

1 Rootstock effects on scion phenotypes in a ‘Chambourcin’ 2 experimental vineyard

3 Running title: Rootstock effects on scion phenotypes

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29

30 Abstract

31 Understanding how root systems modulate shoot system phenotypes is a fundamental question in
32 plant biology and will be useful in developing resilient agricultural crops. Grafting is a common
33 horticultural practice that joins the roots (rootstock) of one plant to the shoot (scion) of another,
34 providing an excellent method for investigating how these two organ systems affect each other.
35 In this study, we use the French-American hybrid grapevine ‘Chambourcin’ (*Vitis* L.) as a model
36 to explore the rootstock-scion relationship. We examined leaf shape, ion concentrations, and
37 gene expression in ‘Chambourcin’ grown own-rooted as well as grafted to three different
38 rootstocks (‘SO4’, ‘1103P’ and ‘3309C’) across two years and three different irrigation
39 treatments. Results described here demonstrate that 1) the largest source of variation in leaf
40 shape stems from the interaction of rootstock by irrigation; 2) leaf position, but also rootstock
41 and rootstock by irrigation interaction, are the primary sources of variation in leaf ion
42 concentrations; and 3) gene expression in scion leaves exhibited significantly different patterns
43 of gene expression from ungrafted vines, and these expression patterns were rootstock-specific.
44 Our work provides an initial description of the subtle and complex effect of grafting on
45 ‘Chambourcin’ leaf morphology, ionomics and gene expression in grapevine scions. Further
46 work across multiple years, environments and additional phenotypes is required in order to
47 determine how the relationship between the rootstock and the scion can best be leveraged for
48 adapting grapevines to a changing climate.

49 Introduction

50 Root and shoot systems operate in dramatically different environments and provide unique roles
51 within a plant. These functionally distinct below- and above-ground parts are inextricably linked
52 at the organismal level. Understanding the impact of roots on shoot system phenotypes, and
53 conversely, how variation in the shoot influences the roots of a plant, are fundamental questions
54 in plant biology. A further understanding of this interaction also has important agricultural
55 implications, since selection for traits like root architecture and physiology can enhance stress
56 tolerance and yield¹.

57
58 In over 70 major crops, selection for root and shoot system traits have been decoupled through
59 the process of grafting. Grafting is an ancient horticultural technique that creates a composite
60 plant by surgically attaching the roots from one plant (the rootstock) to the shoot (the scion) of
61 another, joining their vascular and cambial systems². Grafting was originally implemented for
62 easier clonal propagation, but today this method achieves a variety of agricultural goals,
63 including drought tolerance, dwarfing, and disease resistance¹. Beyond its practical implications,
64 grafting offers an unique opportunity to independently manipulate parts of the plant to
65 understand how roots impact shoots, and vice versa.

66
67 Grapevine (*Vitis* L. spp.) is an excellent model for examining rootstock-scion interactions due to
68 the ease of cloning, available genomic resources, ability to grow across diverse environments,

69 and high economic value. Widespread grafting of grapevine began in the late 19th century after
70 the European wine industry was devastated by the spread of phylloxera (*Daktulosphaira*
71 *vitifoliae* Fitch), an aphid-like insect introduced from North America. While many North
72 American *Vitis* species can withstand phylloxera infestations, roots of the European wine grape
73 *Vitis vinifera* L. cannot tolerate phylloxera attacks, which lead to a rapid decline in vigour and
74 often death³. However, *V. vinifera* vines with susceptible roots can be grafted to phylloxera-
75 tolerant North American *Vitis* rootstocks, thus circumventing phylloxera sensitivity. Worldwide
76 more than 80% of all vineyards grow vines grafted onto rootstocks composed of American *Vitis*
77 species or hybrids³.

78
79 Although initial grapevine grafting was driven by the need for phylloxera tolerance, additional
80 benefits exist. For example, certain *Vitis* rootstocks provide resistance to additional pests and
81 pathogens such as nematodes⁴. Rootstocks can also be used to increase tolerance to abiotic
82 stresses including drought^{5,6}, salinity⁷, and calcareous soils⁸. Lastly, grafting can modify mineral
83 nutrition⁹, scion vigor¹⁰, rate of ripening¹¹, and fruit phenolic compounds¹². Thus, grafting is a
84 valuable tool for improving grapevine fruit quality and response to stress.

85
86 Grapevine producers rely on experimental trials to identify elite rootstocks that will best fit their
87 specific growing conditions. Most commonly used grapevine rootstocks are hybrid derivatives of
88 two or three phylloxera-tolerant native North American species, *Vitis riparia* and *Vitis rupestris*,
89 which root easily from dormant cuttings, and *Vitis cinerea* var. *helleri* (*Vitis berlandieri*), which
90 is adapted to chalky soils¹³. Interestingly, despite the global diversity of soils, climates and grape
91 varieties, only a handful of rootstock cultivars derived from these three species are in widespread
92 use³.

93
94 The result of over a century of grafting grapevines is a wealth of information characterizing
95 graft-transmissible traits. In some cases, the biological mechanisms underlying beneficial effects
96 are now understood. For example, salt (NaCl) tolerant rootstocks can exclude sodium (Na⁺) from
97 the shoot, due to *VisHKT1;1*, a gene which can could serve as a valuable genetic marker for
98 rootstock breeding¹⁴. However, for many other rootstock traits, the genetic underpinnings remain
99 unknown. For example, the ability of a particular rootstock to protect the scion from iron
100 deficiency was associated with an increase in root biomass along with a reduction of scion
101 growth, but the molecular basis of this relationship is yet to be elucidated(Covarrubias et al
102 2016). Improved understanding of rootstock-scion interaction can enhance rootstock breeding for
103 changing climates¹⁵ and evolving pest and pathogen pressures^{13,16}.

104
105 While many facets of rootstock and scion interactions are still poorly understood, this study
106 focuses on quantifying the effects of rootstocks on scion leaf shape, ion concentration, and gene
107 expression. Traditionally, grapevine leaf morphology played a major role in the field of
108 ampelography since it can be used to distinguish grapevine cultivars(Galet 1979). We examine
109 the ability of quantitative measurements of leaf shape to discern subtle effects of rootstocks on
110 scion development. We also examine the effect of rootstocks on leaf ionic profiles, consisting

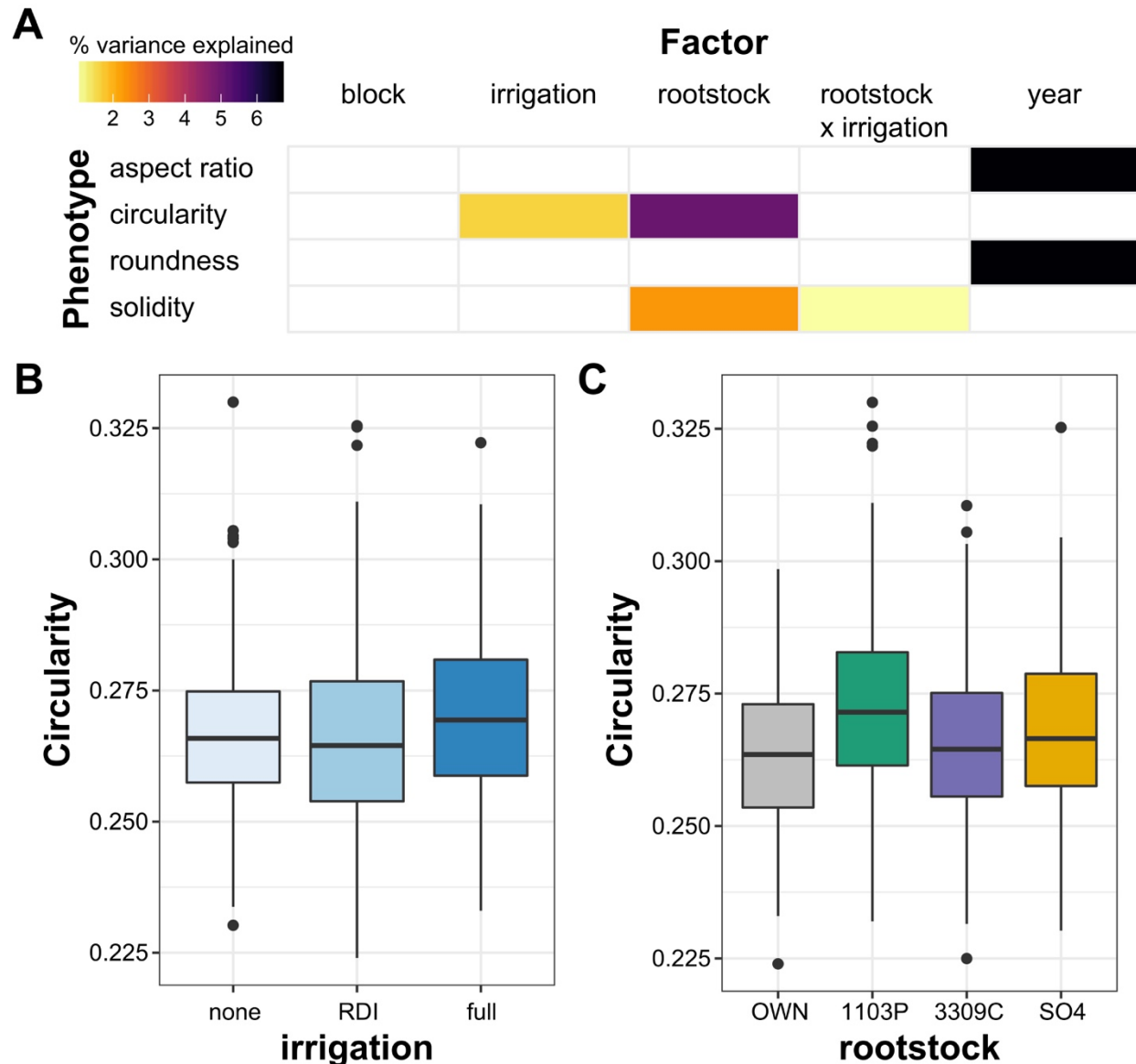
111 of mineral nutrients and trace elements(Salt et al., 2008). Rootstocks, which limit or enhance the
112 transport of particular elements, could facilitate grape-growing in regions with suboptimal soil
113 conditions. Lastly, we examine patterns of gene expression between grafted and own-rooted
114 vines. Recent work has described rootstock-induced differential gene expression in response to
115 soil conditions such as nitrogen availability¹⁷. However, research so far has focused primarily on
116 evaluating rootstocks with known contrasting effects under stressful conditions, and a broader
117 understanding is still needed. Ultimately, understanding how a rootstock effects scion traits can
118 further our understanding of root-shoot communication and provide insight when selecting
119 parents or progeny in a rootstock breeding program.

120
121 To better understand the rootstock-scion relationship, our work examines ‘Chambourcin,’ a
122 French-American hybrid grape of commercial importance¹⁸. We examined ‘Chambourcin’
123 grown own-rooted as well as grafted onto three different rootstocks (‘SO4’, ‘1103P’ and
124 ‘3309C’) across two years and three different irrigation treatments. Using comprehensive leaf
125 shape analysis, ion concentration as determined by ICP-MS, and patterns of gene expression, we
126 test the hypothesis that scion traits can be manipulated by different rootstock genotypes. We also
127 examine the relative contribution of other experimental factors (e.g. irrigation treatment) as it
128 relates to the potential for rootstock environment interactions to modulate scion phenotypes.

129 Results

130 Leaf shape

131
132 Using shape descriptors to examine variation in leaf morphology, we found that a significant
133 amount of variance in aspect ratio (6.64%) and roundness (6.66%) measurements are explained
134 by year of collection while variation in circularity is significantly explained by rootstock (5.00%)
135 and irrigation factors (1.66%) (Figure 6A, Table S1). We visualized variation in the circularity
136 based on irrigation (Figure 1B) and rootstock (Figure 1C), finding that leaves from vines which
137 had full irrigation the year prior tended to have more subtle lobing and serration (i.e., higher
138 circularity values). Circularity values were also higher for leaves of scions grafted to ‘1103P’
139 rootstocks compared to other rootstock treatments (Figure 1C). Lastly, a significant but minor
140 amount of the variance in leaf solidity, which captures serrations or lobing, is explained by
141 rootstock (2.35%) and rootstock by irrigation interaction (1.06%).



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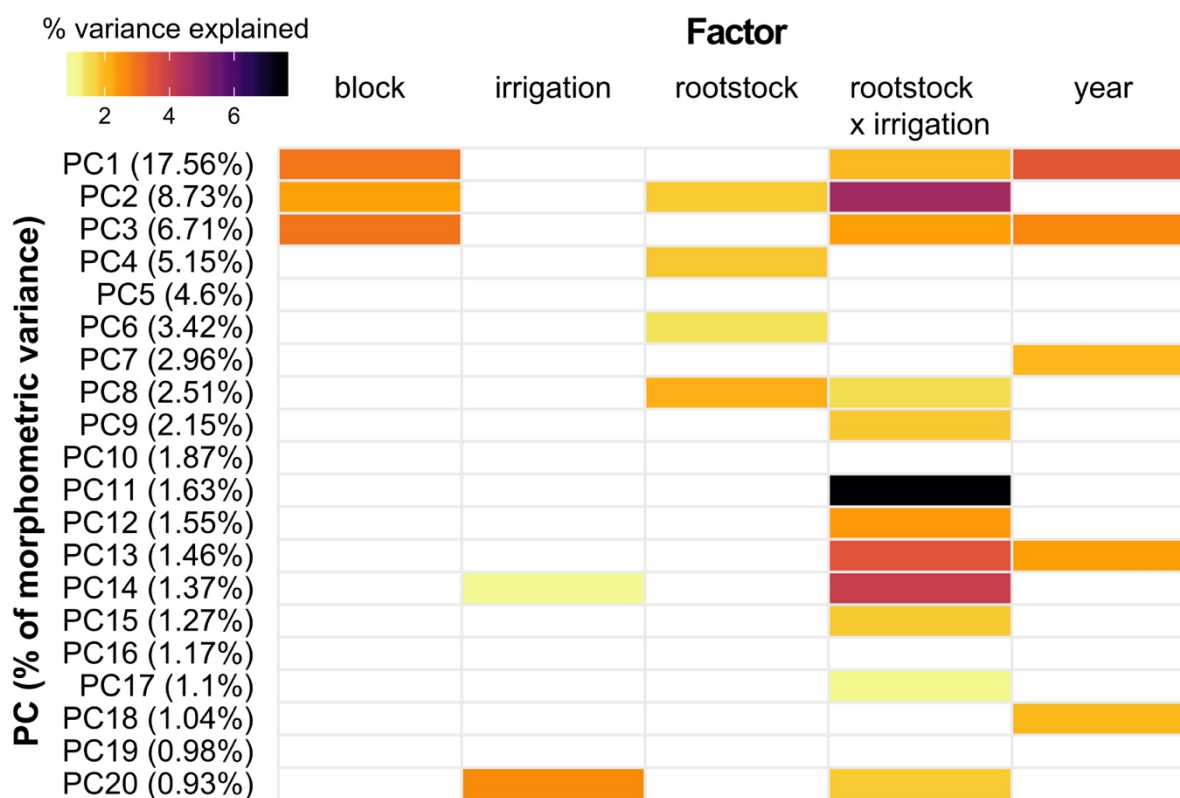
143 **Figure 1.** Variation in leaf morphology assessed using the shape descriptors aspect ratio,
 144 circularity, roundness and solidity. (A) A linear model was estimated for shape descriptors
 145 including the factors block, year, rootstock, irrigation and rootstock by irrigation. Only factors
 146 which explained a significant portion of the variance ($p < 0.05$) are plotted. The percent variance
 147 explained by each factor is indicated using color. (B) Boxplots indicating circularity based on
 148 irrigation treatment. (C) Boxplots indicating circularity based on rootstock.

149

150

151 To examine the contours of grapevine leaf shape more comprehensively, we performed a
 152 persistent homology analysis, followed by PCA (Figure 2, Table S2). For PC1, which explains
 153 17.56% of the variation in leaf shape, the primary source of variation described by our
 154 measurements is year (3.47%), followed by block (2.90%). However, across many morphometric
 155 PCs examined, the rootstock by irrigation interaction describes more variation than any other

156 factor assessed. Of the 26 significant relationships ($p < 0.05$) identified for PCs 1 to 20, 12 are for
 157 rootstock by irrigation interaction, followed by 5 for year. In contrast, rootstock explains a
 158 significant portion of the variation in leaf shape for 4 PCs, while irrigation is a significant factor
 159 for 2 PCs. Thus, changes in leaf shape measured using topological, persistent homology
 160 approach are most affected by the interaction of rootstock by irrigation, although year and block
 161 (which reflects position in the vineyard) are important as well.

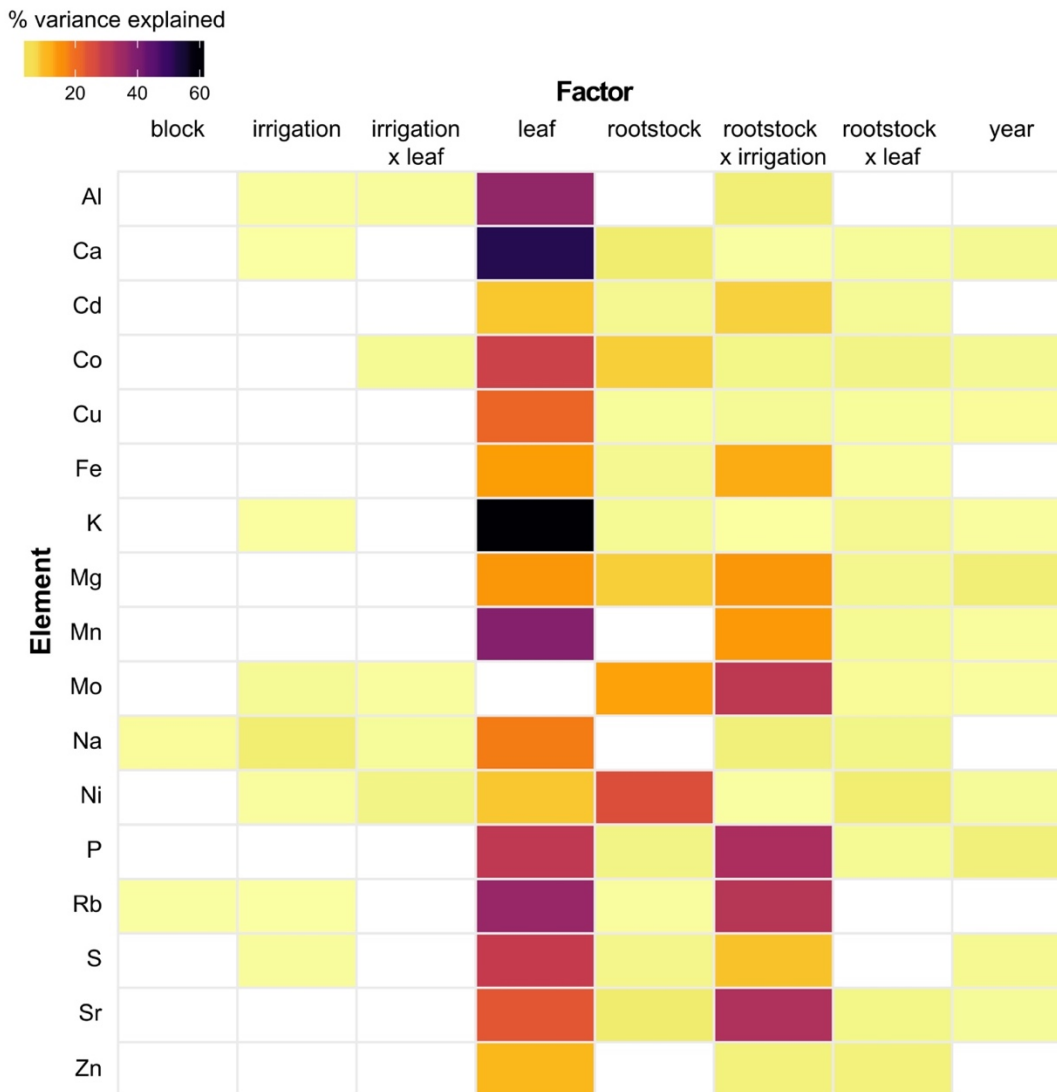


162
 163 **Figure 2.** A linear model was estimated for morphometric PCs 1 to 20 including the factors
 164 block, year, rootstock, irrigation and rootstock by irrigation. The amount of variance explained
 165 by each PC is listed in parenthesis and the first 20 PCs capture a total of 68.13% of the variance
 166 in leaf shape. Only factors which explained a significant portion of the variance ($p < 0.05$) are
 167 plotted. The percent variance explained by each factor is indicated using color.

168 Ion concentrations

169
 170 We used the same linear model approach to estimate which factors described the most variation
 171 in the 17 elements we examined for leaf ionomics (Figure 3, Table S3). In addition to the factors
 172 considered for leaf morphology, we assessed leaf position along the shoot ('leaf'), a reflection of
 173 leaf developmental stage. As a result, our model identifies potential factors contributing to
 174 differences in ion concentrations including block, irrigation, irrigation by leaf interaction, leaf,
 175 rootstock, rootstock by irrigation interaction, rootstock by leaf interaction, and year as potential
 176 factors contributing to ionic differences. The concentrations of ions in 'Chambourcin' leaves

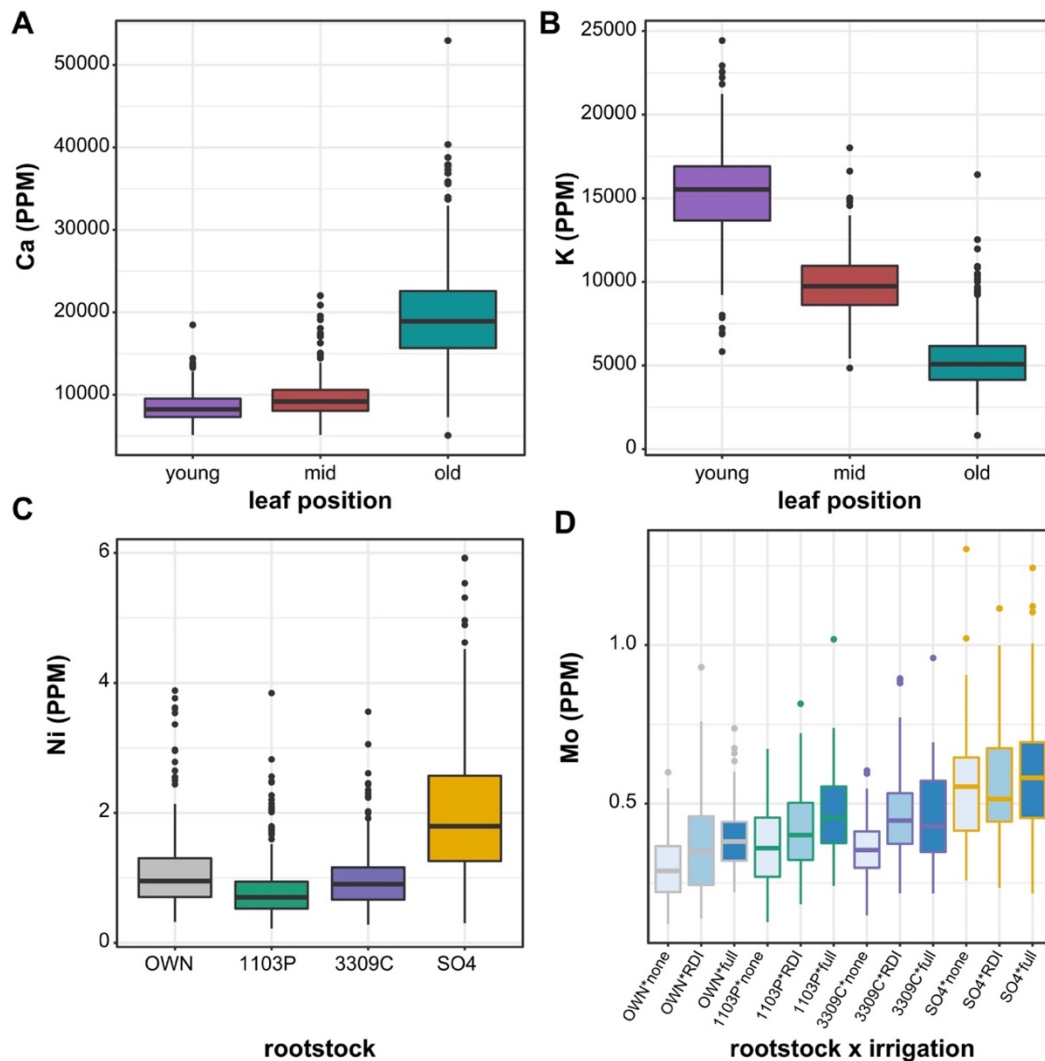
177 was most affected by leaf position, which explained a significant amount of the variance for 16
 178 of the 17 elements we examined, ranging from 7.85% for nickel (Ni) to 60.89% for potassium
 179 (K). Over 50% of the variance in Calcium (Ca) can be explained using leaf position, and over
 180 36% of the variance in manganese (Mn), aluminium (Al), and rubidium (Rb) can be explained.
 181 Rootstock also contributed to a substantial amount of variation in ion profile; it was a significant
 182 factor for 13 elements, most notably Ni, where it explained 24.94% of the variation. Lastly, the
 183 interaction between rootstock and irrigation was a significant factor for 17 elements, explaining
 184 over 30% of the variance for phosphorus (P), strontium (Sr), Rb, and molybdenum (Mo). In
 185 comparison, all other factors explained a maximum of 3.75% of the variation for any particular
 186 element.



187
 188 **Figure 3.** A linear model was estimated for each element including the factors block, year,
 189 rootstock, irrigation, rootstock x irrigation, leaf, rootstock x leaf, and irrigation by leaf. Only
 190 factors which explained a significant portion of the variance ($p < 0.05$) are plotted. The percent
 191 variance explained by each factor is indicated using color.

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By examining variation for each element across these factors of interest (Figure S2) we were able to observe several trends (Figure 4). For example, we found that Ca concentration increased in older ‘Chambourcin’ leaves (Figure 4A), while K concentration decreased in older leaves (Figure 4B). Across different rootstock treatments, the leaves of ‘Chambourcin’ grafted to ‘SO4’ generally had the highest concentration of Ni (Figure 4C). We also observed that Mo concentrations tended to increase from own-rooted, to ‘1103P’, to ‘3309C’, to ‘SO4’. Within a particular rootstock, vines which had been fully or partially irrigated the previous season tended to have ‘Chambourcin’ leaves with higher concentrations of Mo than those which had not been irrigated previously (Figure 4D).



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Figure 4. Boxplots showing the distribution of elements by on the factor that explained the largest amount of variance. Distributions shown are: (A) Ca due to leaf position (B) K due to leaf position (C) Ni due to rootstock (D) Mo due to rootstock by irrigation interaction.

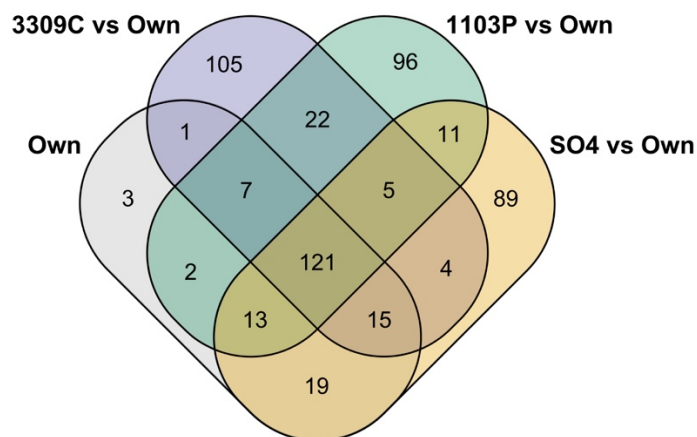
208 Gene expression

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210 We used all gene expression RPKM values to test for positively enriched VitisNet Pathways by
211 comparing ‘Chambourcin’ grafted to each individual rootstock with own-rooted ‘Chambourcin’
212 vines. Each rootstock has 8 unique enriched pathways. The pathways enriched in ‘1103P’
213 include circadian rhythm and phenylalanine metabolism. We combined all grafted
214 ‘Chambourcin’ and compared them to own-rooted vines to determine the impact of grafting,
215 identifying 17 enriched pathways in grafted vines. All pathways are listed in Table S4.

216

217 Next, we used a regression fit that accounted for replicate, block, and rootstock for each gene
218 significantly expressed in own-rooted ‘Chambourcin’ vines to determine which genes had
219 differing patterns of expression in ‘Chambourcin’ scions when grafted (Figure 5). In total, there
220 were 513 genes in own-rooted ‘Chambourcin’ vines with significant expression. Of these genes,
221 121 were not significantly differentially expressed in any of the rootstock treatments, after
222 accounting for block, which represented both spatial and temporal variation. Comparing grafted
223 vines to own-rooted vines, 5 genes exhibited significantly different expression profiles in all
224 three grafted vines compared to own-rooted vines. The only annotated gene among these five is
225 an isoamylase protein. Relative to own-rooted vines, there were 105 genes which had
226 significantly different expression patterns only in ‘Chambourcin’ grafted to ‘3309C’, 96 which
227 differed only in ‘Chambourcin’ grafted to ‘1103P’, and 89 which differed only in ‘Chambourcin’
228 grafted to ‘SO4’ (Table S5; Table S6). Pathway enrichment analysis was used to examine these
229 rootstock specific genes. While no major enrichment was observed for the ‘3309C’ and ‘SO4’
230 genes, ‘1103P’ vines had a significant number of genes involved in phenylalanine metabolism
231 (4 DEGs, $p = 4.84 \times 10^{-6}$) and auxin biosynthesis (3 DEGs, $p = 1.74 \times 10^{-5}$) pathways (Table S6).



232

233 **Figure 5.** All genes significantly expressed in own-rooted vines as determined using a regression
234 fit which considered block, replicate and rootstock, were compared to each rootstock. The Venn
235 diagram indicates the number of genes which were significantly differentially expressed when a
236 particular rootstock was compared to own-rooted vines.

237

238 Discussion

239 Grafting offers an excellent opportunity to understand how roots modulate scion phenotypes
240 through the experimental manipulation of root systems and grafted scions. Our study uses
241 grapevine as a model to quantify the effect of rootstock on leaf shape, ion concentrations, and
242 gene expression in the scion. Results described here demonstrate that genetically distinct root
243 systems interact in unique ways with seasonal water availability to influence shoot system
244 phenotypes in grafted plants.

245 Leaf shape is modulated by the interaction of rootstock and irrigation

246
247 The grapevine genus is well-known for extensive within and among-species variation in leaf
248 shape^{19,20}. Previous work demonstrated that the genetic underpinnings of leaf shape are
249 evolutionarily conserved within species, while developmental constraints and environmental
250 influences such as light, temperature, and water availability affect leaf shape variation among
251 genotypes and within individuals²¹⁻²³. We collected leaves from approximately the same
252 developmental stage (i.e. position on the shoot) from vines of ‘Chambourcin’ to minimize leaf
253 shape differences due to position along the vine (i.e., heteroblasty²⁴).

254
255 We measured leaf shape using two approaches: shape descriptors, a common digital
256 morphometric technique that captures simple shape differences, and persistent homology, a
257 comprehensive morphometric technique, which allowed us to detect complex and subtle
258 variation in shape. We observe interannual variation in leaf shape using both shape descriptors
259 and persistent homology. Of the two methods, shape descriptors capture variation across years,
260 but generally do not vary due to rootstock by irrigation effects. For example, approximately 1%
261 of variation in the solidity measurement was significantly explained by rootstock by irrigation,
262 while the same interaction effect was a significant factor for 12 of the 20 morphometric PCs
263 examined, explaining up to 7.53% of the variation for a particular PC. This reflects the ability of
264 digital morphometric techniques to detect subtle, significant statistical effects on leaf shape in a
265 targeted way: unlike the persistent homology approach, statistical differences in solidity
266 correspond to serration and lobing, suggesting these features vary across years.

267
268 In contrast, persistent homology was able to detect a significant portion of morphological
269 variation in leaf shape due to position in the vineyard or block. Persistent homology uses a
270 comprehensive method for quantifying shape, and likely picks up on intricate leaf shape
271 differences that traditional methods miss. With this method, we were able to demonstrate that the
272 rootstock interacting with irrigation effect shifts the shape of ‘Chambourcin’ leaves in
273 comprehensive, detectable ways. Recent work in apple described a heritable basis for leaf shape,
274 as described using persistent homology²⁵. Our work suggests that rootstocks could be used to
275 modulate variation in leaf shape in the scion, especially under varying environmental conditions
276 such as access to water/irrigation treatments. More importantly, our results suggest that
277 rootstocks can modulate scion development and patterning, that signals from the root (whether

278 molecular or physiological in nature) affect patterning within scion meristems. Although some
279 molecular evidence supports such long-distance coordination of developmental patterning²⁶, its
280 prevalence and manifestation across plants remains understudied, even though it is critical to
281 understand as rootstocks are used more widely to modulate scion phenotypes.

282

283 In addition to our work, other studies in grapevine have identified scion leaf shape modulation
284 under different rootstock and irrigation treatments. Tsialtas et al. (2008) examined ‘Cabernet-
285 Sauvignon’ grafted on ‘1103P’ and ‘SO4’ rootstocks under 3 different irrigation treatments at 3
286 time points (bunch closure, veraison and ripeness). The work found that while rootstock,
287 irrigation and rootstock by irrigation did not have a significant effect on leaf morphology, the
288 rootstock by irrigation by time interaction was significant for all leaf shape measurements
289 assessed²⁷. In addition, recent work evaluating the leaves of ‘Italia’ grapes grown own-rooted
290 and grafted to 2 rootstocks under 2 irrigation conditions, found that leaf area was significantly
291 affected by rootstock by irrigation interaction²⁸. Thus, it is clear that the influence of rootstock
292 on leaf shape is a complicated relationship that is at least partially influenced by other factors
293 including irrigation. Pairing these data with physiology and ionomics may help identify more
294 precisely the effect of rootstock by irrigation on leaf shape in future studies.

295 Scion elemental composition is mostly affected by leaf position, but also rootstock
296 and rootstock by irrigation interaction effects

297

298 The interaction between root system and elemental composition in grapevine shoot systems has
299 been an area of great research interest in viticulture^{9,29}. The grapevine industry places enormous
300 importance on *terroir*, the physical environment in which a grapevine is grown, to determine the
301 sensory experience and economic value of wine³⁰. Indeed, research shows that available soil
302 nutrients can be transported and stored in different plant tissues³¹ and that rootstock can affect
303 different ion uptake³². The ability of the rootstock to impact ion uptake in grapevine is of
304 particular note because such differences can have a pronounced effect on wine quality. Soil
305 elements such as Mg, Mn, and Mo are present in berries throughout wine production (i.e.,
306 harvest to bottling), depending on the concentration of these elements in a given geographic
307 region³⁰. Our study builds upon a body of literature that demonstrates rootstock selection
308 modulates the movement and concentration of elements in scion tissues^{9,33}.

309

310 In our work, the position of the leaf on the shoot (the developmental stage of the leaf) explains
311 the largest amount of variation observed in most ions. Previous work by Huber et al.³⁴ found that
312 position along the main stem had a profound effect on seed composition in soybean. We
313 examined 17 elements and found that for 13 the primary source of variation explaining ion
314 concentration was leaf position. New leaves must rely transpiration to transport Ca from the
315 xylem, and since transpiration is low in young leaves, we observe that younger leaves had lower
316 concentrations of Ca than older leaves³⁵. Al and Mn also decreased in younger leaves, while K

317 and Rb increased. These elements provide examples of the changes that occur in elemental
318 composition as leaves develop and age, regardless of rootstock.

319
320 While the primary source of variation in ion concentrations was leaf position, a significant
321 amount of variation was explained by the interaction between rootstock and irrigation for all 17
322 elements, while rootstock explained a significant amount of variation for 13 elements. Either
323 rootstock or rootstock by irrigation also explained >10% of the variation for Fe, Mg, Mn, Mo,
324 Ni, P, Rb and Sr. Previous work identified that grafting ‘Négette’ vines onto ‘SO4’ resulted in
325 higher K and lower Ca and Mg concentrations compared to ‘3309C’ and ‘101-14 Mgt’³⁶. While
326 we did not detect a similar pattern in the leaves of ‘Chambourcin’ scions, we found that vines
327 grafted to ‘SO4’ had higher concentrations of Ni than vines grown own-rooted or grafted to
328 ‘3309C’ or ‘1103P’. Across the United States, Ni is highest in serpentine soil areas of
329 California³⁷. Serpentine soil increases Ni accumulation in grapevine roots, with previous work
330 also finding a significant positive correlation between Ni in the soil and leaves. However, the
331 transfer of Ni from grapevine roots to grapes was low³⁸. While further testing in serpentine soil is
332 still required, our work provides evidence that ‘SO4’ may not be an optimal rootstock choice for
333 high Ni soils, since excess Ni may cause toxicity limiting crop production³⁹.

334
335 In contrast to leaf position, rootstock, and the interaction of rootstock and irrigation, we
336 generally do not see a significant effect of irrigation on ion concentrations. However, our
337 samples were collected prior to the start of irrigation treatments in 2014 and 2016, and thus, any
338 response to irrigation would be due to historical conditions and chronic stress, rather than
339 current, acute stress. Future work sampling throughout the growing season, both before and after
340 the initiation of irrigation treatments, will be required to assess how historical and current water
341 conditions influence ion concentrations.

342
343 Beyond assessing variation in each element independently, previous work has demonstrated that
344 elements interact with each other⁴⁰. Consequently, it is not surprising that we find so many
345 elements influenced by the same factor. In fact, leaf position, rootstock, and rootstock by
346 irrigation interaction each explain a significant amount of variation in at least 13 of the 17
347 elements, and this broad effect may indicate interaction between elements. It is clear that the root
348 system, the environment – including irrigation and position within the shoot – and the interaction
349 between the two are critical in determining ion concentrations, and a further understanding of
350 these complex relationships is still necessary.

351 Rootstocks alter scion gene expression

352
353 Grafting alters scion phenotypes by affecting the availability of water and nutrients, changes
354 which may contribute to modified patterns of gene expression in the scion. Rootstock
355 modulation of scion phenotypes is evident in stressful conditions, as has been demonstrated in
356 many major crops including tomato, apple, citrus, and grapevine, among others^{41–44}. However,
357 basic differences in gene expression in grafted plants relative to ungrafted individuals remain

358 underexplored⁴⁵. Thus, grafting to a common scion provides an excellent opportunity to better
359 understand how environment impacts shoot system phenotypes in plants under normal growing
360 conditions.

361
362 In our study, we assessed the influence of root systems on gene expression in shoot systems by
363 contrasting gene expression in 'Chambourcin' grafted to three different rootstocks relative to
364 own-rooted vines. When comparing DEGs expressed in grafted vines to own-rooted vines, we
365 found a similar number of genes (89-105) which were only differentially expressed in one
366 rootstock treatment. This relatively low number of genes may indicate that variation in the scion
367 transcriptome is predominantly under local genotype (scion) control and not dependant on
368 signalling from the rootstock. Given the life history of grapevine, a liana with typically long
369 distances between roots and shoots, it is perhaps not a surprising result. Only five genes were
370 consistent in their patterns of differential expression across all rootstocks when compared to
371 own-rooted vines, indicating that there are rootstock-specific effects on scion gene expression.

372
373 We also examined the influence of grafting to different rootstocks on specific pathways using
374 two methods: first, by using all expressed genes to assess pathway enrichment, and second, by
375 only including genes determined to be significantly differentially expressed. Prior to the
376 inclusion of block in our analysis, the pathway analysis detected enrichment of the circadian
377 rhythm pathway in '1103P' relative to own-rooted vines. Thus, even within a timespan of
378 sampling (approximately 8 hours) it is necessary to consider the impact of time on changes in
379 gene expression, and future work is needed to describe whether the impact of sampling time is
380 rootstock-specific. Both techniques found unique pathways enriched in each rootstock, relative
381 to own-rooted vines, providing further evidence that the effect of grafting on gene-expression is
382 rootstock-specific.

383
384 Among the 96 genes with expression patterns that differed only between '1103P' and own-
385 rooted vines, both pathway analyses revealed an enrichment of those involved in phenylalanine
386 metabolism, while only the analysis of DEGs showed enrichment for auxin biosynthesis.
387 Although our work examined leaf tissue, these results are supported by previous work comparing
388 'Cabernet Sauvignon' grafted to '1103P' and 'M4' rootstocks which found that genes involved
389 in auxin action were one of the main categories with a rootstock effect in the berry, especially for
390 skin tissue⁴⁶. Most work examining rootstock effects on scion gene expression focuses on
391 variation under conditions of stress such as iron chlorosis^{47,48}. In comparison, our work examined
392 the effect of multiple rootstocks under neutral environmental conditions, and this difference
393 likely explains the subtle but quantifiable effect of rootstock on scion gene expression described
394 here. Ultimately, we find that the graft-transmissible effects on a common scion are rootstock-
395 specific. Further, our work also indicates that time of sampling may play a significant role in
396 rootstock effects, and further work is needed to explore this complex interaction.

397 Conclusions

398 Our work provides an initial description of the subtle and complex effect of grafting on leaf
399 morphology, ionomics and gene expression in grapevine scions. We find that specific rootstocks
400 have a distinct effect on many of the phenotypes, often interacting with the environment due to
401 previous water availability. Leaf position in the shoot and block position in the vineyard, also
402 strongly influenced phenotypic variation. Further work across multiple years and environments is
403 required in order to determine how the relationship between the rootstock and the scion can best
404 be leveraged for adapting grapevines to a changing climate.

405 Materials and methods

406 Study design and sampling

407 A ‘Chambourcin’ experimental vineyard was established in 2009 at The University of Missouri
408 Southwest Center Agricultural Experiment Station in Mount Vernon, Missouri, USA. The
409 vineyard includes own-rooted, ungrafted ‘Chambourcin’ vines as well as ‘Chambourcin’ vines
410 grafted to three different rootstocks (‘3309C’ - *V. riparia* x *V. rupestris*; ‘1103P’ - *V. berlandieri*
411 x *V. rupestris*; ‘SO4’ - *V. berlandieri* x *V. riparia*). The full factorial experiment with varied
412 rootstock and irrigation regimes contains 288 vines: eight replicates of four root-scion
413 combinations x nine vineyard rows with one of three irrigation treatments. The three irrigation
414 regimes are: full replacement of evapotranspiration losses (ET), 50% replacement of ET, and
415 non-irrigated, each replicated three times (Figure S1). Further description of the vineyard design
416 is available in Maimaitiyiming et al., 2017⁴⁹. Irrigation treatments began in 2013, with all vines
417 receiving full irrigation during establishment. Irrigation treatments were initiated several weeks
418 before veraison. Sampling of leaf tissue for morphometric and ionomic analyses occurred on
419 June 18, 2014 and June 14, 2016, while tissue for gene expression analyses was sampled only on
420 June 14, 2016. In both years, sampling occurred prior to the start of irrigation treatments, and
421 thus, any effect of irrigation we observe is due to treatment from the previous year(s), when the
422 buds/leaves/flower of the study years are formed. Data and code for this manuscript are available
423 in a GitHub repository⁵⁰.

424 Leaf shape analyses

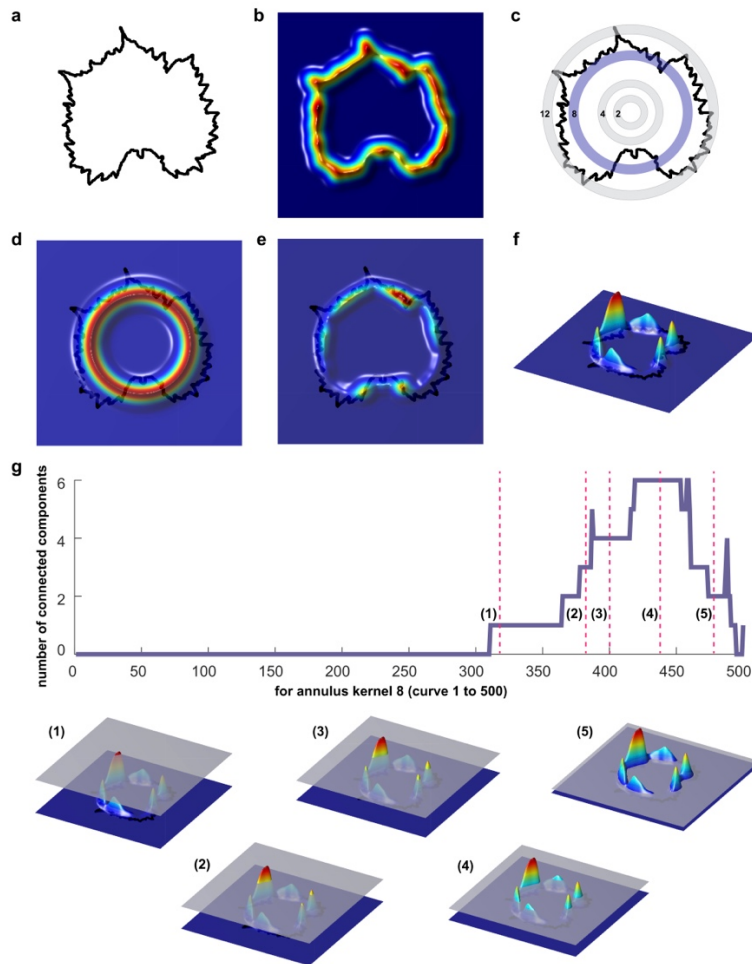
425 For leaf shape analyses, the middle four leaves from a single shoot were collected from each
426 vine. Leaves were flattened, stored in plastic bags in coolers in the field, and transferred to a cold
427 room in the lab. Within a few days of collection leaves were imaged using a Canon DS50000
428 document scanner. Leaves with margin damage were removed from analysis. The resulting
429 dataset included 277 vines with 4 leaves and 6 vines with 2 leaves in 2014, and 284 vines with 4
430 leaves, and 2 vines with 2 leaves, in 2016.

431
432 Leaf scans were converted to binary (black and white) images in Matlab and then analyzed in
433 ImageJ(Abràmoff et al., 2004) using shape descriptors including aspect ratio, circularity,

434 roundness, and solidity, each of which captures a ratio describing variation in lobing and shape⁵¹.
435 Shape descriptors were averaged across leaves from each plant. We performed linear modeling
436 using the `lm()` function in R, accounting for variation in block (which reflects vineyard position),
437 irrigation, rootstock, rootstock by irrigation interaction, and year. The percent variance explained
438 by each factor was calculated using the `anova()` function, and only those with a significant p-
439 value (<0.05) were visualized using the `ggplot2` package in R(Wickham 2009).

440
441 To comprehensively measure leaf shape, we used a persistent homology approach, a type of
442 Topological Data Analysis (TDA), to capture the outline of the leaf⁵². Each leaf was considered
443 as a point cloud in which each pixel is a point (Figure 6A). A Gaussian density estimator was
444 applied to each pixel reflecting the density of neighboring pixels (Figure 6B). In the context of
445 leaf shape, pixels in serrations or lobes tend to have more neighbors than pixels that lie on
446 relatively straight edges. 16 concentric annuli emanating from the centroid were multiplied by
447 the Gaussian density estimator isolating subsets of the data (Figure 6C-F); the subsetted data (the
448 rings) are arbitrary and are intended to provide an increased number of comparable topological
449 features between leaves. Each ring is effectively a different set of topological features analyzed
450 (that is, a set of 16 shapes for each grapevine leaf). In Figure 6G, high (red) and low (blue)
451 values of the Gaussian density filtration function are visualized directly on a grapevine leaf
452 shape. The number of connected components are monitored. As the filtration function is passed
453 through (red-to-blue in Figure 6G), connected components will arise or merge with each other.
454 Changes in number of connected components are the result of the position in the filtration
455 function, which is the x-axis of the Euler characteristic curve (Figure 6G) and monitors the
456 number of connected components (y-axis) as a function of the filtration. The Euler characteristic
457 curves (one for each of 16 rings) were discretized. Further details of the analysis were previously
458 published^{53,54}. Binary images and persistent homology values are available for download⁵⁵.

459
460 Persistent homology values were averaged across leaves for each plant and principal component
461 analysis (PCA) was performed. The first 20 principal components (PCs) explained 68.13% of the
462 total variance, and thus only these were included in downstream analyses. The morphometric
463 PCs were included in a linear model which accounted for variation in rootstock, irrigation (which
464 reflects historical treatment conditions) rootstock by irrigation interaction, year, and block.
465 Lastly, we calculated how much of the total variance was explained by each trait, and factors
466 explaining a significant portion of the variance ($p<0.05$) were visualized using the `ggplot2`
467 package in R(Wickham 2009).



468
469 **Figure 6.** Quantifying leaf shape using persistent homology, a Topological Data Analysis (TDA)
470 method. (A) A 2D point cloud represents each leaf contour. (B) A Gaussian density estimator
471 estimates the density of neighboring pixels around each pixel. Pixels near serrations and lobes
472 tend to have higher density values. (C) 16 concentric rings are used to partition the data as an (D)
473 annulus kernel. (E) Multiplication of the annulus kernel by the Gaussian density estimator
474 isolates sub-features of the leaf. (F) A side projection shows clearly the isolated density features
475 of the leaf. (G) Proceeding from high density values to low (1-5) the number of connected
476 components (a topological feature) is recorded as a function of density. The resulting curves
477 from each ring are discretized and quantify leaf shape.

478 Leaf ion concentration analyses

479 To investigate ion concentrations in the leaves, three leaves from different developmental stages
480 were collected from a single shoot from each vine. The first leaf sampled came from the first
481 node at the base of the shoot and was the oldest leaf on the shoot. The second leaf sampled (also
482 used for morphometric analyses) came from the middle of the shoot. The third leaf was sampled
483 at the tip of the shoot.

484

485 Each sample was processed for ionic analysis at the Donald Danforth Plant Science Center
486 (St. Louis, MO), as described in Ziegler et al.⁵⁶, including correction for internal standards and
487 standardization based on sample weight using custom scripts, with one minor modification in the
488 dilution method. Samples were digested in 2.5mL nitric acid and then diluted to 10mL with
489 ultrapure water. Instead of a second manual dilution, an ESI prepFAST autodiluter diluted
490 samples an additional 5x inline with ultrapure water. The 2014 samples were analyzed using a
491 Perkin Elmer Elan 6000 DRC-e ICP-MS run in standard mode. The 2016 samples were run with
492 a Perkin Elmer NexION 350D ICP-MS with helium mode enabled. The standard used for
493 normalizing samples in 2014 was rerun in December 2017 and all values from 2016 were
494 adjusted to account for variation between instruments. The elements boron (B), selenium (Se)
495 and arsenic (As) did not measure well in at least one year and were subsequently removed from
496 the analysis for both years, resulting in 17 elements for subsequent analysis.

497
498 For both 2014 and 2016 ionomics data, we removed extreme outliers for each element with
499 values less than 0.25 quantile – interquartile range*5, or greater than 0.75 quantile +
500 interquartile range*5. After outlier removal, 703-794 samples per element remained for 2014 and
501 846 samples for 2016 remained. All samples were included in a linear model accounting for leaf,
502 rootstock, irrigation, block, year, rootstock by irrigation interaction, rootstock by leaf interaction,
503 and irrigation by leaf interaction, using the lm() function in R. Since tissue sampling occurred in
504 June prior to the initiation of irrigation treatments, the effect of irrigation describes historical
505 water conditions. The percent variance explained by each factor was calculated, and only those
506 with a significant p-value (<0.05) were visualized.

507 Gene expression analyses

508 We used RNA-seq to assess changes in gene expression in leaves of grafted and ungrafted
509 ‘Chambourcin’ vines. Samples were collected from two rows with no irrigation treatment (rows
510 13 and 15, Figure S1) on June 14, 2016. Each row was composed of two blocks of vines, and
511 within each block, we sampled two clonal replicates from each rootstock-scion combination, for
512 a total of 32 samples. Samples were collected from row 15 column A to column H, and then
513 from row 13 column A to column H. For each vine, we collected the first leaf at the tip of the
514 shoot that was fully open (~16 mm in diameter). Leaf tissue was immediately flash frozen in
515 liquid nitrogen and transported on dry ice before transferring to a -80°C freezer for storage.

516
517 Total RNA was extracted at the US Department of Agriculture Grape Genetics Research Unit
518 (Geneva, NY) using standard extraction protocols for the Sigma Spectrum Plant RNA kit (Sigma
519 Aldrich, Inc. St. Louis MO) with the following modification; addition of 3% w/v PVP40 added
520 to the lysis buffer. Library construction was performed by Cofactor Genomics
521 (<http://cofactorgenomics.com>, St. Louis, MO). Total RNA was incubated with mRNA capture
522 beads in order to remove contaminating ribosomal RNA from the sample. The resulting poly(A)-
523 captured mRNA was fragmented. First-strand cDNA synthesis was performed using reverse
524 transcriptase and random primers in the presence of Actinomycin D, followed by second-strand
525 cDNA synthesis with DNA polymerase I and RNase H. Double-stranded cDNA was end-

526 repaired and A-tailed for subsequent adaptor ligation. Indexed adaptors were ligated to the A-
527 tailed cDNA. Enrichment by PCR was performed to generate the final cDNA sequencing library.
528 Libraries were sequenced as single-end 75 base pair reads on an Illumina NextSeq500 following
529 the manufacturer's protocols. The RNA-sequencing data have been uploaded to the NCBI
530 Sequence Read Archive under BioProject PRJNA507625: SRA Accessions SRR8263050 -
531 SRR8263077.

532
533 All samples were quality checked using FastQC v0.11.3(Andrews 2015). Reads were aligned to
534 the 12Xv2 reference genome and the VCost.v3(Canaguier et al. 2017) reference annotation using
535 HISAT2 v2.1.0(Kim et al. 2015). Counts were derived from the alignment with HTSeq⁵⁷.
536 Differential gene expression analysis was performed using the R package DESeq2⁵⁸. After
537 determining differential expression, the raw read counts were normalized using the DESeq2
538 normalization method of dividing each count by the size factors.

539
540 As an initial survey of the potential impact of rootstocks on gene expression, we conducted a
541 Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) using GSEA-P 2.0 (<http://www.broad.mit.edu/GSEA>)
542 and 203 VitisNet pathways including at least 10 genes⁵⁹⁻⁶³. Enrichment was tested using
543 normalized expression data (RPKM) for all genes, for each rootstock. The gene expression from
544 leaf tissue (Chambourcin scion) for each root stock was compared separately to own-rooted
545 'Chambourcin' leaf gene expression, as well as, comparing all scion/rootstock combination gene
546 expression to own-rooted leaves. For each comparison, we determined which pathways were up-
547 regulated in grafted vines using GSEA. The GSEA-P 2.0 default parameters of 1000
548 permutations, nominal p-value ($p < 0.05$) and false discovery rate (FDR) q-value ($q < 0.25$) were
549 used to identify positive significantly enriched molecular pathways⁶⁰.

550
551 Next, we determined significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) by comparing grafted
552 vines to own-rooted vines. Samples from each block were collected chronologically, and thus,
553 each block represented spatial variation as well as a particular time point. We performed a
554 regression fit for each gene accounting for considering all variables (block, replicate, and
555 rootstock) using the MaSigPro R package⁶⁴. Using the p.vector() function, we returned a list of
556 FDR-corrected significant genes, which were input into the T.fit() function, to perform stepwise
557 regression, selecting the best regression model for each gene. The get.siggenes() function with
558 the 'vars="groups"' option was used to generate a list of genes with significant expression in
559 own-rooted vines. Expression patterns for each rootstock were then compared to patterns in own-
560 rooted vines, in order to determine which genes had significantly different expression profiles in
561 a particular rootstock. Next, we used the suma2Venn() function to visualize overlap across
562 rootstocks and own-rooted vines.

563
564 Lastly, we queried DEGs identified in each grafted 'Chambourcin' relative to own-rooted vines
565 for statistical enrichment of metabolic and regulatory pathways, to determine if rootstock
566 impacted specific aspects of vine biology. Unlike the initial GSEA assessment which included all
567 genes, this analysis only included DEGs. We tested DEGs for pathway enrichment using the

568 Vitisnet database⁶² and the VitisPathways tool⁶⁵ using 100 permutations, a Fisher's exact test of
569 $p < 0.05$ and a permuted p value of $p < 0.05$.

570 Availability of data

571 Binary images and persistent homology values are available for download⁵⁵. The RNA-
572 sequencing data have been uploaded to the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under BioProject
573 PRJNA507625: SRA Accessions SRR8263050 - SRR8263077. Data and code for this
574 manuscript are available in a GitHub repository⁵⁰.

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592 Supplementary information

593 **Figure S1.** Schematic representation of 'Chambourcin' experimental vineyard located at The
594 University of Missouri Southwest Center Agricultural Experiment Station in Mount Vernon,
595 Missouri, USA.

596

597 **Figure S2.** Complete ionomic results for 2014 and 2016 divided based on (A) rootstock (B) leaf
598 position (C) rootstock by irrigation.

599

600 **Table S1.** Results for all factors explaining a significant portion of the variance for simple leaf
601 shape descriptors consisting of aspect ratio, circularity, roundness and solidity. For each
602 descriptor, the percent variance explained by the factor and the p -value are reported.

603

604 **Table S2.** Results for all factors explaining a significant portion of the variance for
605 morphometric PC1 to 20. For each significant factor for a PC, the p-value, percent variance
606 explained by the factor, and percent variance captured by the PC are all reported.

607
608 **Table S3.** Results for all factors explaining a significant portion of the variance for each element.
609 For each significant factor for an element, the p-value and percent variance explained by the
610 factor are reported.

611
612 **Table S4.** VitisNet Pathways that were uniquely positively enriched in a rootstock, or positively
613 enriched in common for all three rootstocks, relative to own-rooted vines. A false discovery rate
614 of 0.25 and nominal p-value of 0.05 were used to identify positive enrichment in each rootstock
615 treatment.

616
617 **Table S5.** All genes which were significantly expressed in own-rooted vines were compared to
618 genes in vines grafted to each rootstock to determine which ones were significantly differentially
619 expressed. The results of these comparisons are listed. Annotations are from the VCost.v3
620 (Canaguier et al. 2017) reference annotation.

621
622 **Table S6.** Genes found to be significantly differentially expressed in vines grafted to only one
623 rootstock when compared to own-rooted vines, or across vines grafted to all rootstocks compared
624 to own-rooted vines, or not differentially expressed across any rootstock treatment, where tested
625 for pathway enrichment.

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