1 Growth under high light and elevated temperature affects metabolic responses and

- 2 accumulation of health-promoting metabolites in kale varieties
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19 Abstract

20 Plants are highly sensitive to changes in the light environment and respond to alternating light 21 conditions by coordinated adjustments in foliar gene expression and metabolism. Here we 22 assessed how long-term growth under high irradiance and elevated temperature, a scenario increasingly associated with the climate change, affects foliar chemical composition of 23 24 Brassicaceous plants. Transcript profiling of Arabidopsis suggested up-regulation of 25 phenylpropanoid metabolism and down-regulation of processes related to biotic stress 26 resistance and indole glucosinolates (GSL). These observations prompted metabolite profiling 27 of purple (Black Magic) and pale green (Half Tall) varieties of kale, an economically important 28 crop species. Long-term acclimation to high light and elevated temperature resulted in reduced 29 levels of 4-methoxy-indol-3-yl-methyl GSL in both kale varieties. The total levels of aliphatic 30 GSLs increased under these conditions, although the profiles of individual GSL structures 31 showed cultivar-dependent differences. Black Magic became rich in 4-methylsulfinylbutyl 32 GSL and 2-phenylethyl GSL, which have health-promoting effects in human diet. Additionally, 33 the purple pigmentation of Black Magic became intensified due to increased accumulation 34 anthocyanins, especially derivatives of cyanidin. These findings demonstrate that the 35 potentially stressful combination of high light and elevated temperature can have beneficial 36 effects on the accumulation of health-promoting metabolites in leafy vegetables.

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38 Key words

Arabidopsis, Brassica, high light acclimation, transcriptome, metabolite profiling,
glucosinolate, anthocyanins

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44 Acknowledgements

- This work was supported by Academy of Finland project 307719 to S.K., 325122 to JP, 303757
 to E-M.A. and the Academy of Finland Center of Excellence in Primary Producers 2014-2019
 (307335). BY and WY acknowledge the funding for Competitive funding to strengthen
 universities' research profiles (Profi 4, Decision No. 318894, Subproject: FOOD
 INNOVATIONS) by the Academy of Finland. S.A. was funded by the University of Turku
- 50 Doctoral Programme in Molecular Life Sciences. MB was funded by the Danish National
- 51 Research Foundation, DNRF (grant 99). The authors declare no conflict of interest.

52 Introduction

53 Light is an important external factor that drives photosynthesis, metabolism and growth in 54 plants. To cope with varying light conditions, plants undergo coordinated acclimation 55 responses, which can occur across molecular, cellular and whole plant levels and range from 56 fast photosynthetic rearrangements to durable adjustments in metabolite composition, 57 morphology, flowering time and seed production (Aro et al., 1993; Foyer, 2018; Pascual et al., 58 2017). Studies on model plants, notably Arabidopsis thaliana (hereafter Arabidopsis), have 59 elucidated the dynamic nature of gene expression occurring upon short-term fluctuations in 60 light conditions (Spetea, Rintamäki & Schoefs 2014; Gollan, Tikkanen & Aro 2015; Crisp et 61 al. 2017). In nature, high light is commonly accompanied by elevated temperature, and 62 episodes of bright and hot conditions may become more frequent due to climate change. A 63 typical response to the potentially stressful combination of light and heat is accumulation of carotenoids and phenolic pigments, which can protect foliar tissues against light-induced 64 damage (Chalker-Scott 1999; Zeng, Chow, Su, Peng & Peng 2010). Long-term metabolic 65 66 responses to high light and elevated temperature, beyond regulation of photosynthesis and 67 chloroplast metabolism, have remained less well understood.

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69 Sulphur metabolism is tightly linked with light-driven redox chemistry in chloroplasts and 70 yields a number of precursors, metabolic intermediates and specialised compounds, which are 71 vital in mediating defensive responses upon environmental challenges (reviewed by Chan et 72 al., 2019). In cruciferous plants, sulphur metabolism sustains the biosynthesis of glucosinolates 73 (GSLs), which are sulfur- and nitrogen-containing specialised metabolites whose breakdown 74 products cause the characteristic pungent taste of Brassica crops (Bell, Oloyede, Lignou, 75 Wagstaff & Methven 2018). Studies on Arabidopsis, kale (Brassica oleracea convar 76 acephala), broccoli (B. oleracea var. italica) and cabbage (B. oleracea var. capitata) have 77 elucidated the commercial and ecological impacts of GSLs in human and animal nutrition as 78 well as in plant-environment interactions, such as those with pathogens and herbivores 79 (Wittstock & Burow 2010; Sharma, Singh & Mikawlrawng 2014; Traka 2016; Francisco et al. 80 2017). In the human diet, consumption of GSL-rich cruciferous crops has been associated with 81 a reduced risk of cancer (Gupta, Wright, Kim & Srivastava 2015; Megna, Carney, Nukaya, 82 Geiger & Kennedy 2016; Katz, Nisani & Chamovitz 2018) and chronic inflammation diseases 83 (Sun et al. 2015; Yamagishi & Matsui 2016), but certain GSL species might also have 84 detrimental effects in animal nutrition (Felker, Bunch & Leung 2016). Kale breeding has 85 yielded a multitude of varieties that differ with respect to shape, coloration and the content of 86 specialized metabolites, which can increase the nutritional and market value of the leafy 87 vegetables (Bell et al. 2018).

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89 Studies on Arabidopsis have elucidated the biosynthesis, modification, degradation and 90 transport of certain GSLs (Halkier & Gershenzon 2006; Sønderby, Geu-Flores & Halkier 2010; 91 Jensen, Halkier & Burow 2014) and uncovered mechanisms behind transcriptional and post-92 translational regulation of these processes (Celenza et al. 2005; Gigolashvili et al. 2007; 93 Frerigmann et al. 2016; Rahikainen et al. 2017). The GSL core structure consists of a glucose 94 moiety bound to a sulfonated aldoxime and a variable amino acid-derived side chain. The 95 structural diversity of GSLs species stems from modifications that may take place in both the 96 side group and the core structure (Sønderby et al. 2010; Jeschke & Burow 2018). Recently, 97 formation of a methoxylated tryptophan-derived indole GSL, 4-methoxy-indol-3-yl-methyl GSL (4MO-I3M GSL), was functionally connected with S-Adenosyl-L-Homocysteine 98 99 Hydrolase (SAHH), which is the key enzyme of the activated methyl cycle, essential for all 100 trans-methylation reactions in all living cells (Rahikainen, Alegre, Trotta, Pascual & 101 Kangasjärvi 2018). In Arabidopsis, accumulation of SAHH in distinct oligomeric complexes

102 correlated with increased abundance of 4MO-I3M, but the potential role of SAHH in defence
103 and its link to growth light conditions remain obscure (Rahikainen *et al.* 2017).

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Here we explored how growth under high light and elevated temperature affects metabolic 105 106 adjustments in kale, an economically relevant brassicaceous crop species. Analysis of 107 transcriptomic datasets available for Arabidopsis suggested up-regulation of processes related 108 to phenolic compounds, while processes related to biotic stress resistance and indole GSL 109 became down-regulated. These observations prompted analysis of amino acids, anthocyanins 110 and GSL contents in kales, which revealed both stress-induced and cultivar-dependent 111 adjustments in purple (Black Magic, BM) and pale green (Half Tall, HT) varieties of this leafy 112 vegetable. Both kale varieties responded to long-term growth under high light and elevated 113 temperature by reducing the contents of methionine, the methyl donor S-adenosyl methionine 114 (SAM) and the methoxylated indole GSL 4MO-I3M. In contrast, the total contents of 115 methionine-derived aliphatic GSLs increased in the high-light-grown kales, with distinct 116 cultivar-dependent GSL-profiles. When grown under the warm high light conditions, Black 117 Magic became particularly rich in specific anthocyanins and health-promoting aliphatic GSLs. 118 Collectively, translation of the basic knowledge from Arabidopsis to kales highlighted the 119 effect of growth light on the foliar chemical composition and nutritional properties of leafy 120 vegetables.

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125 Material and Methods

126 **Plant material**

Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. ecotype Columbia-0 was grown in 50% relative humidity 127 and 8/16-hour photoperiod under growth light (GL; 130 µmol photons m⁻² sec⁻¹ and 22°C) for 128 129 2 weeks and thereafter shifted for acclimation under high light (HL; 800 µmol photons m⁻² sec⁻ 130 ¹ and 28°C) for 2 weeks. Control plants were grown under GL conditions for 4 weeks. *Brassica* 131 oleracea convar. acephala, Half Tall and Black Magic, were grown in 50% relative humidity and 12/12-hour photoperiod. Plants were grown under growth light (130 µmol photons m⁻² sec⁻ 132 ¹ and 22°C) or in high light (800 µmol photons m⁻² sec⁻¹ and 26°C). Plants were germinated in 133 134 GL and transferred to one of the above-mentioned conditions two days after germination. 135 Experiments with kales were carried out with 19 days old plants. For each kale variety and 136 condition leaves of 16 plants were collected. Each biological replicate consisted of the 137 longitudinal halves of leaves from two plants, resulting in eight biological replicates.

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139 Analysis of gene expression

Rosettes of Arabidopsis grown under GL or acclimated for two weeks in HL were collected
four hours after the onset of light period and analysed by Agilent Arabidopsis (V4) Gene

142 Expression Microarrys, 4x44K (Design ID 021169) as described by Konert *et al.*, 2015.

143

144 **Comparison of gene expression profiles**

Genes with absolute expression fold change (FC) >2 and p-values <0.05 in the long-term Arabidopsis HL dataset presented in Supplementary Table S1 were compared with publiclyavailable datasets obtained from short-term shifts to HL. The short-term HL treatments included in the analysis are listed in Supplementary Table S2. They were selected by comparing the 400 most significantly differentially expressed genes in the long-term HL

dataset (Supplementary Table S1) with the Affymetrix Arabidopsis ATH1 Genome Array
database, querying against experiments containing the keyword "high light" in the
Genevestigator (RRID:SCR_002358) database (Hruz *et al.* 2008).

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154 The RAW data of the selected short-term HL experiments (summarized in supplementary Table S2) were downloaded from Gene Expression Omnibus (RRID:SCR_005012; 155 156 https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) ArrayExpress (RRID:SCR_002964; and 157 https://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress/) and pre-processed independently in Bioconductor 158 (RRID:SCR 006442; http://www.bioconductor.org/), comprising normalization by Robust 159 Multi-array Average. Differential gene expression was analyzed by *limma* package (v3.36.5; 160 RRID:SCR 010943) (Smyth 2004) using the Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate for 161 adjusting p-values for multiple hypothesis testing. Absolute FC>2 and p-values <0.05 were 162 considered differential. The transcript profiles were hierarchically clustered with R package 163 pheatmap (v1.0.12) (Kolde 2019) using Ward's method and Euclidean distance.

Venn diagram was generated with VennDiagram R package (v1.6.20; RRID:SCR_002414)
(Chen & Boutros 2011). All analyses were performed in R (v3.5.1) (RCore Team, 2018) run
in RStudio (v1.1.456; RRID:SCR_000432) (RStudio Team, 2018). Gene Ontology enrichment
analysis were performed and GO trees were generated with ShinyGO v0.60 (Ge & Jung 2018).

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169 **Photosynthesis measurements**

170 Photosynthetic activity was estimated by analysis of chlorophyll *a* fluorescence and P700 171 oxidation using a DUAL-PAM 100 measuring system (Waltz, Germany). The apparent 172 electron transport rates of PSII and PSI were derived from the calculated quantum yields, 173 according to the formula ETR = yield \times PAR \times 0.84 \times 0.5, where 0.84 is the average radiation

174	absorbed by the leaf and 0.5 is the fraction of photons distributed to each photosystem. Non-
175	photochemical quenching (NPQ) was calculated by NPQ = $(Fm-Fm')/Fm'$. ETR(I), ETR(II)
176	and NPQ were assessed increasing light intensities of 50, 125, 500 and 1000 μ mol photons m ⁻
177	² s ⁻¹ in leaves after 30 min in darkness.
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179 Spectrophotometric measurement of total leaf pigments

Spectrophotometric quantification of kale leaf pigments was performed as in Sims and Gamon,
2002. Carotenoids were extracted from 100 mg of frozen leaf powder with 400 µl acetone/tris
buffer solution (80:20 v/v, pH 7.8). Anthocyanin contents were analyzed using 100 mg of
powder extracted in acidified methanol (0.1% HCl, v/v).

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185 Mass spectrometric analysis of anthocyanins

186 Anthocyanins were extracted from 500 mg of frozen leaf powder in a total volume of 45 ml of 187 acidified methanol (0.1% HCl, v/v). After centrifugation, the supernatant was collected, the 188 organic solvent was removed using a vacuum rotary evaporator at 40°C. The samples were 189 dissolved in 1 ml of acidified methanol (1% HCl, v/v). Qualitative analysis of anthocyanins 190 was performed using a Waters Acquity ultrahigh-performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) 191 system (Waters Corp., Milford, MA, USA) combined with Waters Quattro Premier Tandem 192 Quadrupole mass spectrometer (Waters Corp., Milford, MA, USA) equipped with an 193 electrospray ionization (ESI) source. A Phenomenex Aeris peptide XB-C18 (3.6 μ m, 150 \times 194 4.60 mm) column combined with a Phenomenex Security Guard Cartridge Kit (Torrance, CA, 195 USA) was used and maintained at 35°C during the analysis. The analyses were carried out by 196 a gradient elution with formic acid/water (5:95, v/v) as solvent A and acetonitrile as solvent B 197 at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. The gradient program of solvent B in A (v/v) was 0-1 min with 4-6% B, 1–2 min with 6–8% B, 2–6 min with 8–9% B, 6–10 min with 9–10% B, 10–15 min with 198

199 10–20% B, 15–20 min with 20–25% B, 20–25 min with 25–80% B, 25–30 min with 80–4% 200 B, and 30–35 min with 4% B. The injection volume was 10 μ L. A split joint was applied and 201 directed a flow of 0.4 mL/min into the mass spectrometer after the UV detector. The ESI-202 tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) was operated according to the previous method by Yang 203 *et al.*, 2018.

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205 Quantitative analysis of anthocyanins was carried out using a Shimadzu Nexera UHPLC 206 system (Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan), which consisted of a CBM-20A central unit, a 207 SIL-30AC auto sampler, two LC-30AD pumps, a CTO-20AC column oven, and a SPD-M20A 208 diode array detector. The chromatographic conditions were the same as described above in 209 qualitative analysis. An external standard of cyanidin 3-O-glucoside was used for quantitative 210 analysis, and all the anthocyanins were quantified as equivalents of cyanidin 3-O-glucoside 211 using the calibration curve constructed with this reference compound. The total content of 212 anthocyanins was calculated as the sum of the peaks, which represented a minimum of 1% of 213 the total peak area in the chromatogram.

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215 Glucosinolate analysis

216 Frozen fresh material was homogenized in a bead mill (two 3 mm chrome balls, 2 x 30 s at 30 217 Hz) and ~ 150 mg subsequently extracted with 1 mL ice-cold 85% (v/v) methanol containing 218 20 nmol p-hydroxybenzyl glucosinolate (pOHb; PhytoLab, cat. No. 89793) as internal 219 standard. After centrifugation (10 min, 13.000 x g, 4°C), GSLs were extracted from 150 µl of the supernatant as desulfo-GSLs as described before (see Alternate Protocol 2, Crocoll et al., 220 221 2016). LC-MS/MS analysis was carried out on an Advance UHPLC system (Bruker, Bremen, 222 Germany) equipped with C18 column (Kinetex 1.7 u XB-C18, 10 cm x 2.1 mm, 1.7 µm particle 223 size, Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA) coupled to an EVOQ Elite TripleQuad mass

224 spectrometer (Bruker, Bremen, Germany) equipped with an electrospray ionisation source 225 (ESI). The injection volume was 1 µL. Separation was achieved with a gradient of water/0.05% 226 (v/v) formic acid (solvent A) - acetonitrile (solvent B) at a flow rate of 0.4 mL/min at 40°C 227 (formic acid, Sigma-Aldrich, cat. no. F0507; acetonitrile). The elution profile was 0-0.5 min with 2% B; 0.5-1.2 min with 2-30% B; 1.2-2.0 min with 30-100% B; 2.0-2.5 min with 100% 228 229 B; 2.5-2.6 min with 100-2% B; 2.6-4.0 min with 2% B. The ion spray voltage was maintained at +3500 V. Cone temperature was set to 300°C and cone gas to 20 psi. Heated probe 230 231 temperature was set to 400°C and probe gas flow set to 40 psi. Nebulising gas was set to 60 psi 232 and collision gas to 1.6 mTorr. Desulfo-GLSs were monitored based by Multiple Reaction 233 Monitoring (MRM) with appropriate analyte parent ion to product ion transitions as previously 234 described (Crocoll et al. 2016). Quantification of the individual GLSs was based on response 235 factors relative to the internal standard pOHB calculated from standard curves in control 236 extracts.

237

238 Amino acid analysis

239 A 20-µl aliquot of the supernatant collected as described for glucosinolate analysis was diluted 1:10 (v/v) mixed with a stock solution containing $10\mu g/mL^{13}C$ -, ¹⁵N-labelled amino acids 240 (Algal amino acids ¹³C, ¹⁵N, Isotec, Miamisburg, US). The resulting samples were filtered 241 242 (Durapore®0.22µm PVDF filters, Merck Millipore, Tullagreen, Ireland) and used directly for 243 LC-MS/MS analysis. Chromatography was performed on an Advance UHPLC system (Bruker, 244 Bremen, Germany) with a Zorbax Eclipse XDB-C18 column (100×3.0 mm, 1.8 µm, Agilent 245 Technologies, Germany). Formic acid (0.05% (v/v) in water and acetonitrile (supplied with 246 0.05% (v/v) formic acid) were employed as mobile phases A and B, respectively. The elution 247 profile was: 0–1.2 min with 3% B; 1.2–4.3 min with 3–65% B; 4.3–4.4 min with 65–100% B; 248 4.4–4.9 min with 100% B, 4.9–5.0 min with 100-3% B and 5.0–6.0 min with 3% B. Mobile 249 phase flow rate was 500 μ l/min and column temperature was maintained at 40°C. LC was 250 coupled to an EVOQ Elite Triple Quad mass spectrometer (Bruker, Bremen, Germany) 251 equipped with electrospray ionisation. The ion spray voltage was maintained at 3000 V or 252 -4000 V in positive or negative ionisation mode, respectively. Cone temperature was set to 253 300°C and cone gas flow to 20psi. Heated probe temperature was set to 400°C and probe gas 254 flow set to 50 psi. Nebulising gas was set to 60 psi and collision gas to 1.6m Torr. Nitrogen 255 was used as both cone gas and nebulizing gas and argon as collision gas. MRMs for the 13 C, 256 ¹⁵N-labelled amino acids were chosen as previously described (Docimo *et al.* 2012). Response 257 factors for quantification of amino acids, SAM and cystathione had been calculated previously 258 based on dilution series of the respective analytes (Petersen, Crocoll & Halkier 2019).

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260 Statistical analyses of metabolite data

All the statistical analysis were performed in R environment v 3.5.1 (RRID:SCR_000432).

262 Numerical data obtained from analysis of amino acids, GSLs and total pigments were subjected

263 to statistical analysis using one-way ANOVA with statistical significance at the level of P <

264 0.05, followed by Tukey's comparison in case distributions followed normality and
265 homoscedasticity, whereas Kruskal-Wallis test was applied in the rest of the cases.

Black Magic anthocyanins content was analyzed with Student's T-test and significance level
of P< 0.05 is denoted by an asterisk.

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270 **Results**

Transcript profiling of Arabidopsis leaves after long-term acclimation to high light and elevated temperature

273 To gain insights into how growth under high light and moderately elevated temperature might 274 affect metabolic processes in brassicaceous plants, we took advantage of the genetic resources 275 available for Arabidopsis. First we performed microarray analysis of Arabidopsis grown under moderate growth light and moderated temperature (GL; 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹/22°C) or 276 277 acclimated to high light and elevated temperature (HL+ET; 800 µmol photons m⁻²s⁻¹/28°C) 278 (Figure 1a). Arabidopsis responded to a two-week growth period under HL+ET by visually 279 observable accumulation of purple pigments (Figure 1a). To determine the effects of long-term 280 HL+ET acclimation on gene expression, genes with >2 FC (p-value <0.05) differential 281 expression in plants acclimated to HL+ET were identified, in comparison to plants grown in 282 GL (Figure 1b; Table S1). Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment among differentially expressed 283 genes revealed that the main processes up-regulated in response to long-term HL+ET 284 acclimation included anthocyanin biosynthesis and metabolism, flavonoid metabolism and 285 abiotic stress responses (Figure 1b). Genes related to photosynthesis and light harvesting, in 286 contrast, were among the most down-regulated. Notably, GO categories related to defense 287 responses, salicylic acid (SA) signaling and indole GSL metabolism were also over-represented 288 among the down-regulated genes, when compared to plants grown in GL (Figure 1b; Table 289 S1).

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291 Next we utilized publicly available Arabidopsis transcriptomic datasets to determine how the 292 effects of long-term HL+ET exposure differ from short-term HL treatments. Transcripts with 293 >2 FC (p-value <0.05) differential expression in the long-term HL+ET-acclimated plants 294 (Supplementary Table S1) were selected and their abundance was assessed in the publicly

available datasets obtained from plants exposed to various short-term HL treatments
(summarized in Supplementary Table S2), ranging from 30 minutes to 6 hours as detailed in
Supplementary Table S3.

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299 Hierarchical clustering analysis grouped the short term treatments into two clusters, early time 300 points (30 min, 1 h and 2 h) and later ones (3h, 4h and 6 h) (Figure 2). The analysis also revealed 301 temporal HL-induced transcriptional responses, which formed seven main clusters (Figure 2; 302 Table S3). Cluster 1 contained transcripts whose abundance became reduced already at early 303 time points of HL illumination. This early-responding cluster was enriched in GO terms related 304 to biotic stress and cell wall metabolism (Table S4; Figure S1a). Clusters 2 and 3 comprised of 305 transcripts that showed reduced abundance almost exclusively in the long-term HL dataset 306 (Tables S5 and S6; Figure S1b,c). Clusters 4 and 6 in turn included transcripts with increased 307 abundance upon long-term HL acclimation (Table S8; Figure S1e). Clusters 5 and 7 comprised 308 transcripts whose abundance was increased in the long-term high light dataset but varied 309 between the short-term HL (Tables S7 and S9; Figure S1d,f).

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311 Comparison of the sets of genes differentially expressed in the long-term and representative 312 short-term HL treatments identified 49 genes differentially expressed in response to every HL 313 treatment (marked in blue in Table S3) and 1469 genes, which were differentially expressed 314 exclusively upon acclimation to long-term HL+ET, but not in any of the short-term light shifts 315 (Figure 3; Table S3). Within this group, GO enrichment analysis of transcripts with increased 316 abundance specifically in long-term HL+ET revealed over-representation of categories related 317 to transcriptional regulation, membrane transport and regulation of biosynthetic processes and 318 biosynthesis of flavonoids (Table S10; Figure S2a). Among transcripts with reduced

abundance specific to long-term HL+ET acclimation, GO categories related to chlorophyll
biosynthesis, photosynthetic light-harvesting, DNA integrity and biotic stress responses were
significantly over-represented (Table S11; Figure S2b).

322

323 Light intensity-dependent phenotypic characteristics in differentially pigmented kale 324 varieties

The enrichment of genes related to anthocyanins and GSL in the Arabidopsis long-term 325 326 HL+ET transcriptome (Figure 1) prompted us to assess the effect of growth conditions on the 327 contents of these nutritionally important compounds in kales, which are commercially 328 important leafy vegetables. Two varieties of Brassica oleracea convar. acephala, Half Tall and 329 Black Magic with differential pigmentation patterns, were selected for the analysis. Growing the kales under 800 µmol photons m⁻² sec⁻¹ at 28°C triggered typical high-light-induced 330 331 morphological responses, such as shorter petioles, reduced height and thicker leaves (Figure 332 4). In Black Magic, the light avoidance response was additionally evident as vertical 333 disposition of the leaves, while Half Tall showed a twisted leaf morphology when grown under 334 HL (Figure 4).

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336 The effect of HL+ET acclimation on the photosynthetic capacity of the two kale varieties was 337 assessed by comparing the performance of the photosynthetic light reactions between Black 338 Magic and Half Tall grown in either GL or HL+ET, using a DUAL-PAM-100. The rates of 339 photosynthetic electron transport (ETR) through PSII and PSI were higher in Black Magic 340 leaves from both GL and HL+ET, in comparison to Half Tall leaves, at actinic irradiances above 125 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ (Figure 5a,b). Furthermore, ETR(II) and ETR(I) in HL+ET-341 342 grown plants were higher than their GL-grown counterparts at 500 and 1000 µmol photons m⁻ ² s⁻¹ actinic light. Leaves from HL+ET-grown plants demonstrated significantly lower NPQ at 343

50 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ than GL-grown plants, while NPQ in HL+ET-grown Black Magic leaves was also significantly lower than all other samples at 125 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. At 500 and 1000 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, Half Tall leaves had higher NPQ than Black Magic leaves, irrespective of growth conditions, while NPQ did not differ significantly between GL- and HL+ET-grown plants of each variety at these irradiances (Figure 5c).

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The purple pigmentation of Black Magic became intensified upon growth under HL+ET and accumulation of protective pigments was evident on both adaxial and abaxial sides of the leaves (Figure 4b). Spectrophotometric analysis further indicated elevated amounts of both anthocyanins and carotenoids in HL+ET-acclimated Black Magic leaves (Figure 6). Half Tall, in contrast, was devoid of this common protective response and did not undergo light-induced accumulation of these pigments (Figure 6).

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For more detailed assessment of anthocyanin contents, kale leaf extracts were analyzed by 357 358 UPLC-ESI-MS/MS and the detected anthocyanins were qualitatively described based on mass 359 spectra, UV spectra and comparison to previously published literature (Olsen, Aaby & Borge 360 2010; Olsen, Grimmer, Aaby, Saha & Borge 2012) (Table 1). In Black Magic, ten different 361 compounds were detected (Figure S3). The anthocyanins existed in different acylated forms 362 with sinapic acid, ferulic acid, caffeic acid and *p*-coumaric acid as the predominant acyl donors 363 (Table 1). Compounds 9 and 10, identified as cyanidin-3-sinapoyl-feruloyl-diglucoside-5-364 glucoside and cyanidin-3-disinapoyl-diglucoside-5-glucoside, respectively, were the most abundant anthocyanins detected in Black Magic (Table 1). In Half Tall, only trace amounts of 365 366 anthocyanins were detected and individual compounds could therefore not be reliably identified. Quantification of total anthocyanins revealed that the generally higher levels in 367 Black Magic significantly increased upon acclimation to HL+ET (Figure 7). 368

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370 Light-induced changes in amino acids in kale leaves

371 Amino acid metabolism provides precursors for the biosynthesis of complex chemical 372 structures, including some classes of specialized metabolites. Analysis of amino acids revealed an overall similarity between the amino acid profiles of Half Tall and Black Magic, with the 373 374 exception of proline and cysteine, the contents of which differed between the varieties (Figure 375 8). Both Half Tall and Black Magic responded to HL+ET acclimation by diminished amounts 376 of several amino acids. The levels of aspartic acid and some of its derivatives, including 377 asparagine, lysine, threonine, isoleucine and methionine, as well as the contents of the 378 metabolic intermediates L-cystathionine and SAM, became reduced in both kale varieties 379 (Figure 8). Similarly, the contents of glutamate, arginine, alanine, serine, glycine and histidine 380 declined under high light. In contrast, the contents of proline and leucine showed a trend 381 towards increased levels in both varieties when the plants grew under HL+ET (Figure 8). The 382 contents of phenylalanine, the precursor for the biosynthesis of phenolic pigments and aromatic 383 GSLs did not vary between the treatments (Figure 8).

384

385 SAHH complex formation in differentially light-acclimated kales

386 The HL+ET-induced reduction in the levels of methionine and SAM (Figure 8) suggested 387 alterations in the activated methyl cycle, where SAHH is the key enzyme responsible for the 388 maintenance of trans-methylation capacity (Rahikainen et al. 2018). Therefore, we next studied 389 whether the abundance of SAHH differs between the differentially light and temperature -390 acclimated kales. Separation of the proteins by SDS-PAGE and subsequent analysis by 391 immunoblotting revealed no light-dependent adjustments in the total abundance of SAHH 392 (Figure 9a). Analysis by native gels in turn revealed the presence of SAHH in oligomeric 393 complexes in both Half Tall and Black Magic (Figure 9b), as previously observed in 394 Arabidopsis leaf extracts (Rahikainen et al. 2017). One of the SAHH-containing complexes 395 observed in the kale varieties corresponded to the abundant Arabidopsis SAHH complex 4 396 (Rahikainen et al., 2017), as deduced from its migration on CN-gels (Figure 9b). In 397 Arabidopsis, increased abundance of SAHH complex 4 correlated with increased abundance 398 of 4MO-I3M (Rahikainen et al. 2018). In kales, this oligomeric composition was present as a 399 protein band doublet, comprising a prominent high MW band and a less abundant low MW 400 band (Figure 9b). In the HL-acclimated kales, the lower MW Complex 4 band was barely 401 detectable (Figure 9b).

402

403 Glucosinolate profiles of differentially high-light-acclimated kales

Next we analysed foliar GSL profiles in differentially light-acclimated kales. The analysis
detected three indole GSLs, eight aliphatic GSLs and one benzenic GSL compound. The
unmodified indole GSL indolyl-3-ylmethyl GSL (I3M; glucobrassicin) can be hydroxylated in
position 1 or 4 (Pfalz *et al.* 2011), forming metabolic intermediates that are subsequently
methylated by indole GSL methyltransferases (IGMTs), generating the modified indole GSLs
NMO-I3M (*N*-methoxy-indol-3-yl-methyl GSL) and 4MO-I3M (4-methoxy-indol-3-yl-methyl
GSL) (Pfalz *et al.* 2016).

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The contents of indole GSLs showed both light intensity-related and cultivar-dependent changes. Black Magic showed an overall higher content of indole GSL, which declined under long-term HL+ET irradiation (Figure 10a). On the contrary, the total content of indole GSLs in Half Tall did not display HL+ET-dependent changes (Figure 10a). Interestingly, the level of 4MO-I3M decreased upon HL+ET acclimation in both varieties (Figure 10c). The level of NMO-I3M in Black Magic showed an opposite trend with respect to 4MO-I3M, with a significant increase in HL+ET-acclimated Black Magic leaves (Figure 10d).

419

420	The overall content of aliphatic methionine-derived GSL increased upon HL+ET acclimation
421	in both Half Tall and Black Magic, but the individual GSL profiles showed significant cultivar-
422	dependent differences (Figure 11a). The biosynthesis of aliphatic GSL comprises three main
423	steps: elongation of the amino acid chain, formation of the core GSL structure and modification
424	of the side chain. As expected for Brassica species (Verkerk et al. 2009), aliphatic GSLs with
425	C3-C5, referring to the number of carbons in their aliphatic side chains, were detected (Figure
426	11). Half Tall showed high contents of the C3 aliphatic GSLs 3-methylthiopropyl GSL (3MTP;
427	glucoiberverin), 3-methylsulfinylpropyl GSL (3MSP; glucocheirolin) and 2-propenyl GSL
428	(2PROP GSL; sinigrin), which were barely detectable in Black Magic (Figure 11c). In addition,
429	3-butenyl GSL (3BUT GSL) and 2(R)-2-hydroxy-3-butenyl GSL (2R-OH-3BUT GSL;
430	progoitrin) were abundant in Half Tall but not in Black Magic (Figure 11d).

431

In contrast to Half Tall, Black Magic contained the C4 aliphatic GSL 4-methylthiobutyl GSL 432 433 (4MTB GSL; glucoerucin) and was particularly rich in 4-methylsulfinylbutyl GSL (4MSB 434 GSL; glucoraphanin) (Figure 11d). In addition, Black Magic accumulated high level of the 435 aromatic 2-phenylethyl GSL (2PE GSL; gluconasturtiin), especially upon acclimation to 436 HL+ET (Figure 12). The content of 5-methylthiopentyl GSL (5MSP GSL; glucoberteroin), in 437 turn, did not show cultivar- or light intensity-dependent adjustments (Figure 11e). These 438 findings suggest that HL+ET acclimation promotes the accumulation of aliphatic GSL, 439 irrespective of the nature of the abundant GSL species, which is highly cultivar-dependent.

440

441 **Discussion**

442 Light intensities that exceed the photosynthetic capacity of a plant in a given environment may443 result in imbalanced accumulation of redox-active intermediates and cause damage to the

photosynthetic protein complexes (Aro, Virgin & Andersson 1993; Muller 2001; Miyake 2010; 444 445 Kono, Noguchi & Terashima 2014; Tiwari et al. 2016; Gu et al. 2017). Photosynthetic 446 organisms therefore undergo coordinated adjustments in gene expression and metabolism to 447 optimize their fitness in the prevailing growth environment. Under natural conditions, fluctuations in light intensity are commonly seen as an environmental stress factor, while in 448 449 greenhouse conditions, artificial manipulation of plant metabolomes by alterations in growth 450 conditions may allow improved production of desired end products. However, the basic 451 understanding of how the growth conditions affect the chemical composition of crops is still 452 limited. In this study, we aimed towards understanding how long-term growth under a 453 combination of high irradiance and elevated temperature affects the chemical composition and 454 growth in differentially pigmented varieties of kale.

455

456 Long-term plant acclimation to high light involves reprogramming of gene expression 457 and protective metabolism

458 Light-induced acclimation responses depend on the severity and the duration of excess 459 irradiation. A number of studies have elaborated the transient nature of HL-induced changes in 460 foliar transcriptomes (Vogel et al. 2014; Crisp et al. 2017), while long-term effects on 461 transcriptomic adjustments have drawn less attention. Here we assessed the transcript profile 462 of HL+ET-acclimated Arabidopsis leaves (Supplementary Table S1), and compared the 463 acclimation response to previously reported short-term HL-induced transcriptional adjustments 464 (Kleine, Kindgren, Benedict, Hendrickson & Strand 2007; Jung et al. 2013; Gläßer et al. 2014; 465 Schmitz et al. 2014) to elucidate how long-term growth under HL affects physiological 466 processes in Arabidopsis.

467

468 Long-term HL+ET acclimation of Arabidopsis was accompanied by increased abundance of 469 transcripts related to the biosynthesis of flavonoids and anthocyanins, and reduced transcript 470 abundance for proteins involved in photosynthetic light harvesting, when compared to plants 471 grown under moderate GL (Figure 1b). This protective response was evident also as visually 472 observable accumulation of blue and purple pigments, which accumulate in leaf epidermal cells 473 to protect HL+ET-acclimated leaves against light stress (Figure 1a; Chalker-Scott, 1999). A 474 distinguishing feature between long-term HL+ET-acclimated leaves and short-term light 475 stressed ones was reduced abundance of transcripts in GO categories related to biotic stress 476 responses, in comparison to non-stressful GL conditions (Table S11), suggesting alleviation of 477 defense priming and suppression of hypersensitive cell death in leaves acclimated to the 478 potentially stressful abiotic cues. Long-term morphological adjustments, including 479 development of thick leaves rich in anthocyanins and other phenolic metabolites, may be 480 deterrent against pathogens and herbivores and promote cross-tolerance against biotic stress 481 agents.

482

483 Higher levels of carotenoids and anthocyanins were detected in Black Magic kale, in 484 comparison to Half Tall, and these were shown to increase significantly after growth under 485 HL+ET (Figure 6). Upregulation of the protective pigments correlated with increased 486 photosynthetic electron transport under high irradiance in Black Magic, which was also 487 improved after HL+ET growth, which can be attributed to lower levels of NPQ in Black Magic 488 (Figure 5). Since many of the protective metabolites have health-promoting nutritional effects 489 in humans (Verkerk et al. 2009; Dinkova-Kostova & Kostov 2012), light-induced adjustments 490 in foliar chemical composition can directly impact the nutritional value of leafy vegetables. 491 Therefore, long-term exposure to warm high light conditions can be applied as a tool to trigger the production of health- and taste-related compounds with the aim to increase the commercialvalue of crops in greenhouse cultivation.

494

495 The kale varieties contain increased amounts of genotype-dependent aliphatic 496 glucosinolate structures when grown under high light and elevated temperature

497 GSLs are major defensive compounds commonly associated with plant-biotic interactions in 498 the order Brassicales (Halkier & Gershenzon 2006; Hopkins, van Dam & van Loon 2009). To 499 date, around 130 GSL species have been identified and their occurrence in various plant cells, 500 tissues (Agerbirk & Olsen 2012) and species under different developmental stages (Brown, 501 Tokuhisa, Reichelt & Gershenzon 2003) and environmental conditions (Cartea, Velasco, 502 Obregón, Padilla & de Haro 2008; Huseby et al. 2013; Martínez-Ballesta, Moreno & Carvajal 503 2013) has been extensively characterized. Metabolite profiling of the Half Tall and Black 504 Magic varieties of kale revealed that ambient growth light and temperature can significantly 505 affect the contents of both indole and aliphatic GSLs in kale (Figures 10 and 11).

506

507 The methionine-derived aliphatic GSLs form a predominant group of natural compounds in *A*. 508 *thaliana* and many crops in the Brassicaceae family. We show that the Half Tall and Black 509 Magic varieties of kale undergo a HL-induced increase in total aliphatic GSL levels, although 510 the individual GSL species display cultivar-dependent changes (Figure 11). Black Magic 511 accumulated aliphatic GSLs with a length of 4 carbons in their aliphatic side chain, while 512 aliphatic side chains of 3 carbons predominated in Half Tall, presumably due to occurrence of 513 different biosynthetic machineries in these two varieties.

514

515 The committed enzyme responsible for the chain elongation step in the biosynthesis of aliphatic
516 GSLs is methylthioalkylmalate synthase (MAM; Kliebenstein *et al.*, 2001; Kroymann, 2001).

517 The length of the aliphatic side-chain is determined by the number of times it undergoes a 518 MAM-driven elongation (Kliebenstein et al. 2001b; Kroymann 2001), but it is notable that 519 MAM isoforms elongate the methionine-derived keto-acids in a chain-length-dependent 520 manner. The profile of aliphatic GSL species with different chain length is therefore essentially 521 determined by the MAM isoforms that are present in a given plant species, cultivar or ecotype 522 (Kroymann, Donnerhacke, Schnabelrauch & Mitchell-Olds 2003; Kroymann et al. 2006). In 523 Arabidopsis, MAM is present as three different isoforms, MAM1, MAM2 and MAM3 524 (Benderoth, Pfalz & Kroymann 2009). MAM2 is responsible for the first elongation cycle of 525 methionine and forms 3-carbon aliphatic side-chain, whereas MAM1 is able to generate both 526 3-carbon and 4-carbon aliphatic side-chains. The differential profiles of aliphatic GSLs in Half 527 Tall and Black Magic (Figure 11b,c) suggest that the kale varieties possess different isoforms 528 of MAM. The lack of 3-carbon aliphatic side-chains in Black Magic suggests that this variety 529 is devoid of MAM2 (Figure 11c,d). In contrast, in Half Tall that accumulates 3-carbon aliphatic 530 side-chain GSL, an enzyme with the biochemical properties of the Arabidopsis MAM2 must 531 be present. Contrastingly, high content of the 4-carbon aliphatic side-chain GSL 4MSP in 532 Black Magic (Figure 11c,d) suggests the occurrence of a MAM1-like enzyme. Altogether, 533 while the growth light intensity seemingly modulates the overall accumulation of GSLs, the 534 side-chain carbon length of the aliphatic GSLs is genotype dependent.

535

Another relevant polymorphic locus controlling GSL profiles is *GSL-AOP* (Magrath *et al.* 1994; Mithen, Clarke, Lister & Dean 1995). It operates downstream of biosynthesis of the GSL core structure, and its presence or absence determines whether a given species or cultivar predominantly accumulates hydroxyalkyl GSLs, alkenyl GSLs or methylsulfinyl GSLs (Kliebenstein *et al.*, 2001*a,b*, 2007). In Half Tall, the presence of 2-propenyl GSL (alkenyl GSL) pointed to the presence of a functional AOP2 in this variety (Figure 8c). In contrast,

542 Black Magic acumulated methylsulfinyl GSL in the form of 4-methylsulfinylbutyl GSL
543 (Figure 8d), which is not further converted to other glucosinolate structures, due to absence of
544 the AOP enzymes in this variety.

545 The biosynthetic machineries behind aliphatic GSL biosynthesis are drawing increasing 546 research interest, as understanding the molecular machineries responsible for the enormous 547 GSL diversity may pave the way for traditional breeding or biotechnological manipulation of 548 GSL content and their pungent metabolites in Brassica crops (Petersen, Wang, Crocoll & 549 Halkier 2018; Kumar et al. 2019). In this study, we provide evidence indicating that besides 550 the evolutionary and biochemical foundations of GSL metabolism (Kumar et al. 2019), 551 optimized light conditions can be applied to modulate the GSL profiles to increase the contents 552 of beneficial GSL compounds while decreasing those with deleterious effects.

553

554 High light stress as a noninvasive means for cultivation of healthier plants

The biosynthetic machineries of plants are highly responsive to light and their metabolite profiles can therefore be non-invasively manipulated by changes in the intensity and spectral quality of light (Cargnel, Demkura & Ballaré 2014). In greenhouse cultivation, manipulation of metabolic and developmental processes by alterations in growth conditions can therefore be applied to enhance the production of desired compounds. GSLs have beneficial nutritional effects but detrimental effects have also been reported (Greer & Deeney 1959; Tripathi & Mishra 2007; Romeo, Iori, Rollin, Bramanti & Mazzon 2018; Tafakh *et al.* 2019).

562

563 In this study, GSL profiling provided insights to differential nutritional qualities of kale 564 varieties. The purple variety, Black Magic, was rich in the health-promoting 4MSB GSL 565 (glucoraphinin) and 2PE (glucocasturtiin), and their contents became further increased when

the plants were grown under HL (Figures 11d and 12). Among GSL structures with potential
harmful effects, progoitrin, also known as 2*R*-2-OH-3-butenyl GSL, has been associated with
bitter taste and long intake periods may cause goiter in animals (Greer 1957; Felker *et al.* 2016).
It is therefore notable, that in Black Magic, the levels of 2*R*-2-OH-3-butenyl GSL were below
detection in both light conditions studied (Figure 11d). In contrast, Half Tall responded to HL
growth by accumulating 2*R*-2-OH-3-butenyl GSL (Figure 11d).

572

573 Several GSL structures and their breakdown products have been reported beneficial in human 574 diet (Traka & Mithen 2009; Gupta et al. 2015; Lee et al. 2019). Among indole GSLs, 575 degradation of 4MO-I3M yields indole-3-carbinol (I3C), which was recently demonstrated to 576 have anti-cancerous activity through inhibition of the HECT-type E3 ubiquitin ligase WWP1 577 that promotes tumorigenesis in several cell types (Lee et al. 2019). Enzymatic processing of 578 the aliphatic 4MSB GSL and 2PE GSL into sulphoraphane and phenethyl isothiocyanate 579 (PEITC), respectively, yields metabolites with health-beneficial properties through 580 anticarcinogenic and chemo-protectant activities (Cheung & Kong 2010; Jiang et al. 2018). 581 These GSL-derived metabolites can reduce the amounts of carcinogens by inhibiting phase I 582 enzymes and activating phase II enzymes (Eastham, Howard, Balachandran, Pasco & Claudio 583 2018). Moreover, growth-inhibitory effects for sulforaphane in head, neck and prostate cancer 584 cells have been reported (Singh et al. 2005; Gupta et al. 2015) and PEITC has been associated 585 with prevention of the growth of oral cancer cell lines (Chen et al. 2012). Currently, their 586 potential effects on different cancer types is a matter of extensive exploration (Castro et al. 2019; Mitsiogianni et al. 2019; Upadhyaya, Liu & Dey 2019; Yin et al. 2019). Sulphoraphane 587 588 has also been proposed as a potential therapy for precluding vascular complications in diabetes 589 (Yamagishi & Matsui 2016). Beneforté® Broccoli, highly enriched in 4MSB-GSL, is

commercially available worldwide and crop industry continues prompting research towardsgeneration of bio-refined crops.

592

593	Growth of Black Magic under high irradiance promoted the accumulation of health-promoting
594	aliphatic GSLs and anthocyanins, while the disadvantageous GSL structures remained below
595	detection limits (Figures 6 and 11). On the other hand, reflecting the reduced transcript
596	abundance for genes related to methoxylation of indole GSLs in the Arabidopsis long-term HL
597	transcriptome, both Black Magic and Half Tall displayed reduced levels of the indolic 4MO-
598	I3M when grown under HL+ET (Figure 10). Altogether, growth light intensity is a key factor
599	that can impact the accumulation of beneficial metabolites in commercially valuable varieties
600	of Brassica species.

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Tables

No	RT _{min}	[M +	Daughter ions	Tentative ID
•		$\mathbf{H}]^+$	(MS ²)	
1	9.182	979	817, 449, 287	cyanidin-3-sinapoyl-diglucoside-5-glucoside
2	9.964	949	449, 287	cyanidin-3-feruloyl-diglucoside-5-glucoside
3	14.72	1288	1126, 617,	unknown
	0		449, 287	
4	14.95	1141	979, 653, 449,	cyanidin-3-sinapoyl-caffeoyl-diglucoside-5-
	2		287	glucoside I
5	15.88	1141	979, 653, 449,	cyanidin-3-sinapoyl-caffeoyl-diglucoside-5-
	1		287	glucoside II
6	16.16	949	449, 287	cyanidin-3-caffeoyl-feruloyl-diglucoside
	2			
7	16.81	1125	963, 449, 287	cyanidin-3-sinapoyl-p-coumaroyl-diglucoside-5-
	6			glucoside
8	16.93	1111	930, 287	unknown
	0			
9	17.09	1155	993, 449, 287	cyanidin-3 –feruloyl-sinapoyl -diglucoside-5-
	0			glucoside
10	17.35	1185	1023, 449, 287	cyanidin-3-disinapoyl-diglucoside-5-glucoside
	9			

Table 1. Identification of anthocyanins from Black Magic leaf extracts.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Phenotypic characteristics and gene ontology (GO) categories enriched in the transcript profile of Arabidopsis wild type acclimated to long-term high light and elevated temperature.

Two-week-old *Arabidopsis thaliana* wild type was shifted from growth light (130 μ mol photons m⁻² sec⁻¹ and 22°C) to high light and elevated temperature (HL+ET; 800 μ mol photons m⁻² sec⁻¹ and 28°C) for 2 weeks.

A) Phenotypic characteristics of *Arabidopsis thaliana* after long-term acclimation to high light and elevated temperature.

B) Gene Ontology (GO) categories enriched in the transcript profile of high light and elevated temperature-acclimated *Arabidopsis thaliana* wild type plants, when compared to plants grown under growth light and moderated temperature.

Figure 2. Hierarchical clustering of gene expression profiles from long-term high lightand-elevated-temperature-acclimated plants and plants exposed to short-term high light shifts. Purple denotes upregulation and green denotes downregulation of transcript abundance. The long-term high light acclimation dataset was obtained in this study (Table S1), while the others were downloaded from AtGenExpress and Gene Expression Omnibus (see Supplementary Tables S2 and S3 for full description of the datasets).

Figure 3. Venn diagram depicting overlaps between the sets of differentially accumulated transcripts in long-term high light and elevated temperature and high light shift experiments according to the hierarchical clustering presented in Figure 2.

Figure 4. Visual characteristics of the kale varieties *Brassica oleracea* convar. *acephala* Half Tall and Black Magic.

A) Morphological characteristics of Half Tall (HT) and Black Magic (BM) after 3 weeks of growth under 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 22°C (GL) or 800 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 26°C (HL+ ET). Scale bar corresponds to 2 cm.

B) Representative photographs depicting light- and temperature-dependent adjustments in leaf morphology and pigmentation as visualized from adaxial and abaxial surface of the first, second and third leaves. Scale bar corresponds to 2 cm.

Figure 5. Photosynthetic performance of differentially light -acclimated kales. Half Tall

(HT) and Black Magic (BM) were grown for 3 weeks under 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 22°C (GL) or 800 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 26°C (HL+ET) and the photosynthetic parameters were measured with Dual-Pam.

A) ETR (I), Electron transport rate.

- **B) ETR** (**II**), Electron transport rate.
- C) NPQ, Non-photochemical quenching.

Figure 6. Total content of carotenoids and anthocyanins in differentially lightacclimated Half Tall and Black Magic leaves.

Half Tall (HT) and Black Magic (BM) were grown for 3 weeks under 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 22°C (GL) or 800 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 26°C (HL+ET) and the pigments were quantified by spectrophotometry. Error bars show the SE and different letters indicate statistically significant differences (p< 0.05), n=4.

Figure 7. Anthocyanin profiles in differentially light acclimated Black Magic kales.

Black Magic (BM) was grown for 3 weeks under 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 22°C (GL) or 800 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 26°C (HL+ET) and the pigments were quantified by tandem UPLC with mass spectrometry. On the X-axis, the numbers correspond to detected peaks, which are depicted in Figure S3. Error bars indicate SE and * indicate statistically significant differences (p< 0.05) between light condition for each different compound, n=4. Tentative identities of the compounds are listed in Table 1.

Figure 8. Contents of amino acids and SAM in differentially light-acclimated kales.

Half Tall (HT) and Black Magic (BM) were grown under 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 22°C (GL) or 800 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 26°C (HL+ET) and the contents of amino acids and SAM were analysed LC-MS/MS. Quantitative values are expressed in nmol mg⁻¹ FW. Error bars indicate SE and different letters indicate statistical significant differences (p< 0.05) n=8.

Figure 9. SAHH abundance and complex formation in differentially light-acclimated kale leaves.

A) SAHH abundance in Half Tall and Black Magic leaves as detected by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting with specific anti-SAHH antibody.

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B) SAHH-containing oligomeric complexes in Half Tall and Black Magic leaves as determined by CN-PAGE and subsequently immunoblotting with specific anti-SAHH antibody. GL, growth light; HL+ET, high light and elevated temperature.

Figure 10. Contents of indole GSL in differentially light-acclimated kales.

Half Tall (HT) and Black Magic (BM) were grown under 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 22°C (GL) or 800 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 26°C (HL+ET) and indole GSL were analysed by LC-MS/MS.

- A) Total amount of indole GSLs.
- B) Content of I3M (indol-3-ylmethyl GSL; glucobrassicin)
- C) Content of 4MO-I3M (4-methoxyindol-3-ylmethyl GSL; 4-methoxyglucobrassicin)
- D) Content of NMO-I3M (N-methoxyindol-3-ylmethyl GSL; neoglucobrassicin)

Figure 11. Contents of aliphatic GSL in differentially high-light-acclimated kales.

Half Tall and Black Magic were grown under 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 22°C (GL) or 800 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 26°C (HL+ET) and aliphatic GSL were analysed by LC-MS/MS. A) Total amount of aliphatic GSL

B) Schematic representation of structural modifications occurring in the GSL structure

C) Content of 3-carbon side chain GSLs. 3MTP (3-methylthiopropyl GSL), 3MSP (3-

methylsulfinylpropyl GSL; glucoiberin) and 2PROP GSL (2-propenyl GSL; sinigrin)

D) Content of 4-carbon side chain GSLs. 4MTB (4-methylthiolbutyl GSL; glucoerucin),

4MSB (4-methylsulfinylbutyl GSL; glucoraphanin), 3BUT (2(*R*)-2-hydroxy-3-butenyl GSL; Progoitrin).

E) Content of 5-carbon side chain GSLs. 5MSP (5-methylsulfinylpentyl GSL; glucoalyssin)

Figure 12. Content of the benzenic GSL 2-Phenylethyl (2PE) in differentially high-light-acclimated kales.

Half Tall and Black Magic were grown under 130 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 22°C (GL) or 800 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ at 26°C (HL+ET) and benzenic GSLs were analysed by LC-MS/MS.

Table 1. Anthocyanins content in Black Magic.

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No.: number of the peak in the obtained chromatograms (depicted in Figure S3); RT_{min} : retention time in minutes; $[M+H]^+$: monoisotopic mass; Tentative ID: tentative identification.

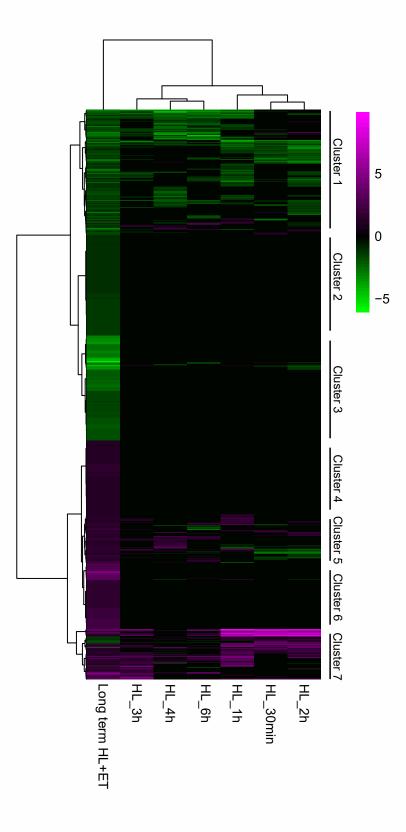
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Arabidopsis thaliana

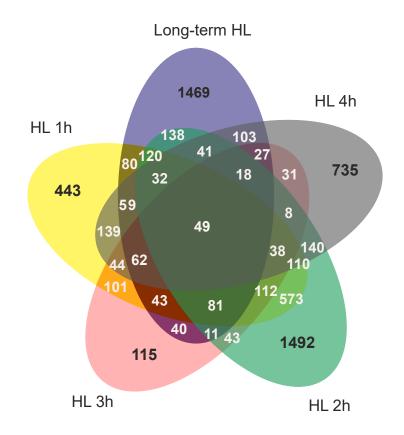
b)

Anthocyanin-containing compound biosynthetic process	(GO:0009718))							
Anthocyanin-containing compound metabolic process									
Regulation of flavonoid biosynthetic process									
Flavonoid biosynthetic process									
Flavonoid metabolic process									
Starch metabolic process									
Response to UV-B									
Response to hydrogen peroxide									
Response to UV									
Response to karrikin									
Response to high light intensity									
Phenylpropanoid metabolic process									
Phenylpropanoid biosynthetic process									
Response to heat	(GO:0009408))							
Response to oxidative stress	(GO:0006979))							
Response to temperature stimulus	(GO:0009266))							
Secondary metabolic process	(GO:0019748))							
Transmembrane transport									
Response to light stimulus									
Response to radiation									
	(00.0000011)	,							
Response to biotic stimulus	(GO:0009607))							
Defense response									
Cell wall organization or biogenesis									
Response to oxidative stress									
Response to external biotic stimulus									
Response to other organism									
Defense response to other organism									
External encapsulating structure organization									
Cellular carbohydrate metabolic process									
Cell wall organization									
Regulation of response to stress									
Response to organonitrogen compound									
Cell wall modification									
Cellular response to organic cyclic compound									
Regulation of defense response									
Defense response to bacterium									
Immune system process									
Response to bacterium									
Cell wall macromolecule metabolic process									
Immune response									
Response to organic cyclic compound									
Innate immune response	(GO:0045087))							
DNA replication	(GO:0006260))							
Response to chitin	(GO:0010200))							
Response to salicylic acid	(GO:0009751))							
Defense response, incompatible interaction	(GO:0009814)) — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —							
Cell wall polysaccharide metabolic process									
Hemicellulose metabolic process									
Xyloglucan metabolic process									
Systemic acquired resistance									
Response to oomycetes									
Indole glucosinolate metabolic process									
Defense response by cell wall thickening									Up-regulated
Defense response by callose deposition in cell wall									
Photosynthesis, light harvesting in photosystem I									Down-regulated
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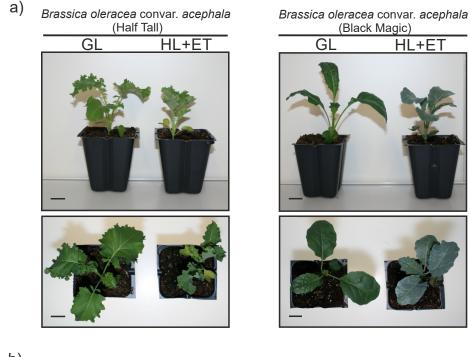


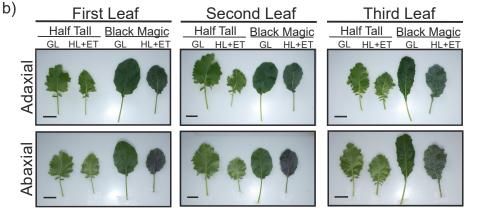
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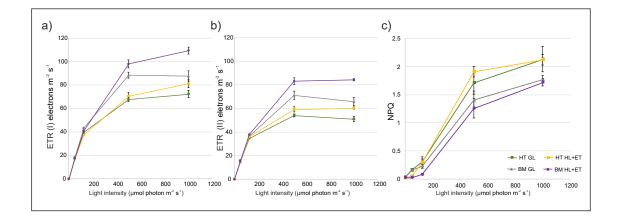


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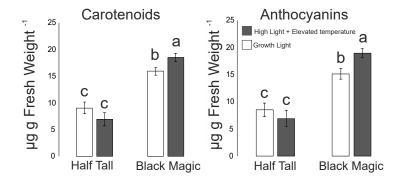




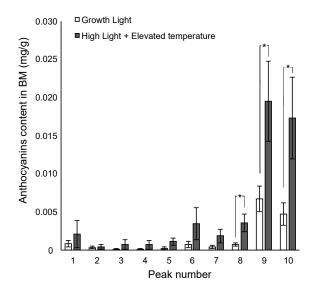
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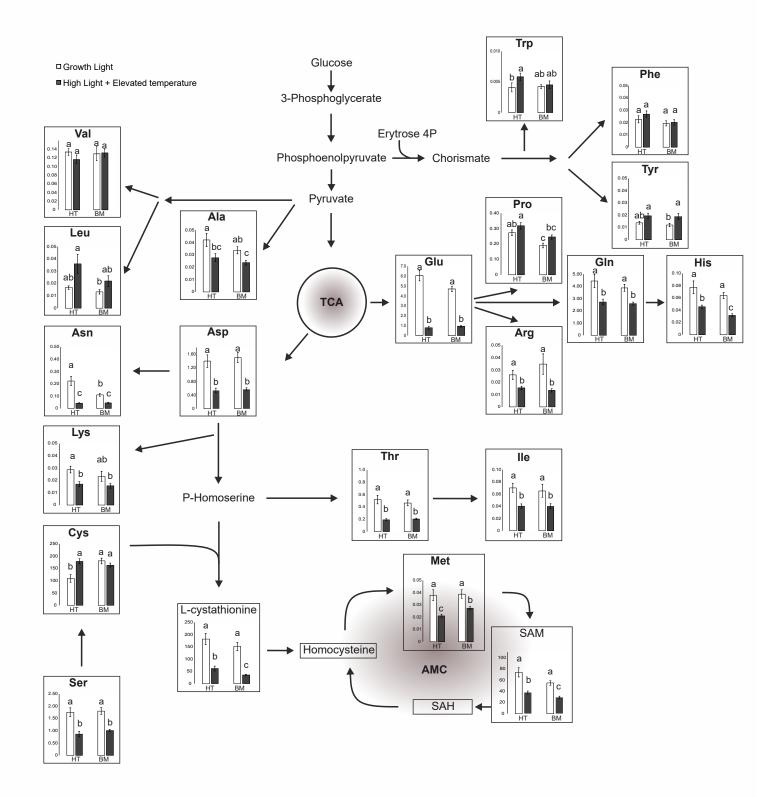
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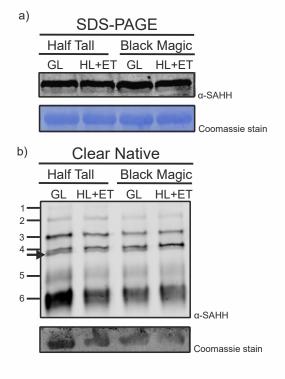
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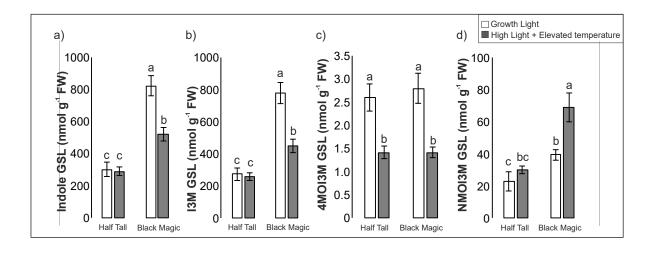
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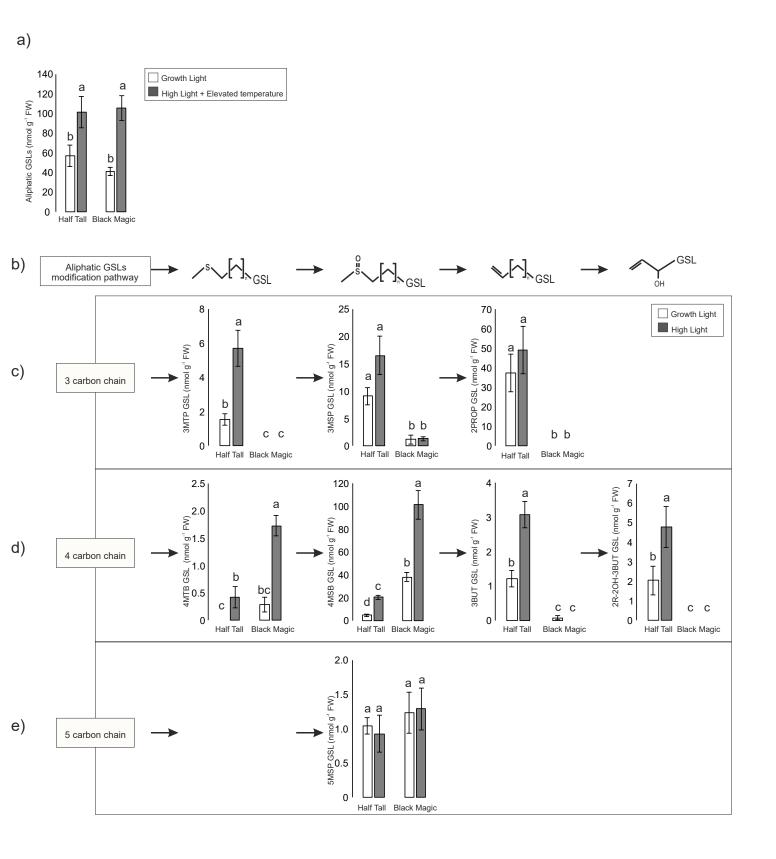
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