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3 Complete title: Visualization of Arabidopsis root system architecture in 3D by refraction-  
4 contrast X-ray micro-computed tomography

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6 Running title

7 X-ray micro-CT of Arabidopsis root system

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37

38 **Abstract**

39

40 Plant roots change their morphological traits in order to adapt themselves to different  
41 environmental conditions, resulting in alteration of the root system architecture. To  
42 understand this mechanism, it is essential to visualize morphology of the entire root system.  
43 To reveal effects of long-term alteration of gravity environment on root system development,  
44 we have performed an experiment in the International Space Station using Arabidopsis  
45 (*Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh.) plants and obtained dried root systems grown in rockwool  
46 slabs (mineral wool substrate). X-ray computer tomography (CT) technique using an  
47 industrial X-ray scanner has been introduced for the purpose to visualize root system  
48 architecture of crop species grown in soil in 3D non-invasively. In the case of the present  
49 study, however, root system of Arabidopsis is composed of finer roots compared with typical  
50 crop plants and rockwool is also composed of fibers having similar dimension to that of the  
51 roots. A higher spatial resolution imaging method is required for distinguishing roots from  
52 rockwool. Therefore, in the present study, we tested refraction-contrast X-ray micro-CT using  
53 coherent X-ray optics available at the beamline BL20B2 of the synchrotron radiation facility  
54 SPring-8. Using this technique, both the primary and the secondary roots were successfully  
55 identified in the tomographic slices, clearly distinguished from the individual rockwool fibers  
56 and resulting in successful tracing of these roots from their basal regions. This newly-  
57 developed technique should contribute to elucidate the effect of microgravity on Arabidopsis  
58 root system architecture in space.

59

60 **Main text**

61 **Introduction**

62 The plant root system, i.e., the belowground part of the plant body, provides a basis of  
63 supporting and anchoring the shoot system, i.e., the aboveground part of the plant body, as  
64 well as of growth by uptaking water and nutrients from soil. The plant root system adapts  
65 itself to surrounding soil environment changing its architecture [1]. This capability of the  
66 plant root system is called root system plasticity [2]. Understanding the mechanism of root  
67 plasticity is important for optimization of plant cultivation conditions under given  
68 environment. Greater root system development under mild drought stress is considered to  
69 contribute to their increased dry matter production [3]. Genotypes having increased total root  
70 length showed greater shoot dry matter production under mild water deficit condition [4].

71 The first step to understand mechanisms of root plasticity under different  
72 environmental stimuli is to precisely describe the morphology of the root system architecture.  
73 And the second one is to extract necessary information from it as much as possible. The  
74 methodology to analyze the root system architecture is still developing. A widely-used  
75 conventional method is to use rhizotron [5], which is to visualize the root system architecture  
76 *in situ* in 2D. On the other hand, modern technologies, such as, X-ray CT [6-11] [12] and  
77 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) [13], are developed to visualize the root system  
78 architecture. For examples, root length data of the root system of 29-d old wheat plant  
79 (*Triticum aestivum* L.) obtained by X-ray CT was compared with the data obtained using  
80 flatbed scanner, demonstrating high correlation between them. Metzner et al. (2015)  
81 examined the root system architecture of 23-d old bean plant (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) using  
82 both X-ray CT and MRI and compared the data. In most of the previous studies, an industrial  
83 CT scanner or a scanning system employing microfocus X-ray source is used, which is  
84 suitable for routine analyses for the size of root systems of crop plants.

85 We have performed an experiment in the International Space Station 'Kibo' module  
86 called "Space Seed" to understand effects of Earth's gravity on the entire life cycle of

87 Arabidopsis plants[14] and obtained dried root systems grown in rockwool slabs. For this  
88 case, we have to deal with Arabidopsis root system which is composed of finer roots than  
89 those of crop plant species as mentioned above as well as to distinguish the roots from  
90 rockwool fibers having similar dimension to that of the roots. Therefore, we focused on  
91 refraction-contrast X-ray micro-CT technique ,which is available at the beamline of the  
92 synchrotron radiation facility SPring-8, because high brightness of nearly-parallel X-ray  
93 beams enables imaging of samples at the micron scale [15]. In the present study, we tested  
94 two different Hutches available at this beamline and aimed to optimize the observation  
95 condition for the visualization of dried Arabidopsis root system developed in the rockwool  
96 slab.

97

## 98 **Methods and materials**

### 99 **Plant materials and growth conditions**

100 The present experiment was performed during the preparation of the Space Seed experiment.  
101 Growth conditions are basically the same as described previously [14], while the plant  
102 materials and the employed instrument were as follows. Twenty-four seeds of Arabidopsis  
103 (*Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh.) Landsberg *erecta* (Ler) were sterilized and sown on a  
104 rockwool slab ( $W \times D \times H = 50 \times 42 \times 10$  mm) (Nichias Corp, Tokyo, Japan) using gum  
105 arabic and germinated in a polycarbonate growth chamber having the outer dimensions of  $W$   
106  $\times D \times H = 60 \times 50 \times 60$  mm and the dimensions of its inner void space was  $W \times D \times H = 56$   
107  $\times 46 \times 48$  mm (Fig. 1). The rockwool slab was covered with a transparent plastic plate and  
108 growth chambers were installed in the prototype of the Plant Experimental Units, which was  
109 designed for experiments in the International Space Station [14]. Plants were illuminated  
110 laterally with LED matrix [16] and light intensity was  $29 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  when measured at the  
111 bottom center of the growth chamber. Plants used for the following experiment were grown

112 for 46 days and the rockwool slabs were dried and the shoot system of the plants was  
113 removed before the observation. Typical plants during its development are shown in Fig. 1.

114

### 115 **Refraction contrast X-ray micro-CT**

116 Refraction contrast X-ray micro-CT was performed at the experimental hutches (Hutch 1 and  
117 3), where different spatial resolutions are available, of the beamline BL20B2 of the SPring-8  
118 synchrotron radiation facility at Japan Synchrotron Radiation Research Institute, according  
119 basically to the method described by Karahara et al. [17]. Its experimental setup is shown in  
120 Fig. 2 and a brief of the method is as follows. The Hutch 1 and 3 are located 42 m and 206 m,  
121 respectively, from the bending magnet X-ray source. The X-ray energy was adjusted to 25  
122 keV. The images consecutively projected on the fluorescent screen were recorded by a CMOS  
123 camera (ORCA-Flash 4.0; Hamamatsu Photonics KK, Hamamatsu, Japan) (Fig. 2a). The  
124 image sizes obtained at the Hutch 1 and Hutch 3 were  $2048 \times 2048$  pixels (ca.  $5 \times 5$  mm) and  
125  $2048 \times 556$  pixels, (ca.  $50 \times 15$  mm), respectively. A series of 900 and 3000 projections were  
126 recorded over 180 degree for Hutch 1 and 3 observation, respectively. Because thickness of  
127 the rockwool slab was 10 mm, observation was separately done for the upper and lower  
128 halves for Hutch 1 observation. The spatial (pixel) resolution of the 3-D structure was  
129 estimated to be  $25.5 \mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$  for the Hutch 3 data, and  $2.76 \mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$  for the Hutch 1 data,  
130 respectively. The convolution back projection method was used for tomographic  
131 reconstruction [18] (Fig. 3b). To determining optimal filter used for reconstruction, Chesler,  
132 Ram-Lak, and Shepp-Logan filter, which are provided by the software package SP- $\mu$ CT  
133 (<http://www-bl20.spring8.or.jp/xct/>), were tested and the results were compared from the  
134 aspect of background noises and clarity of root boundaries. Tomographic slices were obtained  
135 and 3-D models (isosurface, wireframe) were drawn using the IMOD software package [19],

136 as previously described [20]. Volume models were drawn using the software UCSF Chimera  
137 (<https://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera/>).

138

### 139 **Optical microscopy**

140 For microscopy of the cut surface of the root base and rockwool fibers, a multizoom  
141 microscope (AZ100M, Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a CMOS camera DS-Fi3 (Nikon,  
142 Tokyo, Japan) was used.

143

## 144 **Results and discussion**

### 145 **Identification of individual roots in a tomographic slice obtained by the observation at**

#### 146 **Hutch 3**

147 After removing the shoot (upper) part of the plant, we identified positions of the plants under  
148 a multizoom microscope, finding cut surfaces of root or hypocotyl of the plants. Referring the  
149 position of the plant on the micrograph (Fig. 4a and b), we identified the root in a  
150 tomographic slice (Fig. 4c). Cross section of a root (or hypocotyl) often appeared ring-shape  
151 in a transverse tomographic slice because large cavity is often formed inside the root possibly  
152 when the plant was completely dried (Fig. 4c). The root system of Arabidopsis is a taproot  
153 system and is mainly composed of the primary root as the taproot and the secondary root as  
154 the lateral root. Shape of a primary root grown vertically downward in the rockwool slab was  
155 visualized in a longitudinal tomographic slice (Fig. 4d).

156         Next, we compared the appearance of the root in transverse tomographic slices  
157 when three different filters, Chesler, Ram-Lak, and Shepp-Logan filter were used during  
158 tomographic reconstruction. When reconstructed using Chesler filter in the case of data  
159 obtained at Hutch 3, background noise was reduced while root boundary became obscure  
160 (Fig. 4e). When reconstructed using Ram-Lak and Shepp-Logan filter, root boundary

161 appeared clearer compared with Chesler. However, because Ram-Lak filter gives root  
162 boundary smoother than Shepp-Logan filter (Fig. 4g) when carefully compared between  
163 them, we have finally chosen to use Ram-Lak filter (Fig. 4f).

164

### 165 **Three-dimensional volume imaging of an individual root by the observation at Hutch 3**

166 Shapes of the roots were roughly visualized by automatically drawing of isosurface (volume)  
167 models based on the voxel value (Fig. 5a and b). A considerable amount of fibrous and  
168 particulate fragmentary structures, which are due to component materials of the rockwool,  
169 were observed around the root besides the root itself (Fig. 5a and b). Some of these structures  
170 could be removed using "Delete small pieces" function of the isosurface command of IMOD  
171 software (Fig. 5c).

172         Isosurface models change depending on the threshold level, above which all voxels  
173 are enclosed by the surface. For a quantitative approach, it is necessary to find out the  
174 appropriate threshold level. The actual cross-sectional area of the root at its cut surface was  
175 measured first (Fig. 6a). Then the cross-sectional areas of the isosurface models were  
176 measured at the same position as of Fig. 6a when the threshold level was changed from 70 to  
177 76 (Fig. 6b-g). In this case, the closest value was achieved when the threshold level was 73.  
178 Therefore, we can conclude that the isosurface model closest to the actual root is the one  
179 demonstrated in Fig. 6f.

180         However, even if the threshold level is fixed at the most appropriate value,  
181 unexpected connections between the root and surrounding rockwool materials were frequently  
182 observed. Also, unexpected disconnection of signals of the root occurred due to local  
183 attenuation of signals possibly at the thinner part of the root. These problems made it difficult  
184 to construct a 3D model of an entire root system only by making an isosurface model at one  
185 representative threshold value.



186           Instead, 3D wireframe models of roots were made, which is useful to measure the  
187 root length as well as to obtain other parameters representing morphology of roots, such as  
188 tortuosity, by manually tracing the signal of the root from the base toward the tip,  
189 simultaneously referring isosurface models adjusting around the appropriate threshold level  
190 (Fig. 7).

191           Nevertheless, in many cases, unexpected disconnection of signals of the root  
192 frequently occurred, which made it difficult to trace entire part particularly of the secondary  
193 roots only by using Hutch 3 data. Therefore, we also tested Hutch 1 which enabled  
194 observation at higher spatial resolution.

195

#### 196 **Observation of roots at higher spatial resolution at Hutch 1**

197 In the case of data obtained at Hutch 1 where background noises were more noticeable (Fig.  
198 8d and e), Chesler filter was used during tomographic reconstruction. Appearance of the  
199 transverse sections of the root is much clear in the tomographic slices of a reconstruction  
200 obtained by the observation at Hutch 1 (Fig. 8d and e) when compared with those obtained by  
201 the observation at Hutch 3 (Fig. 8a and b). Cavity formed inside the root can be clearly seen  
202 in the slice of the Hutch 1 reconstruction (Fig. 8d and e). An isosurface model of the root is  
203 much clearer when using the data obtained at Hutch 1 (Fig. 8f) than the data obtained at  
204 Hutch 3 (Fig. 8c). Rockwool fibers around the root were separated from the root and can be  
205 clearly seen by isosurface modeling using Hutch 1 reconstruction (Fig. 8f) although they were  
206 not separated from the root and coalesced into an agglomerated structure by isosurface  
207 modeling using Hutch 3 reconstruction (Fig. 8c).

208           Observation at Hutch 1 revealed detailed structures of the secondary root and  
209 component materials of the rockwool. The secondary root, which is generally thinner than the  
210 primary root, and rockwool fibers were distinguished by isosurface modeling using Hutch 1

211 data (Fig. 9b) while those structures were agglomerated in that of Hutch 3 (Fig. 9a). A fibrous  
212 form of rockwool observed in the Hutch 3 reconstruction does neither appear to be straight  
213 nor smooth but has an amorphous shape (Fig. 9a). On the other hand, a fiber observed in the  
214 Hutch 1 reconstruction appears to be straight and smooth (Fig. 9b and d) which is close to its  
215 shape observed under a multizoom microscope (Fig. 9e), indicating that the fibers recognized  
216 in the Hutch 1 data are considered to be individual fibers. Thickness of the isosurface model  
217 of the secondary root and a fibrous form of rockwool was measured and compared between in  
218 Hutch 3 and in Hutch 1 reconstructions (Table 1). As a result, thickness of a fibrous form of  
219 rockwool measured using the isosurface models of Hutch 3 data ( $78.0 \pm 2.6 \mu\text{m}$ ) was  
220 considerably thicker than that of Hutch 1 data ( $13.3 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{m}$ ), suggesting that a fibrous form  
221 of rockwool observed at Hutch 3 is considered to be a bundle of single rockwool fibers. And  
222 thickness of a fibrous form of a rockwool measured using the isosurface models of Hutch 3  
223 data ( $78.0 \pm 2.6 \mu\text{m}$ ) was even thicker than the thickness of the secondary root measured  
224 using the isosurface models of Hutch 3 data ( $60.2 \pm 7.6 \mu\text{m}$ ), suggesting that this makes  
225 difficult to distinguish between the secondary root and a bundle of rockwool fibers in some  
226 cases. Thickness of a single rockwool fiber measured using the isosurface models of Hutch 1  
227 data ( $13.3 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{m}$ ) was still thicker than its actual size measured using optical micrographs  
228 ( $9.1 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{m}$ ). Nevertheless, the isosurface model of a fibrous form of rockwool made using  
229 Hutch 1 data is considered to be a single fiber because its thickness ( $13.3 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{m}$ ) is still  
230 smaller than the twice of the thickness measured using optical micrographs ( $9.1 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{m}$ ).  
231 This result is comparable to, or even slightly higher than, the spatial resolution (voxel size, 28  
232  $\mu\text{m}$ ) realized in the previous study done by Metzner et al. (2015) using Fraunhofer  
233 Development Center X-ray Technology (EZRT). As a result, the secondary roots could be  
234 successfully traced for the longer distance using Hutch 1 data than the Hutch 3 data due to  
235 higher spatial resolution (Fig. 10).

236 In addition to the rockwool fibers, globular structures called 'shot' , which was  
237 formed during the manufacturing of rockwool slabs [21], were clearly observed in a  
238 tomographic slice (Fig. 9c) as well as in isosurface models (Fig. 9d) of Hutch 1. These  
239 globular structures were also found in isosurface rendering (Fig. 4d) or in a tomographic slice  
240 (Fig. 5a) obtained using Hutch 3 data. Optical microscopy revealed a 'shot' structure as well as  
241 the material agglutinating rockwool fibers called 'binder', which is composed of resin and has  
242 amorphous structure (Fig. 9e). Existence of these component materials of rockwool slabs also  
243 made it difficult to distinguish the secondary root in the rockwool slab using Hutch 3 data  
244 particularly when the roots became thinner.

245 Figure 11 shows volume models of the root system made by using the volume  
246 viewer of UCSF Chimera adjusting the visible range of voxel value. In both cases of Hutch 3  
247 and Hutch 1 data, structures related to the rockwool, such as globular ones, are visible in the  
248 broad configuration of visible range of voxel value (Fig. 11 a, c, and e) while morphology of  
249 the root system is more clearly visible in the narrow configuration (Fig. 11 b, d, and f).  
250 Globular structures have mostly disappeared particularly in the case of narrow configuration  
251 of Hutch 1 data (Fig. 11 d and f). These results indicate that the materials of rockwool slabs  
252 have more opacity to X-ray, or, absorb more X-ray than the materials of the root.

253 The limit for the smallest observable root is a function of the quality of the image  
254 (signal-to-noise ratio) and resolution [6]. The smallest observable object is generally  
255 considered to be of a size of twice the spatial resolution and this may even not be sufficient if  
256 the image is noisy and background is not homogeneous [22]. In other words, the smallest  
257 observable object should be larger than 2 pixels / voxels. Because effective pixel size of  
258 Hutch 3 data is  $25.5 \mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$  and that of Hutch 1 data is  $2.76 \mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$ , respectively,  
259 expected size of the smallest observable object is likely to be  $51 \mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$  and  $5.52 \mu\text{m}$   
260  $\text{pixel}^{-1}$ , respectively. Average size of the isosurface model of the secondary root made using

261 Hutch 3 data was  $60.2 \mu\text{m}$  (Table 1), which is comparable to the expected size of the smallest  
262 observable object at Hutch 3 ( $51 \mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$ ). Even at this level, the spatial resolution, which  
263 is realized in the present system, is higher than the previous studies mentioned in the  
264 Introduction using an industrial CT scanner or a scanning system using microfocus X-ray  
265 source.

266 We can conclude that the spatial resolution of the observation at Hutch 1 is high  
267 enough to distinguish each rockwool fiber. Considering the difference between the actual  
268 thickness of the rockwool fiber ( $9.1 \mu\text{m}$ ) and that of its isosurface model ( $13.3 \mu\text{m}$ ), the actual  
269 thickness of the secondary root should be smaller than that of its isosurface model ( $20.9 \mu\text{m}$ ).  
270 Further, it should be noted that dried roots analyzed in the present study had become thinner  
271 than those before drying.

272 A wireframe model of the root system drawn using Hutch 1 data demonstrated more  
273 extended architecture of the secondary roots as well as the primary root (Fig. 10b). On the  
274 other hand, that of Hutch 3 data demonstrated only the basal parts of the secondary roots  
275 while the architecture of the primary root was visualized entirely (Fig. 10a). Nevertheless,  
276 Hutch 3 data are useful because these provide an overview map for roughly comparing the  
277 growth of roots as well as for selecting individual roots for further detailed analyses of actual  
278 specimens of the Space Seed experiment. Together, precise determination of the minimum  
279 thickness of the secondary root observable remains to be done for that study.

280

## 281 **Conclusions**

282 We can conclude that the spatial resolution of the observation at Hutch 1 is high enough to  
283 distinguish individual rockwool fibers as well as the secondary roots having the thickness of  
284 its isosurface model at  $20.9 \mu\text{m}$  on the average. This enabled us to distinguish between them  
285 and to trace the architecture of the Arabidopsis root system including the secondary roots as

286 well as the primary root. In addition, the observation at Hutch 3 provides an overview map of  
287 the root system grown in the rockwool slab for the purpose of screening of specimens for  
288 further detailed analyses of individual root systems.

289

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301

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368 networks using computed tomography. *Geoderma* 136: 459-469.

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## 372 **Figure legends**

373

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375 growth chamber. (a) Plants on Day 12. Rosette leaves are growing. Surface of the rockwool  
376 slab is seen underneath the plants. (b) Plants on Day 32. Flowers are forming. Internal length  
377 of the front side of the chamber is 46 mm. Red arrowheads indicate the rockwool slabs.

378

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381 Hutch 1 (c). Seeds of morning glory were placed on the rockwool slabs as position markers.

382

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384 view) (a) and a transverse tomographic slice of the rockwool slab (b). Scale bars = 1 cm.

385



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387 of an entire rockwool slab. A red rectangle shows the area magnified in (b). A white dashed  
388 line shows the position from where the longitudinal tomographic slice shown in (d) was  
389 obtained. (b) A magnified microscopic view showing a cut surface of the base of the root  
390 found on the surface of the rockwool slab (red arrowhead). A dark-brown round-shape thing  
391 located nearby is a released seed coat, which frequently helps to find the position of the root.  
392 (c) A transverse tomographic slice showing the same position as shown in (b). White ring-  
393 shape object (red arrowhead) shows the cross section of the root. (d) A longitudinal  
394 tomographic slice obtained at the position indicated in (a) demonstrating longitudinal  
395 continuity of a primary root (red arrowheads). (e) – (g) Comparison of the tomographic slices  
396 reconstructed using different filters. (e) Chesler. (f) Ram-Lak. (g) Shepp-Logan. (c) and (d)  
397 are actually made using Chesler filter. Scale bars = 1 cm (a), 1 mm [(b) – (d)].

398

399 **Fig. 5.** Three-dimensional volume imaging of individual root and determining its threshold.  
400 (a) A volume model made by using Volume Viewer of UCSF Chimera. (b) An isosurface  
401 model made by using isosurface command of IMOD software. (c) The same region  
402 where "Delete small pieces" function of the isosurface command of IMOD software was  
403 applied. Scale bars = 1 mm.

404

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406 magnified multizoom micrograph showing the cut surface of the base of a root. A closed  
407 contour drawn in red shows the boundary of the root surface (arrowhead). The value is the  
408 actual cross-sectional area of the root surrounded by the contour. (b), (c), and (d) Cross  
409 sections of the isosurface models of the same root as shown in (a) (arrowheads) and their  
410 cross-sectional area values at the same position as shown in (a). (e), (f), and (g) Lateral views

411 of the isosurface rendering which correspond to (b), (c), and (d), respectively. The threshold  
412 level was changed from 70 (b) and (e), 73 (c) and (f), to 76 (d) and (g). Scale bars = 200  $\mu\text{m}$   
413 [(a) – (d)], 1 mm [(e) – (g)].

414

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416 basal part of the root. Upper or lower red cuboid indicates the region shown in (b) or (d),  
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418 the regions indicated in (a). (c) and (e) Transverse tomographic slices at the positions  
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420 the primary root. Blue arrowheads show the secondary root. (f) A wireframe models of roots.  
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422 mm.

423

424 **Fig. 8.** Comparison of the observations of the same root between Hutch 3 and Hutch 1. (a)  
425 and (b) Transverse tomographic slices obtained by the observation at Hutch 3. Effective pixel  
426 size = 25.5  $\mu\text{m pixel}^{-1}$ . (d) and (e) Transverse tomographic slices obtained by the observation  
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430 which shows a thinner part of the primary root with a secondary root (white arrow heads),  
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432 obtained at Hutch 3 (c) or Hutch 1 (f). Red arrowheads show the base of the root. Scale bars =  
433 200  $\mu\text{m}$ .

434

435 **Fig. 9.** Detailed structures of the root and component materials of the rockwool revealed by  
436 the observation at Hutch 1. (a) and (b) Isosurface models of a fibrous form of rockwool and  
437 the secondary root obtained by the observation at Hutch 3 (effective pixel size is  $25.5 \mu\text{m}$   
438  $\text{pixel}^{-1}$ ) (a) and Hutch 1 (effective pixel size is  $2.76 \mu\text{m}$   $\text{pixel}^{-1}$ ) (b), respectively. Blue open  
439 contours show wireframe models of the secondary roots. (c) and (d) A transverse tomographic  
440 slice (c) and its corresponding isosurface model (d) showing a globular shot structure of  
441 rockwool (arrowheads). (e) A multizoom micrograph showing an actual globular shot  
442 structure of rockwool (red broken circle) and 'binder' material agglutinating rockwool fibers  
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444

445 **Fig. 10.** Comparison of wireframe models of the same root system drawn using Hutch 3 (a)  
446 and Hutch 1 (b) data. (c) Four root system models are seen in the wider view of the Hutch 3  
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452 **Fig. 11.** Visualization of the root system by using the volume viewer of UCSF Chimera  
453 adjusting the visible range of voxel value. (a) and (b) Volume models of the same root system  
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455 value. (c) - (f) Volume models of the upper (c) and (d) or lower (e) and (f) part of the root  
456 using Hutch 1 data when visualized in the broad (c) and (e) or narrow (d) and (f) visible range  
457 of voxel value. Scale bars =  $500 \mu\text{m}$ . (g) and (h) Examples of broad (g) or narrow (h)  
458 configuration of the visible range of voxel value which were actually applied to visualize the  
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460 axis shows frequency. Visible areas are filled in black. Histograms show distribution of voxel  
461 values. Red line graphs show adjustment of opacity level.

462

463

464 **Table 1.** Comparison of the thickness of the secondary root and a fibrous form of rockwool  
465 which was measured using the isosurface models of Hutch 3 and Hutch 1 as well as thickness  
466 of a rockwool fiber measured using multizoom micrographs

467

	Optical micrograph		Isosurface model			
			Hutch 3		Hutch 1	
	Mean $\pm$ SE ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	n	Mean $\pm$ SE ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	n	Mean $\pm$ SE ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	n
Fibrous form of Rockwool	9.1 $\pm$ 0.1	35	78.0 $\pm$ 2.6	60	13.3 $\pm$ 0.1	60
The secondary root	ND		60.2 $\pm$ 7.6	8	20.9 $\pm$ 1.4	8

468 ND, not determined.

Fig. 1

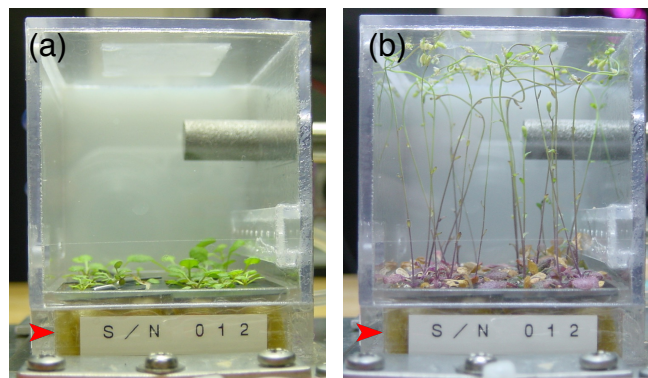


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Fig. 2

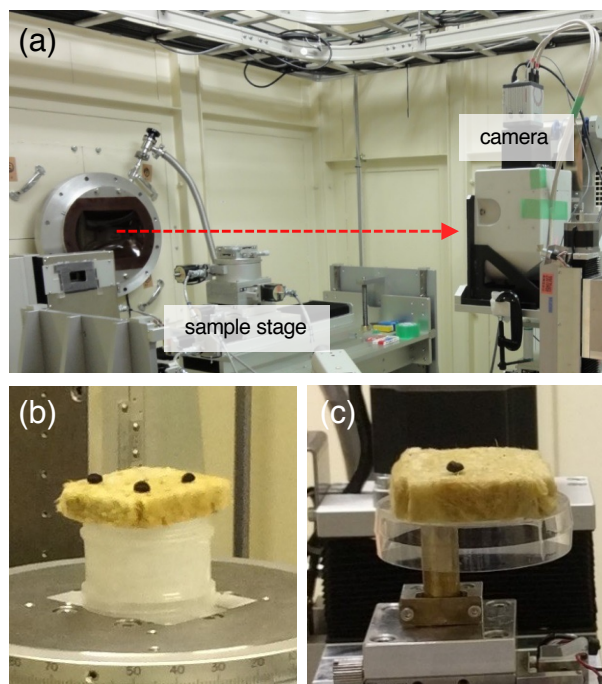


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Fig. 3

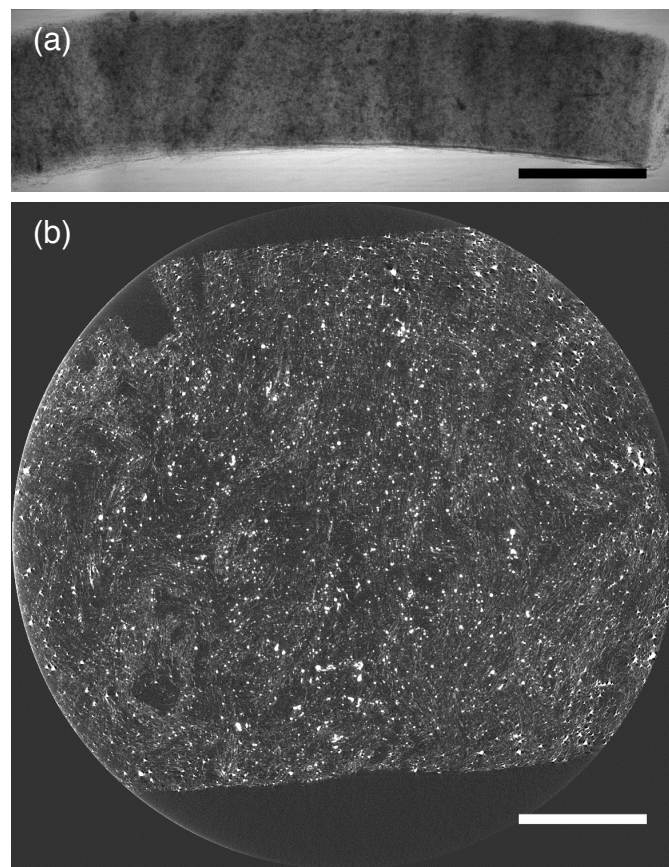


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Fig. 4

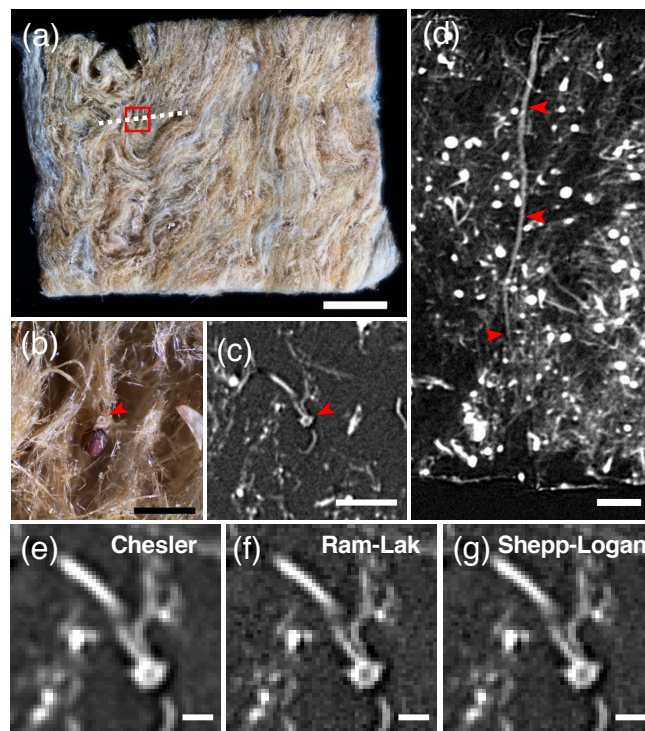


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## Fig. 5

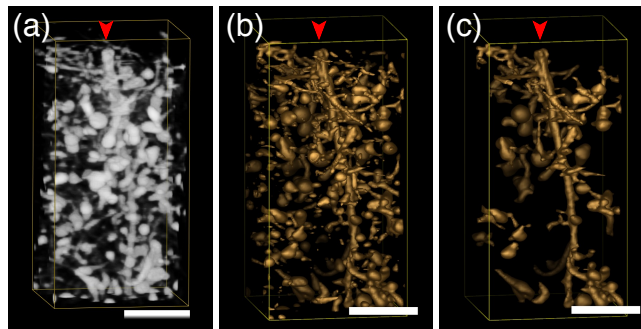


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Fig. 6

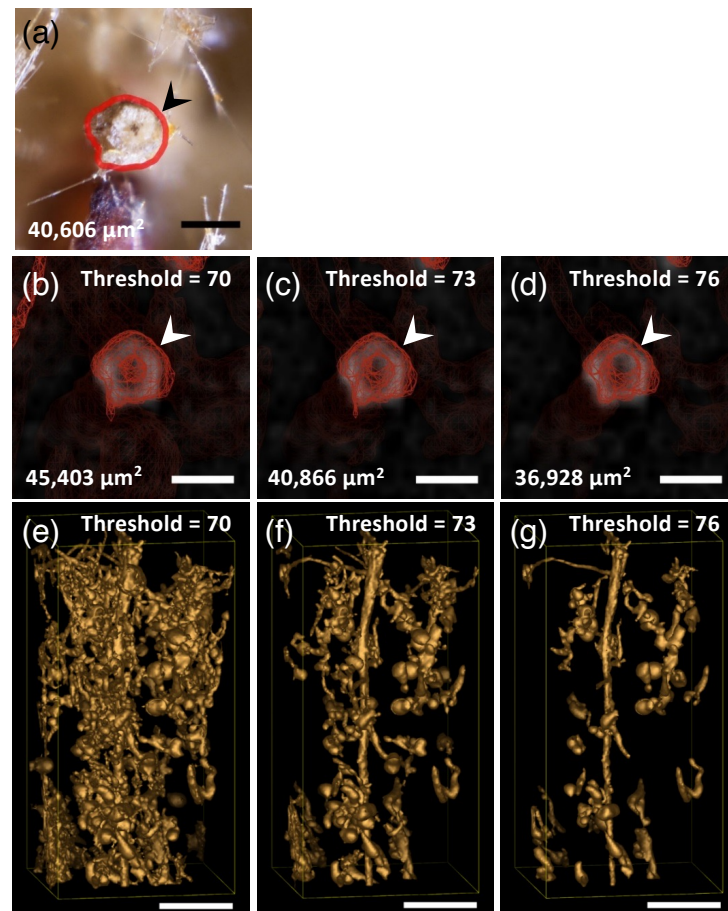


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Fig. 7

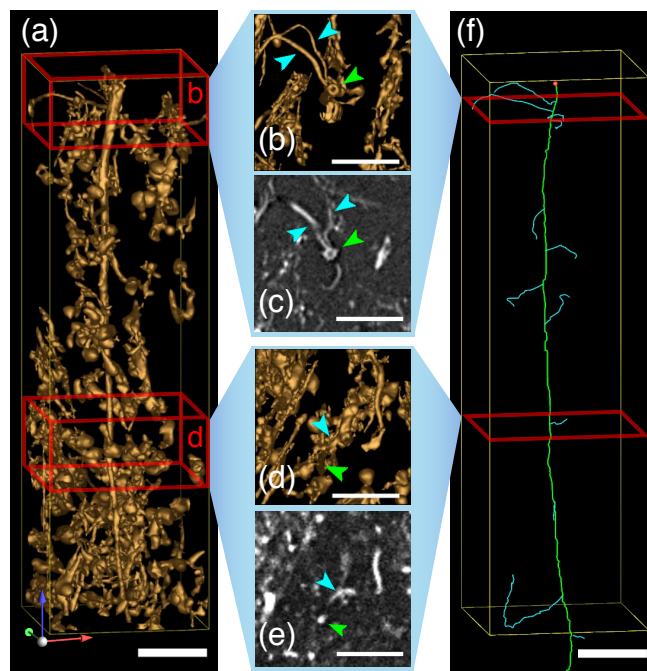


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Fig. 8

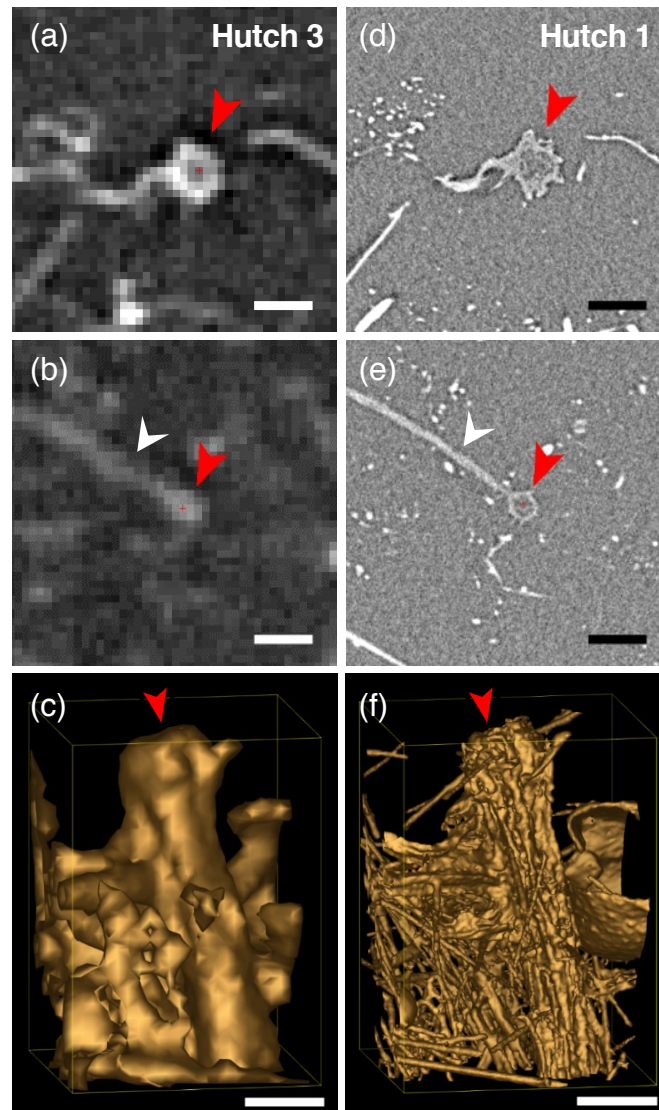


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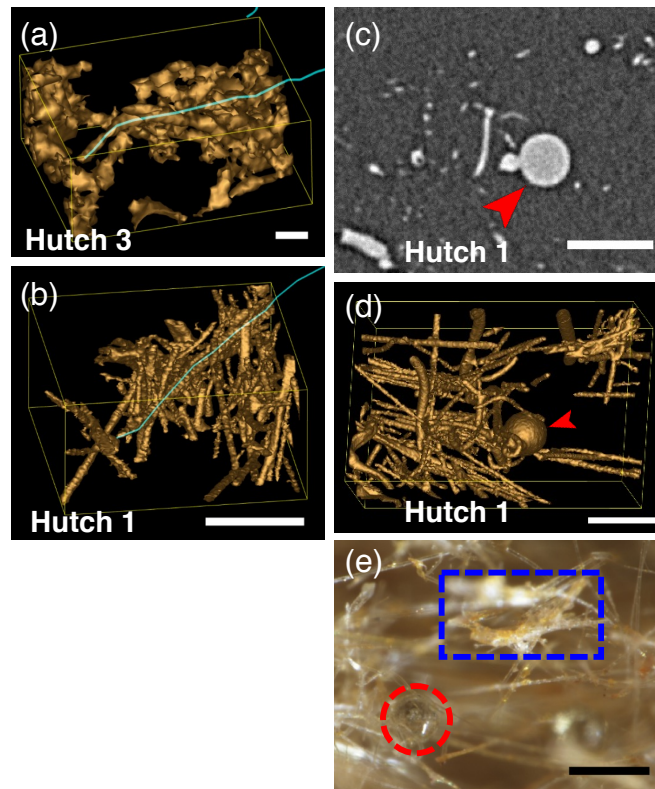


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Fig. 10

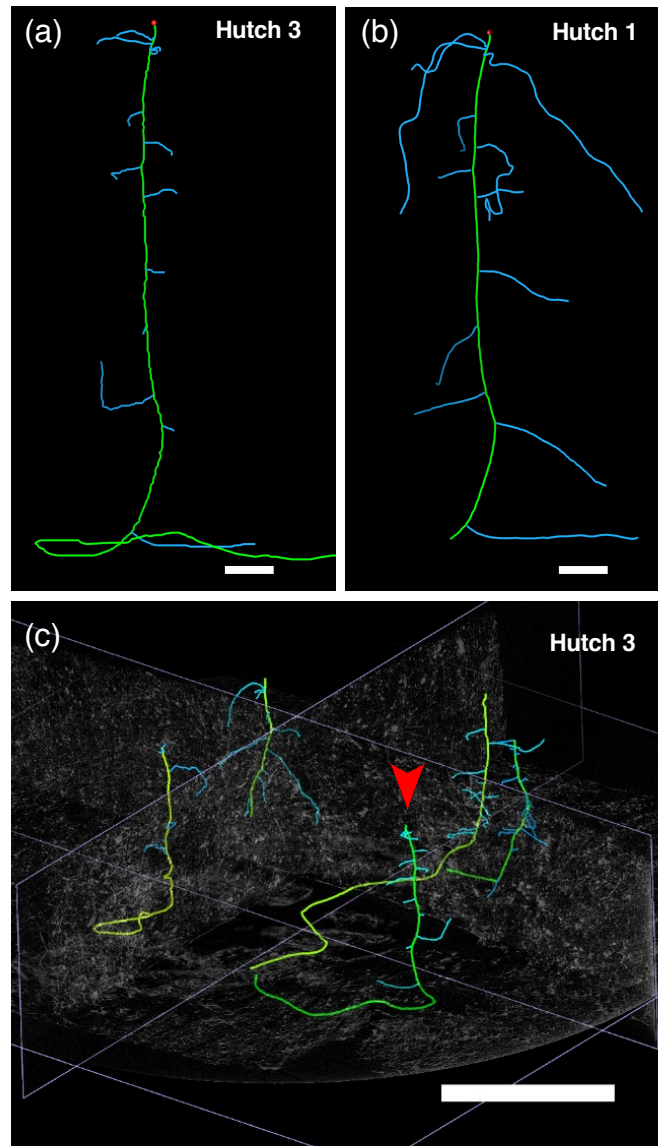


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Fig. 11

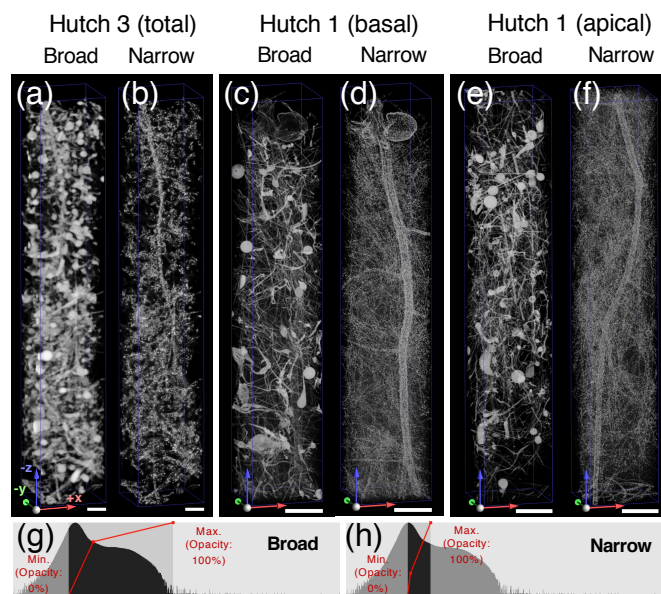


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