961 Red, far-red response, and chlorophyll synthesis. Plant Physiol 36: 733-755 15. TAI YP, GW TODD 1972 Chlorophyll initiation in peanuts, Arachis hypogeae L.
- Crop Sci 12: 13-15
- 16. VIRGIN HI 1961 Action spectrum for the elimination of the lag phase in chlorophyll formation in previously dark-grown leaves of wheat. Physiol Plant 14: 439-452
- 17. WOLF FT 1963 The chloroplast pigments of certain soybean mutants. Bull Torrey Bot Club 90: 139-143