

## Advance in mechanism of plant leaf colour mutation

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### Abstract

As a common mutation trait in plants, leaf colour mutation is related to the degree of chlorophyll and anthocyanin changes and the destruction of chloroplast structure. This study summarizes the latest research progress in leaf colour mutation mechanism, including the metabolic basis of plant leaf colour mutation, leaf colour mutation caused by gene mutation in the chlorophyll metabolism pathway, leaf colour mutation caused by blocked chloroplast development, leaf colour mutation controlled by key transcription factors and non-coding RNAs, leaf colour mutation caused by environmental factors, and leaf colour mutation due to the involvement of the mevalonate pathway. These results will lay a theoretical foundation for leaf colour development, leaf colour improvement, and molecular breeding for leaf colour among tree species.

**Keywords:** chlorophyll; chloroplast; leaf colour mutation; light; mutant; MEP pathway; temperature

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### Introduction

Leaf is an important organ for photosynthesis and gas exchange in plants (Meng *et al.*, 2018). As a key visible feature of leaves, leaf colour is a reliable marker for plant breeding (Akhter *et al.*, 2018). The leaves of most plants in the normal growth period are green, which results from chlorophyll (Chl) enrichment (Yang *et al.*, 2015). With the increasing demand for a living environment, the number of green-leaved tree species cannot meet the needs of landscape engineering. To improve the ornamental effect of landscape plants, trees with colourful-leaves are widely used in gardening, e.g., *Cercis canadensis* with purple leaf (Roberts *et al.*, 2015), *Lagerstroemia indica* with yellow leaf (Li *et al.*, 2015), and *Prunus cerasifera* with purple leaf (Gu *et al.*, 2015). The leaf colours of these trees are all caused by mutations. As a common mutation trait in plants, leaf colour mutation is a vital source of germplasm resources for colourful leaf plants. Previous studies have shown that 208 leaf colour mutants exist in *Oryza sativa* (Deng *et al.*, 2014). Leaf mutants of *Cucumis sativus* (Ding *et al.*, 2019), *Glycine max* (Liu *et al.*, 2020), *Ginkgo biloba* (Liu *et al.*, 2016a; Li *et al.*, 2018a), *Triticum aestivum* (Rong *et al.*, 2018), and *Anthurium andraeanum* (Wang *et al.*, 2018a) also exist. Most of these mutants have

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diverse phenotypes, including virescent, yellow-green, dark-green, stay-green, albino, stripe, spot, zebra, and yellow (Yoo *et al.*, 2009; Park *et al.*, 2007). Some leaf colour mutations have a red or purple phenotype, which is related to the synthesis and accumulation of anthocyanins (Wei *et al.*, 2016). For example, two types of purple tea ('Ziyan' and 'Zijuan') are leaf colour variations caused by excessive anthocyanin accumulation (Jiang *et al.*, 2013; Lai *et al.*, 2016; Wei *et al.*, 2019).

Leaf colour mutation is also known as Chl deficiency. The leaf colour mutation often directly or indirectly involves the synthesis of pigments and the development of chloroplasts, which change pigment content and ratio, thereby causing leaf colour mutation. Meanwhile, because Chl is the main photosynthesis pigment, Chl deficiency affects the photosynthetic efficiency of plants. Therefore, leaf colour mutations are widely used in basic research, such as photosynthesis, photomorphogenesis, Chl biosynthesis, development of chloroplast, and gene function identification (Stern *et al.*, 2004). And leaf colour mutation as ideal materials for mutation breeding. Additionally, leaf colour mutant genes can be used as effective molecular markers for molecular breeding and identification of hybrid offspring (Qin *et al.*, 2015). In nature, leaf colour mutants originate from a wide range of sources, e.g., spontaneous (Hou *et al.*, 2009), transposon insertion (Hayashi-Tsugane *et al.*, 2014), T-DNA insertion (Chao *et al.*, 2014), and ethyl methane sulfonate (EMS) induced mutations (Zhu *et al.*, 2016), making mutation breeding convenient. For instance, the chemical mutagen EMS has been widely used in the breeding of wheat and rice (Wang *et al.*, 2009a; Ansari *et al.*, 2012). Although the types of leaf colour mutations differ, their genetic patterns can be divided into two categories. The characteristics of most leaf colour mutants are controlled by nuclear genes, that is, the characteristics of leaf colour mutants are controlled by recessive or dominant nuclear alleles (Ma *et al.*, 2017; Zhang *et al.*, 2017a). Among the reported mutants, the virescent mutant of *Gossypium hirsutum*, and the albino mutant of *T. aestivum* are all controlled by cytoplasmic inheritance (Hou *et al.*, 2009; Jiang *et al.*, 2011). The inheritance of some mutants shows a pattern of nuclear-cytoplasmic interaction (La *et al.*, 2007).

Leaf colour mutation involves changes in the types and contents of Chl, carotenoid, and anthocyanin in the leaves. It is regulated by the cooperation of internal genetic factors and the external environment. Meanwhile, it is also affected by the microstructure of cells and the levels of physiological and biochemical metabolism. With the development of high-throughput sequencing technology, a great breakthrough has been made in leaf colour mutation research, i.e., the yields of rice derived from a desirable mutation of the *OsSGR* (*stay-green*) gene were increased (Shin *et al.*, 2020). The interaction of FLNs (Fructokinase-like protein 1) and TRXz (THIOREDOXINZ) affects the development of chloroplasts, resulting in the formation of albino rice leaves (He *et al.*, 2018). In addition, research methods for developing leaf colour mutants were designed from traditional physiological and biochemical assays to screen and identify leaf colour regulatory genes through big data-based methods, such as high-throughput sequencing and multi-omics joint analysis. Based on results of previous studies, this study reviews the formation mechanism and metabolic basis of leaf colour mutation in plants.

### Metabolic Basis of Leaf Colour Mutation

The diversity of plant pigment is composed of Chl, anthocyanin, carotenoid, and betaine (Mol *et al.*, 1998), and the precise temporal and spatial changes of these pigments lead to specific colouring patterns (Albert *et al.*, 2014). The first three pigments are widespread in plants, whereas betaine only exists in Caryophyllales (Clement and Mabry, 1996). Among these pigments, Chl is responsible for producing a single green leaf phenotype, whereas carotenoid and anthocyanin are widely distributed in plants, contributing phenotypes that range in colour from orange to blue (Tanaka *et al.*, 2008). Leaf colour mutation always involves the changes of these pigments. For example, cyanidin is the key contributor of red leaves in *Acer rubrum*, the content of which is thrice that in normal green leaves (Chen *et al.*, 2019). Chl and carotenoid contents significantly decreased to 1/28 and 1/4 of those in normal green leaves, respectively, in the golden leaves of *Ulmus pumila*

(Zhang *et al.*, 2017b). In *Brassica oleracea*, the content of anthocyanin in purple leaves is 2.5 times that in ordinary green leaves (Jin *et al.*, 2018).

Leaf colour mutation is a complex physiological process involving the effects of various substances. Considering the accuracy of mass spectrometry in identifying compounds, metabolome has become an important technique in plant research. A large number of compounds involved in plant leaf colour mutation have been identified through metabolome. Li *et al.* (2019a) compared the content of secondary metabolites in albino leaves of *Camellia sinensis* to that of normal green leaves through metabolic screening. Further analysis showed that the contents of total amino acids, L-theanine, and glutamic acid increased significantly, whereas the contents of alkaloid, catechin, and polyphenols decreased significantly. These substances contributed to formation of albino leaves in *C. sinensis*. Similarly, a decrease in total amino acids and L-theanine of 'ZH2', a leaf colour mutant of *C. sinensis*, was also observed (Wang *et al.*, 2014). By comparing the metabolites in purple and green leaves of *Tetrastigma hemsleyanum*, the purple leaves were found to have accumulated a larger number of anthocyanins and flavone-glycosides than green leaves. Moreover, the contents of pelargonidin and dihydrokaempferol in purple leaves were significantly higher than in green leaves, indicating that these substances contribute to the purple colour of *T. hemsleyanum* leaves (Yan *et al.*, 2020).

In addition to the effect of pigments on leaf colour formation, starch and sugar also affect leaf colour changes. During leaf development in *Acer saccharum*, the concentration of starch, glucose, and fructose were positively correlated with the expression of leaf colour, and the red colour of leaves were significantly affected by the content of sucrose and fructose (Schaberg *et al.*, 2003). Murakami *et al.* (2008) found that girdling in *A. saccharum* can significantly increase the content of sugar in leaves and accelerate the accumulation of anthocyanin. A comparative analysis of the metabolites of the three types of albino leaves in *C. sinensis* showed that the content of sugar (mainly sorbitol and erythrose) in albino leaves was significantly higher than in green leaves (Li *et al.*, 2018b). Flavones and flavonols are important parts of flavonoids in plants, and the changes in their content also affect the expression of plant leaf colour (Martens *et al.*, 2010). In *G. biloba*, the accumulation of flavonols and flavones promotes the expression of yellow leaves (Shi *et al.*, 2012). However, for *Camellia nitidissima*, flavonols are the main component of golden leaves (Zhou *et al.*, 2013a). The abovementioned studies showed that leaf colour mutation involves the interaction of multiple compounds. Moreover, the content and morphological changes of these compounds constitute a tight regulatory network for leaf colour mutation.

### Leaf Colour Mutation Caused by Gene Mutation of Chlorophyll Metabolism

Chl is a major component of green leaves. Since the Chl biosynthesis pathway was first reported by Beale, a large number of genes related to Chl biosynthesis have been identified (Beale *et al.*, 2005; Deng *et al.*, 2014). In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, the synthesis of Chl starts from glutamyl-tRNA, and Chl finally forms through the action of 15 enzymes encoded by 27 genes (Meier *et al.*, 2011). If any step in this process is hindered, then leaf colour mutation may occur. Previous studies showed that the mutation of genes related to Chl synthesis, such as *CHLI/CHLD/CHLH*, *HemaA*, *CHLG*, *CAO*, and *DVR*, is one of the common sources of leaf colour mutation (Figure 1). The three subunits coded by *CHLI/CHLD/CHLH* are the functional basis of Mg<sup>2+</sup> chelatase, which is a key protein complex for Chl synthesis, and the lack of any subunit destroys Chl synthesis (Hansson *et al.*, 2002). In *O. sativa*, varied yellow-green leaf mutants are the results of the gene mutation of *CHLI/CHLD/CHLH*, such as *chlorina-1*, *chlorina-9*, *chlorina-2*, *ygl3*, *ygl7*, and *ygl98* (Jung *et al.*, 2003; Zhang *et al.*, 2006; Sun *et al.*, 2011; Tian *et al.*, 2013; Deng *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly, the mutation in different subunits also causes a variety of different mutant phenotypes. For example, the gene mutation of *OsCHLD* in mutant *chlorina-1* led to the yellow-green leaf phenotype at the seedling stage, whereas the gene mutation of *OsCHLI* in mutant *ell* led to the yellow leaf phenotype at the seedling stage. However, the seedlings died after the trefoil stage (Zhang *et al.*, 2006, 2015). Studies on mutant *ygl1* found that *YGL1* encodes Chl synthase

(CHLG), thereby causing leaf colour mutation (Wu *et al.*, 2007). Similarly, the mutant *yg13* showed a yellow-green phenotype, reduced plant height, and decreased grain yield (Zhang *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, the 9-bp deletion in the *OsDVR* sequence caused leaf colour mutation in mutant *824ys* (Wang *et al.*, 2010). *OsCAOI* and *OsCAO2* encode chlorophyllide an oxygenase, which catalyses the conversion of Chl a to Chl b (Figure 1). Moreover, *OsCAOI* was induced by light, whereas *OsCAO2* was expressed in the dark, and the *OsCAO* knockout mutation led to the expression of leaf color mutation (Lee *et al.*, 2005). *HEMA* gene encodes glutamyl-tRNA reductase (GluTR), which is a key catalytic enzyme for Chl synthesis. *HEMA* gene is regulated by light, and the expression of *HEMA* antisense RNA inhibits the formation of  $\delta$ -aminolevulinic acid (ALA), thereby leading to the expression of Chl in *A. thaliana* (Kumar and Soll, 2000).

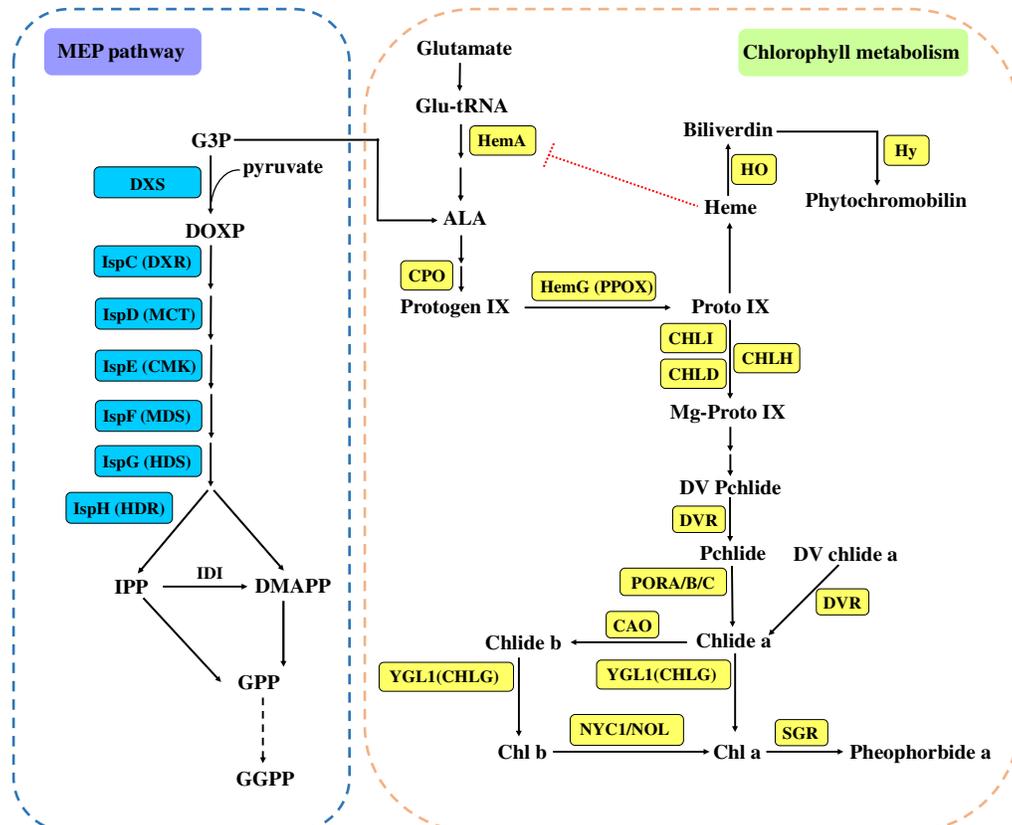
Chl and heme are two types of tetrapyrrole with a similar structure. They share a pathway from ALA to protoporphyrin IX (Figure 1) (Weller *et al.*, 1996). Heme is necessary for photosynthesis and respiration. However, excessive heme accumulation inhibits the activity of glutamyl-tRNA reductase and the synthesis of ALA, thereby affecting Chl biosynthesis (Terry *et al.*, 1999). Many leaf colour mutants caused by abnormal heme metabolism have been identified, including *A. thaliana* (Xie *et al.*, 2012), *O. sativa* (Xu *et al.*, 2012; Li *et al.*, 2014), *Pisum sativum* (Linley *et al.*, 2006), *Zea mays* (Shi *et al.*, 2013), and *Brassica pekinensis* (Zhang *et al.*, 2020). Studies on the yellow leaf colour mutant *pylm* showed that the single-base mutation of recessive nuclear genes (*PY1* and *PY2*), results in the dysfunction of *heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1)* (Zhang *et al.*, 2020). The accumulation of excessive heme in leaves activates the feedback inhibition of Chl synthesis (Weller *et al.*, 1996), leading to the expression of the yellow leaf phenotype. This mutation mechanism was similar to that in the rice mutant *yellow-green leaf2* (Chen *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, the functional defects of *HO1* increase heme levels and cause the abnormal development of chloroplast thylakoids. For example, the *HO1* mutation in the maize mutant *elm1* showed decreased thylakoid basal accumulation, declined *HEMA* activity, and reduced Chl content (Shi *et al.*, 2013). Studies in rice also showed that *HO1* defective mutation affects thylakoid development (Li *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, genes in the Chl degradation pathway, such as *NYCI*, *NOL*, and *SGR*, are important sources of leaf colour mutation (Ren *et al.*, 2007, 2010; Barry *et al.*, 2008; Borovsky and Paran, 2008; Horie *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2018b).

### Leaf Colour Mutation Caused by Destroyed Chloroplast Structure

Chloroplast, as the synthesis site of Chl and carotenoid, is important for the formation of plant leaf colour. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis of the ultrastructure of leaf colour mutant varieties showed that most of the leaf colour mutants showed a destroyed chloroplast structure, degraded thylakoid lamella, and dissolved thylakoid granule (Gao *et al.*, 2020; Du *et al.*, 2020). The yellow leaves of *B. pekinensis* expressed the inhibited development of chloroplast, and showed immature starch grains. Furthermore, the chloroplast had no complete granule and clear thylakoid membrane, which blocked Chl synthesis (Xie *et al.*, 2018). In rice albino leaves, the chloroplast structure is destroyed. The chloroplast is filled with a large number of oval vesicles and has no thylakoid basal accumulation (Qiu *et al.*, 2018). These studies indicated that chloroplast development defect is the important cause of leaf colour mutation in plants.

Chloroplasts in higher plants are developed from proplastids, which fold into vesicles and then develop into thylakoid lamella (Waters and Langdale, 2009). A complete chloroplast usually consists of chloroplast membrane, thylakoid, and stroma. The number, size, morphology, and distribution of chloroplasts directly affect leaf colour. Therefore, the presence of dysfunctional chloroplasts always accompanies the lack of green colour in leaves (Yang *et al.*, 2015). Several genes related to chloroplast development and chloroplast division have been identified. Their functions in leaf colour formation have been clarified through a previous study on a variety of leaf colour mutants. *Golden2-like (GLK)* transcription factor (TF) is a vital member of the GARP family in plants. *GLK* is reportedly involved in multiple biological processes and plays an important role in chloroplast development (Powell *et al.*, 2012). The homologous genes of *GLK* have been identified from

various plants, such as *A. thaliana* (Waters *et al.*, 2009), *Z. mays* (Rossini *et al.*, 2001), and birch (Gang *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, most *GLK* families include two members, i.e., *GLK1* and *GLK2*. Through the functional analysis of the *GLK* gene in *A. thaliana* and rice, the *GLK* gene was shown to exhibit functional redundancy (Nguyen *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2013a). Moreover, a transgenic functional verification experiment showed that only *glk1glk2* double mutants expressed the virescent phenotype, and any overexpression of a *GLK* gene can restore the green phenotype of leaves (Fitter *et al.*, 2002). In the birch mutant *yl*, a 40 kb deletion of the *BpGLK* gene on chromosome 2 caused the destruction of the chloroplast structure, blocked Chl synthesis, and resulted in leaf color mutation (Gang *et al.*, 2019). In addition, the ectopic expression of *GLKs* increased the number of chloroplasts in the roots of rice and *A. thaliana* (Kobayashi *et al.*, 2012, 2013).



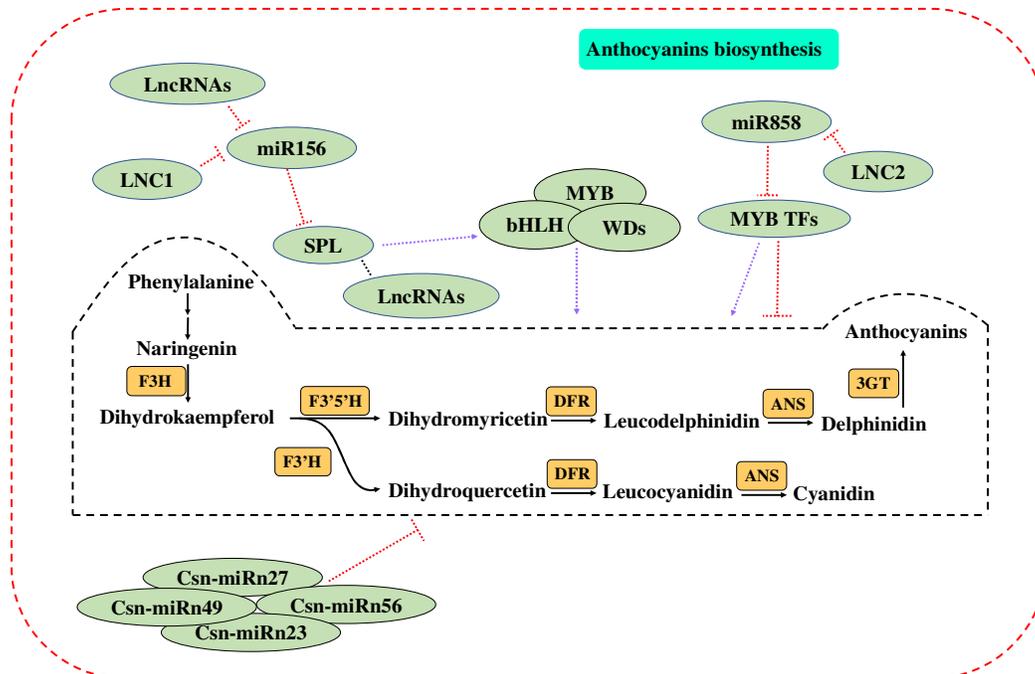
**Figure 1.** Regulation model of MEP pathway and chlorophyll metabolism pathway on leaf colour mutation. The blue box represents the key genes of MEP pathway related to leaf colour mutation, while the key genes of chlorophyll metabolism pathway involved in leaf colour mutation are marked with yellow box, and the red dotted “T” represents inhibition or hindrance. G3P, Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate; DXS, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate synthase; DXR, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerase; IspD, 4-diphosphocytidyl-2-C-methyl-D-erythritol synthase; IspE, 4-diphosphocytidyl-2-C-methyl-D-erythritol kinase; IspF, 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase; IspG, 1-hydroxy-2-methyl-2-(E)-butenyl 4-diphosphate synthase; IspH, 1-hydroxy-2-methyl-2-(E)-butenyl 4-diphosphate reductase; IPP, isopentenyl pyrophosphate; IDI, isopentenyl diphosphate isomerase; DMAPP, dimethylallyl pyrophosphate; GPP, geranyl diphosphate; GGPP, geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate; HemA, glutamyl-tRNA reductase; ALA,  $\delta$ -aminolevulinic acid; CPO, coproporphyrinogen oxidative decarboxylase; Protogen IX, protoporphyrinogen IX; PPOX, protoporphyrinogen oxidase; Proto IX, protoporphyrin IX; CHLI, Mg chelatase I subunit; CHLD, Mg chelatase D subunit; CHLH, Mg chelatase H subunit; Mg-Proto IX, Mg-protoporphyrin IX; DV Pchlide, divinyl protochlorophyllide; DVR, divinyl reductase; PORA/B/C, NADPH: protochlorophyllide oxidoreductase; Chlide a, chlorophyllide a; Chlide b, chlorophyllide b; DV chlide a, divinyl chlorophyllide a; CAO, chlorophyllide a oxygenase; CHLG, chlorophyll synthase; NYC1, non-yellow colouring 1; NOL, NYC1-like; SGR, stay green gene; HO, heme oxygenase-1.

Plastid ribosomal proteins (PRPs) are involved in the assembly of chloroplast structure and have great significance in chloroplast division and formation (Zhang *et al.*, 2016). PRPs are highly conserved in chloroplasts and are indispensable for chloroplast development (Tiller and Bock, 2014). Lacking PRPs, the maize mutant *lem1* and *hcf60* both exhibited a lethal phenotype, whereas the tobacco mutant *prps18* showed chloroplast development defects (Schultes *et al.*, 2000; Ma and Dooner, 2004; Rogalski *et al.*, 2006). The PRPs in *A. thaliana* are involved in many biological processes, such as leaf development, photosynthesis, and low-temperature response (Zhang *et al.*, 2016). In rice, many PRPs mutants, such as *asl1*, *asl2*, and *all*, cannot develop into fully functional chloroplasts, leading to the development of albino leaves (Gong *et al.*, 2013; Lin *et al.*, 2015; Zhao *et al.*, 2016). PRPs are necessary for chloroplast development under low temperatures (Song *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2017a). In the rice mutant *wgl2*, a single-base mutation (G to T) in the *PRP* gene results in defects in chloroplast development. Then, the leaves showed an albino phenotype and reduced contents of Chl and carotenoid (Qiu *et al.*, 2018). In addition, other genes related to chloroplast development have been identified in previous studies, such as *V1*, *V2*, *V3*, *St1*, *GRY79*, and *YCLI*. These genes have a function similar to that of *AtGLK* indirectly regulate the function of chloroplasts (Kusumi *et al.*, 2011; Sugimoto *et al.*, 2007; Yoo *et al.*, 2009; Wan *et al.*, 2015; Zhou *et al.*, 2013b). Furthermore, *YLI* and *WPI* in rice are indispensable for early chloroplast development (Chen *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2016a). Studies have shown that the members of *Accumulation and Replication of Chloroplast (ARC)* gene family cooperate with FtsZ protein to regulate the division of chloroplasts (Osteryoung and Nunnari, 2003; Maple and Moller, 2007). In this family, *ARC3*, *ARC5*, and *ARC6* are key regulators for chloroplast development (Gao *et al.*, 2003; Shimada *et al.*, 2004; Vitha *et al.*, 2003).

### Key Transcription Factor and Non-coding RNAs Regulate Leaf Colour Mutation

In the process of plant pigment synthesis, many coding RNAs are involved. For example, structural genes encode various enzymes in the pigment synthesis pathway, which directly determine the accumulation or degradation of pigments. TFs regulate pigment synthesis by binding to cis-acting elements in their target gene promoters to induce or inhibit the expression of structural genes (Wang *et al.*, 2016b; Kim *et al.*, 2017). In the anthocyanin synthesis pathway, MYB TFs can combine with bHLH and WD40 proteins to form the MBW protein complex. The MBW protein complex is the core component of anthocyanin synthesis regulation that can directly control the key enzymes of anthocyanin synthesis pathway, such as *ANS*, *DFR*, and *F3' 5' H* (Tohge *et al.*, 2005; Gonzalez *et al.*, 2008) (Figure 2).

In addition to the role of coding RNAs, many non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) participate in the regulation of pigment synthesis (Li *et al.*, 2019b). Moreover, several lncRNAs and miRNAs related to pigment synthesis have been identified along with genes mainly involved in the anthocyanin synthesis pathway (Zhao *et al.*, 2017; Wu *et al.*, 2019) (Figure 2). Through the study of non-coding RNAs in *C. sinensis* (Jeyaraj *et al.*, 2017), *csn-miRn27*, *csn-miRn49*, *csn-miRn56*, and *csn-miRn23* were found to be co-targeted to the *F3' 5' H* gene and participated in the synthesis of anthocyanin and in the accumulation of flavonoids. Furthermore, the study confirmed that *csn-miRn70* and *csn-miRn30* target *F3H* and *UFGT* genes, respectively, to jointly regulate the accumulation of anthocyanin in new leaves (Jeyaraj *et al.*, 2017). Previous studies have shown that *miR156* interferes with the function of the MBW protein complex by targeting *SPL9* and inhibits the synthesis of anthocyanin (Gou *et al.*, 2011). This mechanism has been verified in a variety of plants (Liu *et al.*, 2017; He *et al.*, 2019). It is worth mentioning that *miR156-SPL* is also involved in plant stress response (Wang *et al.*, 2013b; Stief *et al.*, 2014), synthesis of secondary metabolites (Ye *et al.*, 2020), and floral organ development (Wang *et al.*, 2009b).



**Figure 2.** Regulation model of transcription factors and non-coding RNAs participate in leaf colour mutation

The orange box presents the key genes of anthocyanin synthesis pathway related to leaf colour mutation, while the transcription factors as well as non-coding RNAs are marked with green box. The red dotted “T” represents inhibition or hindrance, and purple dotted arrow represents promotion. F3H, flavanone 3-hydroxylase; F3'H, flavonoid 3'-hydroxylase; F3'5'H, flavonoid 3',5'-hydroxylase; DFR, dihydroflavonol reductase; ANS, anthocyanidin synthase; 3GT, anthocyanin 3'-O-beta-glucosyltransferase.

By comparing the gene expression profiles of different varieties of roses, five miRNAs (*miR171*, *miR166i*, *miR159e*, *miR845*, and *miR396e*) were found to be enriched only in white flowers of rose, suggesting that these miRNAs may negatively regulate the expressions of downstream genes. Thus, the accumulation of carotenoids or anthocyanins is hindered, resulting in the development of white flower in rose (Kim *et al.*, 2012). The analysis of miRNAs in *Malus pumila* showed that the R2R3-MYB TF gene involved in anthocyanin synthesis is the target gene of *miR858* (Xia *et al.*, 2012). Most MYBs are common target genes of *miR828* and *miR858*, indicating that *miR828* and *miR858* play a vital role in anthocyanin synthesis (Guan *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly, Wang *et al.* (2016b) found that *miR858a* positively regulates anthocyanin synthesis by inhibiting the expression of *MYBL2*. Mutant *dg* is a dark green mutant in *A. andraeanum*, whose leaves are thicker than the wild-type and whose petioles have turned red. The back of the leaf veins of the mutant changed from green to red, because of the enhanced pigment synthesis due to the expression of the mutant *dg* (Xu *et al.*, 2006; Yang *et al.*, 2015). Jiang *et al.* (2018) identified 10 differentially expressed miRNAs through a comparative analysis of the miRNA sequencing results of the *dg* mutant and the wild-type. *Aa-miR408* was significantly up-regulated in the *dg* mutant, suggesting that *Aa-miR408* may be closed to the colour mutation of the *dg* mutant. Recently, Wu *et al.* (2020) screened a total of eight up-regulated miRNAs from the yellow leaf mutant of *G. biloba*. Among them, the *novel 158\_mature* is involved the synthesis of lutein through the regulation of the expression of the target *gma-miR2118a-3p* gene. Moreover, three miRNAs (*novel 151\_mature*, *ptc-miR396e-3p*, and *aly-miR156a-5p*) were the key regulators of leaf colour mutation (Wu *et al.*, 2020).

LncRNAs are small RNA molecules with lengths greater than 200nt and no protein-coding ability (Laurent *et al.*, 2015). LncRNAs are widely distributed in plants, and many have been identified in *A. thaliana* (Liu *et al.*, 2012a), *Z. mays* (Lv *et al.*, 2016), *Salvia miltiorrhiza* (Li *et al.*, 2015), and *Populus euphratica* (Liu *et al.*, 2018). For the synthesis of pigments also involves the regulation of multiple lncRNAs (Wu *et al.*, 2019).

Previous studies showed that lncRNAs perform their functions by interacting with miRNAs (Wu *et al.*, 2013). Two differentially expressed lncRNAs (*LNC1* and *LNC2*) were screened through the transcriptome analysis of *Hippophae rhamnoides* fruits at different maturation stages. Transient expression experiments verified that *LNC1* positively regulates *SPL9* expression by interacting with *miR156* and promotes anthocyanin synthesis by facilitating the stability of the MBW protein complex. On the contrary, *LNC2* interacts with *miR828*, and affects the expression of *MYB114* to regulate anthocyanin synthesis (Zhang *et al.*, 2018). However, for tomato, the accumulation of lycopene was significantly reduced in the *lncRNA1459* mutant, leading to the delay in fruit ripening (Li *et al.*, 2018c).

### Leaf Colour Mutation Caused by Environmental Factor

The mechanism of plant leaf colour mutation is extremely complex. It is regulated by internal genes and affected by the external environment, which includes temperature and light. Temperature is critical to the formation of leaf colour in plants. In *C. sinensis*, the appearance of albino buds is controlled by temperature, and the synthesis of Chl a and b is inhibited under low temperature ( $\leq 15$  °C), leading to albino buds. However, when the albino buds were cultured at a high temperature ( $\geq 15$  °C), the process of Chl synthesis was restored, and the leaves turned green (Du *et al.*, 2008). Mutants that exhibit different leaf colour changes at various temperatures are known as temperature-sensitive leaf colour mutants. Previous studies have identified temperature-sensitive leaf colour mutants in plants, such as *O. sativa* (Huang *et al.*, 2011), *B. oleracea* (Zhou *et al.*, 2013c), *Z. mays* (Pasini *et al.*, 2005), and *T. aestivum* (Liu *et al.*, 2012b). Studies on wheat mutant *fa85* showed that with the extension of low temperature treatment time, the aboveground leaves of *fa85* completely bleached and gradually turned green increasing temperature (Liu *et al.*, 2012b). Results of comparisons between mutant *fa85* and its wild-type *Aibian* showed that the ultrastructure and molecular genetic characteristics of *fa85* are affected by low temperature treatment. Meanwhile, proteomics analysis indicated the presence of significant differences in the expression patterns of chloroplast protein between *fa85* and its parent *Aibian* at low temperatures (Hou *et al.*, 2009).

Temperature regulates the synthesis and accumulation of pigments by affecting gene expression, thereby controlling the features of leaf colour. For example, the Chl-deficient leaf in rice at low temperatures is caused by a mutation of the *NUS1* gene (Kusumi *et al.*, 2011). In tomato, the *WV* gene, which controls the yellowing phenotype, is sensitive to low temperature. Therefore, the leaves expressed an albino phenotype at low temperature (Gao *et al.*, 2019). The type and content of pigments of the temperature sensitive mutant *mt* of *Commelina purpurea* changed under different temperature conditions. At low temperature, the anthocyanin content in the leaves reached its peak, the Chl and carotenoid contents were significantly reduced. Thus, the leaves expressed a pink phenotype. At room temperature (25 °C), no significant difference was found between the mutant *mt* and the wild-type. The anthocyanin content decreased, whereas Chl content increased. Further experiments suggested that the expressions of structural genes (such as *PAL*, *CHS*, *CHI*, *F3'H*, *F3'5'H*, *DFR*, *ANS*, *UFGT*, and *OMT*) related to anthocyanin synthesis were induced at low temperatures, leading to the excessive accumulation of cyanidin, pelargonidin, delphinidin, and petunidin. Thus, the leaves presented a pink phenotype. Meanwhile, the chloroplast in mutant *mt* was replaced by leucoplast at low temperature, and this mutant could not accumulate Chl (Liu *et al.*, 2016b). A few temperature-sensitive leaf colour mutants exhibited multiple leaf colour changes at different temperatures. For example, the leaves of mutant *tsc1* showed albino, virescent, and green phenotypes at 23.0 °C, 26.0 °C, and 30.0 °C, respectively (Dong *et al.*, 2001).

Besides temperature, light also regulates the phenotype of leaves (Biswal *et al.*, 2012). Studies showed that the expression of golden leaf in plants is affected by environmental light intensity. Under high light conditions, the leaf colour turned golden, whereas in low light, the leaf colour was yellow-green due to the increase in Chl content (Hu *et al.*, 2007). Light can promote the differentiation of non-photosynthetic plastids into fully functional chloroplasts, thereby affecting the development of chloroplasts and the expression of genes

related to Chl synthesis (Su *et al.*, 2012). Guo *et al.* (2013) found that the light regulates the expression of the *CPO* gene, which encodes an enzyme that catalyses the oxidative decarboxylation of Coprogen III to ProtoIX, resulting in light-dependent yellow leaves of tobacco and *A. thaliana*. In contrast, in *Hordeum vulgare*, high light leads to slow growth of mutant *nyb* and turns its leaves yellow (Yuan *et al.*, 2010). The leaf colour of mutant *gl1* in *L. indica* is regulated by light intensity (Wang *et al.*, 2017b). The leaf colour of *CPO* deletion mutant *line2* in *A. thaliana* is influenced by day-length. The leaves are yellow-green under long-day conditions, and leaves are yellow under short-day conditions (Ishikawa *et al.*, 2001).

### Leaf Colour Mutation Regulated by the Mevalonate Pathway

Terpenoids are the most abundant secondary metabolites in organisms (Sacchettini and Poulter, 1997). Terpenoids, also known as isoprene compounds, participate in various plant life activities, such as photosynthesis (Chl and carotenoids), growth (phytosterols) and development (GA and ABA), and plant defence responses (Phillips *et al.*, 2008). As one of the pathways involved in the synthesis of terpenoids, the mevalonate pathway (MEP) pathway is catalyzed by multiple enzymes, and its final synthesis products are IPP and DMAPP (Samad *et al.*, 2019). *IspF* (MDS), the fifth synthetase in the MEP pathway, catalyses the cyclization reaction of CDP-MEP to generate ME-cPP. The *IspF* gene is also involved in the regulation of leaf colour in plants (You *et al.*, 2020). In the rice yellow-green leaf mutant *505ys*, the *IspF* gene has a base substitution (C to T), thereby changing the encoded amino acid. Moreover, the overexpression of the wild-type *OsIspF* gene in the mutant can restore the phenotype of mutant *505ys*, proving that the *IspF* gene is the cause of leaf colour variations in mutant *505ys* (Huang *et al.*, 2018). qRT-PCR results of key genes in the Chl synthesis pathway of rice mutant indicated that *YGL* gene expression in the mutant *505ys* significantly declined, suggesting the existence of a positive regulation between the *OsIspF* and *YGL* gene (Huang *et al.*, 2018).

In *A. thaliana*, *IspFT*-DNA insertion mutant and *IspFRNAi* mutant showed albino phenotypes with extremely low Chl and carotenoid contents (1% and 2% of the contents in the wild-type, respectively). Further ultrastructure analysis results showed that chloroplast development was inhibited in the mutant, and thylakoids were replaced by numerous vesicles (Hsieh and Goodman, 2006). Therefore, the mutant *505ys* possibly did not appear with the albino phenotype, because single-base mutation could not completely replace the function of the *IspF* gene, thereby further verifying the key role of the *IspF* gene in the development of plant leaf color. Similarly, the *IspE* gene on chromosome 1 of the rice mutant *gry340* has base substitutions, resulting in the yellow-green leaf phenotype (Chen *et al.*, 2018). Through the studies on *A. thaliana* and tobacco, *IspD*, *IspH*, *IspG*, *DXS*, *DXR*, and *IspE* genes were verified to have functions similar to those of the *IspF* gene. These genes are at the key cores of plant leaf mutation, pigment reduction, and thylakoid structure destruction (Mandel *et al.*, 1996; Estevez *et al.*, 2000; Budziszewski *et al.*, 2001; Gutierrez *et al.*, 2004; Guevara *et al.*, 2005; Hsieh and Goodman, 2006; Xing *et al.*, 2010; Hsieh *et al.*, 2008; Ahn and Pai, 2008). During the ripening process of tomatoes, the transcription level of the *DXS* gene significantly increases, and a large amount of carotenoids accumulates, further promoting the colouring of tomato fruits at the ripening stage (Lois *et al.*, 2000). Zhang *et al.* (2019) found that the albino leaves of the maize mutant *scd* was caused by a mutation of the *IspH* (*HDS*) gene in the MEP pathway. Moreover, the decreased activity of the key enzymes of the MEP pathway indirectly affects the accumulation of downstream products, such as carotenoid and Chl.

### Conclusions

As a visible mutant, leaf colour mutant is an ideal material that can be used for plasmid development and photosynthesis. Also, leaf colour mutant has an important research value. Leaf colour mutation in higher plants is mostly related to the content changes of Chl and anthocyanin. The regulation mechanism of leaf

colour mutation is extremely complicated. It involves the enzymes of pigment synthesis and is affected by chloroplast structure, the regulation of TFs, small RNAs, the interaction between plants and external environment, and the regulation of the plant secondary metabolite synthesis pathway. Although many studies have been conducted on leaf colour mutants, most of them reported the role of key Chl synthesis genes and chloroplast structure. Moreover, most of the studies used big data joint analysis methods, such as transcriptome, proteome, and metabolome. Few studies have been conducted on the upstream regulatory mechanism of the vital genes related to leaf colour mutation, such as the functions of miRNA and lncRNA in leaf colour mutation, which needs to be further analysed. At present, most miRNA and lncRNA studies on plant colour regulation focus on fruit and flower colour. Few studies on small RNA include leaf colour formation. Furthermore, the development of leaf colour involves the interaction of nuclear coding and chloroplast genes. However, studies on the plastid-nuclear reverse signal pathway have been slow, and the regulation process, and regulation molecular mechanisms are still unclear. Therefore, follow-up research works should focus on these two centres and maximize the advanced means of molecular biology to further analyse the regulation mechanism of leaf colour mutation, which would serve as the theoretical foundation for the improvement of leaf colour varieties of more plants.

### Authors' Contributions

M.Y.F. and F.X. designed and wrote the manuscript; S.Y.C., W.W.Z., J.R.Z., and L.W. collected and analysed the data; Z.X.C. and Z.B.L. revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript

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### Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest related to this article.

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