Latent developmental and evolutionary shapes

embedded within the grapevine leaf

Daniel H. Chitwood[1,4], Laura L. Klein[2], Regan O'Hanlon[2],

Steven Chacko[2], Matthew Greg[2], Cassandra Kitchen[2],

Allison J. Miller[2], Jason P. Londo[3]

[1]Donald Danforth Plant Science Center, St. Louis, MO 63132 USA

[2]Department of Biology, Saint Louis University, St. Louis, MO 63103 USA

[3]United States Department of Agriculture, Agriculture Research Service, Grape

Genetics Research Unit, Geneva, NY 14456 USA

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[4]To whom correspondence should be addressed

Daniel H. Chitwood

Donald Danforth Plant Science Center

975 North Warson Road

St. Louis, MO 63132

Phone: (314) 587-1609

Fax: (314) 587-1709

e-mail: dchitwood @ danforthcenter.org

Summary

•Across plants, leaves exhibit profound diversity in shape. As a single leaf expands,

its shape is in constant flux. Plants may also produce leaves with different shapes at

successive nodes. Additionally, leaf shape varies among individuals, populations,

and species due to evolutionary processes and environmental influences.

•Because leaf shape can vary in many different ways, theoretically the effects of

distinct developmental and evolutionary processes are separable, even within the

shape of a single leaf. Here, we measure the shapes of >3,200 leaves

representing >270 vines from wild relatives of domesticated grape (*Vitis* spp.) to

determine if leaf shapes attributable to genetics and development are separable

from each other.

•We isolate latent shapes (multivariate signatures that vary independently from

each other) embedded within the overall shape of leaves that can predict

developmental stages independent from species identity and vice versa. Shapes

predictive of development are then used to stage leaves from 1,200 varieties of

domesticated grape (*Vitis vinifera*), revealing that changes in timing underlie leaf

shape diversity.

•Our results indicate distinct latent shapes combine to produce a composite

morphology in leaves, and that developmental and evolutionary contributions to

shape vary independently from each other.

Introduction

Leaf morphology represents a beautiful and tangible example of the infinite phenotypic possibilities in nature. Underlying leaf shape diversity is a quantitative genetic (Langlade *et al.*, 2005; Kimura *et al.*, 2008; Tian *et al.*, 2011; Chitwood *et al.*, 2013) and developmental genetic (Bharathan *et al.*, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2003; Blein *et al.*, 2008) framework. It is possible that aspects of leaf shape are functionally neutral and reflect developmental constraint (Chitwood *et al.*, 2012a; 2012b), but numerous hypotheses about the function of different leaf shapes exist, including how shape impacts thermal regulation, hydraulic constraints, light interception, biomechanics, and herbivory (Parkhurst and Loucks, 1972; Nicotra *et al.*, 2011; Ogburn and Edwards, 2013). Fossil leaf size and dissection are correlated with the paleoclimate (Bailey and Sinnott, 1915; Wolfe, 1971; Greenwood, 1992; Wilf *et al.*, 1998), a relationship that persists in extant taxa (Peppe *et al.*, 2011), and with implications for the chemical, structural, and physiological economics of leaves (Wright *et al.*, 2004). Correspondingly, functional traits related to leaf shape display phylogenetic signal in some clades (Cornwell *et al.*, 2014). Understanding the spatial and temporal patterns of leaf shape variation is a central theme in studies focusing on plant biodiversity, impacts of global climate change, and agricultural efficiency.

Leaf shape varies not only across evolutionary timescales and within a functional ecological context, but during development as well. Two distinct temporal processes regulate leaf shape during development. 1) The shape of individual leaves is in constant flux as local regions within the leaf expand at different rates. This phenomenon, allometric expansion, was explored as early as Hales' *Vegetable Staticks* (1727). Using a grid of pins, regularly spaced puncture points in fig leaves were tracked to determine if their relative spacing changed during development. The same experiment can be microscopically studied using fluorescent particles today (Remmler and Rolland-Lagan, 2012; Rolland-Lagan *et al.*, 2014). 2) The leaves that emerge at successive nodes differ in their shape, as the shoot apical meristem from which they derive transitions from a juvenile to adult stage of development. This process, heteroblasty, can affect other features of leaves besides shape, such as

cuticle and trichome patterning (Goebel, 1900; Ashby, 1948; Poethig, 1990;

Kerstetter and Poethig, 1998; Poethig, 2010).

The developmental stage of a leaf and the position of the node from which it arises

(leaf number) are distinct temporal factors affecting leaf shape. Genetic changes in

the timing of either process (e.g., protracted development of individual leaves or

precociously adult leaf morphology in early nodes) between species can lead to

evolutionary differences in leaf shape, a process known as heterochrony. The timing

of these processes can be changed non-genetically as well, through responses to

environmental changes during the lifetime of a plant, known as plasticity (Allsopp,

1954; Diggle, 2002). Distinguishing effects of developmental stage from leaf number

provides mechanistic insights into how genetic changes during evolution or plastic

changes in response to the environment are achieved (Jones, 1993; 1995). For

example, recent work has linked molecular pathways regulating the timing of shape

changes throughout the shoot (miR156/172 and their targets) with leaf morphology

(CUC-induced serrations) through a mediator (TCPs) (Rubio-Somoza *et al.*, 2014).

If distinct molecular pathways affect different traits within the infinite features

defining the architecture of a leaf, then the outline and venation topology of leaves

should theoretically be decomposable into latent (hidden) shapes; i.e., multivariate

morphological signatures that vary independently from each other (Chitwood and

Topp, 2015). For example, shape differences defining species, as well as shape

differences defining developmental stage, may be detectable within each leaf and

subsequently isolated from each other. Shape differences that define species,

regardless of developmental context, may vary distinctly from those features that

define developmental context, regardless of species. These shapes are latent

because, while they are present in each leaf, they manifest within the context of

other factors that affect shape as well. Latent shapes globally affect leaf shape in

different ways, and each of the features comprising the latent shapes alone do not

necessarily discriminate the effects of genetics or development. From this

perspective, the shape of a given leaf—from any species, from any time point during

development or any position in the plant—would result from the confluence of

latent shapes regulated by these processes. The single organ that we call a leaf

would actually be a composite of latent features that vary by genetic versus

developmental effects, independently from each other.

Grapevine (*Vitis* spp.) leaves exhibit a breathtaking range of variation in leaf shape,

making this genus ideally suited to explore latent shapes resulting from

evolutionary and developmental processes (**Fig. 1**). Taxonomists studying *Vitis* have

used variation in leaf lobing and leaf margins to delimit the nearly 60 species in the

genus (Moore, 1991; Ren and Wen, 2007). Leaf shape is also important in assessing

intraspecific variation in the European grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* subsp. *vinifera*),

which is grown around the world for wine-making and table grapes. Unique among

crops, variation in grape leaf shape (together with other vine features) was once,

and is still today, used by viticulturists to quantitatively classify grape varieties, a

field known as ampelography (αμπελος, "vine" and γραφος, 'writing') (Galet, 1952).

Grape leaves have several homologous points amenable to landmark-based analyses

(Galet, 1979; Chitwood *et al.*, 2014), increasing the biological interpretation of

morphometric data compared to species with stochastic venation topologies or

limited homology (such as *Arabidopsis*, tomato, *Antirrhinum*, etc.). Like Hales' grid of

pins (1727), naturally homologous points in grape leaves allow developmental stage

and leaf number effects to be quantitatively tracked, potentially revealing separable

latent processes contributing to the composite morphology known as a leaf.

Methods and Methods

Germplasm, sample collection, and scanning

Over 270 vines in the USDA *Vitis* germplasm collection in Geneva, NY were sampled

in June, 2013. Using an automatic label maker, vine identification number and the

identity of organs (or lack thereof) at each node, beginning with the first sampled

leaf at the tip, were recorded in the field. Leaves, beginning with the first leaf at the

tip that could be flattened and scanned (~1 cm in length), were collected in order,

shoot tip to base, as a stack and placed into a Ziploc bag to which the label was

affixed. A single shoot was collected per vine, and bags were placed into a cooler

until scanning. A description of the number of vines (genotypes) collected for each

species and hybrid, as well as the number of leaves representing different

developmental stages (Sn) and leaf numbers (Ln) can be found in supporting

information (**Fig. S1**).

Leaves were arranged on a scanner (Mustek A3 1200S), in the collected order from

the shoot, and next to each leaf was placed a small label indicating nodes (as

measured by developmental stage) and organ identity opposite the node ("C",

cluster; "T", tendril; "N", no organ). The abaxial side of leaves was imaged. The file

name of the image indicates the vine ID, and the appended letter indicates which

image in the series the file represents for each vine. The raw scans are publically

available at the following link:

https://dataverse.harvard.edu/dataverse/vitis_leaves

Landmarking

For both wild *Vitis* species and reanalyzed *V. vinifera* subsp. *vinifera* data, 17

landmarks were placed, in order, for each leaf using the ImageJ (Abramoff *et al.*,

2004) point tool. Landmarks and their order were as follows: 1) petiolar junction, 2)

midvein tip, 3) left distal sinus, 4) right distal sinus, 5) left distal lobe tip, 6) right

distal lobe tip, 7) left proximal sinus, 8) right proximal sinus, 9) left proximal lobe

tip, 10) right proximal lobe tip, 11) left terminus petiolar vein, 12) right terminus

petiolar vein, 13) branch point midvein, 14) branch point left distal vein, 15) branch

point right distal vein, 16) branch point left proximal vein, 17) branch point right

proximal vein. Using ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009) in R (R Core Team, 2014), graphs for

landmarks from each image were visually checked for errors. If errors were

detected, the landmarking was redone for those particular samples.

Morphometric analysis and visualization

Once a quality landmarked dataset was created, a Generalized Procrustes Analysis

(GPA) was undertaken using the R package shapes (Dryden, 2013). For 17

landmarks in two dimensions (x,y coordinates) for 3,292 leaves of wild *Vitis* species

and 9,548 *V. vinifera* subsp. *vinifera* leaves, GPA was performed using the procGPA

function, reflect=TRUE. Separate Procrustes analyses were performed for 1) all wild

Vitis species leaves at all shoot positions and 2) *V. vinifera* subsp. *vinifera* and subsp.

sylvestris leaves and wild *Vitis* species leaves selected for the corresponding shoot

position as the domesticated grape dataset. Eigenleaves were visualized using the

shapepca function and PC scores, percent variance explained by each PC, and

Procrustes-adjusted coordinates were obtained from procGPA object values. To test

for correlation between PCs and developmental stage or leaf number, Spearman's

rho was calculated, whereas for variability of PC values across species a Kruskal-

Wallis test was used.

Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) on Procrustes-adjusted coordinates was

performed using the lda function from the MASS package (Venables and Ripley,

2002). Species, developmental stage, and leaf number were all analyzed

independent of each other. The predict function (stats package) and table function

(base package) were used (dependent on MASS) to reallocate leaves (whether by

species, developmental stage, or leaf number) using the linear discriminants. For the

case of predicting *V. vinifera* subsp. *vinifera* developmental stage and leaf number,

the wild *Vitis* species data was used as a training set to predict values for

domesticated grape leaves. For the wild *Vitis* species data, for each leaf there is

actual versus apparent species, developmental stage, and leaf number identities.

Relative developmental stage and relative leaf number are calculated as apparent

value – actual value. Mean relative developmental stage and relative leaf number

values for each vine were used to determine significant deviation of species relative

values from zero using a one sample, two tailed t-test. Correlation between relative

values and first tendril node was analyzed using Spearman's rho.

As previously described (Chitwood *et al.*, 2014), Germplasm Resources Information

Network (GRIN) trait values, averaged on a per accession basis, for *V. vinifera* subsp.

vinifera vines were correlated with each other and morphometric and predicted

temporal data using the rcorr function from Hmisc (Harell, 2013) using Spearman's

rho and false-discovery rate controlled using the Benjami-Hochberg procedure

(Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Hierarchical clustering for *V. vinifera* subsp.

vinifera traits, and for averaged Procrustes-adjusted coordinates for species

throughout the genus *Vitis*, was carried out using the hclust function on a distance

matrix calculated from correlation performed on complete, pairwise observations

and visualized using the as.phylo function from the package ape (Paradis *et al.*,

2004).

Visualization was performed in ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009) using geom_bar,

geom_boxplot, geom_point, geom_segment, geom_tile, and stat_smooth functions,

among others, and color schemes derived from colorbrewer2.org.

Results

Developmental stage versus leaf number

To determine the effects of developmental stage, leaf number, and evolutionary

lineage (taxonomic identity) on leaf shape we scanned >3,200 leaves from wild

relatives of domesticated grape held by the USDA germplasm repository in Geneva,

NY. Like many living collections of perennial crops, the Geneva repository houses

multiple genotypes of different *Vitis* species in common conditions. This extensive

collection includes wild-collected accessions of at least 19 North American and

Asian *Vitis* species as well as assorted *V. vinifera* hybrids. From the Geneva

repository we sampled >270 vines representing 12 *Vitis* species, 4 *V. vinifera*

hybrids, and 3 species from the related genus *Ampelopsis.* Each sampled vine

represents a unique genetic accession. The number of vines sampled for each

species varied widely (**Fig. S1**), but in this study we focus on 10 species for which ≥5

accessions were sampled: *Vitis riparia* (71 vines), *V. labrusca* (40 vines), *V. cinerea*

(37 vines), *V. rupestris* (28 vines), *V. acerifolia* (16 vines), *V. amurensis* (16 vines), *V.*

vulpina (13 vines), *V. aestivalis* (8 vines), *V. coignetiae* (5 vines), and *Vitis palmata* (5

vines). All *Vitis* leaves possess a midvein, distal and proximal veins, a petiolar vein,

as well as proximal and distal lobes and sinuses, and wide variation in the width of

the petiolar sinus (**Fig. 1a**). We leverage these homologous points and others to

measure 17 landmarks in all leaves (**Table S1**). Later, we compare the leaves from

the wild relatives of grape described above to previously published data on 1,200

varieties of domesticated grape (Chitwood *et al.*, 2014), which we describe in

subsequent sections.

For each vine accession, a representative shoot was selected and the shoot position

of each leaf recorded (**Fig. 1b-c**). Developmental stage is measured by counting

from the youngest, first measureable leaf at the shoot tip. The time between

successively initiated leaves is a plastochron, and the youngest initiated leaf

primordium at the shoot apical meristem is denoted P1 (plastochron 1) to indicate

this. But because we begin not with P1 (which is microns in size) but with the first

measureable leaf (~1 cm in size), we use S1 (for "stage") to denote the youngest

measured leaf at the shoot tip counting numerically upwards (S2 . . . Sn) towards the

shoot base. Contrastingly, leaf number begins with the first initiated leaf (L1) found

at the shoot base and counts numerically upward (L2 . . . Ln) towards the shoot tip

(**Fig. 1c**). These two metrics are used to differentiate the effects of developmental

stage (Sn) from leaf number (Ln) (**Fig. 1c**).

The effects of developmental stage are expected to be strongest in young leaves at

the shoot tip (with low S numbers and high L numbers; **Fig. 1c**), as their shape is in

flux during their expansion. Older leaves at the shoot base (with low L numbers and

high S numbers) are more influenced by leaf number, because they reflect changes

in mature leaf shape at successive nodes. The vast majority of the vines we sampled

possess leaves corresponding to S1-S10 and L1-L10 (86% represent developmental

stages up to P10 and 88% represent leaf numbers up to L10, **Fig. S1**) and we restrict

our analyses to these positions (**Fig. 1c**).

Morphospace of leaves in the genus Vitis

Landmarks are aligned (accounting for translation, rotation, and scaling) using a

Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA). A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is

then performed to visualize the major sources of shape variance among leaves. The

first four PCs explain 73.2% of shape variance among leaves from *Vitis* species,

developmental stages, and leaf numbers (**Fig. 2**). More than half of the shape

variance, represented by PC1 and PC2, is influenced by lobing and the width of the

petiolar sinus. Low PC1 and high PC2 values readily distinguish highly dissected

Vitis species and some members of the related genus *Ampelopsis* (**Fig. 2b**).

In order to examine the variability of developmental stage and leaf number in

morphospace, we visualize each PC as a locally weighted scatterplot smoothing

(LOWESS) curve plotted against stage and leaf number. Developmental stage and

leaf number vary less by PC1 than by PC2 and PC3 (i.e., PC1 values are relatively

developmentally-invariant compared to PC2 and PC3 values) (**Fig. 2c-d**). PC2 and

PC3 values are largely indistinguishable between species across developmental

stages (**Fig. 2c**) and leaf number (**Fig. 2d**), suggesting strongly conserved

morphological features in developing leaves across species for these shape

attributes, particularly for early developmental stages (**Fig. 2c**). Because PCs are

orthogonal (i.e., uncorrelated), the fact that species, developmental stage, and leaf

number correlate differentially with PCs is suggestive that each might be

represented by independent shape attributes present within leaves. Re-visualizing

the morphospace by developmental stage (**Fig. 2e**) and leaf number (**Fig. 2f**)

demonstrates these factors mostly vary by PC2 and PC3, whereas species shape

differences traverse along morphospace paths defined by PC1, PC2, and PC3 (**Fig.**

2b).

To help qualitatively understand the different ways grape leaves differ among

species and developmental contexts, we compared average shapes (**Fig. 3**). Related

members of Moore's Series Ripariae (*V. acerifolia*, *V. riparia*, and *V. rupestris*)

(Moore, 1991; Miller *et al.*, 2013) are defined by a shallow petiolar sinus, especially

V. rupestris (**Fig. 3a**). Outside of the Ripariae, *V. vulpina* and *V. cinerea* also exhibit

shallow petiolar sinuses but to a lesser extent, while the petiolar sinus of the

remaining species (*V. aestivalis, V. labrusca, V. palmata, V. coignetiae, V. amurensis*) is

more acute. *Vitis palmata* exhibits especially deep distal lobing relative to other

species. Each species' leaves also vary by developmental stage (**Fig. 3b**) and leaf

number (**Fig. 3c**), usually by the length of the leaf tip and the shallowness of the

petiolar sinus. In the next section, we determine the extent that shape attributes

varying by species, developmental stage, and leaf number are separable from each

other.

Latent shapes independently predict species, developmental stage, and leaf number

We used a Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) to maximize the separation of leaf

attributes (whether species, developmental stage, or leaf number) from each other

using all measured shape information. The resulting linear discriminants can be

used to predict the apparent class of a leaf and are useful for comparing actual

versus apparent leaf identities as confusion matrices (**Fig. 4**).

Linear discriminants separating species, without regard to developmental stage or

leaf number, can be used to predict species identity (**Fig. 4a-c**). For most taxa, the

largest proportion of predicted leaves corresponds to the taxonomic identity

assigned to that species (**Fig. 4b**, the diagonal indicates the proportion of correctly

assigned leaves). Incorrectly assigned leaves are most often confused for other

species that are phylogenetically related to the assigned species. For example, a

majority of *V. acerifolia* leaves are confused for its close relative *V. riparia*; similarly,

the largest group of *V. aestivalis* leaves are confused for its relative *V. labrusca*. In

contrast, the Asian *V. coigenetiae* leaves are confused for more distant relatives

native to North America, including *V. labrusca* and *V. cinerea* and sometimes even *V.*

riparia, perhaps indicating convergent evolution, germplasm misidentification, or

segregating leaf shape differences among these accessions. Interestingly*, Vitis*

x*andersonii,* described as a hybrid of *V. coignetiae* and either *V. vulpina* or *V. riparia*,

is strongly mistaken for *V. riparia*, providing circumstantial evidence of parentage.

As has been suggested by ampelographers and taxonomists (Moore, 1991; Galet,

1952), our results demonstrate that leaf shape is often sufficient to identify species,

even in the absence of developmental information. Instances where leaves of one

species are assigned to another offer a valuable opportunity to develop hypotheses

about phylogenetic history, hybridization, and convergent evolution that can be

tested with additional evolutionary and ecological analyses.

Reciprocally, we wondered whether developmental stage and leaf number,

regardless of species identity, might be similarly informative about developmental

context. Indeed, linear discriminants trained on developmental stage or leaf number

can predict the developmental context of a leaf for either measure (**Fig. 4d-4i**).

Developmental stage can be predicted with a Spearman's correlation coefficient of

rho = 0.70 (**Fig. 4d**), and leaf number with rho = 0.61 (**Fig. 4g**). Prediction of both

developmental stage and leaf number is more accurate at the beginning of their

respective series, where the effects of each are anticipated to be the strongest (**Fig.**

1c). Based on these observations we conclude that developmental context,

measured by either developmental stage or leaf number, can be predicted

independently of genotypic information. These results suggest that the effects of

development on leaf shape are conserved across genotypes and species, and have

implications for isolating distinct molecular pathways that affect leaf shape over

evolutionary versus developmental time scales.

The ability to predict developmental context separate from species identity provides

a method to quantify differences between species attributable to changes in

developmental timing, also known as heterochrony. For each leaf, we calculate

relative developmental stage and relative leaf number as the apparent value minus

the actual value (e.g., an S5 leaf predicted to be S7 would have a relative stage value

of +S2, and an L4 leaf predicted to be L2 would have a relative value of –L2).

Relative values indicate, for a given leaf, how many nodes ahead or behind

(developmentally speaking) that leaf appears to be. Averaging the relative

developmental stage and leaf number values for each vine, we can detect species

that are precociously ahead or lagging behind from expected developmental stage

(**Fig. 4e**) and leaf number values (**Fig. 4h**). For example, the mean relative

developmental stage of *V. rupestris* vines is about +1S ahead of their actual

developmental stage (**Fig. 4e**) and about -2L behind actual leaf number (**Fig. 4h**).

This accelerated development (Sn) and protracted display of juvenile leaf types

typically found at the base of the shoot (Ln) contributes towards the unique shape of

V. rupestris leaves compared to other *Vitis* spp. (**Fig. 3**). *Vitis rupestris* leaves (**Fig.**

3a), older leaves (high Sn values, **Fig. 3b**), and juvenile leaves (low Ln values, **Fig. 3c**)

all share a characteristic wideness conferred by a diminished leaf tip.

Within *Vitis*, the identity of inflorescences, which appear opposite leaves, transform

from clusters at the shoot base to tendrils at the shoot tip (Srinivasan and Mullins,

1981; Gerrath, 1988; Gerrath, 1993; Boss and Thomas, 2002) (**Fig. 1c**). Both

changes in leaf shape at successive nodes and the transformation of inflorescence

identity indicate temporal changes in the development of the shoot apical meristem,

known as heteroblasty. The cluster-to-tendril transformation serves as a discrete,

binary indication of the heteroblastic transition. If heteroblasty regulates both the

latent shapes predicting leaf number and the cluster-to-tendril transition, we would

assume they would be correlated. Indeed, there is a significant negative correlation

between relative leaf number and the first node a tendril is observed: that is, in

vines with precocious, adult leaves (i.e., higher relative leaf numbers, typical of

leaves found more towards the shoot tip), tendrils appear at earlier nodes closer to

the base of the shoot, linking two different measures of premature heteroblastic

change (**Fig. 4i**). Moreover, this correlation is not observed for relative

developmental stage (**Fig. 4f**). Taken together, these results indicate that latent

shapes predictive of developmental stage and leaf number are functionally distinct,

reflecting the developmental progression of leaves (Sn) and their heteroblastic

transitions across successive nodes of the shoot (Ln) separately.

Average leaf shapes indicate that developmental stage and leaf number vary by the

prominence of the leaf tip and the shallowness of the petiolar sinus (**Fig. 4j-l**). The

shape changes for these two factors are inversely related, but obviously

distinguishable from each other, given their differential correlation with tendril

position (**Fig. 4f**, **4i**). Upon closer inspection, the distal lobe tips and the branch

point of the petiolar vein distinguish shape changes attributable to developmental

stage and leaf number (**Fig. 4l**), isolating the shape attributes unique to these

functionally distinct processes.

Morphological differences between domesticated grape and wild relatives

Previously, we measured >9,500 leaves from *V. vinifera* subsp. *vinifera*

(domesticated grape) and its wild progenitor *V. vinifera* subsp. *sylvestris*. These

leaves, collected from the USDA germplasm repository in Winters, CA, represent

over 2,300 vines and 1,200 varieties (Chitwood *et al.*, 2014). These leaves were

sampled to measure purely genetic effects and minimize the influence of

development by collecting four successive leaves from the midpoint of the shoot.

That species identity can be predicted independently from developmental context in

wild *Vitis* spp. (**Fig. 4a-c**) with disparate leaf shapes lends credence to the

assumption that developmental context can be ignored, which is almost always

invoked when mapping traits for quantitative genetic purposes or taxonomically

defining species.

We wanted to compare leaves from domesticated grape and its wild progenitor to

the other *Vitis* species described above. To do so, we restricted our analysis *in silico*

to leaves at the same shoot positions we had originally collected in domesticated

grape (the four leaves closest to the midpoint of the shoot). In the combined

morphospace, PC1 and PC2 describe nearly 60% of shape variance (**Fig. 5**). Similar

to the wild *Vitis* species-only morphospace (**Fig. 2a**), lobing and the petiolar sinus

define the first PCs. Petiolar veins in domesticated grape varieties can be so angled

they cross each other, and because of this the closure of the petiolar sinus

represented by high PC1 values is particularly strong (**Fig. 5a**). Leaf dissection

defined by high PC1 and high PC2 values clearly delineates less lobed wild *Vitis*

species from more acutely lobed domesticated grape varieties (**Fig. 5b**). Highly

dissected species such as *Ampelopsis acontifolia*, *V. piasezkii*, *V. thunbergii*, and *V.*

vinifera var. Ciotat form a distinct morphological grouping.

While there are clear patterns in leaf shape related to development and species

identity, correspondence between the morphospace of wild and domesticated *Vitis*

species and evolutionary relationships among *Vitis* species is complex. Some, but

not all, well-known phylogenetic relationships are reflected in leaf morphology.

(**Fig. 5c**) (Miller *et al.*, 2013; Zecca *et al.*, 2012). Notably, clustering averaged shapes

from different genotypes reveals that *V. vinifera* subsp. *vinifera* is morphologically

sister to *V. vinifera* subsp. *sylvestris*, the wild progenitor of the domesticated grape

(**Fig. 5c**, Group II) (Zecca *et al.*, 2012; Myles *et al.*, 2011). Also within Group II are

two Asian species, *V. amurensis* and *V. coignetiae*, which together with *V. vinifera*

subsp. *vinifera* and *V. vinifera* subsp. *sylvestris* represent members of a Eurasian

clade. Within Group III are found members of Series Ripariae (*V. acerifolia*, *V. riparia*,

V. rupestris). Leaf shapes of *Vitis* hybrids cluster based on parental lineages, with *V.*

x*champinii* and *V.* x*doaniana* clustering in Group III presumably because of their *V.*

rupestris and *V. acerifolia* heritages (respectively) and *V.* x*andersonii* and *V.* x*novae-*

angliae clustering closer with their *V. coignetiae* and *V. labrusca* parents

(respectively). These observations suggest similarities in leaf shape may reflect

recent evolutionary events, domestication, or contemporary interspecific gene flow.

At broader levels of phylogenetic scale, however, patterns of leaf shape similarity

do not appear to correspond with known evolutionary relationships. For example,

together with *V. vinifera* subsp. *vinifera*, *V. vinifera* subsp. *sylvestris*, and two Asian

species found Group II (discussed above) are other North American species (*V.*

labrusca, V. palmata), several hybrids, and *Ampelopsis brevipedunculata*, taxa that

are not known to be closely related to one another. A previously identified clade

based on molecular data (*V. aestivalis*, *V. cinerea*, *V. labrusca*, and *V. vulpina)* here is

divided between Groups II and III. Although *Vitis* is well known to be a monophyletic

genus (Wen *et al.*, 2007; 2013), based on leaf shape three species of *Ampelopsis*

cluster in three different groups, together with *Vitis* species. These data suggest that

while leaf shape may bear signatures of recent evolutionary events, leaf shape does

not appear to track with phylogeny at larger scales; distantly related species, even

from distinct genera, resemble each other in leaf shape through evolutionary

convergence.

Changes in developmental timing underlie morphological diversity in domesticated

grape leaves

Even though leaves from equivalent positions in the shoot clearly separate species

and varieties by genetic effects (**Fig. 5**), such effects may still be developmental in

nature, an example of heterochrony. If changes in the relative timing of

developmental stage (Sn) or leaf number (Ln) have occurred, they would contribute

to morphological differences between species, as described above for wild *Vitis* spp.

(**Fig. 4e, 4h**). The conserved latent shapes defining developmental stage and leaf

number in morphologically disparate *Vitis* species can be used predictively to detect

such changes in timing.

We used wild species leaves, from S1-S10 and L1-L10 (where developmental stage

and leaf number effects are the strongest, respectively) as a training set, to predict

the stage (Sn) and leaf number (Ln) values of domesticated grape leaves (**Fig. 6**).

When comparing leaf averages across predicted developmental stages (**Fig. 6a**) and

leaf numbers (**Fig. 6b**), it is apparent that variation in petiolar sinus depth is the

major predictor of developmental timing in domesticated grape leaves (**Fig. 6c**).

Variation in the petiolar sinus is a recurrent theme in morphology associated with

both developmental stage and leaf number (**Figs. 3b-c; 4j-l**). Indeed, the predicted

developmental stages and leaf numbers of domesticated grape leaves are

significantly correlated with PC1 and PC2 (**Fig. 6d-e, 6g-h**; **Table S2**), which

together explain near 60% of total shape variance for measured *Vitis* genotypes (**Fig.**

5a). From this, we conclude that latent shape attributes modulating developmental

stage and leaf number explain large amounts of shape variance in domesticated

grape, indicating changes in developmental timing (heterochrony) underlie the

morphological evolution of domesticated grape varieties.

The relationship of leaf shape and timing to other traits in domesticated grape

Previously, numerous other traits, from timing of bud burst and flowering to berry

ripening and titratable acids and sugar content, had been measured on the

domesticated grapevines described above (Chitwood *et al.*, 2014). We were curious

about the correlational context of overall leaf shape (represented by PCs) and

developmental timing (predicted developmental stage and leaf number) to these

other traits. One trait, "PETSINMALF 2009", is a qualitative, 0-8 rating of petiolar

sinus depth, and is tightly correlated to PC1, PC2, and predicted developmental

stage and leaf number, confirming that our quantitative measures reflect intuitive

perceptions of leaf shape. (**Fig. 6f, 6i-j**; **Table S2**). Leaf morphology traits, including

predicted developmental timing, are largely separate from bud burst and bloom

dates ("BUDBURST DATE", "BLOOMDATE", "LEAFDATE"), indicating that these

timing features are separate from the overall transition to reproductive

development in grapevine (**Fig. 6j**). Further, leaf shape is distinct from overall size

of leaves ("LEAF SIZE"), demonstrating that grape leaf shape is not merely a

developmental constraint correlated with overall size (i.e., allometry) (**Fig. 6j**). One

group of traits significantly correlated and clustering with leaf shape is hirsuteness,

both in leaves and the shoot ("LEAF HAIR", "SHOOT HAIR"), which we had observed

previously in domesticated grape (Chitwood *et al.*, 2014). Leaf hirsuteness varies by

both developmental stage, as trichomes become less dense as the leaf expands, and

also by leaf number. It is interesting to think about how thermoregulation, disease

resistance, or other trichome mediated functionality may vary as a developmental

constraint as developmental timing changed over the evolution and domestication

of grapevines.

Discussion

Many descriptions of complex traits, from faces to voices, and even the evolution of

cultural products, such as violins (Zhand *et al.*, 1997; Kuhn *et al.*, 2000; Claes *et al.*,

2014; Chitwood, 2014), potentially stand to benefit from isolating features uniquely

regulated by distinct pathways. Like a face, leaf shape is modulated in complicated

ways by genetics, development, and the environment. The latent shapes we describe

here, describing developmental stage and leaf number, embedded within the overall

shape of a leaf, and conserved across the genus *Vitis,* fit the definition of a

"cryptotype". Recently, we had suggested the term "cryptotype," borrowed from

linguistics (which uses both "phenotype" and "cryptotype" parallel to the biological

definitions) (Whorf, 1945), to describe latent, combinatorial features (e.g., 17

homologous landmarks) within a shared multivariate space that vary independently

from each other (Chitwood and Topp, 2015). Cryptotypes are not unreal or even

abstract; they are simply a set of features, that when combined, best discriminate

one biological process (e.g., evolutionary history) from others (e.g., developmental

stage). The shapes that arise through this combination of features are latent only

because they are not immediately recognizable when each of their component

landmarks is considered alone; the effects of genetics and development affect the

entirety of the leaf. The multivariate cryptotypes of genotype, developmental stage,

and leaf number stand in contrast to traditional univariate phenotypes, such as

height, biomass, or leaf length, width, or area.

Defining such combinative, latent shapes is critical to understand the mechanisms

by which morphological diversity manifests in plants. The unequal expansion of

leaves (allometry) and the different types of leaves displayed at nodes (resulting

from heteroblasty) have been studied for centuries (Hales, 1727; Goethe, 1817;

Goebel, 1900; Goethe (trans.), 1952), but the inability to distinguish the effects at a

morphological level, within the shared morphology of single leaves where these
processes act, has led to confusion. Early hypotheses that shade prolongs juvenility
through a heteroblastic mechanism were later refuted by carefully studying the
morphology of leaf primordia (Jones, 1995). Similar, the degree that changes in the
development of leaves or the heteroblastic series influences evolutionary changes—
and plasticity—remains an open question.
564
Recent studies have uncovered a transcriptomic basis underlying heteroblasty
(Efroni *et al.*, 2008), and similarly dramatic transitions to reproductive fates (Park *et*
al., 2012), within meristems. An understanding of molecular clocks, regulating
phase change through small RNAs (Chuck *et al.*, 2007; Wu *et al.*, 2009), and their
signals, such as sugar (Yang *et al.*, 2013; Yu *et al.*, 2013), has come into focus. Of the
many gene regulatory networks regulating leaf shape, specific pathways have been
identified mediating heteroblastic shape changes (Rubio-Somoza *et al.*, 2014).
Similar molecular descriptions of leaf development exist (Ichihashi *et al.*, 2014) and
the crosstalk between these two processes is large. Strangely, even though
molecular correlates of leaf development and heteroblasty have been uncovered, a
phenotypic basis for the morphological effects of temporal patterning remains
obscure, except in a qualitative sense.
577
Decomposing complex morphologies into latent shapes regulated by distinct
pathways is required to precisely describe the mechanisms that, together, produce
the composite shape of a single leaf. By isolating latent shapes that are regulated by
evolution and development, we can focus on those attributes of the leaf most
relevant for producing the diversity of leaf shapes observed in nature, and consider
the functional contributions of leaf morphology to assessments of biodiversity, plant
responses to global climate change, and the genetic improvement of crop species.
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835 **Figure Legends**
836
Figure 1: Morphological features defining the temporal development of *Vitis*

leaves. (a) All *Vitis* leaves possess distal (yellow), proximal (orange), and petiolar

(red) veins, as well as distal and proximal lobes and sinuses and a petiolar sinus. 17

homologous landmarks (black circles) were used in this study. Morphologically

diverse species are shown. (b) Leaf series, scaled by the length between distal lobe

tips, showing developmental stage and leaf number shape variance. (c) Unscaled *V.*

riparia leaves showing changes in size at the shoot tip and base. Developmental

stage (Sn) is measured starting from the shoot tip and leaf number is measured

from the shoot base (Ln). Inflorescences, opposite leaves, skipping every third node,

transform from clusters into tendrils from the shoot base to tip.

Figure 2: Morphospace of leaves in the genus *Vitis*. (a) "Eigenleaves" showing

leaf morphs represented by Principal Components (PCs) at -/+ 3 standard

deviations (s.d.) and shape variance explained by each. (b) Select species (indicated

by color) representing morphological diversity in the dataset projected onto the

morphospace. 95% confidence ellipses are drawn. (c and d) Locally Weighted

Scatterplot Smoothing (LOWESS) showing the relationship between PCs 1-3 and (c)

developmental stage and (d) leaf number. Phylogenetic relationships between

species are indicated by color. (e) Developmental stage and (f) leaf number

projected onto the morphospace.

Figure 3: Shapes represented among *Vitis* species, developmental stage, and

leaf number. (a) Outlines representing the average shape of each pairwise

comparison of species, indicated by magenta and green. Phylogenetic relationships

are indicated. (b and c) Comparison of average shapes across (b) developmental

stages and (c) leaf number for each species indicated by color.

Figure 4: Species, developmental stage, and leaf number can be predicted

independently of each other. (a) Confusion matrix resulting from prediction of

species identity using a Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA). The panel should be

read left to right: for each species indicated on the left, leaves appeared to be

derived from which apparent species (indicated on bottom)? Developmental stage

and leaf number were not considered in the prediction. (b) Same as (a), except the

apparent species assigned to each actual species have been converted into a

proportion. Proportion totals equal one adding left to right. (c) The proportion of

correctly assigned leaves for each species. (d) Similar to (a), actual developmental

stage (left) and apparent developmental stage (bottom), predicted without species

or leaf number information. (e) Relative developmental stage values (apparent –

actual developmental stage) averaged for vines from each species. Significant

deviations from 0 indicated by * ($p<0.05$), ** ($p<0.01$), and *** ($p<0.001$). (f)

Correlation between mean relative developmental stage of vines and first tendril

node. Fitted linear model is drawn. (g-i) same as (d-f) but for leaf number. Note the

significant correlation between first tendril node and relative leaf number (i) not

seen for developmental stage (f). (j and k) Latent shape attributes defining

developmental stage (j) and leaf number (k) indicated with average leaf shapes. (l)

Comparison of changes in latent shape attributes across developmental stage

(orange, outline S1; purple, arrow to S10) and leaf number (grey, outline L1; black,

arrow to L10). Note non-inverse relationship between developmental stage and leaf

number changes in the distal lobe tips and petiolar vein branch points (indicated).

Figure 5: Morphospace of wild *Vitis* species and domesticated grape. (a)

"Eigenleaves" showing leaf morphs represented by PCs at -/+ 3 s.d. and shape

variance explained by each. Lobing and petiolar sinus variation indicated. (b)

Comparison of wild *Vitis* species leaf shape (red, black) with *V. vinifera* subsp.

vinifera and *V. vinifera* subsp. *sylvestris* (green, dark green, respectively), and highly-

lobed species (blue). Strong shape variation in lobing and petiolar sinus depth

indicated. (c) Hierarchical clustering based on morphology. Phylogenetic groupings

indicated in light gray. Groups mentioned in text indicated with Roman numerals.

Figure 6: Evolution in developmental timing underlies leaf shape diversity in

domesticated grape. (a and b) Latent shape attributes defining developmental

stage (a) and leaf number (b) in domesticated grape indicated with average leaf

shapes. (c) Comparison of changes in latent shape attributes across predicted

developmental stage (orange, outline S1; purple, arrow to S10) and predicted leaf

number (grey, outline L1; black, arrow to L10). (d and e) Predicted developmental

stage (d) and predicted leaf number (e) projected onto the *V. vinifera* subsp. *vinifera*

morphospace demonstrates changes in developmental timing (heterochrony)

underlie leaf shape diversity in domesticated grape. (g – i) Correlation between PC1

and PC2 with predicted developmental stage (i), predicted leaf number (h), and a

qualitative measure of petiolar sinus depth, PETSINMALF 2009 (i). (j) Hierarchical

clustering of measured traits in grape. Morphological and predicted temporal traits

(yellow), hirsuteness (green), reproductive transitions (blue), and overall leaf size

(grey) indicated.

Supplemental Data

Figure S1: Numbers of species, vines, leaves, and shoot positions sampled.

Table S1: Procrustes-aligned coordinates.

Table S2: Correlation between traits.

(a)

Distal vein — (yellow)
Proximal vein — (orange)
Petiolar vein — (red)

Tip
Midvein
Distal lobe
Distal sinus
Distal lobe
Proximal sinus
Proximal lobe
Petiolar sinus
Proximal lobe

Vitis labrusca

Vitis thunbergii

Vitis aestivalis

Vitis yanshanensis

Vitis riparia

(b) Shoot tip
Young leaves

Inflorescence patterning

V.lab. *V.thu.* *V.aes.* *V.yan.*

Shoot base
Old leaves

(c) Developmental stage

Inflorescence patterning		Developmental stage	Leaf number
		S1	
		S2	
None		S3	
		S4	L10
		S5	L9
None		S6	L8
		S7	L7
		S8	L6
None		S9	L5
		S10	L4
			L3
None			L2
			L1

V.rip.

Leaf number

(a)

	−3 s.d.	Mean	+3 s.d.	Merge
PC1 32.0%				
PC2 18.3%				
PC3 12.4%				
PC4 10.5%				

(b)

Species: *Ampelopsis brevipedunculata*, *Vitis labrusca*, *Vitis riparia*, *Ampelopsis acontifolia*, *Vitis thunbergii*, *Vitis piasezkii*, *Vitis rupestris*

(c)

(d)

Species: *V. amurensis*, *V. coignetiae*, *V. palmata*, *V. labrusca*, *V. aestivalis*, *V. vulpina*, *V. cinerea*, *V. rupestris*, *V. riparia*, *V. acerifolia*

(e) Developmental stage

S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10

(f) Leaf number

L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9, L10

(a)

(b) Developmental stage
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

(c) Leaf number
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

(a) Predicted developmental stage: S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10

(b) Predicted leaf number: L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9, L10

(c) Predicted dev. stage 1 (S1); Predicted leaf number 1 (L1); S1 to S10; L1 to L10

(d) Predicted developmental stage: S8, S6, S4 — *Vitis vinifera* subsp. *vinifera* only — PC1, PC2

(e) Predicted leaf number: L10, L8, L6, L4, L2 — PC1, PC2

(f) PETSINMALF 2009: 8, 6, 4, 2 — PC1, PC2

(g) rho = 0.31, BH < 2.2 x 10⁻¹⁶ ; rho = -0.21, BH = 4.9 x 10⁻⁹ — PC1, PC2 vs Pred. dev. stage

(h) rho = -0.30, BH < 2.2 x 10⁻¹⁶ ; rho = 0.27, BH = 2.4 x 10⁻¹⁴ — PC1, PC2 vs Pred. lf. num.

(i) rho = 0.45, BH < 2.2 x 10⁻¹⁶ ; rho = -0.26, BH = 5.9 x 10⁻¹⁴ — PC1, PC2 vs PETSINMALF 2009

(j) Shape; Hairiness; Flowering time; Size