

Using a structural root system model for an in-depth assessment of root image analysis pipeline

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1 Abstract

2 Root system analysis is a complex task, often performed using fully automated image analysis
3 pipelines. However, these pipelines are usually evaluated with a limited number of ground-truthed
4 root images, most likely of limited size and complexity.

5
6 We have used a root model, ArchiSimple to create a large and diverse library of ground-truthed
7 root system images (10.000). This library was used to evaluate the accuracy and usefulness of
8 several image descriptors classically used in root image analysis pipelines.

9
10 Our analysis highlighted that the accuracy of the different metrics is strongly linked to the type of
11 root system analysed (e.g. dicot or monocot) as well as their size and complexity. Metrics that have
12 been shown to be accurate for small dicot root systems might fail for large dicots root systems or
13 small monocot root systems. Our study also demonstrated that the usefulness of the different
14 metrics when trying to discriminate genotypes or experimental conditions may vary.

15
16 Overall, our analysis is a call to caution when automatically analysing root images. If a thorough
17 calibration is not performed on the dataset of interest, unexpected errors might arise, especially for
18 large and complex root images. To facilitate such calibration, both the image library and the
19 different codes used in the study have been made available to the community.

20

21 Introduction

22 Roots are of utmost importance in the life of plants and hence selection on root systems
23 represents great promise for improving crop tolerance (as reviewed in (Koevoets et al., 2016)). As
24 such, their quantification is a challenge in a multitude of research projects. This quantification is
25 usually twofold. The first step consists in acquiring an image of the root system, either using classic
26 image techniques (CCD cameras) or more specialized ones (microCT, X-Ray, fluorescence, ...). The
27 next step is to analyse the picture in order to extract meaningful descriptors of the root system.

28
29 To paraphrase the famous belgian surrealist painter, René Magritte, figure 1A is not a root system.
30 Figure 1A is an image of a root system and that distinction is important. Such an image is indeed a
31 two dimensional representation of a root system, which is usually a three dimensional object. Until
32 now, measurements are generally not performed on the root systems themselves, but on the images
33 and this raises some issues.

34
35 Image analysis is, by definition, the obtention of metrics (or descriptors) describing the objects
36 contained in a particular image . In a perfect situation, these descriptors would accurately represent
37 the biological object of the image with negligible deviation from the biological truth (or data).
38 However, in many cases, artefacts might be present in the images so that the representation of the
39 biological object is not accurate anymore. These artefacts might be due to the conditions in which
40 the images were taken or to the object itself. Mature root systems, for instance, are complex
41 branched structure, composed of thousands of overlapping (fig. 1B) and crossing linear segments
42 (fig. 1C). These features are likely to impede image analysis and create a gap between the
43 descriptors and the data.

44

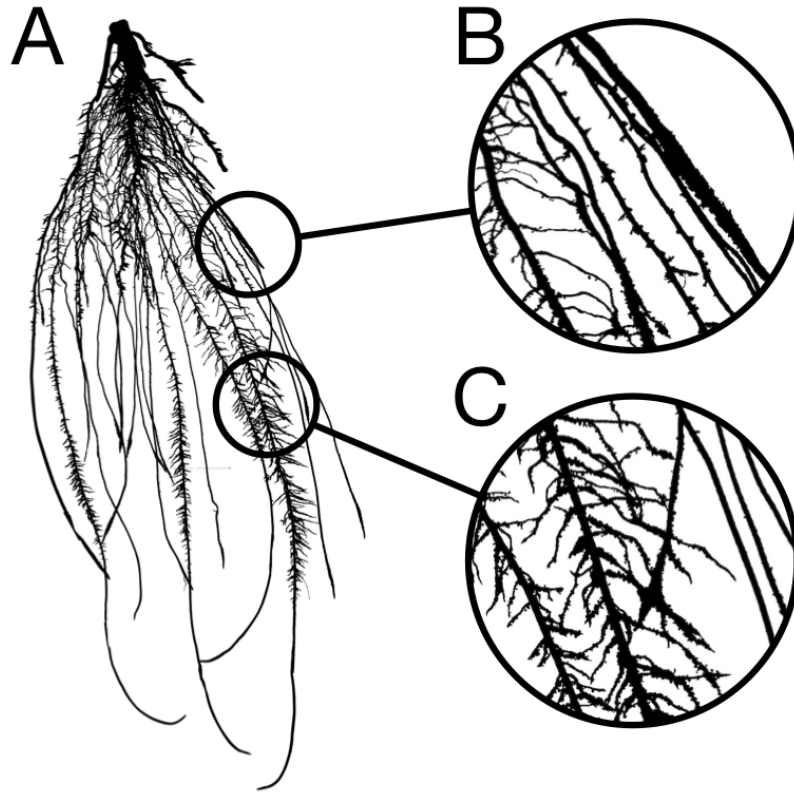


Figure 1. A. Image of a 2-week old maize root system grown in rhizotron. **B.** Close-up showing overlapping roots. **C.** Close-up showing crossing roots.

45

46

47 Root image descriptors can be separated into two main categories: morphological and geometrical
48 descriptors. Morphological descriptors refer to the shape of the different root segments forming the
49 root system (table 1). They include, among others, the length and diameter of the different roots.

50 For complex root system images, morphological descriptors are difficult to obtain and are prone to
51 error as mentioned above.

52

53 Geometrical descriptors give the position of the different root segments in space. They summarize
54 the shape of the root system as a whole. The simplest geometrical descriptors are the width and
55 depth of the root system. Since these descriptors are mostly defined by the outside envelope of the

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56 root system, crossing and overlapping roots have little impact on their estimation and they can be
57 considered as relatively errorless. Geometrical descriptors are expected to be loosely linked to the
58 actual root system topology, as identical shapes could be reached by different root systems (the
59 opposite is true as well). They are usually used in genetic studies, to identify genetic bases of root
60 system shape and soil exploration.

61
62 Several automated analysis tools were designed in the last few years to extract both type of
63 descriptors from root images (Armengaud et al., 2009; Bucksch et al., 2014; Galkovskyi et al., 2012;
64 Pierret et al., 2013). However, the validation of such tools is often incomplete and/or error prone.
65 Indeed, for technical reasons, the validation is usually performed on a small number of ground-
66 truthed images of young root systems for which most analysis tools were actually designed . In the
67 few cases where validation is performed on large and complex root systems, it is usually not on
68 ground-truthed images, but in comparison with previously published tools (measurement of X with
69 tool A compared with the same measurement with tool B). This might seem reasonable approach
70 regarding the scarcity of ground-truthed images of large root systems. However, the inherent
71 limitations of these tools, such as scale or plant type (monocot, dicot) are often not known. Users
72 might not even be aware that such limitations exist and apply the provided algorithm without
73 further validation on their own images. This can lead to unsuspected errors in the final
74 measurements.

75
76 One strategy to address the lack of in-depth validation of image analysis pipeline would be to use
77 synthetic images generated by structural root models (models designed to recreate the physical
78 structure and shape of root systems). Many structural root models have been developed, either to
79 model specific plant species (Pagès et al., 1989), or to be generic (Pagès et al., 2004; 2013). These
80 models have been repeatedly shown to faithfully represent the root system structure (Pagès and

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81 Pellerin, 1996). In addition, they can provide the ground-truth data for each synthetic root system
82 generated, independently of its complexity. However, except one recent tool designed for young
83 seedlings with no lateral roots (Benoit et al., 2014), they have almost never been used for validation
84 of image analysis tools (Rellán-Álvarez et al., 2015). A

85

86 Here we (i) illustrate the use of a structural root model, Archisimple, to systematically analyse and
87 evaluate an image analysis pipeline and (ii) evaluate the usefulness of different root metrics
88 commonly used in plant root research.

89

90 Material and methods

91 Nomenclature used in the paper

92

93 **Ground-truth data:** The real (geometric and morphometric) properties of the root system as a
94 biological object. Determined by either manual tracing of roots or by using the output of modelled
95 root systems.

96 **(Image) Descriptor:** Property of the root image. Does not necessarily have a biological meaning.

97 **Synthetype:** For each simulation, a parameter set is defined randomly. Then, 10 root systems are
98 created. Since the model has an intrinsic variability, each of these root system is slightly different
99 from the others, although similar, forming what we called a synthetic genotype, or *synthetype*.

100 **Root axes:** first order roots, directly attached to the shoot

101 **Lateral root:** second (or lower) order roots, attached to an other root

102 Creation of a root system library

103 We used the model ArchiSimple, which was shown to allow generating a large diversity of root
104 systems with a minimal amount of parameters (Pagès et al., 2013). In order to produce a large
105 library of root systems, we ran the model 10.000 times, each time with a random set of parameters.

106

107 The simulations were divided in two main groups: monocots and dicots. For the monocot
108 simulations, the model generated a random number of first-order axes and secondary (radial)
109 growth was disabled. For dicot simulations, only one primary axis was produced and secondary

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110 growth was enabled (the extend of which was determined by a random parameter) . For all
111 simulation, only first order laterals were created, to limit complexity.

112
113 The root system created from each simulation was stored in an RSML file. Each RSML file was then
114 read by the RSML Reader plugin from ImageJ to extract metrics and generate ground-truth data for
115 the library (Lobet et al., 2015). These ground-truth data included geometrical,morphological and
116 topological parameters (table 1). For each RSML data file, the RSML Reader plugin also created a
117 PNG image (at a resolution of 300 DPI) of the root system.

118

119 **Table 1:** Root system parameters used as ground-truth data

Name	Description	Unit
tot_root_length	The cumulative length of all roots	mm
tot_prim_length	The cumulative length of all root axes	mm
tot_lat_length	The cumulative length of all lateral roots	mm
mean_prim_length	The mean first-order roots length	mm
mean_lat_length	The mean lateral root length	mm
n_primary	The total number of first order roots	-
n_laterals	The total number of lateral roots	-
mean_lat_density	The mean lateral root density: for each first-orde root, the number of lateral roots divided by the axis length (total length).	mm-1
mean_prim_diam	The mean diameter of the first-order roots	mm
mean_lat_diam	The mean diameter of the lateral roots	mm
mean_lat_angle	The mean insertion angle of the lateral roots	°

120

121 Root image analysis

122 Each generated image was analysed using a custom-made ImageJ plugin, Root Image Analysis-J (or
123 RIA-J). The source code of RIA-J, as well as a compiled version is available at the address:

124 <https://zenodo.org/record/61509>.

125
126 For each image, we extracted a set of classical root image descriptors, such as the total root length,
127 the projected area or the number of visible root tips. In addition, we included shape descriptors,
128 such as pseudo-landmarks, or a-dimensional metrics such as the exploration ratio, of the width
129 proportion at 50% depth (see Supplemental file 1 for details about the shape descriptors). The list
130 of metrics and algorithms used by our pipeline is listed in the table 2.

131 Data analysis

132 Data analysis was performed in R (R Core Team). Morphometric analyses were performed using the
133 *momocs* (Bonhomme et al., 2014) and *shapes* (Dryden, 2015) packages. Plots were created using
134 *ggplot2* (Wickham, 2009) and *lattice* (Sarkar, 2008).

135 The Relative Root Square Mean Errors (RRSME) were estimated using the equation:

$$RRMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum^n \frac{(\bar{y}_i - y_i)}{\bar{y}_i}}{n}}$$

136 where n is the number of observations, \bar{y}_i is the mean and y_i is the estimated mean.

137 The Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) was performed using the *lda* function from the *MASS*
138 package (M and D, 2002). For each analysis, we used the *synthetype* information as grouping factor.
139 We used half of the samples (5) of each *synthetype* to build the model and the other half to assess
140 the discriminant power of the each class of metrics (morphology and shape).

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141 **Data availability**

142 All data used in this paper (including the image and RSML libraries) are available at the address

143 <https://zenodo.org/record/61739>

144 An archived version of the codes used in this paper is available at the address

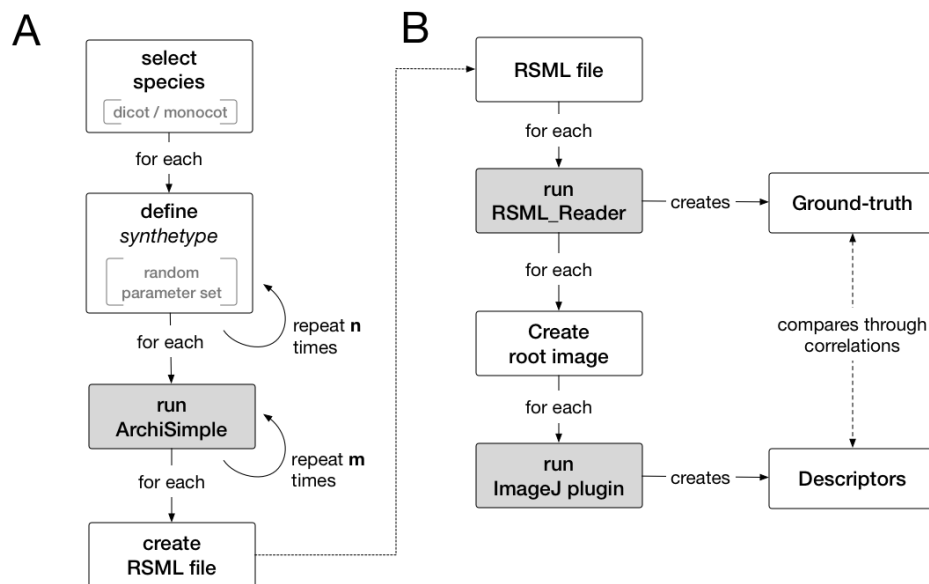
145 <https://zenodo.org/record/152083>

146

147 Results and discussions

148 Production of a large library of ground-truthed root system images

149 We combined existing tools into a single pipeline to produce a large library of ground-truthed root
150 system images. The pipeline combines a root model (ArchiSimple (Pagès et al., 2013)), the Root
151 System Markup Language (RSML) and the RSML Reader plugin from ImageJ (Lobet et al., 2015). In
152 short, ArchiSimple was used to create a large number of root systems, based on random input
153 parameter sets. Each output was stored as an RSML file (fig. 2A), which was then used by the RSML
154 Reader plugin to create a graphical representation of the root system (as a .jpeg file) and a ground-
155 truth dataset (fig. 2B). Details about the different steps are presented in the Materials and Methods
156 section.



157 **Figure 2:** Overview of the workflow used in this study. **A.** Generation of root
158 systems using ArchiSimple. **B.** Creation and analysis of root images.

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159 We used the pipeline to create a library of 10,000 root system images, separated into monocots
160 (multiple first order roots and no secondary growth) and dicots (one first order root and secondary
161 growth). For each input parameter-set used for ArchiSimple (1.000 different ones), 10 repetitions
162 were performed to create *synthetic genotypes*, or *synthetypes* (fig. 2A). The synthetype repetitions
163 were done such as the structure of the final dataset would mimic the structure of a dataset
164 containing phenotypic data of different genotypes. The ranges of the different ground-truth data are
165 shown in table 2 and their distribution is shown in the Supplemental Figure 1. The pipeline
166 produced perfectly thresholded black and white images and hence the following analyses were
167 focused on the characterisation of the root objects themselves.

168
169 We started by evaluating whether monocots and dicots should be separated during the analysis. We
170 performed a Principal Component Analysis on the ground-truthed dataset to assess if the *species*
171 grouping had an effect on the overall dataset structure (fig. 3A). Monocots and dicots formed
172 distinct groups (MANOVA p-value < 0.001), with only minimal overlap. The first principal
173 component, that represented 33.2% of the variation within the dataset, was mostly influenced by
174 the number of primary axes. The second principal component (19.6% of the variation) was
175 influenced, in part, by the root diameters. These two effects were consistent with the clear grouping
176 of monocots and dicots, since they expressed the main difference between the two *species*.
177 Therefore, since the *species* grouping had such a strong effect on the overall structure, we decided
178 to analyse them separately rather than together for the following analyses.

179

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180 **Table 3:** Ranges of the different ground-truth data from the root systems generated using

181 ArchiSimple

variable	minimum value	maximum value	unit
MONOCOTS			
tot_root_length	8.36	2455.03	cm
width	0.25	33.21	cm
depth	5.49	37.5	cm
n_primary	1	20	-
tot_prim_length	6	327	cm
mean_prim_length	3.22	38	cm
mean_prim_diameter	0.02	0.04	cm
mean_lat_density	0	100.88	cm
n_laterals	0	1378	-
tot_lat_length	0	1630	cm
mean_lat_length	0	4.44	cm
mean_lat_diameter	0	0.03	cm
mean_lat_angle	0	97.74	°
DICOTS			
tot_root_length	6.91	585.05	cm
width	0.01	15.05	cm
depth	3.89	36.99	cm
n_primary	1	1	-
tot_prim_length	4	37	cm
mean_prim_length	4.4	37.5	cm
mean_prim_diameter	0.02	1.13	cm
mean_lat_density	0	494.54	cm
n_laterals	0	277	-
tot_lat_length	0	437	cm
mean_lat_length	0	5.48	cm
mean_lat_diameter	0	0.23	cm
mean_lat_angle	0	87.63	°

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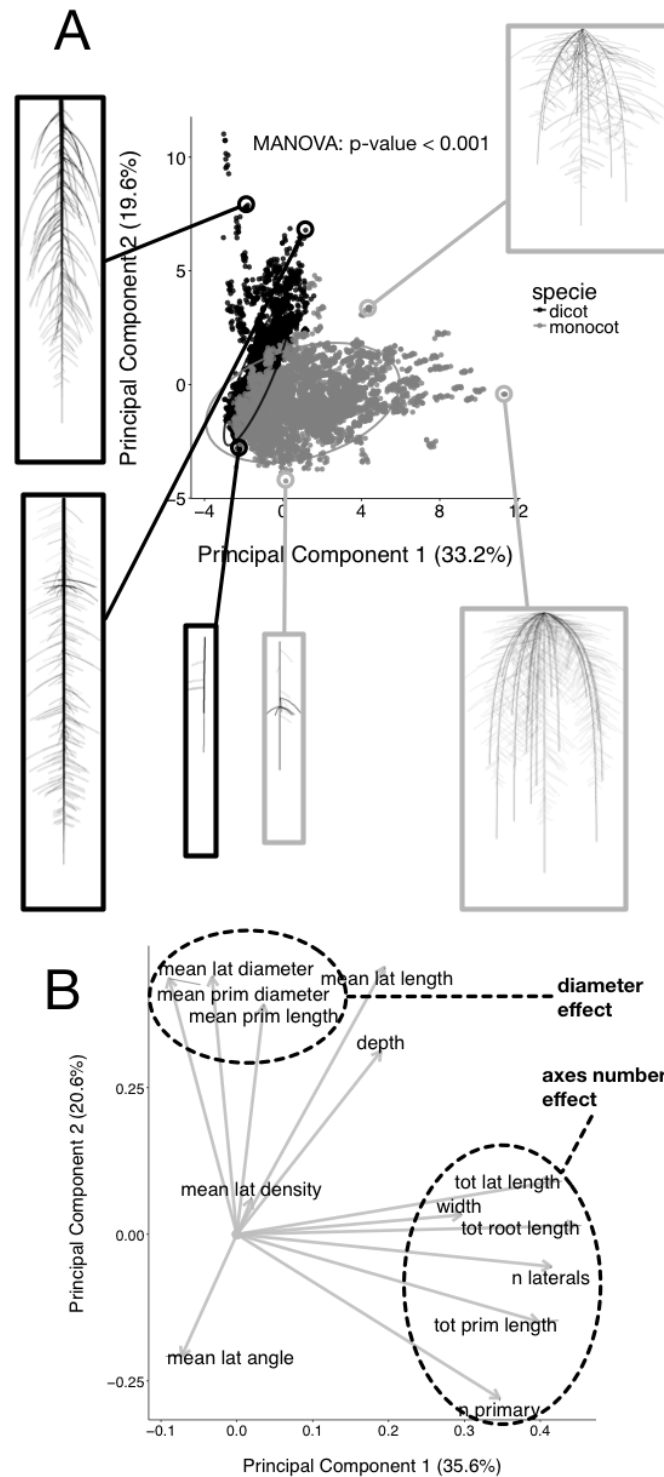


Figure 3: A. Principal Component Analysis of the root ground-truth dataset. Images of the selected root systems have been added for illustration. **B.** Loadings of the Principal Component Analysis.

184 Systematic evaluation of root image descriptors

185 In order to demonstrate the utility of a synthetic library of ground-truthed root systems, we
 186 analysed every image of the library using a custom-built root image analysis tool, RIA-J. We decided
 187 to do so because our purpose was to test the usefulness of the synthetic analysis and not to assess
 188 the accuracy of existing tools. Nonetheless, RIA-J was designed using known and published
 189 algorithms, often used in root system quantification. A detailed description of RIA-J can be found in
 190 the Materials and Methods section.

191

192 **Table 3:** Root image descriptors extracted by RIA-J

Name	Description	Unit	Reference
area	Projected area of the root system	mm ²	(Galkovskyi et al., 2012)
length	Length of the skeleton of the root system image	mm	(Galkovskyi et al., 2012)
tip_count	Number of end branches in the root system skeleton	-	
diam_mean	Mean diameter of the root object in the image	mm	
width	The maximal width of the root system	mm	-
depth	The maximal depth of the root system	mm	-
width_depth	Ratio between the width and the depth of the root system	-	(Galkovskyi et al., 2012)
com_x - com_y	Relative coordinates of the center of mass of the root system	-	(Galkovskyi et al., 2012)
convexhull	Area of the smallest convex shape around the root system	mm ²	(Galkovskyi et al., 2012)
exploration	Ratio between the convex hull area and the projected area	-	(Galkovskyi et al., 2012)
PL.PC1-3	First three Principal Components of the morphometric analysis using pseudo-landmarks (see Supplemental file 1 for details)	-	(Chitwood and Otoni, 2016; Rellán-Álvarez et al., 2015; Ristova et al., 2013)
width50	Relative depth at which 50% of the cumulative width of the root system is reached (see Supplemental file 1 for details)	-	(Bucksch et al., 2014)
count50	Relative depth at which 50% of the total number of roots is reached	-	(Bucksch et al., 2014)

193

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194 We extracted 16 descriptors from each root system image (Table 3) and compared them with their
195 own ground-truth data. For each pair of descriptor/data, we performed a linear regression and
196 computed its r-squared value. Figure 4 shows the results from the different combinations for both
197 monocots and dicots. We can observe that, as a general rule, good correlations were rare, with only
198 3% of the combinations having an r-squared above 0.8. In addition, even a good correlation is not
199 necessarily directly useful as the relationship between the two variables might not follow a 1:1 rule
200 (fig. 4B-C). In such case, an additional validation might be needed to define the relation between
201 both variables.

202
203 It also has to be noted that the correlations were different between species. As an example, within
204 the dicot dataset, no good correlation was found between the *tip_count* and *diam_mean* estimators
205 while better correlation was found for the monocots. As a consequence, validation of the different
206 image analysis algorithms should be performed, at least, for each group of species. An algorithm
207 giving good results for a monocot might fail when applied on dicot root system analysis.

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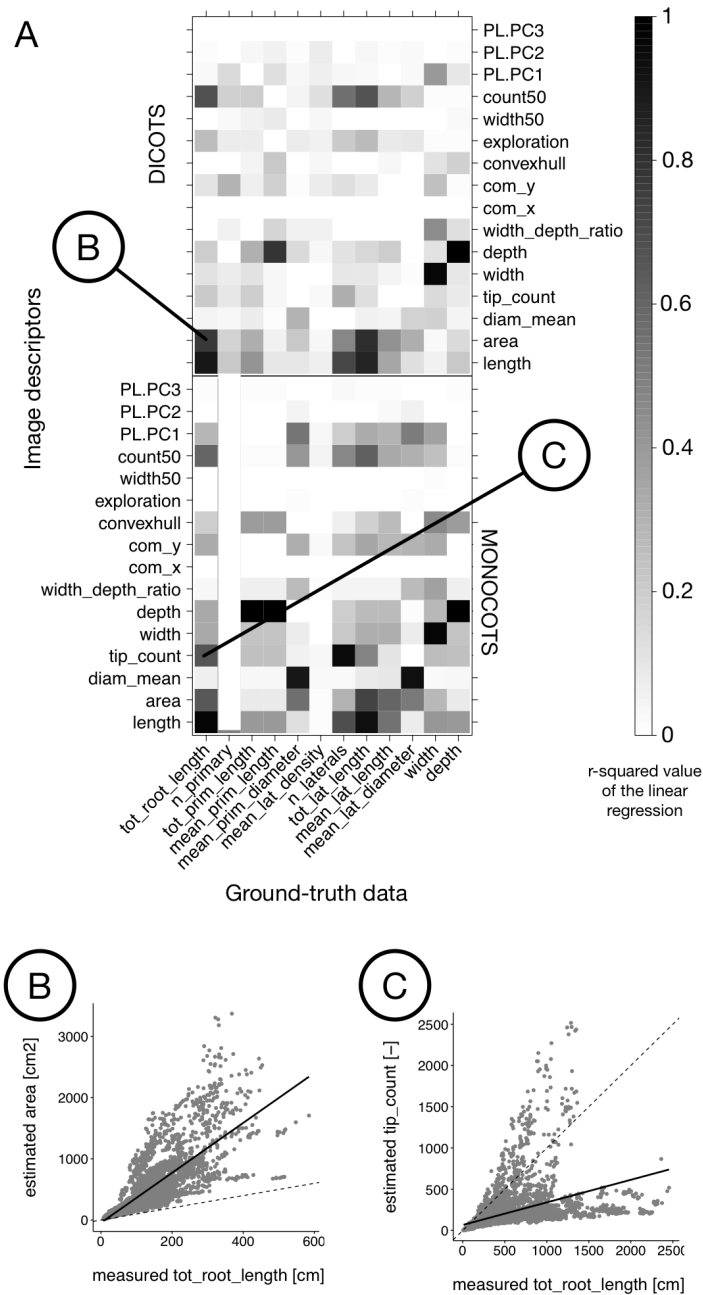


Figure 4: A. Heatmap of the r-squared values between the different image descriptors and the ground-truth values. Black represents an r-squared value of 1; white represents a value of 0. Upper panel: dicot dataset. Lower panel: monocot dataset. **B & C.** Details of the regressions. The plain black line represent the fitted regressions while the dotted line represents the 1:1 relationship.

209 Errors from image descriptors are likely to be non linear

210 In addition to being related to the species of study, estimation errors are likely to increase with the
211 root system size. As the root system grows and develops, the crossing and overlapping segments
212 increase, making the subsequent image analysis potentially more difficult and prone to error.

213 However, a systematic analysis of such error is seldom performed.

214

215 Figure 5 shows the relationship between the ground-truth and descriptor values for three
216 parameters: the total root length (fig. 5A), the number of roots (fig. 5B) and the root system depth
217 (fig. 5C). For each of these variables, we quantified the Relative Root Mean Square Error (see
218 Materials and Methods for details) as a function of the total root length. We can observe that for the
219 estimation of both the total root length and the number of lateral roots, the Relative Root Square
220 Mean Error increased with the size of the root system (fig. 5A-B). As stated above, such increase of
221 the error was somehow expected with increasing complexity. For other metrics, such as the root
222 system depth, no errors were expected (*depth* is supposedly an error-less variable) and the Relative
223 Root Mean Square Error was close to 0 whatever the size of the root system.

224

225 Such results are a call to caution when analysing root images as unexpected errors in descriptors
226 estimation can arise. This is probably even more true with real images, that are susceptible to
227 contain non-root objects (e.g. dirt) and lower order laterals roots (as stated above, simulations used
228 here were limited to first order laterals).

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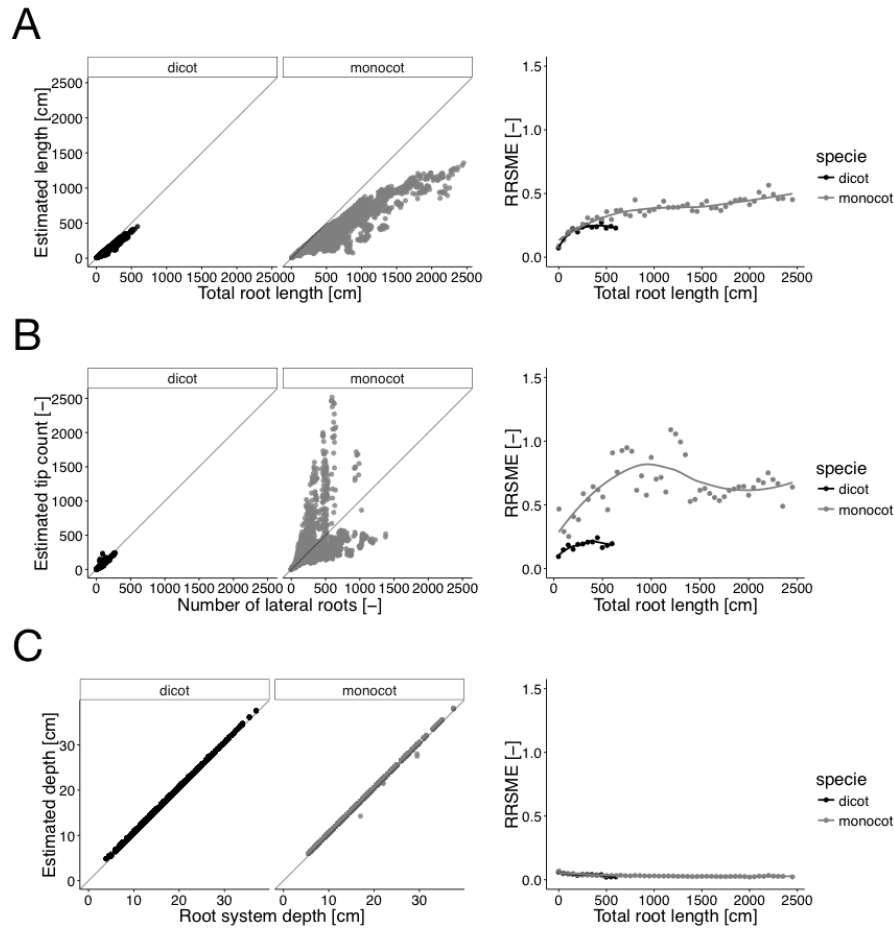


Figure 5: Error estimation for three ground-truth parameters. Left panel shows the relationship between the descriptors and the corresponding ground-truth variables. Right panels show the evolution of the Relative Root Mean Square Error (RRSME) as a function of the ground-truth variable. For the RRSME calculations, the continuous variables were discretised in groups. **A.** Total root length. **B.** Number of lateral roots. **C.** Root system depth

229

230

231

232 Differentiation power differs between metrics

233 Finally, we wanted to evaluate which metrics were the most useful to discriminate between root
234 systems of different genotypes or experimental series (control vs treatment). As explained above,
235 for each parameter set used in the ArchiSimple run for library construction, we generated 10 root
236 systems. Given the intrinsic variability existing in the model, each of these 10 root systems were
237 similar although different, as could be expected from plants of the same genotype. These so-called
238 *synthetypes*, were then used to evaluate how efficient were the different metrics to discriminate
239 them.

240
241 To estimate the differentiation of the image metrics, we used a Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)
242 prediction model. For each synthetype, half of the plants were used to create the LDA model. The
243 model was then used to predict a synthetype for the remaining half of the plants. This approach
244 allowed us to evaluate the prediction accuracy, or differentiation power, of the different metrics. A
245 prediction accuracy of 100% means that all plants were correctly assigned to their synthetype. To
246 evaluate the differentiation power of single metrics, we used an approach in which each metric was
247 iteratively added to the model, based on the model global prediction power (see Supplemental
248 Figure 3 for details about the procedure) . We performed the analysis either on a full dataset (fig.
249 6D-E), or on a data restricted to the smallest plants (fig. 6A), in order to test the influence of the
250 underlying data structure.

251
252 Two main observations can be made on the figure 6. First, for three out of four scenarios, only 5 (or
253 less) descriptors were needed to achieve a differentiation accuracy of 90%. *Depth*, *area* and *length*
254 were the most important descriptors in almost all scenarios. The remaining descriptors did not
255 increase significantly the accuracy (some might even decrease it). This might be interpreted as a

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256 handful of variables were sufficient to distinguish *synthetypes*, and by extension genotypes or
257 treated plants. However, we can also observe that the most important parameters changed
258 depending on the underlying data structure (either due to species or the size of the dataset). This
259 indicates that it is difficult to have an *a priori* evaluation of the important variables. Keeping as
260 many variable a possible might always be the most efficient solution.
261

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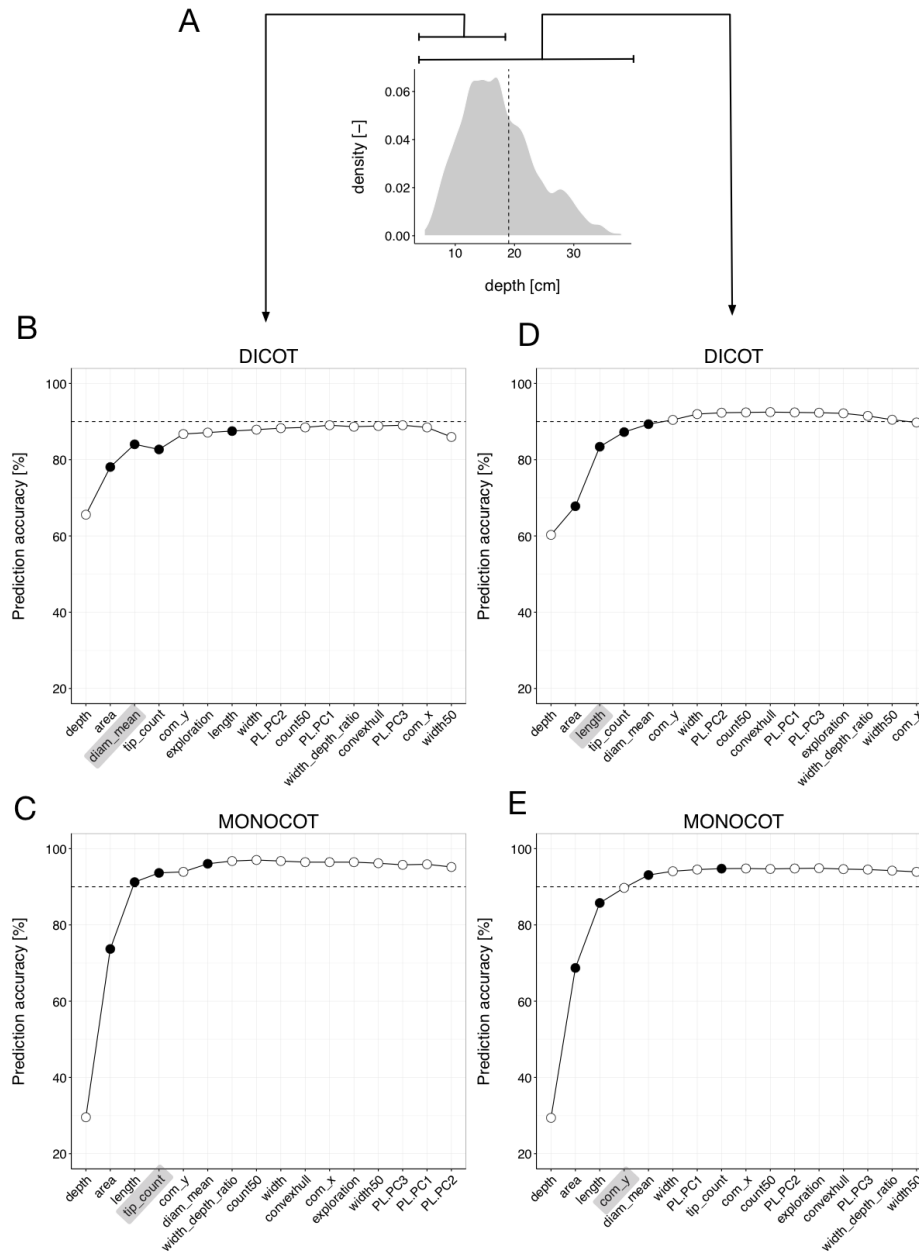


Figure 6: **A.** Distribution of the simulated root system depths. The dotted line represent the threshold used to generate a partial dataset. **B-E.** Evaluation of the differentiation power of the different image metrics. Each point corresponds to the prediction accuracy of the Linear Discriminant Analysis model, with an increasing number of metrics included. The abscise axis represents the variables iteratively added to the model. **B-C.** Prediction accuracy for a partial dataset. **D-E:** Prediction accuracy for the full dataset. **B-D:** Dicots. **C-E:** Monocots. Empty dots represent morphological metrics. Plain dots represent geometrical metrics. The dotted line represent the 90% precision accuracy threshold.

263 Conclusions

264 The automated analysis of root system images is routinely performed in many research projects.
265 Here we used a library of 10.000 modelled images to estimate the accuracy and usefulness of
266 different image descriptors extracted with an home-made root image analysis pipeline. The analysis
267 highlighted some important limitations during the image analysis process.

268
269 Firstly, general structure of the root system (e.g monocot vs dicots) can have a strong influence on
270 the descriptors accuracy. Descriptors that have been shown to be good predictors for one type of
271 root systems might fail for another type. In some cases, the calibration and the combination of
272 different descriptors might improve the accuracy of the predictions, but this needs to be assessed
273 for each analysis.

274
275 A second factor influencing strongly the accuracy of the analysis is the root system size and
276 complexity. As a general rule, for morphological descriptors, the larger the root system, the larger
277 the error is. So far, a large proportion of the root research has been focused on seedlings with small
278 root systems and have *de facto* avoided such errors. However, as the research questions are likely
279 to focus more on mature root system in the future, these limitations will become critical.

280
281 Finally we have shown that not all metrics have the same benefit when comparing genotype or
282 treatments. Again, depending on the root system type or size, different metrics will have different
283 differentiation powers.

284
285 It is important to highlight that the images used in our analysis were perfectly thresholded, without
286 any degradation in the image quality. Therefore, the errors computed in our analysis are likely

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287 under-estimated compared to real images (with additional background noise and lesser quality).
288 Since the quality of the images is dependent on the underlying experimental setup, artificial noise
289 could be added to the generated images in order to mimic any experimentally induced artifact and
290 to improve the analysis pipeline evaluation, as proposed by (Benoit et al., 2014).

291

292 To conclude, our study is a reminder that thorough calibrations are needed for root image analysis
293 pipelines. Here we have used a large library of simulated root images, that we hope will be helpful
294 for the root research community to evaluate current and future image analysis pipelines.

295

296

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297 Conflict of Interest

298 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
299 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

300 Author Contributions

301 GL, LP, PT and CP designed the study. IK developed the image analysis pipeline RIA-J. GL generated
302 the image library, did the image analysis and data analysis. LP developed the ArchiSimple model. All
303 authors have participated in the writing of the manuscript.

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308 Supplementary Material

- 309 - **Supplemental figure 1:** Distribution of the properties of the modelled root images
- 310 - **Supplemental figure 2:** Distribution of the descriptors of the modelled root images
- 311 - **Supplemental figure 3:** Workflow used for the accuracy analysis
- 312 - **Supplemental file 1:** Definitions of the shape descriptors

313

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