

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25

**Effect of post veraison regulated deficit irrigation in production and berry quality of  
Autumn Royal and Crimson table grape cultivars**

J.M. Faci<sup>1\*</sup>, O. Blanco<sup>1</sup>, E.T. Medina<sup>1</sup> and A. Martínez-Cob<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Soils and Irrigation, (Estación Experimental de Aula Dei, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, EEAD-CSIC Associated Unit), Center for Research and Food Technology of Aragon (Centro de investigación y Tecnología Agroalimentaria, CITA), Ave. Montañana, 930, 50059 Zaragoza, Spain.

<sup>2</sup> Department of Soil and Water, Estación Experimental de Aula Dei (EEAD), Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas (CSIC), Ave. Montañana 1005, 50059 Zaragoza, Spain.

\*Corresponding author: jfaci@aragon.es . Tel.: +34 976716359

**Abstract**

A field experiment was performed in drip-irrigated two seedless table grape vineyards (Vitis vinifera L. cv. Autumn Royal and Crimson) from 2007 to 2009 in a semiarid area of north-eastern Spain to evaluate the effect of post veraison regulated deficit irrigation (RDI) on the grape yield and quality. The same experimental layout was used in both cultivars. Two RDI treatments were compared with a full irrigation treatment in both cultivars. The full irrigation treatment (T1) was irrigated at 100 % of the net irrigation requirements (NIR). The

1 RDI treatments (T2 and T3) were irrigated as T1 except from veraison until harvest, which  
2 received 80 % and 60 % of NIR, respectively. Average water saving in T3 was around 15 %  
3 of the seasonal water applied in the treatment T1 while this saving in T2 ranged between 6 to  
4 8 %. Similar grape yields were obtained in the different irrigation treatments for the Autumn  
5 Royal cultivar during 2007 and 2009. However in 2008 the yield of T2 (46.0 kg vine<sup>-1</sup>) was  
6 significantly higher than in T3 (34.4 kg vine<sup>-1</sup>). For the Crimson cultivar, the grape yield of  
7 T3 was significantly lower than T2 in 2007 and 2008. In 2009 low grape yields were obtained  
8 in all treatments of the Crimson cultivar and no differences were observed between them. The  
9 quality parameters of the berry in both cultivars were not affected by the irrigation treatments.  
10 Berry cracking in Autumn was high in 2007 ranging from 14.7 to 21.4 % and very low in  
11 2008 and 2009 ranging from 1.5 to 4.3 %. The reduction of berry cracking was attributed to  
12 the splitting of the irrigation dose in two applications per day, one at midday and the other one  
13 at night. Significant differences between irrigation treatments were observed in the CIELab  
14 color parameters of the berry skin in the Crimson cultivar. The overall results during the three  
15 study years showed that high grape yields of very good quality can be obtained with moderate  
16 regulated deficit irrigation in the post veraison phase without affecting grape quality in the  
17 Autumn and Crimson seedless cultivars in the arid conditions of the lower Ebro Valley in  
18 north-eastern Spain.

19

20

21

22

## 23 **1. Introduction**

24 In 2010 the vineyard surface for table grape production in Spain covered an extension  
25 of 16,000 ha, with a total grape production of 237,000 Mg, whereas the vineyard surface for

1 wine production was 980,000 ha with a production of 5,900,000 Mg (MAAMA, 2011). About  
2 94 % of the table grape production is located in the coastal areas of south of Spain. In the  
3 north of Spain, plantation of some commercial vineyards have been recently performed, they  
4 are achieving very high yields and with very high quality in some areas such as the lower  
5 Ebro river basin. The high productivity and quality of this crop in new irrigated areas in this  
6 region seems to be due to the use of new cultivars, favorable climatic conditions and low  
7 incidence of fungus diseases.

8 Many studies around the world have been performed on the effect of deficit irrigation  
9 (DI) on the response of crops. Recent reviews of literature agree to indicate that DI is a very  
10 useful tool to stabilize yields and increase water productivity in areas with water scarcity  
11 (Feres and Soriano, 2007; Geerts and Raes, 2009; Ruiz-Sanchez et al., 2010). When  
12 irrigation water supply is limited, DI becomes a useful agronomic tool since water  
13 productivity should be the objective rather than the maximization of the yield per unit of area  
14 (Geerts and Raes, 2009). The term regulated deficit irrigation (RDI) is used when the DI is  
15 applied in the drought tolerant phenological stages of the crop that often are the early  
16 vegetative stages and the late maturation stages. For the last three decades, RDI has been  
17 successfully used in orchards of different fruit species such as peaches (*Prunus persica*)  
18 (Chalmers et al., 1981; Boland *et al.*, 2000a,b; Girona et al., 2003; Lopez et al., 2008), apricot  
19 (*Prunus armeniaca*) (Ruiz-Sanchez et al., 2000, Perez-Sarmiento et al., 2010), plums (*Prunus*  
20 *domestica*) (Intrigliolo and Castel, 2005), cherries (*Prunus avium*) (Marsal et al., 2010), pears  
21 (*Pyrus communis*) (Marsal et al., 2002), almonds (*Prunus amigdalus*) (Romero *et al.*, 2004;  
22 Goldhamer et al., 2006; Stewart et al., 2011), olive (*Olea europaea*) (Iniesta et al., 2009) and  
23 citrus (*Citrus sinensis*) (Garcia-Tejero et al., 2010; Ballester et a., 2013).

24 In wine vineyards, full irrigation is not recommended since it increases the berry size  
25 and this produces a decrease of the skin pulp ratio which is detrimental for the wine quality

1 (Ruiz-Sanchez et al., 2010). RDI techniques have been widely used in wine grapes (Acevedo-  
2 Opazo et al., 2010; Santesteban et al., 2011; Ortega-Farias et al., 2012). The general practice  
3 of RDI in vineyards consists in a reduction of irrigation in the pre veraison or post veraison  
4 phases in order to maintain yield and improve the quality of the must (Wade et al., 2004;  
5 Ferreyra *et al.*, 2004; Chalmers *et al.*, 2004). The veraison represents the transition between  
6 the berry growth to the berry ripening and it is characterized by a change in the color of the  
7 skin of the berries. Usually improvement of must quality is associated with increases of the  
8 pulp skin ratio, intensity of the color, anthocyanins and total soluble solids contents (Williams  
9 and Matthews, 1990).

10 In table grape vineyards usually full irrigation is recommended since maximum  
11 production and size of the berries is desired (Blanco et al., 2010). In table grape cultivars the  
12 berry size, firmness, sweetness and color are important variables as shown by Williams *et al.*  
13 (2010). These berry quality parameters differ from the wine quality parameters and therefore  
14 irrigation practices to optimize berry quality can be quite different. Deficit irrigation studies in  
15 table grape are very limited. However deficit irrigation can be of interest to improve some of  
16 the quality parameters of the berries such as color, total dissolved solids and aromas (El-  
17 Ansary et al. 2005).

18 El-Ansari *et al.* (2005) compared the effects of moderate (irrigation 2 days after soil  
19 water potential reached -15 kPa) and severe post veraison RDI (irrigation 4 days after soil  
20 water potential reached -15 kPa) with a control treatment (irrigation when soil water potential  
21 reached -15 kPa) on the quality of table grapes cv. 'Muscat of Alexandria'. Their results  
22 showed that the moderate RDI had no effect on berry weight or juice quality at harvest.  
23 However the severe RDI decreased berry size, firmness and acidity and increased total soluble  
24 solids of the berries. In an experiment with the table grape cultivar 'Danlas' under different  
25 irrigation regimes, Ezzahouani and Williams (2007) found that the highest yield and berry

1 weights were obtained in the most irrigated treatment and no significant differences were  
2 observed in berry acidity between treatments.

3         The cultivation of seedless table grape cultivars have increased considerably in the last  
4 decades since consumers of many countries appreciate very much the lack of seeds in the  
5 berries and the firmness and sweetness of these new varieties. Spain is the first European  
6 producer of seedless table grapes. Autumn Royal presents a high commercial value, with a big  
7 berry, purple-black to black in color that matures around mid-September in the lower Ebro  
8 river valley. This cultivar is susceptible to berry cracking, which is a serious problem because  
9 it increases the labor required since the clusters need to be cleaned during the maturation  
10 phase until the harvest. At harvest, the cracked berries also must be manually removed to  
11 avoid cluster rot. Several authors have studied this problem in different table grape varieties,  
12 although due to its complexity a definitive solution to solve this problem has not been reached  
13 (Considine and Kriedemann, 1972; Matthews *et al.*, 1987). Another problem in this cultivar  
14 is the weak attachment of the berries to the rachis, so clusters must be very carefully handled  
15 in the harvest in order to avoid the berry loosening (Dokoozlian *et al.*, 2000).

16         Crimson is also a late-season red seedless table grape cultivar extensively cultivated in  
17 California and Europe. This variety has excellent eating characteristics; berry texture is firm  
18 and crisp, and its flavor is sweet and excellent. One of the main problems of this cultivar is  
19 the lack of color at harvest. It is critical that clusters be exposed to adequate sunlight during  
20 ripening for maximum fruit coloration. The lack of incident radiation in the clusters and the  
21 excessive crop loads delay maturity and decrease coloration. One extended practice to avoid  
22 this problem is the shoot thinning and the removal of basal leaves surrounding the clusters in  
23 order to increase the incidence of light in the clusters in the overhead trellis systems.

24         The aim of the study is to ascertain the effect of two levels of RDI applied from  
25 veraison to harvest on the yield and berry quality of table grapes Autumn Royal and Crimson

1 cultivars. The hypothesis is that changes in irrigation management and the application of RDI  
2 in the post veraison phase can maintain yield and improve berry quality and specially  
3 decrease berry cracking in the Autumn cultivar and improve the skin color redness of the  
4 Crimson cultivar.

5

## 6 **2. Material and methods**

7

### 8 **2. 1. Experiment description**

9         The same field experiment was conducted in the Autumn Royal and Crimson plots of  
10 a commercial vineyard located in the Santa Barbara commercial orchard, in the county of  
11 Caspe (Zaragoza, Spain) (41.16 °N, 0.01 °W) during 2007, 2008 and 2009. Both table grape  
12 cultivars were grafted on Richter 110 rootstock (*V. berlandieri* x *V. rupestris*) planted at a  
13 distance of 2.5 m between vines and 3.5 m between rows. Row direction was northwest to  
14 southwest. The vines were planted in 2002 in a sandy loam soil. The vine rows were planted  
15 in an elevated soil levee around 0.3 m high and 1 m wide. The soil of the plots has been  
16 developed upon colluvial deposits of higher river terraces. It is deep, properly drained, with  
17 quite coarse textures, a considerable percentage of stones, with a high calcium carbonate  
18 content (> 40 %), with no sodicity (SAR = 2.4) and slightly saline (Electrical conductivity,  
19 E<sub>Ce</sub> < 4 dS m<sup>-1</sup>) (Soil Survey Division Staff, 1993). The soil is classified as a Xeric  
20 calcigypsic, coarse loamy, mixed (gypsic), thermic (Soil Survey Staff, 1999, 2006). The  
21 average values of soil field capacity and permanent wilting point in the 0-30 cm soil layer  
22 were 26 % and 10 % in gravimetric basis. The average soil bulk density was 1600 Kg m<sup>-3</sup>.  
23 The vines were trained to an overhead Spanish horizontal trellis system, with vertical metallic  
24 stakes which holds a wire grid located at 2.2 m, where the vine canopy develops. The trellis  
25 system is covered with a white screen net made of high-density polyethylene (Criado and

1 Lopez, Almería, Spain) at a height of 2.5 to 3.0 m above the ground level for crop protection.  
2 This net was translucent with individual openings of  $12 \text{ mm}^2$  (2.2 mm x 5.4 mm). The  
3 reduction of solar radiation of this net measured in the field was 15 % (Moratíel and  
4 Martínez-Cob, 2012). The vineyard was managed according to the usual cultural practice in  
5 the farm. Cluster pruning was performed just after fruit set in order to obtain a uniform bunch  
6 load per vine. The vineyard was irrigated with a drip irrigation system with one lateral in each  
7 row of vines with integrated self compensating emitters of a discharge of  $2.2 \text{ L h}^{-1}$ , spaced 0.5  
8 m. During the 2007 irrigation season irrigations were applied daily at night. In 2008 and 2009  
9 the irrigation timing was changed from a single night application to two irrigation events, one  
10 at noon and a second one after midnight. Each vine had four main branches and every winter  
11 the vines were pruned to maintain this structure. An additional summer pruning of the shoots  
12 in a strip 0.5 m wide between vine rows was performed around veraison to improve light  
13 penetration in the clusters. Soluble fertilizers were applied with the drip irrigation system.

14 Climatic characterization of the three experimental years was performed using the data  
15 from the automated agrometeorological station “El Suelto-Plano Espés” of the SIAR network  
16 (Spanish National Network of Agrometeorological Stations for Irrigation). The station is  
17 located in Caspe County at UTM coordinates: UTMX 745309, UTM Y 4576848 (41.19° N,  
18 0.05° W) and altitude of 175 m. This station records semi-hourly data of air temperature, air  
19 relative humidity, wind speed and direction, solar radiation and precipitation. An automated  
20 meteorological station was also installed in the vineyard in order to obtain precipitation data  
21 in the experimental plots.

22 Daily values of vineyard crop evapotranspiration ( $ET_c$ ) for the three studied years were  
23 estimated multiplying the reference evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ), computed using the FAO  
24 Penman-Monteith (Allen et al., 1998) by crop coefficients ( $K_c$ ) adjusted for this particular  
25 vineyard. The daily meteorological data recorded at the “El Suelto-Plano Espés” station were

1 used for estimation of  $ET_0$ . Seasonal curves of daily  $K_c$  were developed using the procedure  
2 described by Allen et al. (1998). First, the duration and dates of the different crop growth  
3 stages needed for the calculation of the  $K_c$  were determined from the soil ground cover data  
4 that was measured by digital photography along the crop cycle in the different treatments of  
5 both cultivars (Blanco et al., 2010). Secondly, tabulated vineyard crop coefficient values  
6 (Allen and Pereira, 2009) were adjusted for three characteristics: a) the precipitation and  
7 average  $ET_0$  during the initial stage, and the averages of wind speed and minimum relative  
8 humidity recorded at the “El Suelto-Plano Espés” station during mid and end-season stages;  
9 and c) the effect of the plastic mesh in reducing  $ET_c$  using a net coefficient of 0.65 determined  
10 by Moratiel and Martínez-Cob (2012) in a vineyard neighbor to this experiment.

11

## 12 **2.2. Experimental design and irrigation treatments**

13 In each cultivar the experimental design was a randomized block with three replicates.  
14 The experimental unit was a subplot of 15 vines: three adjacent rows of 5 vines each. The  
15 three central vines of the central row were used for sampling and data recording. Three  
16 irrigation treatments, based upon a percentage of the net irrigation requirements  
17 ( $NIR = K_c * ET_0 - Rainfall$ ) from veraison till harvest, have been applied: a control (T1),  
18 irrigated at 100 % of the NIR and two RDI treatments (T2 and T3), irrigated as T1 during all  
19 irrigation season, except during the post veraison till harvest period when different  
20 percentages of NIR were applied, 80 % and 60 % of NIR in T2 and T3, respectively. In order  
21 to apply the differential irrigation treatments, the original drip laterals of treatments T2 and  
22 T3 were changed from veraison to harvest. In treatment T2 drip laterals with  $1.6 \text{ L h}^{-1}$   
23 integrated self compensating emitters, spaced 0.45 m, were installed and in treatment T3  
24 laterals with  $1.6 \text{ L h}^{-1}$  integrated self compensating emitters, spaced 0.6 m, were installed. In  
25 treatment T1 the original lateral drip lines with integrated self compensating emitters of  $2.2 \text{ L}$



1  $\text{h}^{-1}$ , spaced at 0.5 m were used. Irrigation duration was the same in all treatments but the  
2 differential irrigation was based in the lateral discharge. Volumetric water meters were  
3 installed to record the amount of water applied in each treatment.

4

### 5 **2.3. Measurements**

6 Soil volumetric water content ( $\theta_v$ ) was measured at 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.5 and 0.8 m depth  
7 with a frequency domain reflectometry (FDR) probe (Enviroscan, Sentek Technologies, Pty  
8 Ltd., Stepney, S.A. 5069, South Australia). Two probes per treatment were installed in the  
9 row of vines at two sites in each treatment and cultivar. Since the emitters were installed at  
10 short distances to create a homogeneous wetted band along the lines of vines, two FDR  
11 probes were installed in the vine rows at 0.5 and 1.25 m from the central vine of the  
12 experimental unit to obtain a mean value of the soil water content in each treatment. Hourly  
13 readings of the 24 sensors of the FDR permanent probes in each table grape cultivar were  
14 stored in a datalogger. The six access tubes per cultivar that hold the FDR probes were  
15 vertically inserted in the soil by drilling a hole of a bigger diameter than that of the access  
16 tube because of the high stoniness content of the soil. To avoid air gaps and ensure a good  
17 contact between the access tubes and the soil around it, the space between the access tube and  
18 the soil was filled with soil slurry. Hourly values of  $\theta_v$  were taken during the three  
19 experimental years in both table grape cultivars.

20 The trunk perimeter was measured at 1 m above the soil surface at the beginning and  
21 end of the growing season in 2008 and 2009 in both cultivars. Data were used to determine  
22 the trunk cross section (TCS,  $\text{cm}^2$ ) and the absolute and relative growth of the trunk vines.

23 Phenology by visual observation (Coombe, 1995), and canopy cover evolution using  
24 digital photography were determined. Photographs were taken with a digital camera Olympus,  
25 model  $\mu 810$  (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) placing the camera on the ground and focused upwards

1 covering a quarter of the whole spacing of a vine ( $1.25 \times 1.75$  m). The images included the  
2 leaves (green color) and branches (brown color) against the white color of the net. The images  
3 were processed with the GIMP program (available at [www.gimp.org](http://www.gimp.org)), by selecting exactly a  
4 quarter of the vine area. The GIMP program was used to transform the picture into black  
5 (leaves and branches) and white (clear screen) pixels. The histogram of the black and white  
6 pixels was calculated, giving a value of the percentage of the black pixels which represented  
7 the shaded ground cover.

8 During fall, the central three vines of each experimental unit in both cultivars were  
9 individually harvested, counting the number of clusters and weighing. A subsample of two  
10 clusters per vine was processed in the laboratory to control the berry quality parameters.  
11 Weight, size (longitudinal and equatorial diameter) and firmness (Durofel, Agro Technologie,  
12 76440 Forges Les Eaux, France) were measured in a subsample of 20 berries. Total soluble  
13 solids content measured with a pocket refractometer model PAL-1 (Atago Co., LTD, Minato-  
14 Ku, Tokyo, Japan) pH and titratable acidity (tartaric acid  $\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) of the grapes' juice were  
15 measured. To determine the percentage of berry cracking in the different irrigation treatments  
16 of the Autumn cultivar, two additional clusters were processed, separating and weighing the  
17 healthy and cracked berries. Color CIELab parameters were determined in a subsample of 20  
18 berries per experimental unit in each treatment of the Crimson cultivar using a colorimeter  
19 Konica Minolta model CR-200 (Konica Minolta Inc., Tokyo, Japan). The CIELab is a very  
20 complete model to define the color that was developed by the French Commission  
21 Internationale de l'éclairage, hence its CIE initials. The model describes all the colors visible  
22 to the human eye. The model uses three coordinates:  $L^*$  represents the lightness of the color  
23 ( $L^* = 0$  yields black and  $L^* = 100$  indicates white),  $a^*$  represents its position between  
24 red/magenta and green (negative values indicate green while positive values indicate  
25 magenta) and  $b^*$  represents its position between yellow and blue (negative values indicate

1 blue and positive values indicate yellow). The CIELab model has been used widely to  
2 measure the color of different fruits including grapes (Carreno et al., 1996).

3 Statistical analyses were performed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and  
4 General Linear Model (GLM) procedure of the SAS 9.1 software (SAS Institute, 2004).  
5 Multiple comparisons among treatments were performed using Duncan test at  $P = 0.05$ .

6

### 7 **3. Results**

8 Figure 1 presents the monthly values of precipitation recorded in the experimental  
9 vineyard, and air temperature and air relative humidity recorded in the automated  
10 agrometeorological station “El Suelto-Plano Espés” during the three study years. Precipitation  
11 is not evenly distributed along the year. Maximum monthly values of precipitation occurred in  
12 the spring months. Annual precipitation in the experimental plot was 274, 310 and 288 mm in  
13 2007, 2008 and 2009, respectively. The average annual precipitation for the period between  
14 2004 and 2011 in the automated agrometeorological station “El Suelto-Plano Espés” was 304  
15 mm. Temperature regimes were very similar in the three study years. The average annual  
16 mean temperature was 14.9, 14.8 and 15.8 °C in 2007, 2008 and 2009, respectively. The  
17 evolution of air relative humidity was also very similar in the three study years. An increase  
18 of the air relative humidity was observed in the months of April 2007, May 2008 and April  
19 2009, corresponding with the maximum precipitation values.

20 The annual values of reference evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) were 1455, 1388 and 1502  
21 mm in 2007, 2008 and 2009, respectively. Maximum monthly values of  $ET_0$  occurred in July  
22 with values of 249, 236 and 252 mm in 2007, 2008 and 2009, respectively (Table 1). The  
23 seasonal values of the calculated vineyard evapotranspiration ( $ET_c$ ) were almost the same in  
24 both cultivars. In the Autumn cultivar the seasonal  $ET_c$  varied between 890 mm in 2007 and

1 813 mm in 2009. In the Crimson cultivar the seasonal  $ET_c$  varied between 894 mm in 2007  
2 and 842 mm in 2009 (Table 1).

3 During the three study years irrigation was applied daily from April to October. The  
4 maximum depths of irrigation water were applied in treatment T1 with seasonal values  
5 varying between 808 mm in 2008 to 877 mm in 2007 in the Autumn cultivar and between 704  
6 mm in 2008 and 855 mm in 2007 in the Crimson cultivar (Table 2). The irrigation water  
7 applied in treatment T2 was around 60 mm lower than the irrigation water applied in T1 in  
8 both cultivars. In treatment T3 this reduction was 123 mm in the Autumn cultivar and 126  
9 mm in the Crimson cultivar. Rainfall during the irrigation season in both cultivars was 235,  
10 256 and 231 mm in 2007, 2008 and 2009, respectively.

11 Differential irrigation in treatments T2 and T3 started in the veraison phase that  
12 occurred on August 7 in 2007 and 2008 and July 15 in 2009 in the Autumn cultivar. In the  
13 Crimson cultivar the veraison phase started in July 30 in 2007, August 7 in 2008 and July 22  
14 in 2009. Differential irrigation lasted till the end of grape harvest, which was performed at  
15 various picks and at different dates between the middle of September until middle of October.

16 The reduction of irrigation water in treatments T2 and T3 in both cultivars did not  
17 show a clear decrease in the soil water content during the period of RDI. The monthly values  
18 of the average soil water content ( $\Theta_v$ ) in the row of vines in the top 0.8 m of the soil profile  
19 during the post veraison phase did not show lower values in the RDI treatments during the  
20 three experimental years (Table 3). During the three years the average volumetric soil water  
21 content in the top 0.8 m soil layer increased in all treatment in both cultivar along the season  
22 reaching maximum values in August and September. In 2007 an important reduction of  $\Theta_v$   
23 was observed in October. In general terms the  $\Theta_v$  was higher in Crimson than in Autumn. In  
24 2007 the  $\Theta_v$  of the different treatments was higher in Crimson than in Autumn in all  
25 measurements. In 2008 treatments T1 and T2 had higher values of  $\Theta_v$  in Crimson than in

1 Autumn. However in treatment T3 very similar values of  $\Theta_v$  were obtained in both cultivars.  
2 In 2009 treatment T2 had also higher values of  $\Theta_v$  in Crimson than in Autumn but very slight  
3 differences were found between cultivars in treatments T1 and T3. The seasonal average  
4 value of  $\Theta_v$  for the three treatments and both cultivars varied between a minimum of 32.3 %  
5 and a maximum of 41.1 %.

6 Vegetative growth of both cultivars was very similar in the three experimental years in  
7 both cultivars. Very little variation in the evolution of the soil ground cover along the three  
8 studied seasons was observed between the different irrigation treatments (Figure 2). Canopy  
9 development was faster in the Crimson than in the Autumn cultivar. Maximum values of soil  
10 ground cover (around 90 %) were reached slightly sooner in the Crimson than in the Autumn  
11 cultivar. Canopy cover would probably have reached 100 % but usual management practices  
12 include a slight thinning of the shoots in a central band between the vine rows in order to  
13 increase light penetration to the lower areas of the vine canopy and clusters. The sharp  
14 decrease in soil ground cover observed in the Crimson cultivar in 2009 (Figure 2) was due to  
15 a more severe manual thinning performed the first week of August. This thinning reduced the  
16 soil ground cover from around 90 % to 75 % while in the others seasons the thinning was  
17 lower. Maximum values of soil ground cover were reached around the beginning of the  
18 veraison phase in each cultivar and almost at the same time in the three irrigation treatments  
19 during the three study years (Figure 2). No significant differences of soil ground cover at the  
20 veraison phase were found between treatments. In 2007 and 2008 all the treatments in both  
21 cultivars reached almost full cover with values of soil ground cover ranging between 84.3 and  
22 90.6 %. In 2009 soil ground cover at the veraison phase ranged between 89.6 and 91.6 % in  
23 the Autumn cultivar and between 72.9 and 76.4 % in the Crimson cultivar (Table 4).

24 No significant differences of the trunk cross section (TCS) of the vines between  
25 treatments were found in 2008 and 2009 in both cultivars (Table 5). The average value of

1 TCS for the three irrigation treatments in 2008-2009 was 25.6 cm<sup>2</sup> in Autumn and 33.4 cm<sup>2</sup> in  
2 Crimson. The TCS was lower in the Autumn cultivar than in the Crimson cultivar. Similar  
3 results were found in the relative growth of the trunk cross section (RGTC) with lack of  
4 significance between treatments in both years (Table 5). However, the RGTC in the Autumn  
5 cultivar was higher than in the Crimson cultivar. The average value of RGTC for the three  
6 irrigation treatments in was 73 % in Autumn and 55 % in Crimson.

7 Results of grape production, number of cluster and average weight of the cluster of the  
8 different treatments in the Autumn and Crimson cultivars varied between years (Table 6). In  
9 2007 no significant differences were observed in these variables between irrigation treatments  
10 in the Autumn cultivar. However in the Crimson cultivar significant differences between  
11 treatments were observed. Grape production (28.9 kg vine<sup>-1</sup>) and the number of clusters (62.4  
12 clusters vine<sup>-1</sup>) of T3 were significantly lower than corresponding values in T2 (47.7 kg vine<sup>-1</sup>  
13 and 101.4 clusters vine<sup>-1</sup>). No effect of the irrigation treatments on the cluster weight was  
14 observed. The average cluster weight for the three treatments was 0.79 kg in Autumn and 0.47  
15 kg in Crimson (Table 6).

16 In 2008 differences between treatments were observed in both cultivars in the grape  
17 production and on the number of clusters. Grape production and the number of clusters per  
18 vine of T3 were significantly lower than corresponding values in T2 in both cultivars. As in  
19 2007 no effect of the irrigation treatments in the cluster weight was observed in both cultivars.  
20 The average cluster weight in 2008 in Autumn (0.79 kg) was very similar to the weight of the  
21 previous year. However in the Crimson cultivar the cluster average weight in 2008 (0.73 kg)  
22 was higher than in 2007 (0.47 kg) (Table 6).

23 In 2009 no significant differences were found in the grape production and the number  
24 of clusters per vine between the different treatments in the Autumn and Crimson cultivars.  
25 The number of clusters per vine in Autumn was lower than in previous years. However the

1 cluster average weight in 2009 was higher in all irrigation treatments than in previous years.  
2 Cluster mean weight of treatment T3 of the Autumn cultivar was significantly higher than the  
3 rest of the treatments. The grape production and number of clusters per vine of Crimson in  
4 2009 were lower than in previous years. Probably the yield reduction in 2009 was due to the  
5 incidence in 2008 and 2009 of late-season bunch stem necrosis (BSN) or sugar accumulation  
6 disorders in this cultivar. This physiological disorder affected the normal translocation of  
7 assimilates to the cluster producing soft shriveled berries that decreased yield and affected the  
8 commercial harvested clusters (Krasnow et al., 2010). The causes of these physiological  
9 disorders are uncertain but they are generally associated with nitrogen, calcium or magnesium  
10 deficiency, nutritional imbalances and excess precipitation or rainfall (Caps and Wolf, 2000;  
11 Krasnow et al., 2010). No significant differences were found between treatments in the  
12 Crimson cultivar in 2009 with an average cluster weight of 0.48 kg. This value was similar to  
13 the one in 2007 but lower than that of 2008.

14 The berry quality variables were very similar throughout the three study years (Table  
15 7). No significant effects of irrigation treatments were found in the berry weight, diameter,  
16 height, firmness, and °Brix and pH of the grape juice in both cultivars and in the different  
17 study years. There was a year effect in some of the studied parameters. In the Autumn cultivar  
18 the berry size was bigger in 2009 than in 2007 and 2008. The firmness and °Brix in 2008 in  
19 Autumn and Crimson cultivars were lower than in the other two years. This was probably due  
20 to a delay in the ripening in 2008 due to meteorological conditions. The high variability in the  
21 grape production, number of clusters per vine, cluster average weight and berry quality  
22 parameters have contributed to the lack of significant effect of the irrigation treatments among  
23 these variables in the different study years.

24 There are important differences between the Autumn and Crimson cultivars mainly in  
25 the color of the skin, size and sweetness of the berry. The average weight of the berry

1 measured in all irrigation treatments and study years in the Autumn was around 7.0 g while in  
2 the Crimson cultivar was 4.7 g. The average berry diameter was 20.2 mm in the Autumn  
3 cultivar and 16.9 mm in the Crimson cultivar. The average berry height was 24.1 mm in the  
4 Autumn cultivar and 23.0 mm in the Crimson cultivar. The berry firmness was a little higher  
5 in Autumn (68.2 %) than in Crimson (61.4 %). The sweetness of the berry juice was also  
6 lower in Autumn (16.6 ° Brix) than in Crimson (21.0° Brix). The pH of the berry juice was  
7 similar in both cultivars with an average value of 3.9.

8         The berry cracking percentage in the Autumn cultivar was between 14.7 % in T1 and  
9 21.4 % in T3 in 2007 whereas it was almost negligible in 2008 and 2009 with values ranging  
10 between 1.5 and 4.2 % (Table 8). The low cracking values in 2008 and 2009 may be due to  
11 the change in the irrigation practice in 2008 and 2009 that consisted in splitting the daily  
12 irrigation dose in two applications per day, one at midday and the other application at night.  
13 However there is not a clear evidence of this fact since other physiological and meteorological  
14 factors can affect berry cracking. No significant differences were found in the berry cracking  
15 percentage between irrigation treatments in 2007 and 2008. In 2009 the berry cracking was  
16 significantly higher in T1 (4.2 %) than in T2 (1.5 %) and T3 (2.2 %); however the values of  
17 berry cracking in that year were very low and no problems were detected in the commercial  
18 harvest.

19         CIELab color parameters of the berry skin of the Crimson cultivar measured at harvest  
20 were determined for the different irrigation treatments and study years (Table 9). The L\*  
21 represents the lightness of the color, the a\* represents its position between red and green and  
22 b\* its position between yellow and blue. All the color parameters varied in a narrow range  
23 and the differences between irrigation treatments and years were low. The L\* ranged between  
24 29.9 and 36.1, a\* ranged between 6.5 and 10.9 and b\* ranged between 5.6 and 7.2. The skin  
25 color of the berries in all the treatments and study years was red and quite uniform in the



1 clusters. However significant differences were detected between the irrigation treatments in  
2 the different years. In 2007 the  $a^*$  parameter of T1 (9.5) was significantly higher than in  
3 treatments T2 (7.6) and T3 (7.5) and no differences were found in the  $L^*$  and  $b^*$  parameters.  
4 In 2008 no differences were found in  $L^*$ ,  $a^*$  and  $b^*$  parameters between irrigation treatments.  
5 In 2009 the  $L^*$  parameter of T3 was significantly lower than that of T1 and T2. The  $a^*$   
6 parameter of T3 was higher than that of T1 and T2. The  $b^*$  parameter of T3 and T1 were  
7 lower than that of T2. These differences between treatments did not show a clear tendency in  
8 the change of color due to the irrigation treatments.

9

#### 10 **4. Discussion**

11 Many studies have demonstrated that RDI is a practical and useful technique to  
12 improve fruit quality and reduce irrigation application when water availability is limited (Ebel  
13 and Proebsting, 1993; Boland *et al.*, 2000a,b; Mpelasoka and Behboudian, 2002; Romero *et*  
14 *al.*, 2004; Fereres and Soriano, 2007). Most of the studies have been performed on deciduous  
15 and citrus orchards but very few on table grapes.

16 The most restricted irrigation treatment (T3) of the present study resulted in an  
17 average water saving ranging from 105 to 144 mm per irrigation season when compared to  
18 the control treatment (T1). This water saving represents around 15 % of the seasonal applied  
19 irrigation water of the control treatment T1. Water savings in T2 in relation to the control  
20 ranged between 51 and 70 mm per irrigation season (water savings of 6 to 8 % of water  
21 applied in T1).

22 The soil moisture data presented in Table 3 did not explain clearly the soil water  
23 regime of the different irrigation treatments during 2007 to 2009. In theory the soil moisture  
24 of treatment T1 from veraison to harvest should be higher than in T2 and T3 since T1  
25 received the highest amount of irrigation water. However the control treatment (T1) in both

1 cultivars had similar values of soil moisture or even lower than RDI treatments (T2 and T3) in  
2 August and September. In general all the values of soil moisture were very high, even higher  
3 than field capacity. Probably these high values of soil water content were due to the location  
4 of the FDR access tubes, adjacent to the emitter lateral in the row of vines. However some  
5 differences were observed between treatments in the grape yield and the number of clusters  
6 per vine. The highest differences between treatments in grape yield occurred in the Crimson  
7 cultivar in 2007. The lowest productivity of treatment T3 of the Crimson cultivar was  
8 confirmed by the lowest accumulated grape production ( $\text{kg vine}^{-1}$ ) and productivity ( $\text{kg cm}^{-2}$   
9 of TCS) values during the three years of the study (Table 10). These accumulated productivity  
10 parameters in T3 were significantly lower than in T2 in the Crimson cultivar and no  
11 significant differences were found between treatments in the Autumn cultivar. Nevertheless,  
12 other non-controlled agronomical factors and the high variability of the observed variables  
13 contributed to decrease the significance of the statistical analysis. It seems that there was a  
14 higher effect of the meteorological conditions of each year than that of the irrigation  
15 treatments. As an illustrative example, the production of the three irrigation treatments of the  
16 Crimson cultivar in 2009 were around half of the yield obtained in the other two study years  
17 and no significant differences were found between treatments in that year. However this  
18 production reduction was not observed in the Autumn cultivar that had similar production  
19 levels than the other years. Probably in the 2009 season the incidence of the late season bunch  
20 stem necrosis that occurred in 2008 and a more severe cluster pruning were the causes of this  
21 grape yield reduction. The decrease in grape production in Crimson in that year was due to  
22 the lower number of clusters per vine and lower cluster mean weight while in Autumn  
23 cultivar, besides a lower number of clusters per vine, the grape yield was maintained similar  
24 to the other years due to a higher cluster mean weight in 2009 (Table 6).

1           Among the quality parameters, berry cracking is an important and expensive problem  
2 when growing high quality fruit, especially table grapes. This problem is generally attributed  
3 to the lack of calcium in the fruit or to an excess water application in the maturation phase  
4 (Opara *et al.*, 1997). This was the reason to study RDI in the post veraison phase. In our  
5 study, the Autumn Royal cultivar showed high berry cracking levels in 2007 (between 14 %  
6 and 17 % of the berries were affected), whereas in 2008 and 2009, the level of damage was  
7 negligible. The differences in the irrigation regime in 2008 and 2009 with two irrigation  
8 applications per day instead one daily application in 2007 can explain the differences in berry  
9 cracking results. These results support the idea that frequent water applications to the Autumn  
10 cultivar eases this problem, while sudden supplies of great doses of water increases its  
11 development. The water application at midday might have improved the water supply to the  
12 berries at the moment of maximum evaporative demand. However the effect of the split  
13 irrigation on berry cracking is not still clear. With our results it has not been possible to link  
14 the berry cracking intensity to the amount of water supply in irrigation.

15           The RDI treatments in the Crimson cultivar produced significant differences in the  
16 CIELab color parameters of the berry skin but no trends in these parameters were clearly  
17 observed. However in general the color of the berry was red in all treatments and years.

18           The overall results during the three study years showed that it is economically feasible  
19 to grow these types of table grape cultivars in the arid conditions of the Middle Ebro Valley.  
20 High grape yields of very good quality can be obtained with a careful management and  
21 moderate regulated deficit irrigation in the postveraison phase without affecting grape yield  
22 and quality.

23

## 1 **Acknowledgements**

2 This study has been financed by the RTA2005-00038-C06-00 project (Education and  
3 Science Ministry, Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Agrarias, INIA) and the CSD2006-  
4 00067 project (CONSOLIDER-INGENIO 2010 Program, Government of Spain). The authors  
5 would like to thank the technicians and employees of the CITA for their valuable help in the  
6 field experiment instrumentation, grape harvest and laboratory analysis. The technicians and  
7 employees of the Santa Bárbara commercial orchard in Caspe are also acknowledged.

8

## 9 **References**

- 10 Acevedo-Opazo, C, Ortega-Farias, S, Fuentes, S. 2010. Effects of grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*  
11 L.) water status on water consumption, vegetative growth and grape quality: An  
12 irrigation scheduling application to achieve regulated deficit irrigation. *Agricultural*  
13 *Water Management* 97 (7): 956-964.
- 14 Allen, R.G., Pereira, L.S., 2009. Estimating crop coefficients from fraction of ground cover  
15 and height. *Irrig. Sci.* 28,17–34.
- 16 Allen, R.G., Pereira, L.S., Raes, D., Smith, H. M. 1998. Crop evapotranspiration: Guidelines  
17 for computing crop water requirements. *Irrig and Drain Paper* 56. FAO, Roma, Italy.
- 18 Ballester, C., Castel, J.R., Intrigliolo, D.S. 2013. Response of Navel Lane Late citrus trees to  
19 regulated deficit irrigation: yield components and fruit composition. *Irrigation Science*  
20 31(3): 333-341.
- 21 Blanco, O., Faci, J.M., Negueroles, J. 2010. Response of table grape cultivar ‘Autumn Royal’  
22 to regulated deficit irrigation applied in post-veraison period. *Spanish Journal of*  
23 *Agricultural Research* 8(2): 76-85.

- 1 Boland, A.M., Jerie, P.H., Mitchell, P.D., Goodwin, J. 2000a. Long-term effects of restricted  
2 root volume and regulated deficit irrigation on peach: I. Growth and mineral nutrition.  
3 J Am Soc Hortic Sci 125(1): 135–142.
- 4 Boland, A.M., Jerie, P.H., Mitchell, P.D., Goodwin, J. 2000b. Long-term effects of restricted  
5 root volume and regulated deficit irrigation on peach: II. Productivity and water use. J  
6 Am Soc Hortic Sci 125(1): 143–148.
- 7 Capps, E.R., Wolf, T.K. 2000. Reduction of bunch stem necrosis of Cabernet Sauvignon by  
8 increased tissue nitrogen concentration . American Journal of Enology and Viticulture  
9 51 (4): 319-328.
- 10 Carreno, J., Martinez, A., Almela, L., Fernandez-Lopez, J.A. 1996. Measuring the color of  
11 table grapes. Color Research and Application 21 (1): 50-54.
- 12 Chalmers, D.J., Mitchell, P.D., Van Heek, L. 1981. Control of peach tree growth and  
13 productivity by regulated water supply, tree density and summer pruning. J Amer Soc  
14 Hort Sci 106, 307-312.
- 15 Chalmers, Y.M., Kelly, G., Krstic, M.P. 2004. Partial rootzone drying of *Vitis vinifera* cv.  
16 ‘Shiraz’ winegrapes in a semi-arid climate. Acta Hort. (ISHS) 664: 133-138.
- 17 Considine, J.A., Kriedemanm, P.E., 1972. Fruit splitting in grapes: determination of the  
18 critical turgor pressure. Aust J Agric Res 23: 17-24.
- 19 Coombe, B.G., 1995. Growth stages of the grapevine. Aust J Grape Wine Res. 1: 100-110.
- 20 Dokoozlian, N., Peacock, B., Luvisi, D., Vasques, S. 2000. Cultural practices for ‘Autumn  
21 Royal’ table grapes. Pub. TB17-00. Cooperative Extension. Tulare County. University  
22 of California. 3pp.
- 23 Ebel, R.C., Proebsting, E.L. 1993. Regulated deficit irrigation may alter apple maturity,  
24 quality, and storage life. Hortscience 28(2): 141-143.

- 1 El-Ansari, D.O., Nakayama, S., Hirano, K., Okamoto, G. 2005. Response of ‘Muscat’ Table  
2 Grapes to Post-veraison Regulated Deficit Irrigation in Japan. *Vitis* 44 (1): 5-9.
- 3 Ezzahouani, A., Williams, L. E. 2007. Effect of irrigation amount and preharvest irrigation  
4 cutoff date on vine water status and productivity of ‘Danlas’ grapevines. *Am J Enol*  
5 *Vitic.* 58: 333-340.
- 6 Fereres, E., Soriano, M.A. 2007. Deficit irrigation for reducing agricultural water use. *J Exp*  
7 *Bot* 58 (2): 147–159.
- 8 Ferreyra, R., Selles, G., Peralta, J., Valenzuela, J. 2004. Effect of water stress applied at  
9 different development periods of ‘Cabernet Sauvignon’ grapevine on production and  
10 wine quality. *Acta Hort. (ISHS)* 646: 27-33.
- 11 Garcia-Tejero, I, Jimenez-Bocanegra, J.A., Martinez, G., Romero, R., Duran-Zuazo, V.H.,  
12 Muriel-Fernandez, J. 2010. Positive impact of regulated deficit irrigation on yield and  
13 fruit quality in a commercial citrus orchard [*Citrus sinensis* (L.) Osbeck, cv.  
14 salustiano]. *Agricultural Water Management* 97 (5): 614-622.
- 15 Geerts, S., Raes, D. 2009. Deficit irrigation as an on-farm strategy to maximize crop water  
16 productivity in dry areas. *Agricultural Water Management* 96 (2009) 1275–1284.
- 17 Girona, J., Mata, M., Arbones, A., Alegre, S., Rufat, J., Marsal, J. 2003. Peach tree response  
18 to single and combined regulated deficit irrigation regimes under shallow soils.  
19 *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science* 128 (3): 432-440.
- 20 Goldhamer, D.A., Viveros, M., Salinas, M. 2006. Regulated deficit irrigation in almonds:  
21 effects of variations in applied water and stress timing on yield and yield components.  
22 *Irrigation Science* 24, 101–114.
- 23 Iniesta, F., Testi, L., Orgaz, F., Villalobos, F.J. 2009. The effects of regulated and continuous  
24 deficit irrigation on the water use, growth and yield of olive trees. *European Journal of*  
25 *Agronomy* 30 (4): 258-265.

1 Intrigliolo, D.S., Castel, J.R. 2005. Effects of regulated deficit irrigation on growth and yield  
2 of young Japanese plum trees. *Journal of Horticultural Science and Biotechnology* 80  
3 (2): 177-182.

4 Krasnow, M., Matthews, M., Smith, R.J., Benz, J., Weber, E., Shackel, K.A. 2010. Distinctive  
5 symptoms differentiate four common types of berry shrivel disorder in grape.  
6 *California Agriculture* 64(3):155-159.

7 Lopez, G., Arbones, A., Del Campo, J., Mata, M., Vallverdu, X., Girona, J., Marsal, J. 2008.  
8 Response of peach trees to regulated deficit irrigation during stage II of fruit  
9 development and summer pruning. *Spanish Journal of Agricultural Research* 6 (3):  
10 479-491.

11 MAAMA. 2011. Anuario de Estadística 2011. Ministerio e Agricultura, Alimentación y  
12 Medio Ambiente. Gobierno de España. Madrid, Spain. 1085 pp. [In Spanish]

13 Marsal, J., Mata, M., Arbones, A., Rufat, J., Girona, J. 2002. Regulated deficit irrigation and  
14 rectification of irrigation scheduling in young pear trees: an evaluation based on  
15 vegetative and productive response. *European Journal of Agronomy* 17 (2): 111-122.

16 Marsal, J., Lopez, G., Del Campo, J., Mata, M., Arbones, A., Girona, J. 2010. Postharvest  
17 regulated deficit irrigation in 'Summit' sweet cherry: fruit yield and quality in the  
18 following season. *Irrigation Science* 28 (2): 181-189.

19 Matthews, M.A., Cheng G., Weinbaum, S.A. 1987. Changes in water potential and dermal  
20 extensivity during grape berry development. *J Am Soc Hortic Sci* 112(2): 314-319.

21 Moratiel, R., Martínez-Cob, A. 2012. Evapotranspiration of grapevine trained to a gable trellis  
22 system under netting and black plastic mulching. *Irrig. Sci.* 30: 167-178.

23 Mpelasoka, B.S., Behboudian, M.H. 2002. Production of aroma volatiles in response to deficit  
24 irrigation and to crop load in relation to fruit maturity for 'Braeburn' apple.  
25 *Postharvest Biol. Technol.* 24: 1-11.

- 1 Opara, L.U., Studman, C.J., Banks, N.H. 1997. Fruit skin splitting and cracking. *Horticultural*  
2 *Reviews* 19: 217-262.
- 3 Ortega-Farias, S., Fereres, E., Sadras, V.O. 2012. Special issue on water management in  
4 grapevines. *Irrig Sci* 30: 335–337.
- 5 Perez-Sarmiento, F., Alcobendas, R., Mounzer, O., Alarcon, J., Nicolas, E. 2010. Effects of  
6 regulated deficit irrigation on physiology and fruit quality in apricot trees. *Spanish*  
7 *Journal of Agricultural Research* 8 (2): 86-94.
- 8 Romero, P., Botia, P., Garcia, F. 2004. Effects of regulated deficit irrigation under subsurface  
9 drip irrigation conditions on vegetative development and yield of mature almond trees.  
10 *Plant and Soil* 260: 169–181.
- 11 Ruiz-Sanchez, M.C., Torrecillas, A., Perez-Pastor, A., Domingo, R. 2000. Regulated deficit  
12 irrigation in apricot trees. *Acta Horticulturae* 537, 759–766.
- 13 Ruiz-Sanchez, M.C., Domingo, R., Castel, J.R. 2010. Review. Deficit irrigation in fruit trees  
14 and vines in Spain. *Spanish Journal of Agricultural Research*. 8(2): 5-20.
- 15 Santesteban, L.G., Miranda, C., Royo, J.B. 2011. Regulated deficit irrigation effects on  
16 growth, yield, grape quality and individual anthocyanin composition in *Vitis vinifera*  
17 L. cv. 'Tempranillo'. *Agricultural Water Management* 98 (7): 1171-1179.
- 18 SAS Institute. 2004. SAS/STAT User's guide release. Release 9.0. Statistical Analysis  
19 Institute, Cary, NC.
- 20 Soil Survey Division Staff. 1993. Soil survey manual. Natural Resources Conservation  
21 Service, Handb. 18. USDA. Washington, DC.
- 22 Soil Survey Staff. 1999. Soil Taxonomy. A basic system of soil classification for making and  
23 interpreting soil surveys. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. USDA-Natural Resources Conservation Service,  
24 Washington, DC. [ftp://ftp-fc.sc.egov.usda.gov/NSSC/Soil\\_Taxonomy/tax.pdf](ftp://ftp-fc.sc.egov.usda.gov/NSSC/Soil_Taxonomy/tax.pdf)



- 1 Soil Survey Staff. 2006. Keys to soil taxonomy, 10th ed. USDA-NRCS, Washington, DC.  
2 [ftp://ftp-fc.sc.egov.usda.gov/NSSC/Soil\\_Taxonomy/keys/keys.pdf](ftp://ftp-fc.sc.egov.usda.gov/NSSC/Soil_Taxonomy/keys/keys.pdf)
- 3 Stewart, W.L., Fulton, A.E., Krueger, W.H., Lampinen, B.D., Shackel, K.A. 2011. Regulated  
4 deficit irrigation reduces water use of almonds without affecting yield California  
5 Agriculture 65 (2): 90-95.
- 6 Wade, J., Holzapfel, B., Degaris, K., Williams, D., Keler, M. 2004. Nitrogen and water  
7 management strategies for wine-grape quality. Acta Horticulturae 640: 61-67.
- 8 Williams, L.E., Mathews, M.A. 1990. Grapevine. In: B. A. Stewart and d. R. Nielsen.  
9 Irrigation of Agricultural Crops. Agronomy series 30.: 1019-1055.
- 10 Williams, L.E., Araujo, F.J., 2002. Correlations among predawn leaf, midday leaf, and  
11 midday stem water potential and their correlations with other measures of soil and  
12 plant water status in *Vitis Vinifera*. J Am Soc Hortic Sci 127(3): 448-454.
- 13 Williams, L.E., Grimes, D.W., Phene, C.J. 2010. The effects of applied water at various  
14 fractions of measured evapotranspiration on reproductive growth and water  
15 productivity of ‘Thompson Seedless’ grapevines. Irrig Sci 28(3), 233-243.