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Shoot and root branch growth angle control - the wonderfulness of lateralness

Suruchi Roychoudhry and Stefan Kepinski

Centre for Plant Sciences, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK

ABSTRACT

The overall shape of plants, the space they occupy above and below ground, is determined principally by the number, length, and angle of their lateral branches. The function of these shoot and root branches is to hold leaves and other organs to the sun, and below ground, to provide anchorage and facilitate the uptake of water and nutrients. While in some respects lateral roots and shoots can be considered mere iterations of the primary root-shoot axis, in others there are fundamental differences in their biology, perhaps most conspicuously in the regulation their angle of growth. Here we discuss recent advances in the understanding of the control of branch growth angle, one of the most important but least understood components of the wonderful diversity of plant form observed throughout nature.

Introduction

The growth angle of branches and other lateral organs is a fascinating topic in developmental biology. For the most part root and shoot branches grow at angles that are non-vertical, a crucial adaptation required for the effective capture of resources both above- and below-ground. The spatial regulation of growth angle is manifest all through the plant kingdom in the form of characteristic species-specific patterns of branch angle control, most strikingly in the wonderfully diverse branching patterns of trees. The fact that deciduous trees are identifiable in the winter by the angle, rather than the number, of their branches emphasises that these differences are genetic and reflects the extent to which growth angle regulation is an important component of the developmental biology of individual lateral organs and of the plant as a whole.

Non-vertical growth in lateral branches: gravitropic setpoint angles or just angles?

Despite the fundamental importance of non-vertical branch growth it is a phenomenon that is only now becoming understood. We can distinguish two broad classes of growth angle control; branch angles that are maintained, independently of other parts of the plant, with respect to gravity and those that are not. For this first class, where growth angle is set and maintained with respect to gravity, that angle of growth is known as the gravitropic setpoint angle or GSA. In this system, an organ being maintained parallel with the gravity vector will have a GSA of 0° if it is growing downwards (e.g. a primary root), and a GSA of 180° if it is growing upwards (e.g. a primary shoot). Organs being maintained at angles to the gravity vector will have GSAs between these two values (for example, an organ growing perpendicular to the gravity vector would have a GSA of 90°) (Figure 1, Box 1). The GSA concept, introduced by Digby and Firn [1], is a wonderful way of thinking about gravity-dependent growth because it distinguishes sharply between growth angle, which is a physical quantity, and gravitropism, which is a growth process. This distinction

ensures that GSA and gravitropism are not conflated, bringing an analytical clarity to the task of determining how a particular growth angle might be generated.

The second class of growth angles, where the organ in question is not being actively maintained relative to gravity, is necessarily a much more disparate group. This is because it takes in every other angle that does not conform to the simple yet strict definition of a GSA, and includes growth angles for which response to gravity plays no part. It is against these classifications of GSA-based and non-GSA-based growth that we will explore recent studies on growth angle regulation in non-woody higher and attempt to reconcile existing approaches to thinking about growth angle control that are really quite different.

Shoot branch angle control in dicots

The non-vertical growth of shoot branches attracted the interest of some of the earliest plant developmental biologists and physiologists [2,3]. The principal focus of these researchers was in branches that were themselves gravitropic, perhaps because that made the angled growth they observed all the more interesting [2,4]. Branches with non-vertical GSAs present an intriguing problem; the simple tilting of a plant, to say 30°, immediately places some root and shoot branches more vertical than their GSA and others less. All of them will grow back toward their GSA and crucially, some shoot branches will have to grow downwards to do this, and similarly, some lateral roots must grow upwards. This means that the non-vertical growth of these organs cannot be merely be because they are not able to 'do' gravitropism as well as the primary shoot and root; there must be another mechanism that drives this downward growth in lateral shoots and upward growth in lateral roots.

In trying to understand how gravity-dependent non-vertical growth might be generated it helps first to think about how vertical GSAs are maintained. For the vertical primary root-shoot axis, GSA control is readily accounted for by the so-called starch-statolith hypothesis and the well-supported model for auxin-mediated tropic growth originating with Cholodny and Went; shifts from the vertical, detected by the sedimentation of starch-rich statoliths, result in asymmetries in auxin distribution that drive tropic, bending growth (Box 1 and Figure 1) [5, reviewed in 6]. Most of the work aiming to understand gravity-dependent angled growth has begun with the idea that these fundamental mechanisms of gravity perception and response should not be excluded from initial models for non-vertical GSA control. Indeed, there are good reasons for accepting this assumption, not the least of which is that in many species the removal of the primary shoot apex (by herbivores or gardeners for example) causes the sub-apical branch to transition to a near-vertical GSA as it becomes the new primary shoot, a state where, as discussed, GSA control is attributable to Cholodny-Went-based gravitropism [7]. The question then is of whether this basic gravitropic response was operating in the lateral branch while it was growing at a non-vertical GSA or if it was only induced following removal of the shoot apex. Recent research using clinostats to eliminate a stable gravitational stimulation suggests that it is the former [7]. This work showed that following the omnilateral gravitational stimulation that occurs during horizontal clinorotation, Arabidopsis lateral shoots generate pronounced upward/outward growth curvatures, a pattern of growth that is never observed in primary shoots. These data led the authors to propose that the outward bending of lateral shoots was the manifestation of a growth component (termed the antigravitropic offset or AGO) that under normal conditions acts in tension with gravitropic response to generate net, non-vertical growth, an idea that can be traced back to the pioneering work of De Vries in the late 1800s [2,4].

Following a series of experiments, including the demonstration that the AGO activity required active auxin transport, the authors proposed a model for GSA maintenance based on the antagonistic interaction of two balancing auxin-dependent growth components; gravitropism and the AGO. In this model there are important differences in the regulation of gravitropic and AGO components; for a given GSA the magnitude of the AGO component is constant. In contrast, the magnitude of gravitropic component is continuously variable according to the orientation of the branch in the gravity field, the further it is from the vertical, the greater the magnitude of graviresponse (see Box 1, Figure 2). This difference in the control of the magnitude of gravitropic and AGO components is sufficient to account for the robust maintenance of GSA against displacements to angles either more- or less vertical (Figure 2). In this model, branch GSA is dependent on the magnitude of this AGO; a stronger AGO induces less vertical growth and vice versa. This work also showed that auxin negatively regulates AGO activity and that this regulation is effected specifically in the gravity sensing cells of the shoot (and root, see below) [7]. Thus auxin is involved both in regulating the GSA of a given branch (by controlling the magnitude of the AGO) and in driving the gravitropic and anti-gravitropic growth that generates that branch's GSA [7]. These mechanistically distinct roles for auxin suggest a significant capacity for the auxin-mediated self-organisation of growth angle throughout development [7].

This central role for auxin in regulating shoot branch GSA is reflected in studies of other Arabidopsis mutants. For example, loss-of-function of members of the *INDETERMINATE DOMAIN (IDD)* transcription factor family *IDD14*, *SGR5/IDD15* and *IDD16* in Arabidopsis and the rice ortholog of *SGR5/IDD15 LOOSE PLANT ARCHITECTURE1* display less vertical branch GSA phenotypes in Arabidopsis (and in rice, less vertical tiller angles, Table 1). These genes affect the distribution of auxin through their regulation of the auxin biosynthesis genes *YUCCA5*, *TAA1* and the auxin efflux transporter PIN1 [8,9,10].

Recent work has also identified a role for orthologs of the rice gene *LAZY1* in the control of branch angle in Arabidopsis. *atlazy1* mutants have less vertical shoot branch phenotype, similar to reported effects of loss of *LAZY1* function in rice (see below; [11,12, Table 1]). Although the AtLAZY1 protein localises to both the plasma membrane and nucleus, nuclear targeting was shown not to be required to complement the branch angle phenotype of *atlazy1* mutants is gravitropic, albeit with slightly slower kinetics. Given that the *atlazy1* primary shoot can maintain a vertical GSA it is quite possible that the non-vertical growth in lateral branches reflects a true GSA phenotype [11].

Another regulator of branch angle control in dicots was identified in a very interesting study aimed at understanding the regulation of branching angle in peach trees [13]. In contrast to *LAZY1*, the *AtTAC1* gene promotes horizontal growth in Arabidopsis inflorescence branches and comes from a distinct clade of genes from the same gene family as *AtLAZY1*. Structurally, *AtTAC1* differs from *AtLAZY1* in that it lacks a conserved C-terminal EAR-like LxLxL transcriptional repression domain, a motif indicative of some sort of nuclear function for AtLAZY [11,13, Table 1]. Although it is tempting to speculate that a TAC1-LAZY1 module may act antagonistically either upstream or downstream of auxin transport and signalling to modulate gravitropic and/or antigravitropic growth components, no links between *TAC1* and auxin signalling have been identified thus far. In addition, as the authors of the *TAC1* study point out, models based solely in variation in gravitropic response do not seem to be able to account for the role of TAC1 in shoot growth angle control in trees where the

angles of higher order secondary branches appear to be set without reference to gravity.

Shoot branch angle control in monocots

Much of the work on shoot branch angles over the last decade has been done in rice. In monocots and grasses in particular, lateral branches in the form of tillers arise from a primary or main culm. A significant step in the domestication of rice was a shift from the prostrate growth habit of wild rice species to the more erect tiller growth of modern cultivated rice varieties. In 2008, two groups working independently identified *PROSTRATE GROWTH1 (PROG1)* as an important regulator of this transition to more vertical tiller growth [14,15, Table 1]. PROG1 contains a single C2H2 type Zinc finger motif suggesting that the protein may function as a transcription factor, a hypothesis supported by its predominantly nuclear localisation. *PROG1* is highly expressed in unelongated basal internodes of the culm from where tillers are produced, and loss-of-function mutation in *PROG1* leads to a phenotype of significantly less vertical tiller angle.

The first mechanistic insights into the regulation of tiller angle came from the analysis of the rice mutant lazy1 (la1). la1 has a prostrate growth habit with tillers growing less vertically than wild-type. LAZY1 encodes what was initially thought to be a grassspecific protein although deeper analysis has revealed apparent functional orthologues in dicots ([12,16 and see above). In addition to the less vertical tiller phenotype, loss of LAZY1 function also causes a much reduced gravitropic response at earlier stages of development in coleoptiles and young seedlings. Experiments with coleoptiles of *la1* showed that the formation of the gravity-induced lateral auxin gradient across organ is impaired. Interestingly, it appears that the capacity to transport auxin along the length of the main axis of the coleoptile is increased in *la1* [11,13]. This raises the question of whether the reduced capacity to generate a lateral auxin asymmetry in gravistimulated rice coleoptiles is due to a defect in lateral transport per se or in the upstream signalling events required to trigger that transport. Further insights into the role of auxin transport in tiller angle regulation also came from other studies showing that misexpression of the OsPIN1 and OsPIN2 auxin efflux transporters lead to changes in tiller angle in rice [17,18, Table 1].

A role for another protein related to LAZY1 called TILLER ANGLE CONTROL1 (TAC1) was identified by QTL analysis. [19, Table 1] In contrast to *LAZY1* and *PROG1* mutants, *tac1* mutants have a smaller, more vertical tiller angle than wild-type plants. *TAC1* is also expressed at the base of the culm and has been proposed to play an antagonistic role to *LAZY1* in dicots (13 and see above). The *TAC1* orthologue in maize was reported to regulate leaf branching angles, and was highly expressed in leaf sheath pulvini [20]. Whether or not there are links between TAC1- and PROG1-mediated tiller angle regulation and auxin signalling and/or transport remains unknown.

Analysis of the maize mutant *prostrate stem (ps)*, which has a spreading, prostrate growth habit showed that this phenotype was the result of a mutation in the maize orthologue of *LAZY1*. Similar to the rice mutant, the *Zmlazy1* mutant also has increased levels of basipetal auxin transport and is unable to generate an asymmetrical auxin gradient across gravitropically stimulated coeoptiles or shoots of young seedlings. The ZmLAZY1 protein has one transmembrane domain and two NLs domains, all of which appear functional and the protein was found to localise to the plasma membrane and nucleus. Interestingly, in yeast two hybrid assays,

ZmLAZY1 interacted with the Aux/IAA protein ZmIAA17 in maize, and a member of the protein kinase C (PKC) family [21, Table 1]. Because the polarity of PIN auxin efflux carrier proteins appears to be regulated by their phosphorylation status, these interactions with PKC family kinases raise the possibility that LAZY1 might play a role in regulation of the subcellular localisation of PIN proteins in response to gravitropic stimuli.

More recently, a genetic screen to identify suppressors for lazy1 (SOLs) in rice led to the identification of a role for strigolactones in regulating rice tiller angles. Loss-offunction of DWARF3 (d3), a signalling component essential for strigolactone perception, was found to suppress the spreading tiller phenotype of *la1* [22, Table 1]. Subsequent analysis of several strigolactone signalling and synthesis mutants revealed that these mutants had enhanced gravitropic responses in seedling shoots. The authors proposed that this enhanced gravitropism was a result of increased auxin accumulation at the base of gravistimulated seedlings relative to wild type, and also that strigolactones were able to modulate gravitropic responses independently of LAZY1 expression. While lateral auxin transport is unimpaired in these strigolactone mutants, the seedlings themselves contain higher levels of free IAA compared to wild-type and *la1* seedlings [22]. Given that gravitropic bending is dependent on the generation of auxin asymmetry and that *la1* is defective in lateral auxin transport it is not immediately clear is how increased auxin levels would suppress the *la1* tiller angle phenotype. A central question here is of whether or not the tiller angles that were the focus of all the studies described here are GSAs. If they are, this indicates that differences in gravitropic capacity in la1 and strigolactone mutants might not be the *cause* of the observed variation in non-vertical growth but rather a symptom of a change or defect in a more sophisticated growth angle control mechanism. In this case, the apparent effects of elevated auxin levels on tiller angle noted in the SOL/strigolactone study could be considered to have parallels with effect of auxin on shoot branch angle in Arabidopsis [7].

If tiller growth angles are not GSAs, how might reduced gravitropism lead to sustained growth at a non-vertical angle? There are several possibilities. For example, it may be that these mutants with reduced gravitropic capacity are unable to exceed a given angle with respect to gravity. Alternatively, because tiller angle is highly dependent on curvature at the tiller base another possibility is that tiller angles are largely determined by the amount of curvature developed in a finite period of gravitropic competence in those basal tissues. Further work will be required to understand which, if any, of these explanations is most relevant to the control of tiller angle in cereals.

Root branch growth angle control

While the primary root typically maintains a near-vertical growth direction, in several monocot and dicot plant species secondary lateral and adventitious roots arising from the primary root or shoot base grow away from the primary axis at non-vertical angles. The mechanisms regulating establishment and maintenance of non-vertical growth in both monocot and dicot root systems have only recently begun to be understood.

Recent insight into regulation of monocot root growth angle has come from an interesting study based on the characterisation of a deep-rooting wild rice variety Kinandang Patong (KP). This work identified a major QTL named *DEEPER ROOTING 1* (*DRO1*) as an important regulator of root growth angle in rice [23,24, Table 1]. Working with a near-isogenic line derived from KP (Dro1-nil), the authors found that compared to Dro1-nil, root gravitropism kinetics are slower in the shallow-

rooting IR64 rice variety bearing a truncated DRO1 loss-of-function allele. DRO1 expression is repressed by auxin and in gravitropism assays, increased auxin levels at the bottom half of gravistimulated roots are sufficient to reduce DRO1 levels, even in the presence of the protein synthesis inhibitor cycloheximide. From these data it is unclear how auxin-mediated DRO1 repression contributes to growth angle control in rice roots given that DRO1 seems to be a positive regulator of gravitropic response in seedling roots [23]. One possibility is that the expression of full-length DRO1, as a positive regulator of cell elongation, allows the development of a greater asymmetry in growth between upper and lower sides of graviresponding roots in KP and Dro1-nil compared to IR64. This might be expected to be reflected differences in root elongation between these lines, a phenomenon that was not apparent [24]. It is also the case that the growth angle phenotypes of the shallow- and deep-rooting varieties that were the focus of this study are sustained for weeks while differences in the kinetics of gravitropic response between these lines (albeit assayed in young seedling roots) were of the order of hours. Again, establishing whether or not these root growth angles are GSAs will be informative in better understanding the role of DRO1 in growth angle control.

The GSA biology of Arabidopsis lateral roots was first characterised in detail by Mullen and Hangarter [25]; lateral roots emerge perpendicular to the primary root but almost immediately grow downward attaining a GSA of approximately 75° within the first 0.2 mm of growth [25]. After this brief initial downward curvature, lateral roots maintain a programme of gravity-dependent non-vertical growth that becomes increasingly vertical over the course of several days [7,25,26]. Importantly, throughout this period of non-vertical growth lateral roots can reorientate their growth both upwards and downwards to maintain their prevailing GSA [7,25]. These data indicate that this pattern of lateral root growth is most accurately described as a continuum of increasingly vertical GSA states.

Recent work has described the central role of auxin and auxin transport in lateral root GSA maintenance. Consistent with the effect of auxin on shoot branch GSA, increased auxin levels were shown to induce more vertical growth in Arabidopsis root systems [7,26] as well as those of rice and bean [7]. Two studies also characterised the expression of PIN auxin efflux carriers during lateral root development noting dynamic changes in the expression of PIN3, PIN4 and PIN7 [26,27]. Ruiz-Rosquete et al. went on to examine the lateral root GSA- and auxin distribution phenotypes of pin3-4, pin4-3 and pin7-2 single and multiple mutants. This analysis led them to propose a model in which lateral root growth angle in Arabidopsis is explained by reduced gravitropic competence of laterals, attributed principally to the repression of PIN4 and PIN7 in the gravity-sensing columella cells of young laterals [26]. They also confirmed that establishment of the elongation zone is required gravitropic response in Arabidopsis lateral roots. These studies provide important molecular details about the components that are likely contributing to GSA control in roots but on their own cannot account for the patterns of non-vertical growth observed in Arabidopsis roots. This is because, as outlined above, models based solely on differences in gravitropic competence between the primary and lateral roots do not explain the spatio-temporal pattern of lateral root growth over periods of days (see Box 1) nor the ability for lateral roots to reorientate upwards to regain their GSA.

The model of balancing, auxin-dependent gravitropic and antigravitropic offset (AGO) growth components described above for shoot branch GSA control applies equally to lateral roots. Using the same techniques, it was shown that following the removal of a stable gravity reference during horizontal clinorotation lateral root growth is shifted upwards, a response that is also dependent on auxin transport. Again, this finding can account for the maintenance of non-vertical GSAs in laterals roots (Figure 2). In

addition to exogenous auxin inducing more vertical growth in lateral roots [7,26], the analysis of a panel of mutants with higher or lower levels of auxin or TIR1/AFB-Aux/IAA-ARF-mediated auxin response indicated that as in the shoot, auxin controls GSA by negatively regulating the magnitude of the AGO component. This regulation is effected in the gravity-sensing columella cells because alteration in TIR1/AFB-Aux/IAA-ARF-mediated auxin signaling in just these cells is sufficient to modulate lateral root, but not primary root, GSA [Table 1].

The effects of auxin on lateral root growth and the AGO-based model of Roychoudhry et al. raise the possibility that the growth profile of lateral roots could be accounted for by a gradual and discontinuous increase in auxin concentration and/or auxin sensitivity in the tips of lateral roots as they mature. Thus, the increasingly vertical growth of laterals would be attributable to the decreasing magnitude of the AGO component. It is important to point out that this model does not exclude the findings on PIN protein expression during lateral root development described above [26,27] and that at all times, the GSA of the lateral root is the product of the interaction between gravitropic and AGO growth components.

This model of auxin-dependent balancing gravitropic and antigravitropic growth components also offers a way to see how environmental signals might be integrated to shape lateral branch growth. For example, low nitrogen and phosphorus conditions have recently been shown to lead to more vertical crown and lateral root GSA in maize and Arabidopsis [28,29]. For the low phosphate response in Arabidopsis at least, it is possible that these changes are effected through TIR1-dependent auxin signalling, as phosphate deficiency has been shown in increased TIR1 expression in Arabidopsis roots [30] and the effect of low phosphate on lateral root GSA is diminished in the *tir1-1* background (Roychoudhry and Kepinski, unpublished).

Conclusions

The regulation of growth angle is a fascinating and complex problem with the potential for multiple intrinsic and extrinsic factors to contribute to the final angle of growth. Happily, mechanistic understanding is beginning to emerge but there is still a spectacularly vast amount that isn't known about growth angle control. Here we have focused on the regulation of growth angles that are in some way gravity-dependent. Of course, where significant gradients of other important environmental stimuli such as light or water occur, there will often be a shift in growth angle arising from the interaction between gravitropism and phototropism (typically in the shoot) and gravitropism and hydrotropism (typically in the root), the extent of which is dependent on the relative magnitude of the tropic responses involved [31-33]. The precise nature of the interactions between phototropic, hydrotropic, and GSA control mechanisms remain to be determined but it seems likely that the understanding of their molecular basis may well provide new insights into processes underlying the individual tropic growth components as well as their action in combination.

One common theme to the various models of non-vertical branch growth that have been proposed is the central role of auxin and auxin transport. This alone leaves several important open questions. For example, PIN-mediated auxin transport appears to be required for both upward and downward growth in lateral root and shoots. It has been suggested that antagonistic regulation of the polarity of PIN activity in gravity-sensing cells could account for this control [7] but more work is required to understand these mechanisms and of course, why this apparent additional regulation (whatever form it takes) is absent or significantly supressed in the primary organs with near-vertical GSAs.

Part of the wonderfulness referred to in the title of this article stems from the fact that in lateral branches there is a specific requirement to do things differently to the primary axis and these differences have the potential to provide important new insights into the biology of GSA control and gravitropic response. Indeed, it is possible that research focused on gravitropism in the vertical main root and shoot may sometimes have been attempting to rationalise the molecular and cell biological features of graviresponse without consideration of the strong adaptive value of *not* growing vertically upwards and downwards. It is also the case that given the importance of non-vertical branch angles for the capture of the resources required for plant growth it would not be at all surprising if more than one mechanism has arisen that allows gravity-dependent non-vertical growth and in particular, the maintenance of GSAs.

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Through screening for suppressors of the *lazy1* (*la1*) tiller spreading phenotype in rice, the authors identify the *dwarf3* strigolactone signalling mutant that partially rescues the *la1* phenotype. Further, they show that strigolactone signalling and synthesis mutants have increased auxin levels and show enhanced gravitropic curvature compared to wild type and *la1* seedlings. In contrast to *la1*, strigolacatone mutants do not show defects in lateral auxin transport leading the authors to propose that strigolacatones

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 - Control of root system architecture by DEEPER ROOTING 1 increases rice yield under drought conditions. Nature Genetics 2013 (45):9 -1097-1102 The authors characterize an important regulator of seminal root growth angle in rice based on phenotypic differences between IR64 shallow rooting and Kinandang Patong deep rooting rice varieties. The DRO1 gene allele in the IR64 variety contains a single base pair deletion in exon 4 leading to a premature stop codon. DRO1 is expressed in the root tip and the basal region of the shoot. The DRO1 promoter contains a single TGTCTC auxin response element and DRO1 expression was repressed within 30 minutes of auxin treatment. Because auxin transport is not impaired in the IR64 background, the authors propose that reduced gravitropic curvature resulting from the truncated DRO1 allele in this background may result from defects in cell elongation in the distal elongation zone of gravistimulated roots.
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This work describes a model for GSA establishment in young lateral roots of Arabidopsis based on the repression of auxin efflux transporters *PIN4* and *PIN7*. *PIN3* is highly expressed in columella young emerging lateral roots in Arabidopsis and has weaker expression in older roots, while *PIN4* and *PIN7* expression is absent or low in young lateral roots but becoming stronger in older roots. The authors propose a model wherein the ability of a lateral root to grow vertically downward is limited by a deficiency in auxin transport through sequential repression initially of PIN4 and PIN7 and then PIN3.

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Box 1. Gravitropism and GSA control

In non-woody tissues, bending growth to or away from a stimulus is driven largely by asymmetries of auxin concentration and response. In the case of gravitropism, this asymmetry is generated by changes in the subcellular distribution of PIN auxin efflux carriers within the gravity-sensing cells, or statocytes, of the shoot and root (Figure 1) [34,35]. A predominantly downward polarity of PIN-mediated auxin flow out of these cells appears to be linked, in ways that are still entirely unknown, to the sedimentation of starch-rich amyloplasts within each statocyte. Through these

biophysical and molecular events, auxin accumulates on the lower side of a gravitropic organ [34-36]. In roots, this auxin accumulation inhibits cell elongation causing the root tip to grow downwards while in the shoot the reverse is true, auxin accumulation on the lower side of the organ drives cell elongation and so upward growth. Importantly, the magnitude of gravitropic response (as degrees of bending per unit time) increases as the organ is tilted further from the vertical [37,38]. This angle-dependent variation in the magnitude of graviresponse was first analysed by Sachs in the late 1800s [39]. He proposed the so-called sine rule or sine law which states that rate of gravitropic bending is proportional to the sine of the angle of displacement [39]. Subsequent work in a range of species has shown that while the sine rule has limitations, in general it holds well for angles of displacement up to 90° from the vertical [31, 41-44].

The gravitropic setpoint angle, or GSA, is the angle at which an organ is maintained with respect to gravity. The capacity to maintain a GSA has to be inherent in the organ itself; an organ would not be considered to have a GSA if its growth relative to gravity was being maintained by virtue of gravitropic response in another part of the plant to which it is attached. If there is ever any doubt as to whether a particular growth angle is a GSA or not a simple reorientation test will immediately reveal the answer: if upon tilting an organ to a more vertical or less vertical orientation it grows back close its original angle of growth with respect to gravity it is a GSA, if it doesn't, it isn't. Although gravitropism and GSA will often be considered together it is important not to conflate the two. Where stable growth at non-vertical GSAs is maintained for periods of days or even weeks then it is not reasonable to expect differences in the kinetics of graviresponse between primary and laterals branches that are of the order of minutes or hours to account for that sustained period of angled growth.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Gravity-sensing tissues and graviresponse in dicot and monocot plant organs

Gravity sensing occurs in specialised cells known as statocytes in the endodermis of dicot shoots, the pulvini of rice tillers and leaves, and the columella cells of dicot and monocot roots. In these cells gravity is perceived by the sedimentation of dense starch-filled bodies known as amyloplasts. When an organ is moved away from the vertical, the amyloplasts sediment onto the new physical bottom of the cell. This triggers the lateral, downward flow of the plant hormone auxin (blue arrows) leading to the accumulation of auxin in the bottom half of the gravstimulated organ. This increase in auxin concentration leads to differential cell elongation across the top and bottom of the organ ultimately causing upward curvature in the shoot and downward curvature in the root.

Figure 2. Non-vertical GSAs are maintained by means of antagonistic interaction between auxin-dependent gravitropic and antigravitropic offset components

(A) Lateral roots and shoots are maintained at their GSAs by antagonistic interaction of two opposing auxin-dependent growth components: gravitropic growth (blue arrow) that would otherwise cause bending to the vertical and counteracting antigravitropic offset (AGO) growth (red arrow). Stable non-vertical growth occurs when the gravitropic and AGO components are in equilibrium. (B) When an organ is moved to an angle more vertical than its GSA, the magnitude of the gravitropic component is reduced (see Box 1) while the AGO remains constant. This relative magnitude of the AGO then promotes growth in a direction that returns the organ

back towards its original GSA (C). In contrast, when an organ is moved to an angle that is less vertical than its GSA, the magnitude of the gravitropic component increases (Box 1) while again, the antigravitropic offset remains constant. This increase in gravitropic response brings the organ back towards its GSA (C). In all cases, the orientation of the branch in the gravity field is continuously monitored by events within the gravity-sensing cells, with the magnitude of the gravitropic growth component being adjusted accordingly as the organs approach their GSA.

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Figure 1: Gravity-sensing in dicot and monocot plant organs

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Figure 2: Non-vertical GSAs are maintained by means of antagonistic interaction between a sine-law dependent gravitropic auxin flux and an antigravitropic offset component

Protein	Structure	Species	Mutant(s)	Phenotype
IDD14, IDD15, IDD16	Conserved ID domain with four zinc finger motifs	Arabidopsis	idd14-1 idd15-5/sgr5 idd16-RNAi	Loss-of-function mutations have significantly less vertical lateral branch GSAs
LPA1	Ortholog of AtIDD15. Conserved ID domain with four zinc finger motifs. Also contains a EAR domain conferring transcriptional repression activity	Rice	lpa1	Loss-of-function mutants have increased tiller and leaf angles
AtLAZY1	Two NLS domains with a single LxLxL EAR motif	Arabidopsis	lazy1	Loss-of-function mutations have significantly less vertical lateral branch GSAs and reduced gravitropism
OsLAZY1	Single transmembrane domain and NLS domain	Rice	la1	Loss-of -function mutants have increased tiller and leaf angle
ZmLAZY1/PROSTRATE STEM1	Single transmembrane and NLS domain	Maize	Zmla1/ps1	Loss-of-function mutant has significantly reduced shoot gravitropism
AtTAC1	Conserved IGT motif in domain II, belongs to same gene family as <i>LAZY1</i>	Arabidopsis	tac1	Loss-of-function mutants have significantly more vertical lateral branch GSAs
OsTAC1	Ortholog of AtTAC1 containing conserved IGT motif	Rice	Ostac1	Loss-of-function mutants have increased tiller angles
PROG1	C2H2 type Zinc finger motif	Rice	prog1	Loss-of-function mutants have increased tiller angle
DWARF3	F-box component of SCF E3 ubiquitin ligase complex for strigolactone perception	Rice	dwarf3/d3	Identified in a screen for suppressors of the <i>lazy1</i> phenotype, loss-of-function mutants have short compact tiller and show enhanced gravitropic responses in seedlings shoots
DRO1	Contains two putative N- myristoylation sites	Rice	dro1	Loss-of-function mutants have a shallow rooting angle

	associated with lipid modification			and reduced root gravitropism in seedlings
TIR1	F box auxin receptor that forms part of the SCF ^{TIR1/AFB} E3 ubiquitin ligase complex	Arabidopsis	tir1-1	Loss-of-function mutations have a less vertical GSA phenotype

Table 1: List of proteins with described structures that are known to regulate root and shoot branching angles across a range of dicot and monocot plant species. (NLS = Nuclear Localisation Signal, EAR = Ethylene-responsive element binding factor-associated amphiphilic repression)