

Irrigation Scheduling Optimisation in Olive Groves

A. Capra^{1*} and B. Scicolone¹

¹*Department of Agraria, Mediterranean University of Reggio Calabria, Località Vito, 89060 Reggio Calabria, Italy.*

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between both authors.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/JEA1/2018/44582

Editor(s):

- (1) Dr. Marco Aurelio Cristancho, Professor, National Center for Coffee Research, CENICAFÉ, Colombia.
(2) Dr. Mohammad Reza Naroui Rad, Department of Seed and Plant improvement, Sistan Agricultural and Natural Resources Research Center, AREEO, Zabol, Iran.

Reviewers:

- (1) Alexandra Tomaz, Instituto Politécnico de Beja, Portugal.
(2) Raúl Leonel Grijalva-Contreras, Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Forestales Agrícolas y Pecuarias, México.
(3) W. James Grichar, Texas A & M University Research, USA.
(4) Miguel Aguilar Cortes, Universidad Autonoma Del Estado De Morelos, Mexico.
Complete Peer review History: <http://www.sciencedomain.org/review-history/27281>

Original Research Article

Received 19 September 2018

Accepted 13 November 2018

Published 17 November 2018

ABSTRACT

Introduction: The diffusion of irrigation in olive orchards requires accurate scheduling of the application of water.

Objectives: To evaluate the efficiency of different modes of irrigation scheduling for mature olive trees grown at different plant densities and in different soil types and irrigated under different systems and strategies.

Methodology: We compare the irrigation scheduling with variable quantities and intervals (OPT), optimised by the water balance-evapotranspiration method (WB-ET) by evaluating the use of variable quantities and different fixed intervals (3, 7, 14 and 28 days) as well as a fixed interval and quantity (FIX). These scheduling scenarios were applied to high-density and super-high density groves in medium to fine textured and moderately coarse to medium textured soils irrigated by sprinkler, microjets and drip irrigation systems under full and deficit (sustained, SDI and regulated, RDI) irrigation strategies in a Mediterranean environment (Calabria Region, Italy). Three sets of measured meteorological data (2016, 2017 and the mean values of the 2001-2017) were used for simulations.

Results: OPT scheduling showed maximum efficiency. Three-day and weekly intervals show acceptable performance in terms of efficiency as well as water and energy requirements, whereas

*Corresponding author: E-mail: acapra@unirc.it;

FIX scheduling shows very low efficiency. SDI and RDI permit mean savings of approximately 36%-54% of water and energy compared to full irrigation. High-density orchards drip irrigated under the SDI strategy show minimum water and energy requirements.

Conclusions: The traditional irrigation strategy at fixed quantity and interval is not adequate to achieve high efficiency in the irrigation of olive orchards, from both the agronomic (reduction of crop water stress) and economic (reduction of water and energy requirements) point of view. The optimisation of the irrigation scheduling requires the estimate of the water quantity to deliver in each irrigation in both the irrigation management at variable and fixed interval. The WB-ET model is an efficient and (relatively) simple tool to foresee the quantities and the dates of irrigation during the irrigation season.

Keywords: Energy irrigation requirements; evapotranspiration; irrigation efficiency; irrigation scheduling; olive orchards; water balance.

1. INTRODUCTION

Olive trees are among the most important and common plants in the Mediterranean basin. Although this species (*Olea europaea* L.) has been traditionally cultivated under rainfall conditions, irrigation also plays an important role, especially in soils with limited water storage to stabilise yields in years of low rainfall [1,2,3,4,5]. In particular, irrigation is needed in new orchards planted at very high densities (1000-2000 trees/ha) [3,6].

However, olive-growing areas are often located in arid or semi-arid regions where water reservoirs are already highly exploited and the development of new water resources is not economically or environmentally viable [7,8]. Improving irrigation efficiency and applying deficit irrigation are the main strategies to save water.

Due to the reduction of soil evaporation and deep losses, localised irrigation systems are potentially able to achieve high efficiencies [9,10,11].

Deficit irrigation strategies (DI), such as the application of irrigation in quantities below total crop evapotranspiration (ET_c), are potentially able to improve efficiency and maximise profits in several crops [12]. The literature describes a variety of DI strategies [13,14]. Experiments examining two main strategies have been conducted in olive groves: regulated deficit irrigation (RDI) and sustained deficit irrigation (SDI) [6,14,15,16,17,18]. Under RDI, quantities of water close to ET_c are applied at the phenological stages most sensitive to water stress, while irrigation is reduced, or even interrupted, for the rest of the growing season. Under SDI, a deficit is applied throughout the season. Recent evidence has shown that the qualitative characteristics of olives and the

profitability of super high density (SHD) olive orchards can be optimised using DI strategies [3,19,20,21,22].

However, the adoption of localised systems together with DI is not a guarantee of success. Only well-designed and well-managed irrigation systems can ensure high efficiency [10,11,23]. In particular, in irrigation management, significant improvements can be achieved through the proper scheduling of irrigation [8,24].

The most common definition of irrigation scheduling simply involves two questions: when and how much to irrigate a crop [25,26]. The four main methods informing an appropriate irrigation schedule rely on evapotranspiration (ET) and water balance (ET-WB), soil tension or soil moisture along the rooting depth, measurements of plant stress, and simulation models [27,28,29].

Although there is a wide body of literature on scientific irrigation scheduling in reference works, journal articles, symposium proceedings and extension publications, irrigators generally do not adopt effective methods [8,25,27,30]. Due to the need for substantial investments in management capacity as well as in improving or replacing irrigation systems, the majority of growers worldwide still manage irrigation applications based on rigid calendars determined by external factors [26,31]. There is a difference in the approach to irrigation scheduling between farmers and scientists. Scientists depict irrigation scheduling as an accurate process, with the timing of irrigation being defined as a precise date or time, while from a practical point of view, irrigation scheduling sometimes needs to be adjusted in association with many other farm activities and based on constraints [32]. Furthermore, in olive orchards, water irrigation

doses and frequencies seem to influence the development of *Verticillium* wilt [33,34]. Despite a significant lack of information about the influence of irrigation management on the diffusion of this disease [35], low frequency irrigation is recommended [3].

The types of irrigation that are scheduling-applicable in practice are as follows: i. irrigation with variable intervals and quantities of water; ii. irrigation with a fixed interval and variable quantities of water; and iii. irrigation with a fixed interval and a fixed quantity of water. The first type requires that water is available upon demand in terms of both quantities and intervals. Scheduling with a fixed interval and variable quantities requires that water is available upon demand for quantities but not for interval, which can simplify irrigation management. Most farmers prefer the third method because it is easy to manage. Furthermore, this method is the most common in areas supplied with collective irrigation systems.

The objective of the present work is to evaluate the efficiency of different modes of irrigation scheduling for mature olive trees grown at different plant densities and in different soil types and irrigated under different systems and strategies. The study mainly uses data from an important Mediterranean area for oil production, the Calabria Region in Italy, but also analyses other conditions that are not widespread in the area to allow the results to be generalised for the Mediterranean environment. The general aim of the study is to enable producers to apply appropriate irrigation practices to olive, a crop with a relatively recent history of irrigation.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Data Used for Simulations

Different combinations of meteorological data, growing systems, soil types, and irrigation strategies and systems were considered to test the efficiency of irrigation scheduling.

The following cases were considered (Table 1):

Three sets of meteorological data: for 2016, 2017, and the mean values of the 2001-2017 period;

Two growing systems: high density (HD) and super-high-density (SHD) groves;

Two soil types: medium to fine texture (sandy clay loam, loam, silty loam, clay loam to silty clay loam), with a high water-holding capacity (F_{soil}); and moderately coarse to medium texture (sandy loam to fine sandy loam, sandy clay loam, loam, silty loam), with an intermediate water-holding capacity (M_{soil});

Three types of irrigation strategies: full irrigation (100% ET_c , Full); RDI 50% ET_c , with the deficit concentrated in the summer period, from pit hardening until the end of the summer [9,11]; and SDI 50% ET_c , with the deficit distributed evenly throughout the irrigation season;

Three types of irrigation system; a sprinkler system (SIS), localised irrigation with microjets (MIS) and localised irrigation with drippers (DIS).

The meteorological, soil and crop data came from an Italian area of particular importance for oil production. The area considered is located in Lametia in the Calabria region. Calabria is the second largest producer of olive oil in Italy, accounting for almost one-third of national production [36]. The characteristics of the irrigation systems considered in this study are standard for well-designed and well-managed irrigation systems for cultivated olives [9,11]. The SHD growing system, the SDI and the RDI irrigation strategies, and the sprinkler irrigation system were added to the simulation to allow the results of this study to be generalised, despite not being widespread in the study area. For the same reason, the simulations were replicated for the three series of meteorological data.

2.2 Estimation of Irrigation Requirements

Irrigation requirements were estimated using a daily soil water balance model (WB), implemented in a spreadsheet, specifically developed during this study. In the WB method, an estimate of evapotranspiration (ET) coupled with the WB equation enables the calculation of the soil water deficit, which is then compared with the readily available water in the soil (RAW). When water depletion exceeds RAW, an irrigation event returns the soil water content (θ) to field capacity (θ_{FC}).

The water balance ET based method (WB-ET) is a well-established, simple, robust method [37] with a long history [38]. For this reason, we describe only the main concepts and the specific assumptions applied in this study.

According to Allen et al. [38], the equation for daily soil WB is as follows:

$$D_{r,i} = D_{r,i-1} - (P - RO)_i - I_{net,i} - CR_i + ET_{c,i} + DP_i \quad (1)$$

where D (mm) is the depletion of water from the root zone; i is the current day; i - 1 is the previous day; P (mm) is daily precipitation; RO (mm) is the runoff; I_{net} (mm) is the net irrigation depth; CR (mm) is the capillary rise from the groundwater table; ET_c (mm) is the crop evapotranspiration; and DP (mm) is the deep percolation.

Considering the conditions inherent to the crop and the area examined and the objective of the study, we assumed the following:

The quantity of rainfall stored in the root zone $(P - RO - DP)_i$ can be represented by the effective rainfall, P_e (mm); for the estimation of P_e , $P \leq 0.3$ mm was ignored, while RO was considered negligible, and DP was considered negligible when the soil water content in the root zone was below θ_{FC} and was considered equal to $P - \theta_{FC}$ when the soil water content was higher than θ_{FC} ;

CR was considered negligible (the depth of the water table is greater than 5 m);

ET_c was calculated as follows:

$$ET_c = ET_0 \times K_c \quad (2)$$

where ET_0 is the reference evapotranspiration estimated according to the FAO Penman-Montieth equation, and K_c is the crop coefficient [38];

Two other coefficients, a coefficient of localisation (K_l) and a stress coefficient (K_s), were used to adjust equation (2) for localised irrigation systems and deficit irrigation strategies, respectively; equation (2) was therefore modified as follows:

$$ET_c = ET_0 \times K_c \times K_l \times K_s \quad (2a)$$

The value used for K_c was 0.65 until the end of May and 0.55 from June onward [3].

The coefficient of localisation K_l was estimated as [9]:

$$K_l = P_c / 100 + 0.5 * (1 - P_c / 100) \quad (3)$$

where P_c = mean ground coverage by canopy (%) measured in the field.

The values for the stress coefficients (K_s) (see Table 1) were established according to the irrigation strategy simulated (full irrigation, RDI and SDI).

RO for irrigation water was considered negligible, and DP was accounted for by the potential irrigation system efficiency (PAE, % [42]); I_{net} was therefore replaced by I_{gross} , which was estimated as $I_{net} / (PAE / 100)$.

These assumptions simplify equation (1) as follows:

$$D_{r,i} = D_{r,i-1} - P_e - I_{gross} + ET_{c,i} \quad (1a)$$

The total available water (TAW) is the quantity of water stored in the root zone that a plant can utilise and is calculated as follows [38]:

$$TAW = (\theta_{FC} - \theta_{PWP}) \times Z \quad (4)$$

Where θ_{FC} is the field capacity (mm/m); θ_{PWP} is the permanent wilting point (mm/m); and Z is the root zone depth (m).

To prevent permanent physiological damage to the crop, irrigation is usually applied before the soil water content is equal to θ_{PWP} . The fraction of TAW that a crop can extract without suffering water stress is the readily available soil water (RAW)

$$RAW = p \times TAW \times \frac{S_w}{100} \quad (5)$$

where p is the average fraction of TAW that is depleted before moisture stress and is equal to 0.65 for olives [38]; and S_w is the wetted surface area (%), which was equal to 100% in SIS and was below 100% for the localised systems (MIS and DIS).

Table 1 shows the values used in this study for PAE, θ_{FC} , θ_{PWP} , Z and S_w .

The hydrological characteristics of the soils were estimated by pedotransfer functions based on sand, silt, clay and organic carbon soil contents and on bulk density using the software SOILPAR 2.00 [39]. The Calabria soil map [40] was overlapped to the land use map [41] by a GIS to identify the soil types, and their physical-chemical characteristics, in the areas cultivated with the crop of interest in the agricultural areas observed.

Table 1. Variables used in the simulations for the different types of soil, growing systems (plant density), irrigation systems and irrigation strategies

Soil type		Field capacity (θ_{FC} , mm/m)	Permanent wilting point (θ_{PWP} , mm/m)	Readily available water (RAW, mm/m)	Wetted width ⁽¹⁾ (m)		
1	Medium to fine texture, high water holding capacity (Fsoil)	300	170	84	0.8		
2	Moderately coarse to medium texture, medium water holding capacity (Msoil)	200	100	65	0.6		
Plant density		Plant age (years)	Root depth (Z, m)	Plant spacing in the row (m)	Row spacing (m)	Ground coverage by canopy (%)	
1	High density (HD) (286 trees/ha)[3]	15	0.8	5	7	45	
2	Super high density (SHD) (1667 trees/ha) [3]	4	0.6	1.5	4	82	
Irrigation system		Mean number of emission point per plant		Wetted surface (S_w , %)	Emitter characteristics		
		HD	SHD	HD	SHD	mean discharge (L/h) working pressur head (kPa)	
1	Sprinkle (SIS) (PAE ⁽²⁾ = 80% [9, 39])	0.25	0.06	100	100	1080	
2	Microjets (single lateral system) (MIS)(PAE(2)= 85%)[9,39]						
	Fsoil	1	1	32.4	100	75	
	Msoil	1	1	29.1	88.5	75	
3	Drip (double lateral system) (DIS)(PAE(2)= 90%)[9,39]						
	Fsoil	7.7	2.3	22.1	36.7	4	
	Msoil	10	3	16.2	28.3	4	
Irrigation strategy						Coefficient of stress K_s	
						until June, 30 th	after June
1	Full irrigation, 100% Et_c (Full)					1	1
2	Regulated deficit irrigation, with deficit (50% Et_c) concentrated in the summer period, from pit hardening until the end of the summer season (RDI)					1	0.5
3	Sustained deficit irrigation, 50% ET_c , with deficit distributed evenly throughout the whole irrigation season (SDI)					0.5	0.5

⁽¹⁾ diameter of the circular area wetted by a single emitter in drip systems. ⁽²⁾ PAE= potential irrigation system efficiency [9,39]

Considering the Mediterranean climate, the WB-ET model was run from April 1st to October 31th.

2.3 Irrigation Scheduling

In this study, we define “optimal irrigation scheduling” as irrigation management that ensures that irrigation is applied at the time when RAW is depleted ($D_{r,i} \leq RAW$). This type of scheduling, which implies variable intervals and quantities of water, is “optimal” from both the agronomic (no water stress in the crop) and the hydrological (no water losses beyond that considered by PAE, due to deep percolation) points of view. In contrast, irrigation management at fixed intervals and variable water quantities or at fixed intervals and water quantities may not achieve high efficiency.

Six different types of irrigation scheduling were simulated in this study: (a) optimal irrigation scheduling (OPT), (b) irrigation at three days intervals and variable quantities (three days), (c) irrigation at weekly intervals and variable quantities (weekly), (d) irrigation at 14 days intervals and variable quantities (14 days), (e) irrigation at 28 days intervals and variable quantities (28 days) and (f) irrigation with a fixed interval and quantity (FIX).

Both the water quantity and irrigation dates for scheduling type (a) and only the quantity of water for cases (b) to (e) were established based on the WB-ET method.

For strategy (f), the fixed quantity of water was determined by using the RAW corrected by the irrigation system efficiency (PAE):

$$RAW_g = \frac{RAW}{PAE/100} \quad (5)$$

The fixed interval (F) was obtained as follows:

$$F = IS_m / IrriN \quad (6)$$

$$IrriN = WR_s / RAW_g \quad (7)$$

where F is the fixed irrigation interval (days); IS_m is the irrigation season length, which is defined as the total number of days between the first and last irrigation event in a year (days); IrriN is the total number of irrigation events in the season; WR_s is the gross seasonal water requirement (mm); and RAW_g is the gross readily available water (mm).

IS_m was fixed at approximately 110 days because the farmers, in the area examined, generally irrigate their olive orchards from mid-June to September. WR_s was calculated based on the mean values of ET_0 and P estimated from the climatic data measured by a meteorological station located near the study area over the period from 1925-2017. The values calculated for WR_s were 241, 227 and 215 mm for SIS, MIS and DIS, respectively.

Approximately 650 simulations, derived from the combination of the numbers of scheduling modes, growing systems, soil types, irrigation strategies, irrigation systems and meteorological datasets, were therefore performed and analysed.

2.4 Irrigation Management Efficiency

To determine the efficiency of water application, the results of the simulations for 3, 7, 14 and 28 days intervals and FIX irrigation scheduling were compared to those for OPT scheduling. With this aim, in addition to the gross irrigation (I_{gross} , mm), the total number of irrigation events (IrriN) applied over the irrigation season and the irrigation season length (IS_m , days), the following indices were calculated and are discussed:

Total energy applied;
Irrigation adequacy;
Scheduling efficiency.

The total energy applied was estimated as follows:

$$Ener = \frac{Q \times H}{E_p \times 102} \times I_d \quad (8)$$

where Ener is the total energy applied (kWh/ha); Q is the system discharge (L/s); H is the total operating head (m); E_p is the engine pump efficiency (decimal); 102 is the conversion constant; and I_d is the total time of irrigation in the irrigation season (h/ha).

The irrigation adequacy (IA) quantifies the ability of irrigation management to supply sufficient irrigation to meet plant water demands without stress [43, 44]. We distinguished two types of stress: light stress, which occurs when the soil moisture content is lower than RAW but higher than θ_{PWP} , and severe stress, which occurs when the soil moisture content is below θ_{PWP} .

Three indices were used to evaluate IA:

$$IA_1 = \frac{(IS_i - DS_T)}{IS_i} \times 100 \quad (9)$$

$$IA_2 = \frac{(IS_i - DS_S)}{IS_i} \times 100 \quad (10)$$

$$IA_3 = \frac{(IS_i - DS_e)}{IS_i} \times 100 \quad (11)$$

where IA_1 (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without any stress (both light and severe) in fully irrigated plants; IA_2 (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without severe stress in fully irrigated plants; IA_3 (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without extra stress beyond that specified in the deficit irrigation strategy (RDI or SDI); IS_i (days) is the length of the irrigation season; DS_T (days) is the total number of crop stress days (sum of light and severe stress days); DS_S is the number of severe crop stress days; and DS_e is the number of stress days beyond those due to the deficit irrigation strategy (RDI or SDI).

The scheduling efficiency (SchE) is defined as the ability of a management method to achieve irrigation without drainage or runoff (similar to the SWAT procedure described by [43]). The SchE index represents the percentage of the total gross irrigation retained in the root zone and is calculated in the irrigation season with the following equation:

$$SchE = \frac{(I_{gross} - Surplus)}{I_{gross}} \times 100 \quad (12)$$

where SchE (%) is the scheduling efficiency index; I_{gross} (mm) is the sum of gross irrigation applied over the irrigation season; and Surplus (mm) is the depth of water above the field capacity leading to deep percolation (runoff was assumed to be zero due to the effectively designed irrigation systems).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Meteorological Characteristics

The maximum (Tmax) and minimum (Tmin) temperatures during the period from April 1st to October 31st were approximately 25°C and 17°C,

respectively (mean of the three datasets). Tmax and Tmin showed higher values in 2017 (37.5°C) and for the mean period (approximately 10°C), respectively, while lower values were observed in 2016 for Tmax (14.6°C) and in 2017 for Tmin (2.8°C) (Figures 1 a, b, c). Tmin showed higher variability than Tmax, with coefficients of variation (CV) of 22, 29 and 20% for the 2016, 2017 and 2001-2017 datasets, respectively. The corresponding values of CV for Tmax were 14, 17 and 14%.

Precipitation was the most variable characteristic, with total precipitation of 457, 193 and 325 mm being observed for the 2016, 2017 and 2001-2017 datasets, respectively. Exceptionally high daily precipitation (61.7 mm) was recorded in 2016 (Fig. 1a).

The daily mean values of ET_0 ranged from 3.50 mm (in 2001-2017 dataset) to 4.56 mm (in 2016); the corresponding values of accumulated ET_0 from April to October were 750 mm (2001-2017) and 956 mm (2016). As expected for the environment examined [45], the average values (2001-2017) showed an upward trend of ET_0 up to July and then a decreasing trend. Between the two individual years considered, 2016 exhibited a normal trend of ET_0 , while in 2017, peaks of ET_0 were recorded in the second half of June.

3.2 Optimal Irrigation Scheduling

The gross irrigation applied over the irrigation season (I_{gross}) ranged between 279 and 550 mm for full irrigation and was 191-401 and 118-256 mm for the RDI and SDI deficit strategies, respectively (Table 2). CV between the different hypothesised conditions was approximately 20% for the full irrigation, RDI and SDI strategies (Table 2). The total energy applied over the irrigation season varied between 182 and 959 kWh/ha for full irrigation (Table 2). The energy savings assured by the deficit strategies were of the same order of magnitude described for I_{gross} (40% for RDI, 113% for SDI, and 53% for SDI with respect to RDI). The coefficient of variation of approximately 50% is higher than I_{gross} due to the influence of the irrigation duration and the number of irrigation events in the season (IrrIN) on energy consumption.

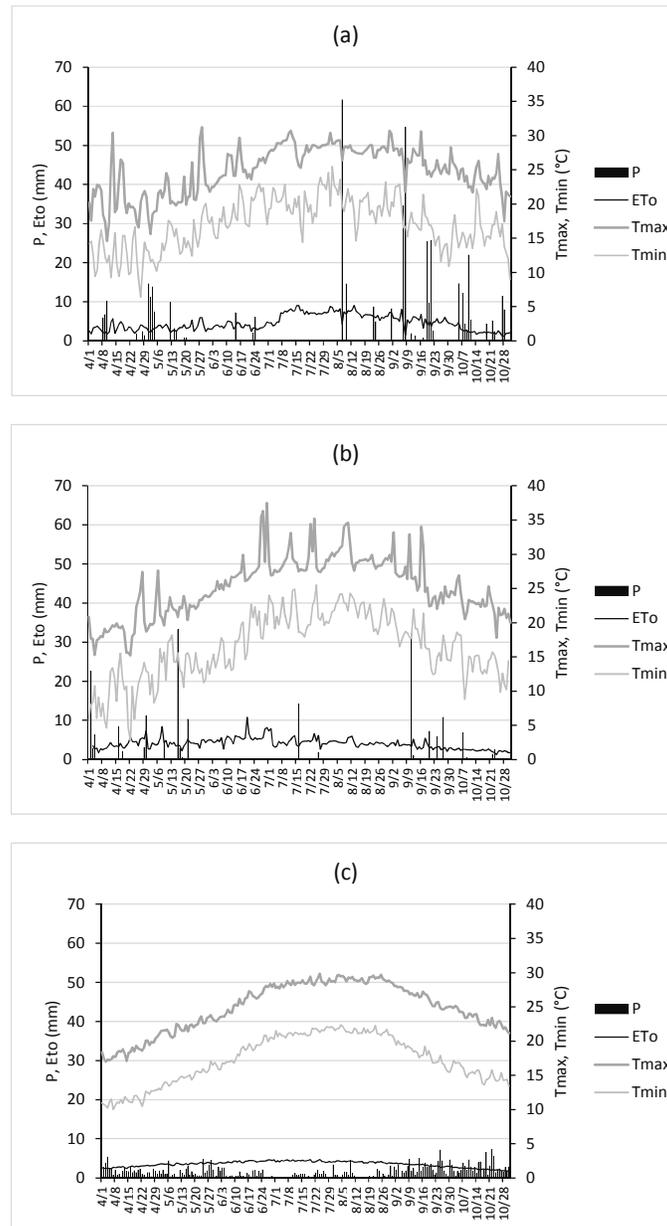


Fig. 1. Meteorological characteristics of the S. Eufemia Lametia (Calabria, Italy) station (a=2016; b= 2017; c= mean 2001-2017) (P= precipitation; ETo= reference evapotranspiration; Tmax= maximum temperature; Tmin= minimum temperature)

Due to the different irrigation systems considered, the total number of irrigation events in the irrigation season (IrriN) is the most variable parameter (CV of approximately 60%). On average, IrriN ranged from 11 to 24 irrigation events for drip systems (DIS), from 6 to 13 for microjet systems (MIS), and from 3 to 7 for sprinkler systems (SIS) (Table 2). Among the different irrigation strategies, the lowest values

corresponded to SDI, followed by RDI, and the highest corresponded to full irrigation.

The mean irrigation season length (IS_i) was 166, 152 and 127 days for the full, RDI and SDI systems, respectively (Table 2). The corresponding CV values were 10, 14 and 21% (Table 2).

The date of the first irrigation event varied from April 22nd to May 2nd for both full and RDI irrigation (under RDI, the deficit was applied starting in July) and from May 14th to May 29th for SDI (data not shown). Irrigation generally ended in September or October (data not shown).

Due to the different irrigation system efficiencies (PAE in Table 1), both I_{gross} and Ener were, as expected, highest in SIS, followed by MIS, and they were lowest in DIS (Table 2). DIS required approximately 10% (1-18%) and 19% (9-40%) less water and 37% (30-42%) and 52% (43-66%) less energy on average than MIS and SIS, respectively.

On the other hand, the total number of irrigation events (IrriN) and the irrigation season length (IS_i) were greatest for DIS, followed by MIS and SIS. Due to the low percentage of wet surfaces that distinguish DIS (see Table 1), the differences between the different types of irrigation systems were high for IrriN (DIS required approximately 2.5 and 1.9 times the number of irrigation events in SIS and MIS, respectively). In contrast, IS_i was less variable due to the influence of the less variable weather conditions. DIS required a 13-36% longer irrigation season (depending on the irrigation strategy considered) than SIS and a 4-9% longer season than MIS.

In this study, the WB-ET model was less sensitive to soil type, mainly in terms of the scheduling parameters I_{gross} , Ener and IS_i , i.e., for the same growing and irrigation system type, the differences between the two soil types considered were small (with a few exceptions; less than 10% for I_{gross} , Ener and IS_i , and less than 50% for IrriN).

With regard to the growing system, SHD olive orchards required more water and energy and a greater number of irrigation events than the HD systems (Table 2); e.g., under the same conditions, in Fsoil fully irrigated by DIS, I_{gross} , IrriN and Ener were approximately 30% higher in the SHD orchard compared to the HD orchard. These differences were mainly due to greater ground coverage by the canopy of the trees grown in SHD (systems (Table 1).

Neither the IA indices nor the SchE index is shown (Table 2) because they were always equal to 100%, due to the rules fixed in the WB-ET model, which specify that both the irrigation interval and the quantity of water are calculated

to result in zero deep losses and zero days of plant stress.

3.3 Irrigation Management at Fixed Intervals and Variable Quantities

For this type of scheduling, SchE was always 100% (no deep percolation) due to the optimisation of quantities based on the WB-ET model, similar to OPT scheduling. Instead, IA depends on the length of the interval. For the 3 days interval, the IA indices are not shown (Table 3) because they were always 100% for all the cases simulated. In all the cases considered, the 3 days interval was therefore sufficient to supply irrigation without stress.

For the weekly interval, with only a few exceptions, IA_1 , IA_2 and IA_3 were 100% for sprinkler system (SIS) and microjet system (MIS) (Table 3). For drip system (DIS), both IA_1 and IA_2 (referring to full irrigation) were less than 100% in most cases, mainly in Msoils and in the 2016 and 2017 datasets. Under these conditions (HD) groves in Msoils), the 2016 dataset showed the minimum values (IA_1 ranging from 65 to 79%, Table 3). For the same cases, stress was mostly of light type, with IA_2 being approximately 90% or higher (Table 3). This result indicates that the crop was under severe stress for only approximately 10% ($=100-IA_2$) of the irrigation season. For the deficit strategies, IA_3 was always 100% for RDI (any day of extra stress) and was always higher than 97% for SDI (Table 3).

For the 14 days interval, the IA indices were still 100% for the SIS cases. Under MIS, the crop experienced a certain degree of stress, mainly in HD groves with full irrigation in Msoil, whereas IA_1 sometimes exhibited values below 80% (Table 3). However, the percentage of days of severe stress generally did not exceed 10% ($IA_2 \cong 90\%$). In deficit conditions, some values of IA_3 were approximately equal to or lower than 90% (Table 3), leading to a certain incidence of extra stress days, mainly for RDI. This interval was sufficient only for olives under full irrigation by DIS for 36-78% of the irrigation season. For Msoils in particular, IA_1 was very low, reaching values below 50% in both HD and SHD groves (Table 3). For the same cases, IA_2 values ranging from 59 to 70% (Table 3) showed a high incidence of severe stress. In deficit conditions, it therefore seems reasonable to apply DIS irrigation with a 14-day interval under only the SDI strategy and in Fsoils (IA_3 of 94-100%, Table 3).

Table 2. Parameters of irrigation for the optimised irrigation scheduling (Over the irrigation season)

Year	Growing system	Soil type	Irrigation system	Gross irrigation (mm)			Total number of irrigation			Total energy (kWh/ha)			Irrigation season length (days)		
				Full	RDI	SDI	Full	RDI	SDI	Full	RDI	SDI	Full	RDI	SDI
2016	HD	Fsoil	DIS	358	227	155	20	13	9	234	148	101	158	142	115
			MIS	376	262	183	14	10	7	348	243	170	145	170	140
			SIS	431	256	170	5	3	2	752	447	296	136	91	58
		Msoil	DIS	369	241	169	35	24	17	241	157	111	176	168	151
			MIS	400	261	183	21	14	10	370	241	169	178	159	141
			SIS	466	328	197	7	5	3	812	571	344	173	178	94
	SHD	Fsoil	DIS	471	320	203	20	14	9	308	209	133	173	182	122
			MIS	494	364	241	8	6	4	458	337	223	150	162	113
			SIS	525	387	256	8	6	4	915	674	446	150	162	113
		Msoil	DIS	481	317	220	35	24	17	314	207	144	188	177	150
			MIS	505	331	251	12	8	6	468	307	232	161	144	136
			SIS	550	350	248	11	7	5	959	610	431	165	141	119
2017	HD	Fsoil	DIS	352	249	154	20	14	9	230	163	101	180	153	146
			MIS	375	265	157	14	10	6	347	246	146	173	143	121
			SIS	428	341	169	5	4	2	746	595	295	152	151	62
		Msoil	DIS	355	263	162	34	25	16	232	172	106	184	178	166
			MIS	383	285	164	20	15	9	354	264	152	183	176	138
			SIS	395	327	197	6	5	3	689	571	343	138	145	106
	SHD	Fsoil	DIS	442	324	203	19	14	9	289	212	132	174	156	149
			MIS	486	362	241	8	6	4	450	335	223	162	137	137
			SIS	516	384	256	8	6	4	899	670	447	162	137	137
		Msoil	DIS	453	339	207	33	25	16	296	222	135	185	180	160
			MIS	505	377	249	12	9	6	467	349	231	183	165	164
			SIS	504	401	248	10	8	5	878	699	432	158	161	137
Mean 2001-2017	HD	Fsoil	DIS	279	191	119	16	11	7	182	125	78	170	138	133
			MIS	298	215	131	11	8	5	276	199	121	158	150	125
			SIS	342	256	169	4	3	2	595	447	295	127	107	79
		Msoil	DIS	285	201	118	28	20	12	186	132	77	178	161	130
			MIS	298	225	127	16	12	7	276	208	117	161	171	116
			SIS	329	262	196	5	4	3	574	457	342	130	129	156
	SHD	Fsoil	DIS	347	250	156	15	11	7	227	163	102	156	138	127
			MIS	425	302	181	7	5	3	393	279	167	181	142	97
			SIS	452	320	192	7	5	3	787	558	334	181	142	97
		Msoil	DIS	365	268	166	27	20	13	239	175	108	177	172	151
			MIS	417	290	204	10	7	5	386	269	189	183	137	153
			SIS	448	298	196	9	6	4	780	519	342	184	123	115
Minimum				279	191	118	4	3	2	182	125	77	127	91	58
Maximum				550	401	256	35	25	17	959	699	447	188	182	166
Mean				414	295	190	15	11	7	471	338	217	166	152	127
Standard deviation				74	56	40	9	7	4	244	180	116	17	21	26
Coefficient of variation (%)				18	19	21	62	61	62	52	53	53	10	14	21

Full= full irrigation; RDI= regulated deficit irrigation; SDI= sustained deficit irrigation; HD= high density grove; SHD= super high density grove; Fsoil= fine to medium texture; Msoil= moderately coarse to medium texture; DIS= drip irrigation system; MIS= microjet irrigation system; SIS= sprinkle irrigation system.

For the 28 days interval, only irrigation by SIS in Fsoils resulted in high values (generally >90%) of the IA indices (Table 3). In Msoils, IA₁ was sometimes lower than 90%, mainly for SHD growth. In deficit conditions, IA₃ was generally approximately 100% for SDI and ranged between 88-100% for RDI; the minimum values were associated with SHD groves in Msoils under the RDI strategy (IA₃ = 77-88%, Table 3). For both the microirrigation systems (MIS and DIS), the percentage of stress days was generally higher than 50% (IA₁<50% in most cases, Table 3) for the full irrigation strategy. For DIS in particular, the percentage of severe stress days was also generally higher than 50% (IA₂ lower than or approximately equal to 50%, Table 3). For RDI, the percentage of stress days beyond those scheduled was higher than 50% (IA₃<50%) for DIS and ranged from 3-51% (IA₃=97-49%, Table 3) for MIS. With a few exceptions, IA₃ was generally >80% for the SDI strategy applied with MIS; in contrast, IA₃ values were always <80% for DIS.

Overall, the data illustrated above suggest when irrigation is carried out with long intervals (more than a week), the worst conditions in terms of water stress are associated with the full irrigation strategy, Msoils and localised irrigation systems, especially DIS. As expected, this effect depends on the low soil-holding capacity of Msoils and the low percentage of surfaces wetted by the emitters in DIS.

Although the IA and SchE for the 3-day and, under most conditions, weekly intervals were similar to those for OPT management, water and energy consumption should be different. Fig. 2 shows the ratios between I_{gross} applied in 3-day and weekly intervals and the same variable under OPT scheduling (I_{gross}3-day/I_{gross}OPT or I_{gross}weekly/I_{gross}OPT). These relationships assume the same value for the total energy applied in the irrigation season (Ener). Compared to OPT scheduling, water and energy consumption was generally higher under the 3- and weekly interval management schemes (Fig. 2). However, the increases were less than 10% for both the microirrigation systems (DIS and MIS, Fig. 2) but were higher for sprinkling in most cases, mainly for the deficit strategies (RDI and SDI) in the year with the maximum water requirement (2016). In cases involving sprinkling with RDI or SDI in 2016, water and energy consumption could even be 30-48% higher than that under OPT scheduling (Fig. 2).

3.4 Irrigation Management with a Fixed Interval and Quantity

The water quantity and interval were lowest for the HD growing system in Msoil irrigated by DIS (9 mm and 5 days, respectively, Table 4), due to the lower values for RAW and the wetted surface (Table 1). For the opposite reasons, the water quantity and interval were greatest for Msoil and SIS, which showed the highest RAW and a wet surface area of 100%.

For this type of irrigation scheduling, IA was generally very poor (Table 5). Under full irrigation, the crops were stressed for almost the entire irrigation season, mainly under the 2017 meteorological conditions (IA₁=2-50%), when the percentage of severe stress days was also very high (IA₂ =63-85%, Table 5). The deficit SDI strategy and the drip irrigation system (DIS) resulted in the lowest incidence of stress days (IA₃ approximately equal or higher than 80%, Table 5). Intermediate values of IA₃ occurred under the RDI strategy (Table 5).

As expected, the fixed interval, which should be adequate during the initial and final parts of the irrigation season, generally resulted in a lower IA than the optimal value during the central part of the irrigation season, which is the period of maximum water requirement under the Mediterranean climate.

SchE was always 100% (any deep loss) under full irrigation and varied from 41 to 100% and 50 to 94% for RDI and SDI, respectively (Table 5). Under full irrigation, the fixed interval indeed always resulted higher than that optimised by the WB-ET method applied to the three meteorological datasets used in this study. Under deficit irrigation strategies, deep losses were high under drip systems (DIS) (SchE=41-92%, Table 5) due to the low percentage of wetted area, which did not permit the soil to retain the fixed quantity of irrigation.

3.5 Comparison between the Different Irrigation Scheduling Methods

The irrigation scheduling at variable quantities and intervals (OPT) resulted the most adequate and efficient (no water stress to the plants, no water losses by deep percolation over those due to distribution uniformity) because of the optimisation of both water quantities and intervals determined via the WB-ET method.

For this type of irrigation management, drip systems require less water and energy, allowing considerable savings of approximately 10% and 19%, respectively, of water and 37% and 52%, respectively, of energy compared to microjet and sprinkler systems.

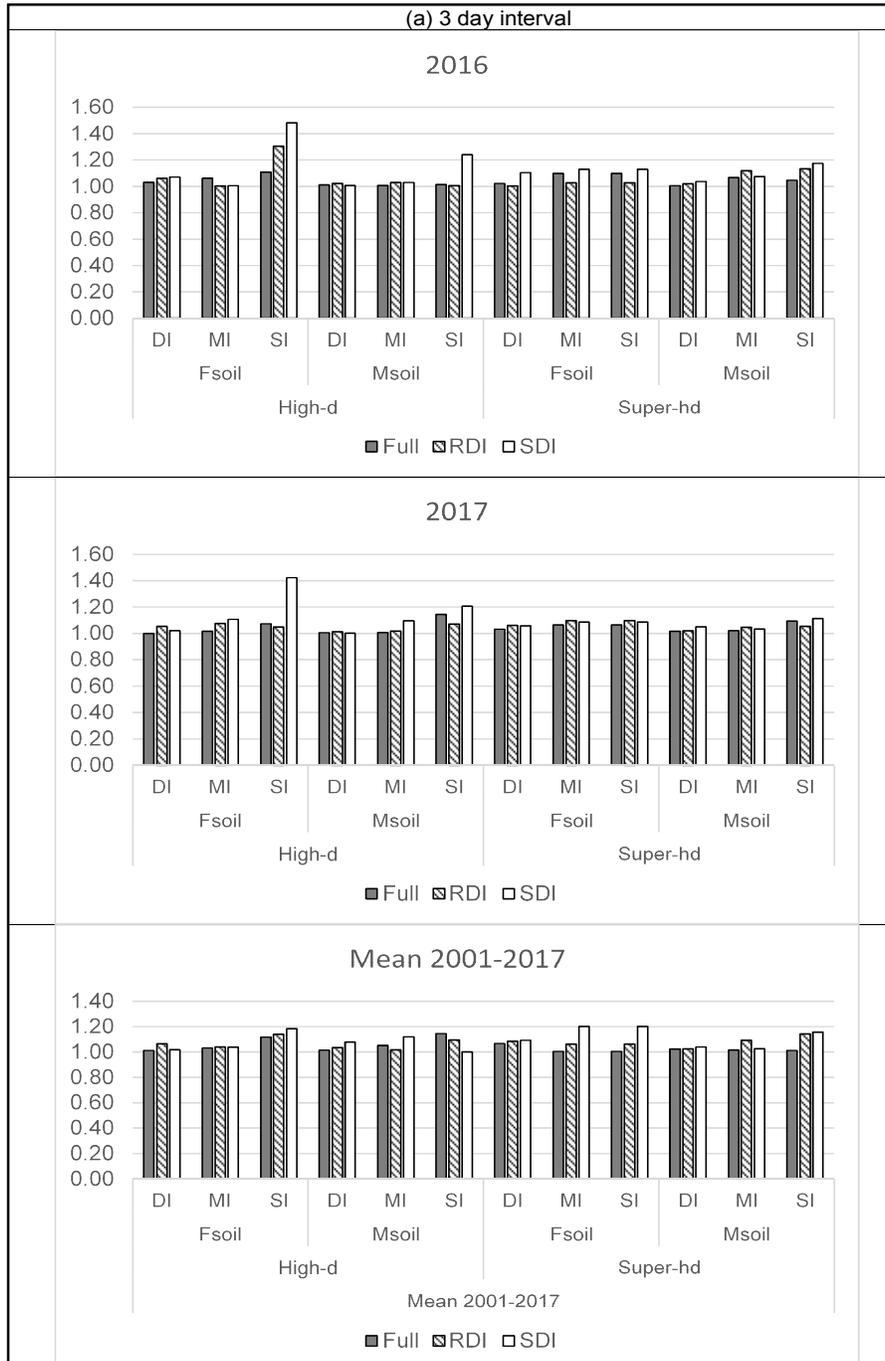
Table 3. Irrigation adequacy (IA₁, IA₂ and IA₃) for irrigation scheduling at variable quantities and weekly, 14-day and 28-day intervals. (IA₁ (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without any stress -both light and severe- in fully irrigated plants; IA₂ (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without severe stress in fully irrigated plants; IA₃ (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without extra stress beyond that specified in the deficit irrigation strategy RDI or SDI)

Year	Growing system	Soil type	Irrigation system	Weekly			14-days			28 days					
				Full		RDI	Full		RDI	SDI	Full		RDI	SDI	
				IA ₁	IA ₂	IA ₃	IA ₁	IA ₂	IA ₃	IA ₁	IA ₂	IA ₃			
2016	HD	Fsoil	DIS	95	100	100	100	63	86	86	94	30	49	53	61
			MIS	100	100	100	100	86	95	99	100	48	67	68	82
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	98	100	100	100
		Msoil	DIS	65	86	100	97	37	59	57	69	21	33	31	38
			MIS	95	100	100	100	66	86	85	95	37	51	49	61
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	93	100	100	100
	SHD	Fsoil	DIS	96	100	100	100	70	88	87	95	37	53	51	61
			MIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	82	96	97	100
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	82	96	97	100
		Msoil	DIS	71	89	100	99	36	55	49	73	19	34	29	43
			MIS	100	100	100	100	92	100	100	100	58	79	80	92
			SIS	100	100	100	100	97	100	100	100	67	87	88	96
2017	HD	Fsoil	DIS	98	100	100	100	66	87	78	97	34	52	52	68
			MIS	100	100	100	100	87	99	91	100	49	71	69	88
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	99	100
		Msoil	DIS	74	91	100	99	37	59	61	75	16	29	32	39
			MIS	98	100	100	100	69	88	82	98	36	52	56	70
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	95	100	97	100
	SHD	Fsoil	DIS	99	100	100	100	71	90	82	98	36	54	56	72
			MIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	84	98	89	100
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	84	98	89	100
		Msoil	DIS	79	93	100	99	43	59	66	78	20	29	34	42
			MIS	100	100	100	100	96	99	96	100	63	82	76	97
			SIS	100	100	100	100	98	100	98	100	68	90	77	98
Mean 2001-2017	HD	Fsoil	DIS	100	100	100	100	77	95	87	100	42	61	65	76
			MIS	100	100	100	100	96	100	97	100	61	81	81	95
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
		Msoil	DIS	84	98	100	100	45	66	67	84	25	38	39	51
			MIS	100	100	100	100	75	96	86	100	44	62	62	76
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	SHD	Fsoil	DIS	100	100	100	100	78	97	87	100	44	63	64	79
			MIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	93	100	97	100
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	93	100	97	100
		Msoil	DIS	87	98	100	100	50	68	70	85	26	40	42	51
			MIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	71	94	83	100
			SIS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	79	98	88	100
Minimum				65	86	100	97	36	55	49	69	16	29	29	38
Maximum				100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean				96	99	100	100	82	91	89	96	59	73	72	82
Standard deviation				9.22	3.30	0	0.53	22.1	14.4	14.4	8.73	27.9	25.2	23.6	21.6
Coefficient of variation (%)				9.64	3.34	0	0.53	27.1	15.9	16.1	9.14	47	34.4	32.8	26.4

Full= full irrigation; RDI= regulated deficit irrigation; SDI= sustained deficit irrigation; HD= high density grove; SHD= super high density grove; Fsoil= fine to medium texture; Msoil= moderately coarse to medium texture; DIS= drip irrigation system; MIS= microjet irrigation system; SIS= sprinkle irrigation system. Full= full irrigation; RDI= regulated deficit irrigation; SDI= sustained deficit irrigation; Fsoil= fine to medium texture; Msoil= moderately coarse to medium texture; DIS= drip irrigation system; MIS= microjet irrigation system; SIS= sprinkle irrigation system.

SDI was found to be the lowest consumption irrigation strategy in terms of both water and energy. SDI permitted average savings of approximately 36% and 54% for water and energy compared to RDI and full irrigation, respectively. Compared to HD orchards, SHD

orchards required approximately 32% more water and energy on average. In reference to the mean meteorological conditions, HD orchards (approximately 280 plants/ha) drip irrigated under the SDI strategy showed minimum water and energy requirements of approximately 120 mm



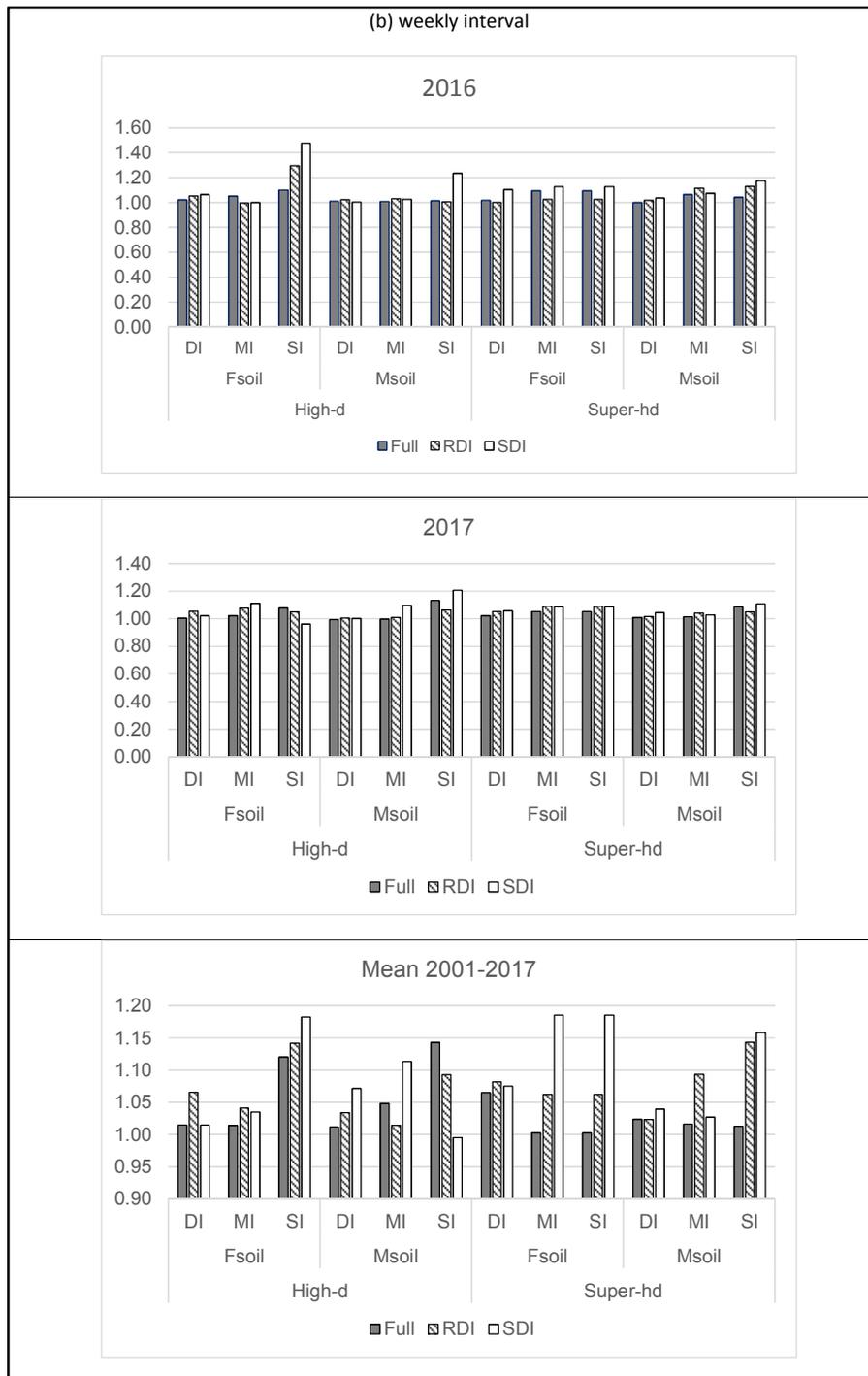


Fig. 2. Gross irrigation used for management with variable amounts and fixed intervals relative to optimised scheduling. (a) 3 day interval; (b) 7 day interval (DI= drip irrigation system; MI= microjet irrigation system; SI= sprinkle irrigation system; Fsoil= fine to medium texture; Msoil= moderately coarse to medium texture; High-d= high-density grove; Super-hd= super-high-density grove; Full= full irrigation; RDI= regulated deficit irrigation; SDI= sustained deficit irrigation)

Table 4. Irrigation parameters for irrigation scheduling at a fixed quantity and interval

Growing system	Soil type	Irrigation system	Fixed amount (mm)	Total number of irrigation	Fixed interval (days)
HD	Fsoil	DIS	17	13	9
		MIS	26	9	14
		SIS	85	3	42
	Msoil	DIS	9	23	5
		MIS	18	13	9
		SIS	65	4	33
SHD	Fsoil	DIS	22	10	12
		MIS	60	4	32
		SIS	63	4	32
	Msoil	DIS	12	18	7
		MIS	41	6	22
		SIS	49	5	24
Minimum			9	3	5
Maximum			85	23	42
Mean			39	9	20
Standard deviation			25	6	12
Coefficient of variation (%)			64	70	61

HD= high density grove;
SHD= super high-density grove;
Fsoil= fine to medium texture;
Msoil= moderately coarse to medium texture;
DIS= drip irrigation system;
MIS= microjet irrigation system;
SIS= sprinkle irrigation system

and 80 KWh/ha, respectively. In contrast, SHD orchards (approximately 1700 plants/ha) fully irrigated by DIS showed higher water and energy requirements (approximately 350 mm and 230 KWh/ha, respectively). A typical HD olive orchard drip irrigated under the RDI strategy required approximately 200 mm of water and 180 KWh/ha of energy. The irrigation requirements are of the same order of magnitude as those suggested in Andalusia, Spain [4].

Under irrigation scheduling with variable quantities and fixed intervals, the 3 days interval ensured performance similar to the OPT scheduling in terms of efficiency, but with a slight increase (less than 10%) in water and energy requirements. The weekly interval resulted in high scheduling efficiency (SchE), but with light water stress for HD groves in Msoils fully irrigated by drip systems. Due to the high percentage of stress days (both light and severe), drip and microjet irrigation were not feasible for 14- and 28-day intervals under most of the conditions examined. With a 14 days

interval, microjet systems were acceptable under only the SDI strategy. Sprinkler systems resulted in a low percentage of stress days and a high SchE, but water and energy requirements were up to 40% higher than those with OPT scheduling.

For all the conditions examined, irrigation scheduling with a fixed quantity and interval resulted in a high percentage of stress days. Furthermore, water losses due to deep percolation were high for both the RDI and SDI strategies.

It should be noted that early water deficit was detected in all the three meteorological periods analysed (2016, 2017 and mean 2001-2017). In fact, the date of the first irrigation event varied from April 22nd to May 2nd for both full and RDI irrigation and from May 14th to May 29th for SDI, in contrast with the traditional irrigation scheduling according to farmers, in the area examined, irrigate olive orchards from mid-June to September.

Table 5. Irrigation adequacy (IA₁, IA₂ and IA₃) and irrigation scheduling efficiency for irrigation management at a fixed quantity and interval (IA₁ (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without any stress -both light and severe- in fully irrigated plants; IA₂ (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without severe stress in fully irrigated plants; IA₃ (%) represents the days of the irrigation season without extra stress beyond that specified in the deficit irrigation strategy RDI or SDI).

Year	Gro-wing system	Soil type	Irrigation system	Irrigation adequacy (%)				Scheduling efficiency (%)		
				Full		RDI	SDI	Full	RDI	SDI
				IA ₁	IA ₂	IA ₃	IA ₃			
2016	HD	Fsoil	DIs	14	27	70	85	100	89	70
			MIs	15	29	79	96	100	89	75
			SIs	28	64	79	96	100	89	82
		Msoil	DIs	12	23	60	68	100	61	70
			MIs	12	26	73	79	100	61	69
			SIs	12	48	75	88	100	71	78
	SHD	Fsoil	DIs	8	23	64	75	100	78	89
			MIs	13	31	70	87	100	83	93
			SIs	13	31	70	87	100	83	93
		Msoil	DIs	5	16	47	48	100	78	90
			MIs	10	23	67	77	100	85	94
			SIs	12	24	68	79	100	80	90
2017	HD	Fsoil	DIs	2	20	56	85	100	72	59
			MIs	3	30	48	76	100	78	64
			SIs	50	83	55	77	100	92	67
		Msoil	DIs	1	8	41	66	100	41	57
			MIs	7	34	55	78	100	55	58
			SIs	7	34	66	82	100	66	68
	SHD	Fsoil	DIs	2	9	39	76	100	92	74
			MIs	7	34	58	81	100	95	80
			SIs	7	34	63	81	100	100	80
		Msoil	DIs	1	4	23	63	100	93	74
			MIs	4	13	48	76	100	98	80
			SIs	5	17	55	77	100	93	77
Mean 2001-2017	HD	Fsoil	DIs	51	85	76	97	95	61	52
			MIs	53	87	77	97	100	67	57
			SIs	73	88	78	97	100	77	68
		Msoil	DIs	31	58	60	75	95	61	50
			MIs	52	81	73	87	94	61	51
			SIs	68	83	75	87	100	71	62
	SHD	Fsoil	DIs	4	19	64	86	100	78	65
			MIs	27	74	70	86	100	83	72
			SIs	27	74	70	86	100	83	72
		Msoil	DIs	2	10	47	48	100	78	90
			MIs	9	36	67	77	100	85	94
			SIs	15	57	68	79	100	80	90
Minimum				1	4	23	48	94	41	50
Maximum				73	88	79	97	100	100	94
Mean				18	40	63	80	100	78	74
Standard deviation				20	26	13	11	1	14	13
Coefficient of variation (%)				107	66	21	14	1	17	18

Full= full irrigation; RDI= regulated deficit irrigation; SDI= sustained deficit irrigation; HD= high density grove; SHD= super high density grove; Fsoil= fine to medium texture; Msoil= moderately coarse to medium texture; DIS= drip irrigation system; MIS= microjet irrigation system; SIS= sprinkle irrigation system.

4. CONCLUSION

The main results of the research showed that the traditional irrigation strategy at fixed quantity and interval is not adequate to achieve high efficiency in the irrigation of olive orchards, from both the agronomic (reduction of crop water stress) and economic (reduction of water and energy requirements) point of view.

The optimisation of the irrigation scheduling requires the estimate of the water quantity to deliver in each irrigation in both the irrigation management at variable and fixed interval. The evapotranspiration-water balance model is an efficient and (relatively) simple tool to foresee the quantities and the dates of irrigation during the irrigation season.

The adoption of a fixed interval, which is preferred by the farmers for practical reasons, is feasible after verifying that it is adequate for the type of soil, plant density and irrigation system used. In the case of drip systems, it is not advisable to adopt intervals longer than one week. A means of lengthening the interval would be to increase the wetted area through the installation of more than two laterals per row, but this strategy is not feasible for practical and economic reasons as it can make irrigation costs prohibitive for a crop such as olive, in which large gains are not possible. When water agencies supply water at intervals longer than a week, the farmers should build storage facilities.

The irrigation season length should be longer respect the traditional one. Early water deficit (at the end of April or in the first decade of May) were detected in all the meteorological periods studied. Similarly, the results of the simulation showed that the irrigation season ends in October, mainly when localised irrigation systems were used. In contrast, with the traditional irrigation scheduling, farmers, in the area examined, irrigate olive orchards from mid-June to September.

Overall, in the area examined or in similar climatic conditions, considering also the risks to development of diseases such as *Verticillium*, drip irrigation systems and a weekly interval are advisable for olive groves, as highlighted by Gucci and Fereres [3].

From the methodological point of view, the simulated cases can be considered representative of both the real and potential

conditions experienced by olive grown in the Southern Italy environment.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was funded by the Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR) through the PON Ricerca e competitività 2007–2013 (PON03PE_00090_02).

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Carr MKV. The water relations and irrigation requirements of olive (*Olea europaea* L.): A review. *Experimental Agriculture*. 2013;49(4):597-639. Available:<https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0014479713000276>
2. Fernández JE. Understanding olive adaptation to abiotic stresses as a tool to increase crop performance. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 2014;10:158–179. Available:<https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2013.12.003>
3. Gucci R, Fereres E. Fruit trees and vines. Olive. In crop yield response to water. *FAO Irrigation and drainage paper*. 2012;66: 300-313. (Accessed 15 February 2018) Available:<http://www.fao.org/docrep/016/i2800e/i2800e.pdf>
4. Instituto de Investigación y Formación Agraria y Pesquera Junta de Andalucía. *Producción Integrada de Olivar*; 2011. (Accessed 20 January 2018) Available:<http://www.juntadeandalucia.es/export/drupal/jda/1337159656ProduccixnIntegradaOlivar.pdf>
5. Torres M, Pierantozzi P, Searles P, Rousseaux MC, García-Inza G, Miserere A, Bodoira R, Contreras C, Maestri D. Olive cultivation in the southern hemisphere: Flowering, water requirements and oil quality responses to new crop environments. *Front Plant Sci*. 2017; 8:1830. Available:<http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2017.01830>
6. Iniesta F, Testi L, Orgaz F, Villalobos FJ. The effects of regulated and continuous deficit irrigation on the water use, growth and yield of olive trees. *Europ. J. Agronomy*. 2009;30:258-265.

- Available:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.eja.2008.12.004>
7. Fereres E, Goldhamer DA, Parsons LR. Irrigation water management of horticultural crops. *Hortscience*. 2003;38(5): 1036-1042.
 8. Capra A, Scicolone B. Simulation-based evaluation of the efficiency of different irrigation scheduling strategies. *Proceedings of XXX CIOSTA-CIGR V Congress, Torino*. 2003;1238-1246.
 9. Capra A, Scicolone B. *Progettazione e gestione degli impianti di irrigazione, seconda edizione*. Bologna: Edagricole; 2016. Italian.
 10. Keller J, Bliesner RD. *Sprinkle and trickle irrigation*. New York: AVI Book; 1990.
 11. Lamm FR, Ayars JE, Nakayama FS. *Microirrigation for crop production*. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 2007.
 12. English MJ. Deficit irrigation: An analytical framework. *J. of Irr. and Drain. Eng. ASCE*. 1990;116(3):399-412.
 13. Capra A, Consoli S, Scicolone B. Deficit irrigation: Theory and practice. In: Alonso D, Iglesias HJ, editors. *Agricultural Irrigation Research Progress*. Hauppauge Ny: Nova Science Pub.; 2008.
 14. Fereres E, Soriano MA. Deficit irrigation for reducing agricultural water use. *J Exp Bot*. 2007;58(2):147-159.
 15. Agüero Alcaras LM, Rousseaux MC, Searles PS. Responses of several soil and plant indicators to post-harvest regulated deficit irrigation in olive trees and their potential for irrigation scheduling. *Agricultural Water Management*. 2016;171:10-20.
 16. Girón IF, Corell M, Martín-Palomo MJ, Galindo A, Torrecillas A, Moreno F, Moriana A. Feasibility of trunk diameter fluctuations in the scheduling of regulated deficit irrigation for Table olive trees without reference trees. *Agricultural Water Management*. 2015;161:114-126.
 17. García-Tejera O, López-Bernal Á, Orgaz F, Testi L, Villalobos FJ. Analysing the combined effect of wetted area and irrigation volume on olive tree transpiration using a SPAC model with a multi-compartment soil solution. *Irrigation Science*. 2017;35:409-423.
DOI: 10.1007/s00271-017-0549-5
 18. Mesa-Jurado MA, Berbel J, Orgaz F. Estimating marginal value of water for irrigated olive grove with the production function method. *Spanish Journal of Agricultural Research*. 2010;8(S2):S197-S206.
(Accessed 25 January 2018)
Available:www.inia.es/sjar
 19. Egea G, Fernández JE, Alcon F. Financial assessment of adopting irrigation technology for plant-based regulated deficit irrigation scheduling in super HIGH-Density olive orchards. *Agricultural Water Management*. 2017;187:47-56.
 20. Gómez-Rico A, Salvador MD, Moriana A, Pérez D, Olmedilla N, Ribas F, Fregapane G. Influence of different irrigation strategies in a traditional Cornicabra cv olive orchard on virgin olive oil composition and quality. *Food Chem*. 2007;100:568-578.
 21. Motilva MJ, Tovar MJ, Romero MP, Alegre S, Girona J. Influence of regulated deficit irrigation strategies applied to olive trees (*Arbequina cultivar*) on oil yield and oil composition during the fruit ripening period. *J. Sci. Food Agric*. 2000;80:2037-2043.
 22. Servili M, Esposito S, Lodolini E, Selvaggini R, Taticchi A, Urbani S, Montedoro G, Serravalle M, Gucci R. Irrigation effects on quality, phenolic composition, and selected volatiles of *Virgin olive* oils Cv. Leccino. *J. Agric. Food Chem*. 2007;55(16):6609-6618.
(Accessed 20 April 2018)
Available:<https://pubs.acs.org/doi/pdfplus/10.1021/jf070599n>
 23. Capra A, Scicolone B. Water quality and distribution uniformity in drip/trickle irrigation systems. *J. Agricultural Engineering Research*. 1998;70:355-365.
 24. Smith M, Pereira LS, Beregena J, Itier J, Goussard B, Ragab R, Tollefson L, Van Hoffwegen P. *Irrigation scheduling: From theory to practice*. Rome: FAO Water Report 8, ICID & FAO; 1996.
 25. Howell TA, Meron M. Irrigation scheduling. In Lamm FR, Ayars JE, Nakayama FS editors. *Microirrigation for crop production*. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 2007.
 26. Lamm FR, Rogers DH. The importance of irrigation scheduling for marginal capacity systems growing corn. *Applied Engineering in Agriculture*. 2015;31(2):261-265.
Available:<http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/aea.31.10966>
 27. Fereres E, Evans RG. Irrigation of fruit trees and vines: An introduction. *Irrigation Science*. 2006;24:55-57.
 28. Heerman DF. Irrigation scheduling. In Pereira LS, Fedder RA, Gilley RA, Lesaffre

- B, editors. Sustainability of irrigated agriculture. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers; 1996.
29. Gu Z, Qi Z, Mac L, Gui D, Xu J, Fang Q, Yuan S, Feng G. Development of an irrigation scheduling software based on model predicted crop water stress. *Computers and Electronics in Agriculture*. 2017;143:208-221.
 30. Pereira LS, Oweis T, Zairi A. Irrigation management under water scarcity. *Agricultural Water Management*. 2002;57:175-206.
 31. Maheshwari BL, Plunkett M. Best practice irrigation management and extension in peri-urban landscapes – Experiences and insights from the Hawkesbury–Nepean catchment, Australia. *Journal of Agricultural Education and Extension*. 2015; 21(3):267-282.
 32. Stirzaker RJ. When to turn the water off: Scheduling micro-irrigation with a wetting front detector. *Irrigation Science*. 2003;22: 177-185.
 33. Pérez-Rodríguez M, Alcántara E, Amaro M. The influence of irrigation frequency on the onset and development of *Verticillium wilt* of olive. *Plant disease*. 2015;99(4):488-495.
Available: <https://doi.org/10.1094/PDIS-06-14-0599-RE>
 34. Pérez-Rodríguez M, Orgaz I, López-Escudero FJ. Effect of the irrigation dose on *Verticillium wilt* of olive. *Scientia Horticulturae*. 2015;197:564-567.
 35. Navas-Cortés JA, Landa BB, Mercado-Blanco J, Trapero-Casas JL, Rodríguez-Jurado D, Jiménez-Díaz RM. Spatiotemporal analysis of spread of infections by *Verticillium dahliae* pathotypes within a high tree density olive orchard in Southern Spain. *Ecology and Epidemiology*. 2008; 98(2):167-180.
 36. Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT); 2017.
(Accessed 12 December 2017)
Available: <http://agri.istat.it>
 37. Fereres E, Villalobos FJ, Orgaz F, Testi L. Water requirements and irrigation scheduling in olive. *Acta Horticulturae*. 2011;888:31-39.
 38. Allen RG, Pereira LS, Raes D, Smith M. Crop evapotranspiration. Guidelines for computing crop water requirements. Rome: FAO Irrigation and Drainage Paper 56; 1998.
 39. Acutis M, Donatelli M. SOILPAR 2.00: software to estimate soil hydrological parameters and functions. *Europ J Agronomy*. 2003;18(3-4): 373-377.
 40. Agenzia Regionale per lo Sviluppo della Calabria (ARSSA). I suoli della Calabria. Carta dei suoli della Regione Calabria; 2003. Italian.
 41. CORINE land cover.
(Accessed April 2015)
Available: <http://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/corine-land-cover-2006-clc2006-100-m-version-12-2009>
 42. Burt CM, Clemmens AJ, Strelkoff KH. Irrigation performance measurements: efficiency and uniformity. *Journal of Irrigation and Drainage Engineering*. 1997; 123(6):423–442.
 43. Davis SL, Dukes MD. Irrigation scheduling performance by evapotranspiration based controllers. *Agricultural Water Management*. 2010;98:19–28.
Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2010.07.006>
 44. McCready MS, Dukes MD. Landscape irrigation scheduling efficiency and adequacy by various control technologies. *Agricultural Water Management*. 2011;98: 697–704.
Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2010.11.007>
 45. Capra A, Consoli S, Scicolone B. Long-term climatic variability in Calabria and effects on drought and agrometeorological parameters. *Water Resources Management*. 2013;27(2):601-617.
DOI: 10.1007/s11269-012-0204-0

© 2018 Capra and Scicolone; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<http://www.sciencedomain.org/review-history/27281>