Short title:

Selaginella Root Bifurcation

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Cellular and gene expression patterns associated with root bifurcation in

Selaginella

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One-sentence summary:

The root of the spike moss *Selaginella moellendorffii* bifurcates following a symmetric

cell division of the single stem cell and involves conserved genetic modules known

from angiosperm roots.

Footnotes:

[1] This study was financially supported by the Fonds voor Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek
– Vlaanderen (FWO)-project G027313N and G028421N. T.F. was financially
supported by China Scholarship Council and the Erasmus Mundus programme of the
European Union (Lotus Unlimited Project). L.W. and G.W.B. were supported by
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this article in accordance with the policy described in the Instructions for Authors
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T.F., H.M., B.P. and T.B. designed the experiments. T.F., X.Y., W.S. and M.N. collected
microscopic data. T.F., W.S., L.W. and G.W.B. processed microscopic data. T.F., H.M.
and B.P. performed the RNA-seq experiment. B.P. processed the transcriptomic dataset.
H.M. and B.P. analyzed the transcriptomic dataset. H.M. and T.B. supervised the project.
T.F., H.M. and T.B. wrote the manuscript. All the authors read and approved the final
manuscript.
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Abstract

The roots of lycophytes branch through dichotomy or bifurcation, which means that the

root apex splits into two daughter roots. This is morphologically distinct from lateral

root (LR) branching in the extant euphyllophytes, where LRs develop along the root

axis at different distances from the apex. The process of root bifurcation is poorly

understood, while such knowledge can be important, as it may represent an

evolutionarily ancient strategy that roots recruited to form new stem cells or meristems.

In this study, we examined root bifurcation in the lycophyte *Selaginella moellendorffii*.

We characterized an *in vitro* developmental time-frame based on repetitive apex

bifurcations, allowing us to sample different stages of dichotomous root branching and

analyze the root meristem and root branching in *S. moellendorffii* at the microscopical

and transcriptional level. Our results show that, in contrast to previous assumptions,

initial cells in the root meristem are mostly not tetrahedral but rather show an irregular

shape. Tracking down the early stages during root branching argues for the occurrence

of a symmetric division of the single initial cell resulting in two apical stem cells

allowing for root meristem bifurcation. Moreover, we generated a *S. moellendorffii* root

branching transcriptome, which resulted in the delineation of a subset of core meristem

genes. The occurrence of multiple meristem-related orthologues in this dataset,

including inversely correlated expression profiles of a *SCARECROW* (*SCR*) versus a

RETINOBLASTOMA-RELATED1 (*RBR1*) homologue suggests the presence of

conserved pathways in the control of meristem and root stem cell establishment or

maintenance.

Key words: *Selaginella moellendorffii*, meristem bifurcation, initial cell, evolution,

root apical meristem.

Roots provide multiple key functions for plants, and their capacity to branch is

important to anchor in a substrate and to forage for water and nutrients (Raven and

Edwards, 2001; Motte et al., 2019). Root development and root branching have been in

particular studied in angiosperms, e.g. Arabidopsis. Here, roots branch via the

formation of lateral roots (LRs), which develop in the differentiated part of the root

from pluripotent pericycle cells. After a series of well-orchestrated divisions, a new root

meristem is formed that grows out of the parent root. Interestingly, important insights

into the anatomical development and molecular regulation of LR formation were

obtained by employing LR inducible systems, allowing synchronous induction of many

LRs (Himanen et al., 2002; Himanen et al., 2004; Vanneste et al., 2005; De Smet et al.,

2008; De Rybel et al., 2010; Jansen et al., 2013; Xuan et al., 2015; Crombez et al., 2016;

Herrbach et al., 2017).

In contrast to angiosperms, Selaginella species, members of the lycophyte lineage,

do not possess pluripotent cells that give rise to LRs (Fang et al., 2019). Instead, roots

dichotomously branch at the tip through bifurcation of the apical meristem (Imaichi and

Kato, 1989; Lu and Jernstedt, 1996; Otręba and Gola, 2011; Gola, 2014; Fang et al.,

2019; Motte and Beeckman, 2019). Lycophytes were the first plants that developed

roots (Hetherington and Dolan, 2018). Hence, studying their root system can contribute

to the understanding of how root developmental mechanisms evolved. Lycophyte roots,

however, originated independently from roots in the other land plant lineages

(Hetherington and Dolan, 2019), but both molecular and anatomical data suggest a

highly convergent evolution, and possibly even a common (partial) recruitment of a

genetic program present in the rootless common ancestor of the different lineages

(Huang and Schiefelbein, 2015; Motte and Beeckman, 2019). Based on fossil records,

dichotomous root branching was found at the base of lycophyte evolution, putting it

forward as an early innovation during the evolution of roots (Hao et al., 2010;

Matsunaga and Tomescu, 2016; Hetherington and Dolan, 2017; Hetherington et al.,

2020).

Unfortunately, despite intensive, but almost exclusively histological studies, the

development and anatomy of the Selaginella root apical meristem and its bifurcation

are still poorly understood. Multiple studies report the presence of one central

tetrahedral initial cell (IC) or apical stem cell (Otręba and Gola, 2011 and refs therein)

that, in analogy with the apical cell in the root meristem of certain ferns, was suggested

to cut off daughter cells in four directions to provide cells for the root cap at the distal

side, and cells for the growing root at the three proximal sides. In some ferns, it is

clearly documented that the three proximal daughter cells each divide in an equal

pattern, forming merophytes or clonally related groups of cells. Subsequent merophytes

are superimposed to form different layers in the root (Hou and Hill, 2004). In contrast

to ferns, such division pattern is less obvious in Selaginella roots. Furthermore, the

branching process is problematic to study at the microscopical level. Live imaging is

difficult due to the lack of biotechnological tools (Motte et al., 2020) and arbitrarily

sampled roots rarely represent critical phases in which roots are undergoing bifurcation.

Moreover, histological sectioning does not allow a high-throughput approach, and serial

sectioning is required to obtain the relevant sections in which the IC is visible. As a

consequence, the cell division events associated with root meristem bifurcation remain

elusive, and different hypotheses still exist on how the doubling of the meristem might

occur (Motte and Beeckman, 2019). One hypothesis suggests the disappearance of the

IC due to segmentation followed by the recruitment of two new meristematic cells as

two new ICs (Otręba and Gola, 2011). Barlow and Lück (2004), on the other hand,

suggested that one of the daughter cells of the original IC becomes a new initial.

Interestingly, in the Selaginella shoot meristem, a seemingly symmetric division of the

apical cell initiates dichotomy (Jones and Drinnan, 2009). Such a symmetric

longitudinal division of the apical cell is also the cause of thallus bifurcation in certain

algae (Oltmanns, 1889; von Goebel, 1928; van den Hoek et al., 1995; Gola, 2014).

Being the first lycophyte with a sequenced genome, *S. moellendorffii* became an

important model species for evolutionary research (Banks, 2009; Banks et al., 2011;

Motte et al., 2020). Moreover, as root bifurcation seems to involve the initiation of a

new root stem cell, dichotomous root branching could be used as a unique system to

study root stem cell specification in an evolutionary context and to get insight into the

complex process of dichotomy in general. Useful datasets and genetic tools start to

become available, including several transcriptomic datasets from root samples (Ferrari

et al., 2020; Motte et al., 2020; Fang et al., 2021). However, these studies are merely

snapshots of the roots and do not allow to study temporal changes associated with the

bifurcation process.

S. moellendorffii root branching cannot be induced by hormone treatments and a

root branching inducible system, similar as for angiosperms, does not seem to be

feasible (Fang et al., 2019), complicating the capturing of early bifurcating root

meristems. Here, as an alternative, we developed a dichotomous branching time course

assay to enrich for samples with bifurcating roots. We applied this assay for histological

sectioning and whole-mount confocal microscopy. Based on this, and complementary

to the current literature, we advocate that two new root meristems originate due to a

symmetric division of the IC into two ICs. Furthermore, we exploited the assay to

sample roots at regular intervals for RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) and revealed as such

the *S. moellendorffii* root branching transcriptome. We show that transiently

upregulated genes have a meristem signature, supporting the value of this dataset as a

useful resource to identify candidate stem cell or meristem regulators in Selaginella.

Moreover, a vast number of differentially expressed genes are homologous to

Arabidopsis genes with a known role in stem cell or meristem functioning. This

indicates, despite the structural difference in root meristems between Selaginella and

Arabidopsis, a strong conservation in the pathways controlling meristem or stem cell

functionality.

RESULTS

Developmental Time Frames of *S. moellendorffii* Root Bifurcation

The study of root bifurcation or branching in *S. moellendorffii* would take advantage of an inducible root branching system like the LR inducible system in Arabidopsis (Himanen et al., 2002). The added value of using such a system is that the initiation of new meristems can be synchronized and thus followed over time. A prerequisite is, however, to obtain a zero point at which no branching is ongoing. We previously reported that auxin transport inhibitors and a synthetic cytokinin were not useful to prevent root branching in *S. moellendorffii*, without affecting growth, and as such do not allow to obtain uniform starting material. Moreover, we did not succeed to identify a treatment that could induce meristem bifurcation itself (Fang et al., 2019). As a consequence, a synchronized root branching system that enables the study of root branching initiation does not seem to be feasible.

Therefore, we asked whether we could predict root branching based on the repetitive apex divisions taking place in *in vitro*-grown *S. moellendorffii* explants as an alternative approach. To characterize root branching, *S. moellendorffii* shoot explants were excised and transferred on fresh medium, which resulted in the spontaneous development of roots. First rhizophores were initiated, from which the root grew out (Fig. 1, A and B); subsequently, the roots repeatedly bifurcated dichotomously (Fig. 1, C and D; Supplemental Movie S1) (see also Fang et al., 2019). We followed the origin and bifurcation of in total 983 roots within three independent experiments, and observed all roots on a daily basis. Bifurcation events were macroscopically observed and recognized by the presence of two dome-shaped primordia at the root tip (Fig. 1C). In practice, it was difficult to exactly trace back the time of appearance for all rhizophores, as young rhizophores were almost colorless and mostly covered by the leaves. Still, taking the time point of the shoot explant transfer as the reference, we observed that a majority of the roots underwent the first bifurcation in a relatively short time span, more particularly, between 10 and 15 d post transfer of the explants (Fig. 1E).

We continued to follow a subset of 361 root tips from two experimental repeats, and

observed, taking the first bifurcation (Fig. 1C) as a reference point, a consistent short

time frame for the second root bifurcation, which occurred in the majority of roots

between 6 and 9 d after the first bifurcation (Fig. 1F). Hence, as the dichotomous

branching seemed to occur according to a relatively regular periodicity, the branching

time could be roughly predicted.

To study the timing of bifurcation in more detail at the histological level, we took

the first bifurcation event as shown in Figure 1C as reference time point 0, and sampled

at least ten root tips on a daily basis for microscopic analysis. All root tips were

subjected to whole-mount confocal imaging to assess the appearance new meristems,

as shown in Figure 1G. As previously shown, the apices at time point 0 never contained

two apical meristems (Fang et al., 2019). Similarly, meristem bifurcation was not

detected on the first and second day after the first branching (Fig. 1H). The first roots

with two clear meristem regions were detected 3 d after the first branching. The number

of roots with two meristem regions steadily increased over time and almost all root tips

effectively bifurcated after 6 d (Fig. 1H).

Thus, in a relatively limited time frame after the first bifurcation event, practically

all root tips bifurcated again. Because the presence of two meristems was visible from

day 3 onwards, the onset of the bifurcation and related anatomical events could be

anticipated to occur early during the time course. Furthermore, due to the steadily

increasing percentage of bifurcated meristems, we could anticipate the enrichment of

specific developmental stages during consecutive time points. Therefore, we employed

this time course starting from newly branched roots to further characterize *S.*

moellendorffii root branching, both from the histological and molecular point of view.

Meristem Bifurcation Is the Result of a Symmetric Division of an

Irregularly Shaped IC

To characterize the early events in *S. moellendorffii* root branching, we sampled

root tips on different days after the first bifurcation event (time point 0) and subjected

them to histological sectioning. At time point 0, two root tips are present each with an

IC in the center of the meristem (Fig. 2, A and B). Within the meristems, merophytic

cell clusters next to the IC with triangular shape could be easily recognized, illustrating

how daughter cells have been cut off from different faces of the IC, and subsequently

divided (Fig. 2B). Starting from two days after time point 0, we were able to recognize

two similar-sized ICs next to or close to each other in different root tips (Fig. 2, C-G).

This challenges the current hypotheses on the initiation of dichotomous root branching

in Selaginella, and might point to a rather symmetric division of this IC as a first stage

during root bifurcation. In particular Figure 2C shows a clear image of two separate

basal derivatives from the presumptive ICs that form root cap cells. Figure 2D shows a

similar image, but here, one of the two presumptive ICs has two nuclei and is finishing

a cell division. Figure 2E and F show root apices with two presumptive ICs separated

by only one cell, while Figure 2G shows a separation of the two ICs by more cells.

Overall, this indicates that two new ICs originate after a symmetric division, and

continue to develop two new root primordia.

However, in many samples, we were not able to recognize such stages, and

designation of the ICs was often not straightforward, possibly because ICs were

regularly out of plane in the sections. Therefore, to confirm the observed and seemingly

symmetric divisions of the IC, and to increase the workflow in order to analyze more

samples at the same time, we decided to use the same approach by performing whole-

mount confocal imaging. Supplemental Movie S2 shows a full stack of an unbranched

root, and illustrates how this technique enables better designation of the IC by going

through the sections. This stack was used to reconstruct the root (Fig. 3A) and clearly

present the organization of the meristem. To have a better view on the structure of the

IC, we first used whole stacks for 3D cell segmentation and isolated the IC. Earlier

reports with two-dimensional histological sections hypothesized that the root IC is

tetrahedral (Imaichi and Kato, 1989; Otręba and Gola, 2011). However, segmentation

of the IC from several samples showed that its shape is not uniform and not tetrahedral (Fig. 3B; Supplemental Movie S3 to S7). Most side views, but not all, show triangular faces, while most distal faces are irregularly shaped, and are only triangular-like in a few cases. Hence, the IC in *S. moellendorffii* roots is in general not tetrahedral, and its irregular shape makes it difficult to be recognized, especially in sections that follows only one plane.

To confirm this irregular shape of the IC, we also subjected two root samples to serial block face scanning electron microscopy (SBF-SEM), allowing a much higher resolution of the cells and cell walls (Fig. 3, C-J; Supplemental Fig. S1; Supplemental Movie S8 and S9). The ICs seemed to have daughter cells at different faces, with cell plates or young cell walls seen in the mother and the most recent daughter cells (Fig. 3, C and G; Supplemental Fig. S1, A-B and F-G), which suggests that these cells were undergoing or had just finished cell divisions. 3D reconstruction based on the serial sections showed that one IC has five or six faces (face 4 and 5 might be considered as one, see Fig. 3D and Supplemental Fig. S1E), instead of four in a tetrahedron. Furthermore, it has a wedge-like shape with two opposite triangular faces (faces 1 and 3) and a rectangular bottom (face 6) (Fig. 3, D-E; Supplemental Fig. S1, C-E, Supplemental Movie S8). The second IC had three major proximal faces (faces 1-3), all with irregular triangular-like shapes, and a pentagonal distal face (face 4) (Fig. 3, H-J; Supplemental Fig. S1, H-J; Supplemental Movie S9). Hence, the ICs are irregular in shape, and not per se having a triangular face in all longitudinal planes. The IC might have this irregular shape as this cell is mitotically active (Fujinami et al., 2017), and therefore the shape changes during intensive cell divisions. This is an important observation to take into consideration when looking for ICs in sections, and explains why it is often troublesome to make a correct designation. By using whole stacks, it is possible to reorient the stack in such a way that ICs are clearly recognizable (as illustrated by the 270 degree view in Fig. 3A), as there always seems to be two faces with a triangular shape.

We next sampled root tips during the root branching time course in independent

experiments covering different time points. The roots were subjected to whole-mount

confocal imaging and stacks were made and segmented to reorient sections and to select

planes with clear ICs (Fig. 4). Again, in some roots, two ICs of similar size were

positioned next to each other (Fig. 4, A-C; Supplemental Fig. S2, A-C). This further

supports the hypothesis for a symmetric division of the IC, which is most probably the

first anatomical event leading to root meristem bifurcation.

In the absence of genetically encoded markers, live imaging to show that such

division indeed results in the formation of two meristems is unfortunately not possible

in *S. moellendorffii*. Still, in multiple samples at early time points, we could, based on

the cellular pattern, clearly observe that each of the ICs produced their own distal

daughter cells in the root cap (Fig. 4, A and B; Supplemental Fig. S2A), indicating that

each of these two cells underwent at least one additional formative division to cut off a

root cap cell. Furthermore, we also observed multiple root tips in which the two ICs

were very close to each other and separated by only one or two layers of short cells

(Fig. 4, D-G; Supplemental Fig. S2, D-F). These layers seemed to originate from

daughter cells of the new ICs. Based on these observations, it is of high likelihood that

the two ICs originally neighbored each other, supporting the hypothesis that

dichotomous root branching in *S. moellendorffii* is a result of a symmetric division of

the original IC. In this scenario, the two new ICs would each cut off daughter cells in

different directions, forming two new meristems (Fig. 4K). These two new meristems

or root primordia are initially still embedded in the macroscopically unbranched root,

which radially expands because of the doubled meristem (Fig. 4, H-J), but later on grow

out to form two branches as described before (Otręba and Gola, 2011).

The *S. moellendorffii* Root Branching Transcriptome

Cyclic Gene Expression Profiles Support a Return to the Initial Meristem State

Based on the confocal imaging, almost 40% of the root tips formed two clearly

distinguishable new meristems 5 d after the first branching (Fig. 1H), hence we

supposed that programs to initiate dichotomous branching mainly occur before this time

point. To identify possible molecular mechanisms with a role in root branching

initiation in *S. moellendorffii*, we employed the developmental root branching assay for

an RNA-seq experiment and sampled root tips on each day from 0 to 5 d after the first

branching (time point 0), in which 300-μm apical parts were sampled to enrich for the

meristematic region, while non-meristematic root regions were sampled separately

(Fig. 5A).

Taking into account a fold change (FC) of at least 2 and an adjusted *p*-value (BH

FDR corrected) of maximum 0.05, 6601 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were

retrieved between the meristematic and non-meristematic part. 3410 genes were higher

expressed in the apical parts and were therefore designated as "meristem-enriched

genes". Within the branching time course, however, only 15 genes were differentially

expressed with a $|FC| > 2$ (adjusted *p*-value ≤ 0.05; LRT). None of these DEGs had a

straightforward annotation (Supplemental Table S1). This low number is not

unexpected, as the different root branching samples only differed developmentally and,

most likely, in a small region within the same tissue. Differences in gene expression

may even only occur in one cell, and hence become diluted within the sampled tips.

Still, 1553 genes were significantly (adjusted *p*-value ≤ 0.05; LRT) affected over the

branching time course (Fig. 5, B and C; Supplemental Table S1). We therefore

designated them provisionally as "root branching genes". Many of these genes were

differentially expressed at multiple time points (Fig. 5B; Supplemental Table S1),

corroborating a relevant differential expression. Interestingly, the number of DEGs at

first steadily increased during the time course and peaked on 2 and 3 d after the first

branching, and then decreased towards the end of the time course (Fig. 5C). Hence,

the final state showed less differential expression and was more similar to the original

state.

To get a better insight into the expression profiles, the 1553 "root branching genes"

were subjected to a cluster analysis via WGCNA (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008). The

analysis revealed 22 main expression profiles (Fig. 5D), which we further grouped

according to their shapes. As such, the clusters could be classified into four major

groups: we designated the transiently upregulated and downregulated gene clusters as

"Dome" (further grouped into Early peak, Late peak and Broad peak subgroups) and

"Valley", respectively; constitutively upregulated and downregulated clusters were

named "Up" and "Down", respectively; only a few genes could not be classified into

any one of these groups (Fig. 5D). Overall, the majority of genes clustered in the Dome

(490/1553) or the Valley (560/1553) groups, which fits the decreased number of DEGs

towards the end of the time course.

In summary, both the number of DEGs per time point and the clustering of the

expression profiles support a generally cyclic expression pattern, which might be

correlated with developments at the cellular level: a starting state with a single meristem

that rapidly initiates bifurcation, or evolves into an early bifurcation state and then

evolves again into two separated single meristems resembling the initial state.

Root Branching Transcriptome to Identify Core Meristem-Enriched Genes

The Selaginella root branches in association with the development of two root

meristems. Therefore, especially at an early stage with two meristems, we expected

meristem genes to be differentially expressed: when the meristem bifurcates, transcripts

of genes specifically expressed, or repressed, in the IC or in its neighborhood, would

be relatively more, or less, abundantly present. Indeed, at an early stage, two young

meristems are present within a non-expanded root tip. When the two meristems and the

root tip enlarge (Fig. 4), this abundance would get diluted and evolve towards the end

of the time course to a relative expression level as in a non-bifurcated meristem. Within

the 1553 "root branching genes", 452 out of the 3410 meristem-enriched genes were

present (Supplemental Table S1), and hence, while this is still an overrepresentation

(Fig. 6, A-C; Supplemental Table S2), a big portion of the meristem-enriched genes

were not differentially expressed during meristem bifurcation. We presume that the

group of "meristem-enriched genes" as such might still encompass many genes that do

not associate with the meristem itself, but with another part of the root tip. The other

possibility that these genes might be associated with maintaining meristem identity and

therefore are not differentially expressed during bifurcation cannot be excluded. Still,

especially meristem-enriched genes that are differentially expressed during the root

branching time course ("root branching genes") (Fig. 6, A and B), are expected to be

associated with the root meristem function and might be of special interest.

We were intrigued by the overrepresentation of meristem genes in the

downregulated root branching DEGs, which showed a 1.9-fold overrepresentation in

meristem genes (Fig. 6C), which could point to a loss of meristem identity or meristem

activity during the bifurcation process. In the GO, InterPro and MapMan term

enrichment analyses of this group, we noticed some terms related to microtubule-

binding, cytoskeleton or cell division, including Heat Shock Protein 90-, Elongation

Factor-, and kinesin-related terms (Krtková et al., 2012; Zhu and Dixit, 2012; Krtková

et al., 2016), but also "microtubule binding", "cytokinesis" and "cell cycle"

(Supplemental Table S3). Indeed, a lot of cell cycle-related genes could be found in the

top downregulated meristem-enriched genes, including extensin, callose synthase and

phragmoplast-related *KINESIN-LIKE* (*KIN*) genes (Supplemental Table S1). When

taking into account the top meristem-enriched genes in this subset, in particular KIN7,

10, 12 and 14 proteins were found (Fig. 6D), known to be associated with phragmoplast

formation or orientation, and hence involved in cell plate formation and cell division

(Zhu and Dixit, 2012). Thus, the group of downregulated meristem-genes were mainly

related to cell division, which points to an arrest or inhibition of cell divisions during

root branching. A more detailed analysis showed that these genes were especially

present and enriched in Down clusters (137 genes) or in the big Valley-0 cluster (117

genes) (Fig. 6C; Supplemental Table S2). These clusters in general showed a middle to

late downregulation, which is also notable on the general expression profile of these

genes (Fig. 6, B and D). Possibly, cell divisions in the original meristem stopped or at

least decreased, while daughter cells of the two new ICs took over the meristem activity

towards the end of the time course.

The 173 of the meristem-enriched root branching genes that showed an

upregulation in the root branching time course might be of interest. These genes were

especially present and enriched in the early responsive (Early peak) Dome cluster,

showing an expression profile that went up relatively early during the branching course,

but returned to the basal level again at the end (Fig. 5D). Therefore, these clusters also

show a much higher overrepresentation of meristem-enriched genes (Fig. 6C). The

early upregulation of these genes indicates that two young meristems were formed early,

which then matured towards the end of the branching time course.

To get insights into the function of the 173 meristem-enriched genes that were

upregulated during the branching, GO, InterPro and MapMan term enrichment analyses

were performed. These analyses clearly showed an enrichment in terms related to cell

growth, and more particularly, in ribosome- and translation-related terms (Fig. 6E;

Supplemental Table S3). The gene set indeed included a broad range of ribosomal

proteins (Supplemental Table S1). Interestingly, such genes or terms are typically

enriched in young meristematic angiosperm root cells as well. For example,

Arabidopsis single-cell transcriptomic studies showed that ribosomal protein-encoding

genes are enriched in meristematic clusters (Ryu et al., 2019; Shulse et al., 2019; Zhang

et al., 2019). Hence, the 173 genes seemed to be associated with young meristematic

cells, underlining and validating the value of the root branching dataset to select core-

meristem genes.

Thus, this set can be used to highlight genes with a putative role in the *S.*

moellendorffii root meristem, especially as the subset of 173 genes are probably

differentially expressed in the young meristem, possibly even in the IC, but not in the

root cap or other regions of the root tip.

We queried the 173 genes for orthologs of genes encoding better characterized

proteins in Arabidopsis. This subset contains, besides many ribosomal proteins, an

ARABIDOPSIS RESPONSE REGULATOR15 (*ARR15*) ortholog (SMO274G0055) and

an *AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR7* (*ARF7*) ortholog (SMO361G0080). *ARR15*,

negatively regulating cytokinin signaling, is important for stem cell specification in the

Arabidopsis root meristem (Müller and Sheen, 2008), and the auxin-induced *ARF7* is

important during LR initiation, leading to a new root meristem (Okushima et al., 2005).

Their presence in this set of genes suggests a possible importance of the two genes in

S. moellendorffii root meristem establishment or maintenance as well, and as such a,

possibly partially, in the conserved genetic program of root stem cell specification.

Candidate Regulators of Dichotomous Root Branching

To further identify possible regulators in the root branching process, we queried all

1553 root branching genes for transcription factors and orthologs of genes with well-

described roles in *Arabidopsis* root meristem maintenance or LR branching, including

auxin and cytokinin signaling genes, receptor kinases and cell cycle genes

(Supplemental Table S5). Transcription factors were collected via PlantTFDB v5 (Tian

et al., 2019). As we noticed that not all ARF and ARR transcription factors were

recognized in the PlantTFDB, we also looked for their orthologs and included them in

the transcription factor query (Supplemental Table S5).

Among these possible regulators, 40 were differentially expressed during the root

branching time course (Fig. 7A), and might be involved in the regulation of

dichotomous root branching. These included four auxin-responsive *ARF* genes, two

cytokinin-regulating *ARR* genes, and orthologs of the auxin transporter *PIN2*, the

cytokinin-responsive *CYTOKININ RESPONSE FACTOR1* (*CRF1*), the cytokinin

receptor *AHK2*, the gibberellic acid signaling gene *REPRESSOR OF GA-LIKE1*

(*RGL1*), the ethylene signaling gene *ETHYLENE-INSENSITIVE3-LIKE1* (*EIL1*) and

the brassinosteroid signaling gene *BES1/BZR1 HOMOLOGUE4* (*BEH4*). The presence

of these genes might indicate a role of hormonal signaling in a very complex way in

dichotomous root branching and the associated meristem maintenance.

We also noticed the presence of homologs of both *TARGET OF MONPTEROS5*

(*TMO5*) and *LONESOME HIGHWAY* (*LHW*). In Arabidopsis, the two form a dimer and are together crucial for vasculature initiation (De Rybel et al., 2013; De Rybel et al., 2014). This control is shown to be highly conserved in all vascular plants (Lu et al., 2020). In Arabidopsis, the two transcription factors have a different spatial expression pattern and overlap at the vascular domain (De Rybel et al., 2013). Within the *S. moellendorffii* root branching course, *LHW* was early downregulated, but reached its basal level again at the end, whereas *TMO5* was upregulated in particular at the end (Fig. 7A). Hence, the *LHW* and *TMO5* homologs showed a common high expression level towards to the end of our time course (from 3 and 5 d), when two young meristems were present, possibly indicating increased vascular development at that stage.

Interestingly, only a few transcription factor-encoding DEGs showed an early upregulation. In particular, a *WUSCHEL RELATED HOMEOBOX* (*WOX*) (SMO239G0078) and a *SCARECROW* (*SCR*) (SMO358G0343) homolog, both important and transcriptionally interacting stem cell regulators (Shimotohno et al., 2018; Motte et al., 2020), showed a strong early induction (Fig. 7A) and are highly co-expressed (Fig. 7B). Possibly, these were involved in the control of dichotomous root branching. Interestingly, also *RBR1* (SMO134G0004), important in stem cell fate decision as well and a negative interactor of *SCR* (Cruz-Ramírez et al., 2012), was found in the list. As shown for Arabidopsis, *RBR1* interacts with E2F transcription factors (Wildwater et al., 2005), of which a homolog, SMO133G0001 was also differentially expressed in our dataset. Noteworthy, at least in Arabidopsis, *RBR1* and *E2F3* show a high degree of co-expression (Magyar et al., 2012), which we also observed in the *S. moellendorffii* root branching time course (Fig. 7B).

In contrast to the Dome expression profile of the *WOX* and *SCR* homologs, we observed a downregulating Valley profile for the *S. moellendorffii RBR1* and *E2F3* homologs. The two group of genes thus showed an inversely correlated expression pattern (Fig. 7B), which intriguingly fits within the pathway model proposed for Arabidopsis.

DISCUSSION

Lycophyte roots branch dichotomously due to bifurcation of the apical meristem. Activities of the IC have been assumed to play a key role in this process, especially in branching initiation, whereas it remained unclear how its cellular activities are associated with root bifurcation in the lycophyte *S. moellendorffii*. Previous reports on Selaginella root bifurcation suggested that the single root apical IC undergoes segmentation and becomes indistinguishable, which is followed by the initiation of two new ICs at the flanks and the formation of two new root meristems (Imaichi and Kato, 1989; Otręba and Gola, 2011). Barlow and Lück (2004) hypothesized that, after a set of rigid cell divisions, a derivative of the IC becomes a new IC to form the second root meristem. In contrast, our results point out that root bifurcation starts with a symmetric division of the original IC, which gives rise to two new ICs. Such a symmetric division to initiate dichotomous root branching in Selaginella has never been reported. Additionally, it was stated that a longitudinal symmetric division of a tetrahedral cell is unlikely to occur, because the surface area of the inserted cell wall is relatively big and would be inefficient (Cooke and Paolillo Jr, 1980; Gola, 2014). However, we showed that the IC is irregular and possibly changing in shape, and in general not tetrahedral. As such, ICs might acquire geometries that are better suited to undergo a symmetric division.

Still, there could be other factors controlling the IC to undergo the symmetric division to initiate dichotomous root branching. As the stem cell is surrounded by multiple cells in the meristem, interactions and feedbacks from the neighboring cells may also contribute to the first division initiating root branching in land plants. In Arabidopsis, the auxin reflux from surrounding endodermal cells allows auxin accumulation in the founder cells for transition to LR initiation (Dubrovsky et al., 2008; Marhavý et al., 2013; Cavallari et al., 2021), also showing a critical role of auxin in the control of the first asymmetric division. However, we detected differential downregulation of multiple auxin-responsive *ARF* genes in the branching time course,

suggesting a reduction in the auxin response during the process. Thus, auxin is not likely

to accumulate in the IC to induce the first symmetric division. Supportive for this, we

earlier found that Selaginella root branching is not induced by auxins (Fang et al., 2019).

Moreover, a spatial accommodation by neighboring cells, which may involve

mechanical forces, is also essential for Arabidopsis LR initiation. Specifically, pericycle

cells swell before the first asymmetric division, which is actively accommodated by the

neighbor endodermis (Vermeer et al., 2014; Vermeer and Geldner, 2015; Ramakrishna

et al., 2019). However, it is totally unknown whether the IC and the neighboring

derivatives need to undergo any morpho-cytological alteration to promote root

branching initiation in Selaginella.

During Arabidopsis root growth, (lateral) root branching formation takes place

periodically: protoxylem cells in the basal meristem undergo temporal oscillations in

auxin concentrations and auxin-responsive gene expression levels, which allows these

cells to transport these priming signals to the pericycle cells, which also get primed,

forming competent sites to initiate LRs (De Smet et al., 2007; Moreno-Risueno et al.,

2010; Van Norman et al., 2014; Xuan et al., 2016; Laskowski and ten Tusscher, 2017).

In Selaginella, roots also branch repetitively but dichotomously (Fang et al., 2019),

which coincides with a generally cyclic gene expression profile. Possibly, this involves

priming signals as well, which may be included in our dataset.

It has been hypothesized that lycophyte roots have a shoot origin (Gensel et al.,

2001), which should result in shared developmental mechanisms between the shoot and

root meristem. This was for instance shown in the lycophyte Lycopodium, where

bifurcation of both meristems starts with the emergence of mitotically active cells in a

similar quiescent region (Fujinami et al., 2021). In contrast, Selaginella bifurcation of

the shoot meristem begins with a symmetric division of the IC (Christopher and Andrew,

2009).This fits our observation of the same division in the root, and corroborates the

shoot origin of the root in lycophytes. It also underlines the possible differences in root

anatomy and bifurcation mechanisms, as not all lycophyte subclades have single ICs,

and supports along with the fossil record that roots originated multiple times during the

evolution of lycophytes (Gensel et al., 2001; Fujinami et al., 2017; Fujinami et al., 2020;

Hetherington et al., 2021).

Although roots originated multiple times during evolution, it is hypothesized based

on comparative transcriptomics studies that a common rootless ancestor of vascular

plants possessed an inheritable genetic tool kit that descendants recruited for similar

root meristem-related biological processes, resulting in a highly conserved root

developmental program within vascular plants (Huang and Schiefelbein, 2015; Ferrari

et al., 2020). Details on this conserved genetic program are lacking, but using a root

branching time course in *S. moellendorffii*, we succeeded to introduce specific core-

meristem genes and showed the presence of multiple homologs of Arabidopsis genes

with a known role in meristem establishment. This further corroborates that the genetic

control of root development, despite morphological differences, is indeed highly

conserved and further supports the parallel recruitment of an, at least partial, common

genetic program.

As the organization of the Selaginella root meristem is less complex than that of

seed plants, a more elementary pathway controlling stem cell fate decisions may be

presumed (Motte et al., 2020). Thus, it might be anticipated that Selaginella requires a

more limited set of genetic players to install and maintain the stem cell. We identified

homologs of some known root stem cell controllers in Arabidopsis, including, *WOX*,

SCR, *RBR1* and *E2F3*-family members, as the candidate regulators of dichotomous root

branching in Selaginella. Moreover, we found that their expression profiles fit within

the pathway model in Arabidopsis. Hence, conserved pathways, involving SCR-

dependent regulation of a *WOX* gene and a RBR1-SCR feedback loop for stem cell fate

decisions, or at least roles of *RBR1* and *E2F3* similar as those of the Arabidopsis root

(Wildwater et al., 2005; Stahl et al., 2009; Cruz-Ramírez et al., 2012), could be

speculated. It is important to note that WOX functioning in angiosperm stem cell

control and its action via transcriptional repression is restricted to the WUS subclade

(Dolzblasz et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2018), which is not present in *S. moellendorffii* (Wu et al., 2019). Thus, the presence of *WOX* as a branching DEG may imply a different mechanism, possibly as a transcriptional activator (Motte et al., 2020). It is tempting to hypothesize that these genes are the central components in the evolutionarily early pathways controlling the IC, and were recruited for both dichotomous and LR branching formation.

Overall, we generated a relevant dataset, in which multiple candidate regulators of root meristem bifurcation in *S. moellendorffii* could be identified that possibly show high conservation with similar pathways in seed plants. In contrast to existing *S. moellendorffii* datasets, which mainly focused on tissue-specific expression, we here characterized expression patterns during a developmental process in which new (root) stem cells are established. Although the molecular research using *S. moellendorffii* is still at its infancy, this dataset can be a useful resource to identify possible root meristem- and stem cell-related Selaginella or lycophyte genes. Due to the pioneering evolutionary position of this lineage during plant colonization of land, this resource can be very useful to identify conserved and early (root) stem cell regulators, and to unravel the early pathways that were at the base of pluripotency.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Materials

S. moellendorffii plants were obtained from the lab of Jo Ann Banks, Purdue University. Plants were grown aseptically under a 16-h light/8-h dark photoperiod at 20.25–43.2 μmol/m^2/s in a 24°C growth chamber and roots developed after the transfer of explants to fresh medium as previously reported (Fang et al., 2019).

Microscopy

To track root branching events, roots were observed daily starting from their appearance on rhizophores using a Leica S9I stereomicroscope.

For whole-mount confocal imaging, *S. moellendorffii* root tips were first fixed in

50% methanol and 10% acetic acid, and then subjected to modified pseudo-Schiff

propidium iodide (mPS-PI) staining described by Truernit et al. (2008). Confocal

imaging was performed using a Zeiss LSM 5 Exciter microscope (25x water immersion

objective lens) with an argon ion laser at 488/505 nm as the excitation/emission

wavelengths, or a Leica SP2 confocal microscope [63x water corrected objective (NA

1.2) lens and pinhole = 1 AU] with an argon ion laser at 514/600-650 nm as the

excitation/emission wavelengths. Alternatively, modified staining was performed with

a small change in the composition of chloral hydrate solution [8 g chloral hydrate, 3

mL glycerol, and 1 mL water (8:3:1)]. Z-stacks were taken for all samples to allow

collective detection of the meristematic region present at different planes. A subset of

samples, including the ones used for segmentation, were after fixation subjected to

amylase treatment in order to digest starch granules. Root tips were washed three times

with water and subsequently treated overnight with α-amylase at a concentration of 300

U/ml in a buffer containing 20 mM phosphate pH 7.0, 2mM NaCl, 0.25 mM Ca_2Cl.

Samples were then washed with water and fixed again in 50% methanol and 10% acetic

acid for 1 h. Samples were subsequently washed two times with 1X PBS and transferred

to ClearSee solution (Kurihara et al., 2015) and gently stirred for 1 week. Finally, the

samples were stained for 1 h in ClearSee solution containing 0.1% Calcofluor White

and were washed afterwards for 30 min in ClearSee solution before imaging. Confocal

imaging of the Calcofluor White stained roots was conducted using 405 nm excitation

and 425-475 nm wavelength detection using a Leica SP8X system. Confocal stacks

generated for segmentation were imaged using a 63X water-corrected objective (NA of

1.2) and a pinhole of 0.6 AU. Stacks were further processed using MorphoGraphX

(Barbier de Reuille et al., 2015) to identify ICs and to obtain clear sections showing the

meristematic organization.

For histological sections, root tip samples were fixed in 1% glutaraldehyde and 4%

paraformaldehyde, followed by dehydration and embedding in Technovit 7100 resin

(Heraeus Kulzer) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Transparent strips were

used to orient tissues for proper orientation (Beeckman and Viane, 2000). 2-µm sample

sections were cut using a Leica Reichert-Jung 2040 Autocut Microtome, dried on object

glasses using a hot plate (20–40 °C), stained for cell walls with 0.05% toluidine blue or

ruthenium red (Acros Organics) for 10 min and then rinsed with water to wash off

excess dyes. The sections were then mounted in Depex medium (Sigma) and covered

with cover slips for observation and photography using an Olympus BX53 microscope.

For serial block face scanning electron microscopy (SBF-SEM), samples were

fixed using 2% paraformaldehyde and 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M Sodium

Cacodylate pH 7.4. Next, samples were processed en-bloc using a ROTOTO staining

as described previously (Fendrych et al., 2014). Finally, resin-embedded root tips were

mounted on aluminum specimen pins (Melotte) using conductive epoxy (Circuit

Works), and coated with 5 nm of Pt in a Quorum sputter coater. Next, samples were

placed in the Gatan 3View 2XP in a Zeiss Merlin SEM, for imaging at 1.6 kV using the

Gatan Digiscan II BSED detector. The system was set up to automatically take 1000

images at a pixel-size of 15 nm, cutting 100-nm sections of the block-face between each

image, resulting in a volume of 150 x 150 x 100 µm.

For registration of the 3D image stack, IMOD (http://bio3d.colorado.edu/imod/)

was used. Orthogonal views were obtained in Fiji (http://fiji.sc/Fiji). Segmentation was

done using Microscopy Image browser (http://mib.helsinki.fi/) and rendering was done

using Imaris (Bitplane).

Extraction of Initial Cell Geometry

Extraction of initial cell geometry was performed using MorphoGraphX (Barbier

de Reuille et al., 2015). Confocal images were prepared for segmentation using a

Gaussian blur of 0.5 in the X, Y and Z directions. Segmentation was performed using

the ITK watershed auto seeded algorithm with a threshold of 800 and segmentation

errors were manually corrected. 3D cell meshes were constructed for the region of the

root containing the IC, using the process marching cubes 3D with a cube size of 0.5,

and 50 smooth passes at the time of mesh generation to minimize alterations to the mesh

structure (Bassel, 2015). All other cells in the mesh were then deleted to isolate the IC,

which was subject to a further 5 smooth passes using the smooth mesh tool to facilitate

qualitative visualization.

RNA-Seq

Sampled roots in the time course (300 root tips per sample, 4 biological repeats per

time point) were cut off using a pair of stainless microscissors and then stored in

RNA*later*® RNA Stabilization Solution (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the

manufacturer's instruction. Subsequently, microdissection was performed to collect

root apices of 0.3 mm long, as well as non-meristematic regions between apices and

branching point for the 5 d post first branching samples. The samples were then

collected in 2-mL RNase-free Eppendorf tubes with an RNase-free metal ball [diameter:

5 mm, sprayed by RNaseZap™ RNase Decontamination Solution (Invitrogen™,

Thermo Fisher Scientific)] and frozen in liquid nitrogen. After collection, samples were

stored at -70 °C.

For RNA extraction, samples were ground three times using a QIAGEN Retsch

Tissuelyser (30 Hz, 30 s). RNA extraction was done via TRIzol™ reagent (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) and the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the provided

protocols.

RNA concentration and purity were determined spectrophotometrically using a

Nanodrop ND-1000 (Nanodrop Technologies) and RNA integrity was assessed using a

Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent). Per sample, an amount of 250 ng of total RNA was used

as input. Using the Illumina TruSeq Stranded mRNA Sample Prep Kit (protocol version:

Part # 15031047 Rev. E - October 2013), poly-A containing mRNA molecules were

purified from the total RNA input using poly-T oligo-attached magnetic beads. In a

reverse transcription reaction using random primers, RNA was converted into first

strand cDNA and subsequently converted into double-stranded cDNA in a second

strand cDNA synthesis reaction using DNA PolymeraseI and RNAse H. The cDNA

fragments were extended with a single 'A' base to the 3' ends of the blunt-ended cDNA

fragments after which multiple indexing adapters were ligated introducing different

barcodes for each sample. Finally, enrichment PCR was carried out to enrich those DNA

fragments that have adapter molecules on both ends and to amplify the amount of DNA

in the library. Sequence-libraries of each sample were equimolarly pooled and

sequenced on Illumina HiSeq 4000 (SBS 300 cycles, Paired End Reads:151-8-8-151)

at the VIB Nucleomics Core (www.nucleomics.be).

Expression Analysis

We used two versions of *S. moellendorffii* annotated genomes: the NCBI version

(Annotation Release 100, released in 2018, containing 33,283 genes) and the JGI

version (v1.0, released in 2007, containing 22,285 genes). While the former is the most

recent, and based on transcriptome data more correctly mapped, the JGI version is more

widely used in bioinformatic tools. Therefore, we performed the mapping/alignment

based (i) on NCBI if there was a 1:1 BLAST hit between NCBI and JGI annotations

(and including the corresponding JGI identifiers), and (ii) on JGI for genes that were

uniquely present in the JGI annotation. Counts were quantified using Salmon (Patro et

al., 2017) and normalization was done using the DESeq2 R package (Love et al., 2014).

To correct for the batch effect, Limma (Ritchie et al., 2015) was applied.

Differential analyses of the count data were performed using DESeq2 (Love et

al., 2014), only considering normalized read counts ≥ 10. PCA was used to identify and

omit outliers within the biological repeats and differential gene expression was analysed

using a multiple factor analysis (MFA).The expression during branching was assessed

by a likelihood-ratio test (LRT) (Supplemental Table S1). Differentially expressed

genes were selected based on an adjusted *p*-value [Benjamini & Hochberg (BH)

(Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) false discovery rate (FDR) corrected] ≤ 0.05. In

addition, meristem DEGs were only retained in case of a $|FC| \geq 2$. Heatmaps showing

expression profiles were generated using the R package "pheatmap". Weighted gene co-

expression network analysis (WGCNA) was performed according to Langfelder and Horvath (2008) in the pipeline of DESeq2.

Statistical significance of the overlap between two groups of genes was calculated via the Fisher exact test. Representation factors were calculated by dividing the number of overlapping genes by the number of expected genes in the overlap.

Data for Gene Ontology (GO), InterPro and Mapman term enrichment were computed using the 'Workbench' function of the Dicots PLAZA tool version 4.5: https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/plaza/versions/plaza_v4_5_dicots/ (Vandepoele et al., 2013; Van Bel et al., 2018), with default settings.

Homology or orthology between Arabidopsis and *S. moellendorffii* genes was based on the gene families in the Dicots PLAZA version 4.5.

RNA-seq data are available in the ArrayExpress database (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress) under the accession number XXXX.

Supplemental Data

The following supplemental materials are available.

Supplemental Figure S1. Additional SBF-SEM images and proximal views of the reconstructed root ICs in *S. moellendorffii*.

Supplemental Figure S2. Additional confocal images taken during the root branching assay in *S. moellendorffii*.

Supplemental Movie S1. *S. moellendorffii* shoot explant with root formation that repetitive bifurcation of the roots.

Supplemental Movie S2. Confocal stack of an unbrached *S. moellendorffii* root.

Supplemental Movie S3. First IC in Figure 3B.

Supplemental Movie S4. Second IC in Figure 3B.

Supplemental Movie S5. Third IC in Figure 3B.

Supplemental Movie S6. Fourth IC in Figure 3B.

Supplemental Movie S7. Fifth IC in Figure 3B.

Supplemental Movie S8. IC in Figure 3D-F.

Supplemental Movie S9. IC in Figure 3H-J.

Supplemental Table S1: Processed RNA-Seq gene expression values.

Supplemental Table S2: Overlap of genes between different subsets or clusters

and the meristem-enriched genes.

Supplemental Table S3: GO, Mapman and Interpro terms associated with the

meristem-enriched genes that were downregulated in the root branching course.

Supplemental Table S4: GO, Mapman and Interpro terms associated with the

meristem-enriched genes that were upregulated in the root branching course.

Supplemental Table S5: Selaginella orthologs or homologs from lateral root or

root stem cell related gene families as retrieved from PLAZA version 4.5

(https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/plaza/versions/plaza_v4_5_dicots/).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Lieven Sterck and Ignacio Eguinoa for support in bioinformatic analyses,

Anna Kremer, Benjamin Pavie, Peter Borghgraef and Saskia Lippens for assistance and

guidance with the SBF-SEM, Davy Opdenacker for technical support and Annick Bleys

for help in preparing the mansucript. We also would like to thank Moritz Nowack, Edyta

Gola and Koen Geuten for the helpful discussions and comments on the manuscript.

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Figure 1. Dichotomous root branching in *Selaginella moellendorffii*. A, A young hairless rhizophore. B, Root emergence from the rhizophore. The transition from the rhizophore to the root is marked by the appearance of a collar of root hairs. Scale bars: 0.1 mm. C and D, Formation of first (C) and second (D) order bifurcated roots. The insets are magnifications of the squares. The arrows indicate newly formed root apices. Scale bars: 1 mm. E, Percentage of root tips that underwent the first bifurcation during 17 d after transfer on 1/2 MS. The bifurcation percentage was calculated as the number of bifurcated roots divided by the total number of roots. Values are averages of 3 repeats ± SD. F, Percentage of root tips that underwent the second bifurcation during 15 d after the first bifurcation. . The bifurcation percentage was calculated as the number of secondly bifurcated root apices divided by the total number of the apices from roots that underwent a first bifurcation. Values are averages of 2 repeats ± SD. G, Confocal image showing a bifurcated apical meristem: root tip with two new clearly recognizable young meristems (arrowheads). Scale bar: 50 μm. H, Percentage of bifurcated meristems in the root branching time course setup, i.e. days after the first branching. The percentage in Figure 1H was calculated as the number of root apices showing clear apical meristem bifurcation (see Fig. 1G) divided by the total number of sampled root tips. n (daily sample number) ≥ 10.

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Figure 2. Histological sections from *S. moellendorffii* roots sampled during the root
branching time course. A and B, A newly branched root tip containing two apical
meristems sampled on day 0, (B) is a magnification of the indicated area in (A). The
inset in (B) shows a magnification of the initial cell (IC) and its neighboring region.
The initial and the presumptive most recent daughter cells are indicated by dotted lines.
The hollow arrows indicate the expected directions in which the IC cuts off daughter
cells from the different faces. C-G, Early-stage bifurcating meristems with two
presumptive ICs next or close to each other. The insets shows a magnification of the
indicated area, the arrows indicate the ICs. Scale bars: 50 μm, except for panel (C) and
(D): 10 μm.

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Figure 3. 3D imaging to segment ICs. A, Example of a *S. moellendorffii* root generated from a whole-mount confocal stack (Supplemental Movie S2). Individual cells are randomly colored. Insets show magnifications of the front view or the 270 degree turned view. Scale bars: 20 μm. B, Different views of five ICs segmented from confocal stacks. The fifth IC was segmented from the root in panel A. See Supplemental Movies S3-S7 for a full overview of the ICs Scale bar: 2 μm. C and G, SBF-SEM longitudinal sections (xz-views) showing two ICs. The inset shows a magnification of the indicated area in (C). The asterisks indicate the ICs. Scale bars: 10 μm. D-F and H-J, Serial section reconstruction of the ICs. The numbers indicate the corresponding faces of the cells. See Supplemental Movies S8 and S9 for a full overview. The solid and dashed lines in (H-J) separate the different faces. Scale bars: 1 μm.

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Figure 4. Early stages during *S. moellendorffii* root bifurcation. A-J, Confocal images of different stages during branching sampled between 1 and 5 days in the root branching time course. (B) shows a magnification of the root in (A). Scale bars are 50 µm, except for (B), where it is 20 µm. Asterisks indicate the location of the ICs. A-C, Two ICs are next to each other. See Supplemental Figure S2, A-C for more examples. E-G, Two ICs are only separated by one or two layers of cells. See Supplemental Figure S2, D-F for more examples. H-I, Further development of the two meristems, including enlargement of the root tip. K, Scheme showing the mechanism of root bifurcation as deduced from independent root samples during the early time points of root branching. Dashed lines indicate possible cell divisions.

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Figure 5. *S. moellendorffii* root branching transcriptome. A, Experimental set-up, showing sampled regions (dotted black lines: meristematic region; white: non-meristematic region (NM)). Scale bars are 1 mm. B, Heatmap showing expression [$\log_2$ fold change (FC)] of all root branching genes on the different days in the root branching course versus day 0, or for the meristematic (M) versus non-meristematic (NM) region. Gray values indicate no significance. C, Overview of numbers of up-regulated and downregulated differentially expressed genes (DEGs) at each time point during root branching. Note the decrease in number at the end of the time course, indicating a return to the initial state. D, Profiles of co-expression clusters based on weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) of the root branching genes. Clusters were grouped according to their shapes: Dome and Valley groups – the transiently upregulated and downregulated clusters, respectively; Up and Down groups – constitutively upregulated and downregulated clusters, respectively. Based on the peak position and shape, the Dome group was further grouped into Early peak, Late peak and Broad peak subgroups. In each cluster, the red curve represents the average expression of all genes in the cluster, and the green curve represents the eigengene of the cluster.

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Figure 6. Overview of root branching meristem-enriched genes. A and B, The heatmaps show the expression [log$_2$ fold change (FC)] of meristem-enriched genes upregulated (A) or downregulated (B) during root branching. C, Representation of the meristem-enriched genes in different expression clusters. The meristem-enriched genes were in particular overrepresented in transiently upregulated (Dome) clusters in red frames and constitutively downregulated (Down) clusters in blue frames. Orange and green frames indicate constitutively upregulated (Up) and transiently downregulated (Valley) clusters, respectively. DRBG, Downregulated root branching genes; URBG, Upregulated root branching genes. D, Heat map showing the expression [log$_2$ fold change (FC)] the top 20 meristem-enriched genes that were downregulated during root branching. The descriptions of the genes were retrieved from Phytozome (JGI) or NCBI. E, Enrichment

analysis of the meristem-enriched genes that were upregulated during root branching.

The graph shows enriched Molecular Function and Biological Process Gene Ontology

(GO) terms. Node size is scaled by the p-value of the enriched GO term, and node color

(from green to red) is determined by the enrichment fold of the term. Negative

enrichment folds are faded. The outer green band is determined by the subset ratio. The

graph was generated by PLAZA version 4.5

(https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/plaza/versions/plaza_v4_5_dicots/).

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Figure 7. Expression profiles of the transcription factors encoding DEGs and other
genes with their Arabidopsis homologs known to be involved in root meristem control
or lateral root (LR) formation. A, Heatmap showing the expression [$\log_2$ fold change
(FC)] profiles. The description shows the best Arabidopsis hit according to Banks et al.
(2011) or, if not present, the transcription factor type was retrieved according to Plant
Transcription Factor Database (PlantTFDB) v5. B, Relative expression of homologs of
RETINOBLASTOMA-RELATED1 (*RBR1*), *E2F TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR-3* (*E2F3*),
SCARECROW (*SCR*) (*SCR-LIKE14* (*SCL14*)), and the *WUSCHEL RELATED*
HOMEOBOX (*WOX*) family (*WOX8*). Error bars indicate SE (n = 4).
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1099 **Supplemental data**

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Supplemental Figure S1. Additional SBF-SEM images and proximal views of the
reconstructed root ICs in *S. moellendorffii*. (A-E) show the first IC and (F-J) show the
second. (A and F) and (B and G) are transverse (xy) and longitudinal (yz) SBF-SEM
sections, respectively. The inset shows a magnification of the indicated area in (B). The
asterisks indicate the ICs. Scale bars: 10 μm. (C-E) and (H-J) show other proximal
views of the reconstructed ICs, demonstrating that the ICs are not tetrahedral. The
numbers indicate the corresponding faces of the cells. The solid and dashed lines in (H-
J) indicate the main lines and the ones relatively difficult to be recognized, repectively.
Scale bars: 1 μm.

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1114 **Supplemental Figure S2.** Additional confocal images taken during the root branching
1115 assay in *S. moellendorffii*. A-C, More examples of symmetric division of the original
1116 IC resulting in two new initials. D-F, More examples showing two initials that are only
1117 separated by one or two layers of cells, further supporting that they originated next to
1118 each other. Scale bars: 50 μm.