1 **REVIEW**

- Plant photoreceptors and their signalling components in chloroplastic anterograde and retrogradecommunication.
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11 <u>Highlight</u>

Phytochrome and cryptochromes photoreceptors are essential for tuning photomorphogenesis
 and chloroplast functions, yet their integration in the inter-organellar communication cascades for
 proper environmental responsiveness is just beginning to be addressed.

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16 <u>Abstract</u>

17 The Red-phytochromes and Blue-cryptochromes plant photoreceptors play essential roles in promoting genome-wide changes in nuclear and chloroplastic gene expression for 18 photomorphogenesis, plastid development, and greening. While their importance in anterograde 19 20 signalling has been long recognised, the molecular mechanisms involved remain under active investigation. More recently, the intertwining of the light-signalling cascades with the retrograde 21 22 signals for the optimisation of chloroplast functions has been acknowledged. Advances in the field 23 support the participation of phytochromes, cryptochromes and key light-modulated transcription 24 factors, including HY5 and the PIFs, in the regulation of chloroplastic biochemical pathways that 25 produce retrograde signals, including the tetrapyrroles and the chloroplastic MEP-isoprenoids. Interestingly, in a feedback loop, the photoreceptors and their signalling components are targets 26 themselves of these retrograde signals, aimed at optimising photomorphogenesis to the status of the 27 28 chloroplasts, with GUN proteins functioning at the convergence points. High-light and shade are also 29 conditions where the photoreceptors tune growth responses to chloroplast functions. Interestingly, 30 photoreceptors and retrograde signals also converge in the modulation of dual-localised proteins 31 (chloroplastic/nuclear) including WHIRLY and HEMERA/pTAC12, whose functions are required for 32 the optimisation of photosynthetic activities in changing environments and are proposed to act 33 themselves as retrograde signals.

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35 Keywords

- 36 Anterograde signals, Retrograde Signals, Chloroplast, Cryptochrome photoreceptors, GUN Mutants,
- 37 HY5, MEcPP, Photomorphogenesis, Phytochrome photoreceptors, Plastome, Tetrapyrroles

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39 <u>Abbreviations</u>

40	Cryptochromes, CRYs	56
41	DXP REDUCTOISOMERASE, DXR	57
42	DXP SYNTHASE, DXS	58 59
43 44	<i>EARLY LIGHT INDUCED PROTEIN, ELIP</i> and <i>ELIP2</i>	60 61
45	FERROCHELATASE 1, FC1	62
46 47	Flavonoid/anthocyanin biosynthesis genes, <i>FAB</i>	63
48	GENOMES UNCOUPLED, GUN	64 65
49	GOLDEN2-LIKE protein, GLK	66
50	High-light, HL	67
51 52	LIGHT-HARVESTING COMPLEX B genes, LHCB	68
53	LONG HYPOCOTYL 5, HY5	69 70
54	Methylerythritol cyclodiphosphate, MEcPP	71
55	Methylerythritol phosphate, MEP	72
		73

PENTRATRICOPEPTIDE DOMAIN-CONTAINING, PPR

Photosynthesis Associated Plastome Genes, *PhAPGs*

Photosynthesis-Associated Nuclear Genes, *PhANGs*

Phytochrome Interacting Factors, PIFs

Phytochromes, phys

PLASMID TRANSCRIPTIONALLY ACTIVE CHROMOSOME, pTAC

PLASTID-ENCODED POLYMERASE, PEP

pTAC12/HEMERA, HMR

Reactive oxygen species, ROS

RIBULOSE BIPHOSPHATE CARBOXYLASE SMALL SUBUNIT, RBCS-1A

TETRATRICOPEPTIDE DOMAIN-CONTAINING, TPR

WHIRLY1, WHY1

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77 <u>Introduction</u>

78 Photoreceptor activity is critical to chloroplast development and photosynthetic metabolism.

79 Plant photoreceptors utilise light to co-ordinate growth, development, and photosynthetic functions in a changing environment. Mechanistically, both the Red/far Red light sensing 80 81 phytochromes (phys) and the Blue light sensing cryptochromes (CRYs) are essential in the 82 orchestration of large-scale changes in gene expression to modulate-photomorphogenesis (Franklin and Quail, 2010; Yu et al., 2010). Prominently, their transcriptional cascades facilitate the onset of 83 plastid development, greening, the production of photosynthetic pigments and the set up and 84 maintenance of photosynthetic metabolism, among other light controlled responses (Franklin and 85 86 Quail, 2010; Yu et al., 2010).

87 Beyond the photoreceptors' downstream activation of thousands of nuclear genes whose 88 protein products have a chloroplastic function including in photosynthesis (Chen and Chory, 2011; Ohgishi et al., 2004; Stephenson and Terry, 2008), recent research hints at the involvement of the 89 90 phytochrome and the cryptochrome photoreceptors in the global transcriptional, post-transcriptional and post-translational modulation of plastid-encoded genes (Chen et al., 2010; Facella et al., 2017; 91 92 Griffin et al., 2020; Oh and Montgomery, 2014; Yoo et al., 2019). Hence, the light photoreceptors 93 have not only a central role in the anterograde (nucleus to plastid) signalling cascades, but intertwine 94 with the retrograde (plastids to nucleus) signals for the optimisation and maintenance of plastid 95 functions and metabolism.

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97 <u>Main text</u>

98 Phytochromes and Cryptochromes in anterograde signalling.

99 The anterograde signalling pathways are nuclear-to-chloroplast communication channels 100 involved in setting and tuning chloroplast development and functions, circadian responses and 101 photosynthesis (Atkins and Dodd, 2014; Berry et al., 2013; Leister and Kleine, 2016). Anterograde 102 signals became necessary following the ancestral endosymbiotic event that originated the 103 chloroplasts. Through evolution, many of the genes from the chloroplast genome (the plastome) were 104 transferred to the nuclear genome (Garrido et al., 2020), but remained functionally associated to the 105 chloroplast. And by the acquisition of an N-terminal transit peptide, their protein products gained 106 targeting to the chloroplasts after transcription in the nucleus and translation in the cytoplasm 107 (Wollman, 2016).

108The tight regulation of these nuclear genes encoding for chloroplast-functioning proteins109(globally known as Photosynthesis Associated Nuclear Genes, *PhANGs*) is critical for chloroplast110biogenesis and photosynthesis, and the photoreceptors are essential for tuning their transcriptional

- responses in changing light environments (Calderon and Strand, 2021; Larkin and Ruckle, 2008;
 Pogson *et al.*, 2015). Both the phytochromes and the cryptochromes regulate the global lightresponsiveness of the *PhANGs* through the activation or repression of multiple transcription factors
 including: the bZIP-LONG HYPOCOTYL 5 (HY5) (Osterlund *et al.*, 2000; Toledo-Ortiz *et al.*,
 2014); the basic helix-loop-helix Phytochrome Interacting Factors (PIFs) (Franklin and Quail, 2010;
 Leivar and Quail, 2011); and the GARP proteins GOLDEN2-LIKE 1 and 2 (GLK1, GLK2) (Leister
 and Kleine, 2016; Waters *et al.*, 2009).
- 118 HY5 is a master transcription factor in the control of photomorphogenic responses (Gangappa and Botto, 2016) capable of integrating Red-phys and Blue-CRYs responses. Both photoreceptors 119 120 tune HY5 abundance in the nucleus by downregulating the COP1-dependent ubiquitination of HY5 121 and allowing its accumulation in the light (Osterlund et al., 2000). HY5 binds to the promoters of 122 nearly 4000 genes and controls a wide range of developmental processes including the activation of 123 photosynthesis-associated genes (Gangappa and Botto, 2016; Lee et al., 2007a), photopigment and antioxidant accumulation (Lee et al., 2007a; Shin et al., 2007; Toledo-Ortiz et al., 2014), as well as 124 125 circadian and growth responses (Hajdu et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2007a).
- 126 The PIFs are negative modulators of photomorphogenesis that are degraded in the light after 127 the activation of phys and are involved in promoting skotomorphogenesis and shade avoidance 128 responses (Leivar and Quail, 2011; Yoo et al., 2019). While their turn-over and stability is principally regulated by the phytochromes, cryptochromes can repress the transcription of PIF4 without affecting 129 130 its protein stability (Ma et al., 2016), and may also protect PIF5 from phy-mediated degradation in low Blue light conditions (Pedmale et al., 2016). PIFs promote skotomorphogenesis (Wang et al., 131 132 2022) including the down regulation of genes involved in photopigment biosynthesis (Shin et al., 133 2007; Stephenson et al., 2009), chloroplast development and function (Leivar and Monte, 2014).
- 134The GLK transcription factors target genes involved in light harvesting and chlorophyll135biosynthesis through direct binding to their light-sensitive promoters, and are required for chloroplast136development (Waters *et al.*, 2009). In addition, *GLK1* and *GLK2* transcript accumulation is Red-phys137and Blue light dependent, and the *glk1 glk2* double mutant has reduced accumulation of transcripts for138photosynthetic genes and lower chlorophyll content when grown in Blue light (Waters *et al.*, 2009),139hinting at their involvement with CRYs signalling cascades leading to greening.
- Beyond the important role of the CRYs and phys in the transcriptional response of chloroplast functioning genes, recent research provides with evidence that the phytochromes are also key regulators of ribosome biogenesis and translation during late leaf development, with a global modulation of mRNAs that encode for components of the aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis, elongation factors, and ribosomal subunits (Romanowski *et al.*, 2021). Active phyB has also been reported to interact with cytosolic RNA-Binding proteins, including PENTA1 (PTN1), to inhibit the translation of

mRNAs for genes such as protochlorophyllide (PORA) involved in chlorophyll biosynthesis (Paik *et al.*, 2012).

148 Withal, beyond the activation of the nuclear genome for the production of the chloroplastic 149 proteins encoded by it, chloroplast functions require co-ordination of gene expression with the 150 plastome, wherein essential subunits of the photosynthetic complexes are encoded. As such, part of 151 the anterograde signalling pathways relate to the delivery of information for tuning the chloroplast genome in response to the environment (Facella et al., 2017; Griffin et al., 2020; Oh and 152 153 Montgomery, 2014). CRY2 over-expression studies in tomato defined a broad contribution to the 154 plastome expression in Long Days (58% of the 114 plastome ORFs), with an up-regulation of 155 Photosystem II (psb), Photosystem I (psa), and cytochrome b6f (pet) transcripts and down-regulation 156 of multiple large and small ribosomal proteins (rps, rpl). In addition, genes encoding for other 157 photosynthetic complexes such the NADH dehydrogenase (*ndh*) and ATP Synthase (*atp*) showed a 158 mixed regulation (Facella et al., 2017). A similar analysis in Arabidopsis for phyB mutant in Short 159 Days (SD), revealed an analogous capacity to globally regulate the transcripts of 55 out of 80 160 plastome encoded genes (Griffin et al., 2020; Michael et al., 2008). While in most cases phyB 161 function was related to transcript up-regulation, down-regulation of key atp (ATP Synthase), ndh 162 (NADH dehydrogenase), psa (Photosystem I), and psb (Photosystem II) transcripts was also detected 163 (Griffin *et al.*, 2020).

164 Alongside these reports, bioinformatic studies of genomic datasets for Arabidopsis cry1 cry2 165 and *phyabcde* revealed a significant contribution of Red-phytochromes and Blue-cryptochromes to the light-dependent expression of nuclear-encoded genes whose protein products are linked to the 166 167 transcriptional, post-transcriptional, and translational control of the plastome (Griffin et al., 2020). 168 Among the light-modulated gene families identified were the sigma factor transcriptional cofactors 169 required for the activity of the PLASTID-ENCODED POLYMERASE (PEP) (Börner et al., 2015; Oh 170 and Montgomery, 2014); the Pentatricopeptide domain-containing (PPR) and the Tetratricopeptide 171 domain-containing (TPR) families of RNA binding proteins with a role in the plastome post-172 transcriptional events (Lamb et al., 1995; Ruwe et al., 2011). In addition, for the Blue-cryptochromes, 173 genes encoding for RNA-Recognition Motif (RRM) RNA binding proteins with an annotated role in 174 post-transcription and for the tRNA ligase and Large Ribosomal Protein (RPL) related to translation 175 were identified (Griffin et al., 2020). In this context, HY5 was singled out as a relevant transcription 176 factor delivering light cues to the "plastome-regulatory gene network". Gene targets include the sigma 177 factors and the PLASMID TRANSCRIPTIONALLY ACTIVE CHROMOSOME class (pTACs), involved in plastome-transcription, and the PPRs and the TPRs likely involved in post-transcriptional 178 179 processes.

180 These early studies provide with evidence that the photoreceptors and their signalling 181 components, are central in the anterograde signalling cascades to tune the global expression of the 182 plastome in response to environmental signals, but the detailed mechanistic insights remain to be 183 understood.

- 184
- 185 The chloroplast retrograde signalling pathways.

186 Retrograde signalling pathways are a second type of inter-organellar communication channels used by the plastids to relay information to the nucleus in response to a range of stresses or external 187 188 stimuli for the optimisation of growth and for shaping photosynthetic and chloroplast biogenic responses (Hernández-Verdeja and Strand, 2018; Kusnetsov et al., 1996; Leister and Kleine, 2016). 189 190 Retrograde signalling during chloroplast biogenesis (defined as the transition between etioplasts or 191 proplastids to chloroplasts), germination or early seedling development, is referred to as biogenic 192 signalling (Pogson et al., 2008). Biogenic signalling tunes-up and down- hundreds of nuclear-encoded 193 genes whose protein products function in the chloroplast (Chan et al., 2016). A variety of 194 intermediaries from chloroplastic metabolic pathways, including: tetrapyrroles, methylerythritol 195 phosphate (MEP)-pathway isoprenoids, phosphoadenosines, carbohydrates, carotenoid oxidation 196 products and reactive oxygen species (ROS), have been identified as biogenic signals emitted by the 197 chloroplast to deliver information to the nucleus. The biogenic retrograde signalling pathways have been recently reviewed in detail (Chi et al., 2015; Terry et al., 2019). 198

199 The crucial contribution of retrograde signalling to seedling survival has been assessed in 200 mutants with impaired retrograde signalling capabilities, and through pharmacological approaches 201 that induce stress in the chloroplasts (Chan et al., 2016; Pogson et al., 2008). Common retrograde 202 signal activators include Lincomycin (an inhibitor of plastid translation that blocks plastid 203 development) and Norflurazon (an inhibitor of carotenoid biosynthesis that induces photobleached 204 chloroplasts). These chemical agents trigger a reduction in the expression *PhANGs*, including those 205 encoding for light-harvesting complex proteins (LHCB) and the Rubisco small subunit (RBCS), that 206 are common marker genes for assessing retrograde signal activity (Ruckle et al., 2012; Susek et al., 1993). In Arabidopsis, forward mutagenic screens coupled with the use of Norflurazon identified the 207 208 gun1 (Genome Uncoupled) mutants with altered accumulation of PhANGs like CAB (Chlorophyll a/b 209 binding protein) (Mochizuki et al., 2001; Susek et al., 1993; Susek and Chory, 1992).

A second type of retrograde signalling involves operational signals that occur after
chloroplast biogenesis and in response to stress conditions to induce adjustments in chloroplast
homeostasis (Chan *et al.*, 2016; Pogson *et al.*, 2008). Examples of identified operational signalling
pathways include the regulation of PSII overexcitation via β-cyclocitral (Ramel *et al.*, 2012), and the
methylerythritol cyclodiphosphate (MEcPP) pathway (Jiang and Dehesh, 2021).

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This review will focus on the photoreceptors involvement in the regulation of the biogenic and operational pathways, including links to the GUN signalling pathways and MEcPP pathway and novel insights on dual localised proteins in the chloroplast to nuclear signalling (Jiang and Dehesh, 2021; Martín *et al.*, 2016; Qin *et al.*, 2010; Ren *et al.*, 2017).

219

220 The intertwining of retrograde signalling and photoreceptor-dependent pathways.

221 While connections between plastid retrograde signalling and light signalling have been made 222 for decades, most of the mechanisms involved remain elusive (Kusnetsov et al., 1996; Larkin and 223 Ruckle, 2008; Xu et al., 2016). In 1996 Kusnetsov et al. examined the overlap between plastid-224 derived retrograde signals and light-derived signals on functional promoter sequences of *PhANGs*. 225 These authors provided with early evidence that chloroplast-derived retrograde signals and light 226 signalling pathways act on the same cis-acting elements (such as L-, I- and G-boxes), and could 227 regulate the same processes, suggesting an intertwining of the pathways. Since then, G-boxes have 228 been characterised as an important Light Responsive Element (LRE) bound by multiple phytochrome 229 and cryptochrome downstream signalling components including HY5 and the PIFs (Chattopadhyay et 230 al., 1998; Leivar and Quail, 2011).

231 Experimental evidence also supports that the activation of retrograde signalling pathways by 232 Lincomycin and Norflurazon represses or delays plant photoreceptors' promotion of 233 photomorphogenesis, including chloroplast biogenesis and greening processes (Ruckle et al., 2012; 234 Susek et al., 1993). There is also a clear overlap between the gene targets of the biogenic retrograde 235 signalling pathways and the photomorphogenic cascades initiated by the phys and the CRYs (Ohgishi 236 et al., 2004; Ruckle et al., 2012; Tepperman et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2019). Examples of common targets include the subunits of the LHCB and RBCS (Mazzella et al.; Reed et al.; Vinti et al., 2005; 237 238 Woodson et al., 2011). Furthermore, RNA-seq experiments in Norflurazon have provided with 239 evidence that the genes encoding for *phyA* and for light-modulated transcription factors such as HY5 are up-regulated; and PIF4 and PIF7 are down-regulated upon activation of retrograde signal 240 241 pathways (Zhao et al., 2019), giving support to the hypothesis that photoreceptors and their signalling 242 components and retrograde signals highly intersect and do not operate independently of each other.

Beyond the chemical activators of retrograde signals, High-light (HL) is also an important trigger (Szechyńska-Hebda and Karpiński, 2013), and photoreceptors are part of the perception and responsiveness to HL (Kreslavski *et al.*, 2020). Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) including hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), superoxide anions (O²⁻) and singlet oxygen (¹O₂) are chemical derivatives of O₂ produced by metabolic processes in plants (Apel and Hirt, 2004). In HL irradiances chloroplasts increment H₂O₂ production by Photosystem I and ¹O₂ by PSII (Kanervo *et al.*, 2005; Krieger-Liszkay, 2005). While H₂O₂ has been shown to move out of isolated chloroplasts *in-vitro*, providing it with

250 capacity to act as an initiator of retrograde signalling (Mubarakshina et al., 2010), ¹O₂ cannot leave the chloroplast due to its short half-life (Gorman and Rodgers, 1992) and therefore secondary messengers 252 yet to be identified must be involved in the transmission of the ¹O₂ signal to the nucleus.

253 In addition to ROS, HL-stress also generates 12-oxophytodienoic acid (OPDA), and oxylipins 254 derived retrograde signals (Gollan and Aro, 2020). Among the targets of these retrograde signalling cascades is EARLY LIGHT INDUCIBLE PROTEINI (ELIP1) (Gollan and Aro, 2020), a thylakoid 255 256 protein induced during de-etiolation and in response to HL stress (Rossini et al., 2006). ELIP proteins 257 may participate in enhancing the photoprotective capacity of the plant (Casazza et al., 2005; Rossini et al., 2006) and under HL, CRY1 and HY5 modulate the induction of ELIP1 (Kleine et al., 2007). As 258 259 part of these cascades, a second cross-regulatory point is the modulation of Heat Shock Protein (HSP) 260 chaperones (including HSP90) which are HY5 targets and participate in the tetrapyrrole mediated plastid signalling to repress *PhANGs* under oxidative stress (Kindgren *et al.*, 2012). 261

262 These examples illustrate that photoreceptors' activity is crucial for the setup of the protective 263 responses against the HL stress, as well as for the communication channels activated by high-264 irradiances. Likewise, phytochromes and cryptochromes promote the activation of nuclear genes for 265 the biosynthesis of carotenoids and anthocyanins to deal with excess of light (Kreslavski et al., 2020). 266 Accordingly, the cry1phyAB1 and phyAB1B2 mutants in Solanum lycopersicum, present additive HL 267 stress phenotypes, including reductions in photopigment content, photosynthetic activity and lower 268 transcript accumulation of photosynthesis-associated genes encoded in both the plastome and in the 269 nuclear genome (PhANGs and PhAPGs) (Kreslavski et al., 2020). Furthermore, the more acute HL damage observed for cry1phyAB1 may point to a larger contribution of CRY1 to HL tolerance and 270 271 responsive mechanisms in tomato plants.

272 Studies in Arabidopsis further support this primary role of CRY1 in managing 273 photoprotective and HL responses, and single out HY5, whose transcript and protein accumulate in 274 HL, as one of the light signalling components involved (Kleine et al., 2007). In addition to a HL-275 sensitive phenotype including the photo-inactivation of PSII, the cry1 mutant exhibits at a 276 transcriptomic level mis-regulation of 77 HL-induced genes, with 26 of them also mis-regulated in 277 hy5 (Kleine et al., 2007). Interestingly, further 39 genes showed altered patterns of accumulation in 278 hy5, but not in cry1, indicating that HY5 participates in both HL-CRY1-dependent and HL responsive 279 but CRY-independent pathways.

280 Additional evidence from studies in emerging rice seedlings grown under high-Blue or high-Red light and Lincomycin support both an integration and a differential contribution of light-quality 281 282 and photoreceptor activity to seedling photomorphogenesis and non-photochemical quenching 283 mechanisms to tolerate the excess light (Duan et al., 2020). In this context, in high Red-light 284 conditions retrograde signal activators induced photobleaching, but in high Blue-light, enhanced

carotenoid and chlorophyll production contributed to a stronger HL stress tolerance, in a mechanism 286 likely dependent on cryptochromes (Duan et al., 2020; Kleine et al., 2007; Richter et al., 2020).

287 In summary, HL responses involve both photoreceptors (CRYs, phys) and light signalling 288 components (such as HY5) capable of sensing and responding to both HL and retrograde signals to 289 tune growth and development with the status of the chloroplast. Current studies also support the 290 conservation of these HL induced-Retrograde signalling cascades between monocots and dicot plants 291 (Duan et al., 2020).

292

293 Photoreceptors, HY5, and GUN1 in the convergence of photomorphogenesis and retrograde 294 signalling.

295 The GENOMES UNCOUPLED (GUN) genes (GUN1-GUN6) were identified in the "gun 296 mutant screens" using Norflurazon to activate retrograde signals (Mochizuki et al., 2001; Susek et al., 297 1993; Susek and Chory, 1992; Woodson et al., 2011). GUN2-6 play roles in the tetrapyrrole 298 biosynthesis pathway, and while the full functional role of GUN1 remains to be addressed, 299 experimental evidence also supports GUN1 modulation of tetrapyrroles by direct binding to both 300 heme and porphyrins (Shimizu et al., 2019).

301 Tetrapyrroles, either as bilins or porphyrins, have important functions in multiple biological 302 processes, including respiration and photosynthesis, and are active in light absorption, electron 303 transfer, and oxygen binding (Shimizu et al., 2019). Tetrapyrrole biosynthesis takes place in the 304 plastids and involves two key pathways branching from protoporphyrin IX: the chlorophyll branch, 305 ending in production of chlorophylls a and b; and the heme branch, ending in phytochromobilin (the 306 chromophore used by the Red and far-Red light phytochrome photoreceptors) (Bae and Choi, 2008; 307 Li et al., 2011). A tight regulation of tetrapyrrole biosynthesis is required to avoid cellular damage by 308 the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS).

309 As the gun mutants involve mutations within the tetrapyrroles biosynthetic pathway, the 310 metabolites therein are considered key retrograde signals for chloroplast development (Leister and Kleine, 2016). In the chlorophyll branch of the tetrapyrrole biosynthesis pathway, GUN5 encodes a 311 312 gene for the H subunit of magnesium chelatase (MgCh), involved in the transition between 313 protoporphyrin IX (Proto) to Magnesium protoporphyrin IX (Mg-ProtoIX) (Mochizuki et al., 2001). 314 GUN4 encodes an activator of Mg-chelatase that also contributes to the accumulation of Mg-Proto IX (Larkin et al., 2003). Mg-ProtoIX has been proposed as a one of the important signalling molecules 315 316 for retrograde signalling (Kindgren et al., 2011), linked to the reduction in transcript levels of 317 PhANGs, including LHCB and RBCS (Shimizu et al., 2019). However, beyond gun4 and gun5, other 318 mutants for genes encoding subunits for Mg-ProtoIX complex do not display a gun phenotype,

making the role of this metabolite in retrograde signalling unclear at present (Mochizuki *et al.*, 2001;
Wu and Bock, 2021).

The heme branch of tetrapyrrole synthesis is initiated by GUN6 (also known as plastid FERROCHELATASE 1, FC1) that converts protoporphyrin IX to protoheme by inserting Fe²⁺. Protoheme is converted first to biliverdin IX by GUN2 (encoding heme oxygenase), and finally to 3Zphytochromobilin by GUN3 (phytochromobilin synthase). Evidence that heme may function as a second type of retrograde signalling molecule has been provided by the characterisation of *gun6-1D*, a dominant mutant allele overexpressing *FC1*, and promoting the flow of tetrapyrroles into the heme branch, with consequent upregulation of *PhANG* transcripts (Woodson *et al.*, 2011).

While the specific mechanisms through which photoreceptor signalling pathways are involved in the generation, regulation, and response to GUN retrograde signals, have yet to be fully elucidated, tetrapyrrole biosynthesis is induced by light, as previously reviewed (Kobayashi and Masuda, 2016) with the contribution of light-signalling transcription factors including HY5 (Kobayashi *et al.*, 2012a; Kobayashi *et al.*, 2012b; Lee *et al.*, 2007b), the PIFs (Leivar and Quail, 2011; Shin *et al.*, 2009), and GLK1 and GLK2 (Waters *et al.*, 2009).

334 In particular, GUN1 is a gene of high interest as integratory point for light and retrograde 335 signalling pathways. GUN1 encodes a chloroplast-localised protein containing a pentatricopeptide 336 repeat (PPR) (Koussevitzky et al., 2007). Pentatricopeptide domain-containing proteins are known 337 post-transcriptional regulators of plastid gene expression (Ruwe et al., 2011), but the functional role of GUN1 protein is still under exploration. Of all gun mutants, gun1 exhibits the strongest de-338 repression of *PhANGs* expression in lincomycin (Koussevitzky et al., 2007) and *GUN1* transcript 339 340 accumulation is light-responsive and dependent on the phytochromes in Red light (Hu et al., 2013). 341 During de-etiolation, GUN1 is active and involved in cotyledon expansion and hypocotyl elongation (Ruckle et al., 2007; Ruckle and Larkin, 2009) with gun1 also displaying a delayed greening 342 343 phenotype. As such, GUN1 likely represents a crosstalk point between the photoreceptor signalling cascades and the plastid signals that tune chloroplast greening and growth responses (Mochizuki et 344 345 al., 1996; Pesaresi and Kim, 2019; Ruckle et al., 2007; Wu and Bock, 2021; Wu et al., 2019).

346 Further support for this possibility has been provided by additional gun genetic screens, 347 where an allele of *crv1* that shares similar phenotypes with *gun1-1*, including defects in plastid to 348 nucleus signalling affecting LHCB and RBCS transcript accumulation, was identified (Ruckle et al., 349 2007). Double mutant analysis of gun1-101 cry1 grown in HL showed an additive phenotype for their effects on LHCB accumulation and deficiencies in chlorophyll accumulation, indicating that GUN1 350 351 and CRY1 may be partially redundant in modulating LHCB via parallel pathways that converge. A 352 similar phenotype of defective LHCB accumulation was observed for gun1-101 hy5 double mutant, 353 suggesting that this CRY1 dependent pathway requires HY5. Likewise, phyB gun1-1 double mutants

accumulated more *LHCB* than *gun1-1* single mutants when treated lincomycin, providing evidence
that phyB may also be a *gun* mutant, contributing to the repression of *LHCB*, but only when GUN1 is
inactive (Ruckle *et al.*, 2007).

In summary, the light/photoreceptor-dependent modulation of *GUN1*, together with the additive phenotypes between *gun1* and photoreceptor mutants, point at signal integration between the light cascades and the retrograde signals via GUN1, with HY5 as a potential "convergence of signals point" for which full mechanistic insights await full dissection.

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362 Phytochrome-dependent GLK tuning of *PhANGs* is antagonized by GUN signalling.

An additional molecular link identified between the GUN pathways and the photoreceptor 363 364 signalling cascades during de-etiolation was recently uncovered (Martín et al., 2016). These authors 365 showed that during de-etiolation, the phytochrome photomorphogenic signals and the GUN1 biogenic 366 retrograde signalling pathways converge to antagonistically control photomorphogenesis. Notably, Arabidopsis plants grown in Red or white light with inhibition of chloroplast biogenesis induced by 367 368 Lincomycin or Norflurazon, showed elongated hypocotyls and unexpanded cotyledons lacking 369 chlorophyll, phenotypes associated to dark-grown seedlings. These observations give support to a retrograde signals-dependent tuning down of light-dependent pathways with suppression of 370 371 photomorphogenic development.

372 Interestingly, genomic studies showed that over 343 photomorphogenesis-associated genes 373 involved in de-etiolation and greening are co-repressed by both lincomycin-induced/GUN1-derived 374 retrograde signals and by the PIFs in the dark. This transcriptional effect was further supported by the 375 characterisation of the *pifq (pif1 pif3 pif4 pif5*) mutant, for which treatment with lincomycin restored 376 the PIF-repressed genes transcriptomic profile to wild-type levels, indicating a parallel pathway to 377 GUN1 in response to chloroplast dysfunction (Martín et al., 2016). An analysis of the DNA-binding 378 motifs in the promoters of the genes co-repressed by both lincomycin and PIFs identified an 379 enrichment in GLK-binding motifs (Martín et al., 2016). GLK1 encodes for a transcription factor that is both phytochrome/light-induced and PIF-repressed, and whose down-regulation by retrograde 380 signals in a GUN1/GUN5 dependent manner is reported (Kakizaki et al., 2009; Waters et al., 2009). 381 382 In addition, characterisation of overexpressing lines for GLK1 and GLK2 placed them as gun mutants themselves (Leister and Kleine, 2016). As part of the GUN1/GLK1-mediated responses, the B-Box 383 384 gene BBX16 has been identified as a directly induced target of GLK1 for the promotion of 385 photomorphogenesis, and whose transcription is repressed in a GUN1/GLK1-dependent manner upon 386 chloroplast damage, as well as in response to Norflurazon treatment (Veciana et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2019). 387

388 Along with the links between RS and GUN signalling in the light, evidence also suggests that 389 these pathways may operate in darkness, with the involvement of COP1 and the PIFs. Support to this 390 possibility comes from experiments on etiolated Arabidopsis *pifq* seedlings that, when grown in the 391 presence of lincomycin, show a restoration to phenotypes present in WT-etiolated seedlings, including 392 suppression of cotyledon separation and sustainment of apical hook curvature and of appressed cotyledons (Martín et al., 2016). In addition, lincomycin also reduces the transcript accumulation of 393 photomorphogenesis-associated genes such as *LHCB1* in dark-grown *cop1*, and of 354 transcripts in 394 dark-grown pifq mutants (Martín et al., 2016; Sullivan and Gray, 1999). Also, recent studies of dark 395 396 grown etioplasts and pro-plastids revealed the presence of GUN1 protein in the dark and 397 transcriptomic studies on dark grown WT and gun1-102 indicate that GUN1 mediated signals regulate 398 nuclear gene expression in the dark with up to 4425 genes, including subunits of the Photosystem I 399 (PSA) and LHCB, differentially expressed in dark gun1-101 compared to WT. These results support a 400 significant role for GUN1 in tuning the expression in the dark of genes involved in the build-up of the 401 photosynthetic apparatus (Hernandez-Verdeja et al., 2022).

Therefore, while the molecular connections between the GUN1 retrograde signalling and the phytochrome cascades are only beginning to be addressed, progress in the area points at retrograde signals acting as an antagonistic pathway to suppress phytochrome-induced photomorphogenesis. In this context, GUN1 can integrate retrograde signals downstream COP1 to tune the initiation of photomorphogenesis, including those that modulate the transcriptional responses of transcription factors required for de-etiolation and for chloroplast development such as GLK1, HY5, PIF1, PIF4, PIF5 and PIF8 (Hernández-Verdeja *et al.*, 2022).

409

410 Photoreceptors and the MEcPP retrograde signalling pathway.

Along with their roles in initiating greening and tetrapyrrole biosynthesis, phytochromes are downstream targets of the (MEcPP), an isoprenoid derivative of the chloroplastic methylerythritol phosphate (MEP) pathway, and a powerful operational retrograde signalling molecule (de Souza *et al.*, 2017; Jiang and Dehesh, 2021; Jiang *et al.*, 2019) for the expression of nuclear genes involved in stress responses in plastids (de Souza *et al.*, 2017; Xiao *et al.*, 2012). The plastidial accumulation of MEcPP is induced in response to oxidative stress, high light, wounding, high temperature, and heavy metals in plants and eubacteria (Wang *et al.*, 2017; Xiao *et al.*, 2012).

A genetic screen in Arabidopsis to identify genes involved in the regulation of
HYDROPEROXIDE LYASE (HPL), a stress-inducible protein in the oxylipin pathway, identified the *constitutively expressing HPL (ceh1)* mutant (Xiao *et al.*, 2012). *ceh1* has a mutation in HMBPP
synthase (HDS) that catalyses the conversion of MEcPP to HMBPP (Ostrovsky *et al.*, 1998;
Rodríguez-Concepción, 2006; Xiao *et al.*, 2012), and displays short hypocotyls in the light (Jiang *et*

- *al.*, 2020; Jiang *et al.*, 2019). This phenotype is caused by higher phyB protein levels induced by the
 over-accumulation of MEcPP (Jiang *et al.*, 2020). Higher phyB levels lead to the repression of PIF4
 and PIF5 activity and to an altered accumulation of ethylene and auxin biosynthetic genes such as *ACS4*, *5*, *8*, and *YUC8* (Jiang *et al.*, 2020; Jiang *et al.*, 2019). Interestingly, the short hypocotyl
 phenotype of *ceh1* mutants was also present in seedlings grown under Blue light, supporting the
 possibility that Blue light-sensing cryptochromes are also linked to MEcPP accumulation and
 signalling (Jiang *et al.*, 2019).
- While phyB is a downstream target of a MEcPP retrograde signal, phyB and transcription
 factors acting downstream of phyB are also critical regulators of multiple MEP-pathway genes (eg *DXP SYNTHASE (DXS), DXP REDUCTOISOMERASE (DXR), HMBPP REDUCTASE (HDR)*) from
 which MEcPP is derived (Chenge-Espinosa *et al.*, 2018). In particular, Red-light signals from phys
 and HY5, antagonistically transduced by PIFs, are involved in the transcriptional control of *DXS* and *DXR*, the genes in the MEP-pathway that are considered rate limiting steps and flux controlling points
 (Chenge-Espinosa *et al.*, 2018; Wright *et al.*, 2014).

437 Together, these findings support a cross-regulation between the photoreceptors and the
438 MEcPP retrograde signalling pathways with phyB as both a key target of retrograde signals in Red
439 light as well as a regulator of their generation, in a feedback loop that adjusts photomorphogenic
440 responses to the status of the chloroplast.

441

442 HY5 emergence as an important integratory factor for light and multiple retrograde signalling 443 pathways.

444 HY5 is a master modulator of plant photomorphogenesis, including the control of de-445 etiolation, photopigment accumulation, hormonal levels, anthocyanin production, and tuning of 446 reactive oxygen stress responses (Gangappa and Botto, 2016; Kobayashi et al., 2012b; Toledo-Ortiz 447 et al., 2014). In the light, several pieces of evidence support the signal integratory capacity of CRYs 448 and phys signals via HY5 with retrograde signalling (Kindgren et al., 2012; Richter et al., 2020; 449 Ruckle et al., 2007). As such, HY5 transcript accumulation increases in response to retrograde signal 450 activators (Zhao et al., 2019), and HY5 has been proposed to alternate between an activator and a 451 repressor of nuclear-encoded gene expression in response to plastid dysfunction (Lee et al., 2007b; 452 Ruckle et al., 2007; Ruckle and Larkin, 2009).

In addition, HY5 mediates the GUN1-triggered rapid light-dependent inhibition of *PhANGs*,
induced by singlet oxygen retrograde signals derived from the photo-excitation of Mg-porphyrins and
the accumulation of the chlorophyll intermediate Mg-ProtoIX (Kindgren *et al.*, 2012; Richter *et al.*,
2020; Strand *et al.*, 2003). Mg-ProtoIX interaction with cytosolic HSP90 proteins leads to the

- repression or inactivation of nuclear-encoded *PhANGs* in a HY5-dependent manner (Kindgren *et al.*,
 2012). In this pathway, GUN5-HSP90.2-HY5 is emerging as a convergence point for light and
 retrograde signalling cascades for the modulation of *PhANGs*. HY5 may also form with GUN1 and
 HSP90.1 (Wu and Bock, 2021; Wu *et al.*, 2019) a second light-retrograde signals integratory node,
 whose full biological significance, remains to be investigated.
- Farther, together with cryptochromes, HY5 also participates in the co-ordination of light and
 retrograde signals for anthocyanin and flavonoid accumulation (Richter *et al.*, 2020; Shin *et al.*, 2007;
 Zhang *et al.*, 2016). In this respect, current evidence shows that in Norflurazon-treated Arabidopsis
 plants, GUN1/GUN5 retrograde signals can tune down the transcript accumulation of
 flavonoid/anthocyanin biosynthesis (*FAB*) genes, including *LEUCOANTHOCYANIDIN DIOXYGENASE (LDOX)* a gene whose activation depends on CRY1 and HY5 (Richter *et al.*, 2020).
- As such, current studies support the participation of CRY1 and HY5 in abiotic-stress
 triggered retrograde signalling cascades necessary for enabling chloroplasts stress responsiveness, the
 modulation of photoprotective pigment accumulation, and repression of the expression of the
 PhANGs.
- 472 Another reported link between HY5 and the tetrapyrrole biosynthesis-derived retrograde 473 signalling cascades involves the sigma factors. The sigma transcriptional cofactors are nuclear-474 encoded genes required for the activity of the PEP (Berry et al., 2013; Börner et al., 2015). In 475 Arabidopsis, there are 6 members of the sigma factor family, with 5 of them (SIGs 1, 2, 3, 5, 6) 476 showing Red-phytochrome, Blue-cryptochrome, or Red/Blue-HY5-dependent transcript accumulation (Griffin et al., 2020; Oh and Montgomery, 2013). For SIG2 and SIG5, links to retrograde signalling 477 478 are emerging (Oh et al., 2018; Woodson et al., 2013) with SIG2 modulation in the expression of the 479 tRNA-glu, an early step in the tetrapyrrole biosynthesis (Woodson et al., 2013) and a reduced 480 accumulation of *PhANGs* transcripts (including *RBCS* and *LHCB* genes) in *sig2*, a phenotype that is 481 alleviated by heme-feeding. Transcriptomic studies for SIG2 have also identified under Red-light over 482 2000 nuclear-encoded mis-regulated genes, some with roles in growth, hormonal cross-talk, stress 483 responses, and photosynthesis (Oh et al., 2018). The enrichment in sig2 of mis-regulated 484 chloroplastic/Red-light responsive genes that are targets of retrograde signals supports an intersection 485 of both pathways for the modulation in particular of chloroplastic acting genes and of genes active 486 during in photomorphogenesis.
- A second sigma factor, SIG5, is a light quality and high-light responsive gene that is sensitive
 to DCMU-dependent retrograde signals (Mellenthin *et al.*, 2014). *SIG5* transcript accumulation is
 CRY1 induced in Blue-light and phy-dependent in Red-light, with HY5 contributing to its
 transcriptional response in both light qualities (Griffin *et al.*, 2020; Mellenthin *et al.*, 2014). Following
 DCMU activation of retrograde signals derived from the inhibition of electron flow in Photosystem II

(Mellenthin *et al.*, 2014; Metz *et al.*, 1986), the accumulation of *SIG5* is down-regulated. These early
studies point at SIG5 capacity to integrate inputs from light and retrograde signals, however the
mechanistic insights on signal integration and biological outputs remain to be investigated. Yet, SIG2
and SIG5 as HY5- and retrograde signal-sensitive genes, have a good potential to be part of the
anterograde and retrograde pathways to tune the plastid genome and the *PhANGs* transcriptional
responses with the Blue and Red photoreceptors light signals.

498

499 HY5 and phyB in the shade-induced retrograde signalling pathways.

500 In addition, HY5's involvement in retrograde signals to avoid shade and optimise 501 photosynthetic performance has been reported (Bou-Torrent et al., 2015; Cagnola et al., 2012; Ortiz-502 Alcaide et al., 2019; Roig-Villanova et al., 2007). In this context, HY5 is reported to respond to 503 retrograde signals derived from functional chloroplasts to tune hypocotyl elongation, in a manner 504 similar to its induction by phyA in low Red: far Red conditions to suppress elongation (Bou-Torrent 505 et al., 2015; Ortiz-Alcaide et al., 2019). On the other hand, under shade, signals derived from 506 challenged chloroplasts to de-activate phyB, stimulate the activity of the PIFs to promote hypocotyl 507 elongation and avoid shade (Ortiz-Alcaide et al., 2019).

Studies using norflurazon or lincomycin treatments point at a higher transcript accumulation
of *HY5* and HY5 protein can be detected in white and in far-Red light enriched environments
simulating canopies, but only when retrograde signals derived from functional chloroplasts are active
(Ortiz-Alcaide *et al.*, 2019). Interestingly, in the absence of functional chloroplasts, phyB inactivation
in response to FR treatments is delayed, with the consequent reduction in the transcripts of shadeinduced genes involved in elongation (Ortiz-Alcaide *et al.*, 2019; Roig-Villanova *et al.*, 2007).

In summary, current studies point at antagonistic effects of phyB/PIFs and phyA/HY5 for the
proper modulation of elongation responses upon impending competition. Yet, in this setting,
chloroplast retrograde signals are also critical for the tuning of light quality/shade perception to the
status of the chloroplast.

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9 Photoreceptors regulate retrograde signalling dependent dual-localised proteins.

Likewise, there is also evidence to support the involvement of the photoreceptors in the
regulation of multiple dual-localised proteins that can communicate information between the nucleus
and the chloroplast to tune chloroplast needs and photomorphogenic responses. WHIRLY1 (WHY1)
is among such dual-localised proteins with potential to act as a retrograde signal based on a functional

role in in chloroplast biogenesis and a capability for translocation from the chloroplast back to the
nucleus (Isemer *et al.*, 2012).

WHIRLY proteins are a small family of 3 genes in Arabidopsis, encoding for single-stranded
DNA-binding proteins (Desveaux *et al.*, 2002; Krause *et al.*, 2005). WHIRLY1 and WHIRLY3 are
targeted to chloroplast, and WHIRLY2 localises to the mitochondria (Krause *et al.*, 2005). WHY1 is
involved in the transcriptional modulation of plastid-encoded and nuclear encoded-genes (Desveaux *et al.*, 2002; Desveaux *et al.*, 2005; Isemer *et al.*, 2012). In the chloroplast, WHY1 forms part of the
pTAC complexes involved in plastome transcription, and in the nucleus WHY1 stimulates the
expression of Pathogen Response (PR) genes by an unknown mechanism (Isemer *et al.*, 2012).

533 The role of WHY1 as a retrograde signal occurs in response to redox changes in the thylakoid 534 electron transport chain (Foyer et al., 2014). WHY1's alternate subcellular localisation depends on 535 light via the phyA-dependent regulation of the Calcineurin B-Like-Interacting Protein Kinase14 gene 536 (CIPK14) (Qin et al., 2010), encoding for a protein that phosphorylates and modifies WHY1 binding 537 affinity for different promoters (Ren et al., 2017). Interestingly, CIPK14 transcript accumulation is 538 dependent on multiple light inputs, including transient activation by FR and time dependent 539 modulation by Blue light and Red (Qin et al., 2010). At present, only the response to FR light and the 540 dependence on phyA has been investigated, but based on current studies it can be hypothesised that 541 this phyA-CIPK14-WHY1 regulatory module may be important for the FR blocking of greening 542 response. It remains to be established if the observed Red-light induction of CIPK14 is phyB 543 dependent, but the Blue-light induction of CIPK14 is not dependent on CRY1 CRY2 (Qin et al., 2010). 544

545 A second example of the involvement of photoreceptors in the control of nucleo-chloroplastic 546 dual localised proteins include pTAC12/HEMERA (HMR), a member of the pTAC family that regulates the PEP (Chen et al., 2010; Pfalz et al., 2006). HMR transcript accumulation is light-547 548 responsive and dependent on the phytochromes in Red and cryptochromes in Blue (Griffin et al., 549 2020). In the nucleus, HMR acts as a transcriptional co-activator to regulate light-responsive genes, 550 while in the plastids it associates with the PEP to induce plastid-encoded gene expression (Pfalz et al., 551 2015; Qiu et al., 2015). HMR first localises to the plastids, akin to WHY1 (Grabowski et al., 2008; 552 Isemer *et al.*, 2012), and its relocation to the nucleus is proposed as part of the activation of the 553 retrograde signal cascades (Yoo et al., 2020). Currently this possibility, including the potential cross 554 talk with photoreceptor signalling mechanisms, remains to be fully investigated.

555 In summary, research supports the involvement of phys in the modulation of the activity of 556 nuclear-chloroplastic proteins that directly or indirectly impact on the expression of the nuclear and 557 the plastid genomes. At present, only the role of phys has been studied, but the CRYs integration in

the retrograde signalling pathways that tune photomorphogenesis in Blue light make them interesting candidates to assess for their role in controlling dual-localised proteins that may be retrograde signals.

560

561 <u>Conclusions</u>

The research highlighted in this review supports an emerging view that the phytochrome and cryptochrome photoreceptors signalling, including through transcription factors such as PIFs and HY5, intertwine with both the anterograde and retrograde signalling pathways. This crosstalk is essential for the tuning of the nuclear and plastid genomes in response to environmental cues (Figure 1).

567 As part of the anterograde signalling cascades, the photoreceptors and their signalling 568 components contribute to both nuclear and plastid transcription, post-transcription and translational 569 mechanisms. On the other hand, in retrograde signalling, they are not only contributors to the 570 activation of pathways involved in the emission of retrograde signals, such as the tetrapyrrole and 571 MEcPP pathways, but are also targets themselves of the retrograde signals (Figure 1A). These dual 572 functionalities are likely part of their extended capacity to optimise plant growth in response to 573 environmental cues. In particular, phyA and HY5 transcript accumulation and phyB protein abundance 574 increased in response to retrograde signal activators such as Norflurazon and the MEcPP pathway. 575 Additionally, GUN1-signalling tunes CRY1 and HY5 transcript abundance and intersects with the 576 photoreceptors in the control of de-etiolation responses. However, at present, the full reach of these 577 cross-regulations remains to be explored, although the identification of cryl as a gun mutant hints to a 578 wide involvement of cryptochromes in plastid-to-nucleus signalling (Figure 1C).

579 CRYs, phys, and HY5 are also part of the chloroplast responsiveness to environmental cues, 580 including the set up and the control of photoprotective mechanisms against the detrimental effects of 581 high-light. HL is emerging as a condition where the crosstalk between photoreceptors and retrograde 582 signals is essential to optimise chloroplasts functions, including the management of stress (Figure 1C). 583 Additionally, as part of the perception of light quality, phys, PIFs, and HY5 participate in the 584 modulation of the Shade Avoidance Syndrome elongation responses that are tuned via retrograde 585 signals to the status of the chloroplast.

- Finally, dual-localised proteins with capacity to act as retrograde signals, such as WHY1 and
 HMR, are also light quality responsive, but the impact of the phys and CRYs on their regulation is
 just starting to emerge.
- 589

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			J J			

593 <u>Author Contribution</u>

594 JHCG and GTO designed and wrote the manuscript.

595

596 <u>Conflicts of Interest</u>

597 The authors report no conflict of interest.

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Figure Legend

Figure 1. Phytochromes (phys), Cryptochromes (CRYs) and HY5 integrate light and retrograde signals from the chloroplast to tune nuclear genome responses to a changing environment.

A) MEcPP tuning of phyB-modulated growth responses. Chloroplast stress-induced MEcPP accumulation increases the abundance of phyB-Pr protein. Red-light activated phyB-Pfr translocates to the nucleus to inhibit PIF activity, and target hormonal pathways to halt hypocotyl elongation. In addition to inhibiting PIF activity, phyB promotes HY5 accumulation. In a feedback loop, HY5 and PIFs antagonistically regulate the transcriptional accumulation of *DXS* and *DXR*, two of the rate-limiting steps in the MEP pathway from which MEcPP derives.

B) High light (HL) induced stress responses are dependent on photoreceptor and HY5 activity. HL stress induces damage to the photosynthetic apparatus, triggering the release of retrograde signalling molecules including H_2O_2 and Oxylipins, which target the phys, CRYs, and HY5-dependent activation of *PhANGs* expression and photoprotective responses including chlorophyll and carotenoid biosynthesis.

C) A GUN1-dependent pathway inhibits *PhANGs* accumulation to halt photomorphogenesis in response to chloroplast stress. GUN1 antagonistically inhibits phy-mediated photomorphogenesis through a GUN1:GLK1 complex that downregulates BBX16-mediated *PhANG*-expression. CRY1 and HY5 also co-target GUN1-dependent *PhANGs* accumulation in a converging pathway, contributing to the *PhANGs*' responsiveness to chloroplast stress.



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