

# 1 **Assessing Root System Architecture of Wheat Seedlings Using A High-Throughput Root** 2 **Phenotyping System**

3 **E. Adeleke<sup>1</sup>, R. Millas<sup>1</sup>, W. McNeal<sup>1</sup>, J Faris<sup>2</sup> and A. Taheri<sup>1</sup>**

4 **<sup>1</sup>. Department of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences, Tennessee State University, Nashville, TN 37209**

5 **<sup>2</sup>. USDA-ARS Cereal Crops Research Unit. Edward T. Schafer Agricultural Research Center. 1616 Albrecht**  
6 **BLVD N. Fargo, ND 58102**

## 7 **Abstract**

### 8 Background and aims

9 Root system architecture is a vital part of the plant that has been shown to vary between species  
10 and within species based on response to genotypic and/or environmental influences. The root  
11 traits of wheat seedlings is critical for the establishment and evidently linked to plant height and  
12 seed yield. However, plant breeders have not efficiently developed the role of RSA in wheat  
13 selection due to the difficulty of studying root traits.

### 14 Methods

15 We set up a root phenotyping platform to characterize RSA in 34 wheat accessions. The  
16 phenotyping pipeline consists of the germination paper-based moisture replacement system,  
17 image capture units, and root-image processing software. The 34 accessions from two different  
18 wheat ploidy levels (hexaploids and tetraploids), were characterized in ten replicates. A total of  
19 19 root traits were quantified from the root architecture generated.

### 20 Results

21 This pipeline allowed for rapid screening of 340 wheat seedlings within 10days. Also, at least  
22 one line from each ploidy (6x and 4x) showed significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) in measured  
23 traits except in mean seminal count. Our result also showed strong correlation (0.8) between total  
24 root length, maximum depth and convex hull area.

### 25 Conclusions

26 This phenotyping pipeline has the advantage and capacity to increase screening potential at early  
27 stages of plant development leading to characterization of wheat seedling traits that can be  
28 further examined using QTL analysis in populations generated from the examined accessions.

### 29 Keywords

30 Root system architecture, high-throughput phenotyping, root traits, *Triticum* sp., germination  
31 paper-based system

## 32 **Introduction**

33 Roots serve as boundaries between plants and complex soil mediums. Aside from anchoring the  
34 plant to soil medium (Khan *et al.*, 2016), another major function of the root is to provide plant  
35 access to nutrient and water uptake. Roots are also essential for forming symbioses with

36 beneficial microbes in the rhizosphere and used as storage organs (Smith and De Smet, 2012;  
37 Khan *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, roots are critical in the maintenance of plant health. Many  
38 environmental factors interact with soils leading to the spatial and temporal heterogenous nature  
39 of the soil (Meister *et al.*, 2014). This spatial heterogeneity makes studying the roots in soil a  
40 multifaceted challenge. The spatial distribution of roots in soil under field conditions  
41 demonstrates a considerable amount of variability since roots respond to heterogeneity of the soil  
42 and environmental cues allowing plants to overcome challenges posed by biotic or abiotic factors  
43 in soil environment (Smith and De Smet, 2012). This spatial distribution of the root system in  
44 soil is referred to as root system architecture (RSA). RSA usually describes the morphological  
45 and structural organization of the root (Lynch *et al.*, 1995). RSA is important for plant  
46 productivity because it determines the plant's ability to successfully access major heterogenous  
47 edaphic resources (de Dorlodot *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, RSA has a direct influence on grain  
48 yield.

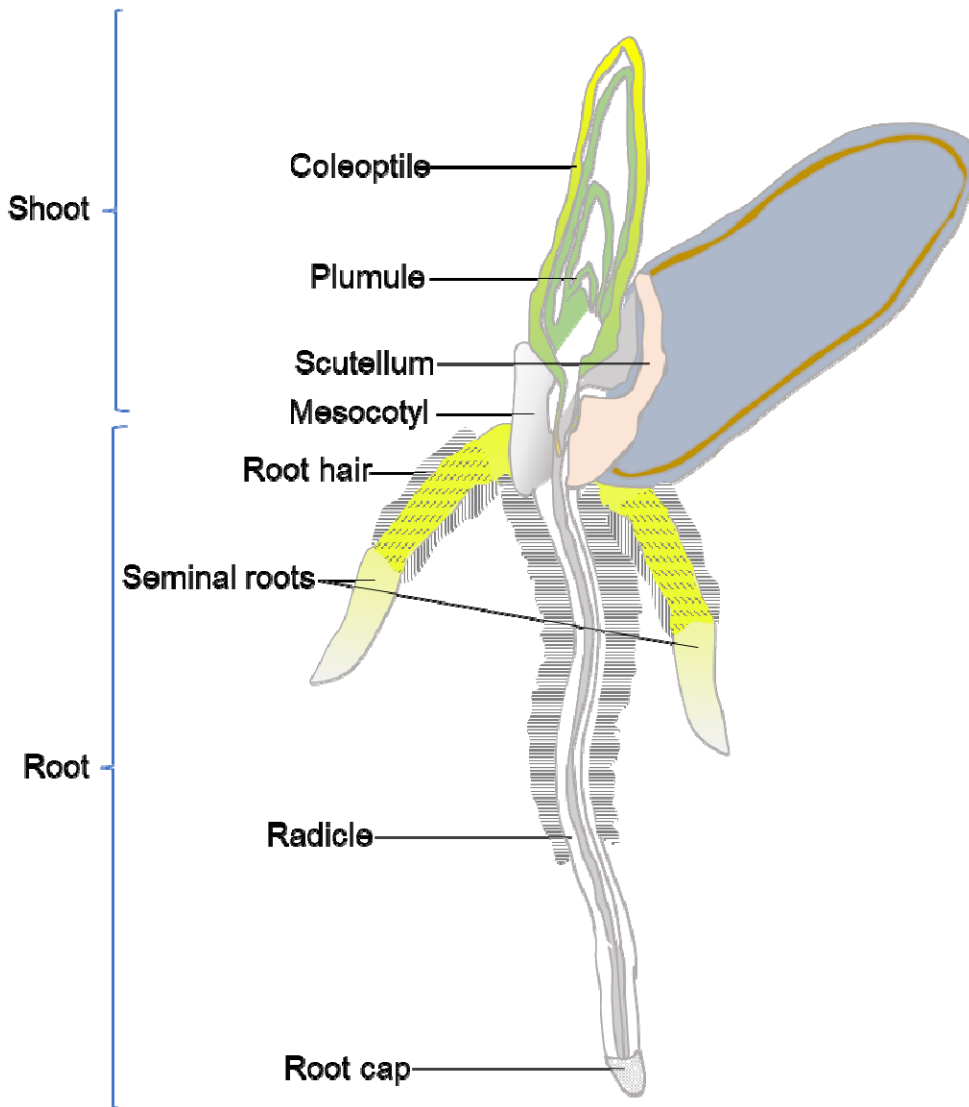
49 Wheat is a major cereal crop of global importance and, is grown in temperate zones and has  
50 remained a worldwide staple food (Shewry, 2009). It belongs to the *Triticum* genus, which  
51 includes species such as *T. aestivum* ssp. *aestivum* L. (common wheat,  $2n = 6x = 42$ , AABBDD  
52 genomes), an allohexaploid and the most cultivated wheat species in the world accounting for  
53 95% of global wheat production (Mayer, 2014); *T. turgidum* ssp. *durum* (Desf.) Husnot (durum  
54 wheat,  $2n = 4x = 28$ , AABB genomes), a tetraploid that is the second most cultivated wheat  
55 species accounting for 5-8% of global wheat production (Boyacioglu, 2017); and *T.*  
56 *turgidum* ssp. *dicoccum* (Schrank) Schübl (cultivated emmer wheat,  $2n = 4x = 28$ , AABB  
57 genomes) a tetraploid that is one of the earliest crops domesticated in the Near East (Weiss and  
58 Zohary, 2011). So far, most wheat breeding programs have focused on aboveground phenotypic  
59 traits while ignoring the belowground traits. Although it is easier for breeders to consider  
60 aboveground traits because they are the most visible to the eye, belowground traits should not be  
61 ignored because they play equally important roles in plant productivity (Smith and De Smet,  
62 2012; Khan *et al.*, 2016).

63 In cereal grains, the radicle emerges first and is covered with a protective sheath called the  
64 coleorhiza (Shu *et al.*, 2016; Ma *et al.*, 2017). After the roots have extended somewhat further,  
65 the coleoptile emerges and grows rapidly. The seedling will then possess a unique RSA  
66 (Atkinson *et al.*, 2015) by the time they are at the two-leaf stage (Figure 1), and this has a major  
67 impact on the early establishment of the seedling and its productivity at later growth stages.

68 For wheat to grow and produce enough yield, it is important to understand and select unique  
69 traits in RSA as well using aboveground traits. Abiotic stresses due to climate change have  
70 affected wheat productivity by limiting the uptake of nutrients and water (de Dorlodot *et al.*,  
71 2007). This is one reason that progress in obtaining wheat varieties with increased yields has  
72 been hindered (Fischer and Edmeades, 2010; Richard *et al.*, 2015). One way to alleviate the  
73 adverse effects of these factors on wheat yield is to select unique traits and manipulate in the  
74 underlying genes associated with wheat RSA so as to optimize the water and nutrient uptake.  
75 Although root phenotyping is critical to optimizing RSA in crops, the study of roots in the field  
76 is still in its infancy. High-throughput screening can expedite the selection of novel traits for crop

77 improvement in plant breeding (Richard *et al.*, 2015). However, high throughput screening of  
78 root traits is often limited by the lack of suitable phenotyping growth systems (Joshi *et al.*, 2017).  
79 Therefore, the main objective of this study was to develop a high-throughput root phenotyping  
80 pipeline and evaluate RSA of seedlings from 34 wheat accessions for different root traits.

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84 Figure 1. Annotated diagram of germinating 4-day-old wheat grain. The kernel is showing root  
85 development that includes root cap, radicle, seminal roots, and root hairs; and shoot development  
86 that includes mesocotyl, plumule, and coleoptile at Zadok's growth stage 07 (Zadok *et al.*, 1974).

87 **Methods**

88 Phenotyping of the 34 wheat accessions was divided into three stages, first, setting up the  
89 experiment on the platform; second, acquisition of RSA images; and third, analysis of acquired  
90 images using open source software (RootNav) (Pound *et al.*, 2013) (Figure 4).

91 The 34 accessions from different wheat species were obtained from USDA-ARS cereal crop  
92 research unit (Fargo, ND, USA) and were divided into two separate groups based on their ploidy  
93 level (hexaploid vs tetraploid) (Supplementary Table 1). The hexaploid category was made up of  
94 common wheat, spelt wheat and synthetic hexaploid wheat (SHW). In this experiment, SHW lines  
95 were selected for root phenotyping with the accession Largo selected as the reference accession based on  
96 SHW biomass uniqueness and density (Li *et al.*, 2018). The tetraploid group of accessions consisted of  
97 durum (*T. turgidum* ssp. *durum*), Persian (*T. turgidum* ssp. *carthlicum*), cultivated emmer (*T. turgidum*  
98 ssp. *dicoccum*) and wild emmer (*T. turgidum* ssp. *dicoccoides*) wheat. For the tetraploid group, the durum  
99 line Rusty was selected as the reference accession.

#### 100 Experimental design and seed treatment

101 Each accession was planted in ten replicates in a completely randomized design. The seeds were  
102 surface sterilized in a chemical hood (Labconco Inc., MO, USA) using the chlorine gas (vapor-  
103 phase) method used by Clough and Bent (1998). Ten seeds (or more) were placed in open Petri  
104 dishes (previously labeled with chlorine resistant markers) in a 10L desiccator jar. A 3ml aliquot  
105 of 12N HCl was added to a 250ml-beaker containing 100 ml of 8.3% sodium hypochlorite before  
106 sealing the desiccator. The seeds remained in the desiccator for 4 hours.

#### 107 Design of experimental platform

108 A schematic illustration of the stages and flow of the experimental system is presented in Figure  
109 2. We developed a growth pouch system based on the earlier platform designed by Hund *et al.*  
110 (2009) for maize. Each sterilized seed was placed into a germination paper pouch, that was  
111 constructed from blue germination paper (21.6 x 28 cm; Anchor Paper Company, St Paul, MN,  
112 USA) inserted into Staples® standard clear polypropylene sheet protectors (Staples Inc, MA,  
113 USA) (Figure 2, 3A). The bottom edges of these sheet protectors were removed to allow for  
114 capillary movement of distilled water and nutrient solution up the germination papers. Two  
115 germination pouches were then firmly held to either side of a clear stiff acrylic plate (0.5 x 24 x  
116 30 cm; Acme Plastic Woodland Park, NJ, USA) with a rubber band and a binder clip (Staples  
117 Inc, MA, USA) (Figure 3A). The acrylic plates also had extended overhangs (0.5 x 1.5 x 1.0 cm)  
118 that fit into a metal support frame that was situated in the top of a customized black  
119 polypropylene tank (54.5 x 42.5 x 6.0 cm) (Figure 3C). The 2-D growth systems hung so that  
120 they are positioned about 3 cm deep into the liquid media within the tank (Figure 2-B). The  
121 liquid solution consisted of 12L of distilled water that was interchanged with modified one-  
122 quarter Hoagland's solution (Hoagland and Arnon, 1950) three days after germination. The  
123 composition of the nutrient solution was 1.25mM KNO<sub>3</sub>; 0.625mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>; 0.5mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>;  
124 0.5mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>; 17.5µM H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>; 5.5 µM MnCl<sub>2</sub>; 0.5µM ZnSO<sub>4</sub>; 0.062µM Na<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>4</sub>; 2.5µM  
125 NaCl<sub>2</sub>; 0.004µM CoCl<sub>2</sub>; and 12.5µM Fe-EDTA. The final pH of the nutrient solution was  
126 adjusted to pH 6.2.

127 A single seed from each accession was placed into a germination paper pouch at 2.5 cm below  
128 the top with the crease-side down at about a 45° orientation from the vertical plane (Figure 4A).  
129 Positioning the seed at this angle provided two main benefits. First, it allowed the phototropic  
130 response of the coleoptile to align with the vertical plane without rerouting its mesocotyl.  
131 Second, the position also benefitted the seedling RSA by supporting root emergence away from  
132 the germination paper, resulting in easier image acquisition. After 7 days, with almost all  
133 seedlings at growth stage 10 (Zadoks *et al.*, 1974), each growth pouch was removed from the  
134 platform, the polypropylene sheets were cut open on one side, and a side of each sheet was  
135 carefully opened to reveal the blue germination paper.

### 136 Imaging and analysis

137 Imaging of the roots was carried out using a Flatbed scanner (HP Inc, USA). The acquired  
138 images were saved as standardized compressed image formats (JPG files) which were then  
139 imported as new files into the RootNav software. Each image is then converted to a probability  
140 map (inverted images) in the software with the root images represented as clustered groups of  
141 pixels using the gaussian mixture model based on the varying intensities of the pixels (Pound *et al.*, 2013). The RootNav allows expectation maximization clustering to assign the best  
142 appearance likelihood of the pixels from root images against the background creating a model  
143 that can be fit from the seed point (source) to the root apices.  
144

145 The RSA images acquired from the wheat seedling were then semi-automatically measured with  
146 RootNav software and predefined model setting for wheat seedling was used to acquire  
147 measurements of the traits. The root traits that were measured for each replicate included: total  
148 length (summation of all the root length – mm), seminal length (the total length of seminal roots  
149 – mm), lateral length (the total length of lateral roots – mm), mean seminal length (mean value of  
150 the total length of the seminal roots – mm), mean lateral length (mean value of the total length of  
151 lateral roots – mm), seminal count (number of seminal roots), lateral count (number of lateral  
152 roots), mean seminal count (mean value of the total number of seminal roots), mean lateral count  
153 (mean value of the total number of lateral roots), average seminal emergence angle  
154 (measurement of emergence angle of the seminal roots – degrees), average lateral emergence  
155 angle (measurement of emergence angle of the lateral roots – degrees), average seminal tip angle  
156 (mean value of the measurement of angle in the seminal root tips – degrees), average lateral tip  
157 angle (mean value of the measurement of angle in the lateral root tips – degrees), root tip angle  
158 (the measurement of angle in the seminal root tips – degrees), maximum width (the furthestmost  
159 width of the root system along horizontal axis – mm), maximum depth (the furthestmost depth of  
160 the root system along vertical axis – mm), width-depth ratio (the ratio of the maximum width to  
161 the maximum depth of the root system), centroid (the coordinates of the center of mass of root  
162 system along the horizontal and vertical axes – mm), convex hull area (the area of the smallest  
163 convex polygon covering the boundaries of the root system – mm<sup>2</sup>), and tortuosity (the average  
164 curvature of the seminal roots).

165

166 Supplementary Table 1. The common name, taxonomy, origin, and source of 34 different accessions assessed for its seedlings RSA.

| Accession             | PI/Citr    | Common name               | Taxon  | Subspecies      | Ploidy | Origin             |
|-----------------------|------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------|--------|--------------------|
| Largo                 | Citr 17895 | Synthetic hexaploid wheat | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> x<br><i>Aegilops tauschii</i> | Synthetic       | 6x     | U.S., North Dakota |
| ND495                 | N/A        | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | U.S., North Dakota |
| Grandin               | PI 531005  | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | U.S., North Dakota |
| BR34                  | N/A        | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | Brazil             |
| Chinese Spring        | Citr 14108 | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | China              |
| Arina                 | N/A        | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | Switzerland        |
| Forno                 | N/A        | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | Switzerland        |
| Sumai 3               | PI 481542  | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | China              |
| Chinese Spring-DIC 5B | N/A        | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | U.S., Missouri     |
| Bobwhite              | PI 520554  | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | Mexico, CIMMYT     |
| Salamouni             | PI 182673  | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | Lebanon            |
| Katepwa               | N/A        | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>                               | <i>aestivum</i> | 6x     | Canada             |
| M3                    | N/A        | Synthetic hexaploid wheat | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> x<br><i>Aegilops tauschii</i> | Synthetic       | 6x     | Mexico, CIMMYT     |
| M6                    | N/A        | Synthetic hexaploid wheat | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> x                             | Synthetic       | 6x     | Mexico, CIMMYT     |

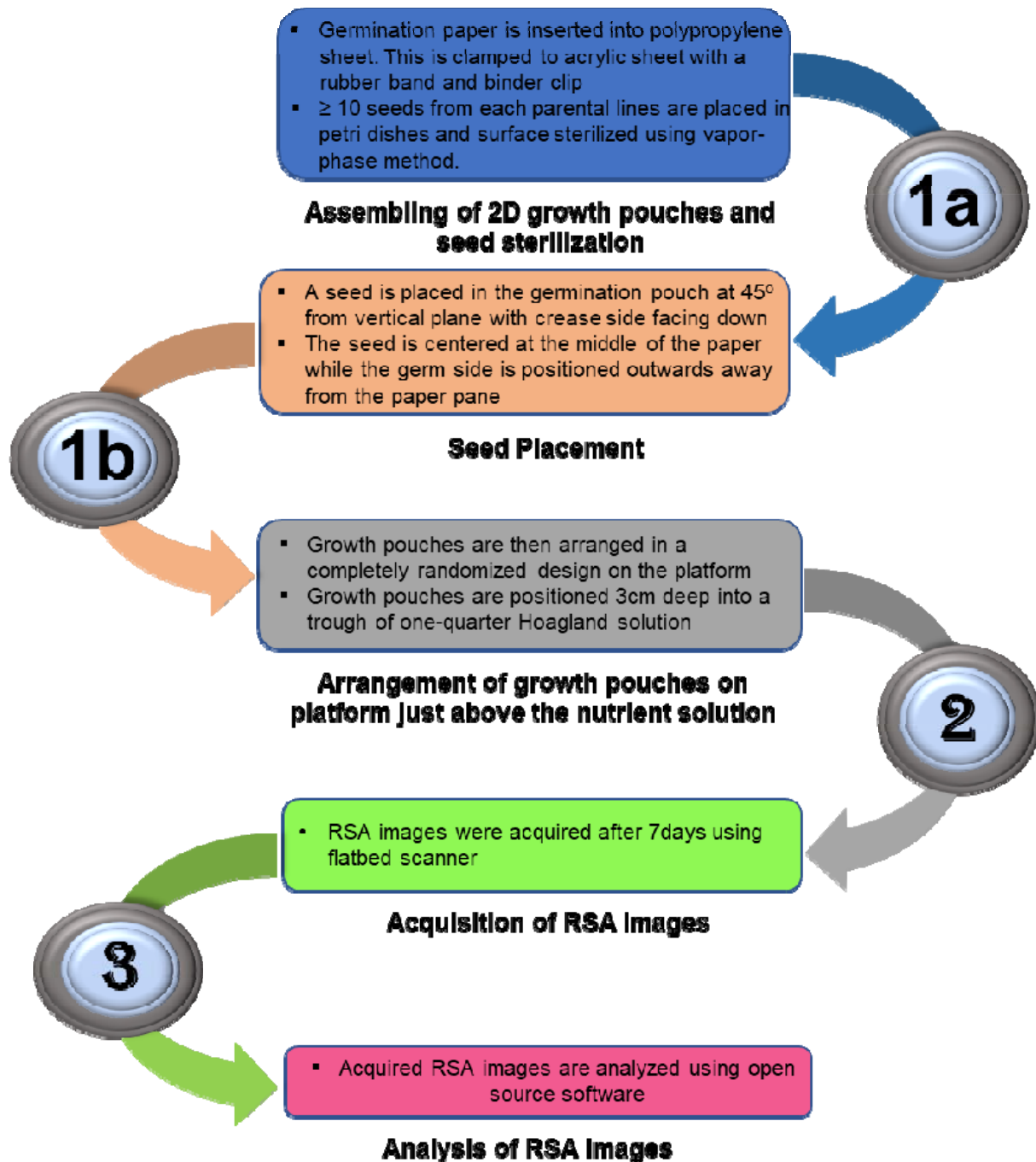
|           |           |                           |                            |                    |    |                    |
|-----------|-----------|---------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------|----|--------------------|
|           |           |                           | <i>Aegilops tauschii</i>   |                    |    |                    |
| Kulm      | PI 590576 | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>   | <i>aestivum</i>    | 6x | U.S., North Dakota |
| Opata85   | PI 591776 | Common wheat              | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>   | <i>aestivum</i>    | 6x | Mexico, CIMMYT     |
| TA4152-60 | N/A       | Synthetic hexaploid wheat | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> x | Synthetic          | 6x | Mexico, CIMMYT     |
|           |           |                           | <i>Aegilops tauschii</i>   |                    |    |                    |
| TA4152-19 | N/A       | Synthetic hexaploid wheat | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> x | Synthetic          | 6x | Mexico, CIMMYT     |
|           |           |                           | <i>Aegilops tauschii</i>   |                    |    |                    |
| Divide    | N/A       | Durum wheat               | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>durum</i>       | 4x | U.S., North Dakota |
| Rusty     | PI 639869 | Durum wheat               | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>durum</i>       | 4x | U.S., North Dakota |
| Ben       | N/A       | Durum wheat               | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>durum</i>       | 4x | U.S., North Dakota |
| Lebsock   | N/A       | Durum wheat               | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>durum</i>       | 4x | U.S., North Dakota |
| Langdon   | N/A       | Durum wheat               | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>durum</i>       | 4x | U.S., North Dakota |
| Altar84   | N/A       | Durum wheat               | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>durum</i>       | 4x | Mexico, CIMMYT     |
| P503      | N/A       | Spelt wheat               | <i>Triticum aestivum</i>   | <i>spelta</i>      | 6x | Iran               |
| PI193     | PI 193833 | Cultivated emmer          | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>dicoccum</i>    | 4x | Ethiopia           |
| PI410     | PI 41025  | Cultivated emmer          | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>dicoccum</i>    | 4x | Russia             |
| PI947     | PI 94749  | Persian wheat             | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>carthlicum</i>  | 4x | Georgia            |
| PI481     | PI 481521 | Wild emmer                | <i>Triticum turgidum</i>   | <i>dicoccoides</i> | 4x | Israel             |

|          |           |                  |                          |                  |    |         |
|----------|-----------|------------------|--------------------------|------------------|----|---------|
| PI478    | PI 478742 | Wild emmer       | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> | <i>diccoides</i> | 4x | Israel  |
| TA106    | N/A       | Wild emmer       | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> | <i>diccoides</i> | 4x | Israel  |
| Israel A | N/A       | Wild emmer       | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> | <i>diccoides</i> | 4x | Israel  |
| PI277    | PI 277012 | Spelt wheat      | <i>Triticum aestivum</i> | <i>spelta</i>    | 6x | Spain   |
| PI272    | PI 272527 | Cultivated emmer | <i>Triticum turgidum</i> | <i>diccum</i>    | 4x | Hungary |

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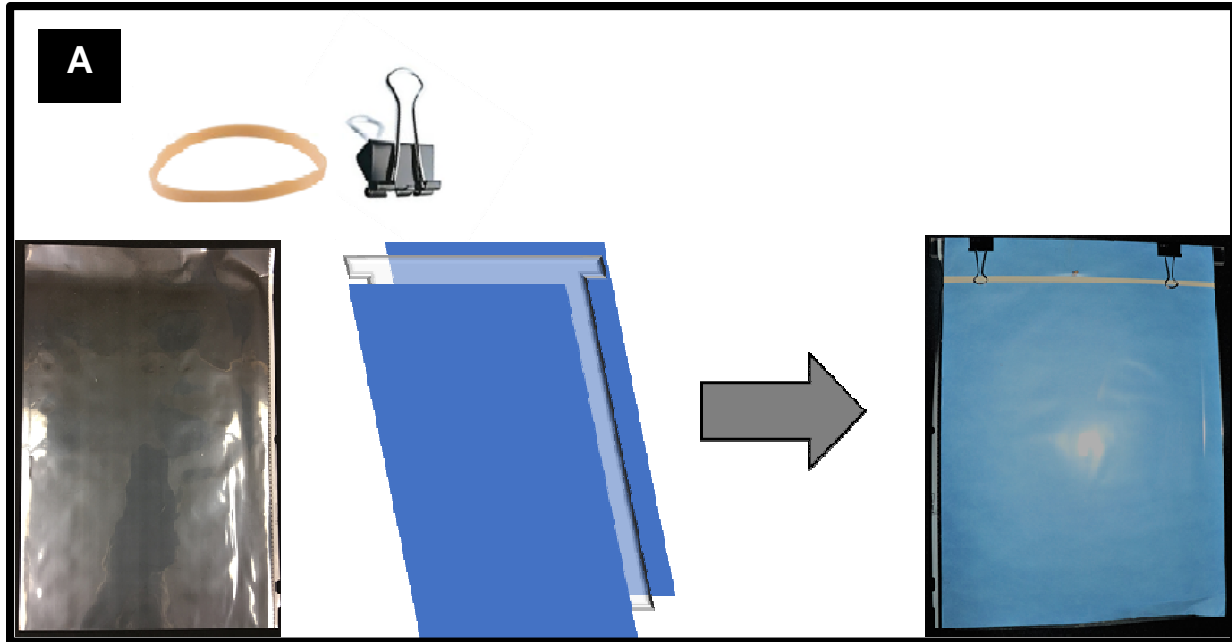
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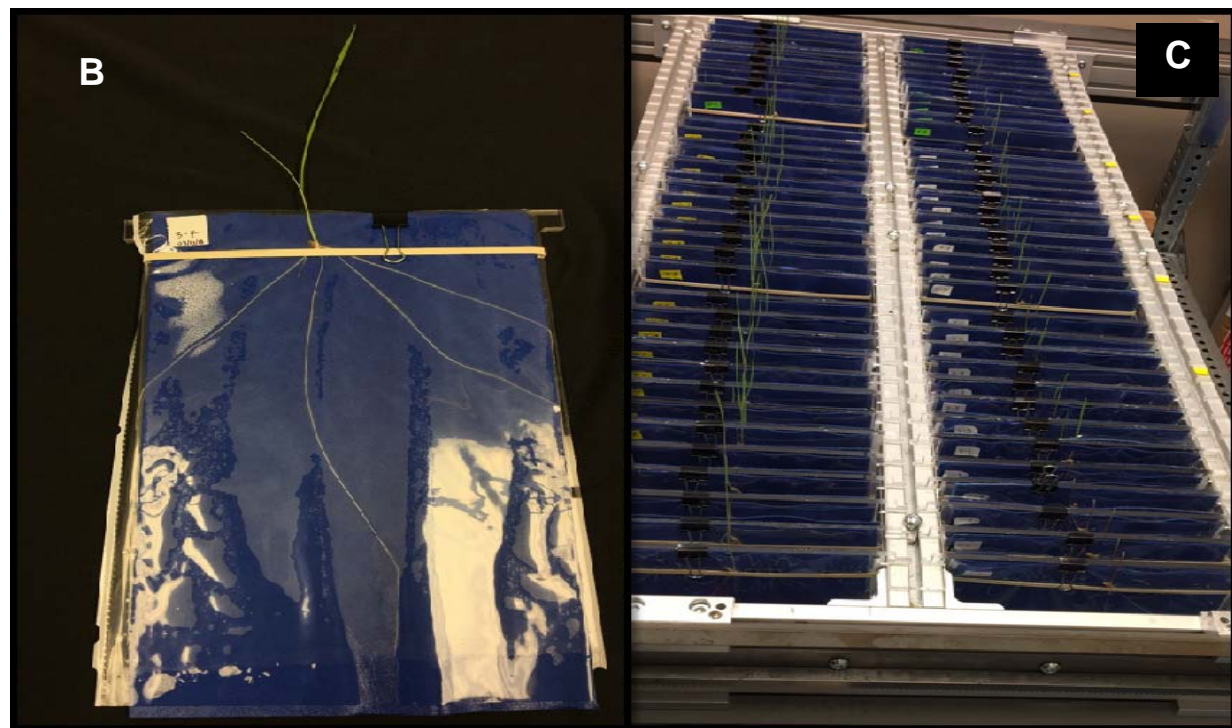
171 Figure 2. Schematic illustrating the three major steps of the root phenotyping pipeline. The first  
172 step is seed sterilization and the assembling of 2D growth pouches (1a), and the placement of  
173 seeds in respective pouches accordingly and placement into the tanks (1b). The second step  
174 involves the acquisition of RSA images using a flatbed scanner (2). The third step is the analyses  
175 of RSA images acquired in the second step (3).

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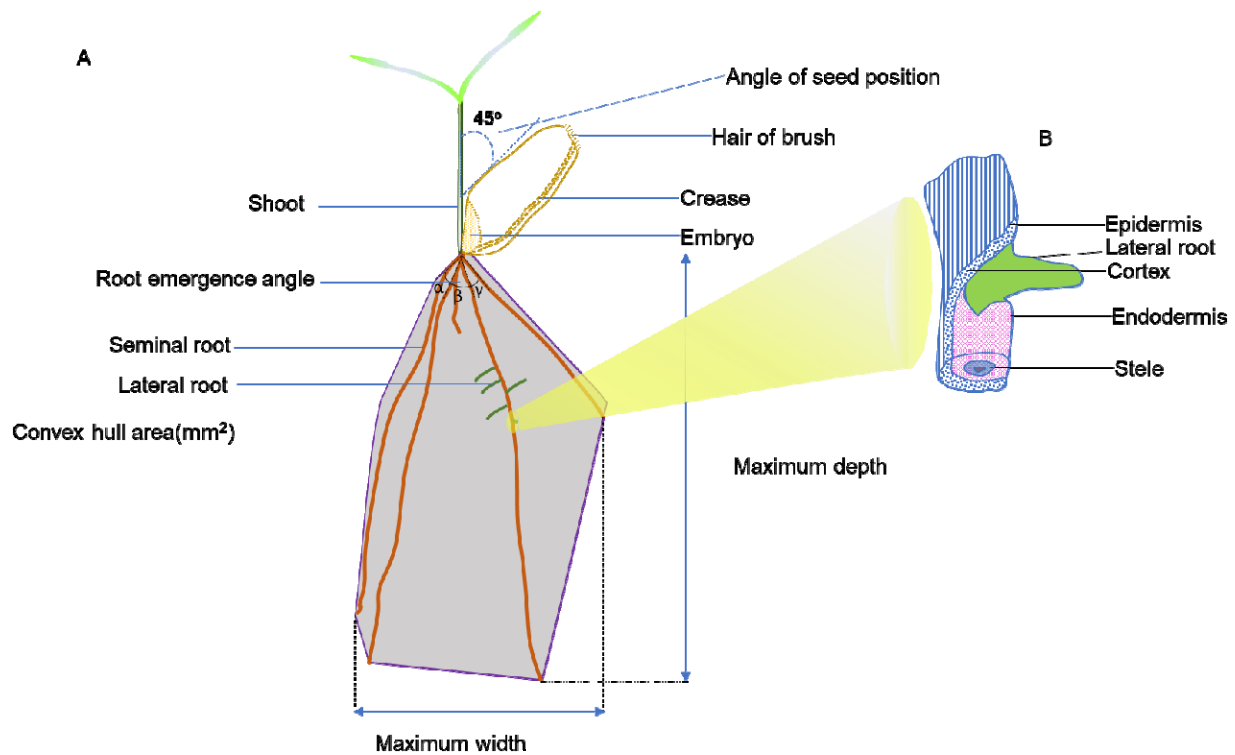


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179 Figure 3. A customized high-throughput seedling root phenotyping platform is showing the  
180 growth assembly. The 2-D growth system showing the growth pouch on one side. (A). The  
181 growth paper was inserted within the cover sheet that has had the bottom end removed. A rubber  
182 band and binder hold two germination pouches firmly in place to the acrylic plate. (B). The  
183 germinated seed shows the RSA of the wheat seedling at the two-leaf stage. (C). An assembled  
184 2-D growth system showing growth pouches hanging from a metal frame.

185



186

187 Figure 4. (A) Summary of seedling features within the growth system and positioning of the  
188 seed. The positioning of the seed at 45° to the vertical plane of the growth system permitted a  
189 precise upward development of the coleoptile and concomitant downward growth of the roots.  
190 The crease of the seed is inverted to face the horizontal plane of the pouch thus allowing the  
191 roots to grow away from the germination paper (B) Illustration of lateral root emerging from the  
192 overlying tissues of the primary seminal root.

193

194 Statistical analysis of the results obtained from RootNav was processed and analyzed using IBM  
195 SPSS Statistics for Windows, v25.0 (IBM Corp., NY, USA). The results obtained were  
196 expressed as mean values for each parental line for each trait. Analysis of variance (ANOVA)  
197 was applied to compare the means. Based on the outcome of the ANOVA on all data, Tukey  
198 HSD post hoc analysis was performed to separate the means.

199 Spearman rank correlation coefficients ( $\rho$ ) was used to determine associations between measured  
200 traits. Data analysis and visualization of the mixed model was performed using R software  
201 Version 3.4.3.

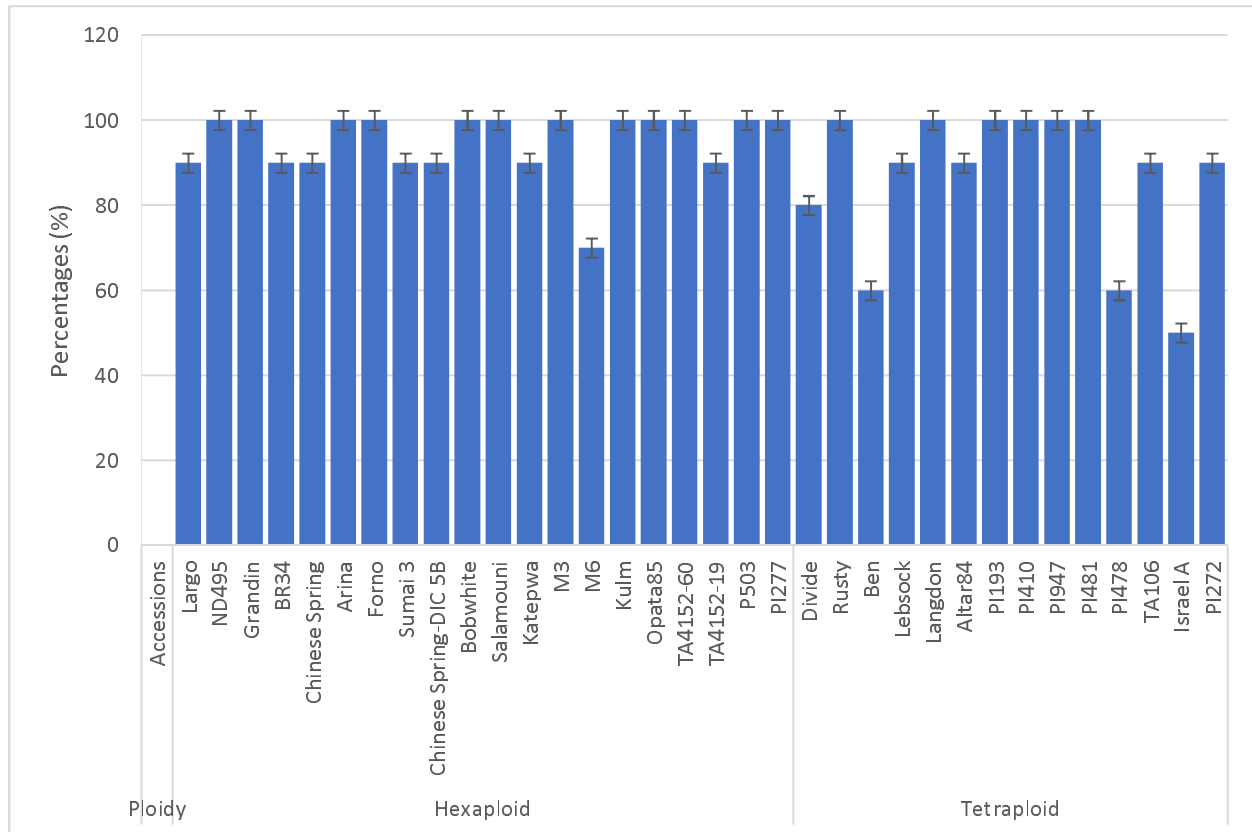
## 202 Results

203 The root of the wheat seedlings grew freely along the airspace between the clear propylene sheet  
204 and the moistened blue absorbent growth paper without growing into the paper. This allowed for  
205 capturing of clearly distinguishable root image from the blue germination paper. RootNav

206 software was used to extract the quantification of RSA traits from the total root images of 312  
207 seedlings that were captured 7 days after planting.

### 208 **Frequency distribution of germination potential and measured root traits**

209 The germination potential of each PL accessions is shown in Figure 5. The average germination  
210 rate of hexaploid was 9.4% higher than the tetraploid wheat accessions. The frequency  
211 distribution of the germination potential showed that 85.3% of all accessions exceeded a 90%  
212 germination rate (Supplementary Figure S1).



213  
214 **Figure 5. Germination potential for each accession**

215

216

217 The frequency histograms of the measured root traits for the 34 accessions are shown in  
218 Supplementary Figure S2. There was a strong correlation (0.8) between observed traits of total  
219 seminal root length and convex hull area. The average seminal length was strongly correlated  
220 (0.8) with maximum depth and centroid while maximum width highly correlated (0.9) with  
221 width-depth ratio and convex hull area. The maximum depth also showed a high correlation (0.9)  
222 with a centroid (Supplementary Figure S3).

223

## 224 **The hexaploid wheat accessions**

225 The non-destructive measurements of the RSA roots showed that the mean total length (Figure  
226 8A) of Salamouni, Katepwa, Kulm, Opata85, TA60, Grandin, P503, Arina, Forno, Sumai3, and  
227 Chinese Spring-DIC 5B were significantly longer compared with Largo, which was used as the  
228 reference, by 0.9, 1.3, 1.9, 2.1, 1.5, 1.6, 0.9, 1.3, and 1.4 times respectively. The average seminal  
229 length (Figure 9A) of Kulm, Opata85, TA60, Grandin, P503, Arina, and Forno compared to  
230 Largo were significantly longer by 1.0, 1.0, 1.2, 0.8 1.0, 1.0, and 1.2 times respectively. The  
231 mean count of the seminal root (Figure 10A) of Katepwa, Kulm, Opata85, and Grandin was  
232 significantly higher compared with Largo by 0.5, 0.4, 0.5 and 0.4 times respectively. The mean  
233 maximum width (Figure 11A) showed that Kulm, Opata85, and Grandin were significantly  
234 larger compared with Largo by 2.2, 1.4 and 1.7 times respectively. The maximum depth (Figure  
235 12A) of Kulm, Opata85, TA60, Grandin, P503, Arina, Forno, Sumai3, and Chinese Spring-DIC  
236 5B were significantly greater compared with Largo by 0.7, 0.8, 0.8, 0.6, 0.7, 0.7, 1.0, 0.8, and 0.8  
237 times respectively. The width to depth ratio (Figure 13A) of Kulm was significantly larger  
238 compared with Largo by 0.9 times. The mean convex hull area (Figure 14 A) of Kulm, Opata85,  
239 TA60, Grandin, and Arina were significantly larger compared to Largo by 5.3, 4.8, 3.3, 4.1 and  
240 3.1 times respectively. The vertical coordinate of the centroid (Figure 17A) showed that Kulm,  
241 Opata85, TA60, TA19, P503, Arina, Forno, Sumai3, and Chinese Spring-DIC 5B were  
242 significantly greater compared with Largo by 0.8, 1.0, 1.2, 0.8, 1.0, 1.1, 1.5, 1.0, 0.9 times  
243 respectively.

244

## 245 **The tetraploid wheat accessions**

246 Accessions Langdon, PI 193883, PI 41025, PI 94749, and PI 272 were significantly higher in  
247 mean total length compared with Rusty (which was used as reference) by 1.4, 1.6, 1.6, 1.8, and  
248 1.4 times respectively (Figure 8B). For mean seminal length, Lebsock, PI 193883, PI 41025, and  
249 PI 94749 showed a significantly longer seminal root with 1.5, 1.4, 1.6, and 1.5 times more than  
250 Rusty (Figure 9B).

251 For the mean maximum width, PI 277 showed a significant difference increasing 1.7 times more  
252 than Rusty (Figure 11B). For mean maximum depth, PI 193, PI 410 and PI272 showed a  
253 significant difference increasing 0.9, 0.8, and 0.8 times more than Rusty respectively (Figure  
254 12B). For the mean width to depth ratio (Figure 13A), the PI 277 showed a significant increase  
255 of 1.1 times more than Rusty (Figure 13B).

256 In other measured root trait, mean convex hull area of PI 193883 significantly increased 3.1  
257 times when compared to Rusty (Figure 14B). Also, for centroid\_Y, Lebsock, PI 193, PI 410 and  
258 Israel showed a significant difference increasing 1.4, 1.6, 1.5 and 1.6 times respectively.

## 259 **Discussion**

260 The root phenotyping pipeline examined in this study using a germination paper-based moisture  
261 replacement system allowed measurement of important root architectural traits to be collected in  
262 an efficient, low-cost, and high-throughput fashion.

263 *The benefit of the root system size*

264 The root system size is the representation of the total root length, seminal count, and the convex  
265 hull area. In previous studies, these traits have been positively associated with each other as well  
266 as with grain yield of wheat in the field (Liu *et al.*, (2013) and Xie *et al.*, (2017)). We also found  
267 a significant correlation between the total root length, maximum depth and the convex hull area  
268 in this study. In addition, the average seminal root length showed a significant correlation with  
269 both total root length and the convex hull area which agrees with previous findings (Cao *et al.*,  
270 2014) that suggested that deeper penetration of the soil by seedling roots results in better access  
271 to soil nutrients and early plant establishment. The total root length and the average seminal root  
272 length had strong associations with the Centroid\_Y (vertical axis), which is suggested to be  
273 responsible for the aboveground vigor and root depth of the plant (Atkinson *et al.*, 2015).

274 *Kulm and Opata85 may be useful for RSA improvement in hexaploid wheat*

275 Kulm is a hard-red spring wheat (HRSW) developed at North Dakota State University, Fargo,  
276 ND. Kulm performed the best in our study among all the accessions we examined. Kulm had a  
277 higher mean total length, mean average primary length, seminal count and convex hull area  
278 making it a suitable candidate for breeding a larger root system and greater spatial distribution.  
279 Kulm has been used in previous studies as a parental line for inbred line developments  
280 (Mergoum *et al.*, 2009; Ghaffary *et al.*, 2012) with a report affirming its higher yield. Although,  
281 Kulm has been found susceptible to some wheat pathogens like septoria tritici blotch (STB)  
282 (Ghaffary *et al.*, 2012), *septoria nodorum* blotch (SNB) and tan spot (Faris *et al.*, 2010), it  
283 remains a good candidate for selection of grain-end-use quality (Mergoum *et al.*, 2009).

284 Opata 85 is a commercial spring wheat cultivar developed at International Maize and Wheat  
285 Improvement Center (CIMMYT), Mexico (Borner *et al.*, 2002). In our study, the next best  
286 accession after Kulm was Opata85 as it produced more roots and an overall architecture that  
287 allowed it to occupy more root area. These traits make Opata 85 a suitable breeding candidate for  
288 larger root development and improvement of abiotic stress resistance. Opata 85 has been used as  
289 a parental line for recombinant inbred lines (RILs) used to map yield traits (Kumar *et al.*, 2007),  
290 important agronomic traits (Borner *et al.*, 2002), growth characters (Kulwal *et al.*, 2003), water-  
291 logging tolerance in seed germination and seedling growth (YU *et al.*, 2014), and growth  
292 duration components (Yu *et al.*, 2015).

293 *The significance of a rapid screening pipeline for measuring seedling root traits*

294 The high throughput root phenotyping pipeline that was developed in this study revealed  
295 variation in seedling root traits of both hexaploid and tetraploid wheat accessions. The pipeline  
296 allowed us to examine the root system architecture of 340 wheat seedlings using only one out of  
297 four sections of our metal scaffoldings that were fitted with three solution tanks. Each section has  
298 the capacity to fit-in 84 growth systems that led to screening approximately 168 seedlings for  
299 each assembly. The total capacity of the platform can allow phenotypic evaluation of 672 plants  
300 per run in the fixed temperature growth room within 10days and this includes the assembling of  
301 2-D growth system and image analysis. Acquisition of root images of 168 seedlings takes  
302 approximately 3.5 hours while the semi-automated image analysis using open source software

303 takes 1.5mins per image. This is similar to findings of Atkinson *et al.*, (2015) who reported  
304 ~2mins per image and ~5mins per plant.

305 The cost of the 2D-growth system is ~ \$0.43 per plant with a reusable acrylic sheet of ~ \$3.30.  
306 The overall growth system assembly for the first time will cost \$4.20 with a recurring cost of  
307 \$0.90 per system. This is 81% lower than the average available market price of seed germination  
308 pouches.

309 Although different phenotyping systems based on germination paper have been reported in  
310 previous studies (Hund *et al.*, 2009a; Ingram *et al.*, 2012; Richard *et al.*, 2015), the pipeline  
311 described in this study is similar to the pouch and wick hydroponic-based system (Atkinson *et*  
312 *al.*, 2015). However, the pipeline in our study was enhanced by adding vapor sterilization of the  
313 seeds; positioning of the wheat seeds at a strategic angle that improved root images; growing two  
314 (2) plants per growth system; and utilization of separable solution tanks that can hold up to 4L of  
315 nutrient solution and 28 growth systems. The advantage of this type of solution tank is that root  
316 response to abiotic stress and different nutrient regimes can be assessed by varying solution  
317 constituent.

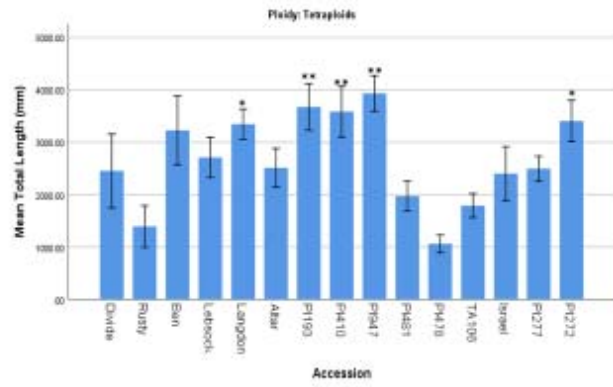
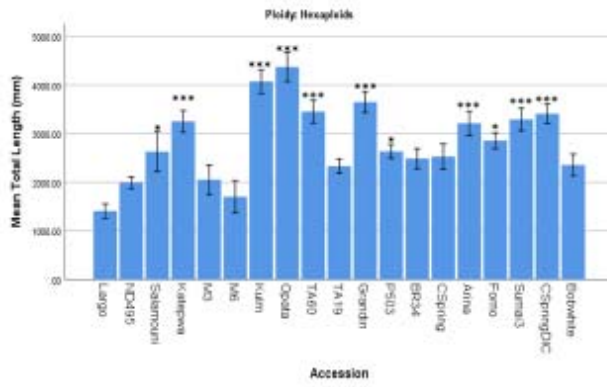
### 318 *Future Work*

319 SHW lines have become valuable resources for the genetic improvement of common wheat  
320 cultivars (Li *et al.*, 2018). The findings of variation analysis from this study will allow us to  
321 investigate segregating mapping populations that will include RILs of M3 and Kulm; and M6  
322 and Opata85. M3 was developed at CIMMYT, Mexico whereas Kulm was developed at North  
323 Dakota State University, Fargo, ND. These hexaploids are both spring type with M3 been a  
324 synthetic hexaploid while Kulm is a hard-red spring wheat (Ghaffary *et al.*, 2012). The  
325 associative mapping population that resulted from the crossing of these two lines (Kulm x M3)  
326 resulted in the 105 RILs that will be used in further studies of the hexaploid. Additionally,  
327 114RILs resulting from the hexaploid mapping population of Opata85 x M6 and chromosome  
328 substitution lines involving PI 478742, a tetraploid (where individual pairs of chromosomes of  
329 wild emmer have been substituted for homologous pairs of chromosomes in background of  
330 Langdon durum) will be evaluated to identify the chromosome locations of loci responsible for  
331 the differences in RSA traits. Thereafter, molecular markers suitable for marker-assisted  
332 selection of these traits will be developed.

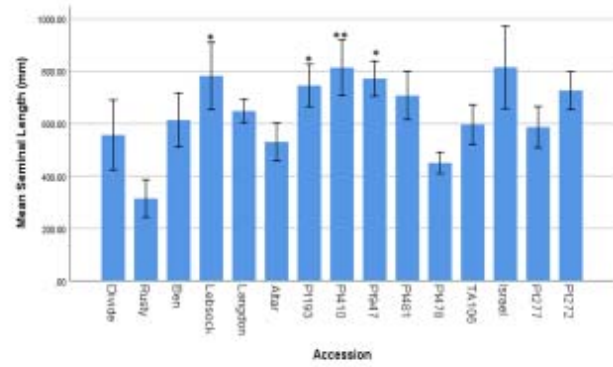
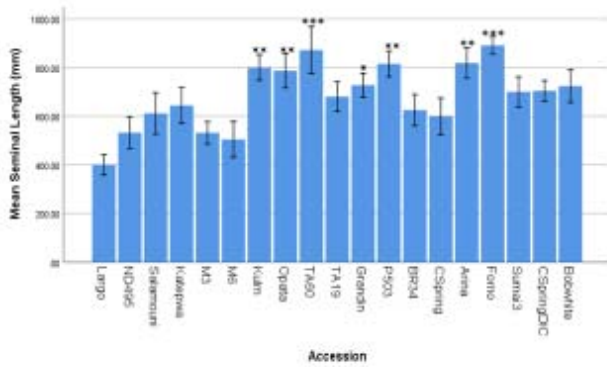
### 333 **Conclusion**

334 In this study, we have studied RSA on 34 different wheat accessions at an early stage of plant  
335 development and were able to demonstrate its use in identifying accessions which perform better  
336 than others in some of the RSA characters. This study clearly possesses an advantage over the  
337 previously reported study because of the advantage and capacity to increase screening potential  
338 at early stages of plant development. Also, this pipeline is very simple and provides an  
339 opportunity for automation and screening platforms. Availability of mapping populations and  
340 high-resolution mapping data from these accessions provides an opportunity for utilizing this  
341 pipeline in identifying QTLs linked to RSA in populations segregating in RSA traits.

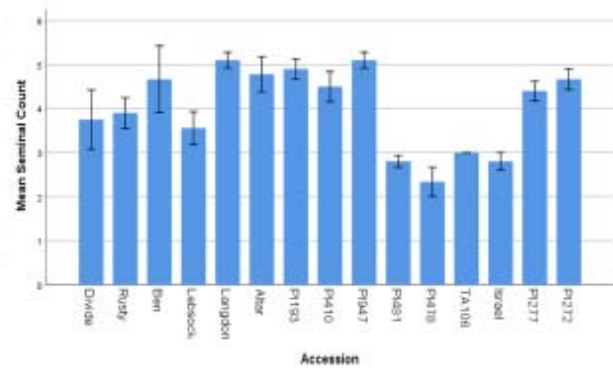
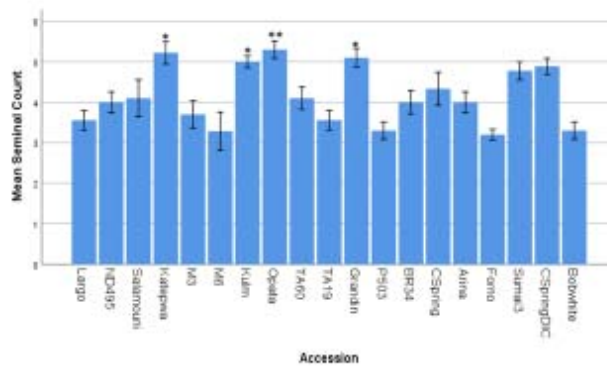
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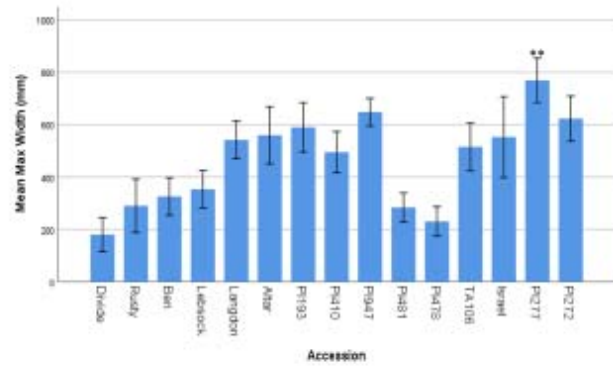
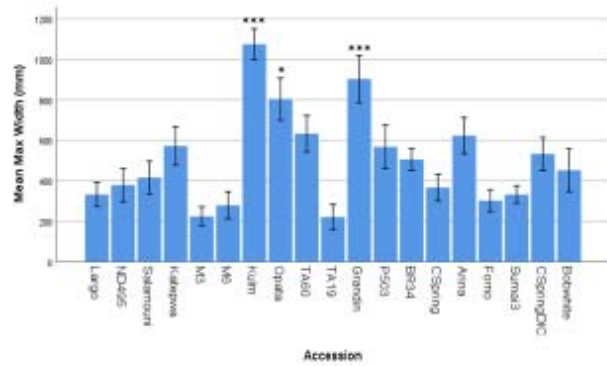
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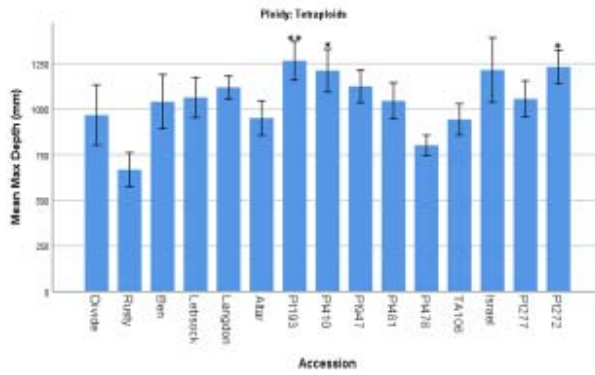
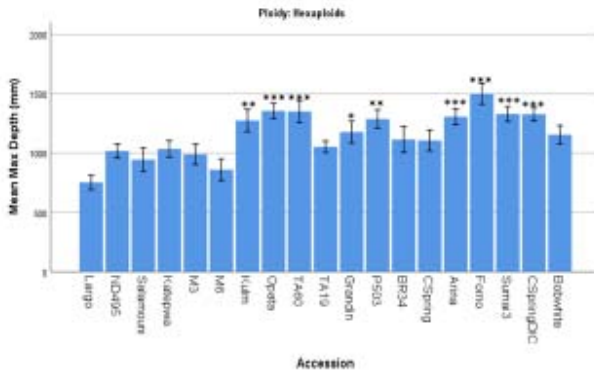
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A

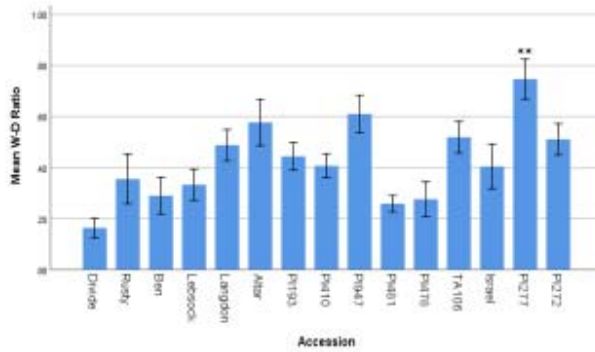
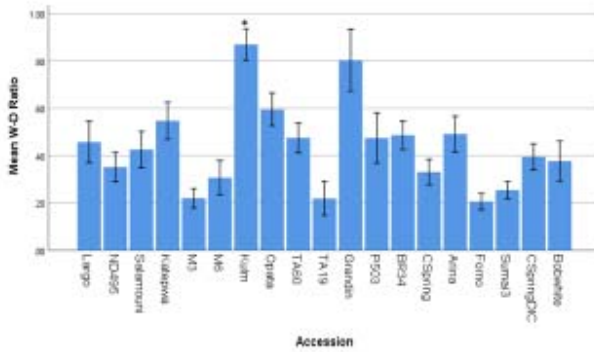
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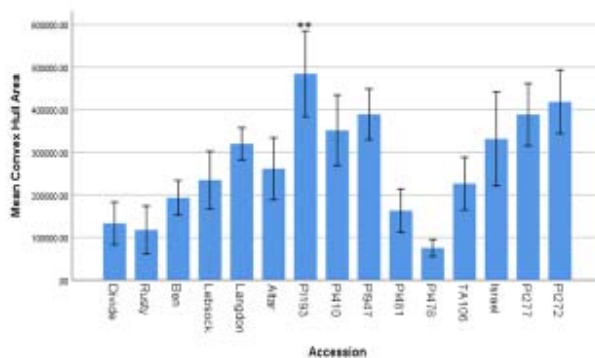
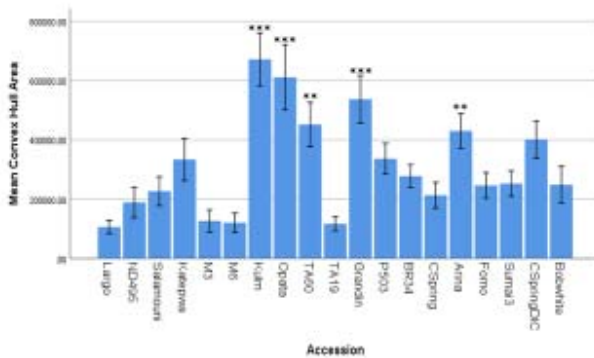
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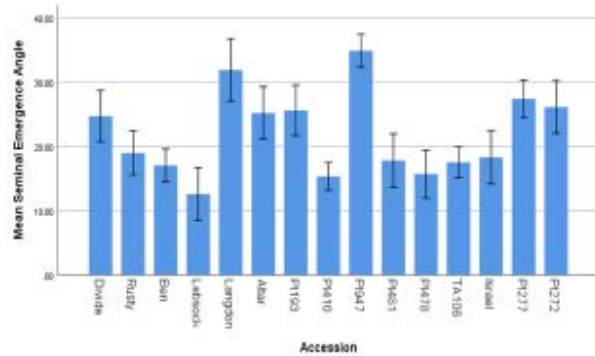
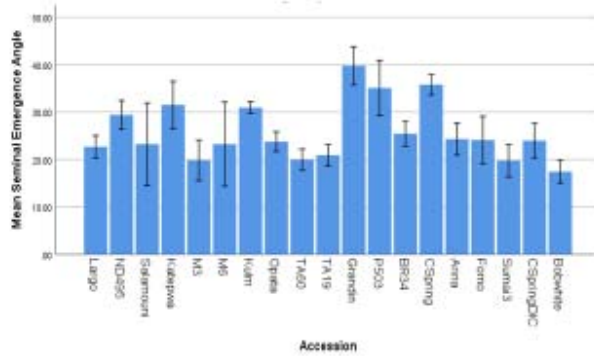
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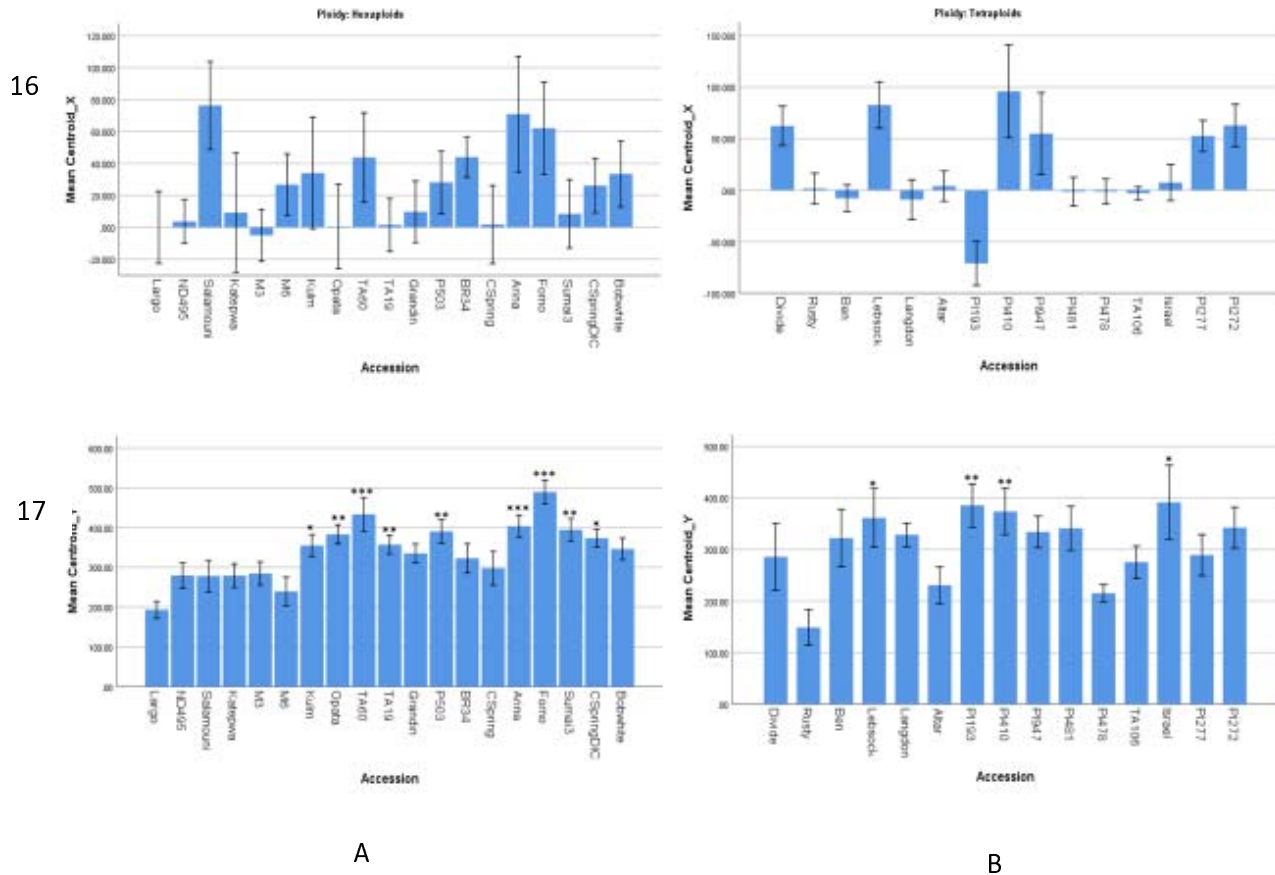


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A

B



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347 Figures 8-17. Root system architecture traits measured in 34 parental wheat accessions.

348

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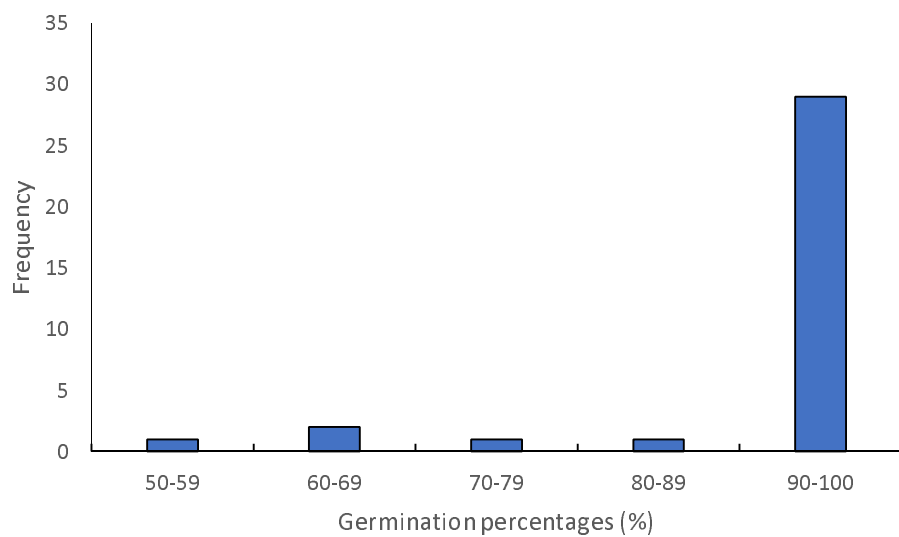
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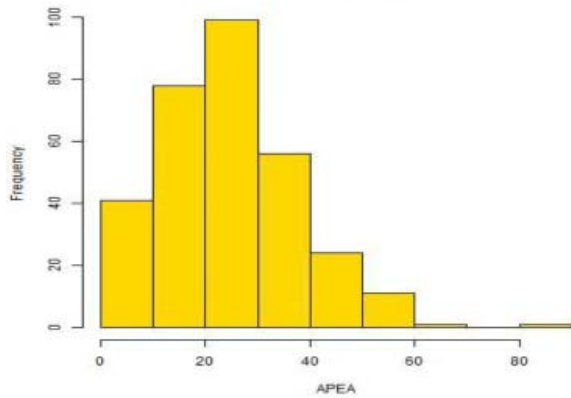
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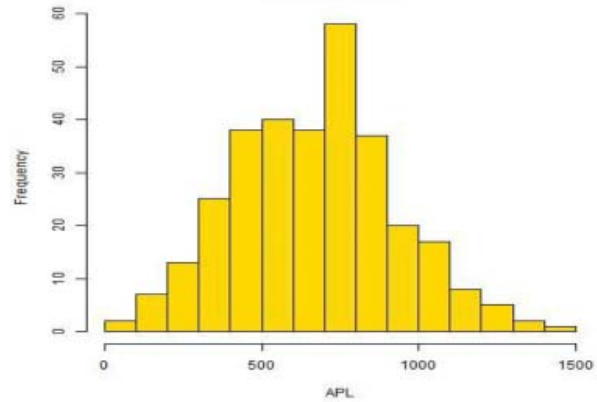


448  
449 Supplementary Figure 1. Frequency distribution of the germination potentials (percentage) of the  
450 wheat accessions evaluated  
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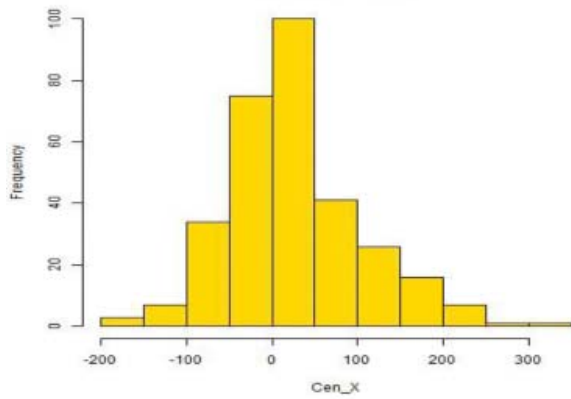
452 Supplementary Figure 2. The frequency histograms of measured root traits



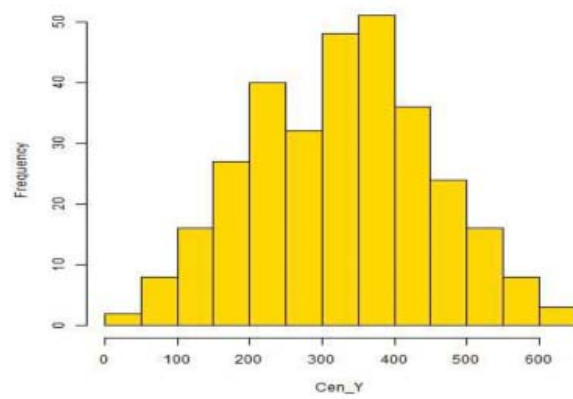
**Average primary emergence angle**



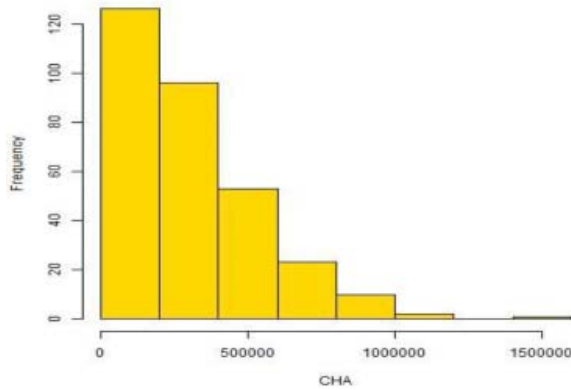
**Average primary length**



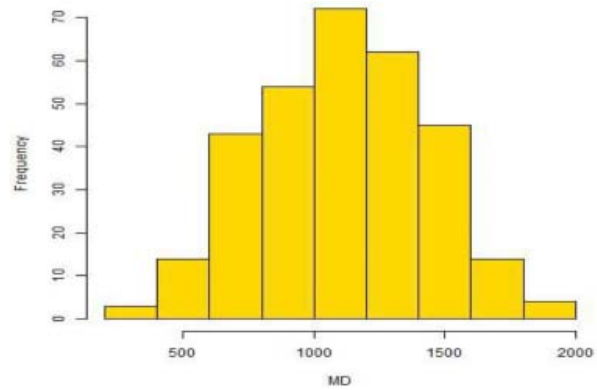
**Horizontal co-ordinates of centroid**



**Vertical co-ordinates of centroid**

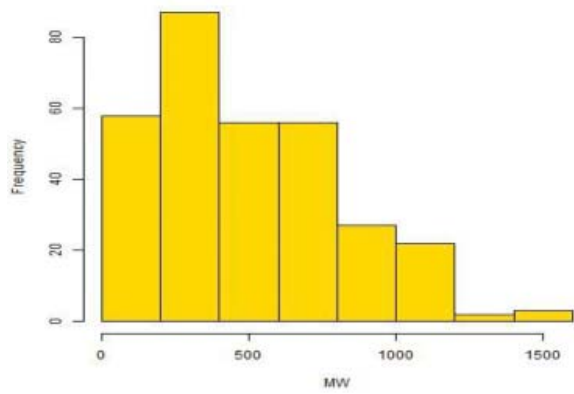


**Convex hull area**

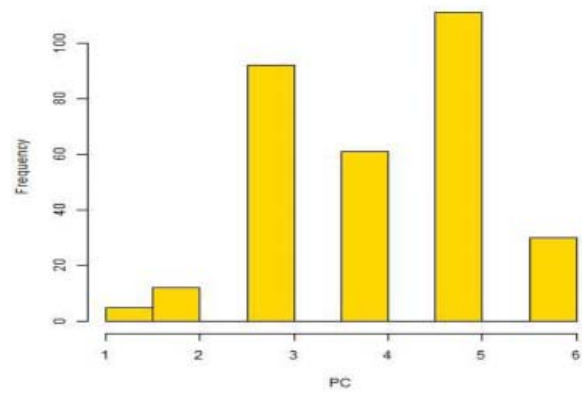


**Maximum depth**

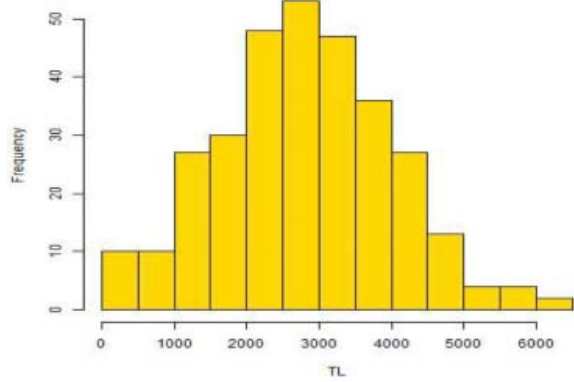
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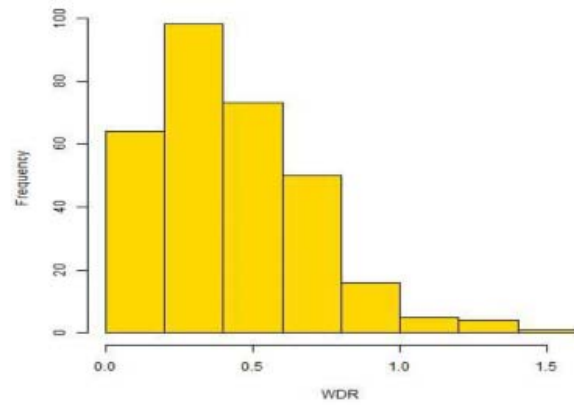
**Maximum width**



**Primary count**



**Total length**



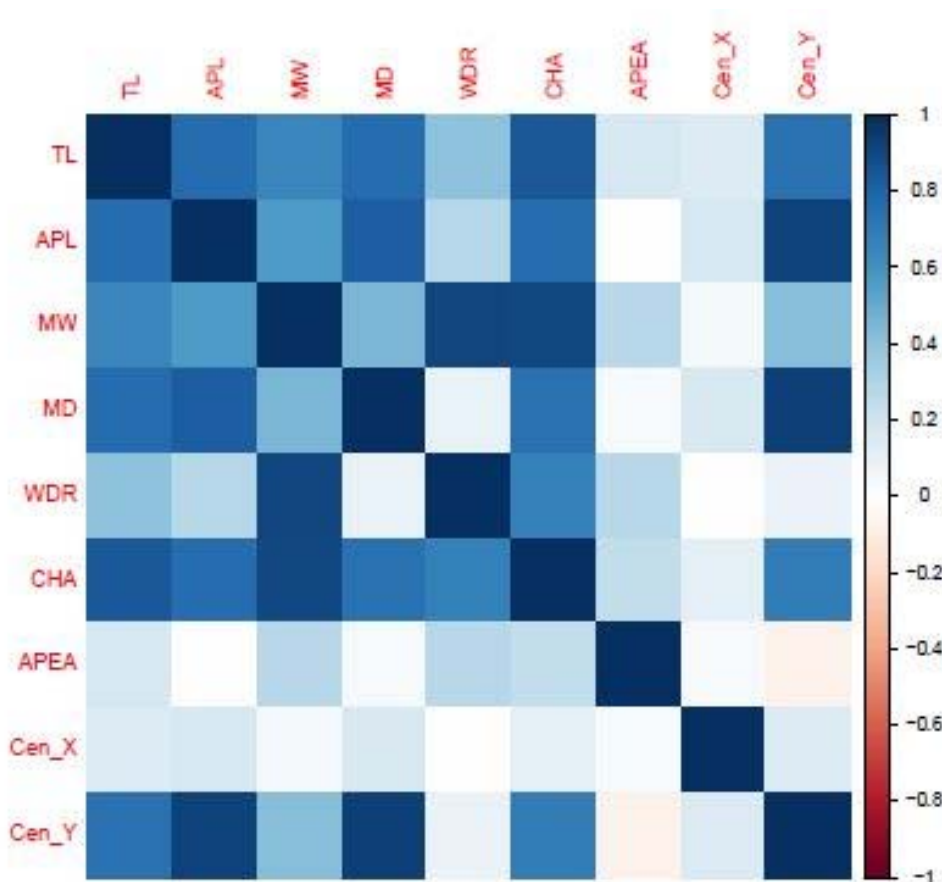
**Width-depth ratio**

455



456 Supplementary Figure 3. Correlation matrix of the measured root traits.

457



458

459 Abbreviations:

460 TL: Total length

461 APL: Average seminal length

462 MW: Maximum width

463 MD: Maximum depth

464 WDR: Width-depth ratio

465 CHA: Convex hull area

466 APEA: Average seminal emergence area

467 Cen\_X: Horizontal coordinates of centroid

468 Cen\_Y: Vertical coordinates of centroid

469 PC: Seminal count