

# 1 **A predicted developmental and evolutionary morphospace for** 2 **grapevine leaves**

3  
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## 10 11 **ABSTRACT**

12  
13 Using conventional statistical approaches there exist powerful methods to classify  
14 shapes. Embedded in morphospaces is information that allows us to visualize theoretical  
15 leaves. These unmeasured leaves are never considered nor how the negative  
16 morphospace can inform us about the forces responsible for shaping leaf morphology.  
17 Here, we model leaf shape using an allometric indicator of leaf size, the ratio of vein to  
18 blade areas. The borders of the observable morphospace are restricted by constraints  
19 and define an orthogonal grid of developmental and evolutionary effects which can  
20 predict the shapes of possible grapevine leaves. Leaves in the genus *Vitis* are found to  
21 fully occupy morphospace available to them. From this morphospace we predict the  
22 developmental and evolutionary shapes of grapevine leaves that are not only possible,  
23 but exist, and argue that rather than explaining leaf shape in terms of discrete nodes or  
24 species, that a continuous model is more appropriate.

## 25 26 **INTRODUCTION**

27  
28 Leaf shape across plants is diverse and spectacular, but it is not random. Development,  
29 evolution, and the environment sculpt leaf shape in specific ways (Chitwood and Sinha,  
30 2016). Leaves allometrically expand, first shown by Stephen Hales through pin pricks on  
31 developing fig leaves that were displaced differentially along the length versus the width  
32 of the leaf (1727). The developmental programming of leaves changes from node-to-node  
33 resulting in changing leaf shapes. Goethe described this process as “metamorphosis”  
34 and in terms of the mutable, changing internal state of leaves (1817). Environment  
35 modulates leaf size and serrations, as observed by Bailey and Sinnott (1915) who used  
36 the distribution of entire leaves across latitudes to estimate the temperatures of  
37 paleoclimates. If we measure leaf shape across the seed plants, clear demarcations  
38 between phylogenetic groups are observed (Li et al., 2018). We have measured enough  
39 leaf shapes to know the borders and demarcations of what exists and the processes that  
40 shape leaves in specific ways.

42 The shapes of grapevine leaves have been measured under intense scrutiny and with  
43 purpose. Originally through morphometric techniques developed by Louis Ravaz (1902),  
44 the field of ampelography (“vine” + “process of measuring”) sought to discern, using  
45 leaves and other features of the vine, American *Vitis* species that were new to Europeans  
46 and would eventually be used as rootstocks against Phylloxera. Eventually the  
47 techniques would be famously applied to wine grape varieties by Pierre Galet (1979;  
48 1985; 1988; 1990; 2000; Chitwood, 2020). Morphometric techniques have been used to  
49 genetically study the basis of leaf shape in grapevines (Chitwood et al., 2014; Demmings  
50 et al., 2019), how grapevine leaves develop (Chitwood et al., 2016a), the effects of  
51 environment (Chitwood et al., 2016b; Baumgartner et al., 2020), and to show that  
52 increases in vein length compensate for leaf area lost to lobing (Migicovsky et al.,  
53 2022a). Modeling has been used in several ways, including calculating average shapes of  
54 grapevine varieties while preserving features (Martínez et al., 1995; 1997a; 1997b; 1999),  
55 modeling development across grapevine shoots (Bryson et al., 2020), and using leaf  
56 allometry, specifically the ratio of vein to blade areas, as a proxy of leaf size and to  
57 measure the effects of year-to-year variation in leaf shape (Chitwood et al., 2021). For  
58 grapevines, as for many other types of leaves, we have extensively measured and  
59 modeled leaf shape, allowing us to discern genetic, developmental, and environmental  
60 effects with great power.

61  
62 But what about leaves that are not available for us to measure? Using what we know  
63 about the underlying structure of leaf morphospaces across genotypic, developmental,  
64 and environmental effects, and making modeling assumptions about what is and is not  
65 possible, could we compare what we have measured and observed against the  
66 boundaries of what we know is possible?

67  
68 Here, we measure the shapes of over 8900 grapevine leaves and model them against an  
69 allometric indicator of leaf size, vein-to-blade ratio, across *Vitis* species. The expansion  
70 of blade area at the expense of that for veins is found to be a principal determinant of  
71 the resulting morphospace, as much so as differences in leaf shape between species.  
72 These developmental and evolutionary forces that sculpt leaf shape are independent  
73 and lie orthogonal to each other. Using an inverse transform of the Principal  
74 Component Analysis (PCA) space, theoretical leaves missing from the data are  
75 reconstructed. We find that the borders of the grapevine leaf morphospace are sharply  
76 defined by developmental constraints of lobing and the ratio of vein-to-blade area and  
77 that leaves in the genus *Vitis* fully occupy the space available to them. Rather than  
78 discrete stages of development or species, for leaf shape, the morphospace is better  
79 described continuously as a grid defined by developmental and evolutionary effects  
80 from which any leaf shape in the genus *Vitis* can be predicted.

81

## 82 MATERIALS AND METHODS

83

84 This work uses two sources of genetic material to sample grapevine leaf shape, referred  
85 to as “New York germplasm” and “California populations”. The first is the USDA  
86 germplasm repository in Geneva, NY which samples mostly North American *Vitis* species  
87 leaves (although not exclusively) as a developmental series, keeping track of the node  
88 the leaves arise from. These leaves tend to be more entire (again, not exclusively so). The  
89 second source of materials are segregating populations in California from E. & J. Gallo  
90 Winery (the exact identity of which is proprietary). The parentage of this material arises  
91 from *Vitis vinifera*, *V. mustangensis*, and *V. piasezkii* species and is more deeply lobed  
92 than the New York germplasm material (again, this is not always the case). Only mature,  
93 fully expanded leaves from the middle of the shoot were sampled from this population.  
94 This population was not sampled as a developmental series and the node the leaves  
95 arise from was not recorded. The New York germplasm allows models of leaf  
96 development to be estimated whereas the California populations sample additional leaf  
97 shapes throughout the genus *Vitis*. More specific information about each of these  
98 materials is given below.

99

### 100 New York germplasm material

101 As described in Bryson et al., 2020 (and copied verbatim here for convenience), leaves  
102 were collected from 209 vines at the USDA germplasm repository vineyard in Geneva,  
103 New York, USA. Samples were taken from the same vines during the second week of  
104 June, annually, in 2013 and 2015–2017. The vines sampled represent 11 species  
105 (*Ampelopsis glandulosa* (Wall.) Momiy. var. *brevipedunculata* (Maxim.) Momiy., *V.*  
106 *acerifolia* Raf., *V. aestivalis* Michx., *V. amurensis* Rupr., *V. cinerea* (Engelm.) Millardet, *V.*  
107 *coignetiae* Pulliat ex Planch., *V. labrusca* L., *V. palmata* Vahl, *V. riparia* Michx., *V.*  
108 *rupestris* Scheele, and *V. vulpina* L.), four hybrids  
109 (*V. ×andersonii* Rehder, *V. ×champinii* Planch., *V. ×doaniana* Munson ex Viala,  
110 and *V. ×novae-angliae* Fernald), and 13 *Vitis* vines, designated as *Vitis* spp., for which  
111 original species assignments from the germplasm collection are lacking. Starting at the  
112 shoot tip (with shoot order noted for each leaf), leaves greater than ~1 cm in length  
113 were collected in stacks and stored in a cooler in labeled plastic bags with ventilation  
114 holes. Within two days of collection, the leaves were arranged on a large-format Epson  
115 Workforce DS-50000 scanner (Tokyo, Japan) in the order they were collected, with a  
116 small number near each leaf indicating which node it came from and a ruler for scale  
117 within the image file. The image files were named with the vine identification number,  
118 followed by a sequential lowercase letter if multiple scans were needed. The original  
119 scans are available on Dryad (Chitwood et al., 2020).

120

### 121 California populations material

122 As described in Migicovsky et al., 2022a (and copied verbatim here for convenience),  
123 leaves were sampled from seedlings of five biparental *Vitis* populations located in  
124 Madera County, California, USA. 500 seedlings were planted in the vineyard. 450  
125 seedlings shared a seed parent, DVIT 2876. The remaining 50 seedlings had DVIT 2876  
126 as a grandparent. DVIT 2876 'Olmo b55-19' is a compound-leafed accession from the  
127 USDA-ARS National Clonal Germplasm repository, suspected to include *V. piasezkii*  
128 Maximowicz, as one of its parents (or grandparents). The populations were created to  
129 examine variation in leaf lobing. The vines were composed of 125 individuals from a  
130 DVIT 2876 x unnamed *V. vinifera* selection cross (Pop1), 100 individuals from a DVIT  
131 2876 x a different unnamed *V. vinifera* selection cross (Pop2), 150 individuals from a  
132 DVIT 2876 x unnamed *Vitis* hybrid cross (Pop3), 75 individuals from a DVIT 2876 x a  
133 different unnamed *Vitis* hybrid cross (Pop4), and 50 individuals from a seedling (DVIT  
134 2876 x unnamed *V. vinifera* selection) x DVIT 3374 (*V. mustangensis* Buckley) cross  
135 (Pop5). The vines sampled were planted in 2017. They were trained to a unilateral  
136 cordon and spur pruned. Leaf samples were collected on June 22 and July 12 2018, then  
137 again in 2019 on June 14, 19, and July 4. Across the sampling dates within a given year,  
138 a total of three mature, representative leaves were sampled from each of the vines and  
139 placed into labeled plastic bags. The plastic bags were stored in a cooler during  
140 collection and scanned, abaxial side down, later the same day using a flatbed scanner.  
141 Files were named using the accession identification number. The original scans are  
142 available on Dryad (Migicovsky et al., 2022b).

143

## 144 **Data Analysis**

145 Twenty one landmarks (**Figure 1A**) were placed on one half of each leaf outlining the  
146 midvein, distal vein, proximal vein, and the most proximal branching vein of each of  
147 these major veins as well as distal and proximal lobe sinuses using ImageJ (Abràmoff et  
148 al., 2004). Two landmarks are placed at the base of each vein to measure the width.  
149 Landmarks were superimposed through scaling, translation, rotation, and reflection  
150 using Generalized Procrustes Analysis with the shapes (Dryden and Mardia, 2016)  
151 package in R.

152

153 Data was analyzed using Python and Jupyter notebooks (Kluyver et al., 2016). Code to  
154 reproduce the analysis in this manuscript can be found at the *GitHub* repository  
155 DanChitwood/grapevine\_morphospace: [https://](https://github.com/DanChitwood/grapevine_morphospace)  
156 [https://github.com/DanChitwood/grapevine\\_morphospace](https://github.com/DanChitwood/grapevine_morphospace)). The Jupyter notebook  
157 (grapevine\_morphospace.ipynb) comments on the code and also contains a narrative to  
158 guide the reader through the analysis. Calculation of distal lobing is according to Galet  
159 (1979), as the ratio of the distance of the distal sinus to the petiolar junction divided by  
160 the distance of the distal lobe tip to the petiolar junction, such that the distal lobing  
161 value of a completely dissected leaf is 0 and the value of a completely entire leaf is 1.

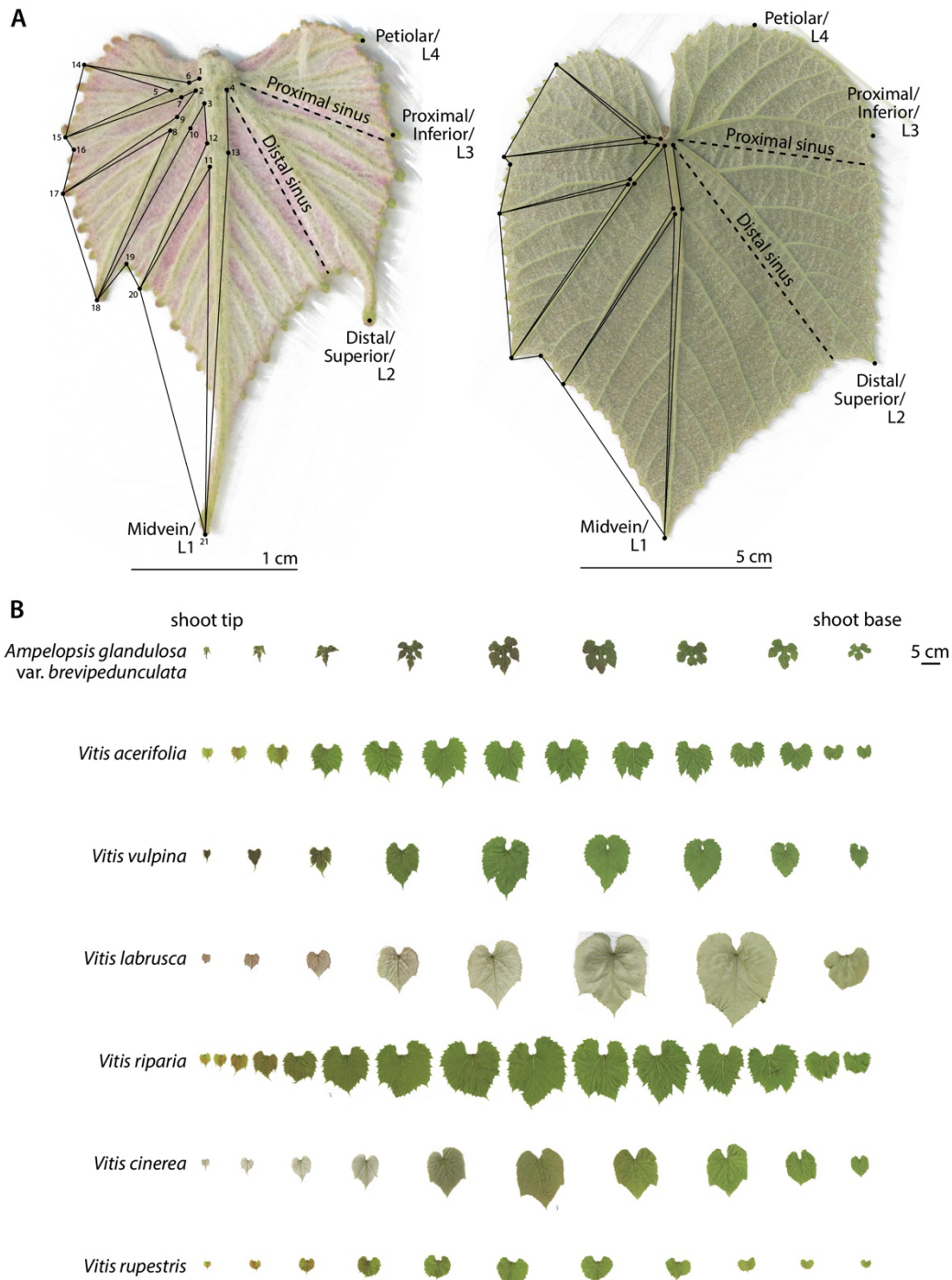


Figure 1: Grapevine leaf morphology. A) Counting from the shoot tip, *Vitis cinerea* leaves from node positions 1 (left) and 5 (right), each with respective scale bar, are expanded in detail from the same leaves shown in the panel below. The 21 landmarks used in this study are indicated, as well as ampelographic nomenclature naming morphological features. Note that in the younger leaf that vasculature takes up relatively more area than in the mature leaf. B) For seven different grapevine species analyzed in this study, leaves from the shoot tip to the shoot base are shown with scale bar. Leaf area increases from the shoot tip to the middle of the shoot due to leaf expansion, whereas increases in leaf size from the shoot base to the middle of the shoot in mature leaves are due to heteroblasty.

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Calculation of the natural log of the ratio of vein to blade area,  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ , is as described in Chitwood et al. (2021) using the shoelace algorithm, also known as

165 Gauss' area formula, to calculate polygon areas as originally described by Meister  
166 (1769), where  $n$  is the number of polygon vertices defined by  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates:  
167

$$168 \quad \frac{1}{2} |x_1y_2 + x_2y_3 + \dots + x_{n-1}y_n + x_ny_1 - x_2y_1 - x_3y_2 - \dots - x_ny_{n-1} - x_1y_n|$$

169  
170 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (and calculation of its inverse) was performed using  
171 the scikit learn decomposition PCA module (Pedregosa et al., 2011). Modeling of  
172  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ ,  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$ , and landmarks as polynomial functions of each  
173 other and shoot position was performed using the `np.polyfit` and `np.poly1d` functions  
174 from NumPy (Oliphant, 2006). The `curve_fit` function from SciPy (Virtanen et al., 2020)  
175 was used to fit a reciprocal function of  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  across the shoot. Pandas  
176 (McKinney, 2010) and Matplotlib (Hunter, 2007) were used for data analysis and  
177 visualization.

178

## 179 **RESULTS**

180

### 181 **Developmental models of leaf expansion**

182 Previously, we modeled leaf shape continuously across grapevine shoots as a  
183 polynomial function of each Procrustes landmark coordinate value as a function of  
184 normalized node position. Normalized node position is the node number counting from  
185 the shoot tip divided the total number of leaves in a shoot, such that node number is  
186 converted to a 0 to 1 scale, from tip to base (Bryson et al., 2020). We also previously  
187 described the natural log of the ratio of vein to blade area,  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ ,  
188 which is more sensitive to leaf area than size itself due to the exponential increases in  
189 blade relative to vein area during development (Chitwood et al., 2021). Before we  
190 explore the limits of the grapevine leaf morphospace, we must first model shape across  
191 development to understand how continuous developmental trajectories change  
192 between species during evolution. But it is important to first understand two  
193 developmental processes that affect leaf size and shape across grapevine shoots. At the  
194 shoot tip and base leaves are smaller (and accordingly  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  is higher)  
195 than the middle of the shoot where leaves are larger (and  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  lower)  
196 (**Figure 1B**). At the shoot tip leaves are young and at the shoot base they are mature.  
197 The increases in leaf area (and decreases in  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ ) from the shoot tip  
198 to the middle of the shoot are mostly due to the expansion of young leaves as they  
199 mature. However, the increases in leaf area (and decreases in  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ )  
200 from the shoot base to the middle of the shoot occur in mature leaves that have already  
201 expanded. The size and shape differences between mature leaves at the shoot base are  
202 due to heteroblasty, node-to-node differences in leaf morphology that result from the  
203 temporal development of the shoot apical meristem, and not from leaf expansion.

204 Below, we create models of leaf development to focus on allometric changes due to leaf  
 205 expansion and its relationship to the grapevine leaf morphospace. To do so requires us  
 206 to separate these confounding effects on leaf shape and size across the grapevine shoot  
 207 to the best of our ability.

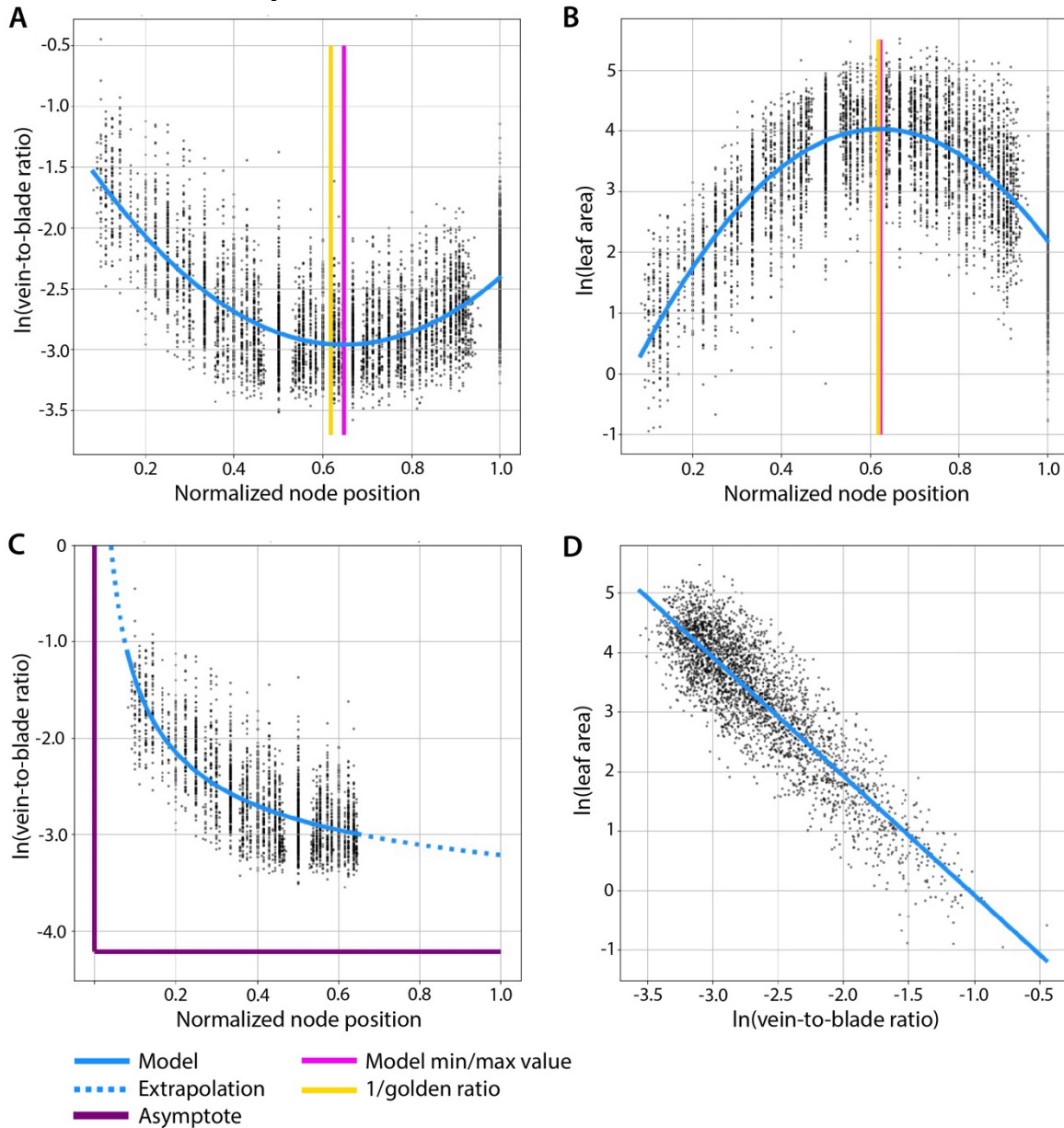


Figure 2: Modeling  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  as a function of normalized node position. A) The natural log of the ratio of vein-to-blade area,  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ , and B) the natural log of leaf area,  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$ , are modeled as 2nd degree polynomials of normalized node position (where 0 is the shoot tip and 1 is the shoot base). The normalized node position values corresponding to the minimum  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and maximum  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  values are indicated by a magenta vertical line and the inverse of the golden ratio is indicated by a gold vertical line. C) In order to model developmental changes due to leaf expansion separate from heteroblastic effects, leaves from the shoot tip to the normalized node position value corresponding to the  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  minimum were isolated and modeled as a reciprocal function of normalized node position. Extrapolated values are shown in dashed line and function asymptotes in purple. D) A linear model of  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  as a function of  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ .

208

209

210 We plotted  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  versus normalized node position (**Figure 2A**), which  
211 can be modeled as a second-degree polynomial.  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  is highest at the  
212 shoot tip and reaches its minimum in the middle of the shoot. As expected,  
213  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  versus relative node position correspondingly increases in the middle of  
214 the shoot compared to the shoot tip and base (**Figure 2B**). A curiosity that is perhaps  
215 coincidental, we note that the corresponding normalized node position to the minimum  
216  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and maximum  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  values are close to the inverse of  
217 the golden ratio (**Figure 2A-B**). Although this may arise as a developmental  
218 phenomenon, it could also be spurious and warrants further investigation.

219

220 From previous work we know that allometric changes during grapevine leaf expansion  
221 dominate the morphospace (Chitwood et al., 2016a; Chitwood et al., 2016b; Bryson et  
222 al., 2020). We therefore took leaves from the shoot tip to the normalized node position  
223 value corresponding to the minimum  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  value across the shoot  
224 (**Figure 2A**) to model shape changes associated with leaf expansion. Assuming that  
225  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  approaches  $\infty$  as a normalized node position value of 0 is  
226 approached (leaf initiation, where vein area would dominate) and that another  
227 asymptote is approached as leaves mature (where blade area dominates) a reciprocal  
228 function was fit to the data (**Figure 2C**). Using the model, the context of the collected  
229 data compared to extrapolated leaf shapes that remain unsampled (for example, young  
230 leaf primordia or leaves that continue to mature incrementally past the leaves collected  
231 in this study) can be understood. From these expanding leaves a linear model of  
232  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  as a function of  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  can be fit (**Figure 2D**). From this  
233 model, using a scaleless measure of leaf shape alone, leaf size can be predicted.  
234 Importantly, for the expanding leaves selected for modeling above, their  
235  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values are always decreasing, and their leaf area values are  
236 always increasing moving away from the shoot tip, separating and unconfounding these  
237 effects from those of heteroblasty (**Figure 1B**).

238

239 By modeling Procrustes-adjusted coordinate values as a polynomial function of  
240  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ , we can visualize and compare the developmental trajectories of  
241 different grapevine species (**Figure 3**). Theoretical leaves for the six most represented  
242 *Vitis* species and *Ampelopsis glandulosa* var. *brevipedunculata* across ten equally spaced  
243  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values from the maximum to minimum (inclusive), show the  
244 shape changes associated with leaf expansion and evolutionary differences between  
245 species. Leaf expansion is mostly achieved through increases in blade area relative to  
246 vein, as well as other changes, such as a wider leaf. These developmental changes in  
247 shape are conserved and distinct from species differences, which affect a different set of  
248 shape features, especially the depth of the distal lobe. These shape changes are



249 allometric and occur concomitantly with exponential decreases in leaf size. The  
 250 developmental models of leaf expansion described above will be projected onto the  
 251 morphospace described below to anchor and contextualize the space and to quantify  
 252 and compare evolutionary versus developmental sources of shape variance across  
 253 grapevine leaves.

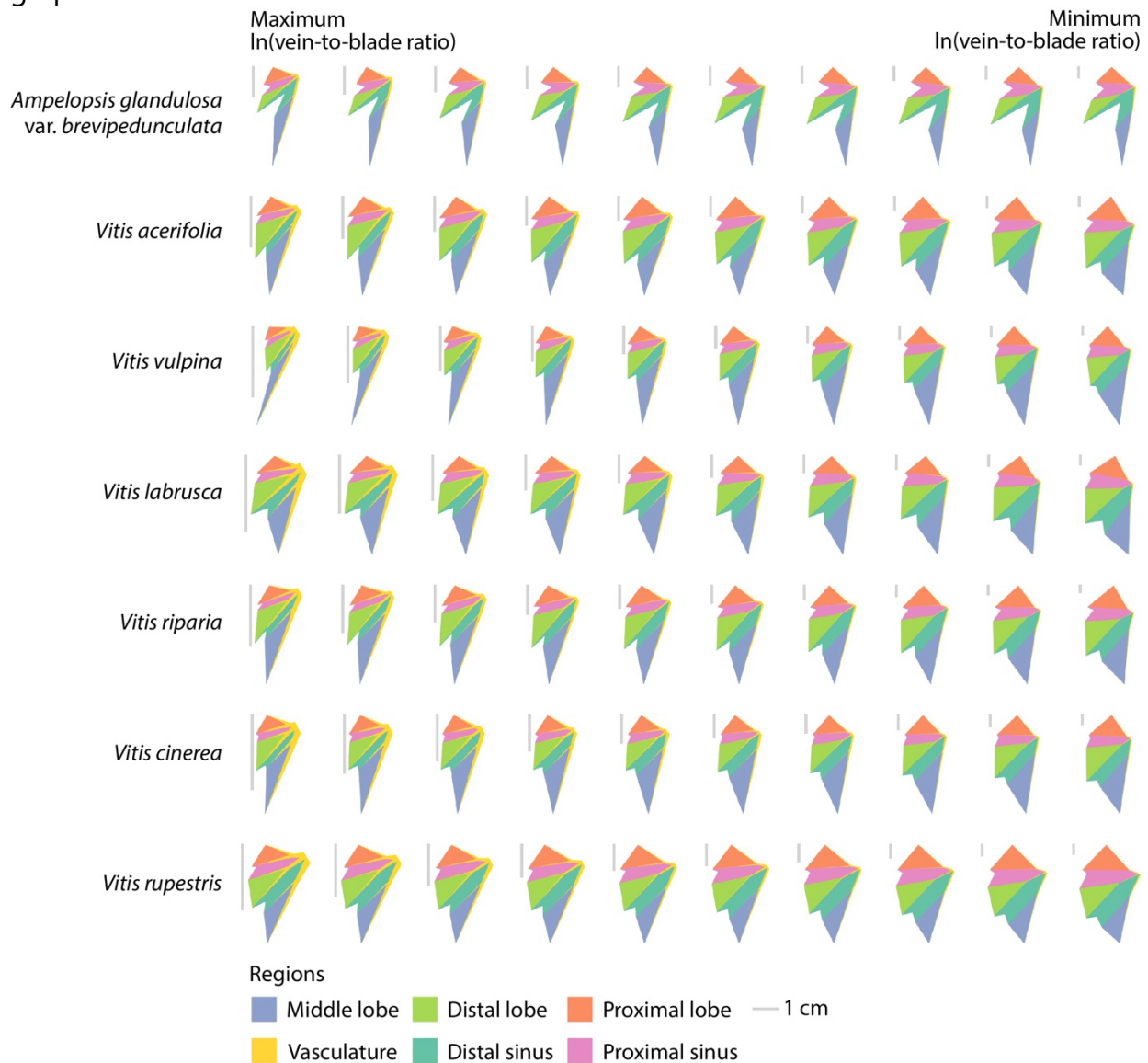


Figure 3: Developmental models of leaf shape. Fitting each coordinate value of 21 landmarks as a second-degree polynomial of  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ , continuous models of expanding leaves for the seven species shown were created. Inclusive of the maximum and minimum  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values for each species, corresponding to young and mature leaves, respectively, leaves corresponding to ten equally spaced time points were reconstructed. Estimated leaf areas were estimated from  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values and 1 cm scale bars for each leaf are shown. Leaf areas are indicated by color.

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 255

## 256 Morphospace

257 The developmental models of leaf expansion described above are from a dataset, the  
 258 "New York germplasm", where leaves were sampled from shoots and their node position

259 was recorded. These leaves, from the USDA germplasm repository in Geneva, NY sample  
260 mostly (although not exclusively) North American *Vitis* species that tend to have more  
261 entire leaves (although there are highly dissected leaf samples in the dataset). Largely  
262 missing is shape variation from *V. vinifera* and other highly dissected species. To  
263 supplement the New York germplasm leaves, we added leaves from segregating  
264 populations designed to sample highly lobed genetic material, derived from *V. vinifera*,  
265 *V. mustangensis*, and *V. piasezkii*, called the “California populations”. All leaves from the  
266 California populations are mature, creating an opportunity to predict and extrapolate  
267 the development of these leaves from the New York germplasm. Although not  
268 representing the entirety of mature leaf shape variation within *Vitis*, the two datasets  
269 together comprehensively sample it.

270  
271 To visualize the relationship of New York germplasm to California populations datasets,  
272 and how developmental versus evolutionary sources of leaf shape variation compare, we  
273 performed a Principal Component Analysis (PCA). PCA decomposes multivariate data, in  
274 essence rotating and projecting it onto orthogonal axes (principal components) that  
275 more efficiently explain variation in the data than the original measurements (in this  
276 case, Procrustes-adjusted coordinate values). The inverse of this transformation can be  
277 used to reverse calculate original data, which we will later use to visualize theoretical  
278 leaves in the morphospace. PC1 and PC2 explain 39.7% and 17.6% of the variance in the  
279 data, respectively (~57.3% of the total variance). Within this space, the NY germplasm  
280 and CA population data are roughly orthogonal (perpendicular) to each other (**Figure**  
281 **4**). One interpretation is that the more entire leaves of the NY germplasm data run along  
282 a developmental continuum, whereas the California populations data only represents  
283 mature leaves but falls on a separate axis representing leaves that are more dissected.  
284 The empty space not covered within the ranges of the two datasets would be predicted  
285 to be the missing developmental variation from the deeply lobed leaves in the California  
286 populations data. Two pieces of evidence support the above interpretation. First, if  
287 developmental models of leaf expansion are projected onto the morphospace, they are  
288 collinear with the distribution of the New York germplasm data, consistent with this axis  
289 of the data representing developmental variation. Second, if  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$   
290 values for theoretical leaves calculated from the inverse transform of the morphospace  
291 are projected back onto it (**Figure 4A**) they too are collinear with the NY germplasm  
292 data. Similarly distal lobing, which varies across species (**Figures 1 and 3**), can also be  
293 calculated and projected back onto the morphospace (**Figure 4B**). Distal lobing runs at  
294 roughly right angles to  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values and the CA populations data is  
295 collinear with it. The CA populations data intersects with the NY germplasm data in a  
296 location defined by low  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values, consistent with these being

297 mature leaves.

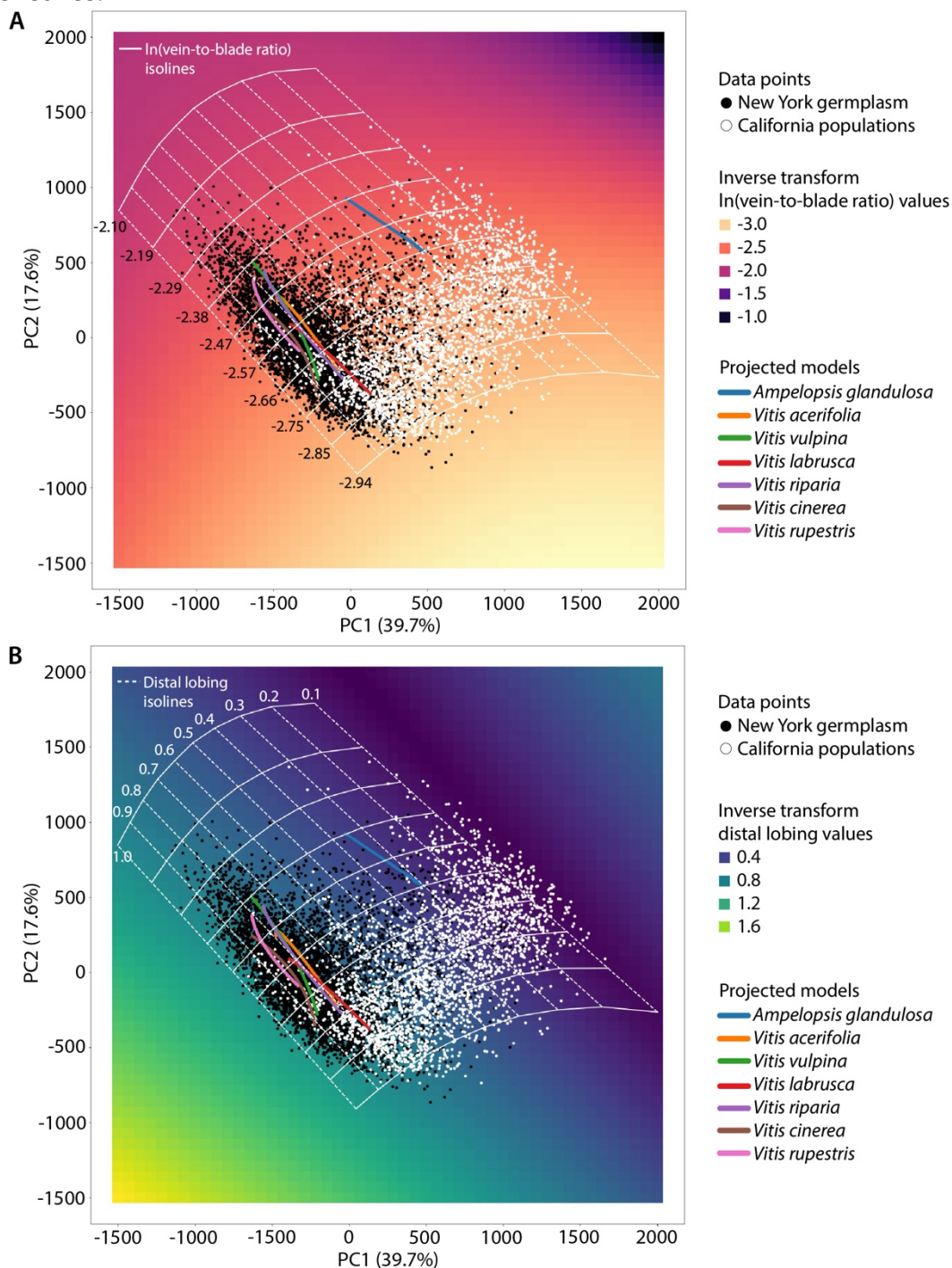


Figure 4: Morphospace. A morphospace calculated from a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of all leaves from the New York germplasm (black) and California populations (white). A) In(vein to blade ratio) values and B) distal lobing values were calculated from reconstructed leaves throughout the morphospace using its inverse transform and colored by magma and viridis color schemes, respectively, as indicated. To orient and contextualize the space, developmental models for seven grapevine species were projected into the space, as indicated by colored lines. Isolines for A) In(vein to blade ratio) values (solid lines) and B) distal lobing values (dashed lines) are shown and their values provided in the respective plots.

298  
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300 If developmental variation (indicated by  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values, **Figure 4A**) and  
301 evolutionary variation between species (indicated by distal lobing values, **Figure 4B**) are  
302 roughly orthogonal to each other, then even though unsampled, the shapes of  
303 developing leaves that are highly dissected that are missing from the CA populations  
304 data could be predicted. The ability to make this prediction rests on the assumption that  
305 highly dissected leaves would follow a developmental trajectory similar to more entire  
306 species. Evidence that this is the case is observed for the developmental model of  
307 *Ampelopsis glandulosa* var. *brevipedunculata* (**Figure 4**), which is collinear like the other  
308 models with  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values and occupies a space with low distal lobing  
309 values, consistent with its deeply lobed morphology.

310  
311 Beyond stages of leaf development and different species, the morphospace of  
312 grapevine leaves can be described more quantitatively and comprehensively using  
313  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and distal lobing values that define it continuously. Isolines that  
314 fall along the same  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and distal lobing values can be calculated so  
315 that they extend to the borders of observable morphospace and sample, in a grid-like  
316 fashion, the space inside. These isolines also sample inferred leaf shapes not  
317 represented in the sampled data, including the missing developmental series from the  
318 CA populations data and leaf primordia younger than those sampled. Theoretical,  
319 reconstructed leaves at the intersection of  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and distal lobing  
320 isolines, that sample the limits of the observable morphospace, exhibit the distinct  
321 changes in shape associated with development and evolution (**Figure 5**). Across  
322 developmental series regardless of how deeply lobed leaves are,  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$   
323 decreases and leaves become wider as they expand and increase in size. Similarly, as  
324  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  isolines traverse orthogonally to distal lobing isolines, the depth  
325 of the distal lobe is preserved regardless of developmental stage and comprises  
326 evolutionary differences in grapevine leaf shape that are independent of development.

327

## 328 **DISCUSSION**

329 PC1 and PC2 together explain round 57.3% of the variance in the data, but they  
330 represent the first two major, orthogonal sources of variance and as described (**Figure**  
331 **4**) highlight natural axes in the data that delimit developmental and evolutionary  
332 boundaries that constrain observable grapevine leaf shapes.  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and  
333 distal lobing are only indicators of multivariate signatures of leaf development and  
334 evolution, respectively, that lie orthogonal to each other and define a grid in which  
335 grapevine leaves fully occupy to its limits. One set of boundaries is indicated by distal  
336 lobing values (dashed isolines in **Figure 4B**), defined by leaves with values approaching  
337 zero and completely dissected (like *A. glandulosa* var. *brevipedunculata* or *V. piasezkii*) or  
338 nearly equal to one and lacking any significant lobing (like *V. rupestris*). The other set of  
339 boundaries is indicated by  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values (solid isolines in **Figure 4A**)

340 that asymptotically define developmental constraints. Higher  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$   
341 values are associated with young, expanding leaves in which vein area initially  
342 dominates the leaf until the blade exponentially expands. The developmental models  
343 presented in this analysis work from the assumption that young leaf primordia approach  
344 an asymptote consisting entirely of vein area at initiation (**Figure 2C**). In leaves that are  
345 nearly fully expanded the opposite is true, and they are defined by lower  
346  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ , in which a small amount of vein area remains, but that blade will  
347 always allometrically expand at a faster rate than vein and approach an asymptote in  
348 which vein area is vanishingly small (**Figure 2C**).

349  
350 The morphospace is unexpectedly simple, providing a predictive framework and  
351 empirical insight into theoretical biological concepts. While the New York germplasm  
352 and California populations data sample most shape variation in *Vitis*, the developmental  
353 information for highly dissected species was missing. Because developmental and  
354 evolutionary axes are nearly orthogonal to each other and describe additive signatures  
355 of leaf morphology, where developmental progressions in leaf shape are conserved  
356 across species and variation defining differences between species is maintained  
357 throughout their development, to extrapolate the leaf shapes missing in this space was  
358 straightforward (**Figure 5**). In theory we talk about evolutionary and developmental  
359 forces describing the organismal form, but definition is lacking: to what degree do they  
360 act separately or are confounded together, do they act additively or do interaction  
361 effects predominate? In the case of grapevine leaves, development and evolution are  
362 orthogonal and acting independently of each other to such an extent that rather than  
363 describe leaf shape as arising from discrete nodes or species, a continuous model  
364 defined by indicators like  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and distal lobing is more efficient  
365 (**Figure 4**). It is also an open question to what degree developmental constraint and  
366 selection would limit the full manifestation of phenotype across a morphospace. For the  
367 example of grapevine leaf shape, the boundaries of the morphospace are well defined  
368 by developmental constraint and it appears that development and evolution have fully  
369 sampled the space, up to the borders (**Figure 4**).

370  
371 Although reconstructing leaves from a PCA morphospace is routine statistically, this  
372 work focuses on interpretation and how we can use morphometrics to see shape and  
373 natural phenomena through different lenses. Embedded in the morphology of  
374 morphospaces we measure are the constraints by which development and evolution are  
375 modulating natural forms. Measured in sufficient quantities and making reasonable  
376 assumptions about the limits of our models, we can begin to deduce and quantify

377 constraint, and predict the extent of what is phenotypically possible.

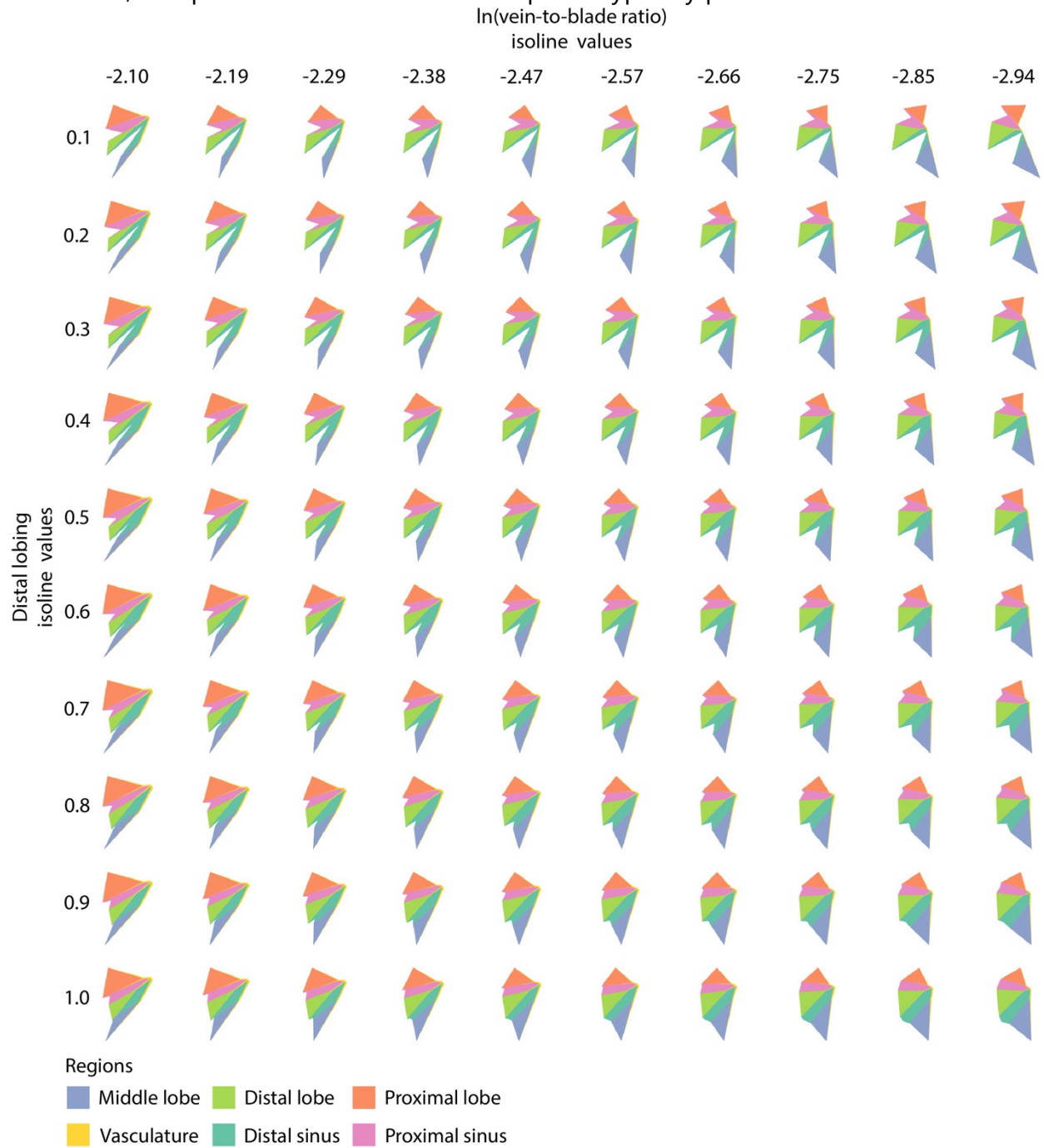


Figure 5: Theoretical leaves. 100 theoretical leaves reconstructed from the intersection of ten, equally spaced  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and distal lobing isolines, corresponding to orthogonal developmental and evolutionary changes, respectively, across grapevine leaf morphospace.  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and distal lobing values are shown and leaf areas indicated by color.

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## DATA AND CODING AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

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382 The code to reproduce this analysis can be found at the *GitHub* repository  
383 DanChitwood/grapevine\_morphospace:  
384 [https://github.com/DanChitwood/grapevine\\_morphospace](https://github.com/DanChitwood/grapevine_morphospace). The original leaf scans used  
385 to produce the landmarks are archived on Dryad (Chitwood et al., 2020; Migicovsky et al,  
386 2022b).

387

## 388 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

389

390 JM developed methods and tools, performed data analysis, and reviewed the  
391 manuscript. DHC conceived of the project, performed data analysis, and wrote the  
392 manuscript.

393

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395

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399

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## 538 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

539

540 **Figure 1: Grapevine leaf morphology.** **A)** Counting from the shoot tip, *Vitis cinerea*  
541 leaves from node positions 1 (left) and 5 (right), each with respective scale bar, are  
542 expanded in detail from the same leaves shown in the panel below. The 21 landmarks  
543 used in this study are indicated, as well as ampelographic nomenclature naming  
544 morphological features. Note that in the younger leaf that vasculature takes up relatively  
545 more area than in the mature leaf. **B)** For seven different grapevine species analyzed in  
546 this study, leaves from the shoot tip to the shoot base are shown with scale bar. Leaf  
547 area increases from the shoot tip to the middle of the shoot due to leaf expansion,  
548 whereas increases in leaf size from the shoot base to the middle of the shoot in mature  
549 leaves are due to heteroblasty.

550 **Figure 2: Modeling  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  as a function of**  
551 **normalized node position.** **A)** The natural log of the ratio of vein-to-blade area,  
552  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ , and **B)** the natural log of leaf area,  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$ , are modeled  
553 as 2nd degree polynomials of normalized node position (where 0 is the shoot tip and 1  
554 is the shoot base). The normalized node position values corresponding to the minimum  
555  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and maximum  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  values are indicated by a magenta  
556 vertical line and the inverse of the golden ratio is indicated by a gold vertical line. **C)** In  
557 order to model developmental changes due to leaf expansion separate from  
558 heteroblastic effects, leaves from the shoot tip to the normalized node position value  
559 corresponding to the  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  minimum were isolated and modeled as a  
560 reciprocal function of normalized node position. Extrapolated values are shown in  
561 dashed line and function asymptotes in purple. **D)** A linear model of  $\ln(\text{leaf area})$  as a  
562 function of  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ .

563 **Figure 3: Developmental models of leaf shape.** Fitting each coordinate value of 21  
564 landmarks as a second-degree polynomial of  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$ , continuous models  
565 of expanding leaves for the seven species shown were created. Inclusive of the  
566 maximum and minimum  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values for each species, corresponding  
567 to young and mature leaves, respectively, leaves corresponding to ten equally spaced  
568 time points were reconstructed. Estimated leaf areas were estimated from  
569  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values and 1 cm scale bars for each leaf are shown. Leaf areas  
570 are indicated by color.

571 **Figure 4: Morphospace.** A morphospace calculated from a Principal Component  
572 Analysis (PCA) of all leaves from the New York germplasm (black) and California  
573 populations (white). **A)**  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values and **B)** distal lobing values were  
574 calculated from reconstructed leaves throughout the morphospace using its inverse  
575 transform and colored by magma and viridis color schemes, respectively, as indicated. To  
576 orient and contextualize the space, developmental models for seven grapevine species

577 were projected into the space, as indicated by colored lines. Isolines for **A)**  
578  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  values (solid lines) and **B)** distal lobing values (dashed lines) are  
579 shown and their values provided in the respective plots.

580

581 **Figure 5: Theoretical leaves.** 100 theoretical leaves reconstructed from the intersection  
582 of ten, equally spaced  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and distal lobing isolines, corresponding  
583 to orthogonal developmental and evolutionary changes, respectively, across grapevine  
584 leaf morphospace.  $\ln(\text{vein to blade ratio})$  and distal lobing values are shown and leaf  
585 areas indicated by color.