

# 1 **Grapevine rootstocks affect growth-related scion phenotypes**

2 Running title: Grapevine rootstocks affect scion growth

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23

## 24 **Abstract**

25

26 Grape growers use rootstocks to provide protection against pests and pathogens and to modulate  
27 viticulture performance such as shoot growth. Our study examined two grapevine scion varieties  
28 ('Chardonnay' and 'Cabernet Sauvignon') grafted to 15 different rootstocks and determined the  
29 effect of rootstocks on eight traits important to viticulture. We assessed the vines across five  
30 years and identified both year and variety as contributing strongly to trait variation. The effect of  
31 rootstock was relatively consistent across years and varieties, explaining between 8.99% and  
32 9.78% of the variation in growth-related traits including yield, pruning weight, berry weight, and  
33 Ravaz index (yield to pruning weight ratio). Increases in yield due to rootstock were generally  
34 the result of increases in berry weight, likely due to increased water uptake by vines grafted to a  
35 particular rootstock. We demonstrated a greater than 50% increase in yield, pruning weight, or  
36 Ravaz index by choosing the optimal rootstock, indicating that rootstock choice is crucial for  
37 grape growers looking to improve vine performance.

38

## 39 **Introduction**

40

41 Grafting joins two distinct plant parts: a scion (shoot system) from a donor plant and a rootstock  
42 (root system) from a second plant to which the scion is attached. The practice of grafting chiefly  
43 enables clonal propagation but can also have many other benefits, such as reducing the juvenility  
44 period (increasing precocity) or size (dwarfing) in fruit trees<sup>1-3</sup>.

45

46 In grapevines (*Vitis vinifera* L.), widespread use of grafting began in the late 1800s, following  
47 the introduction of phylloxera (*Daktulosphaira vitifoliae* Fitch) to Europe from North America.  
48 While *V. vinifera* is highly susceptible to phylloxera, which feeds on the roots of grapevines,  
49 eastern North American *Vitis* species evolved in the presence of phylloxera and are tolerant  
50 and/or resistant to it. By grafting *V. vinifera* scions to rootstocks of other *Vitis* species, *V. vinifera*  
51 could be grown in European soils containing phylloxera, rescuing the wine industry<sup>4</sup>.

52  
53 Ten years after its detection in Europe, own-rooted (ungrafted) grapevines with phylloxera were  
54 first identified in California. The inter-continental spread of the pest was likely due to the  
55 importation of vines from European nurseries or from eastern North America<sup>5</sup>. However, due to  
56 the sandy soils of California's Central Valley (or San Joaquin Valley, specifically), phylloxera  
57 infections were not as severe and did not require the immediate use of rootstocks<sup>6</sup>. By the 1950s,  
58 less than 30% of California grapevines were grafted onto phylloxera-resistant rootstocks<sup>7</sup>. Still,  
59 over time, the California grapevine industry transitioned primarily to grafted vines. Currently,  
60 more than 80% of vineyards worldwide grow grafted vines<sup>4</sup>.

61  
62 In addition to allowing *V. vinifera* vines to grow in phylloxera-infested soils, grapevine  
63 rootstocks can provide tolerance to several other damaging pests and diseases including root-  
64 knot and dagger nematodes<sup>8-10</sup>. Rootstocks may also be used to improve resilience to abiotic  
65 stresses such as salinity<sup>11</sup> and drought<sup>12</sup>. Grafting grapevines to a particular rootstock can  
66 influence a wide range of traits in the scion including mineral composition<sup>13-15</sup>, berry  
67 chemistry<sup>16</sup>, and berry maturation<sup>17</sup>.

68

69 Of particular interest to grape growers is the observation that rootstock choice can affect vine  
70 size and yield<sup>18</sup>. While other factors such as climate and location exceed the influence of  
71 rootstock on grapevine growth<sup>19,20</sup>, numerous studies have provided evidence of the impact  
72 rootstock can have on yield<sup>18,21,22</sup>. For a grape grower, an increase in yield is desirable, but  
73 increasing vine size or vegetative growth also increases the cost of managing the vine, due to  
74 additional labour for vine training, pruning, and fruit thinning. An ideal rootstock will increase  
75 reproductive growth, or yield, without an accompanying increase in vegetative growth, which is  
76 assessed by measuring pruning weight or the amount of one-year-old dormant cuttings removed  
77 during the winter. The Ravaz index, or yield divided by pruning weight from the following  
78 dormant season, can be calculated to determine the relative ratio of reproductive to vegetative  
79 growth. The impact that rootstocks can have on berry composition is generally thought to be an  
80 indirect effect as a result of their impact on vegetative and reproductive growth, for example by  
81 altering water or nutrient uptake<sup>19,23</sup>.

82  
83 With all the potential benefits offered by a rootstock, deciding which one to use is an important  
84 choice. While other changes to vineyard management can be made throughout the lifespan of the  
85 vines—such as altering irrigation, fertilizer, pesticides, and pruning—rootstock choice is made only  
86 once. In this study, we assessed eight traits of viticultural importance across two scion varieties  
87 (‘Chardonnay’ and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’) grafted to 15 different rootstocks. The vines were  
88 grafted near Lodi in San Joaquin County, California, in 1992 and evaluated from 1995 to 1999 in  
89 order to determine the relative contributions of variety, year, and rootstock to phenotypic  
90 variation.

91

## 92 **Materials and Methods**

93

### 94 *Experimental design*

95

96 In 1991, dormant field grown rootstocks were planted in a Tokay fine sandy loam soil<sup>17</sup>. On  
97 April 10th, 1992, scionwood was whip-grafted to the planted rootstock. Rows were oriented east-  
98 west with vine spacing of 2.13 m by 3.05 m (Figure S1). The trellis system was a bilateral  
99 cordon with fixed foliage wires. The cordon wire was at 1.07 m height with single foliage wire  
100 about 40.6 cm above. There were two wires 45.7 cm above the foliage catch wire at either ends  
101 of a 63.5 cm cross arm. The vines were cordon trained and spur pruned.

102

103 Prior to vineyard establishment, wine grapes were grown at the site for over 75 years. Initial  
104 plantings on this site were ungrafted *V. vinifera* vines. Because of this production history,  
105 various pests were considered to be endemic. These included several species of nematodes,  
106 phylloxera, many grape associated viruses, and oak root fungus (*Armillaria mellea*)<sup>18</sup>. All of  
107 these soil pests and pathogens can cause considerable economic losses to growers. For this  
108 reason, ungrafted vines were not included as a control in this study.

109 Vines were grafted to the following rootstocks: ‘Freedom’<sup>24</sup>, ‘Ramsey’, ‘1103 Paulsen’, ‘775  
110 Paulsen’, ‘110 Richter’, ‘3309 Couderc’, ‘Kober 5BB’, ‘SO4’, ‘Teleki 5C’, ‘101-14 Mgt’, ‘039-  
111 16’<sup>25</sup>, ‘140 Ruggeri’, ‘Schwarzman’, ‘420 A’, and ‘K51-32’<sup>26</sup>. The two scion varieties were  
112 ‘Chardonnay’ (selection FPS 04) and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ (selection FPS 07).

113 The experimental design was a randomized complete block design, split between ‘Chardonnay’  
114 and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’. There were four replications per treatment (rootstock). There were

115 eight or nine vines per plot, except for ‘Kober 5BB’ and ‘SO4’, which had four or five vines  
116 each, to fit all treatments in the block. Data were collected for five years from 1995-1999.

117

### 118 *Vine management*

119

120 Canopy management practices were consistent with regional guidelines and included shoot  
121 thinning and leaf removal. Shoot thinning was performed pre-bloom and consisted of removal of  
122 non-count shoots (shoots not originating from spur positions). Leaf removal was performed at  
123 berry set on the north side of the vine only, to avoid excessive exposure and possible sunburn on  
124 the south side. Four to six leaves were removed to open a window in the fruiting zone.

125 Irrigation and vine nutrition programs were standard Best Management Practice for the Lodi

126 District. The irrigation strategy followed a moderate Regulated Deficit Irrigation (RDI) program

127 of about 80% estimated crop evapotranspiration (ET<sub>c</sub>) losses, from berry set to veraison<sup>19</sup>.

128 During the post-harvest period, vineyard irrigation was increased to 100% ET<sub>c</sub>. The vine

129 nutrition program consisted of the application of approximately 30 lbs of actual nitrogen (N) and

130 60 lbs of actual potassium (K) per acre at post bloom annually. Zinc (Zn) was applied in some

131 years, as local soils tend to be low in native levels of Zn<sup>20</sup>. All irrigation and nutrients were

132 applied through a drip system, composed of two 0.5 gallons per hour emitters per vine.

133

### 134 *Data collection*

135

136 Prior to harvest, a 100 berry sample was collected for each plot. The berries were counted and  
137 weighed to determine average berry weight. Berries were crushed by hand in plastic collection  
138 bags, then strained through cheesecloth to provide juice for analysis of soluble solids content  
139 (SSC) (°Brix), pH, and titratable acidity (TA) (g/L). Juice samples were titrated to an endpoint of  
140 pH 8.2 to determine TA<sup>21</sup>. SSC was determined by a temperature compensating Atago N1  
141 refractometer (20 °C) and pH was measured using Beckman 200 pH meter with a dual KCl  
142 electrode. Grapes were harvested once they reached an acceptable commercial level for SSC,  
143 approximately 24.5 °Brix for ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ and 23 °Brix for ‘Chardonnay’. Within a  
144 particular variety (‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ or ‘Chardonnay’) all vines were harvested on the same  
145 day (Table S1).

146 The number of clusters per vine and total fruit yield were recorded. In late winter, vines were  
147 pruned to retain two node fruiting spurs with a target of 50 nodes retained per vine (Table S1).  
148 Dormant pruning weights were measured.

149 Weather data from 1994 to 1999 were downloaded from the National Environmental Satellite,  
150 Data, and Information Service for Lodi, California, US (USC00045032) on September 30, 2019.  
151 Minimum temperature, maximum temperature, and cumulative precipitation for 1994 to 1999  
152 were plotted (Figure S2).

153

#### 154 *Statistical analysis*

155

156 We calculated Ravaz index, a measurement of crop load, by dividing yield by pruning weight  
157 from the following dormant season. As a result, our dataset consisted of eight traits, measured  
158 across five years, for two scion varieties grafted to 15 different rootstocks (Table S2). The

159 experimental design included a replication term (block) to indicate the position of the vines in  
160 the vineyard, which is a randomized complete block design, as evidenced by Figure S1.

161

162 The following linear model (Equation 1) was evaluated for each phenotype:

163           Phenotype ~ Year + Variety + Rootstock + Block + Year x Rootstock + Variety x  
164           Rootstock + Year x Variety + Year x Variety x Rootstock

165

166 The model was optimized for each phenotype, which included the removal of the three-way  
167 interaction in all cases as well as non-significant two-way interactions. All main effects were  
168 retained. The code used for analyzing and visualizing the data in this study can be found on  
169 GitHub<sup>27</sup>. All terms in the model were fixed and the analysis was performed in R using the `lm()`  
170 and `aov()` functions from the stats package<sup>28</sup>. After running the model, the distribution of the  
171 residuals was examined to check for normality. Next, data were tidied using the `tidy()` function  
172 from the broom R package<sup>29</sup>. The percent variation was calculated for all terms by calculating  
173 the Sum of Squares for a particular term, divided by the Total Sum of Squares, then multiplied  
174 by 100. The results for significant terms ( $p < 0.05$ ), except block (position in the vineyard), were  
175 plotted. We included block in our model to account for variation due to position in the vineyard,  
176 but we do not discuss those results here. They are included in our supplemental files and explain  
177 up to 10.72% of the variation in a trait (Table S3).

178

179 We visualized phenotype data for ‘Chardonnay’ and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ separately using a  
180 loess smoothing line to plot variation across years. For the four traits where rootstock explained  
181 the largest amount of variation (i.e. yield, berry weight, pruning weight, and Ravaz index),



182 rootstocks were compared using a Tukey Test on the model results. For each phenotype, the raw  
183 data and a corresponding boxplot were plotted for each rootstock. The estimated marginal means  
184 and corresponding 95% confidence intervals were calculated and plotted using the emmeans  
185 package version 1.5.1 in R<sup>30</sup> To visualize the variety-specific rootstock effects, we plotted the  
186 median values (+/- standard deviation) for ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ and ‘Chardonnay’ separately  
187 for each phenotype (Figure S4).

188

189 Since there are large differences between the two grape varieties used in this study, we calculated  
190 the correlation between phenotypes for ‘Chardonnay’ and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ separately,  
191 using a Spearman’s correlation in R v.3.60<sup>22</sup>. To correct for multiple testing, p-values within a  
192 particular variety were Bonferroni-corrected. Heatmaps were generated using the heatmap.2  
193 function in the gplots R package<sup>23</sup>. All remaining figures were plotted using ggplot2 in R<sup>24</sup>.

194

195 Lastly, we determined the potential range of variation induced by rootstock choice by calculating  
196 the percent change possible from the lowest rootstock median value to the highest rootstock  
197 median value within a particular phenotype. These results were visualized with phenotypes  
198 ordered from highest to lowest possible percent change.

199

## 200 **Results**

### 201 *Phenotype variation across years*

202 There was strong variation in phenotypes across the years of the study (Figure 1, Figure S5). The  
203 average yield across all rootstocks decreased for both varieties in 1996 (average of 11.3 Kg for  
204 ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ and 7.9 Kg for ‘Chardonnay’) and 1998 (average of 8.53 Kg for ‘Cabernet

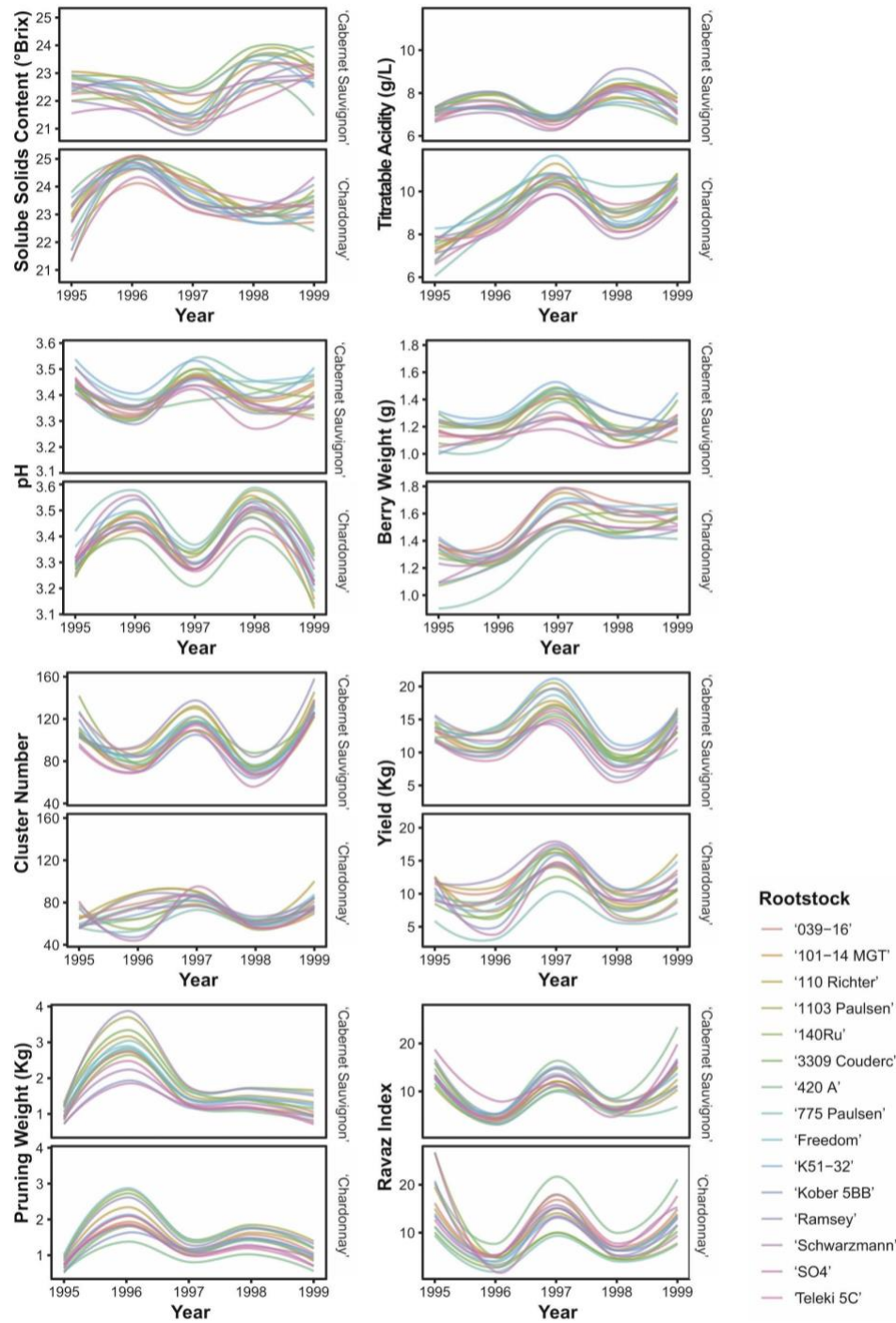
205 Sauvignon’ and 8.6 Kg for ‘Chardonnay’) in contrast to other years where yields ranged from  
206 10.4 Kg to 15.3 Kg for ‘Chardonnay’ and 13.3 Kg to 17.3 Kg for ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’, with the  
207 highest yields for both varieties produced in 1997. Similarly, the average number of clusters for  
208 either variety was lowest in 1996 and 1998 for ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ with values of 80.4 and  
209 71.8, respectively, in contrast to other years where values ranged from 111 to 133. For  
210 ‘Chardonnay’, the lowest number of clusters, on average, was produced in 1998 (59.9) and  
211 although many rootstocks had lower numbers in 1996, the overall average was slightly higher  
212 (69.5) than 1995 (63.2). ‘Chardonnay’ had more clusters, on average, in 1997 (84.1) and 1999  
213 (79.5) than other years.

214

215

216 In addition to decreased yields in 1996, vines also generally had higher pruning weights, with  
217 average values of 2.82 Kg for ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ and 2.13 Kg for ‘Chardonnay’, in  
218 comparison to values ranging from 1.01 Kg to 1.43 Kg for ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ and 0.74 Kg to  
219 1.49 Kg for ‘Chardonnay’ in other years. However, the relative rankings of the rootstocks were  
220 generally consistent across years (Figure 1, Figure S5).

221



222

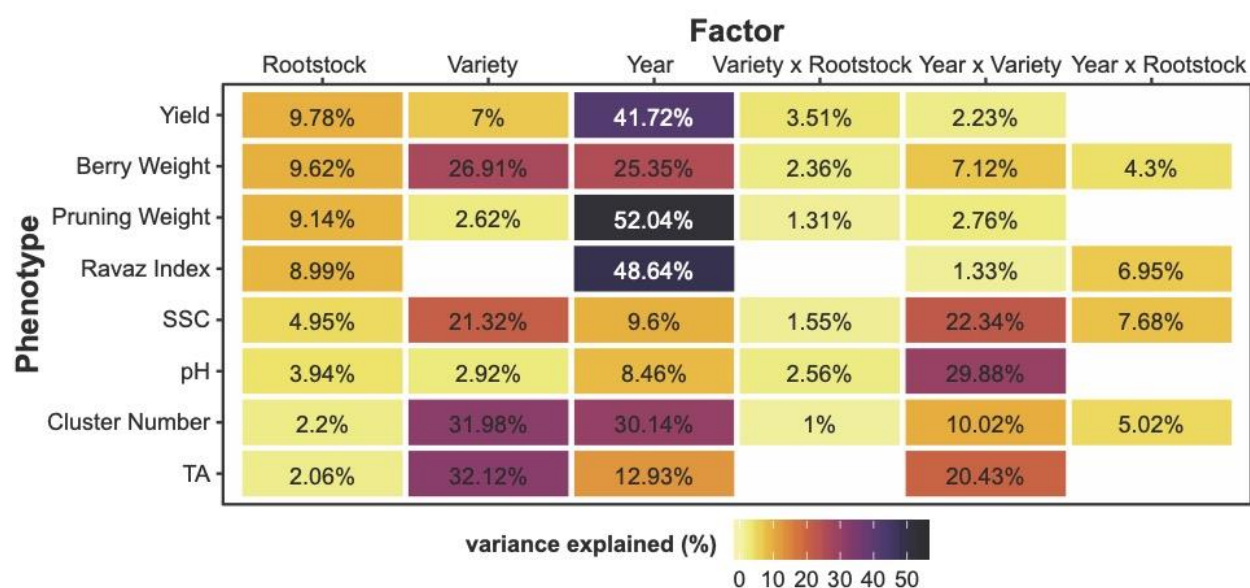
223 **Figure 1. Phenotypic variation across years (1995 to 1999) for each rootstock by scion**  
 224 **combination.** Ravaz index is a measurement of crop load calculated by dividing yield by  
 225 pruning weight from the following dormant season. Loess smoothing lines are plotted, however,  
 226 the data are independent and these are for visualization purposes only. Individual data points for  
 227 this figure are plotted in Figure S5.

228

229 *Statistical modeling*

230 Using a linear model (Equation 1), we identified year as the largest source of variation captured  
 231 by our data (Figure 2). Year was a significant term for all phenotypes, explaining 8.46% (pH) to  
 232 52.04% (pruning weight) of the phenotypic variation. Year explained over 40% of the variation  
 233 in pruning weight (52.04%), Ravaz index (48.64%), and yield (41.72%).

234



235

236 **Figure 2. Phenotypic variation explained by factors of interest estimated using a linear**  
 237 **model (equation 1).** For each phenotype, the linear model was optimized by removing non-  
 238 significant interaction effects. For factors which explain a significant amount of variance ( $p <$   
 239  $0.05$ ), the percent variance explained is indicated using colour. Position in the vineyard (block)  
 240 was included in the model but is not plotted. Phenotypes are sorted in order of the most variance  
 241 explained by rootstock.

242

243

244 Grapevine variety explained a significant amount of variation in all traits except Ravaz index,  
 245 with the strongest effect for TA (32.12%), cluster number (31.98%), berry weight (26.91%), and  
 246 SSC (21.32%). The interaction between year and variety was significant for all traits, and over

247 20% of the variation in pH (29.88%), SSC (22.34%), and TA (20.43%) could be explained by  
248 this term.

249  
250 Rootstock had a significant effect on all phenotypes and explained between 8.99% and 9.78% of  
251 the variation in yield, berry weight, pruning weight, and Ravaz index. For yield, pruning weight,  
252 pH, and TA, the interaction between rootstock and year was removed from the model because it  
253 did not explain a significant amount of variation in the trait. For the remaining traits, the  
254 interaction between rootstock and year explained 4.31% to 7.68% of the variation (Figure 2).

255  
256 While the interaction between variety and rootstock was retained as a significant term for all  
257 phenotypes except TA and Ravaz index, it explained less than 4% of the variation in any given  
258 phenotype.

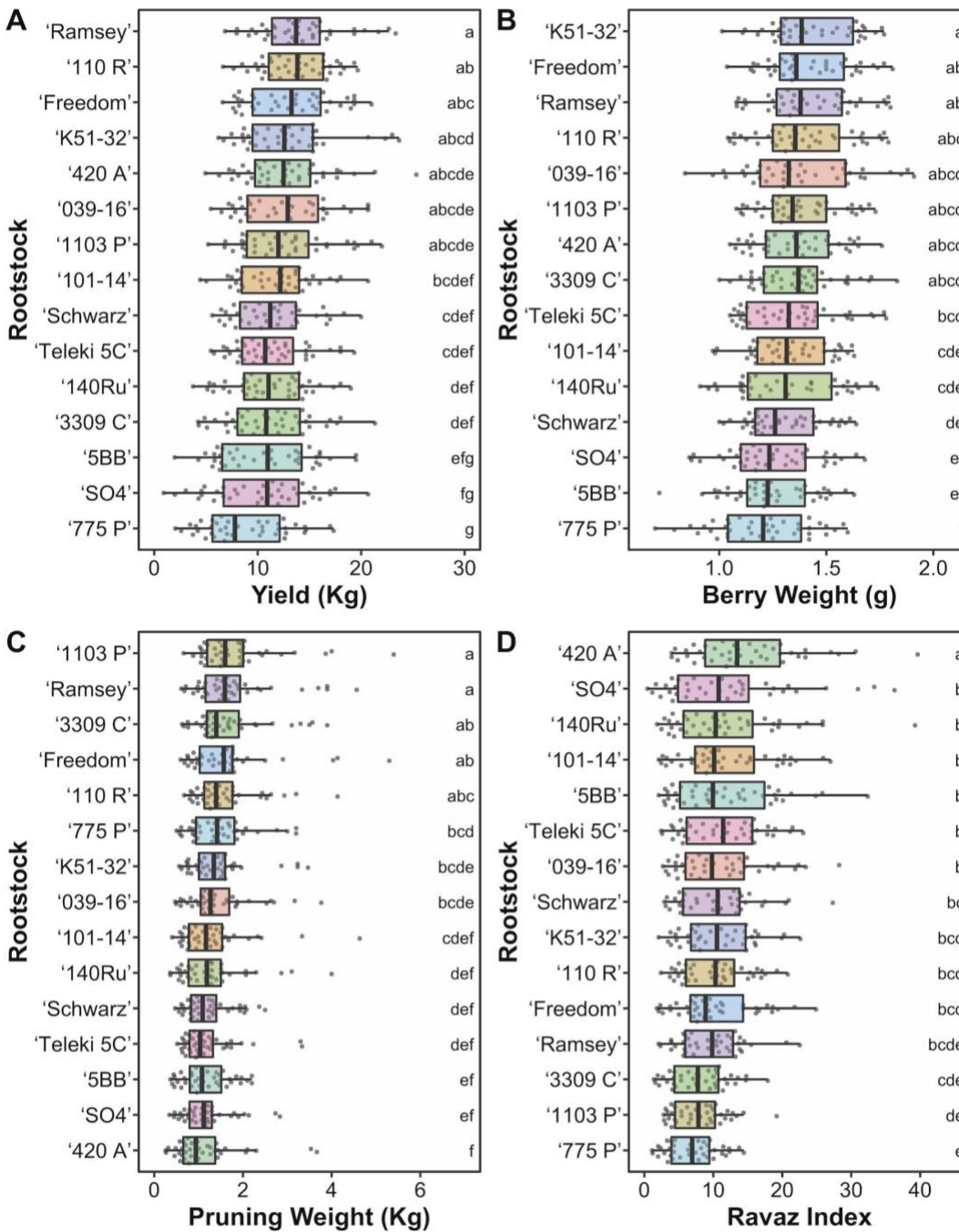
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260

### 261 *Comparing rootstock performance*

262 Focusing on the phenotypes in which rootstock showed the strongest effect, we plotted the  
263 distributions for yield (9.78%), berry weight (9.62%), pruning weight (9.14%), and Ravaz index  
264 (8.99%) and compared each of the 15 rootstocks using a Tukey test (Figure 3). Across these  
265 phenotypes, ‘Ramsey’ had among the highest yields, berry weights, and pruning weights, and  
266 one of the lowest Ravaz indexes. The yield for ‘Ramsey’ was significantly higher than eight of  
267 the other rootstocks evaluated. Similarly, ‘Freedom’ ranked within the top four for yield, berry  
268 weight, and pruning weight measurements, but ranked 11th for Ravaz index. However,  
269 ‘Freedom’ and ‘Ramsey’ only had a significantly lower Ravaz index than ‘420 A’.

270



271

272 **Figure 3. Variation in (A) yield, (B) berry weight, (C) pruning weight, and (D) Ravaz index**  
 273 **across vines grafted to 15 different rootstocks.** Rootstocks are ordered from highest to lowest  
 274 mean values. Tukey test results are reported from a linear model accounting for variation in  
 275 variety, year, position in the vineyard (block), and applicable interaction effects. Rootstocks with  
 276 the same letter (indicated inside the plot) are not significantly different from each other. For  
 277 estimated marginal means see Figure S3.

278

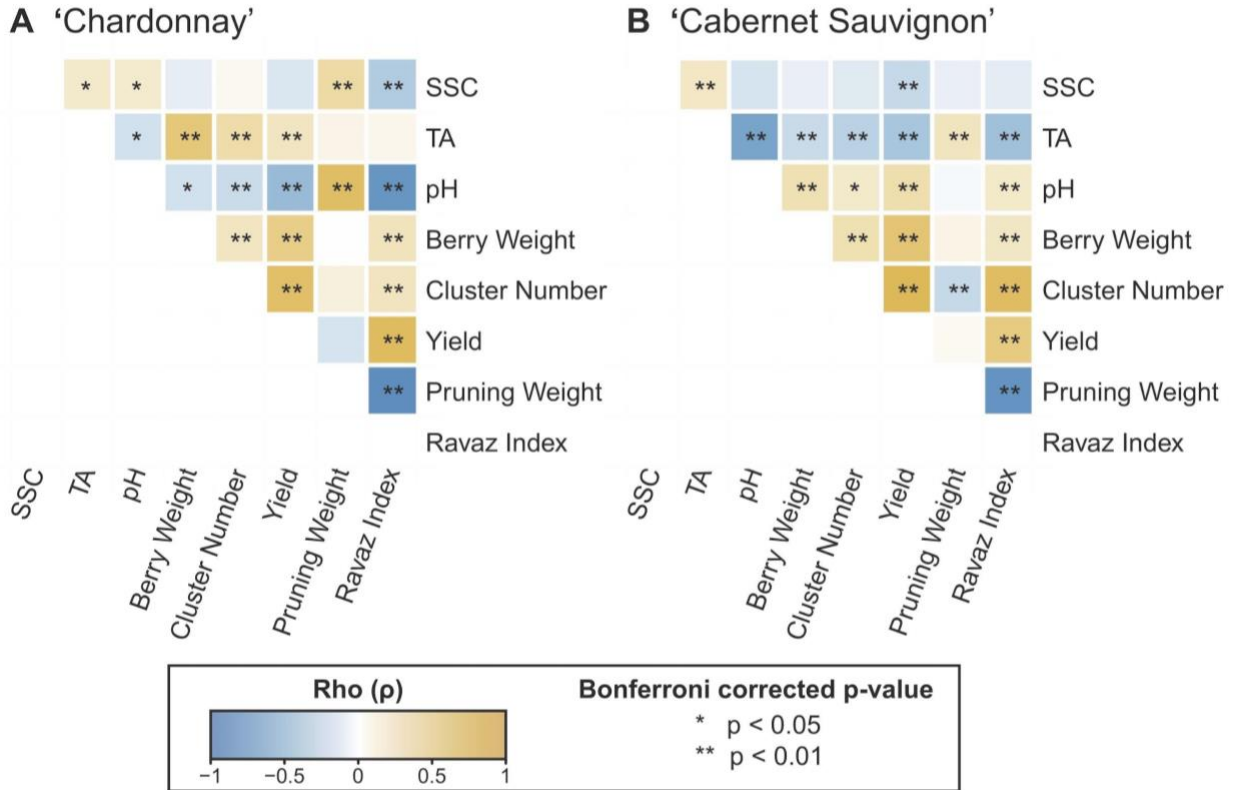
279 The rootstock ‘775 P’ generated the lowest yields and smallest berries, with only ‘SO4’ and  
280 ‘5BB’ not differing significantly for these two phenotypes. In contrast, ‘775 P’ was ranked 6th  
281 for pruning weight, which resulted in a significantly lower Ravaz index than all other rootstocks  
282 except ‘3309 C’, ‘1103 P’, and ‘Freedom’, although this trend is likely due primarily to the low  
283 yield of ‘Chardonnay’ grafted to ‘775 P’ (Figure S4). In comparison, ‘420 A’ ranked 5th for  
284 yield and had the lowest pruning weight, thus resulting in a Ravaz index which was significantly  
285 higher than all other rootstocks.

286

#### 287 *Correlation between traits*

288 For both ‘Chardonnay’ and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’, Ravaz index was significantly correlated with  
289 most other phenotypes with the exception of TA (‘Chardonnay’) and SSC (‘Cabernet  
290 Sauvignon’) (Figure 4, Table S4). Ravaz index was positively correlated with cluster number for  
291 ‘Chardonnay’ ( $r = 0.250$ ,  $p = 3.398 \times 10^{-4}$ ) and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ ( $r = 0.671$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-15}$ ).  
292 Yield was not significantly correlated with pruning weight for either variety but it was positively  
293 correlated with cluster number (‘Chardonnay’:  $r = 0.634$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-15}$ ; ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’:  $r$   
294  $= 0.722$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-15}$ ) and berry weight (‘Chardonnay’:  $r = 0.489$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-15}$ ; ‘Cabernet  
295 Sauvignon’:  $r = 0.579$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-15}$ ).

296



297

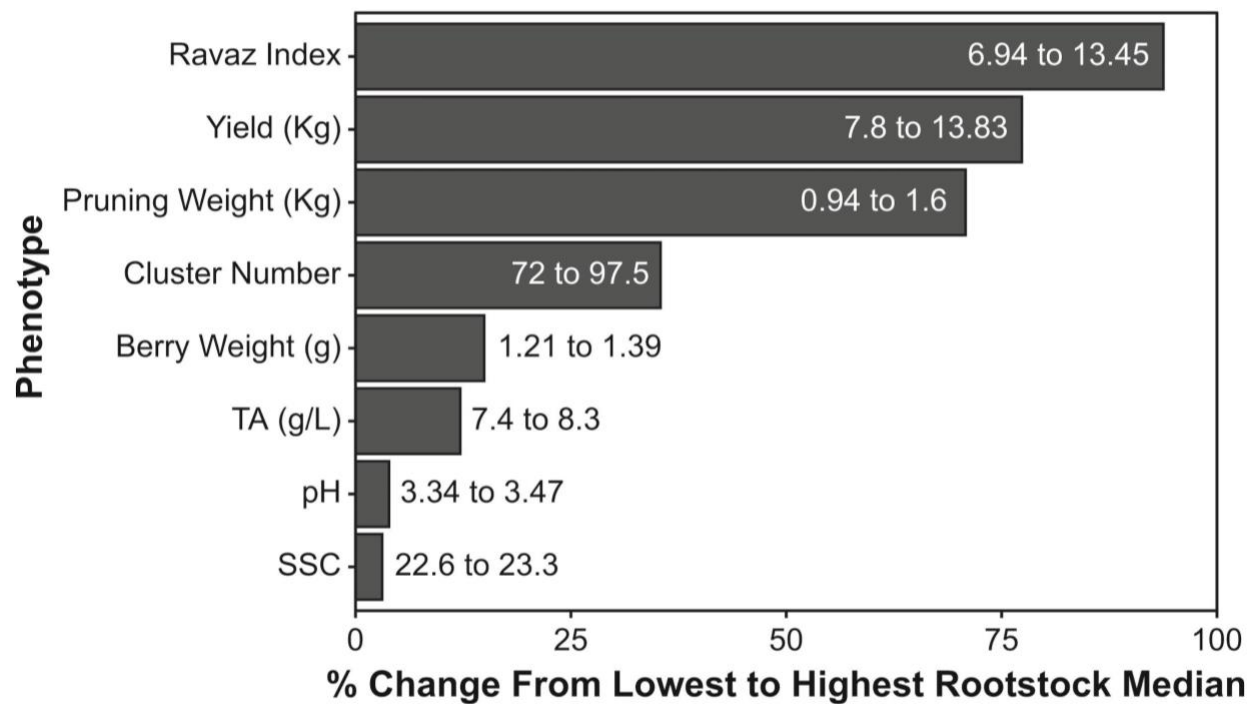
298 **Figure 4. Spearman's correlations among phenotypes for (A) 'Chardonnay' and (B)**  
 299 **'Cabernet Sauvignon'.** P-values were Bonferroni-corrected for multiple comparisons with a  
 300 particular variety.  
 301

302 *Range of rootstock effects*

303 Lastly, we evaluated the percent change between the best and worst performing rootstocks for  
 304 each phenotype (Figure 5, Table S5). The percent change ranged from 3.10% for SSC to 93.78%  
 305 for Ravaz index. In addition to Ravaz index, cluster number (35.42%), pruning weight (70.82%),  
 306 and yield (77.35%) all increased by over 30%, while the remaining phenotypes increased by less  
 307 than 15%.

308





309

310 **Figure 5. Percent change in each phenotype from rootstock with the lowest median to the**  
311 **rootstock with the highest median.** Phenotypes are ordered from largest percent change to  
312 lowest percent change. Raw values are also listed.

313

## 314 Discussion

### 315 *Potential causes of variation across years*

316 In California, most wine regions annually receive sufficient rainfall during the dormant season to  
317 support desired canopy growth. However, there are years where low dormant season rainfall may  
318 reduce canopy growth<sup>31</sup>. Previous work examining ‘Merlot’ vines across two years in California  
319 found that soil moisture level during the dormant season impacted both vegetative and  
320 reproductive growth, even when irrigation is applied after budbreak<sup>31</sup>. In our study, there was  
321 less rainfall during the 1994 and 1997 dormant seasons when floral initiation would have  
322 occurred (Figure S2). While the reduction in yield we observed in 1998 may be due to a dry  
323 1997 dormant season, the dormant season prior to 1996 had higher rainfall and it’s unclear why

324 the yield was not higher (Figure 1). Thus, at least for the 1998 growing season, a reduction in  
325 rainfall the previous year may have had a more severe impact on reproductive growth in contrast  
326 to vegetative growth.

327

328 In addition to the impact of rainfall, overcropping (too much fruit) has been considered as a  
329 source of alternate (biennial) bearing, with high yields in one year reducing yield in the  
330 subsequent year. Growers may be concerned that mechanical pruning can lead to overcropping,  
331 however, the vines in this study were hand-pruned to a target of 50 nodes per vine. In addition,  
332 previous work on both ‘Sultana’ and ‘Concord’ grapes found variation in yield was primarily due  
333 to environmental factors and management practices, rather than alternate bearing because of  
334 overcropping<sup>32,33</sup>. Therefore, in our study, it was most likely the low precipitation and not  
335 overcropping in 1997 which was primarily responsible for reducing yields in 1998.

336

337 In contrast to our study (Figure 1), previous work found that the reduction to pruning mass due to  
338 dormant season rainfall was more severe than the reduction to yield, increasing the Ravaz index  
339 for vines which did not receive rainfall<sup>31</sup>. While this is not consistent with our results, we do find  
340 that year is the largest source of variation in growth-related traits (Figure 2), confirming that  
341 variable environmental conditions between years, such as access to water during the dormant  
342 season, plays a crucial role in plant growth and development.

343

#### 344 *Variation and consistency of scion and rootstock effects*

345 During the growing season, grape growers can use management practices such as irrigation to  
346 partly buffer against year-to-year variation<sup>34</sup>. The vines in this study were all irrigated using the

347 same management practices across five years, with a moderate RDI program of 80% from berry  
348 set to veraison, therefore reducing the impact of weather fluctuations during the growing season.  
349 When included in a linear model (Figure 2), variety explained over 20% of the variation we  
350 observed for TA, berry weight, and SSC, indicating that there is a strong variety-specific effect  
351 on many berry characteristics. Year, or vintage, had a significant interaction with variety for all  
352 phenotypes and explained over 20% of the variation in berry chemistry measurements such as  
353 pH, SSC, and TA. Even with consistent water management, berries from each variety responded  
354 differently to environmental conditions. In comparison, for growth measurements such as yield  
355 and pruning weight there was less variation explained by year by variety interaction, indicating  
356 the years with low or high growth for ‘Chardonnay’ had a similar impact on ‘Cabernet  
357 Sauvignon’. Thus, the effect of year on growth was relatively similar across different grapevine  
358 varieties, while the effect on berry chemistry differed between varieties.

359

360 In contrast to variety, the effect of rootstock rarely varied across years (Figure 2): the interaction  
361 between rootstock and year was not a significant term for yield, pruning weight, pH or TA, and  
362 explained less than 8% of the variation for the remaining phenotypes. We found that the effect of  
363 a rootstock was generally consistent between ‘Chardonnay’ and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’, with the  
364 interaction between variety and rootstock explaining very little phenotypic variation (less than  
365 4%). This suggests that grape growers should place great emphasis on rootstock choice as a  
366 critical decision during vineyard planning as performance of one rootstock, relative to others, is  
367 generally consistent over time and between varieties.

368

369

370 *Effects of rootstocks and their interaction with environment*

371 The choice of rootstock is particularly important for growth-related traits such as yield, pruning  
372 weight, berry size, and Ravaz index, where rootstock effects explained at least 9% of the  
373 variation (Figure 2). In contrast to our study, previous work examining nine grape varieties  
374 grown ungrafted and grafted to four different rootstocks found that yield and berry weight were  
375 not affected by rootstock<sup>35</sup>. However, similar to our work, the study identified that vine and yield  
376 components were more responsive to rootstock than fruit composition variables<sup>35</sup>. Our results are  
377 also consistent with previous work identifying a significant difference in yield, pruning weight,  
378 and berry weight of ‘Shiraz’ vines grafted to different rootstocks and measured across six  
379 years<sup>18</sup>. That said, while rootstock can have a significant impact on yield, environmental factors  
380 including location, climate, and soil, generally have a much larger influence on this trait<sup>19,36</sup>.

381  
382 In long-lived perennial plants where significant year-to-year variation can occur, the collection  
383 of data across multiple years is a valuable tool for untangling the effect of the environment. By  
384 evaluating the vines in this study across five years, we were able to account for the variation due  
385 to year in our model and determine how much of the variation was due to rootstock (Figure 3).  
386 Similarly, a recent seven year study examined ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ grafted to three different  
387 rootstocks. The study found no significant effect of rootstock on pruning weight, although yield  
388 and berry weight did differ significantly<sup>37</sup>. When comparing the rootstocks which overlapped  
389 with our study, the authors found similar results: ‘101-14 Mgt’ and ‘420 A’ did not differ  
390 significantly for yield and berry weight, but ‘420 A’ had a significantly higher Ravaz index<sup>37</sup>.

391

392 A 25 year study that measured ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ grafted to three different rootstocks found  
393 that Ravaz index was significantly affected by rootstock choice, but only after 7 years of  
394 planting. Similarly, yields across rootstocks only differed after 15 years<sup>38</sup>. Although we detect  
395 variation in vines which had been planted for three to seven years, our dataset includes a much  
396 broader representation of rootstocks. The effects observed in our study may not only be due to  
397 the young age of the vines examined here, but also due to the particular soil of the experimental  
398 plot. For example, previous work found that in a vineyard severely infected with nematodes,  
399 grafting ‘Chardonnay’ to 15 different rootstocks increased yield by up to 7 times and pruning  
400 weight by up to 23-fold when compared to ungrafted vines. Rootstocks varied in their resistance  
401 and tolerance to nematodes, with rootstock parentage influencing both yield and pruning  
402 weight<sup>21</sup>. Given that grapevines may remain in the ground for at least 20 years, additional long  
403 term studies across multiple locations are needed in order to determine how the effect of  
404 rootstocks changes over time and under different external conditions including environment and  
405 soil.

406

#### 407 *Rootstocks affect growth-related scion phenotypes*

408 Generally, rootstocks resulting in large values of one growth-related phenotype also resulted in  
409 large measures of other growth-related phenotypes (Figure 4). For example, rootstocks that  
410 generated higher yields generally also produced larger berries. While cluster number was more  
411 highly correlated with yield than berry weight, much more variation in berry weight could be  
412 explained by rootstock, indicating that increased yields due to rootstock were primarily a result  
413 of increased berry weight and not additional clusters. This suggests that rootstock choice does  
414 not influence floral initiation, but rather influences water uptake, which leads to variation in

415 berry weight. While high yields are generally desirable, the ratio of skin-to-pulp is an important  
416 consideration for vinification, and this ratio is reduced when berries take on more water.  
417 Previous work also demonstrated that in addition to decreasing fruit size, reducing water in  
418 ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ increased desirable characteristics such as the concentrations of skin  
419 tannin and anthocyanins<sup>39</sup>. Therefore, while the use of a rootstock to increase yields is beneficial,  
420 this has to be balanced with ensuring that the berries maintain a desirable size, possibly through a  
421 reduction in irrigation for more vigorous rootstocks.

422

423 While increased reproductive growth leading to increased yields is economically beneficial, if  
424 the vegetative growth increases at the same rate, the Ravaz index, or crop load, of the vine will  
425 remain consistent. Increased vegetative growth results in higher vine management costs, such as  
426 pruning and leaf thinning. We demonstrated that Ravaz index was correlated with most of the  
427 other phenotypes we measured (Figure 4). This suggests that the balance between reproductive  
428 and vegetative growth in a vine is associated with many other characteristics of that vine.  
429 However, pruning weight and yield were not correlated, likely because all vines were pruned to a  
430 similar size and shoot number to prevent overcropping, but the number of clusters per shoot  
431 differed. As a result, higher yields were positively correlated with both berry weight and cluster  
432 number, but the correlation with cluster number was higher for both varieties, indicating that the  
433 primary source of increased yield was more clusters and not larger berries. In some instances,  
434 therefore, rootstock choice may increase reproductive growth of a vine without an increase in  
435 vegetative growth and its associated costs.

436

437 The choice of one rootstock over another can result in nearly a two-fold difference in growth-  
438 related traits like yield, Ravaz index and pruning weight but has little effect on berry on the  
439 chemistry measurements assessed in this study, in particular SSC and pH (Figure 5). Previous  
440 studies have also found small differences in berry chemistry such as SSC with large variation in  
441 growth, such as yield, due to rootstock<sup>21,43</sup>.

442

443 *Potential causes of rootstock-induced variation in growth*

444 While we were unable to evaluate it directly, we find it likely that much of the variation in  
445 growth that can be attributed to rootstock in our study is due to increased water uptake by vines  
446 grafted to certain rootstocks. Variation in water uptake is generally the result of some  
447 combination of water uptake efficiency, the size and surface area of the root system, and  
448 stomatal regulation to reduce water loss, among other factors<sup>12</sup>. For example, ‘Ramsey’ and  
449 ‘Freedom’ generally had high yields, large berries, and high pruning weights (Figure 3).  
450 Similarly, in an Australia study, ‘Shiraz’ vines grown with irrigation and grafted to ‘Ramsey’ or  
451 ‘Freedom’ rootstocks yielded more fruit than ungrafted vines and than vines grafted on the other  
452 five rootstock varieties assessed, indicating that these rootstocks tend to increase yield and  
453 pruning weight<sup>40</sup>. Other work found a rootstock-dependent effect of irrigation on some yield  
454 components such as cluster number and berry weight, but not on yield itself<sup>41</sup>. In our study, all  
455 vines were irrigated equally, which may have led to a rootstock-specific effect on water uptake  
456 which ultimately contributed to variation in yield and could be further controlled with rootstock-  
457 specific irrigation regimes.

458

459 In addition to variation water uptake, it is possible some variation in growth is due to variation in  
460 disease resistance. While phylloxera is a concern in the region, all vines were grafted to  
461 rootstocks which should provide protection. Additionally, there is the potential for grapevine  
462 fanleaf virus at this site. One of the key symptoms of fanleaf degeneration is a decrease in fruit  
463 set which leads to a lower yield<sup>42</sup>. Given that only vines grafted to ‘039-16’ would have fanleaf  
464 protection in this study, and the yield of vines grafted to ‘039-16’ is not significantly higher than  
465 other rootstocks (Figure 3A) which do not offer protection, indicating that it is likely not a severe  
466 concern in this vineyard. Thus, while there may be some variation in rootstock tolerance to other  
467 pests and pathogens, this is unlikely to be a major factor in this study.

468

#### 469 *Conclusion*

470 Increasing yield, especially during the early years of production, can have a dramatic influence  
471 on the profitability of a vineyard and the results of this study clearly indicate that selection of the  
472 right rootstock is a valuable tool that grape growers can use to help control vine size and yield.  
473 These results should be taken into account when considering which rootstock to select,  
474 particularly in the San Joaquin Valley where this study was performed, with additional work  
475 needed to verify the effect of each rootstock across different geographic locations. Future work  
476 can explore if the early advantage provided by rootstock is maintained throughout the life of a  
477 vineyard.

478

479

480

481



482 **Supplemental information**

483

484 **Figure S1. Vineyard map of rootstock evaluation trial.**

485

486 **Figure S2. Variation in maximum temperature (°F), minimum temperature (°F) and**  
487 **cumulative precipitation (inches) measured from January 1994 to December 1999 in Lodi,**  
488 **California, US.**

489

490 **Figure S3. Estimated marginal means with 95% confidence interval for variation in (A)**  
491 **yield, (B) berry weight, (C) pruning weight, and (D) Ravaz index across vines grafted to 15**  
492 **different rootstocks. Rootstocks are ordered from highest to lowest mean values. Linear**  
493 **models Tukey test results are reported from a linear model accounting for variation in**  
494 **variety, year, position in the vineyard (block), and applicable interaction effects.**

495

496 **Figure S4. Median values (+/- standard deviation) for each phenotype for ‘Chardonnay’**  
497 **and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ grafted to each rootstock.**

498

499 **Figure S5. Phenotypic variation across years (1995 to 1999) for each rootstock by scion**  
500 **combination with individual data points plotted. Loess smoothing lines are also plotted,**  
501 **however, the data are independent and these are for visualization purposes only. Ravaz**  
502 **index is a measurement of crop load calculated by dividing yield by pruning weight from**  
503 **the following dormant season.**

504

505 **Table S1. Harvest and pruning dates for ‘Chardonnay’ and ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ vines**  
506 **sampled from 1995-1999.**

507

508 **Table S2. Phenotype data collected from 1995 to 1999 for ‘Chardonnay’ and ‘Cabernet**  
509 **Sauvignon’ vines grafted to 15 different rootstocks.**

510

511 **Table S3. Linear model results for each phenotype.** Each model was optimized for each  
512 phenotype: the main effects were retained in all cases but non-significant interactions were  
513 removed.

514

515 **Table S4. Results of Spearman’s correlation between phenotypes for ‘Chardonnay’ and**  
516 **‘Cabernet Sauvignon’.** P-values were Bonferroni-corrected for comparison within each variety.

517

518 **Table S5. Variation across phenotypes based on median rootstock values.** The maximum  
519 median, minimum median, average median are included as well as the maximum percent change  
520 (from minimum to maximum median) and average percent change across rootstocks.

521

## 522 **Data Availability**

523

524 All data supporting the results of this manuscript have been included as supplementary materials  
525 (Table S2). The code used to analyze the data and generate the figures in this manuscript has  
526 been made publicly available on GitHub<sup>27</sup>.

527

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529

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535

536 **Conflicts of interest**

537

538 PC, LMJ, and RKS were employed by E. & J. Gallo Winery. The remaining authors declare that  
539 the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that  
540 could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

541

542 **Authors' Contributions**

543

544 PV conceived this work and led the collection of the data. LMJ organized the data. ZM analyzed  
545 the data and wrote the manuscript. PC, SM, and DHC provided feedback in data analysis and  
546 interpreting the results. PC, RKS, and DHC provided project oversight and guidance. All authors  
547 reviewed the manuscript.

548

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