

# GigaScience

## Multi-dimensional leaf phenotypes reflect root system genotype in grafted grapevine over the growing season --Manuscript Draft--

<b>Manuscript Number:</b>	GIGA-D-21-00137R3	
<b>Full Title:</b>	Multi-dimensional leaf phenotypes reflect root system genotype in grafted grapevine over the growing season	
<b>Article Type:</b>	Research	
<b>Funding Information:</b>	National Science Foundation (1546869)	Dr Allison J. Miller
<b>Abstract:</b>	<p>Background: Modern biological approaches generate volumes of multi-dimensional data, offering unprecedented opportunities to address biological questions previously beyond reach due to small or subtle effects. A fundamental question in plant biology is the extent to which below-ground activity in the root system influences above-ground phenotypes expressed in the shoot system. Grafting, an ancient horticultural practice that fuses the root system of one individual (the rootstock) with the shoot system of a second, genetically distinct individual (the scion), is a powerful experimental system to understand below-ground effects on above-ground phenotypes. Previous studies on grafted grapevines have detected rootstock influence on scion phenotypes including physiology and berry chemistry. However, the extent of the rootstock's influence on leaves, the photosynthetic engines of the vine, and how those effects change over the course of a growing season, are still largely unknown.</p> <p>Results: Here, we investigate associations between rootstock genotype and shoot system phenotypes using five multi-dimensional leaf phenotyping modalities measured in a common grafted scion: ionomics, metabolomics, transcriptomics, morphometrics, and physiology. Rootstock influence is ubiquitous but subtle across modalities with the strongest signature of rootstock observed in the leaf ionome. Moreover, we find that the extent of rootstock influence on scion phenotypes and patterns of phenomic covariation are highly dynamic across the season.</p> <p>Conclusions: These findings substantially expand previously identified patterns to demonstrate that rootstock influence on scion phenotypes is complex and dynamic and underscore that broad understanding necessitates volumes of multi-dimensional data previously unmet.</p>	
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<b>Response to Reviewers:</b>	<p>1. We have added information into the Code Availability Section so that it now meets the required format.</p> <p>2. All figshare links were added to the references. Additionally, the GigaDB citation was added to the references. These are all referenced in the Availability of Data section. We also lightly edited the Availability of Data Section to be less redundant.</p> <p>3. Abbreviations, Competing Interests, and Funding information has all been added/moved to the appropriate sections.</p>
<b>Additional Information:</b>	
<b>Question</b>	<b>Response</b>
Are you submitting this manuscript to a special series or article collection?	No
<p><b>Experimental design and statistics</b></p> <p>Full details of the experimental design and statistical methods used should be given in the Methods section, as detailed in our <a href="#">Minimum Standards Reporting Checklist</a>. Information essential to interpreting the data presented should be made available in the figure legends.</p> <p>Have you included all the information requested in your manuscript?</p>	Yes
<p><b>Resources</b></p> <p>A description of all resources used, including antibodies, cell lines, animals and software tools, with enough information to allow them to be uniquely identified, should be included in the Methods section. Authors are strongly encouraged to cite <a href="#">Research Resource Identifiers</a> (RRIDs) for antibodies, model organisms and tools, where possible.</p> <p>Have you included the information</p>	Yes

<p>requested as detailed in our <a href="#">Minimum Standards Reporting Checklist</a>?</p>	
<p><b>Availability of data and materials</b></p> <p>All datasets and code on which the conclusions of the paper rely must be either included in your submission or deposited in <a href="#">publicly available repositories</a> (where available and ethically appropriate), referencing such data using a unique identifier in the references and in the “Availability of Data and Materials” section of your manuscript.</p> <p>Have you have met the above requirement as detailed in our <a href="#">Minimum Standards Reporting Checklist</a>?</p>	<p>Yes</p>



1 **Multi-dimensional leaf phenotypes reflect root system genotype in grafted**  
2 **grapevine over the growing season**

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36 **Abstract**

37 Background: Modern biological approaches generate volumes of multi-dimensional data, offering  
38 unprecedented opportunities to address biological questions previously beyond reach due to small or  
39 subtle effects. A fundamental question in plant biology is the extent to which below-ground activity in the  
40 root system influences above-ground phenotypes expressed in the shoot system. Grafting, an ancient  
41 horticultural practice that fuses the root system of one individual (the rootstock) with the shoot system of  
42 a second, genetically distinct individual (the scion), is a powerful experimental system to understand  
43 below-ground effects on above-ground phenotypes. Previous studies on grafted grapevines have detected  
44 rootstock influence on scion phenotypes including physiology and berry chemistry. However, the extent  
45 of the rootstock's influence on leaves, the photosynthetic engines of the vine, and how those effects  
46 change over the course of a growing season, are still largely unknown.

47 Results: Here, we investigate associations between rootstock genotype and shoot system phenotypes  
48 using five multi-dimensional leaf phenotyping modalities measured in a common grafted scion: ionomics,  
49 metabolomics, transcriptomics, morphometrics, and physiology. Rootstock influence is ubiquitous but  
50 subtle across modalities with the strongest signature of rootstock observed in the leaf ionome. Moreover,  
51 we find that the extent of rootstock influence on scion phenotypes and patterns of phenomic covariation  
52 are highly dynamic across the season.

53 Conclusions: These findings substantially expand previously identified patterns to demonstrate that  
54 rootstock influence on scion phenotypes is complex and dynamic and underscore that broad  
55 understanding necessitates volumes of multi-dimensional data previously unmet.

56

57 **Background**

58

59 High-throughput data acquisition has afforded unprecedented capacity to quantify and understand  
60 plant form and function. Recent advances in imaging and computation have expanded our ability to  
61 measure plant traits or phenotypes [1,2], and to extend those comprehensive measurements into latent

62 space phenotypes [3]. Now broadly known as phenomics, this burgeoning field is characterized as the  
63 acquisition and analysis of high-dimensional phenotypic data at different hierarchical levels [4,5], often  
64 with an eye toward multiscale data integration. A holistic and hierarchical approach to plant phenotypic  
65 variation affords unique insights into plant evolution and how plants change over development and in  
66 response to environmental cues and horticultural manipulation.

67         A fundamental question in plant biology is how root systems influence phenomic variation in  
68 above-ground shoot systems including leaves, flowers, and fruits. Grafting, a common horticultural  
69 manipulation that joins the shoot system of one individual (the scion) with the root system of another  
70 individual (the rootstock), is commonly used in crop species to confer favorable phenotypes to  
71 commercial scions [6], including enhanced disease resistance [7,8], fruit quality, plant form [9], response  
72 to water stress [10], and growth on particular soils [11,12]. Because grafting often uses clonally  
73 propagated materials, it is possible to manipulate and replicate different combinations of root systems and  
74 shoot systems, offering a valuable experimental system in which root system impacts on shoot system  
75 phenotypes can be evaluated.

76         The European grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*) is among the most economically important grafted crops  
77 in the world. Grapevines are cultivated primarily for fruits used to make wine and juice, as well as for  
78 table grape and raisin production. Grafting in grapevines became widespread in the mid-1800's following  
79 the accidental introduction of the root-feeding aphid phylloxera from its native North America into  
80 Europe, where it began attacking the roots of European grapevines [13]. Because European grapevines  
81 often do not survive phylloxera infestation, in regions where phylloxera has been introduced most  
82 grapevine cultivation consists of European grapevines grafted to rootstocks derived from phylloxera-  
83 resistant North American *Vitis* species including *V. berlandieri*, *V. riparia*, and *V. rupestris*, and their  
84 hybrid derivatives. In addition to grapevines, more than 70 major perennial crops are grafted including  
85 many fruit trees and vines [9]. Grafting decouples the breeding of shoot systems and root systems, with  
86 selection in plants targeted for use as scions focusing primarily on fruit phenotypes, and selection in

87 plants targeted for use as rootstocks focused on below-ground biotic and abiotic stress resistance, as well  
88 as their impacts on shoot system phenotypes.

89         The effects of grafting in grapevine show a remarkable breadth of scion response patterns. For  
90 example, a study of *Vitis vinifera* cv. ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ grafted to different rootstocks identified  
91 transcriptome reprogramming in the scion of grafted plants; this appeared to be a general effect of  
92 grafting to a rootstock and was not rootstock-specific [14]. In contrast, other studies have found  
93 signatures of rootstock genotype in the transcriptome in early berry development, although this distinction  
94 was lost in later development [15,16], but see [17]. Comprehensive phenomic analyses, including those  
95 that link transcriptome data with other high-throughput phenotyping assays, offer an opportunity to  
96 expand understanding of rootstock effects on grapevine shoots. In one study, leaves of the *V. vinifera*  
97 cultivar ‘Gaglioppo’ showed variation in stilbene and abscisic acid concentrations due to rootstock  
98 genotype, as well as differences in transcriptional profiles [18]. Likewise, gene expression, ion  
99 concentrations, and leaf shape in the cultivar ‘Chambourcin’ varied in response to rootstock genotype  
100 [18,19]. Collectively, these studies suggest the impacts of grafting are diverse and may vary over the  
101 course of vine development. However, to date few studies have surveyed multiple high-dimensional scion  
102 phenotypes to understand rootstock influence on shoot system phenotypes over the course of the growing  
103 season or the extent to which grafting effects on the scion covary with one another.

104         Leaves are the photosynthetic engine of the organism and a primary site for perception and  
105 response to environmental change. Grapevine leaves have been used for centuries as markers of species  
106 and cultivar delimitation, developmental variation, disease presence, and nutrient deficiency [20,21].  
107 More recently, analysis of grapevine leaf morphology has identified genetic architecture of leaf shapes  
108 [22], developmental patterns across the season [23], and signatures of evolution in the grapevine genus  
109 [24]. Grapevine leaves respond to stress through gas and water exchange with the atmosphere [25,26] and  
110 have been shown to differentially partition the ionome depending on their position on the shoot [19] and  
111 their rootstock genotype [19,27,28]. The volume of work on grapevine leaves provides a foundation for  
112 the analysis of phenomic variation in a vineyard over a season in response to grafting.

113 In this study, we investigate effects of grafting on high dimensional leaf phenotypes of the hybrid  
114 cultivar ‘Chambourcin’ over the course of the growing season. We quantify leaf elemental (ion)  
115 concentrations, metabolite abundance, gene expression, shape, and vine physiology in a replicated  
116 rootstock trial where the hybrid grapevine cultivar ‘Chambourcin’ is growing ungrafted and grafted to  
117 three different rootstocks. The four root-shoot combinations (‘Chambourcin’ ungrafted, ‘Chambourcin’  
118 grafted to three different rootstocks) are replicated 72 times in a randomized block experimental design  
119 with an irrigation treatment (Supplemental Figure 1). Phenotypic data, data that describe variation for a  
120 particular trait within a particular modality, were collected either on the full 288-vine set (ion  
121 concentrations, leaf shape) or on a subset of 72 vines (the 72-vine set; metabolite abundance, gene  
122 expression, vine physiology). Using data collected at three time points that span the growing season  
123 (anthesis, veraison, and harvest), we show that all phenotyping modalities (ionomic, metabolomic,  
124 transcriptomic, morphometric, and physiology phenotypes) reflect subtle but ubiquitous responses to  
125 grafting and rootstock genotype. Rootstock effects on shoot system phenotypes were often dynamic  
126 across the season, suggesting that accounting for seasonal variation could enhance our understanding of  
127 grafting effects in viticulture.

128

## 129 **Data Description**

130

### 131 *Leaf Ionomics*

132 The ionome describes elemental composition of a tissue at a particular time point [29]. Three  
133 leaves per vine were collected from the 288-vine set at three seasonal time points: anthesis (~mid May),  
134 veraison (~late July), and harvest ~mid September). Leaves were sampled from a single shoot and  
135 included the youngest fully opened leaf at the shoot tip, the approximate middle leaf, and the oldest leaf at  
136 the shoot base. Teams were deployed in the vineyard so that multiple vineyard rows were being sampled  
137 concurrently. As such, ‘block’ represented unmeasured spatial variation, but did not strictly correlate with  
138 time of sampling due to the nature of sampling (see Methods). Whole leaves were placed in zip-lock bags

139 in the field and stored in a cooler on ice packs, scanned for leaf shape analysis in the lab (see Leaf Shape)  
140 and then dried in coin envelopes at 50°C for one to three days for elemental analysis. Between 20 and 100  
141 mg of leaf tissue was acid digested and 20 ions were quantified using inductively coupled plasma mass  
142 spectrometry (ICP-MS) following standard protocol of the Donald Danforth Plant Science Center  
143 (DDPSC) Ionomics Pipeline [30,31]. Ion quantifications were corrected for internal standard  
144 concentrations, instrument drift and by initial sample mass. The output of the Pipeline contained  
145 estimated concentrations of each of the following 20 elements: Al, As, B, Ca, Cd, Co, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mn,  
146 Mo, Na, Ni, P, Rb, S, Se, Sr, and Zn. For each ion concentration, we computed z-score distributions and  
147 used those values as the basis for linear models. Following convention, non-standardized values were  
148 used for machine learning analysis.

149

#### 150 *Leaf Metabolomics*

151 The metabolome comprises small mostly organic molecules present in a tissue and represents a  
152 catalogue of the products of metabolic processes [32,33]. Metabolomic analysis was completed at  
153 veraison (the onset of fruit ripening) and immediately prior to harvest for the 72-vine set. For each vine,  
154 three mature leaves were sampled from the middle of a single shoot and immediately flash frozen in  
155 liquid nitrogen in the field to capture the metabolic state of the leaves when attached to the vine. Leaves  
156 were sampled by a single team near midday in row and block order, ensuring that ‘block’ captured both  
157 unmeasured spatial variation and temporal variation over the sampling window (see Methods). Frozen  
158 leaves were transported to the University of Missouri Enology Lab on dry ice and stored at -80°C.  
159 Following the protocol of [34], whole leaves were manually ground in liquid nitrogen with a mortar and  
160 pestle, 0.5g of powder was weighed into a centrifuge tube, 1.5ml of 1:1 MeOH: ACN was added.  
161 Samples were vortexed to suspend leaf particles and sonicated for 20 minutes in an ice bath. After  
162 extraction, samples were centrifuged for 10 minutes at 3,000 g and filtered with a 0.22 PTFE syringe filter  
163 into a 1.5ml sample vial before injecting into a Waters XEVOTM QToF LCMS system (Waters

164 Corporation, Milford, MA, USA). Chromatographic separation was achieved using a Waters Acquity™  
165 Ultra Performance LC H-Class system (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA) equipped with Waters  
166 Acquity BEH C18 column (2.1mmx150mm and 1.7µm particle size) and a diode array detector. Samples  
167 were injected in random order across the sampling periods. The injection volume was set at 2.5µl and the  
168 flow rate was set at 0.4 ml/min. The mobile phase consisted of 0.1% formic acid in water (solvent A) and  
169 0.1% formic acid and 5% water in acetaldehyde (solvent B) and the gradient was as follows: 100% A for  
170 0.5 min; 0.5-18min increased to 99% B; 18-19 min. held at 99% B; mobile phase was re-equilibrated for  
171 2 min between runs. Diode array was monitored at 225-500nm. Mass spectrometry was performed on a  
172 Xevo™ QToF (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA). The electrospray ionization (ESI) was operated  
173 in both positive or negative ionization modes in separate runs. The scan range was set as m/z 50-1500  
174 with 0.2 sec accumulation time. MS settings were as follows: capillary voltage was 2.5kV; cone voltage  
175 ramped from 20-40V; collision energy was set to 6V; detector voltage was set to 1950V; desolvation gas  
176 was set to 1000 L/hour; cone gas was set to 50 L/hr; source temperature was 120°C and desolvation  
177 temperature was set at 550°C.

178 LC-MS instrument files were converted to .cdf format and uploaded to XCMS online [35] for  
179 chromatogram normalization and feature detection via “single job” parameters. The 661 identified  
180 metabolomic features were used as the basis of a principal components (PC) analysis. The top 20 PCs  
181 were treated as distinct phenotypes to model according to the experimental design. In PCs that varied  
182 significantly by rootstock, features that loaded more than 1.96 standard deviations above or below the  
183 mean were fit independently with the same model design.

#### 184 *Leaf Gene Expression*

185 The youngest fully-opened leaves on two shoots were collected from each plant of the 72-vine set  
186 (see Study Design). The two leaves, which were distinct from leaves used for ionomics, leaf shape,  
187 metabolomics and physiology data collection, were pooled for RNA sequencing. Leaves were sampled by  
188 a single team near midday between 10AM and 2PM in row order, ensuring that ‘block’ and ‘row’

189 accounted for unmeasured spatial variation and temporal variation over the sampling window (see  
190 Methods). Samples were sequenced using 3'-RNAseq, a method ideal for organisms with reasonably  
191 characterized reference genomes [36]. Total RNA was extracted from plant tissues using the Sigma  
192 Spectrum Plant Total RNA kit with modification of the addition of 2% PVP40 to the extraction buffer to  
193 decrease phenolic inhibitors. All RNA extractions were checked for quality control using a Nanodrop.  
194 Sequencing was conducted using the Illumina NextSeq500 platform which returned single-end 86 bp  
195 reads. To accommodate the large number of samples in this study, we opted to obtain fewer reads per  
196 sample, which might have limited our ability to detect differential expression in lowly-expressed genes.  
197 The first 12 nucleotides from each read were trimmed to remove low-quality sequences using  
198 Trimmomatic (options: HEADCROP:12; [37]). Low quality trimmed reads were additionally identified  
199 based on overrepresentation of kmers and removed using BBduk (April 2019 release) [38]. Trimmed and  
200 QC-controlled reads were mapped to the 12Xv2 reference *Vitis vinifera* genome [39,40] using STAR  
201 (v2.7.2b) [41] with default alignment parameters. RNAseq read alignments were quantified using HTSeq-  
202 count (v0.11.2) [42] and a modified version of the VCost.v3 reference *V. vinifera* genome annotation  
203 [40]. To capture mis-annotated gene body boundaries in the genome, all gene boundaries in the  
204 annotation were extended 500 bp.

205         Variation in gene expression was assessed using two methodologies. First, we identified  
206 individual genes which responded to specific factors in the experimental design using DESeq2 (v1.24.0)  
207 [43]. Each gene was fit with the model “~ Block + Irrigation + Phenology\_Rootstock” where the  
208 ‘Phenology\_Rootstock’ model term was used to understand the potential interaction of phenology and  
209 rootstock. Genes were filtered to a gene set that included only genes with a normalized count greater than  
210 or equal to two in at least five samples. To check the validity of our expression results, we assayed two  
211 classes of housekeeping genes (Ubiquitin-domain and actin-family) and eight previously annotated  
212 circadian genes [44] (Supplemental Figure 2). Differentially expressed genes were identified for each  
213 pairwise contrast in the model. Second, we used principal component analysis (PCA) to collapse variation  
214 in co-expressed genes into fewer dimensions. Normalized count-filtered genes from DESeq2 were

215 transformed using the variance stabilizing transformation (VST; [45]) and input into a PCA. We then  
216 analyzed the top 100 PCs in the context of the broader experimental design. We previously showed that  
217 the transcriptome varied by the time of collection and was potentially interacting with the rootstock effect  
218 [19]. Moreover, the other modalities in this study point to weak if any effects from the irrigation treatment  
219 (see Supplemental Note 1). Due to the nature of the vineyard design, we could not identify both irrigation  
220 and time effects (marked by row) in a single model (irrigation and row are collinear; see Study Design).  
221 To approximate the impact from time of collection (row) in the vineyard on gene expression, linear  
222 models were first fit to remove variation imparted by irrigation from each of the top 100 PCs. The  
223 residuals were then used as the basis for linear models and machine learning analysis.

224

#### 225 *Leaf Shape*

226 All leaves from a single shoot directly emerging from a trained cordon were collected from each  
227 vine in the 288-vine set at anthesis and veraison. At harvest, we collected only the oldest (first emerging  
228 leaf), middle (estimated from the middle of a whole shoot), and youngest (smallest fully emerged leaf at  
229 the shoot tip, >1cm). Leaves were collected approximately in row order (from south to north) and stored  
230 in a cooler. Each leaf was imaged using an Epson DS-50000 scanner in color against a white background  
231 at 1200 DPI and written as JPEG formatted images. Following scanning of leaves for leaf shape analysis,  
232 the oldest, middle, and youngest leaves were dried and used to estimate leaf elemental composition (see  
233 Ionomics). As the leaf shape samples and ionomics samples were identical, ‘block’ represented  
234 unmeasured spatial variation, but did not strictly correlate with time of sampling (see Methods). While all  
235 leaves were collected from a single shoot, only the oldest, middle, and youngest leaves were used in this  
236 analysis.

237 We assessed leaf shape using Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA) of landmarks. For the three  
238 leaves per vine used in leaf shape analysis, 17 homologous landmark features were identified [22]. The  
239 GPA-rotated coordinate space was used for all subsequent statistical analysis including PCA in order to



240 summarize variation in leaf shape [46]. From the PCA, we extracted the top 20 PCs and fit linear models  
241 and machine learning models to describe variation.

242

### 243 *Vine physiology*

244 Intracellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, stomatal conductance and leaf transpiration rate were measured  
245 at midday (each measured simultaneously between 10am to 1pm) on one fully expanded sun-exposed leaf  
246 for each of the vines in the 72-vine set. Physiology measurements were taken in row order ensuring that  
247 ‘block’ correlated with temporal variation over the sampling window. Measurements were taken using an  
248 LI-6400XT Portable Photosynthesis system coupled with a pulse amplitude-modulated (PAM) leaf  
249 chamber fluorometer (Li-Cor, Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) with the following parameters: incident  
250 photosynthetic photo flux density level of 1000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  generated by a red LED array and 10%  
251 blue light to maximize stomatal opening, CO<sub>2</sub> mixer of 400  $\mu\text{mol/s}$ , fixed flow of 300  $\mu\text{mol/s}$ , and  
252 ambient leaf and block temperature. Soil moisture was measured for each plant in the 72-vine set using a  
253 fieldScout TDR 300 Moisture meter equipped with 20 cm rods (Spectrum Technologies, Inc. Aurora, IL,  
254 USA). Midday stem water potential was measured using a pressure bomb/chamber (PMS Instrument Co.,  
255 Albany, OR, USA) after enclosing the leaves in an aluminum foil bag for at least 15 minutes to  
256 equilibrate the water potential of the xylem in the stem to that attached leaf (for a discussion on  
257 equilibration time, see [47,48]).

258

### 259 **Analyses**

260

#### 261 *Leaf ionome*

262 To characterize the leaf ionome over the growing season, we sampled the youngest, middle, and  
263 oldest leaf from a single shoot from each of the vines within the 288-vine set at three phenological stages  
264 and measured the concentrations of 20 ions in each leaf individually. Bivariate correlations showed that

265 ion concentrations are not independent of each other, but that the strength and direction of relationships  
266 between ions vary with respect to phenological stage and leaf position (Supplemental Figure 3). As such,  
267 we fit independent linear models to each ion. Leaf position, phenological stage, or the interaction of  
268 phenological stage and leaf position explained the highest amount of variation for most ions (Figure 1A-  
269 B). Many ions significant for the interaction showed a clear signal of leaf position at anthesis and  
270 veraison, and either no explainable variation or muted variation at harvest. For example, calcium (Figure  
271 1B) varied with leaf position (22.7% variation explained;  $p < 1e-05$ ), phenology (24.0%;  $p < 1e-05$ ), and  
272 their interaction (7.4%,  $p < 1e-05$ ). All possible pairwise combinations of leaf position were significantly  
273 different at anthesis, and both the youngest and middle leaves were different from the oldest leaves at  
274 veraison and harvest. In the case of potassium (Figure 1B), significant variation was explained by leaf  
275 position (16.1%;  $p < 1e-05$ ), phenology (19.6%;  $p < 1e-05$ ), and their interaction (10.6%;  $p < 1e-05$ ).  
276 However, post-hoc comparisons of phenology-wise mean calcium concentrations showed that differences  
277 were present only at anthesis and veraison.

278         Rootstock genotype showed remarkable influence on the composition of the leaf ionome. All ions  
279 except aluminum, sodium, and zinc were significant for rootstock as a single fixed effect (Figure 1A).  
280 Rootstock explained between 0.4% (rubidium;  $p = 3.2e-05$ ) and 14.3% (nickel;  $p < 1e-05$ ) of variation ion  
281 concentrations (Figure 1A). For some ion concentrations (such as cobalt and nickel), significant variation  
282 was explained by the interaction of rootstock and phenology; this pattern was observed mostly in ions that  
283 responded weakly to the interaction of leaf position and phenology. These ions showed similar patterns to  
284 the leaf position by phenology interaction where a clear signal was exhibited at anthesis and veraison then  
285 was either absent or muted at harvest. For example, cobalt was most abundant in '1103P'-grafted vines at  
286 anthesis (Figure 1C). At veraison, both '1103P'-grafted and 'SO4'-grafted had elevated concentrations  
287 compared to Ungrafted and '3309'-grafted vines. However, by harvest, cobalt concentration variation was  
288 muted and only 'SO4'-grafted vines showed evidence of elevated concentration. Similarly, nickel showed  
289 significant variation partitioned into the rootstock by the phenology effect (Figure 1C). Both anthesis and

290 veraison show reduced nickel concentration in ‘1103P’-grafted vines and elevated concentrations in  
291 ‘SO4’-grafted vines. However, at harvest, no comparisons are significant.

292 Machine learning on ion concentrations confirms that the leaf ionome contains a signature from  
293 the rootstock genotype and the interactions of rootstock genotype with phenology and leaf position. A  
294 random forest model trained to predict rootstock showed an overall accuracy of 75.2% (Figure 1D). Ions  
295 important for this classification were nickel (Mean Decrease in Accuracy (MDA)=0.089), molybdenum  
296 (MDA=0.058), and magnesium (MDA=0.054), corroborating the rootstock term’s significance in the  
297 linear models. Notably, when we trained a model to simultaneously predict rootstock and phenological  
298 stage, rootstock prediction accuracy increased appreciably (Figure 1E). For example, the ability of the  
299 model to detect ungrafted vines (the balanced accuracy of ungrafted predictions) improved from 81.7%  
300 accuracy overall to 91.1% accuracy at anthesis and 85.9% at harvest. Generally, performance at veraison  
301 matched the rootstock-only model performance. The ions most important for this joint  
302 (rootstock/phenological stage) prediction were nickel (MDA=0.167), phosphorus (MDA=0.110), and  
303 strontium (MDA=0.065). The rootstock by phenology model term was significant in the linear models for  
304 these ions, but was not a largest descriptor of variation. The joint prediction of rootstock and leaf position  
305 performed substantially better than chance ( $p < 1e-05$ ), but accounting for leaf position did not improve  
306 rootstock prediction as was the case in the joint prediction of rootstock and phenology (Figure 1F). Ions  
307 important for this classification were sulfur (MDA = 0.051), rubidium (MDA = 0.051), and nickel (MDA  
308 = 0.049).

309

### 310 *Leaf metabolomics*

311 We performed untargeted metabolomics on leaves from the 72-vine set at veraison and harvest,  
312 quantifying the concentrations of 661 metabolites (Figure 2). The top 20 PCs accounted for a total of  
313 67.3% of the total metabolomic variation, with the top three capturing 23.1%, 9.2%, and 6.2%,  
314 respectively. Individual PCs after the top 20 explained less than 0.82% of the metabolome. Linear models  
315 for each of the top 20 PCs found that the strongest drivers of variation in leaf metabolomics were

316 phenology and temporal blocking factor. For example, 90.6% of variation on PC1 was due to phenology  
317 ( $p < 1e-05$ ; Figure 2A). PC2 primarily reflected the interaction of phenology and temporal block (26.4%,  
318  $p < 1e-05$ ) and temporal block as a main effect (18.9%,  $p < 1e-05$ ). The patterns of variation attributable  
319 to PC2 were similar in PCs 3-10 (Figure 2A).

320 PC17 was controlled by rootstock as a main effect (18.5%,  $p < 1e-03$ ; Figure 2B). On PC17,  
321 ungrafted vines were significantly different from vines grafted to '3309C' ( $p = 0.02$ ) and 'SO4' ( $p < 1e-$   
322  $05$ ). Vines grafted to '1103P' were also significantly different from vines grafted to 'SO4' ( $p = 0.009$ ).  
323 Metabolites that loaded more than 1.96 sd from the mean loading on PC17 were extracted and  
324 independently fit to additional linear models. We identified four metabolite features (M374T1 [rt = 1.33,  
325  $m/z = 374.1146$ ], M117T1 [rt = 0.61,  $m/z = 117.0583$ ], M175T1\_1 [rt = 0.87,  $m/z = 175.1269$ ], and  
326 M333T1\_3 [rt = 0.71;  $m/z = 333.1582$ ]) which were influenced by rootstock as a main effect and the  
327 metabolite (M112T1 [rt = 1.48,  $m/z = 112.0061$ ]) which was influenced by the interaction of rootstock  
328 genotype and phenological stage. At this time, the identification of these features remains unknown.

329 Linear discriminant analysis confirmed that many experimental factors likely influence the  
330 metabolome. For example, when trained to maximize variation between classes of rootstocks, the model  
331 identified a space that weakly separates '1103P'-grafted and 'SO4'-grafted vines from ungrafted and  
332 '3309C'-grafted vines (LD1) and separates '3309C'-grafted vines from other classes (on LD2) (Figure  
333 2C). Despite this, machine learning showed minimal predictability for any class other than phenology,  
334 which was predictable with an accuracy of 100% for withheld samples. Rootstock genotype based on the  
335 metabolome was not predictable with accuracy only marginally better than chance (34.6%).

336

### 337 *Gene Expression*

338 We performed 3'-RNAseq on the youngest fully-opened leaves of the 72-vine set at three time  
339 points (Figure 3). On average, each sample contained 4.1 million 3'-reads and measured the expression of  
340 17,852 genes. Overall, we identified variation in 23,460 genes that had a DESeq2-normalized count  
341 greater than two in at least five samples. We computed the expression of two classes of housekeeping

342 genes, and showed that they are generally stable across samples over phenological time (Supplemental  
343 Figure 2). We noted that some variation is expected for housekeeping genes; see, for example, [49].  
344 Moreover, we showed that patterns of previously annotated circadian genes conform to expected results  
345 over the sampling window. For example, predicted orthologs of *LHY* and *RVE1* are correlated and  
346 decreasing over our sampling window, and a predicted *TOC1* ortholog is invariant. The results of these  
347 analyses provide general confidence in the gene expression data presented here.

348         Using a traditional differential expression analysis framework based on established DGE software  
349 (Deseq2), all genes returned as significantly differentially expressed by rootstock appeared to be false  
350 positives, evidenced by a single extreme outlier altering group means. Hierarchical clustering of the 500  
351 most variable genes after variance stabilizing transformation (VST) showed strong latent structure in the  
352 transcriptome and that most variation in the transcriptome was explained by the phenological stage  
353 (Figure 3A). The top 100 PCs on the VST-transformed gene counts accounted for nearly 92.3% of  
354 variation in the transcriptome. Linear models on each of the top 100 PCs indicated that 82.4% and 61.4%  
355 of the variation on PC1 and PC2 respectively were attributable to the phenological stage (Figure 3B-C).  
356 Row was also a significant descriptor of variation as a single, fixed effect and in interactions with  
357 rootstock and phenological stage. For example, row accounted for 36.0% and 43.3% of the variation on  
358 PC4 and PC6, respectively. Interacting with the phenological stage, row accounted for >10% of variation  
359 on 17 additional PCs.

360         Patterns of gene expression identified through LDA corresponded to phenological stage, vine  
361 row, and rootstock. LDA separated phenological stages into three distinct, non-overlapping groups in the  
362 space spanning LD1 and LD2 (Supplemental Figure 4). When trying to separate rows into distinct classes,  
363 the model converged on a ‘horseshoe’ shape in the LD1- LD2 space (Figure 3D), suggesting either a  
364 circadian topology to the transcriptome or continuous spatial variation over the vineyard [50]. LD1  
365 maximized the variation between row 8 (sampled early in the day) and row 16 (sampled a few hours  
366 later). LD2 maximized the separation of both rows 8 and 16 with row 12 (the row sampled in the middle  
367 of the sampling window). A model trained to separate rootstock classes (Figure 3E) showed that LD1

368 separated the rootstock 1103P from other rootstock genotypes, and LD2 primarily separated the rootstock  
369 ‘3309C’ from ungrafted vines (Supplemental Figure 4).

370           Formal machine learning on gene expression PCs largely supported the linear models. A random  
371 forest trained to predict phenological stage classified testing samples with 92.9% accuracy. Anthesis was  
372 the most predictable class with a balanced accuracy of 100%; veraison and harvest displayed balanced  
373 accuracies of 92.7% and 92.4%, respectively. The PCs most important in phenology prediction were PC1  
374 (MDA = 0.16) and PC2 (MDA = 0.12). Gene expression PCs were unable to predict rootstock, with a  
375 total prediction accuracy of 23.4%. While no features were especially important in the prediction  
376 processes, PC44 showed the largest mean decrease in Gini impurity corroborating its signal in the linear  
377 models.

378

#### 379 *Leaf shape*

380           We collected leaves from the 288-vine set at three time points and landmarked a total of 2,422  
381 leaves (Figure 4). Homologous leaf landmarks were used for Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA).  
382 PCA on the GPA-rotated coordinates revealed ~97.2% of the total shape variation was captured by the  
383 top 20 principal components with PC1, PC2, and PC3 explaining 24.1%, 19.0%, and 13.3% of the  
384 variation respectively. Lower values on PC1 primarily capture leaves with shallow petiolar sinuses and  
385 short midvein distance from the depth of the superior sinus to the top of the midvein, whereas higher  
386 values on PC1 capture the opposite (Figure 4A). Similarly, lower values on PC2 capture deep petiolar  
387 sinuses combined with very shallow superior sinuses, and vice versa for higher values. PC3 primarily  
388 captures asymmetry (Figure 4A).

389           In total, 5.76% of variation on PC1 was explained by the experimental design. Of this, variation  
390 in leaf shape was explained by phenology (2.63%;  $p_{adj} < 1e-05$ ), then rootstock (0.95%;  $p_{adj} < 0.001$ ),  
391 leaf position (2.61%;  $p_{adj} = 0.03$ ), and the interaction of phenology and leaf position (0.62%;  $p_{adj} =$   
392 0.009) (Supplemental Figure 5A). Post-hoc mean comparisons on PC1 showed that shapes of leaves from  
393 ungrafted vines were significantly different from leaves of vines grafted to 1103P ( $p < 0.001$ ), 3309C ( $p <$

394 0.001) and SO4 ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Supplemental Figure 5B). Moreover, PC1 captured subtle variation in the  
395 leaf position by phenological stage interaction where middle leaves showed significant differences  
396 between anthesis and veraison ( $p < 1e-03$ ), and the oldest leaves showed significant differences when  
397 comparing anthesis to veraison ( $p < 1e-05$ ) and anthesis to harvest ( $p < 1e-03$ ).

398 For PC2, 61.4% of variation could be assigned to an experimental factor. This included  
399 significant variation from leaf position (46.9%,  $\text{padj} < 1e-05$ ), phenology (1.4%;  $\text{padj} < 1e-05$ ), and the  
400 interaction of leaf position and phenology (12.05%;  $\text{padj} < 1e-05$ ; Figure 4D). Specifically, younger  
401 leaves tended to have shallower sinuses and exaggerated superior sinus depths (higher values on PC2),  
402 whereas older leaves tended to develop deeper petiolar sinuses and more shallow superior sinuses (lower  
403 values on PC2). The degree of this separation decreased across the season, and the shapes converged on  
404 the mean leaf shape on PC2, consistent with the middle leaf at all three phenological stages. PC2  
405 additionally reflected the interaction of leaf position and rootstock (0.22%;  $p = 0.04$ ; Supplemental Figure  
406 5B), but post-hoc comparisons did not find any significant pairwise comparisons.

407 Machine learning on the GPA-rotated coordinate space identified moderate division of  
408 developmental and phenological classes. Random forest models could predict the leaf position with  
409 73.1% accuracy, with the most important feature being the y-component of the leaf apex ( $\text{MDA} = 0.051$ ).  
410 A model trained to predict phenology performed at 64.3% with the most important features being the x-  
411 components of the points corresponding to superior sinus depth (left sinus  $\text{MDA} = 0.030$ , right sinus  
412  $\text{MDA} = 0.019$ ). A model trained to predict rootstock performed only marginally better than chance at  
413 28.1% accuracy.

414

#### 415 *Vine physiology*

416 We measured intracellular  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration ( $C_i$ ), stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ), leaf transpiration,  
417 water potential ( $\psi$ ), and soil moisture for the 72-vine set (Figure 5). Each physiological phenotype varied  
418 significantly across phenology and the block by phenology interaction (Figure 5A). For example, at  
419 harvest, we observed specific differences in leaf  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration (A vs C:  $p=0.003$ ; B vs C:  $p=0.002$ )

420 and leaf transpiration (A vs B:  $p < 1e-03$ ; A vs C:  $p < 1e-05$ ; B vs C:  $p < 1e-05$ ). Leaf transpiration and  
421 stomatal conductance varied significantly with the interaction of rootstock and phenology. A post-hoc  
422 comparison of means showed that leaf transpiration and stomatal conductances were elevated in  
423 ‘Chambourcin’ vines grafted to ‘1103P’ at veraison as compared to leaves of ungrafted vines (leaf  
424 transpiration:  $p = 0.001$ ; stomatal conductance:  $p = 0.002$  Figure 5B-C).

425

426

#### 427 *Phenomic covariation*

428 Four leaf phenotyping modalities consisted of 10 or more measured phenotypes and were  
429 measured for all plants in the 72-vine set (leaf ionome, leaf metabolomics, gene expression, leaf shape).  
430 Using these data, we explored the extent to which different phenotypes (within and between modalities)  
431 covaried over phenology and rootstock genotype (Figure 6; Supplemental Figure 6; Supplemental Figure  
432 7). Within each phenotyping modality, we summarized the primary dimensions of phenotypic variation  
433 using PCA (see Methods), so as to not weigh any modality too heavily. From each PCA, we extracted the  
434 top 10 PCs, which explained a total of 88.9% of variation in the ionomics PCA (iPCA), 55.9% of the  
435 variation for the metabolomics PCA (mPCA), 74.8% of the variation in the gene expression PCA (gPCA)  
436 and 87.9% of the variation in the leaf shape PCA (sPCA).

437 Pairwise correlations of each PC within each phenological stage showed diverse correlation  
438 magnitudes and directions both within a phenotyping modality and between phenotyping modalities  
439 (Figure 6A-C; Supplemental Figure 6). Generally, the strongest relationships were between PCs within  
440 phenotyping modalities. For example, the strongest correlations identified were between gene expression  
441 PCs gPC1 and gPC2 at anthesis ( $r = 0.85$ , CI = [0.81, 0.87]; Supplemental Figure 6A, and metabolomics  
442 PCs mPC1 and mPC2 at harvest ( $r = -0.78$ , CI = [-0.82, -0.76]). Correlations between modalities  
443 represented a diversity of responses across phenological stages. For example, the correlation between  
444 gene expression gPC4 and shape sPC3 was similar across the phenological stages, but only the correlation  
445 at veraison was significant ( $r = 0.41$ , CI = [0.34, 0.47]; Supplemental Figure 6B). Correlations such as



446 between metabolomics mPC3 and gene expression gPC6 were similar and significant at both veraison ( $r =$   
447  $-0.44$ , CI =  $[-0.50, -0.37]$ ; Supplemental Figure 6C) and harvest ( $r = -0.37$ , CI =  $[-0.45, -0.28]$ ;  
448 Supplemental Figure 5C). While many correlations varied over the course of the season, some  
449 relationships entirely shifted in direction. For example, the correlation between metabolomics mPC3 and  
450 mPC6 shifted from a positive significant relationship ( $r = 0.58$ , CI =  $[0.52, 0.63]$ ) at veraison to a negative  
451 significant relationship at veraison ( $r = -0.66$ , CI =  $[-0.73, -0.59]$ ) (Supplemental Figure 6D).

452 Pairwise comparisons of PCs within each rootstock genotype show a suite of latent phenotypes  
453 with significant presence/absence variation in significant correlations. Where each phenological stage  
454 showed modularity by phenotyping modality, variation over rootstock genotype shows a strong ionomics  
455 module with latent combination of other modalities interspersed (Supplemental Figure 7). For example, in  
456 ungrafted vines, metabolomics mPC1 was correlated with four PCs from the ionome (Supplemental  
457 Figure 7A). Each of the other rootstock genotypes had dramatically different topologies with the ionome  
458 tending to be more connected within the ionome and connected to other modalities only on the periphery  
459 (Supplemental Figure 7B-D). Examples of presence/absence variation were shown in small modules of  
460 two latent phenotypes that were present in only one rootstock genotype. For example, in the ungrafted  
461 vines, the correlation between gene expression gPC4 and metabolomics mPC3 was significant ( $r = -0.58$ ,  
462 CI =  $[-0.65, -0.51]$ ) and, in '1103P'-grafted vines, the correlation between metabolomics mPC3 and shape  
463 sPC6 ( $r = 0.59$ , CI =  $[0.53, 0.70]$ ) was significant.

464

## 465 **Discussion**

466

467 In this study, we used grafted grapevines as an experimental system for characterizing root system  
468 impacts on multi-dimensional leaf phenotypes over the course of a growing season. We detected  
469 ubiquitous but subtle effects of the root system on all assayed modalities, and demonstrated that rootstock  
470 influences on leaf phenotypes can be specific to the vine's developmental stage. The strongest signals of

471 rootstock influences on leaves were observed in the ionomics dataset, phenotypes for which the root  
472 system has a noted and well-understood role.

473

474 *Phenology explains significant variation in all leaf phenotypes*

475         The timing of sampling or phenological stage of the vines (anthesis, veraison, harvest) was the  
476 strongest driver of phenomic variation for most leaf phenotypes. For example, all 20 ions varied with  
477 phenology and most ions showed that phenology, or the interaction of phenology with leaf developmental  
478 position, was the strongest source of variation (Figure 1). Nearly one third of all measured transcripts  
479 responded to seasonal variation, and the strongest effects on the transcriptome were phenology and row, a  
480 correlate for the time within a three-hour sampling window. The only phenotype for which phenology  
481 was not the most explanatory factor is leaf shape. Consistent with previous studies [23], we confirm that  
482 most of the leaf shape variation reflects development along a single shoot, but much of this variation is  
483 explained via interaction with phenology. These data highlight the dynamic nature of biological processes  
484 taking place within grapevines over the course of a season.

485         The seasonal component to grapevine phenomic variation is a subject of much research,  
486 especially in the berry. In studies designed to quantify molecular underpinnings of terroir, seasonal  
487 variation was identified as the strongest signal in the metabolome [51–54]. Several studies have  
488 characterized transcriptomic variation over the course of the season. For example, in conjunction with  
489 metabolomics, seasonal variation of berry development was used to identify transcriptomic and  
490 metabolomic developmental markers in ‘Corvina’ [55]. Follow-up analysis showed that nearly 18% of  
491 transcripts varied seasonally [56]. Grapevine leaf shape also varies tremendously over the growing season  
492 [23] and is stable over multiple growing seasons; interestingly, grapevine leaves are patterned in the  
493 previous year, and the climate of the season in which the leaves were patterned influence aspects of leaf  
494 shape [57,58].

495

496 *Grafting and rootstock genotype exhibit a complex and subtle signal on leaf phenotypes*

497 Consistent with previous studies, we confirm that grafting, as well as rootstock genotype, has a  
498 complex effect on phenomic variation in the scion (the grafted shoot system). Most notably, we show that  
499 the rootstock to which a scion is grafted influences ion concentrations in leaves. Rootstock genotype is  
500 predictable from ion concentrations in the leaves, and this signal is strengthened when phenological stage  
501 is included in the model. For example, we previously showed that nickel concentration was elevated in  
502 vines grafted to the rootstock ‘SO4’ [19]. At a similar point in the season, we observe the same pattern,  
503 but by harvest, nickel was almost entirely excluded from the leaf. This suggests that the biological  
504 implications of this differential uptake could be missed if not surveyed across the season. We also  
505 confirm that rootstock genotype influences the metabolome of grafted grapevine, in some cases in a  
506 season-specific manner. In the transcriptome, PCA was able to identify dimensions of variation that were  
507 significantly described by rootstock and the interaction of rootstock and time of day, confirming prior  
508 observations [19]. Patterns of gene expression were associated with rootstock in some analyses; for  
509 example, supervised methodologies identified linear discriminants in the PC space that separated gene  
510 expression patterns of some rootstock genotypes. However, gene-by-gene analysis found no genes  
511 modulated by rootstock genotype, or even just from the act of grafting that were not driven entirely by a  
512 single outlier. We suspect these results are due, at least in part, to the strength of the phenology effect  
513 overpowering more subtle variation imparted by rootstock genotype. Finally, of the physiology  
514 phenotypes we measured, leaf transpiration and stomatal conductance were higher in vines grafted to  
515 ‘1103P’ in the middle of the season. Through these analyses, we have identified subtle but ubiquitous  
516 effects of rootstock genotype on shoot system phenotype across modalities, and have shown that the  
517 impact of grafting on leaf phenomic variation varies from one phenotype to the next.

518 Understanding the rootstock genotype influence on shoot system phenotypes is a growing area of  
519 research, especially in grapevine. For example, in ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’, grafting increased ion uptake  
520 globally and some rootstock genotypes provide a clear signal in the scion [28]. The wild *Vitis* species  
521 from which the rootstocks were derived from (*Vitis berlandieri*, *V. riparia*, and *V. rupestris*) differ in root

522 architecture, preferred soil substrate, and genetic background; however, the specific aspects of their  
523 biology that contribute to differences in ion uptake are not known [27]. To our knowledge, there is not yet  
524 a strong causal link between the micronutrient component of the ionome and factors of vine growth or  
525 development that might influence traits like wine quality. However, it is noted that macronutrient  
526 deficiencies can have negative effects on such traits [59,60] and can be mediated by rootstock [61]. This  
527 suggests a strong understanding of the rootstock influence on the vine's ionome is warranted, and more  
528 work needs to be done to establish these relationships. Similarly, the metabolome is a key driver of the  
529 formation of the graft junction and some key metabolites could be responsible for graft incompatibility  
530 [62]. Building on this work, targeted metabolomics showed two classes of metabolites, flavanols and  
531 stilbenes, were differentially abundant at graft junctions and in the rootstocks of 'Cabernet Sauvignon'  
532 vines one month after grafting [63]. However, flavanols were not differentially abundant in the scion, but  
533 scion stilbene concentrations were apparently controlled by rootstock genotype. The effect of rootstock  
534 genotype on the scion transcriptome is perhaps the most varied. For example, 'Cabernet Sauvignon' shoot  
535 apical meristems show no effects by rootstock genotype [14], but berries of the same cultivar do, although  
536 the effect is tempered by seasonal variation [15]. Variation in 'Chambourcin' leaf shape was also driven  
537 by rootstock genotype, especially in conjunction with differences in irrigation [19]. Collectively, these  
538 studies all suggest that rootstock genotype influences scion phenotypes, but those effects will vary by  
539 phenotype, scion genotype, and perhaps other experimental conditions.

540 Data presented here confirm and expand upon previous observations of rootstock effects on scion  
541 phenotypes. Notably, this study was carried out using a robust experimental design (288-vine set and 72-  
542 vine set comprising replicates of three rootstocks grafted with a common scion and an ungrafted control)  
543 in a vineyard that had been in the ground for eight years at the time of sampling. Our coordinated  
544 collection of five multi-dimensional leaf phenotypes, and inclusion of three sampling points spanning the  
545 growing season allowed us to investigate the comprehensive nature of rootstock influences on the scion.  
546 Further, this thorough analysis demonstrates that rootstock effects on scion phenotypes shift in magnitude

547 over the course of the season, indicating that aspects of time are tremendously influential to the observed  
548 results regardless of phenotype.

549 While the results of previous studies on grafted grapevine are worthy of comparison, the work  
550 presented here has a few limitations that render comparisons with other studies challenging for a variety  
551 of reasons. One novelty in our study is the exploration of a hybrid grapevine system, ‘Chambourcin’.  
552 ‘Chambourcin’ has a complex pedigree, including contributions from *Vitis riparia* and *V. rupestris*,  
553 species which are each parent to two of the rootstocks used in this study [64]. Many of the significant  
554 effects we observed in this study were subtle, which could reflect the genomic similarity between shoot  
555 and root systems. It might be expected that rootstocks derived from *V. riparia*, *V. rupestris* and other  
556 North American species might prompt more pronounced responses in European scions that lack North  
557 American *Vitis* in their pedigrees. Moreover, our results were derived from data collected in a single year  
558 at a single location. The phenotypes we measured are known to be heavily influenced by the environment,  
559 and we expect some inter-annual variation in rootstock influences on shoot system phenotypes. This study  
560 focused on a single scion, and as a result we are unable to explore how rootstock effects on shoot system  
561 phenotypes vary across scions. To our knowledge, this is among the largest populations to have been  
562 surveyed for such phenotypes in a near-decade-old established vineyard. While many studies have been  
563 conducted in green houses or recently planted vineyards, the juxtaposition of our results and those  
564 previously established serve as a powerful foundation for the generation of hypotheses for future studies.

565

#### 566 *Phenomic covariation warrants work toward latent phenotypes*

567 In the present study, we assess the extent of covariation among leaf phenotypes. For the primary  
568 dimensions of variation in each modality, within-modality correlations were strongest when accounting  
569 for phenological timing. Correlations also existed between modalities, suggesting room for the analysis of  
570 latent phenomic structure or targeted integrative analyses for experimental questions. For example,  
571 aspects of the metabolome were frequently correlated with the transcriptome and leaf shape when  
572 accounting for both phenological stage and rootstock genotype. Interestingly, correlations within and

573 between modalities were highly dynamic over a growing season and across rootstock genotype. For  
574 example, several correlations with leaf shape were present at veraison, but were not detected at anthesis  
575 and harvest. Moreover, the topology of connections in the ionomic network was variable over the  
576 rootstock genotype (Supplemental Figure 6). This variation in topology confirms that root system  
577 genotype has a strong influence on shoot system elemental composition, and suggests that root system  
578 genotype can alter correlative patterns in the ionome. We believe phenomic covariation warrants further  
579 investigation, specifically, by further including additional phenotypes such as lncRNA expression [65,66],  
580 epigenetics [67], and microbiomes [68,69] which could yield more mechanistic understandings of the  
581 influence of root systems on shoot systems and how plants interact with their environments through their  
582 root systems. These mechanistic understandings could be used to further understand and optimize  
583 consumer-facing traits such as fruit quality and yield. To date, much of the work constituting phenomics  
584 in grapevine has addressed how berries develop over the growing season, how cultivars differ from one  
585 another, and how the concept of terroir influences wine [51,52,55,70–72]. Despite data integration  
586 techniques becoming more popular, there are still many open questions as to what analytical methods are  
587 most appropriate and how to most effectively utilize them (reviewed for grapevine in [73,74]; reviewed  
588 broadly in [75,76]). Ongoing work attempts to integrate high-dimensional phenomic datasets generated  
589 within a single organ system (e.g., leaves); and future studies will expand this to explore phenomic  
590 covariation in and among organs, over time, and across space.

591

## 592 **Potential Implications**

593 Our work on the influence of root system genotype on shoot system phenotype has broad  
594 implications for a holistic understanding of how plants detect and respond to changing environmental  
595 conditions, and how this response is coordinated among different organ systems. Data presented here  
596 demonstrate that root systems that are genetically distinct from the scion exert influence on the scion,  
597 leading to statistically significant differences in scion phenotypes based on the identity of their root  
598 systems. This observation suggests that the above-ground phenotype results, at least in part, from below-

599 ground activity of the root system. Further, these data highlight the value of coordinated collection of  
600 different multi-dimensional phenotypes for comparative studies, and for describing whole-plant  
601 phenotypic shifts over seasons and in response to horticultural manipulations.

602         Beyond its use as an experimental model that is ideal for studying root/shoot interaction, grafting  
603 is an important horticultural technique that is used in over 70 major crops. In grapevines, grafting was  
604 developed primarily to combat the below-ground pest phylloxera, and grapevine rootstocks were selected  
605 initially based on their resistance to this pest. Results presented here indicate that beyond phylloxera  
606 resistance, grafting to genetically distinct rootstocks is a potential source of variation for the scion.  
607 Ongoing work explores how root system impacts on shoot system phenotypes vary across scion  
608 genotypes, and how the rootstock  $\times$  scion interaction changes over space. The long-term implications of  
609 this study are the potential honing of viticulture for future climates including the optimization of  
610 rootstock-scion combinations based in part on an understanding of how rootstock effects on scion  
611 phenotypes change over the course of the season. This work is relevant for breeding efforts, and may play  
612 a role in the optimization of quantitative phenotypes such as vigor, fruit quality, and yield that may be  
613 enhanced by, constrained by, or partially predicted from phenotypic variation elsewhere in the plant.

614

## 615 **Methods**

616

### 617 *Study Design*

618         Data were collected in 2017 from a split-plot experimental rootstock trial established in 2009 at  
619 the University of Missouri's Southwest Research Center near Mount Vernon, MO (37.074167 N;  
620 93.879167 W; Supplemental Figure 1). The rootstock trial includes the interspecific hybrid cultivar  
621 'Chambourcin' growing ungrafted (own-rooted) and grafted to three rootstocks: '1103P', '3309C', and  
622 'SO4' (Supplemental Figure 1D). Clonal replicates of each of the four rootstock-scion combinations were  
623 planted 72 times for a total of 288 vines planted in nine rows. Each row was treated with one of three  
624 irrigation treatments: full evapotranspiration replacement, partial (50%) evapotranspiration replacement

625 (reduced deficit irrigation; RDI), or no evapotranspiration replacement (Supplemental Figure 1A).  
626 However, rainfall in 2017 likely mitigated the applied irrigation treatment (see Supplemental Note 1).  
627 Vine position in the vineyard corresponded to time of sampling for some phenotypes (metabolomics, gene  
628 expression, and physiology), as samples were taken from one end of the vineyard to the other over the  
629 course of two to three hours. Because vineyard microclimates and sampling time may be associated with  
630 phenomic variation, we defined ‘block’ as a factor that captures this spatial and temporal variation  
631 inherent in sampling for those phenotypes. In the other phenotypes (ionomics and leaf shape), neither row  
632 nor block correlated with time, so ‘block’ was simply a spatial covariate. Unique rootstock-scion  
633 combinations were planted in cells of four adjacent replicated vines (Supplemental Figure 1A-B), with  
634 rows consisting of eight cells (32 vines/row). To our knowledge, a field-planted rootstock experimental  
635 vineyard of this size and age is rare. For some phenotypes (ionomics and leaf shape), it was possible to  
636 collect samples from all vines in the experimental vineyard (the 288-vine set; Supplemental Figure 1A-  
637 B). For other phenotypes (metabolomics, gene expression, and physiology), time and/or expense  
638 associated with the phenotyping process required that we reduce sampling to a nested set of 72 vines  
639 representing the middle two vines in each four-vine cell in the front half of the vineyard (the 72-vine set;  
640 Supplemental Figure 1B-C). All phenotypes were assayed at three phenological stages: anthesis (~80% of  
641 open flowers; 22 May 2017); veraison (~50% of berries had transitioned from green to red; 30 July 2017);  
642 and immediately prior to harvest (25 September 2017). At each phenological stage, effort was made to  
643 sample on days with full to partial sun and minimal precipitation.

644 This design was used to assess the following questions: 1) What is the influence of root system  
645 genotype on shoot system phenotype? 2) How do systems of plant phenotypes vary over the growing  
646 season and does rootstock genotype influence this variation? And 3) how do phenotypes covary within  
647 and between phenotyping modalities?

648



649 *Linear Models*

650 Linear models were fit to the 20 measured ion concentrations, the top 20 PCs of the leaf  
651 metabolome, the top 100 PCs of the leaf transcriptome, the top 20 PCs of leaf morphospace, and each  
652 measured physiological trait. Outliers were detected using the R function ‘anomalize’ (options:  
653  $\alpha=0.03$ ,  $\max\_anoms=0.1$ ). Each model was fit with fixed effect factors representing phenological  
654 stage (anthesis, veraison, or harvest), rootstock (Ungrafted, ‘1103P’, ‘3309C’, or ‘SO4’), leaf position  
655 (youngest, middle, or oldest; only used in leaf morphology and leaf ion concentration models), and all  
656 pairwise interactions of those terms. Both irrigation and block were included as fixed, non-interacting  
657 effects with the exceptions of physiology and metabolomics, for which we allowed the interaction of  
658 ‘Block’ as it correlates with the time of sampling, potentially capturing temporal variation. Row, an  
659 additional correlate for time and spatial variation, was included in place of a temporal block for the gene  
660 expression models after removal of the variation attributable to irrigation, a factor collinear with row. All  
661 linear models were interpreted using a type-3 sum of squares computation using the R package ‘car’ [77].  
662 Estimated p-values for each term in the models were corrected for multiple tests (within phenotype) using  
663 FDR correction as implemented by the R package ‘stats’ [78]. Results from the models are reported as the  
664 variation explained by a particular term in the model and the estimated p-value. When appropriate, post-  
665 hoc mean comparisons were computed using the package ‘emmeans’ [79]. Where multiple linear models  
666 were being simultaneously interpreted, we applied a Bonferonni correction to reduce the number of false  
667 positives.

668

669 *Machine Learning to Identify Rootstock Effects*

670 For visualization of between-class variation, we fit linear discriminant analysis models (LDA) to  
671 each modality (ionomics, metabolomics, gene expression, and leaf morphology) using the ‘lda’ function  
672 of the R package ‘MASS’ [80]. Projections of all samples into the LD space were plotted using ggplot2  
673 [81]. In addition, we employed machine learning to capture subtle experimental effects. We partitioned  
674 data from each modality into 80% training partitions and 20% testing partitions. Models were fit to

675 predict the phenological stage from which a sample was taken, the rootstock to which the scion was  
676 grafted, and the joint prediction of phenology and rootstock. We also tested the predictability of leaf  
677 position for ionomics and leaf shape, and the interaction of rootstock and leaf position for ionomics. We  
678 used the ‘randomForest’ [82] implementation of the random forest algorithm. Models were fit and tuned  
679 using the R package ‘caret’ [83]. Each performance was assessed using accuracy, with performance on  
680 each class being assessed using the balanced accuracy, the midpoint of class-wise sensitivity and  
681 specificity. Where appropriate, models were compared to ‘chance’, or the occurrence frequency of each  
682 class. Confusion matrices were visualized from the out-of-bag predictions using ‘ggplot2’. Important  
683 features were identified from the randomForest object based on a phenotype-specific mean decrease in  
684 model accuracy (MDA).

685

#### 686 *Phenomic trait covariation*

687 We extracted ionomics, metabolomics, gene expression, and leaf shape data for the youngest  
688 available leaf from the 72-vine set. Each data modality was summarized along the primary dimensions of  
689 variation using PCA. For each class, we extracted the top 10 PCs and fit Pearson’s correlations across all  
690 pairs of PCs at each phenological stage. P-values from computed correlations were corrected using the  
691 FDR method from the package ‘stats’ [84]. Correlations and their strengths were visualized using the R  
692 package ‘igraph’ [85]. Example correlations were reported after running 10,000 bootstrapped subsamples  
693 of 90% of data for paired phenotypes. From the distribution of estimated correlation coefficients,  
694 confidence intervals were computed from the 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles. A subset of example correlations  
695 were plotted using the R package ‘ggplot2’.

#### 696 **Availability of Code:**

697 All code to replicate the findings of this paper including shell scripts for RNAseq analysis and Jupyter  
698 Notebooks for data analysis in R can be found on the Vitis Underground GitHub:

699 Project name: mt\_vernon\_2017\_leaf

700 Project home page: [https://github.com/PGRP1546869/mt\\_vernon\\_2017\\_leaf](https://github.com/PGRP1546869/mt_vernon_2017_leaf)

701 Operating system(s): Platform independent  
702 Programming language: R and Shell  
703 Other requirements: R requirements are listed in the Jupyter Notebooks. Shell requirements: trimmomatic  
704 v0.36, bbmap (Feb. 11, 2019), STAR v2.7.1a, htseq-count v0.11.2.

705 License: GNU GPL 3.0

706 Any restrictions to use by non-academics: None

707

#### 708 **Data Availability:**

709 Raw metabolomics data are available at MetaboLights, accession MTBLS2831. Gene expression data are  
710 available in the Sequence Read Archive under BioProject PRJNA674915. All other data supporting this  
711 manuscript including ionomics, partially processed metabolomics, leaf scans, leaf landmarks, physiology  
712 and weather data are available from figshare [86-90]. Other data further supporting this work are openly  
713 available in the *GigaScience* repository, GigaDB [91]

#### 714 **Declarations**

#### 715 **Abbreviations:**

716 LC-MS: Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectroscopy; MS: Mass Spectroscopy; PCA: Principal  
717 Components Analysis; PC: Principal Component; DPI: Dots per Inch; GPA: Generalized Procrustes  
718 Analysis; PAM: Pulse Amplitude Modulated; MDA: Mean Decrease in Accuracy; rt: Retention Time;  
719 m/z: Mass to charge ratio; LDA: Linear Discriminant Analysis; LD: Linear Discriminant; DGE:  
720 Differential Gene Expression; p<sub>adj</sub>: Adjusted p-value; iPCA: ionomics PCA; mPCA: metabolomics PCA;  
721 gPCA, gene expression PCA; sPCA: shape (morphology) PCA; CI: Confidence Interval; lncRNA: long  
722 non-coding RNA; RDI: Reduced Deficit Irrigation

#### 723 **Competing Interests:**

724 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### 725 **Funding:**

726 This work was funded by the National Science Foundation Plant Genome Research Project 1546869, PI:  
727 Allison J Miller.

728

729 **Author Contributions:**

730 AJM, DHC, AF, LGK, MK, JPL, and QM designed the experiment. ZNH, LLK, MA, JFS, ZM, NB, EF,  
731 and JPL contributed to sample collection and sample processing. ZNH, LLK, JFS, and MA contributed to  
732 data analysis. ZNH and AJM contributed to the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed to  
733 manuscript editing.

734

735 **Acknowledgments:**

736 We thank members of the Miller Lab at Saint Louis University and the Donald Danforth Plant Science  
737 Center, members of the Kovacs Lab at Missouri State University, members of the Kwasniewski Lab at the  
738 University of Missouri, and members Londo Lab at the USDA-ARS Grape Research Unit for vineyard  
739 sampling and sample processing. We express special thanks to Matthew Rubin and Elizabeth Kellogg at  
740 the Donald Danforth Plant Science Center for valuable comments on the manuscript. Finally, we thank  
741 the reviewers of this manuscript whose comments have led to clearer and more complete manuscript.

742

743 **Figure Legends:**

744 Figure 1: The ionome shows strong signal from rootstock genotype, leaf position, and phenological stage  
745 (A) Percent variation captured in linear models fit to each of 20 ions measured in the ionomics pipeline.  
746 Presence of a cell indicates the model term (top) was significant (FDR;  $p_{adj} < 0.05$ ) for that ion (left).  
747 (B) Example ions shown to vary significantly by the interaction of leaf position (Y=Youngest,  
748 M=Middle, O=Oldest) and phenological stage in parts per million. Boxes are bound by 25th and 75th  
749 percentile with whiskers extending 1.5 IQR from the box. Significant changes are indicated by letters  
750 above boxes, and are only meant for comparison within each phenological stage. Group means are  
751 displayed with black squares. (C) Example ions shown to vary significantly by the interaction of

752 rootstock genotype and phenological stage in parts per million. Significant changes are indicated by  
753 letters above boxes, and are only meant for comparison within each phenological stage. Boxes are bound  
754 by 25th and 75th percentile with whiskers extending 1.5 IQR from the box. Group means are displayed  
755 with black squares. **(D)** Standardized heatmap for out-of-bag (OOB) predictions by a random forest  
756 trained to predict rootstock genotype, **(E)** the interaction between rootstock genotype by phenology, and  
757 **(F)** the interaction between rootstock genotype and leaf position.

758

759 Figure 2: The metabolome is influenced by rootstock genotype, phenological stage, and time of sampling.

760 **(A)** Percent variation captured in linear models fit to each of the top 20 principal components of the  
761 metabolome (661 measured metabolites). Presence of a cell indicates the model term (top) was significant  
762 for that PC (left, percent variation explained by the PC in parentheses). **(B)** The distribution of projections  
763 onto PC17, the strongest captured rootstock effect in the metabolome. Boxes are bound by the 25th and  
764 75th percentiles with whiskers extending 1.5 IQR from the box. **(C)** Projections of all samples into the  
765 first two dimensions of a linear discriminant space trained to maximize variation between rootstock  
766 genotypes.

767

768 Figure 3: Gene expression primarily responds to time of season and circadian correlates

769 **(A)** Heatmap showing 500 genes with the highest variance following the filtering of lowly expressed  
770 genes and gene-by-gene variance stabilizing transformations (VST) ordered by example model factors  
771 (below). **(B)** Percent variation captured in linear models fit to the top 100 Principal Components of the  
772 VST-transformed gene-expression space. Presence of a cell indicates the model term (top) was significant  
773 for that PC (left, percent variation explained by the PC in parentheses). **(C)** Projections of all samples into  
774 the first two principal component dimensions to show that the largest descriptors of variation are due to  
775 phenology. **(D)** Projections of all samples into the first two dimensions of the linear discriminant space  
776 trained to maximize variation between the rows of the vineyard, and **(E)** rootstock genotype.

777

778 Figure 4: Leaf shape variation is primarily determined by shoot position but changes over the season  
779 **(A)** Representative shapes showing leaf variation (-3 sd, mean, +3 sd) captured in each of the top 4  
780 principal components of the Generalized Procrustes Analysis-rotated leaf shapes. **(B)** Projections of all  
781 leaves into the first two dimensions of principal component space colored by the strongest determinant of  
782 variation in the top two PCs. **(C)** Projections of all leaves into the first two dimensions of a linear  
783 discriminant space trained to maximize variation between phenological stages. **(D)** Variation in leaf shape  
784 captured on PC2 shown by leaf position and phenological stage. Large points represent the mean of the  
785 group when projected onto PC2. Bars surrounding the mean show one standard deviation. Variation in  
786 each group is shown as a composite leaf trace scaled to a standard size and centered over the mean.  
787

788 Figure 5: Vine physiology varies with rootstock and the rootstock by phenology interaction  
789 **(A)** Percent variation explained by model terms (top) from linear models fit to each of four physiology  
790 traits (left). **(B)** Variation in leaf transpiration rate for each rootstock genotype over the course of the  
791 season. Boxes are bound by the 25th and 75th percentiles with whiskers extending 1.5 IQR from the box.  
792 Significant changes are indicated by letters above boxes, and are only meant for comparison within each  
793 phenological stage. Group means are displayed with black squares. **(C)** Variation in stomatal conductance  
794 for each rootstock genotype over the course of the season. Boxes are bound by the 25th and 75th  
795 percentiles with whiskers extending 1.5 IQR from the box. Group means are displayed with black  
796 squares. Significant changes are indicated by letters above boxes, and are only meant for comparison  
797 within each phenological stage.

798  
799 Figure 6: Phenomic covariation varies over the course of the season  
800 Correlation networks showing patterns of covariation within and between phenotyping modalities. Nodes  
801 of the network are connected if they are significantly correlated (Pearson, FDR;  $p_{adj} < 0.05$ ). Edge  
802 thickness is proportional to the strength of correlation (multiplied by 16 for visibility). Edge color reflects  
803 the direction of the correlation where blue edges indicate positive correlations and orange edges indicate

804 negative correlations. Modalities are indicated by a leading character and node color: ionomics (iPCs;  
805 purple), metabolomics (mPCs; pink), gene expression (gPCs; yellow), leaf shape (sPCs; green). Network  
806 topologies are shown for **(A)** anthesis, **(B)** veraison, and **(C)** harvest.

807

### 808 **Figure Supplement Legends:**

809 Supplemental Figure 1: Experimental Design

810 **(A)** Vineyard Map. The vineyard features a randomized block design where ‘Chambourcin’ is grown  
811 ungrafted and grafted to three rootstock genotypes: ‘1103P’, ‘3309C’, and ‘SO4’. Each row is treated  
812 with one of three irrigation treatments: full replacement of ET, reduced-deficit, no replacement of ET.  
813 Each cell of the vineyard contains four replicate grafts. **(B)** Phenotype sampling scheme across the four  
814 replicates in a cell. For example, the top panel (purple) shows all four vines in the first cell of Row 8 in  
815 Block D. From each vine in that cell, ionomics and leaf shape were sampled. In contrast, the lower panel  
816 shows the first cell in Row 8 in Block A. Here, the first and fourth replicates were sampled for ionomics  
817 and leaf shape while the second and third replicates were sampled for all phenotypes. All vines (288)  
818 were sampled for ionomics and leaf shape. The middle two vines in the front half of the vineyard (72  
819 ) were additionally sampled for metabolomics, gene expression, and physiology. **(C)** Phenotype sample  
820 scheme within a vine (along a shoot). For each plant, young leaves were sampled for ionomics, leaf  
821 shape, and gene expression. Middle leaves were sampled for ionomics, leaf shape, metabolomics, and  
822 physiology. Older leaves were sampled for ionomics and leaf shape. Samples for ionomics and leaf shape  
823 were taken from the same shoot. All other phenotypes were sampled from independent shoots. **(D)**  
824 Rootstock relatedness. Each of the rootstocks in this trial shares a parent species with a different  
825 rootstock. ‘1103P’ is a cross between *Vitis rupestris* and *V. berlandieri*. ‘3309C’ is a cross between *V.*  
826 *rupestris* and *V. riparia*. ‘SO4’ is a cross between *V. riparia* and *V. berlandieri*. The parent that is shared  
827 between each pair of rootstocks is highlighted. This figure is partially reproduced from [19] available  
828 under a Creative Common license (CC BY 4.0).

829

830 Supplemental Figure 2: Quality and validity assessment of 3' RNAseq data. **(A)** A survey of recently  
831 annotated circadian clock orthologs from the grapevine genome annotation [44]. Orthologs surveyed  
832 included the morning-phased RVE1 and LHY, evening-phased LUX and ELF4, and the night-phased  
833 TOC1 **(B)** A survey of genes with housekeeping domains related to IPR000626 (ubiquitin) and  
834 IPR004000 (actin).

835  
836 Supplemental Figure 3: Patterns of ion covariation change over experimental treatments  
837 Correlation networks showing patterns of ion covariation across phenological stages and shoot position.  
838 Nodes of the network are connected if they are significantly correlated (Pearson, FDR;  $p_{adj} < 0.05$ ).  
839 Edge thickness is proportional to the strength of correlation (multiplied by 16 for visibility). Edge color  
840 reflects the direction of the correlation where blue edges indicate positive correlations and orange edges  
841 indicate negative correlations.

842  
843 Supplemental Figure 4: Patterns of variation contributing to gene expression linear discriminants  
844 **(A)** Projections of leaf gene expression samples into the first two dimensions of a linear discriminant  
845 space trained to maximize variation between phenological stages, rows in the vineyard, and rootstock  
846 genotype. For each LD, the PCs that loaded significantly ( $>1.96$  sd from the mean loading) are listed in  
847 order of loading magnitude. **(B)** Distribution of the top loading PCs onto LD1 and LD2 for each of the  
848 trained models.

849  
850 Supplemental Figure 5: Patterns of variation in leaf shape are subtle  
851 **(A)** Percent variation captured in linear models fit to each of the top 20 principal components of leaf  
852 morphology. Presence of a cell indicates the model term (top) was significant for that PC (left, percent  
853 variation explained by the PC in parentheses). **(B)** Composite leaf traces for the main rootstock genotype  
854 effect identified on PC1.

855



856 Supplemental Figure 6: Example correlations within and between phenotyping modalities over the course  
857 of the season

858 (A) Example correlation showing a strong within-modality correlation between the ionomics gPC1 and  
859 gPC2 at anthesis. Pearson correlations by phenological stage and CIs derived from 10000 random 90%  
860 draws are shown for each panel. Generally speaking, CIs overlapping with 0 were not accepted as  
861 significant. (B) Example correlation showing one of the stronger between-modality correlations between  
862 the gene expression gPC4 and morphology (shape) sPC3 at veraison. (C) Example correlation of a  
863 relationship that is present multiple times over the course of the season between metabolomics mPC3 and  
864 gene expression gPC6 at both veraison and harvest. (D) Example correlation that is dynamic over the  
865 course of the growing season between the ionomics mPC3 and mPC6.

866

867 Supplemental Figure 7: Phenomic covariation varies over rootstock genotype

868 Correlation networks showing patterns of covariation within and between phenotyping modalities. Nodes  
869 of the network are connected if they are significantly correlated (Pearson, FDR;  $p_{adj} < 0.05$ ). Edge  
870 thickness is proportional to the strength of correlation (multiplied by 16 for visibility). Edge color reflects  
871 the direction of the correlation where blue edges indicate positive correlations and orange edges indicate  
872 negative correlations. Modalities are indicated by a leading character and node color: ionomics (iPCs;  
873 purple), metabolomics (mPCs; pink), gene expression (gPCs; yellow), leaf shape (sPCs; green). Network  
874 topologies are shown for (A) Ungrafted, (B) '1103P'-grafted vines, (C) '3309C'-grafted vines, and (D)  
875 'SO4'-grafted vines.

876

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Figure 1

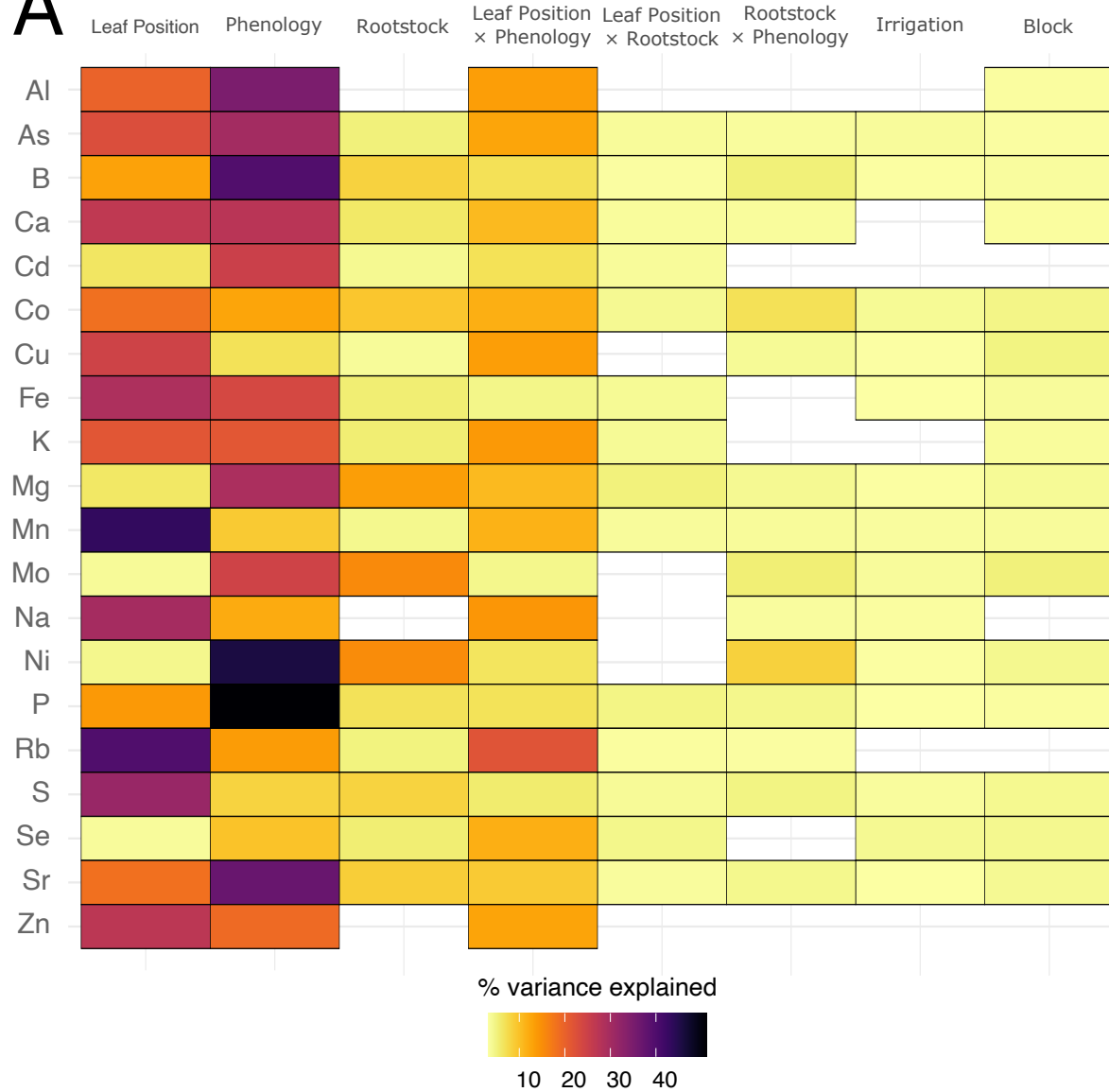
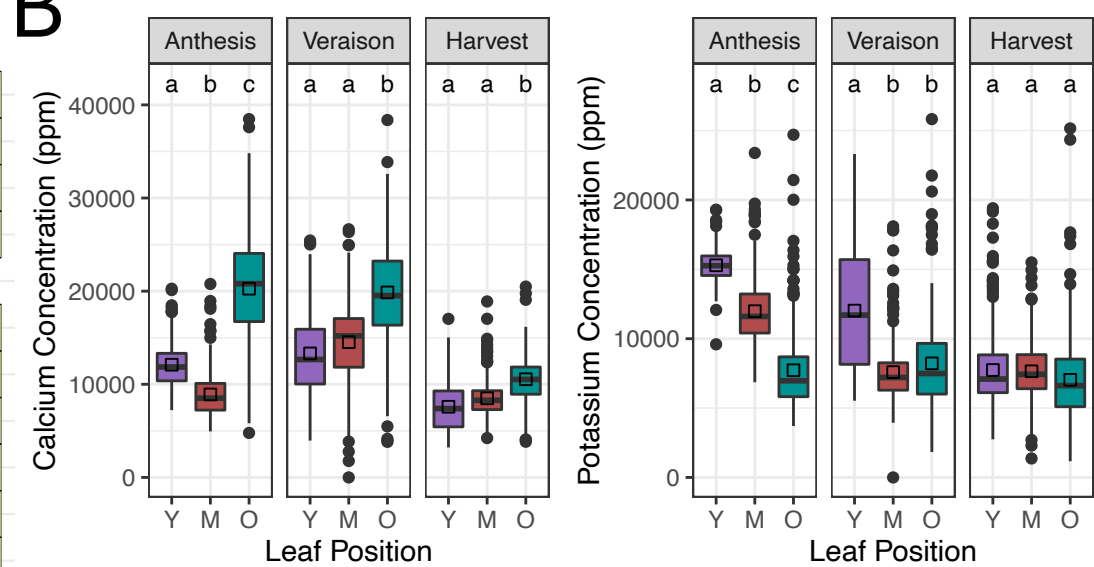
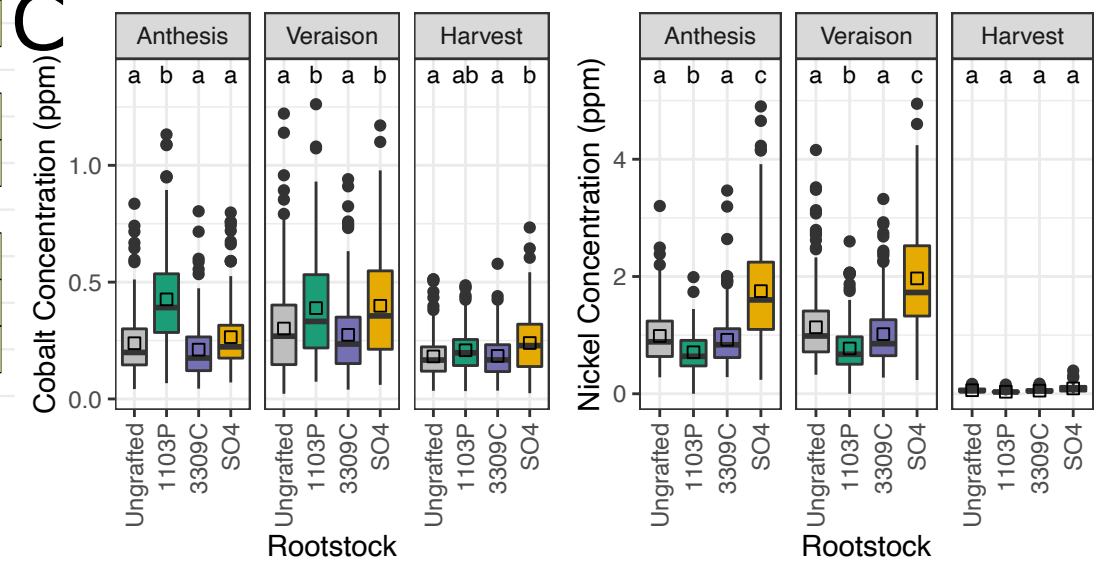
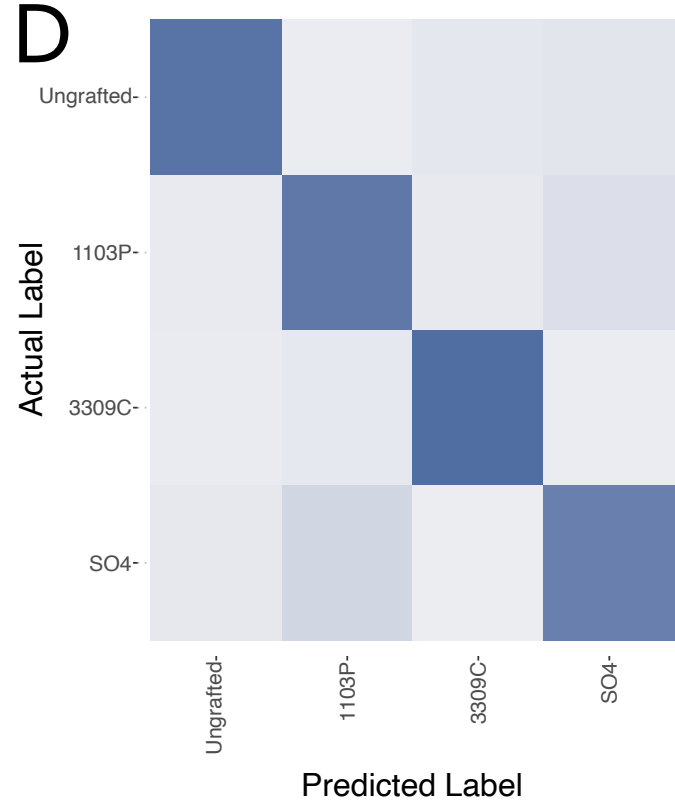
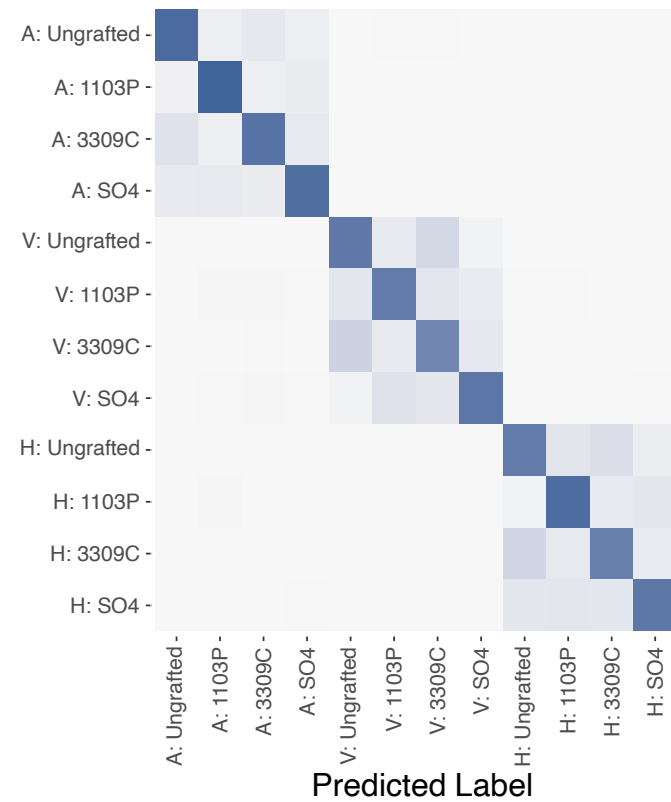
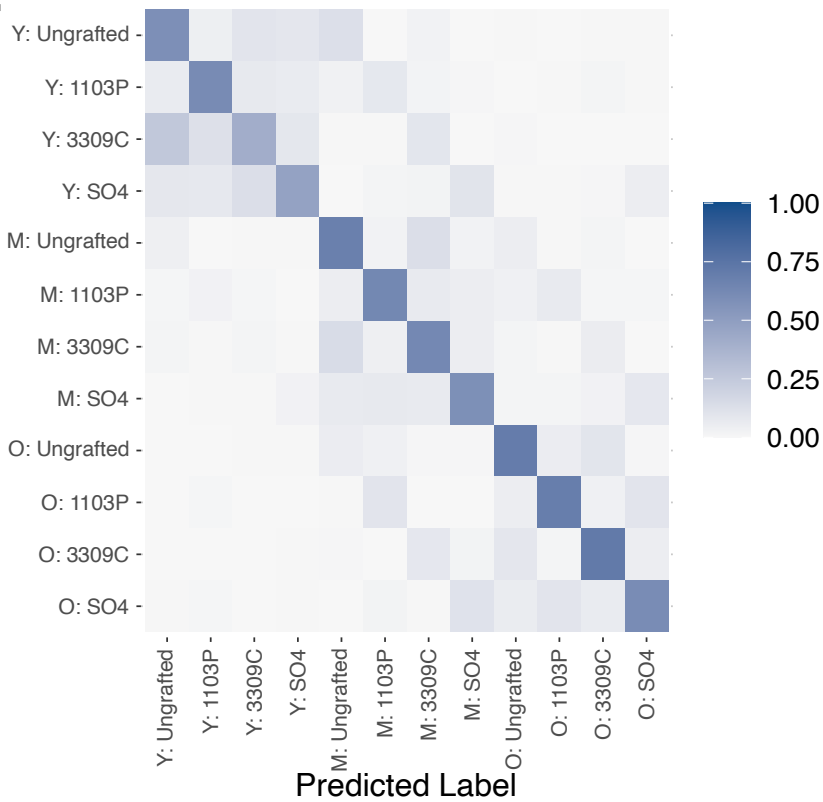
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Figure 2

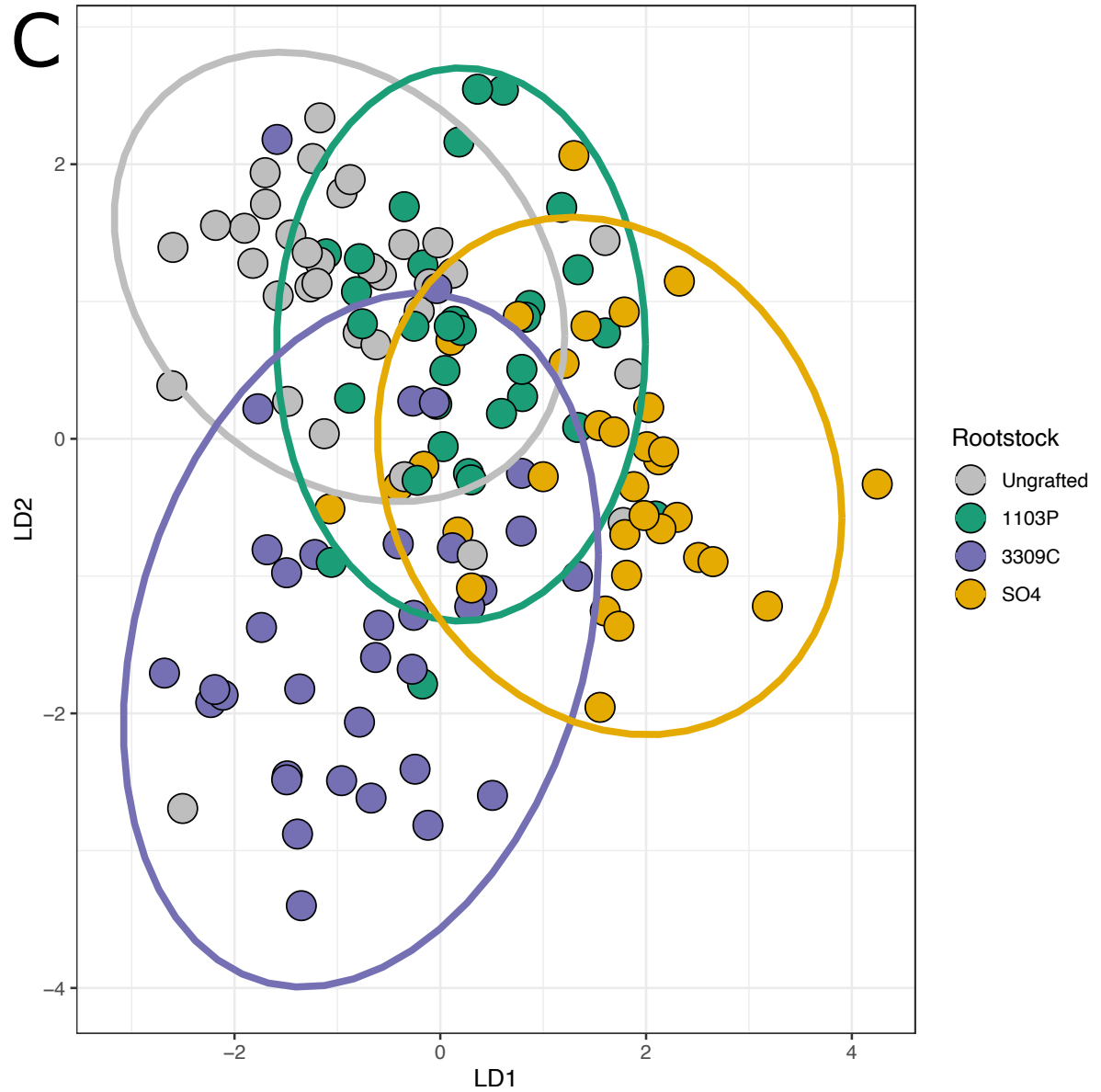
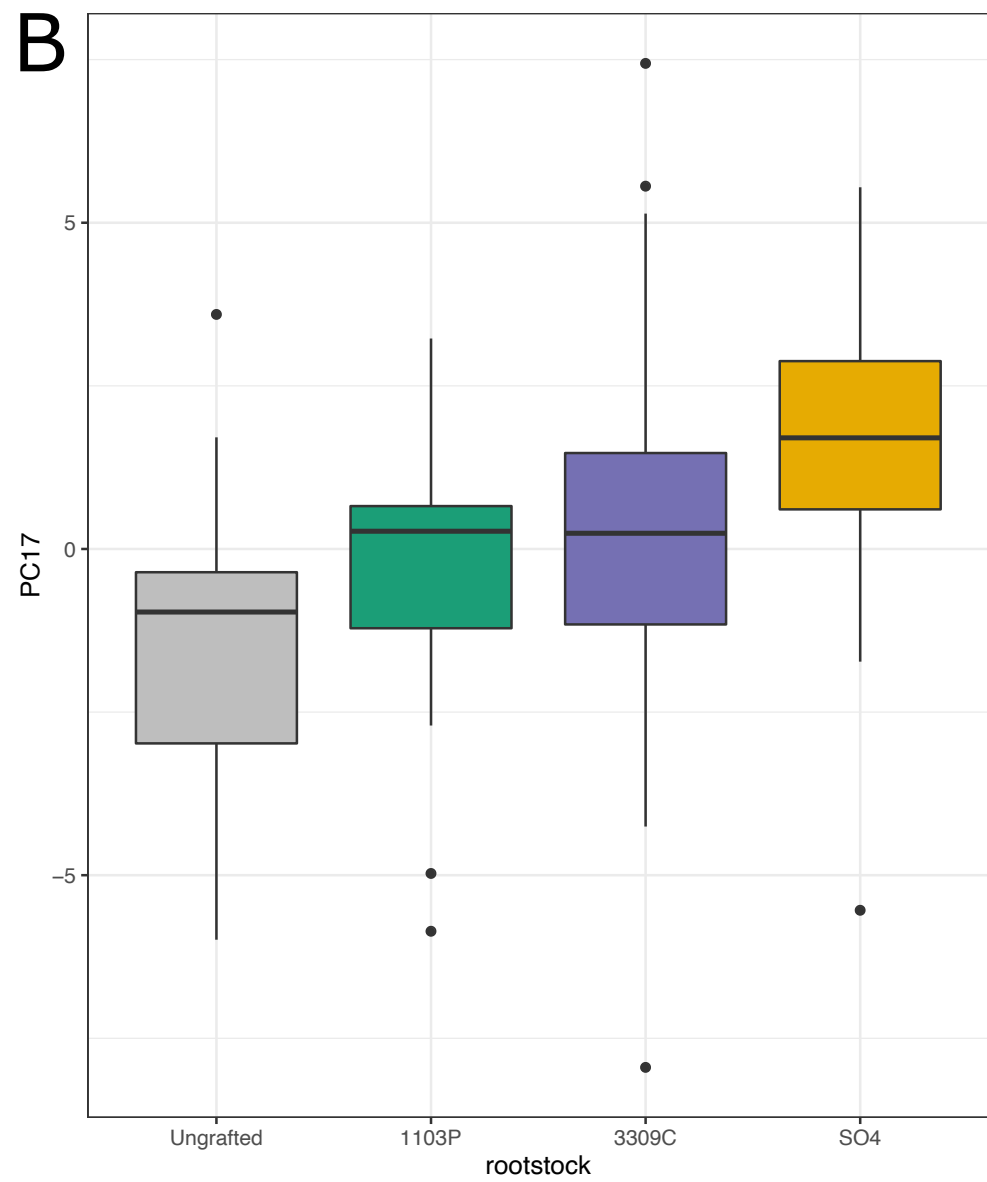
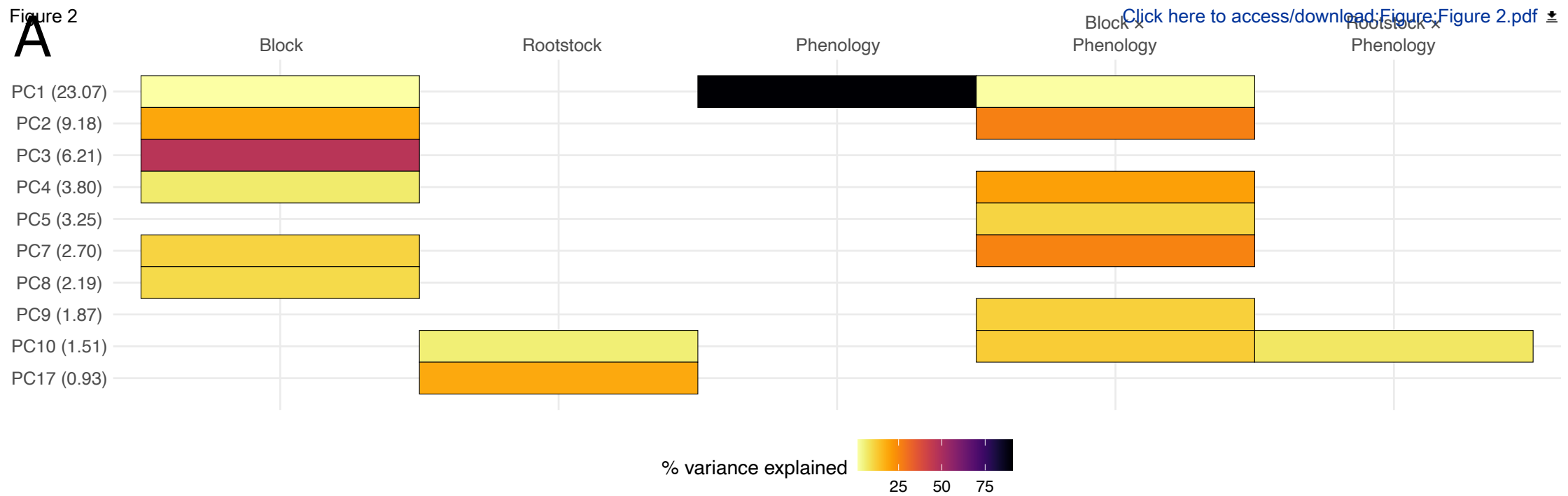


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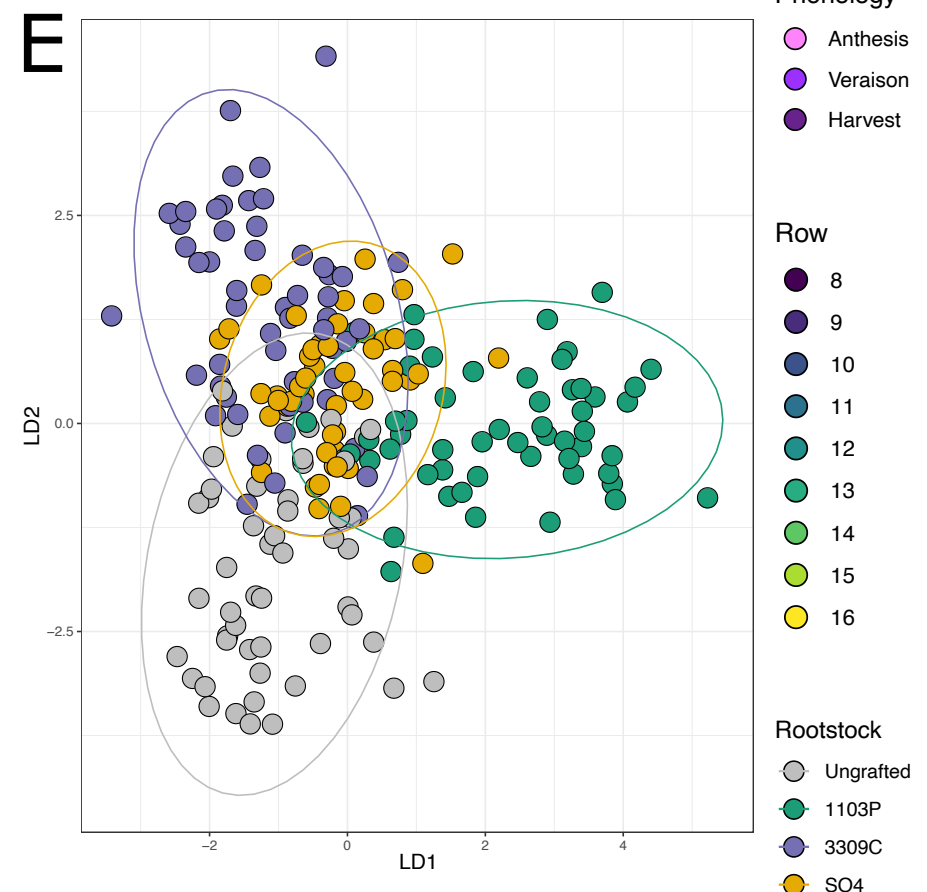
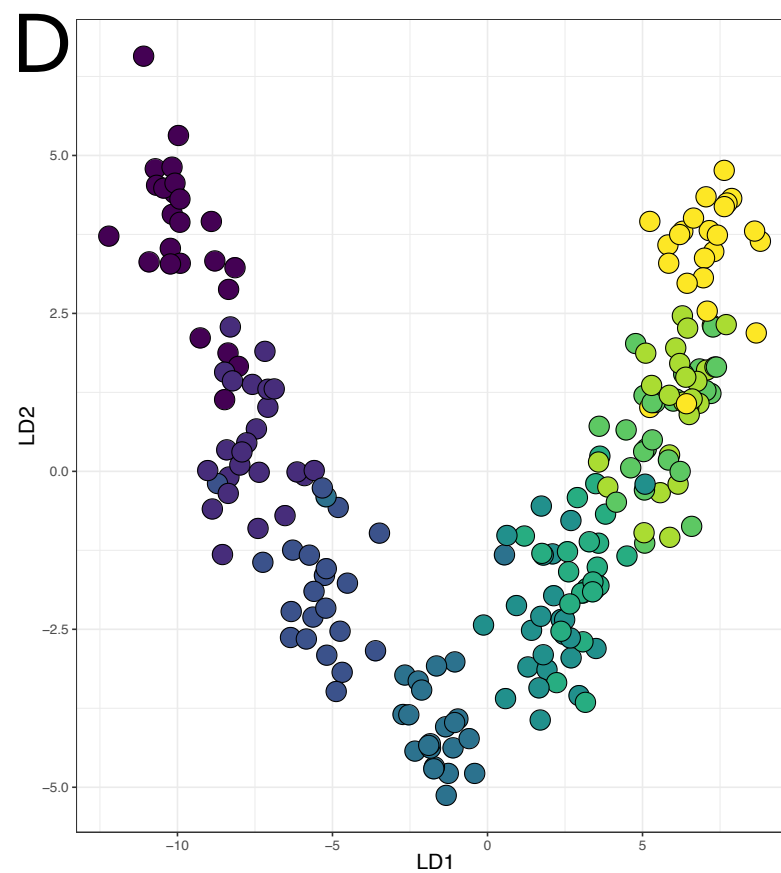
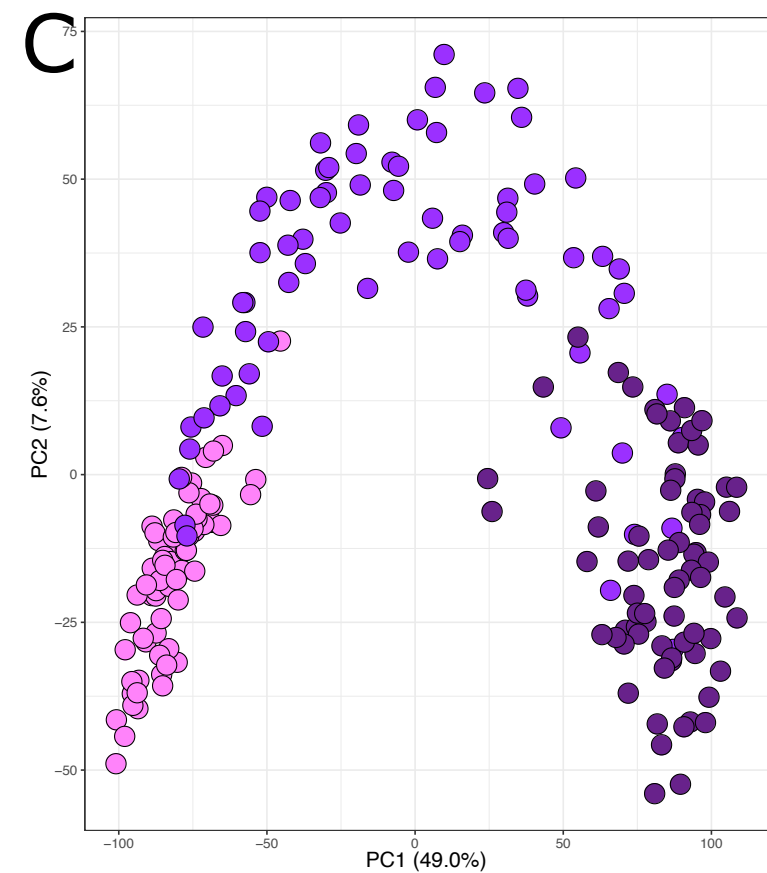
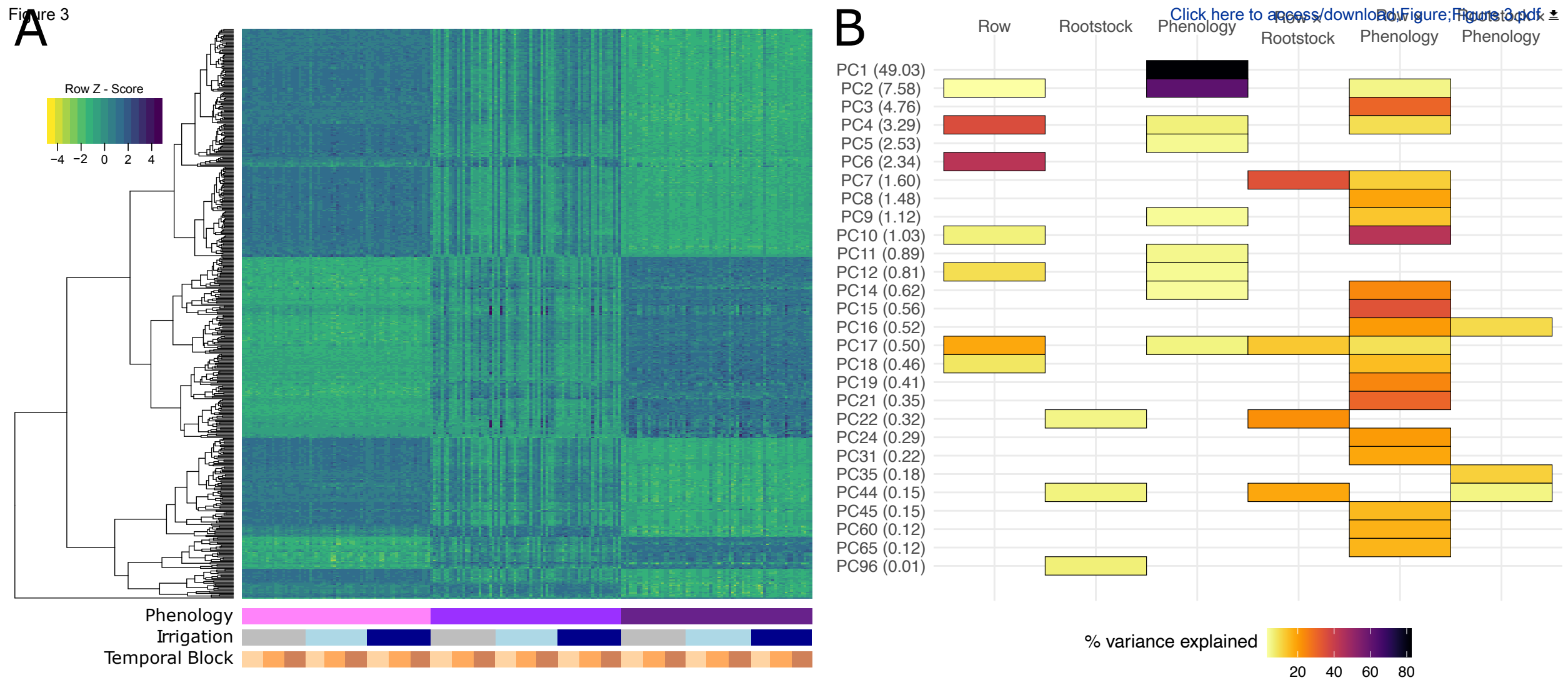
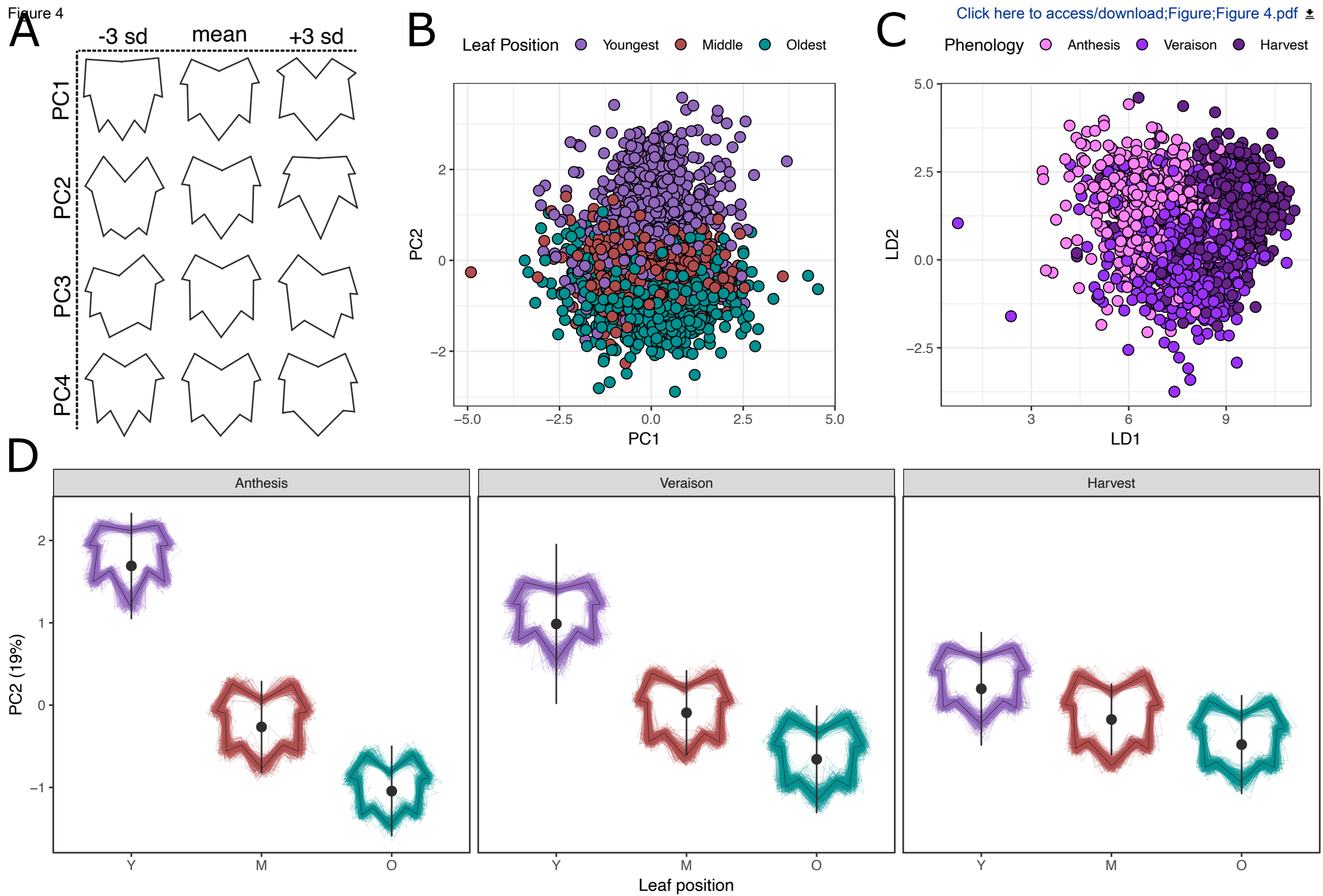


Figure 4



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Figure 5

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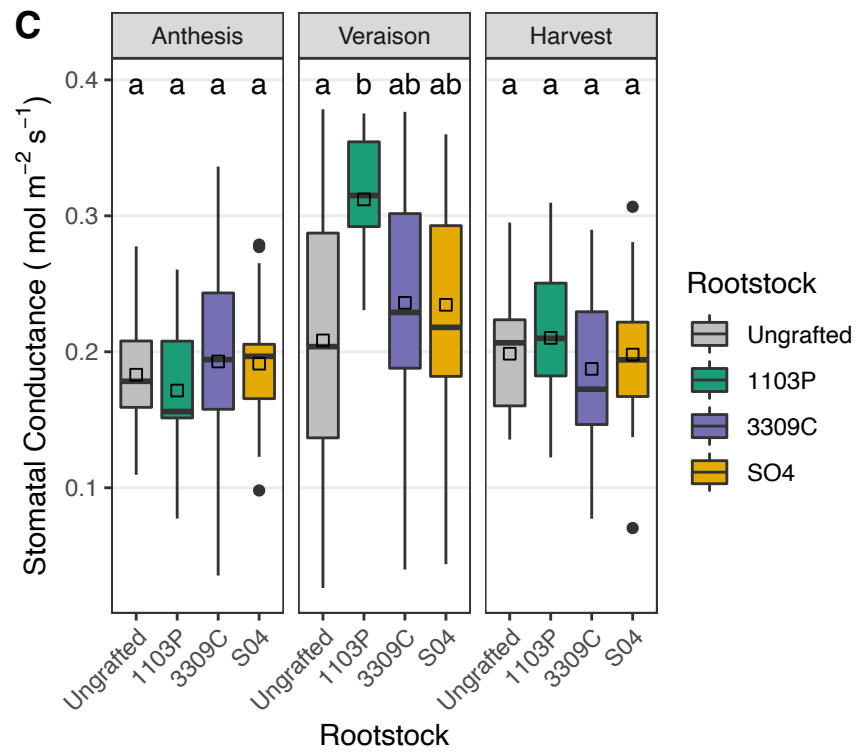
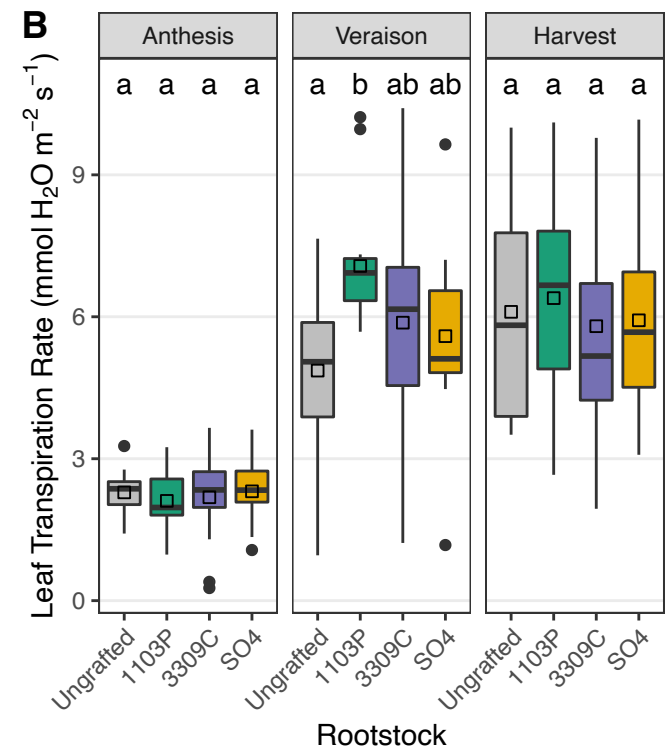
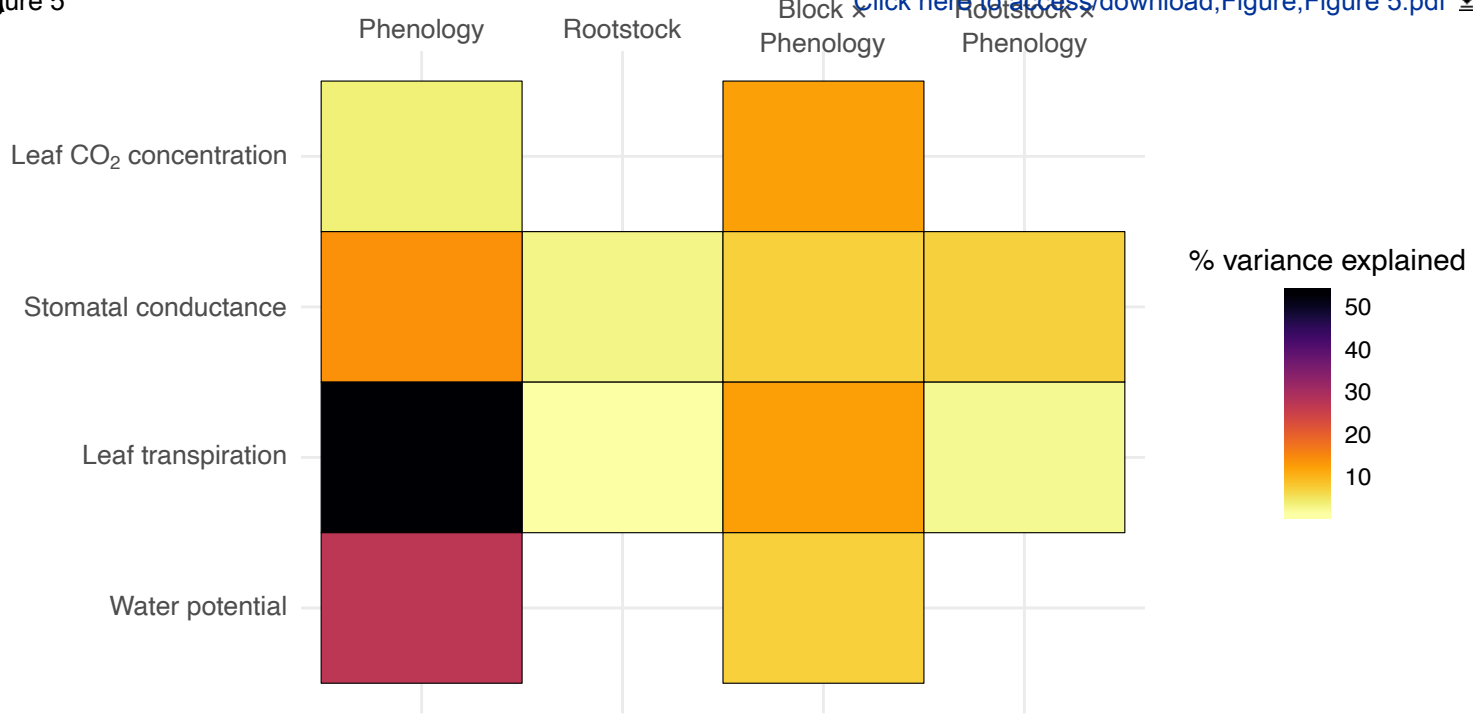
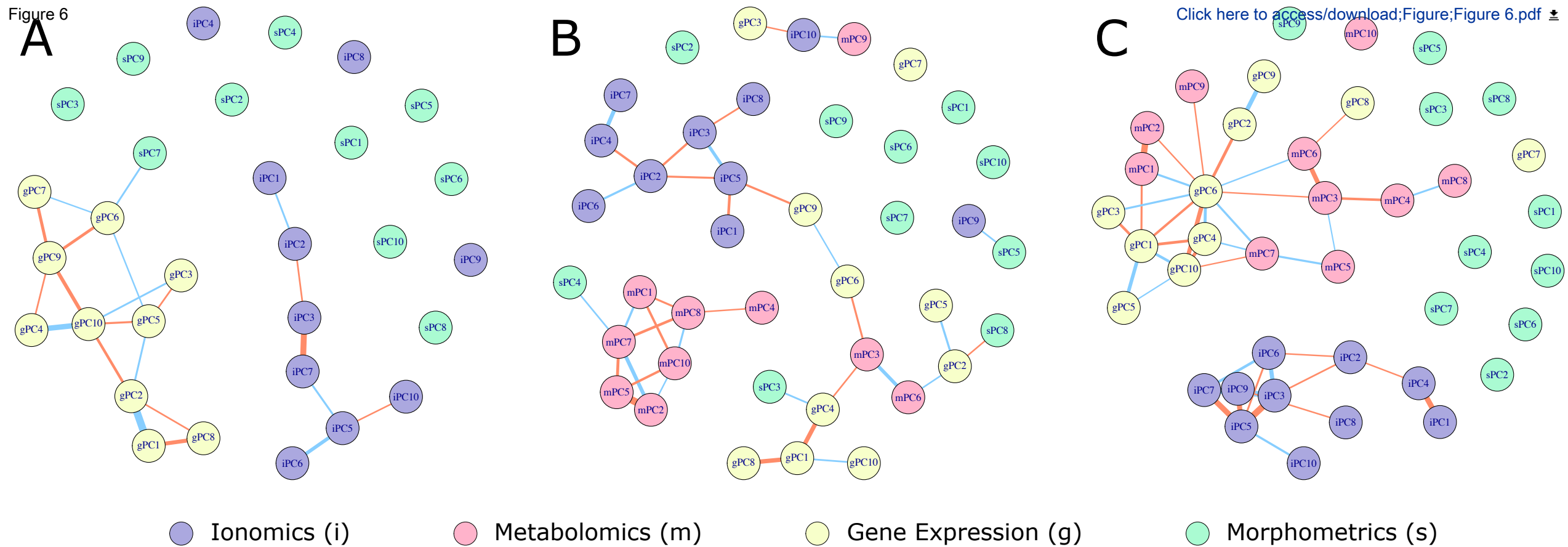
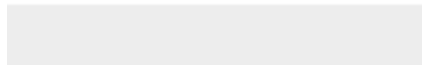


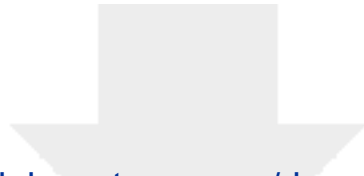
Figure 6





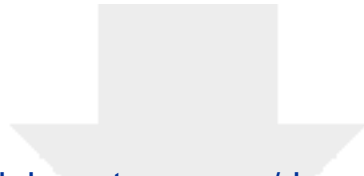
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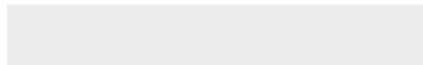


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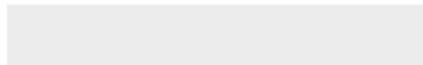
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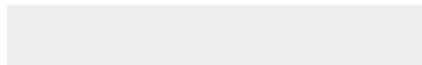


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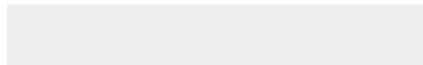


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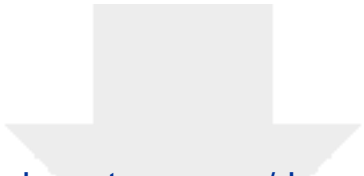
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Dr. Nicole Nogoy,

We are happy to submit the revised version of our manuscript (GIGA-D-21-00137R2) with the suggested formatting revisions. To the best of our knowledge, we have addressed the requests of the editor and reviewers. If we missed anything by accident, please let us know and we will respond promptly to meet the journal and reviewer requirements. Thank you for your patience and support through this submission process, we are grateful for the guidance.

In this revision, we have addressed the following:

1. We have added information into the Code Availability Section so that it now meets the required format.
2. All figshare links were added to the references. Additionally, the GigaDB citation was added to the references. These are all referenced in the Availability of Data section. We also lightly edited the Availability of Data Section to be less redundant.
3. Abbreviations, Competing Interests, and Funding information has all been added/moved to the appropriate sections.

As the analysis scripts that we provided are very specific to the data at hand and are not a standalone software package, we have not sought registration with bio.tools or SciCrunch. If this is a misunderstanding on our part and needs to be completed, please let us know.

We look forward to hearing back.

Best,

Zachary N. Harris and Allison J Miller