

1 Phenotyping Root Architecture of Soil-Grown Rice: A Robust Protocol 2 Combining Manual Practices with Image-based Analyses.

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14 Digital Imaging of Root Traits

15 Abstract

16 *Background*

17 Breeding towards resilient rice varieties is often constrained by the limited data on root system
18 architecture obtained from relevant agricultural environments. Knowledge on the genotypic differences
19 and responses of root architecture to environmental factors is limited due the difficulty of analysing
20 soil-grown rice roots. An improved method using imaging is thus needed, but the existing methods
21 were never proven successful for rice. Here, we aimed to evaluate and improve a higher throughput
22 method of image-based root phenotyping for rice grown under field conditions. Rice root systems from
23 seven experiments were phenotyped based on the “shovelomics” method of root system excavation
24 followed by manual root phenotyping and digital root analysis after root imaging. Analyzed traits were
25 compared between manual and image-based root phenotyping systems using Spearman rank
26 correlations to evaluate whether both methods similarly rank the phenotypes. For each trait, the relative
27 phenotypic variation was calculated. A principal component analysis was then conducted to assess
28 patterns in root architectural variation.

29 *Results*

30 Several manually collected and image-based root traits were identified as having a high potential of
31 differentiating among contrasting phenotypes, while other traits are found to be inaccurate and thus
32 unreliable for rice. The image-based traits projected area, root tip thickness, stem diameter, and root
33 system depth successfully replace the manual determination of root characteristics, however attention
34 should be paid to the lower accuracy of the image-based methodology, especially when working with
35 older and larger root systems.

36 *Conclusions*

37 The challenges and opportunities of rice root phenotyping in field conditions are discussed for both
38 methods. We therefore propose an integrated protocol adjusted to the complexity of the rice root
39 structure combining image analysis in a water bath and the manual scoring of three traits (i.e. lateral
40 density, secondary branching degree, and nodal root thickness at the root base). The proposed
41 methodology ensures higher throughput and enhanced accuracy during root phenotyping of soil grown
42 rice in fields or pots compared to manual scoring only, it is cheap to develop and operate, it is valid in
43 remote environments, and it enables fast data extraction.

44 **1 Background**

45 Roots are highly important for crop yields as they provide essential functions to the plant, including
46 nutrient acquisition, water uptake, and anchoring into the soil¹⁻³. The spatial distribution, arrangement,
47 and appearance of all root parts and types is collectively referred to as root system architecture (RSA).
48 Optimizing RSA by breeding can enhance crop performance and crop resilience⁴⁻⁷, especially in
49 regions prone to droughts or subject to low inputs (i.e. a limited use of fertilizers or irrigation).

50 In this context, many root phenotyping platforms have been developed as summarized by Paez-Garcia
51 *et al.* (2015) and Kuijken *et al.* (2015)^{8,9}, each having their advantages and limitations. Some non-
52 destructive phenotyping methods (such as 2D or 3D imaging techniques, visible light imaging, laser
53 imaging, X-ray computed tomography and nuclear magnetic resonance imaging) have been tested to
54 evaluate root architectural traits of plant roots grown in soilless transparent media or rhizoboxes^{8,10,11}.
55 Rhizoscope, a high-throughput system existing of Plexiglas-made rhizoboxes filled with very small
56 glass beads, has been employed in rice root phenotyping to study the number of crown roots, root angle,
57 maximum root length, and nodal root diameter¹². However, for breeding purposes, genotype selection
58 or root plasticity should preferably be done based on trait expression under field conditions, as root
59 development can be strongly affected by environmental conditions and genotype × environment
60 interactions (G×E).¹³

61 Core and monolith root sampling on field trials in combination with detailed lab analysis of root
62 samples has been deployed in rice studies, but also for other cereal crops. However, root modifications
63 induced by sampling combined with the technical difficulty of accessing soil-grown roots make that
64 the analysis of the whole root system architecture remains challenging. Hence, only few platforms are
65 developed for screening RSA in soil conditions. The strong interactions between genotypes and
66 environmental factors (G×E)¹³ imply that root phenotyping and trait evaluation should be done in an
67 agronomically relevant environment, which means undisturbed soils under field conditions or in large
68 pots. The collection of root phenotypic data from such relevant environments is costly and labor-
69 intensive, and therefore increasingly becoming a limiting factor in plant breeding (Ahmadi *et al.* 2014;
70 Kuijken *et al.* 2015)^{6,8}. Therefore, there is a strong need for (semi-)automated methods of root
71 phenotyping that are (i) applicable at field scale, (ii) relatively cheap to develop and operate, (iii) easily
72 accessible, and (iv) sufficiently fast so large numbers of individual replicates can be measured.

73 From all available root phenotyping methods, *Digital Imaging of Root Traits* (DIRT) following the
74 ‘shovelomics’ method of excavation is one of the most simple and robust methods which can easily be

75 applied under field conditions, at any stage during plant development (Trachsel *et al.* 2011; Bucksch
76 *et al.* 2014; Das *et al.* 2015)¹⁴⁻¹⁶. Despite the destructive character of the method, it is among the few
77 affordable techniques that can be used under multiple field conditions, while enabling the analysis of
78 multiple root traits. Interestingly, DIRT has previously been successfully used for several crops such
79 as maize and beans^{17,18}, but not yet for rice as this was shown to be much more challenging due to the
80 particular complexity of the crop's root system.

81 Rice (*Oryza* spp.) is among the most important staple crops in the world, often grown under drought-
82 prone and low-input conditions¹⁹. For rice production, the target ecosystems that would thus benefit
83 from optimizing the rice RSA for enhanced production under low inputs include both uplands and
84 rainfed lowlands, while optimizing RSA in high-input irrigated lowlands can also improve the
85 fertilizer- and water use efficiency²⁰. However, while there is a large community focusing on rice
86 breeding, efforts to increase drought resilience and nutrient acquisition efficiency are still constrained
87 by the limited availability of root phenotypic data (Ahmadi *et al.* 2014)⁶. For a root trait to be a possible
88 target trait when breeding for nutrient acquisition efficiency or drought resilience, it is essential that a
89 sufficiently large genotypic variation in this trait exists, and high-throughput phenotyping methods are
90 thus needed to exploit such genotypic variation. Additionally, phenotyping methods should be able to
91 evaluate the root trait plasticity in response to certain environmental factors. As rice has a highly
92 complex and dense root system, phenotyping of soil grown-rice root systems was shown to be
93 challenging. Therefore, it is necessary to test, validate, and improve the existing semi-automated and
94 high-throughput root phenotyping platforms for rice specifically, in order to enhance the collection of
95 architectural root data from soil-grown rice.

96 This work aims to evaluate both manual root phenotyping and (semi-)automated image-based root
97 phenotyping (i.e. DIRT) for their ability to differentiate contrasting root phenotypes of rice at field
98 scale. We discuss the challenges and opportunities of imaging soil-grown rice roots, and we propose
99 practical modifications to the method to improve and facilitate future phenotyping of soil-grown rice
100 roots.

101

102 **2 Materials and Methods**

103 **2.1 Evaluation of rice root imaging under semi-field conditions (large pots)**

104 *Experimental set-up*

105 Two pot trials ('pot 1' & 'pot 2') were conducted in a greenhouse at the Sokoine University of
106 Agriculture (6°50'52.8" S, 37°39'31.2"E; Tanzania) in 2016. Details of the experimental set-up and
107 differences among the trials are presented in Table 1 and described in Text S1.a (**Supplementary**
108 **Information**).

109 *Manual root data collection*

110 At 46 days after sowing (DAS), the root system of each plant was carefully washed out from the soil
111 matrix by soaking and gently shaking the soil matrix in water on a 2 mm net. The root system was then
112 transferred to a dish with clean water where root architectural parameters were manually measured and
113 determined. The number of nodal roots was counted and the average nodal root diameter was measured
114 at the nodal root base, using a transparent ruler (to 0.1 mm). The transparent ruler was placed on the
115 nodal roots, and the average thickness was manually determined. The lateral density, i.e. the spacing
116 of the lateral branches on the nodal roots, was scored using the 'shovelomics scoreboard' developed
117 for maize by Trachsel *et al.* (2011)¹⁵. The shovelomics scoreboard is a resource for phenotyping roots
118 of soil-grown crops after excavation. For rice, this approach allows the scoring of contrasting densities
119 of S-type laterals by comparing the scoreboard with the density of laterals, as presented on Figure 1
120 (bottom, right) for the nodal root base (i.e. from stubble up to ca. 15 cm depth). The density was
121 determined by placing the different scoring classes from the scoreboard next to the roots and comparing
122 the densities from the board with the actual density on the root. In some trials these scores of the basal
123 S-type lateral density are complemented with the density of the L-type laterals at the bottom of the root
124 system (below 20 cm depth)). S-type laterals are short and thin lateral roots, emerging at the root base
125 on the nodal roots and they do not have higher order branches. L-type laterals are longer and generally
126 thicker, and they branch further into higher order branches²¹. These density scores can then be
127 translated into actual values of distance. The secondary branching degree, i.e. the degree of higher
128 order root branching on L-type roots²¹ evaluated over the whole root system, was manually scored.
129 Lateral root thickness (both at the base and at the deeper roots) were manually scored according to five
130 classes, each corresponding to a thickness class with actual diameter values. The scores used for the
131 different traits are shown in Table S1 (**Supplementary Information**).

132 *Image-based root analysis (DIRT)*

133 After manually determining root architectural traits, the root system was placed on a diffuse black
134 board as described by Bucksch *et al.* (2014)¹⁶. A scalemarker with known diameter was provided and
135 images were taken from a fixed distance with a digital camera mounted on a tripod as shown on Figure

136 1 (top, right). The average duration of root analysis was estimated by dividing the total time needed to
137 analyze all root systems in the trial divided by the total number of analyzed root systems. All images
138 were subsequently processed through the digital image analysis pipeline (DIRT software;
139 <http://dirt.cyverse.org/>) and all root architectural traits for monocots were extracted. Root traits derived
140 by the imaged-based DIRT software are noted with an ‘*’ in the main text to clarify the origin. After
141 analysis, roots were oven-dried (60°C) and stubble and roots were weighed separately.

142 **2.2 Evaluation of rice root imaging under field conditions**

143 *Experimental set-up and root data collection (manual & image-based)*

144 Two field trials (‘Field 1’ & ‘Field 2’) were conducted in Tanzania while another field trial (‘Field 3’)
145 was conducted in Madagascar (details in Table 1 and Text S1.b (**Supplementary Information**)).

146 At root harvest (51 DAS for Field 1 & 2 and 110 DAS for Field 3), a soil volume of 20x20x20 cm
147 around each selected rice plant was excavated and roots were washed out from the soil using sieves (2
148 mm) and water. Root data were collected as described in pervious section, and images of the root
149 systems were similarly taken in a tent temporary placed on the field, as presented on Figure 1 (top,
150 left).

151 **2.3 Assessment and validation of manual and image-based root traits**

152 In order to evaluate the capability of the image-based analysis to accurately assess variation in root
153 traits and verify the redundancy of manually determined traits, linear, logarithmic, and exponential
154 relations were first fitted between the image-based traits and the theoretically related root traits that
155 were manually collected (data not shown). Table 2 presents the output variables from the image-based
156 analysis with the corresponding manually determined root traits for which a relation or correlation is
157 theoretically expected based on the nature of the traits. Spearman-Rank correlation coefficients (ρ)
158 between treatment means of the manually determined traits and the related image-based output
159 variables were calculated for each trial, to evaluate whether the image-based analysis was able to
160 accurately differentiate variation and correctly rank performance of root traits among treatments or
161 genotypes, so assessing its potential to replace the manual, more time consuming, determination of a
162 trait. The p-values of these Spearman correlations were computed using algorithm AS 89 for $n < 1290$
163 and ‘exact = TRUE’ using the `cor.test()` function in R. These are ‘exact’ for $n < 10$, and use an
164 Edgeworth series approximation for larger sample sizes.²²

165 For each root trait (both manually collected and image-based), the ‘*relative phenotypic variation*’
166 (RPV) was calculated in each trial according to Bucksch *et al.* (2014)¹⁶. The RPV of a trait for a given
167 dataset is defined as the ratio between the variance of the trait over all roots in the data set (V_d) and the
168 average of the trait variances in each specific treatment ($V_{P \times W \times G}$; considering Phosphorus (P), Water
169 (W), and Genotype (G) as experimental factors):

$$170 \quad RPV = \frac{V_d}{V_{P \times W \times G}}$$

171 Traits are more likely to be useful in differentiating phenotypic differences when their RPV is larger
172 than 1.

173 Additionally, for each experiment a multivariate principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted
174 after scaling and centering the meaningful dataset by using the {mixOmics} package in R *version 3.2.2*
175 ²². This PCA was conducted for each experiment in order to assess the coherence and relatedness of
176 the multiple contrasting root traits.

177 **2.4 An adjusted method to enhance imaging of the rice root architecture**

178 As the rice root system is very dense and sticky (due to the dense branching and very small root
179 diameter of laterals), differentiation among roots and capturing architectural traits by imaging root
180 systems on a dry plate often becomes very challenging. Therefore, we aimed to improve the method of
181 root imaging to enhance the visibility and differentiation of the root types on the image.

182 *Experimental set-up and root data collection (manual & image-based)*

183 One pot trial (‘water 1’) was conducted in a greenhouse located at Sokoine University of Agriculture
184 (6°50'53.9"S, 37°39'31.3"E; Tanzania) in 2017, and a second pot trial (‘water 2’) was conducted at the
185 Laboratoire des Radio Isotopes (18°53'56.84"S; 47°33'1.27"E, Madagascar). (Table 3 and Text S1.c
186 **(Supplementary Information)**).

187 At 51 DAS for ‘water 1’ and 49 DAS for ‘water 2’, the rice root system was washed out and root traits
188 were manually determined as previously described. The root system was then placed in a basin with
189 the same black blanket at the bottom, but filled with water (up to a level of 3 cm). Pictures were then
190 taken from the roots in the water bath from a fixed distance on a tripod, while avoiding reflection on
191 the water surface by placing a light at the lateral side of the basin and positioning the camera in such a

192 way that reflection is avoided (Figure 1 (bottom, left) & Figure 3). The latter can also be facilitated by
193 the use of polarizing filters. Root images were then analyzed by the DIRT software, as previously
194 described for other trials.

195

196 **3 Results**

197 For each trial, among the image based root traits, strongest relations are demonstrated between the
198 projected root area* and manually determined root traits such as root weight and nodal root number
199 (Table 4). However, the relation between the projected root area* and root weight strongly alters among
200 trials, and the slope tends to increase with increasing plant age but is also larger for field trials compared
201 to pot trials (Figure 4). For all pot trials, an exponential relation is observed between the projected root
202 area* and root weight (Figure 5), while a strong linear relation between nodal root thickness and the
203 mean tip diameter* is observed (Table 4 & Figure 5). The latter relation between nodal root thickness
204 and the mean tip diameter* was not clearly observed in the field trials, possibly following from the fact
205 that many root tips break off during root excavation on the field.

206 Generally strong correlations are indeed observed between the total root weight and the projected root
207 area*, and between the number of nodal roots and the number of root tip paths*, the number of skeleton
208 nodes*, and the projected area* (Table 4). Interestingly, the longest root length strongly correlates to
209 the rooting depth skeleton* analyzed on the image. Inconsistent correlations among the trials are
210 observed between image analysis derived traits and the manually determined traits ‘secondary
211 branching degree’ and ‘lateral density’. However, root imaging in water strongly improved the
212 correlations of the latter two manually determined traits (i.e. ‘secondary branching degree’ and ‘lateral
213 density’) with the number of skeleton nodes* and the number of root tip paths*, while it did not improve
214 the correlations with the average root density*. Nodal root thickness shows a strong correlation with
215 the mean tip diameter* and the median tip diameter* for all trials, except for ‘Field 1’ and ‘Field 3’
216 (Table 4).

217 Interestingly, RPV values of manually determined root traits are generally larger than the image-
218 derived root traits (Table 5). Highest RPV values are observed for the manually determined root traits:
219 total root weight (RPV from 2-6.6), number of nodal roots (RPV from 1.7-12.6), secondary branching
220 degree (RPV from 1.1 – 5.3), lateral density (RPV from 1.2-5.6), and nodal thickness (RPV from 1.1-
221 10.5). Image-based traits with a consistent relatively high RPV are the number of skeleton nodes*

222 (RPV from 1.2-4.8), *AREA* (RPV from 1.4-6.3), and the number of root tip paths* (RPV from 1.1-3.6).
223 Trends in RPV values are less consistent among trials for the stem diameter* (RPV from 1.0-2.7), the
224 average root density* (RPV from 1.0-1.8), the rooting depth skeleton* (RPV from 1.0-2.2), the mean
225 tip diameter* (RPV from 1.0-1.9), and the skeleton width* (RPV from 1.0-5.8). RPV values from the
226 accumulated widths over 10%-90% percent depth* (*D10-90*) and the slopes of the graphs of these D-
227 values* (*DS10-90*) are consistently close to 1. (Table 5 & Figure S1 (**Supplementary Information**))

228 Results of the PCA highlight the inherent correlations between several root traits. The first principal
229 component explained 16 to 45% of the variation while the second component comprised 6-20% of the
230 variation in the different experiments (Table S2, **Supplementary Information**). Generally, principal
231 component 1 was predominantly loaded by size-related phenes such as root weight, the projected root
232 area*, and number of nodals, while loadings on PC2 were more variable and mainly presented by
233 secondary branching degree and lateral density (Figure S2, **Supplementary Information**). Figure 6
234 demonstrate how a PCA of the suggested root traits (combined manual and image-based) enables to
235 distinguish and group root phenotypic performance related to genotype selection (in experiment Water
236 1) or water treatments (in experiment Water 2), highlighting the power and applicability of this
237 phenotyping protocol.

238

239 **4 Discussion**

240 **4.1 Challenges and opportunities for image-based root phenotyping of soil-grown rice**

241 We have evaluated both manual and image-based root phenotyping methodologies for soil-grown rice
242 in multiple environments. The inconsistent relationships between some manually determined and
243 image-based traits across all experiments demonstrate that a reliable and consistent quantification of
244 root traits (e.g. root weight (g), nodal thickness (mm), depth (cm)) based on image-based output
245 variables remains very challenging. Variations induced by environmental characteristics, plant age,
246 and harvesting method should definitely be considered when comparing results from different
247 environments and this variation precludes a robust trait quantification based on images. Variability
248 among root phenotypes (from one genotype) across several environments and experiments was also
249 demonstrated by Trachsel *et al.* (2011)¹⁵ for maize, and this can be explained by the strong genotype-
250 by-environment interactions^{12,23}.

251 The rice root system is very dense and has a complex structure (Rebouillat *et al.* 2009; Ahmadi *et al.*
252 2014)^{6,24}, and the large degree of root overlap forms a major challenge for image-based root analysis.
253 Figure 4 shows the variable relations between the projected root area* and total root weight, induced
254 by environment and plant age. The steeper slope of the relation between the projected root area* and
255 total root weight for older plants is explained by the increasing overlap of roots at the nodal root base
256 combined with a larger stubble weight in older plants. This increasing root overlap with increasing root
257 size following a larger nodal root number additionally results in exponential relations between the
258 projected root area* (exponent) and total root weight as shown in Figure 5. Additionally, in the field
259 only shallow roots can be collected (seen on Figure 2), and more root overlap occurs at this root base.
260 Hence, this results in a smaller projected root area* relative to the root mass of field-excavated root
261 systems (i.e. steeper slopes for field experiments on Figure 4). Thus, it should be considered when
262 analyzing larger root systems in field conditions that the overlap of nodal roots at the root base can
263 decrease the accuracy of the image based analysis and therefore it would underestimate size related
264 traits.

265 As rice roots are relatively flexible, the root angle is modified during washing and placing the roots on
266 the board. Therefore, root angle and other ‘angle-related’ DIRT traits as the skeleton width*, the root
267 top angle*, the root bottom angle*, the accumulated widths over 10%-90% percent depth* (*D10-90*),
268 and the slopes of the graphs of these D-values* (*DS10-90*) are considered as inaccurate and unreliable
269 parameters without biological meaning. These parameters cannot be determined correctly by the
270 shovelomics method of root excavation and hence they were excluded from the analyses. To overcome
271 this challenge of root angle modifications during excavation, the root angle could be analyzed in field
272 conditions by the ‘basket method’^{25,26}, using vertical core sampling²⁷, or it could be analyzed after
273 washing out a vertical plain along the root²⁸.

274 An additional related challenge for rice root phenotyping is the ‘stickiness’ of the fine laterals. The
275 architecture of laterals becomes invisible as soon as the root system is taken out of water. Therefore,
276 the extraction of root system architectural traits by ‘*Root Estimator for Shovelomics Traits (REST)*’ as
277 described by Colombi *et al.* (2015)¹⁷ or 3D imaging in a box²⁹ would not work successfully for rice.

278 Despite some inconsistent relations among manually determined and image-based traits, the high
279 Spearman rank correlation coefficients between several traits (Table 4) highlight the possibility to
280 differentiate root phenotypes by comparing treatment means of several image-based traits within a
281 trial. The Spearman rank correlations indicate that some image-based traits can indeed replace the

Image-based rice root phenotyping

282 manual collection of certain traits, in order to speed up the phenotyping process on the field, without
283 losing useful information. Interestingly, pooling all analyzed traits into composite descriptors after a
284 principal component analysis allows the identification of distinct root phenotypes, related to treatments
285 or genotypes (Figure 6), highlighting the power of this method.

286 Among the image-based traits considered in our study, the projected root area* can be used most
287 successfully to rank phenotypes according to root size, and this probably follows from two underlying
288 reasons. First, it is the trait that can most accurately be captured on the image – thus with lowest
289 measurement noise. Second, it can be considered as a size descriptor that indeed integrates several
290 branching and vigor information, being meaningful for identifying distinct root phenotypes.
291 Additionally, the mean tip diameter* and the median tip diameter* can also successfully replace
292 manual measurements of the root tip diameter when root systems are not too old and dense (Figure 5
293 & Table 4). However, additional care should be taken to the differences between root tip thickness and
294 nodal thickness at the root base, as the latter trait cannot accurately be determined by the image based
295 DIRT analysis. The rooting depth skeleton* can successfully be used to analyze the longest root length
296 of the excavated root system, but attention should be paid to the challenges of excavating deep roots
297 on the field and correctly placing the longest root in the root bath without folding it. Roots of field-
298 grown rice may grow deeper than 1 m³⁰, a depth that often precludes excavation. Deep rooting of rice
299 was therefore suggested to be analyzed in pots³¹, or by soil coring and raised field beds²⁵. The number
300 of skeleton nodes* and the number of root tip paths* also showed potential to differentiate phenotypes,
301 and when imaging rice roots in water the correlation with the number of nodal roots, lateral density,
302 and secondary branching degree increased. The number of skeleton nodes* and the number of root tip
303 paths* integrate the influences of both the nodal root number, lateral density, and secondary branching
304 degree, but the image-based method is not able to identify or distinguish these particular traits. The
305 latter three manually determined traits can thus not be replaced by one single image based trait. This
306 shows that the image-based analysis is not accurate enough to capture all details required for
307 differentiating genotypes at a more subtle scale of architectural traits. This does not invalidate the DIRT
308 approach, but it simply shows its limitations. Therefore, it would be beneficial to combine both manual
309 and image-based methodologies when phenotyping rice roots, as proposed in the next section.

310 The large values of the relative phenotypic variation (RPV) for some manually determined and image-
311 based traits highlight the power of a combined method to differentiate contrasting root phenotypes
312 related to genotypes or environmental factors. Interestingly, the manually determined traits show

313 generally larger RPV values than the DIRT traits, which is probably related to the reduced
314 measurement accuracy of image-based traits, mainly explained by the strong root overlap on images.
315 Interestingly, the lateral density and secondary branching degree showed a consistently high RPV value
316 in most trials, indicating large variations of this trait among genotypes or treatments^{12,13}, and this cannot
317 clearly be detected by the image-based analysis. Basal S-type laterals cannot be differentiated on the
318 images because they are very thin and hidden by overlapping nodal roots at the base. Hence, as this
319 trait displayed a high differentiation potential among genotypes or environmental factors, we argue
320 that this basal lateral density should be manually determined on the root system or by analyzing images
321 of single excised roots. Additionally, previous studies have previously shown that such manual
322 analyses of lateral density and secondary branching can indeed successfully assess phenotypic variation
323 in rice root performance^{32,33}.

324 Interestingly, the PCA demonstrated that most variation in all experiments is explained by size-related
325 phenes, mainly dominated by the image-based trait, projected root area*. Such high variance induced
326 by size related root phenes was also observed for maize by York and Lynch (2015)³⁴ and it indicates
327 that there is indeed an underlying genetic basis causing correlations among all size related traits. This
328 implies a pleiotropic genetic control of several size related root phenes, such as a general root vigor
329 driver for PC1³⁴. Interestingly, the manually determined traits basal lateral density and secondary
330 branching degree were found to be independent from size related traits and this observation indeed
331 suggests a different genetic program of lateral branching (i.e. lateral primordia initiation and their
332 subsequent emergence), independent from root vigor^{35,36}.

333 **4.2 Future prospects and recommended protocol for rice root phenotyping**

334 We have shown that image-based analysis of the rice root system architecture can be successful for
335 several traits, but not all traits are reliable and useful. Concerning the previously discussed challenges
336 and opportunities for rice root phenotyping in field conditions, we now propose a phenotyping method
337 that combines both the manual determination of few root traits with an adjusted method of root
338 imaging, as presented in Figure 7.

339 We suggest to manually determine the lateral density, secondary branching degree, and the nodal root
340 thickness at the root base (if relevant for the study) before imaging the root system. In order to increase
341 resolution of the image based analysis and enhance differentiation among nodal and lateral roots, we
342 then suggest to take root images in a water bath (ca. 2-3 cm depth) on a diffuse black background,

343 before analyzing them with the DIRT software. Root traits as the projected root area*, the mean tip
344 diameter* , the rooting depth skeleton*, the average root density*, the number of skeleton nodes* and
345 the number of root tip paths* can then be successfully extracted. Combining these three manually
346 determined traits with the image-based analysis from root images in a water bath would efficiently and
347 most accurately cover the widest range of interesting root traits, and this method has indeed shown to
348 have a high potential of differentiating root phenes (Figure 6).

349 Attention should be paid to the strong root overlap when roots are becoming older, larger, and very
350 dense. Future research would therefore benefit from identifying the earliest phenological stage at which
351 rice plants show root architectural traits also expressed at later growth stages and being independent
352 from size (as discussed before). Harvesting younger plants would facilitate the differentiation of root
353 architectural traits by imaging, reduce the efforts for roots excavation, and decrease the time (and costs)
354 of field occupation. It should be noted that the screening of field grown root systems at early stages is
355 destructive, and that it can impede the final grain yield determination. However, this challenge can
356 easily be circumvented by the inclusion of a few extra lines per plot during field establishment. Hence
357 this enables the analysis of the RSA in a sub-plot, while keeping an undisturbed plot for later yield
358 determination. The relatively short time needed to analyze one root system (Table 1) would make it
359 possible to collect data from a large sample set, and time requirements would even further decrease
360 when the manually determined traits (lateral density and secondary branching degree) could accurately
361 be analyzed by additional imaging of a subsample or on few excised nodal roots, but such method
362 remains to be developed and evaluated. Also when root excavation and washing could be mechanically
363 assisted, throughput can be increased. The strengths, weaknesses, and future opportunities of this
364 proposed method are presented in Table 6. Hereby it should be noted that, while this protocol is
365 developed for rice, it could easily be transferred to other small-grained cereals that have a similar fragile
366 root system, such as barley and wheat.

367 This suggested methodology is high-throughput, robust, low cost, and easy-to-learn, which indicates
368 its large potential also in less-endowed environments. Future works would additionally benefit from
369 developing a method that enables to determine the rice root angle on the excavated soil block before
370 washing the soil (i.e. by scanning the position of the emerging nodal roots while rotating the excavated
371 soil block), in order to complete the proposed protocol of rice root analysis in field conditions.

372

373 **5 Conclusion**

374 We evaluated two methods of root phenotyping for soil-grown rice (manual analysis versus image-
375 based) and we propose an adjusted method, for inference on a minimum dataset to identify distinctive
376 root phenotypes. After root excavating, the proposed method combines the manual determination of
377 three traits that cannot be analyzed accurately by the imaging method only (i.e. the lateral density, the
378 secondary branching degree, and the nodal thickness at the root base), with subsequent root imaging
379 in a water bath followed by software-based image analysis (i.e. DIRT-software). This method should
380 enable researchers to efficiently analyze the widest range of interesting root traits, achieve higher
381 accuracy, reduce the required time of root system analysis, and it is applicable on fields in remote
382 environments. This method would so enhance the collection of architectural root data of rice grown in
383 agronomically relevant environments and the method enables the identification of different root
384 phenotypes related to genotypes or induced by experimental treatments.

385

386 **6 Declarations**

387 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

388 Not applicable.

389 *Consent for publication*

390 Not applicable.

391 *Competing interests*

392 The authors declare that they have no competing interests. The authors also declare that the research
393 was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as
394 a potential conflict of interest.

395 *Author contributions*

396 P.D.B., J.A., and R.V.H. conducted the experiments (with assistance as described in the
397 acknowledgments), P.D.B. analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. E.V., T.R., K.S., E.S., and
398 R.M. conceived the research and revised the manuscript.

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408 *Availability of data and materials*

409 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current studies are available from the corresponding
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411

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502

Table 1: Details and information of the pot and field trials for which root imaging occurred on a dry plate. The manually determined root traits that were collected in each trial are presented with ‘x’ at the bottom.

	Pot 1	Pot 2	Field 1	Field 2	Field 3
Soil/origin	Dakawa	Matombo	SUA	Ruvu	Behenji
Coordinates	06°23'56.6"S 37°33'47.5" E	07°02'46.8" S 37°47'11.6" E	06°50'55.7" S 37°39'18.2" E	06°43'12.0" S 38°40'48.0" E	19°10'46.53" S 47°29'49.39" E
Country	Tanzania	Tanzania	Tanzania	Tanzania	Madagascar
Sowing date	11/03/2016	25/03/2016	25/07/2016	09/04/2016	22/10/2015
Pot size	9.5 kg	9 kg	-	-	-
Number of plants	72	72	144	144	96
Time of root harvest <i>(DAS = days after sowing)</i>	46 DAS	46 DAS	51 DAS	51 DAS	110 DAS
Varieties (group) <i>*(sativa x glaberrima)</i> <i>#(Indica)</i>	NERICA4* NERICA-L-19*	NERICA4* Mudgo#	NERICA4* NERICA-L-19* Mudgo#	NERICA4* NERICA-L-19* Mudgo#	X265#
P Treatments <i>(mg L⁻¹ refers to the soil solution at the start of the experiment)</i>	Deficient (<0.01 mg L ⁻¹) Sub-optimal (0.1 mg L ⁻¹) Non-limiting (2 mg L ⁻¹)	Deficient (<0.01 mg L ⁻¹) Sub-optimal (0.1 mg L ⁻¹) Non-limiting (2 mg L ⁻¹)	No P (0 kg ha ⁻¹) P broadcast (30 kg ha ⁻¹)	No P (0 kg ha ⁻¹) P broadcast (30 kg ha ⁻¹)	No P (0 kg ha ⁻¹) P broadcast (30 kg ha ⁻¹)
Water Treatments (pF) *start of implementation	Water Stress (3-3.5) Field Capacity (2) Soil Submergence (0) *18 DAS	Water Stress (3-3.5) Moderate Water Stress (2.7) Field Capacity (2) *18 DAS	Water Stress (~3.5) Field Capacity (2) *19 DAS	Field Capacity (2) Soil Submergence (0) *22 DAS	Field Capacity (2) Alternate Wetting & Drying Soil Submergence (0) 14* DAS
Experimental Design	Completely randomized	Completely randomized	Randomized Complete Block Design	Split Plot Design	Split Plot Design
Replicates per combination	4 plants	4 plants	3 blocks (4 plants)	3 blocks (4 plants)	3 blocks (4 plants)
Average duration of analysis <i>(washing, scoring, & imaging)</i>	12 min/root system	10 min/root system	11 min/root system	11 min/root system	7 min/root system
Manually collected Root Traits					
Stubble weight (g)	X	X	X	X	-
Root weight (g)	X	X	X	X	-
Total root weight (g)	X	X	X	X	X
Number of nodals (number)	X	X	X	X	X
Longest root length (cm)	X	X	X	X	X
Average root length (cm)	X	X	-	X	-
Nodal thickness (score/mm)	X	X	-	X	X
Lateral density (score)	X	X	X	X	X
Length of laterals (cm)	X	-	-	X	-

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Secondary branching degree (score)	X	X	X	X	X
Basal lateral branching thickness (score)	-	X	X	-	-
Bottom lateral branching thickness (score)	-	X	-	-	-
Bottom lateral branching density (score)	-	X	-	-	-
Root volume (ml)	-	-	-	-	X

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Table 2: Overview of the manually determined architectural root traits (headings) and the closely related image-based traits (extracted from DIRT) below. Based on the nature of these traits, a correlation is expected between the presented traits. The presented output variables from the DIRT software are defined below.

Total root weight	Number of nodals	Nodal root thickness	Lateral density	Secondary branching degree	Longest root length	Root volume
AREA	RTP_COUNT AREA SKL_NODES	TD_MED TD_AVG	RTP_COUNT AVG_DENSITY SKL_NODES	RTP_COUNT AVG_DENSITY SKL_NODES	SKL_DEPTH	AREA
DIRT variable	Name	Definition				
AREA	Projected Root Area	Number of foreground pixels belonging to the root system. Previously defined in GiA Roots.				
RTP_COUNT	Number of Root Tip Paths	The overall number of tips detected in the image				
SKL_NODES	Number of Skeleton Nodes	The overall number of skeleton nodes in the extracted root shape. (described in Leitner <i>et al.</i> 2014) ³⁷				
TD_MED	Median Tip Diameter	Median Tip Diameter				
TD_AVG	Mean Tip Diameter	Mean Tip Diameter				
AVG_DENSITY	Average Root Density	Ratio of foreground to background pixels within the root shape				
SKL_DEPTH	Rooting Depth Skeleton	Rooting depth calculated from the medial axis of the root system. Previously used in GiA Roots.				
DIA_STM	Stem Diameter	Stem diameter derived from the medial axis				
SKL_WIDTH	Skeleton width	Width calculated from the medial axis of the root system				
ANG_TOP	Root Top Angle	Root Top Angle measured between the Random Sample Consensus (RANSAC) fit line at depth of the D10 value and the horizontal soil line. ³⁸				
ANG_BTM	Root Bottom Angle	Root Bottom Angle measured between the RANSAC fit line at depth of the D80 value and the horizontal soil line.				
D10-D90	Accumulated width over 10%-90% percent depth (D-values)	Percentage of width accumulation at 10%-90% depth. The change in width accumulation denotes a change of the root-top angle				
DS10-DS90	Slope of the graph of D-values	Slope of the graph at the D10-D90 values that represents the rate of accumulation				

Table 3: Details and information of the trials for which root images were taken from root systems placed in a water bath. The manually determined root traits that were collected in each trial are presented with ‘x’ at the bottom.

Trial	Water 1	Water 2
Soil/origin	Matombo	Behenji
Coordinates soil	07°02'46.8" S 37°47'11.6" E	18°53'56.84"S 47°33'01.27"E
Country	Tanzania	Madagascar
Sowing date	17/04/2017	20/08/2018
Pot size (dry soil weight)	12.3 kg	5 kg
Number of plants	80	172
Time of root harvest <i>(DAS = days after sowing)</i>	51 DAS	49 DAS
Varieties (group) <i>^a(aus); ^b(indica); ^c(glaberrima); ^d(sativa x glaberrima); ^e(japonica)</i>	NERICA4 ^d DJ123 ^a	FOFIFA 172 ^b ; CG34 ^c ; CG42 ^c ; NERICA4 ^d ; DJ123 ^a ; CD ^e ; K32 NDJ 243.3.1.1; K16 NDJ 9.1.2.1; K47 NDJ 40.3.1.; I-7 NDJ 12.2.2.1
P Treatment(s)	No P (<0.01 mg L ⁻¹) Placement 1 (12 mg P) Placement 2 (24 mg P) Sub-optimal (0.1 mg L ⁻¹) Non-limiting (0.5 mg L ⁻¹)	200 mg P kg ⁻¹
Water Treatments <i>(pF)</i>	Drying Periods (~) Field Capacity (2)	Wilting point (4.2) Intermittent (2.3-3) Intermittent (<i>rainfall pattern</i>) Field capacity (2)
*Start of implementation	*25 DAS	*4 DAS
Experimental Design	Completely randomized	Randomized Complete Block Design
Replicates per combination	4 plants	4 plants
Average duration of analysis (washing, scoring, & imaging)	8 min/root system	13 min/root system
Manually collected Root Traits		
Stubble weight	X	X
Root weight	X	X
Total root weight	X	X
Number of nodals	X	X
Longest root length	-	X
Average root length	-	-
Nodal root thickness	X	X

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Lateral density	X	X
Length of laterals	-	-
Secondary branching degree	X	X
Basal lateral branching thickness	X	X

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Table 4: Spearman Rank correlation coefficients (ρ) between the treatment means of manually determined traits and theoretically related image-based output variables (Table 2). The number of analyzed root systems and treatment combinations are also presented. The ‘set-up’ shows whether the experiment was conducted in pots or on the field, while ‘analysis’ refers to the method of root imaging (i.e. on a dry plate or in a water bath)

Manually determined trait	Image-based (DIRT) trait	Pot 1 Dakawa 2016	Pot 2 Matombo 2016	Field 1 SUA	Field 2 Ruvu	Field 3 Behenji	Water 1 Matombo 2017	Water 2 Behenji 2018
<i>Number of analyzed root systems</i>		72	72	144	144	96	80	172
<i>Number of treatment combinations</i>		18	18	12	12	6	10	10
<i>Set-up/analysis</i>		pot/plate	pot/plate	field/plate	field/plate	field/plate	pot/basin	pot/basin
Total root weight	AREA	0.92***	0.94***	0.97***	0.85***	0.60	0.80***	0.94***
Number of nodals	RTP_COUNT	0.02	0.53*	0.64*	-0.66*	0.31	0.68**	0.80***
	AREA	0.90***	0.84***	0.88***	0.82**	0.77	0.63**	0.93***
	SKL_NODES	0.72***	0.73***	0.87***	0.32	0.77	0.59**	0.92***
Nodal root thickness	TD_MED	0.76***	0.83***	-0.05	0.36	-0.10	0.41	0.62***
	TD_AVG	0.83***	0.86***	-0.19	0.50	-0.10	0.58**	0.73***
Secondary branching degree	RTP_COUNT	0.37	0.20	0.07	-0.44	0.46	0.64**	0.92***
	AVG_DENSITY	-0.70**	0.31	-0.25	0.61*	0.17	0.17	-0.11
	SKL_NODES	-0.42	-0.09	0.04	-0.30	0.20	0.54*	0.83***
Longest root length	SKL_DEPTH	0.53*	0.78**	0.68*	-	0.49	-	0.86***
	SKL_NODES	-0.03	-0.24	0.06	-0.17	-	0.54*	0.43**
Lateral density	AVG_DENSITY	0.22	0.48*	0.00	0.61*	-	-0.17	-0.31
	RTP_COUNT	-0.18	-0.27	0.19	-0.73**	-	0.60**	0.60***
Root Volume	AREA	-	-	-	-	0.83	-	-

Significance in this table was based on a p-level of '' <0.05, '**' <0.01 and '**'*' <0.001

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Table 5: The relative phenotypic variation (RPV) of each root trait determined for each experiment. Traits presented are both manually determined (top) and calculated based on images (bottom) (Das et al. 2015)¹⁴. Traits are more likely to be useful in differentiating phenotypic differences when their RPV is larger than 1. The explanations of the image-based trait names are presented in Table 2.

Method	Trait	Pot 1	Pot 2	Field 1	Field 2	Field 3	Water 1	Water 2
Manually determined traits	Total root weight	4.5	3.9	2.4	2.8	1.9	6.0	6.6
	Number of nodals	12.6	10.6	1.7	6.1	8.0	11.1	5.2
	Nodal root thickness score	10.4	5.4	1.2	2.2	1.1	1.8	4.2
	Variation in nodal tickness	-	1.6	-	-	-	-	-
	Lateral density	4.7	4.5	1.2	5.6	-	4.1	1.8
	Secondary branching degree	5.3	3.8	1.1	2.6	1.7	2.9	2.3
	Longest root length	1.1	1.9	1.1	-	4.2	-	2.4
	Average root length	1.8	2.0	-	-	-	-	-
	Length of laterals	1.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Basal lateral branching thickness	-	2.3	-	-	-	3.2	2.2
	Basal lateral branching density	-	2.7	-	-	-	-	1.8
	Bottom lateral branching thickness	-	2.3	-	-	-	-	1.2
	Bottom lateral branching density	-	4.1	-	-	-	-	1.1
	Root volume	-	-	-	-	4.2	-	-
Image-based traits	CIR_RATIO	1.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.0	0.9
	X_PIXEL	1.6	1.1	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	1.7
	Y_PIXEL	1.6	1.2	0.9	1.0	3.2	1.0	1.8
	X_SCALE	1.8	1.1	1.0	1.0	2.1	1.0	1.8
	Y_SCALE	1.8	1.2	0.9	1.0	3.3	1.0	1.9
	COMP_TIME	1.9	3.6	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.4	2.4
	SKL_NODES	3.6	4.6	1.3	1.1	2.9	1.6	4.8
	DIA_STM	2.9	2.6	1.0	1.1	1.3	0.9	2.7
	DIA_STM_SIMPLE	2.2	2.1	1.1	1.1	1.6	1.0	2.2
	AREA	4.1	5.0	1.5	1.3	2.7	1.7	6.2
	AVG_DENSITY	1.8	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.3
	TD_MED	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.0	1.5
	TD_AVG	1.8	1.4	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.9
	WIDTH_MED	1.8	1.9	1.3	1.0	3.0	1.0	8.0
	WIDTH_MAX	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.1	3.5	1.0	7.2
	SKL_DEPTH	1.4	2.1	1.0	1.1	1.6	1.0	2.2
	SKL_WIDTH	1.9	1.3	1.0	1.1	3.6	1.0	5.8
	RTP_COUNT	2.0	3.6	1.2	1.1	1.8	1.2	2.4
	ANG_TOP	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.6	1.7	3.6
	ANG_BTM	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.0	2.5	1.0	5.8

Table 6: Summary of the Strengths, Weaknesses, and Opportunities of this proposed phenotyping method for soil grown rice.

Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Robust protocol applicable at field scale ➤ Valid in remote environments ➤ Analysis of very complex root systems ➤ Cheap to develop and operate ➤ Fast data extraction ➤ Accessible to everyone ➤ (Semi-)Automated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Overlapping roots of very large plants <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Can reduced accuracy of size-related traits ○ Short manual analysis needed ➤ Quantification of image-based traits remains challenging ➤ Destructive to the plant 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Standardized protocol <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Enables comparison among different experiments from different scientists ○ Contribution to a platform with standardized rice root data ➤ Faster analysis by mechanizing root excavation and washing ➤ Yield determination still possible in undisturbed sub-plot ➤ Determination of root angle possible on unwashed, excavated soil block <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Method to be developed possibly by imaging technologies ➤ Easy transferrable to other small-grained cereals with fragile and dense root systems (e.g. wheat and barley).

Figure Legends:

Figure 1: (top, left) Root phenotyping (scoring & imaging) in a temporary tent installed on the field; (top, right) set up of the camera on a tripod to image the roots placed in a water bath; (bottom, left) an excavated rice root system placed in a water bath; (bottom, right) a close up of a nodal root at the root base, displaying a high density score (left) versus a low density score (right).

Figure 2: Example of a rice root image (left) and the analyzed black-white picture after conversion by the DIRT software (right). The upper root system was grown in pots (analyzed at 46 DAS), while the lower root system was field grown (analyzed at 51 DAS).

Figure 3: Images of rice root systems taken in a dark water bath before (left) and after (right) conversion by the DIRT software. The upper and lower root system originate from contrasting varieties grown in different trials. Visibility and differentiation of root architecture (laterals and higher order branches) is enhanced by the water bath.

Figure 4: The analyzed AREA (pixels) versus Total root weight (g) for all experiments for which root images were taken on a dry plate with a black diffuse background. The figure illustrates the inconsistent relationships between the two variables among experiments and an increasing slope with plant age.

Figure 5: Relations between the projected root area* (pixels; AREA from the DIRT-output) versus Total root weight (g) (at the top), and between the mean tip diameter* (TD_AVG; from the DIRT-output) and the manually determined nodal thickness score for 'Pot 1' (Dakawa 2016) (left) and 'Pot 2' (Matombo 2016) (right). The relation details, R^2 , and p-values of each fit are presented at the top.

Figure 6: Score plots of the Principal Component Analysis from the root data combining manual scoring and image-based root analysis. These plots indicate how the proposed method presented in this chapter enables to differentiate contrasting root phenotypes, here coinciding with contrasting genotypes in trial 'water 1' (Left), and different water treatments in trial 'water 2' (right).

Figure 7: A schedule presenting the suggested phenotyping protocol for rice, applicable at field scale. It combines root imaging in water with some manual analysis.













