

# The genetic basis of shoot architecture in soybean

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Abstract Shoot architecture refers to the threedimensional body plan of the above ground organs of the plant. The patterning of this body plan results from the tight genetic control of the size and maintenance of meristems, the initiation of axillary growth, and the timing of developmental phase transition. Variation in shoot architecture can result in dramatic differences in plant productivity and/or grain yield due to their effects on light interception, photosynthetic efficiency, response to agronomic inputs, and environmental adaptation. The fine-tuning of shoot architecture has consequently been of great interest to plant breeders, driving the need for deeper understanding of the genes and molecular mechanisms governing these traits. In soybean, the world's most important oil and protein crop, major components of shoot architecture include stem growth habit, plant height, branch angle, branch number, leaf petiole angle, and the size and shape of leaves. Key genes underlying some of these traits have been identified to integrate hormonal, developmental, and environmental signals modulating the growth and orientation of shoot organs. Here we summarize the current

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Center for Plant Biology, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN, USA e-mail: maj@purdue.edu knowledge and recent advances in the understanding of the genetic control of these important architectural traits in soybean.

**Keywords** Branch angle · Branch number · Ideotype · Leaf shape · Plant architecture · Stem growth habit · Soybean canopy

# Introduction

The kingdom plantae presents an enormous range of shapes and sizes that allow plants to fill niches in their ecosystems. Various shoot body plans have evolved in plants to efficiently harvest light, convert it to biomass, and reproduce (Reinhardt and Kuhlemeier 2002). The spatial separation of meristematic zones of cell division and differentiation from zones of mature cells is a key factor in the proliferation of complex and diverse vascular plant body types from a comparatively simple common ancestor (Sussex and Kerk 2001). These apical, intercalary, axillary, and reproductive meristems produce the organs that define the plant body structure. The growth, positioning, and patterning of these organs are regulated by a series of networks of proteins, miRNAs, and hormones such as auxin, strigalactones (SLs), cytokinins (CKs), gibberellins (GAs), and brassinosteroids (BRs) (Guo et al. 2020b).

Shoot architecture in plants is inherently plastic, responding to available water and nutrient resources,

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competition from neighboring plants, herbivory, wind, and other environmental stresses (Wang et al. 2018). For example, plants may shift resources away from the shoot and towards the root in response to low water stress or reduce lateral branch growth in response to nutrient deficiency or competition for sunlight (Tiechmann and Muhr 2015; Wang et al. 2018). Despite this plasticity, a substantial proportion of the observed variation in shoot architecture between and within species is driven by genetic differences (Reinhardt and Kuhlemeier 2002). Plant breeders have exploited such genetic differences to increase yields or modify plant body types to suit modern agricultural practices and technologies. One of the most notable examples is the "green revolution" spurred by the development of high-yielding semi-dwarf wheat (Triticum spp. L.) and rice (Oryza sativa L.) varieties by Norman Borlaug and other plant breeders. The sturdier stems of the semi-dwarf wheat and rice varieties did not lodge after the application of synthetic fertilizers and allowed for dramatic gains in yield (Khush 2001). The semi-dwarf varieties also could be planted at higher densities without succumbing to disease (Liu et al. 2020). The semi-dwarf phenotype results from allelic variation in GA signal transduction and biosynthesis genes in wheat and rice, respectively (Hedden 2003). GA is a naturally occurring plant growth regulator most notable for its role in promoting shoot elongation (Marth et al. 1956). In hexaploid bread wheat, additive change-offunction alleles of homoeologous genes, Rht-B1b and Rht-D1d, cause insensitivity to GA (Hedden 2003). In rice, multiple recessive, loss-of-function alleles in a single gene, Sd1, impair GA biosynthesis (Hedden 2003). This landmark event in the history of agriculture has averted potentially catastrophic famine and demonstrates the impact that modifying plant shoot architecture can have on crop production (Pingali 2012).

Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.) is the most valuable oil crop in the world, with a production value of more than \$120 billion in 2020, the most recent year for which data is available (Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO), 2020). It is an indispensable crop for meeting the oil and protein meal needs of a growing global population. As with other crops, the processes of domestication and selection have sculpted the shoot architecture of soybean. Wild soybean, *Glycine soja*, grows prostrate along the ground, always or nearly always displays indeterminate stem growth, and has comparatively small leaves, flowers, pods, and seeds. Along with other characteristic domestication syndrome traits including loss of shattering and increased seed coat permeability, domesticated soybean presents upright, gravitropic growth, variability in its main stem growth habit, and larger vegetative and floral organs (Sedivy et al. 2017).

Despite impressive gains achieved by the green revolution and other modifications to plant architectural traits in maize (Zea mays L.), wheat, and rice, research into the genetic basis of these traits in soybean has been comparatively limited. Although soybean yields have steadily increased over the past 9 decades, with an estimated two-thirds of the increase coming from genetic improvement of cultivars (Specht et al. 2014), there has been no great yield breakthrough on par with the green revolution. Nonetheless, key soybean architectural traits such as stem growth habit (i.e., determinacy), plant height, branch number, branch angle (compactness), leaf petiole angle, and leaf size and shape have been genetically dissected. The remainder of this review will describe the current knowledge of the genetic control of soybean shoot architecture, providing a foundation for researchers seeking to understand and improve upon these traits using modern molecular breeding techniques.

# Stem growth habit

Flowering plants can be classified according to the timing of their transition from vegetative to reproductive growth. Plants with discreet reproductive and vegetative growth stages are described as having a determinate growth habit. In determinate plants the shoot apical meristems lose their undifferentiated status and differentiate into a terminal inflorescence (McGarry and Ayre 2012). Plants with indeterminate growth habits in contrast maintain undifferentiated shoot apical meristems that continue vegetative growth even after the induction of flowering elsewhere on the plant. There are both indeterminate and determinate domesticated soybean varieties, as well as those which are classified as semideterminate (Fig. 1). Semideterminate soybeans constitute an intermediate phenotype where vegetative growth at the shoot apical meristems continues for some period of time while flowering is occurring on axillary meristems before shifting to floral growth. Determinate soybean varieties have been found to produce more flowers at a time but over a shorter total period of flowering than indeterminate varieties (Kuroda et al. 1998; Yoshida et al. 1983). Determinate and semideterminate varieties possess characteristic terminal clusters of pods in contrast to indeterminate varieties which have main stems that gradually become thinner and produce fewer pods per node as the growing season progresses (Heatherly and Smith 2004). Determinate and semideterminate varieties normally have shorter, thicker stems with less nodes but more pods per node than indeterminate varieties grown in the same environments (Heatherly and Smith 2004). Stem growth habit is a major contributor to soybean height, with determinate and



Fig. 1 Exemplification of three categories of stem growth habit in soybean: indeterminate (a), semideterminate (b), and determinate (c)

semideterminate varieties being respectively 45 to 60% and 12 to 15% shorter than indeterminate varieties when grown in the same environments (Bernard 1972).

These differences in main stem growth habit constitute an important factor in adaptation to regional environments. Determinate soybeans are often preferred in regions with long growing seasons, such as the southern USA or southern China. Indeterminate and semideterminate soybeans meanwhile are grown in higher latitudes where less time is available for separate vegetative and floral stages. Commercial soybean cultivars in the midwestern corn belt of the United States are primarily indeterminate, while farmers in Northeastern China have transitioned to growing semideterminate varieties (McWilliams et al. 1999; Liu et al. 2008). Studies comparing seed yield between determinate, semideterminate, and indeterminate varieties have shown significant results based upon geographic location and genetic background, with each growth habit type conferring advantages and disadvantages in different scenarios (Beaver et al., 1985; Chang et al., 1982; Cooper 1981; Foley et al., 1986). Determinate and semideterminate lines have been consistently found to lodge less than indeterminate varieties (Foley et al., 1986; Hicks et al., 1969; Wilcox and Sediyama 1981). It has been suggested that tall, later flowering or faster growing determinate soybeans which produce more nodes before flowering possess a yield advantage because they combine the pods per node and lodging advantages of determinate cultivars without a reduction in node number (Cober and Tanner 1995; Maw and Nelson, 1988), while others have hypothesized that semideterminate varieties could achieve this ideal balance (Ping et al. 2014). Some studies have reported that indeterminate cultivars are able to recover more fully from low water stress (Villalobos-Rodriguez and Shibles, 1985) and defoliation (Fehr et al. 1977; Goli and Weaver 1986). In contrast, Schug et al. (2022) found no difference in response to defoliation by feeding from the lepidopteran pest Helicoverpa zea between determinate and indeterminate varieties, and Neyshabouri and Hatfield (1986) found that semideterminate varieties performed better under drought stress than indeterminate varieties.

Classical genetic analysis determined that two major genes are responsible for the variation in soybean main stem growth habit (Bernard 1972). The first, Dt1, specifies determinate or indeterminate growth in soybean and the indeterminate allele Dt1 is completely or incompletely dominant over the determinate allele *dt1* (Bernard 1972; Woodworth 1932). Another allele of Dt1, dt1-t, results in determinate plants which are taller and look more like those classified as semideterminate (Thompson et al. 1997). At least four recessive loss-of-function mutations (dt1ta, dt1-bb, dt1-tb, and dt1-ab) result in determinate growth, and were selected for by early farmers during or soon after domestication (Tian et al. 2010). Analysis of Chinese soybean landraces revealed that the dominant functional allele was favored in northern China and the loss of function alleles were favored in southern China, while both alleles are roughly equally distributed in central China (Tian et al. 2010).

Dt1 was identified to be the ortholog of Arabidopsis thaliana TERMINAL FLOWERING 1 (TFL1) and encodes a phosphatidyl ethanolamine-binding protein (PEBP) that maintains indeterminate growth at the shoot apical meristems (Liu et al. 2010; Tian et al. 2010). PEBPs are a large and ancient plant protein family that includes homologs of TFL1 as well as homologs of Arabidopsis FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT) and MOTHER OF FT AND TFL1 (MFT) (Wang et al. 2015). The role of TFL1 in maintaining indeterminate stem growth is highly conserved, and mutations in its homologs are the source of determinate growth habits in many species from diverse families including cucumber (Cucumis sativus L.), pea (Pisum sativum L.), rapeseed (Brassica napus L.), and tomato (Solanum lycopersicum L.) (Liu et al. 2021; Njogu et al. 2020; Foucher et al. 2003; Jia et al. 2019; Pnueli et al. 1998). Dtl can complement Arabidopsis tfll mutants (Tian et al. 2010).

A series of experiments have been conducted to understand how *Dt1* functions at the molecular level. Yue et al. (2021) found that *Dt1* functions to repress floral identity genes in shoot apical meristems including homologs of *Arabidopsis AGAMOUS (AG), AP1, LEAFY (LFY),* and *PISTILLATA (P1),* among others, while *dt1* is nonfunctional and cannot repress these genes. In *Arabidopsis, TFL1* maintains indeterminate main stem growth as a transcriptional cofactor to *FD,* a bzip transcription factor. Yeast two-hybrid screening demonstrated that *Dt1* directly interacts with the *FD* homolog *GmFDc1,* and not any other *FD* homologs in soybean. Another PEBP, GmFT5a, encoded by an ortholog of *Arabidopsis Flowering Time (FT)* which acts as a mobile florigen moving from leaves to shoot apical meristems to promote floral transition, also binds to GmFDc1, but has the opposite effect of Dt1, increasing the expression of floral identity genes. Dt1 also forms a feedback loop with the MADS-Domain floral integrator GmAP1 whereby the Dt1-FDc1 complex directly binds to and downregulates expression of GmAP1 which in turn can directly bind to and downregulate Dt1. Soybean has two functional orthologs of Arabidopsis FT, GmFT5a, and GmFT2a, although when each was constitutively overexpressed in soybean only GmFt5a conferred terminal flowering at shoot apical meristems (Takeshima et al., 2019). Main stem growth habit in soybean thus results from the competition between two PEBPs with antagonistic functions, Dt1 and GmFT5a, for binding with GmFDc1 to regulate floral identity genes in shoot apical meristems.

A second gene, Dt2, specifies semideterminate growth in Dt1/Dt1 backgrounds and at this locus the semideterminate allele Dt2 is dominant over the indeterminate growth allele dt2 (Bernard 1972). dt1 is epistatic to Dt2 and dt2, so in dt1/dt1 backgrounds the phenotype is determinate regardless of which alleles are present at the Dt2 locus. Dt2 was identified by map-based cloning to be a MADS box transcription factor in the APETALA1/SQUAMOSA (AP1/SQUA) subfamily which also contains GmAP1, although Dt2 is not the functional equivalent of Arabidopsis AP1 (Ping et al. 2014). A dominant gain-of-function mutation results in the functional allele Dt2, the protein encoded by which represses the expression of *Dt1* by binding directly to the *Dt1* promoter (Liu et al. 2016). Overexpression of Dt2 in the indeterminate cultivar Thorne resulted in semideterminate growth, and among transgenic events higher expression of Dt2 was associated with a higher degree of stem termination and shorter height (Ping et al. 2014). Expression differences resulting from natural variation in the Dt2 promoter between different soybean varieties carrying distinct versions of the dominant semideterminate Dt2 allele were also suggested to cause height differences and differing degrees of stem termination (Kou et al. 2021). Chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq) revealed that in addition to repressing Dt1, Dt2 plays a larger role in main stem growth habit by acting as a transcriptional activator of floral activators including GmSOC1, GmAP1a, GmAP1b, GmFUL, GmSEP1, GmSEP3, GmSPL4a,

GmSPL4b, and GmSPL12 (Zhang et al. 2019). Liu et al. (2016) found that spatiotemporal expression of Dt2 and GmSOC1 in the center of the shoot apical meristem was critical for the repression of Dt1 in the early vegetative growth stages of soybean. Dt2 stimulates the production of GmSOC1, which represses Dt1 by binding to the regulatory region of Dt1 and was also found to directly interact with Dt2. Semideterminacy is rare or absent in wild soybeans, suggesting that Dt2 is a recent mutation which may have occurred post-domestication (Ping et al. 2014). Unlike Dt1/TFL1, no equivalent mechanism of stem termination mediated by the spatiotemporal expression of Dt2 has been described in other plant species. Depending on genetic background and environmental conditions, the terminal growth habit conferred by *dt1* may be hard to distinguish from the terminal growth habit conferred by Dt2, and the classification semideterminate is therefore a genotypic class denoting main stem termination not caused by dt1/dt1 in addition to being a phenotypic class (Bernard 1972).

#### **Plant height**

Plant height is determined by internode number and length, and is most important in soybean for its impact on yield and lodging (Niu et al. 2021). Shorter plants are less prone to lodging but often sacrifice pod numbers due to having fewer total nodes. Soybean cultivar heights listed in the germplasm resource information center range from 14 to 334 cm with an average of 87.97 cm (USDA ARS 2022). Height is a complex trait with many genes inolved, particularly genes involved in GA biosynthesis and signaling (Niu et al. 2021).

The past half-decade has seen an outpouring of studies describing manipulations of genes to modify soybean height. Apart from Dt1 and Dt2, several loci affecting soybean height have been reported. Li et al. (2018) mapped an EMS-induced dwarfing mutation conferring reduced plant height and shortened internodes, GmDW, to Glyma.08G165100, which encodes an ent-kaurene synthase. A single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in GmDW disrupts GA biosynthesis, and the phenotype can be rescued by the application of GA. CRISPR/Cas9 was used to create quradruple mutants of the four homologs of the MYB TF LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL

(LHY) (GmLHY1a, GmLHY1b, GmLHY2a, and GmL-HY2b), which resulted in shorter height from reduced GA levels (Cheng et al. 2019). Creating quadruple mutants of the homologs of the flowering time MADS Box TF GmAP1 increased soybean height, while overexpressing GmAP1a reduced plant height (Chen et al. 2020). Yang et al., 2021a, b report that overexpression of the R2R3 MYB TF GmGAMYB (Glyma.13g187500) increased internode length and made plants taller and more sensitive to GA application. Short Tandem Target Mimic (STTM) mediated knockdown of GmmiR166 resulted in dwarfing due to down regulation of genes involved in GA biosynthesis including GmGA1 (Glyma.09G149200) and GmGA2 (Glyma.20G153400) and increased expression of GmGA2ox2 (Glyma.10G010700) which contributes to GA catabolysis (Zhao et al. 2022). Overexpression of the RAV TF GmRav (Glyma.10G204400) reduced soybean height and shortened internodes by binding to two CAACA motifs in the promoter of GmGA3ox (Glyma.13G361700) to reduce its expression (Xue et al. 2022) An EMS-induced mutation of GmIAA27 (Glyma.09G193000), which encodes an AUX/IAA protein, caused dwarfing, showing a role for auxin in determining plant height in addition to GA (Su et al. 2022).

Several studies have also characterized natural variation in soybean height. Sun et al. (2012) compiled a meta-analysis of seventy-eight soybean height QTL from twelve studies completed in the pre-reference genome era and identified twelve consensus OTL reported across many studies. Another meta-analysis reported 182 QTL for soybean height (Yin et al. 2017). Lee et al. (2015) described six QTLs for plant height using a recombinant inbred line (RIL) population which explained 17 to 18% of the phenotypic variation across 2 years. Li et al. (2019) used QTL mapping and bulked segregant analysis (BSA) to locate six loci associated with plant height and proposed several candidate genes which may underlie them including Glyma.04G244200 which encodes GA20ox, a key GA biosynthesis enzyme. Xue et al. (2019) mapped QTL for height in a four-way RIL population at a weekly interval and identified a total of thirty-six height QTL across several developmental stages.

# **Branch number**

Branch number is an important trait for determining soybean yield. Branch number is most important for helping to determine the total number of pods per plant, although less branches are desirable in high-density plantings (Shim et al. 2017). Increased branch number can help compensate for yield loss in lower-density soybean plantings, which are preferred in some regions to reduce seed cost (Shim et al. 2017). Lateral branches arise when axillary meristems are initiated around leaf axils and then either remain dormant or continue outgrowth (Wang and Jiao 2018). The components of the gene and hormonal regulatory networks governing the initiation of branches have been extensively studied in other plant species (Wang et al. 2018). In general, auxins and strigalactones inhibit lateral bud outgrowth while cytokinin directly promotes it (Ongaro and Leyser 2008). In Arabidopsis thaliana, auxin efflux from the leaf axil allows for elevated expression of SHOOT MERISTEMLESS (STM) which is associated with active cell division followed by the expression of WUSCHEL (WUS) and CLAVATA3 (CLV3) which establish the stem cell organizing center and central zone, respectively (Xin et al. 2017). Several transcription factors have been identified to regulate the initiation of axillary meristems and subsequent shoot branching including LATERAL SUPPRESSOR (LAS), REVOLUTA (REV), CUP-SHAPED COTYLEDON (CUC), and REGULATOR OF AXILLARY MERISTEMS (RAX) in Arabidopsis (Wang and Jiao 2018). An indispensable regulator of shoot branching conserved across many species is BRANCHED1 (BRC1), a TCP transcription factor which integrates hormonal and environmental signals and acts as a repressor of bud outgrowth (Wang et al., 2019a, b).

More than 60 QTLs for branch number in soybean have been reported, often in multiple studies (Shim et al. 2017; He et al. 2014; Yang et al., 2021a, b). Branch number in soybean is a complex, quantitative trait controlled by many genes as demonstrated by the fact that in each of these studies the number of branches in the  $F_2$  populations have approximated a normal distribution, ranging from zero to more than fifteen branches on the main stem (Shim et al. 2017; Yang et al., 2021a, b). Chen et al. (2007) reported 12 QTLs specifying branch number in an

F<sub>10</sub> recombinant inbred line (RIL) population containing 154 lines. Shim et al. (2017) performed QTL mapping for branch number in a population of two hundred  $F_6$  RILs. They identified 4 QTLs for branch number, including one on chromosome 6 containing Glyma06g23410, a homolog of A. thaliana BRC1. Shim et al. (2019) further used GWAS to identify significant regions associated with branch number including the region corresponding to GmBRC1. They developed high-branching and low-branching near isogenic lines (NILs) which differed only at the GmBRC1 locus and found that Glyma06g23410 was expressed at a significantly lower level in the shoot apices of the high-branching NIL compared to the low-branching NIL, providing further evidence that Glyma06g23410 is GmBRC1 and acts as a negative regulator of lateral branch development.

Modifications to soybean branch number have been achieved through the manipulation of the micro-RNA GmmiR156b and the transcription factor gene GmWRINKLED1B (GmWRI1b) (Guo et al., 2020a; Sun et al., 2019). Overexpression of the microRNA GmmiR156b resulted in increased branch number (Sun et al. 2020). miR156s have been shown to regulate branching in maize and rice by targeting members of the SQUAMOSA PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE (SPL) family (Du et al. 2017). Sun et al. (2020) found that GmmiR156b functions to promote the initiation and development of SAMs and AMs by negative regulation of several SPL homologs including GmSPL9d. Overexpression of GmSPL9d in Arabidopsis reduced branch number and a series of protein-protein interaction assays demonstrated that it could directly interact with the meristem regulatory proteins GmWUSa and GmWUSb (Sun et al., 2019). Additionally, CRISPR/Cas9 induced knockouts of GmSPL9d resulted in increased branch number (Bao et al. 2019). Overexpression of *GmWRI1b*, which had been previously characterized for its role in fatty acid biosynthesis, significantly increased branch numbers (Guo et al. 2020a).

Genes related to flowering time and stem growth habit often have pleotropic effects on branch number. Sayama et al. (2010) explored the relationship between flowering time and branch number by carrying out QTL mapping for branch number in a population of 179 RILs grown in two environments both within the whole population and divided among four maturity groups. Among 6 QTLs identified, they found that the two QTLs with the largest effect on branch number mapped to the E1 and E3 flowering time loci. Interestingly, the E1 and E3 alleles specifying later maturity had opposite effects on branch number, with the former associated with a greater number of branches and the latter associated with fewer. The dominant allele of the growth habit gene Dt2 which confers semideterminacy has also been implicated as a negative regulator of branch number. Virdi et al. (2021) identified a QTL for branch number in low LD with Dt2 and posited that this could be a novel QTL distinct from Dt2 or could be the Dt2 locus itself. Liang et al. (2022) reported a GWAS which identified Dt2 as a major gene specifying soybean branch number. Whether this phenotypic change is simply an indirect effect of the change to stem growth habit or a separate pleiotropic function of Dt2 remains unclear. Additionally, whether the functional Dt2 allele results in altered branch numbers between the environments where it was favored by selection compared to those environments where it was not favored by selection or simply helps to maintain a more constant branch number across environments also remains to be investigated.

#### **Branch and petiole angles**

In soybeans, the layout of the branches and leaves determines the compactness of the overall plant body and contributes to the canopy coverage, the proportion of ground covered by above ground plant organs

Fig. 2 Exemplification of three categories of branch angle in soybean: narrow (a), intermediate (b), and wide (c)

(Clark et al., 2022; Virdi et al. 2021). Greater canopy coverage and more rapid closure of the crop canopy result in increased interception of light, driving photosynthesis and ultimately, yield. It also aids in the suppression of early-season weeds which compete for resources. Developing more compact crops allows for more plants per unit area, a major component of yield and manipulations of plant architecture facilitating increases in plant populations, has been a key driver of yield gains in wheat, rice, and maize (Liu et al. 2020). In maize, selection for narrower leaf angles enabled greater planting densities, reduced shading, and more efficient capture of sunlight (Lambert and Johnson 1978). Selective breeding for reduced tiller angle in rice has resulted in extremely compact plants that retain efficient light interception under high-density plantings (Zhang et al., 2019). Soybeans display considerable variation in their branch angles and can be classified as wide branch angle (WBA), narrow branch angle (NBA), or intermediate branch angle (IBA) (Fig. 2). Most elite cultivars possess narrower branch angles than those found in landraces and wild soybeans, suggesting that more compact plant architecture is beneficial for increasing yield (Clark et al., 2022; Harder et al. 2007).

The genetic control of leaf and tiller angle in the cereal crops has been studied extensively. Many QTL have been identified which influence tiller angle in rice including (*LAZY1* (*LA1*) (Li et al. 2007), *LOOSE PLANT ARCHITECTURE1* (*LPA1*) (Wu et al. 2013), *TILLER ANGLE CONTROL1* (*TAC1*) (Yu et al. 2007), *TAC3* and *DWARF2* (Dong et al. 2016) and



leaf angle in maize including ZmTAC1, Upright Plant Architecture1 and 2 (UPA1 and UPA2), Increased Leaf Inclination1 (ZmILI1), and ZmCLA4 (Tian et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2014). The genes which underly these loci are mostly involved in the hormonal regulation of either plant responses to gravity or to the establishment and size of the structures connecting the leaf blade and sheath (Cao et al. 2022; Luo et al. 2016; Toyota and Gilroy 2013). For example, in rice and maize the LAZY family are regulators of the positioning of PIN auxin transporters in response to gravity (Jiao et al. 2021). Once plants perceive gravity through sedimentation of amyloplasts, they direct shoot growth away from the pull of gravity through asymmetric auxin accumulation leading to differential elongation of cells (Blancaflor 2013). la1 mutants display no defects in amyloplast sedimentation but fail to establish asymmetrical auxin distributions, leading to wide leaf angles and a spread-out body plan (Li et al. 2007).

Less is known about the genetic regulation of branch angle in soybean. Clark et al. (2022) crossed a WBA RIL (132° angle of nearly opposite branches relative to the main stem) derived from an interspecific cross with G. soja with an NBA cultivar (67°). They found that WBA was completely dominant over NBA and identified a single major QTL, *qGmBa1*, underlying soybean branch angle. This QTL was further validated in a subset of the soybean nested association mapping (NAM) population (Song et al. 2017) consisting of 140 RILs derived from a cross between a WBA landrace and an NBA elite cultivar (Clark et al., 2022). These results combined with reports of QTLs in the same region underlying canopy coverage suggest that the gene underlying *qGmBa1* may be responsible for most of the variation observed in soybean branch angles (Xavier et al. 2017; Virdi et al. 2021). Although the inheritance of *qGmBa1* follows a typical qualitative single gene pattern, the quantitative nature of branch angles in natural populations suggests other genes with smaller effects also contribute to this trait.

Leaf petiole angle (LPA) also contributes to soybean canopy structure and light interception. Gamma ray induced mutagenesis of *Increased Leaf Petiole Angle1(GmILPA1)*, which encodes an APC8-like protein, resulted in shorter petioles with larger LPA (Gao et al. 2017). The modification in LPA resulted from the mutant having a smaller pulvinus, a motor organ at the base of the petiole. The pulvinus controls nyctinastic movement in response to changing water levels, which was reduced in the Gmilp1 mutants. GmILP1 regulates cell division in the pulvinus, as part of a putative anaphase-promoting complex where it directly interacts with GmAPC13a (Gao et al. 2017). As was observed in rice and maize leaf angles, auxin asymmetry also affects soybean LPA. Zhang et al. (2022) found that CRISPR-Cas9 induced triple and double mutations of Gmpinlabc and Gmpin1bc resulted in reduced LPA, while double mutation of Gmpin1de had the opposite effect. High transcript levels of GmPIN1a and GmPIN1c were found in the base of the petiole where auxin concentrations were high, while elevated levels of isoflavones were found in the upper portion of the leaf. Increasing levels of isoflavonoids by multiple methods was also found to disrupt the asymmetric distribution of the GmPIN proteins and resulted in smaller LPAs. Chen et al. (2021) found that overexpressing the TF GmMYB14 resulted in changes to plant architecture including dwarfing, reduced leaf size, and narrower LPA. These changes were mediated by upregulation of genes involved in the biosynthesis of flavonoids, isoflavonoids, and lignins, as well as genes involved in the auxin and brassinosteriod pathways. In particular, GmMYB14 binds to the promoter of a BRASSI-NOSTEROID-INSENSITIVE **ENHANCED** 1 1 (BEN1) homolog involved in BR catabolism, leading to depleted BR levels and reduced growth. The links between these three studies of LPA need to be further understood but each demonstrates the power of modern genetic tools to alter plant architecture for crop improvement.

# Leaf size and shape

In addition to LPA, the dimensions and shapes of leaves can have large effects on plant yield by influencing photosynthetic rates through altered light interception and gas exchange (Mathan et al. 2016). After emergence, the first two soybean nodes after the cotyledons are simple leaves in opposite phyllotaxy (often referred to as the unifoliate leaves), with subsequent leaves normally being compound with three leaflets (referred to as trifoliate) and in alternate phyllotaxy (Yoshikawa et al., 2013). Soybean leaf shapes can be classified based upon the length-to-width ratio of the leaflets; from roundest to most narrow the categories are oval ( $\leq 2$ ), ovate (2.1–3), lanceolate (3.1-4), linear (4.1-5), and ultra linear  $(\geq 5.1)$  (Chen and Nelson 2004) (Fig. 3). Tamang et al. (2022) explored the variation in soybean leaf morphological and anatomical traits and found that the ratio of leaflet length to width ranged from 1.1 to 3.2. They also reported that narrow leaves had greater gas exchange and photosynthetic rates per unit area compared to wider leaves as a result of being thicker with a greater proportion of photosynthesizing mesophyll cells. As with stem growth habit, variation in leaf shape is associated with adaptation to different environments. Narrower leaflets are more common in higher latitudes in both wild and domesticated soybean (Tamang et al. 2022; Yan et al. 2014).

Many of the leaf morphology genes which have been characterized in plants affect cellular division or expansion (Mathan et al. 2016). A single locus, *Ln*, was identified by classical genetic analysis to determine leaf shape, with lines possessing the genotype *Ln/Ln* having broad leaves, *ln/ln* narrow, and heterozygous *Ln/ln* being intermediate (Dinkins et al. 2002). Fine mapping placed *Ln* to be *Glyma.20g116200*, a homolog of *Arabidopsis thaliana JAGGED* (*JAG*), and was thus designated *GmJAG1* (Jeong et al. 2011; Jeong et al. 2012). *AtJAG* encodes a zinc family protein that when mutated results in serrated leaves and narrow floral organs (Ohno et al. 2004). *AtJAG* 



Fig. 3 Variation in leaf shape and size among RILs derived from a cross between cultivated and wild soybeans

functions as a direct repressor of CLAVATA1 and other genes involved in meristem and shoot organ development, as well as genes involved in entry into the S-phase of the cell cycle (Schiessl et al. 2014). Both the broad and narrow leaf alleles of GmJAG1 display similar expression levels and are expressed most highly in shoot meristems and open flowers (Jeong et al. 2012). In soybean, a single nucleotide substitution within the EAR motif of GmJAG1 is responsible for the difference between the Ln and ln phenotypes (Jeong et al. 2012). Both GmJAG1 and its soybean paralog GmJAG2 (Glyma.10g273800) were able to complement the jag-3 mutant when overexpressed in Arabidopsis thaliana, although the natural function of GmJAG2 or whether it plays any role in soybean leaflet shape is unclear (Jeong et al. 2012). Interestingly, the Ln gene GmJAG1 also exerts a pleiotropic effect on seed number per pod (NSPP) number, with the narrow leaf *ln* allele being associated with a greater proportion of four-seeded pods, a relationship that was first observed nearly 90 years ago (Takahashi 1934; Sayama et al. 2017).

In addition to the Ln locus, many QTLs for soybean leaf shape have been reported. Mian et al. (1998) identified four significant QTLs associated with leaf area in a population of 120  $F_4$ -derived inbred lines. Orf et al. (1999) developed three RIL populations and reported several significant QTLs for leaf width, leaf length, and leaf area, although none was common to all three populations. Yamanaka et al. (2001) divided leaf shape into principal components and reported seven distinct QTL for components of leaf shape and six for leaf area. The QTL with the largest effect on leaf area in this study overlapped with QTLs for the first and fourth principal components of leaf shape. Kim et al. (2005) reported QTLs in two biparental RIL populations associated with leaf length, width, and the length/width ratio. Unlike most other studies listed here, Kim et al. (2005) distinguished between terminal (the central leaflet of the trifoliate) and lateral leaflet, and surprisingly, found unique loci affecting lateral leaflet dimensions but not terminal leaf dimensions and vice versa. Jun et al., 2014performed QTL mapping for leaf traits in 94  $F_{7.9}$  RILs derived from a biparental cross and reported 10 and 7 significant loci for leaf shape and leaf area, respectively. Wang et al. (2019ab1999; Yamanaka et al. 2001; Kim et al. 2005; Wang et al., 2019ab) explored QTLs for leaf area, leaf length, leaf width, and leaf shape in two biparental populations and identified a total of fourteen significant loci. Several leaf trait QTL are common across these studies including a locus on chromosome nineteen reported by at least four (Orf et al. ).

Wild soybean displays a greater range of variation for leaf size and shape than what is found in *G. max* germplasm, with length to width ratios ranging from 1.3 to 6.2 and lengths ranging from 3 to 14 cm (Chen and Nelson 2004). QTL mapping in two biparental RIL populations created by crossing wild soybean with the elite cultivar Williams 82 revealed nineteen total QTLs for leaf size and 9 for leaf shape (Swarm et al. 2019). While most of the wild soybean alleles in this study had negative effects on leaf size, the *G soja* allele of a QTL on chromosome 6 (*qLSZ-6*) detected in both populations had a positive effect (Swarm et al. 2019).

# Discussion

Donald (1968) proposed a method and philosophy of crop improvement based around ideal crop forms which he called "ideotypes." A vital component of Donald's approach was a recognition that certain plant architectural phenotypes offer predictable advantages in a particular environment and that the combination of these beneficial traits could constitute a model plant that crop breeders could strive towards. The studies outlined in this review provide a starting point in the goal of developing soybean cultivars with optimized shoot architecture. Rapid advancements in genomic sequencing, genome editing, and other molecular tools offer an unprecedented opportunity for characterizing the genetic control of key architectural traits and translating that knowledge into useful applications for soybean breeders, farmers, and consumers. It has been proposed that targeting multiple genes responsible for architectural traits with the CRISPR/Cas9 endonuclease system could be an effective strategy for developing soybeans with improved architectural traits (Guo et al., 2020a, b). Proof of concept for this approach in other crop species include targeted mutagenesis of BnaMAX1 homologs in Brassica napus resulting in higheryielding semi-dwarf plants with increased branch number, and the knockout of TaSPL8 in wheat resulting in higher yields through reduced leaf angle and increased spike number (Liu et al. 2019; Zheng et al. 2020). In soybean, CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knockout of *GmJAG1* in the low-latitude variety *Huachun 6* resulted in the narrow leaf phenotype, increased seed number per pod, and increased yield (Cai et al. 2021).

High-throughput phenotyping offers another emerging suite of tools for exploration of soybean architectural traits. Unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) based imaging has been employed to phenotype soybean canopy closure, which relates directly to architectural traits like branch and petiole angles (Virdi et al. 2021; Xavier et al. 2017). A multiscale slidingchord matching approach was used to classify and identify soybean cultivars based on their leaf morphology (Wang et al. 2020), demonstrating the power of imaging to evaluate plant architectural traits. Models of plant growth which incorporate plant architecture can be used to study the effects of different phenotypes on resource partitioning and yield (Fourcaud et al. 2008). The integration of novel genotyping, phenotyping, and computational tools will help eliminate bottlenecks in the study of soybean architectural traits and their genetic basis.

Many of the numerous QTL studies described in this review, particularly for branch number and leaf morphology, suffer from low mapping resolutions as a consequence of small population sizes. Validating these QTLs and pinpointing the genetic variation responsible for them will be required if they are to be useful for soybean improvement. Soybean, as a paleopolyploid crop that has undergone multiple rounds of whole genome duplications, contains multiple copies of nearly three quarters of its genes (Schmutz et al. 2010). The functional divergence of the duplicate paralogs of known shoot architecture genes such as GmJAG1 and Dt1 and what their contribution, if any, to shoot architecture is remains to be investigated. New sequencing resources, including the emerging soybean and Glycine pan genomes, provide valuable data for the exploration of genetic differences involved in phenotypic variations in shoot architecture (Liu et al. 2020; Zhuang et al. 2021). Wild soybean and its perennial relatives in the genus Glycine, which display a range of shoot architectural phenotypes far beyond what exists in elite soybean germplasm, remain an important reservoir of novel native genetic variation.

It has been noted that leguminous crops are fundamentally different from the cereals in the way they allocate seed (Liu et al. 2020). As a result, simply mimicking the strategies used to refine shoot architecture in wheat, rice, or maize will be insufficient. Understanding the way phenotypic variation in soybean shoot architecture traits influences yield, stress response, efficiency of resource use, and yield stability in response to increased environmental uncertainty is indispensable for meaningful enhancements of these traits to occur. Just as different main stem growth habits have been essential for adaptation to different environments, so too will the ideal value for the traits discussed in this review change depending on geography, production system, and end market. A "one size fits all approach" for soybean architecture may reduce the potential for achieving optimized traits. It should also be remembered that what is beneficial for vield at the level of a single plant it not always beneficial to yield at the field level. For example, the overexpression of GmmiR156b resulted in increased yield per plant because it had more pods on more branches (Sun et al., 2019), but this could potentially be a detrimental trait in high density plantings. A dearth of research comparing the yields of soybean varieties differing in only in a single shoot-architecture locus means that a description of what an ideal soybean will look like in a given environment is largely speculative, however we are optimistic about the potential of yield increases through the development of compact plants with short internode lengths and many pods per node, perhaps through the introgression of the Dt2 allele conferring semideterminacy, into varieties grown in high-productivity environments. In regions where lower planting densities are preferred, we suspect that introgression of alleles or targeted modifications resulting in higher branch numbers and more spread-out plant architecture (i.e., wider branch angles and increased leaf petiole angles) could provide a productivity boost. A successful strategy of soybean improvement through altered shoot architecture must go hand in hand with agronomic practices in the target population of environments where the improved cultivar will be grown (Table 1).

Table 1 Selected soybean architecture genes and QTLs

Trait	Gene/QTL name	Gene ID	Gene classification	Natural vari- ation affects trait?	References
Stem growth habit	Dt1	Glyma.19g194300	PEBP	Yes	Liu et al. 2010; Tian et al. 2010
Stem growth habit	Dt2	Glyma.18g273600	MADs Box TF	Yes	Ping et al. 2014
Stem growth habit	GmFt5a	Glyma.16g044100	PEBP	Unknown	Takeshima et al., 2019
Plant height	GmDW	Glyma.08G165100	ent-kaurene syn- thase	Unknown	Li et al. 2018
Plant height	GmGAMYB	Glyma.13g187500	R2R3 MYB TF	Unknown	Yang et al., 2021a, b
Plant height	GmRav	Glyma.10G204400	RAV TF	Unknown	Xue et al., 2022
Plant height	GmIAA27	Glyma.09G193000	AUX/IAA	Unknown	Su et al. 2022
Plant height	GmmiR166	NA	microRNA	Unknown	Zhao et al. 2022
Branch Number	GmBRC1	Glyma06g23410	TCP TF	Yes	Shim et al. 2019
Branch Number	GmWR11b	Glyma.15g221600	Integrase TF	Unknown	Guo et al., 2020a, b
Branch Number	GmmiR156b	NA	microRNA	Unknown	Sun et al., 2019
Branch Number	GmSPL9	Glyma.09G113800	SPL TF	Unknown	Bao et al. 2019
Branch angle	GmBA1	Unknown	Unknown	Yes	Clark et al., 2022
Leaf petiole angle	GmMYB14	Glyma.19g164600	MYB TF	Unknown	Chen et al. 2020
Leaf petiole angle	GmILP1	Glyma.11G026400	APC8-Like	Unknown	Gao et al. 2017
Leaf petiole angle	GmPINa	Glyma.08G054700	PIN Auxin Trans- porter	Unknown	Zhang et al. 2022
Leaf petiole angle	GmPINc	Glyma.09G176300	PIN Auxin Trans- porter	Unknown	Zhang et al. 2022
Leaf shape	GmJAG1/Ln	Glyma.20g116200	C2HC zinc finger	Yes	Jeong et al. 2012

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