

1 **Sensor-based management of container nursery crops irrigated with fresh or**
2 **saline water**

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18 **Highlights**

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20 – A controller was designed to irrigate container crops with fresh or saline water.

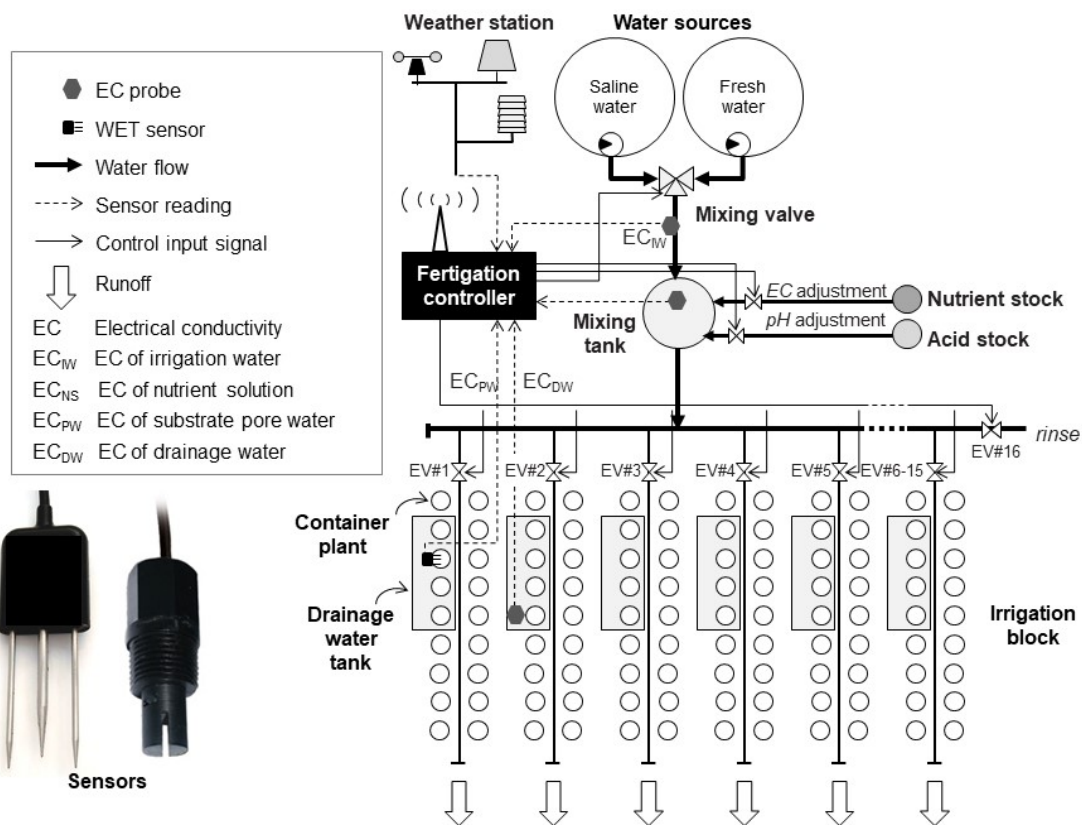
21 – Substrate salinization was prevented using different sensors and control strategies.

22 – The prototype reduced fresh water use by 17% to 84% compared to standard system.

23 – The prototype also decreased the loss of nitrogen and phosphorus by 53% to 84%.

24

25 **Graphical abstract**



26

27

28 Container hardy ornamental nursery stocks are generally grown with considerable
 29 applications of water and agrochemicals, resulting in an important pollution. These crops are
 30 often over-irrigated because of inaccurate scheduling, which is generally based on growers'
 31 experience. The design of an efficient irrigation management system is therefore crucial to
 32 improve profitability and sustainability of production. Reclaimed municipal or industrial
 33 wastewater is a source of irrigation water alternative to fresh water; generally, reclaimed
 34 wastewater has a high salt content and its use can induce salinity stress in sensitive crops,
 35 such as many ornamental species.

36 In this work, a prototype of fertigation controller was designed for the management of
 37 container hardy ornamental nursery stocks irrigated with different water sources, including
 38 saline water. The prototype could schedule irrigation, alternatively, as a time clock system, or
 39 using a soil moisture dielectric sensor, or by a crop evapotranspiration (ET) model. In
 40 addition, the prototype could monitor the salinity in the root zone using either a dielectric
 41 sensor capable of measuring both substrate moisture and bulk electrical conductivity (EC), or
 42 a probe measuring the EC of the water draining from the containers. Excessive salinization of

43 the containers irrigated with saline water was automatically prevented by the adoption of a
44 series of measures: irrigation with fresh water or a mixture of fresh water and saline water;
45 increase of irrigation dose; reduction of fertilizer concentration in the nutrient solution
46 delivered to the crop. The system was tested in a series of experiments conducted in Pistoia
47 (Italy) between 2008 and 2010 with two ornamental species: *Photinia* × *fraseri* Dress and
48 *Prunus laurocerasus* L.. When irrigation with fresh water was scheduled with the dielectric
49 sensor or the ET model, seasonal water use and the loss of both N and P were reduced by 17%
50 to 84% compared with the timer-controlled irrigation. The control of saline water irrigation
51 using either the dielectric sensor or the EC probe mitigated the salinity-induced growth
52 inhibition in both species; however, it did not prevent the occurrence of leaf damages (leaf
53 scorch) on *Prunus* plants, which were unmarketable at the end of growing season. In contrast,
54 in the more salt-tolerant *Photinia* plants, the use of the prototype resulted in a fresh water
55 saving of 51% to 73% and all plants were classified in the top market quality category.

56

57

58 **Abstract**

59 The objective of this study was to design and test a prototype fertigation controller for the
60 management of container ornamental nursery stocks irrigated with different water sources,
61 including saline water or reclaimed municipal/industrial wastewater. The prototype could
62 schedule irrigation in various ways, i.e. as a time clock, or by means of a soil moisture
63 dielectric sensor, or using a crop evapotranspiration (ET) model. The prototype also
64 monitored the salinity in the root zone using a dielectric sensor that measured both substrate
65 moisture and electrical conductivity (EC), or a probe measuring the EC of the water draining
66 out of the containers. Excessive substrate salinization of the containers irrigated with saline
67 water (containing 10 mM of sodium chloride) was prevented by the automated adoption of a
68 series of measures: irrigation with fresh water or a mixture of fresh water and saline water;
69 progressive increase of irrigation dose for each event, and progressive reduction of fertilizer
70 concentration in the nutrient solution delivered to the crop. The system was tested in three
71 experiments conducted in Pistoia (Italy) between 2008 and 2010 with two ornamental species:
72 *Photinia × fraseri* Dress (a salt-medium tolerant species) and *Prunus laurocerasus* L. (a salt-
73 sensitive species). When irrigation with fresh water was controlled with a dielectric sensor or
74 an ET model, total irrigation water use and the loss of both N and P were reduced by 17 % to
75 84% compared with the time-controlled irrigation. The sensor-based control of saline water
76 irrigation reduced the salinity effects on dry matter accumulation in both species; however, it
77 did not prevent the occurrence of leaf damages (leaf scorch) on *Prunus* plants, which were
78 unmarketable by the end of growing season. On the contrary, no leaf damages were visible on
79 *Photinia* plants irrigated with saline and/or fresh water, such that all were classified in the top
80 quality market category. The controller developed in this work could be used in commercial
81 nurseries to improve profitability and sustainability of container hardy ornamental nursery
82 stocks production.

83

84 **Keywords:**

85– Evapotranspiration model

86– Irrigation scheduling

87– Nutrient leaching

88– Salinity stress

89– Soil moisture sensor

90 **Nomenclature**

Symbol or abbreviation	Unit	Description
ε	$F \cdot m^{-1}$	Permittivity
CRF		Controlled release fertilizer
EC	$dS m^{-1}$	Electrical conductivity
EC _B	$dS m^{-1}$	Bulk electrical conductivity of substrate
EC _{DW}	$dS m^{-1}$	Electrical conductivity of drainage water
EC _{IW}	$dS m^{-1}$	Electrical conductivity of irrigation water
EC _{NS}	$dS m^{-1}$	Electrical conductivity of nutrient solution
EC _{PW}	$dS m^{-1}$	Electrical conductivity of substrate pore water
ET	mm	Crop evapotranspiration
ET _D	$mm day^{-1}$	Daily crop evapotranspiration
ET ₀	mm	Reference evapotranspiration
FW		Fresh water (groundwater)
K _C	dimensionless	Crop evapotranspiration coefficient
K _S	dimensionless	Irrigation scheduling coefficient
MODEL		Evapotranspiration model-based irrigation scheduling
MW		Mixed water (a mixture of fresh water and saline water)
SMS		Soil moisture sensor-based irrigation scheduling
SSI		Salinity stress index
SW		Saline water
TIMER		Timer-based irrigation scheduling
VWC	$m^3 m^{-3}$	Substrate volumetric water content
WSF		Water soluble fertilizer

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92

93 **1. Introduction**

94

95 Due to the application of the ‘green city’ concept to urban development, the production and
96 marketing of landscaping (ornamental) plants has increased in the last decades (Di Vita et al.,
97 2015) and the plant nursery industry has become an important horticultural sector in many
98 countries such as China, The Netherlands, the United States and Italy (AIPH, 2011).

99 Hardy ornamental nursery stocks are generally produced with considerable applications of
100 water and agrochemicals, typically resulting in pollution (Majsztrik et al., 2011; Lea-Cox,
101 2012). In Europe, one of the major production areas for hardy ornamental nursery stocks is
102 situated around the town of Pistoia in Tuscany, Italy. In Pistoia, there are more than 1000
103 wholesale nurseries spread on a total surface of 5400 ha: in the last decades, container
104 cultivation has been increasingly used (covering at present approximately 1500 ha; Incrocci et
105 al. 2014). Overhead sprinkler irrigation is commonly used for containers smaller than 5–7 L
106 while micro-irrigation is applied to larger containers. Annual irrigation water use ranges from
107 1000 m³ ha⁻¹ in soil-bound crops to 10000-15000 m³ ha⁻¹ in container crops (Marzialetti and
108 Pardossi, 2003; Pardossi et al., 2004), as also reported for nurseries in other countries [e.g.
109 U.K. (Grant et al., 2009) and Florida (Beeson et al., 2004)].

110 Container hardy ornamental nursery stocks are often over-irrigated because of inaccurate
111 scheduling, which is generally based on growers’ experience; a simple time clock system
112 (timer) is commonly used for automated irrigation. In Pistoia production area, groundwater is
113 the main source of irrigation water for nursery industry and annual irrigation water use is
114 more than 14 million m³ against an urban water use of less than 8 million m³ (Incrocci et al.,
115 2014). Current legislation on water resources (e.g. European Water Framework Directive; The
116 Council of the European Communities, 2000) and the competition for water between
117 agriculture and other users, such as population and industries, will affect the future
118 development of hardy ornamental nursery stocks production in Pistoia. The design of an
119 efficient irrigation management system as well as the possibility to use treated (reclaimed)
120 wastewater derived from municipal or industrial activities is therefore crucial for nursery
121 industry.

122 Irrigation with treated wastewater is a widespread practice in urban and peri-urban areas in
123 many regions, especially in developing countries (Gatto D’Andrea et al., 2015; Marinho,
124 2013). The concentration of salts in wastewater streams varies considerably over time and
125 depends on inputs into the sewer. Sewage with a high industrial input tends to be more saline

126 than municipal sewage (Hamilton et al., 2007). Generally, treated wastewaters have electrical
127 conductivity (EC) ranging from 600 to 1700 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$, with a high proportion of sodium
128 content (3-10 mol m^{-3}) relative to other cations (i.e. Ca and Mg) and its use for irrigation can
129 induce crop salinity stress and/or crop sodium toxicity (e.g. Wu et al., 1995; Hamilton et al.,
130 2007). In Pistoia and its neighboring areas, around 13 and 12 million $\text{m}^3 \text{year}^{-1}$ of municipal
131 and industrial treated wastewater, respectively, are available and could be beneficially utilized
132 by local agriculture, including nursery industry. The EC values range from 440 to 940 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$
133 for the former and from 500 to 1600 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ for the latter, with a sodium and chloride
134 content ranging from 2 to 10 mol m^{-3} (Lubello et al., 2004; Gori et al., 2008).

135 Many ornamental species are very sensitive to salinity stress. Generally, the first response of
136 plants to salinity stress is a decrease of growth and leaf area, mainly due to the reduction in
137 water supply to leaf cells, caused by the osmotic effect of salt on the root zone. The salinity
138 buildup in the root zone is associated with ion toxicities or nutritional deficiencies that can
139 produce damaged tips, marginal leaf burns, leaf chlorosis and necrosis (leaf scorch): in
140 ornamental plants, these symptoms can strongly reduce the market value of these plants, since
141 the decorative and aesthetic characteristics are fundamental for their quality (Cassaniti et al.,
142 2012).

143 The application of excess water is a simple method to leach salts from the root zone and
144 reduce the adverse effects of saline water irrigation on salt-sensitive plants, in particular when
145 grown in containers. Over-irrigation results, however, in loss of water and fertilizers, which
146 are leached into the soil and are likely to cause ground-water pollution. The actual real-time
147 value of the salinity of the growing medium (soil or substrate) could be used to guide decision
148 making about irrigation frequency and dosage in order to increase irrigation efficiency and
149 reduce water runoff and nutrient loss. In container cultivation, for instance, the electrical
150 conductivity measured in the aqueous extract of substrate or in the water drained out of the
151 container could be used to provide real-time feedback for irrigation decisions and to adjust the
152 EC of the irrigation water with the aim of preventing salinity build-up in the root zone.

153 Commercially available dielectric sensors can monitor both water content and bulk EC (EC_B)
154 of the growing medium (Pardossi et al., 2009; Lea-Cox, 2012). These sensors can be applied
155 for the automated control of irrigation and fertigation of container crops, in particular when
156 saline water is used.

157 The control of irrigation in container crops based on substrate salinity has received little
158 attention; to our knowledge, only a few papers have been published on greenhouse crops
159 (e.g.: Stanghellini et al., 2003; Scoggins and van Iersel, 2006; Sanchez-Guerrero et al., 2009;

160 Valdés et al., 2014, 2015a) and no work has been conducted on container hardy ornamental
161 nursery stocks.

162 The main goal of this work was to develop a prototype fertigation controller to be used in the
163 nursery industry for the management of containers irrigated with different water sources,
164 including water with high sodium content such as saline- or treated waste-water. The
165 prototype implemented different irrigation scheduling methods and procedures to prevent the
166 occurrence of crop stress due to the salinity build-up in the substrate when saline water was
167 used. The prototype could assess the salinity in the root zone using a dielectric sensor capable
168 of measuring substrate moisture and EC_B , or a probe measuring the EC of runoff water
169 (EC_{DW}). The control system was tested in three experiments conducted in Pistoia (Italy)
170 between 2008 and 2010 with two species grown in hardy ornamental nursery stocks. This
171 system could be used to reduce the consumption of fresh water and the pollution associated
172 with nutrient loss with water runoff.

173

174 **2. Materials and methods**

175

176 *2.1. Experimental site*

177 The work was conducted in Pistoia, Italy (latitude: 43°55'9" N; longitude: 10°54'27" E)
178 between 2008 and 2010. Mean values of daily air temperature, global solar radiation and
179 reference evapotranspiration (ET_0) were similar in all the experiments and differences in
180 season-cumulated ET_0 were principally due to the different length of growing seasons (Table
181 1, Fig. 1). The average rainfall and air temperature in the experimental periods (2008-2010)
182 were 151.1 mm and 22.7 °C, respectively (source: www.cespevi.it/meteost.htm).

183

184 *2.2 Plant material and growing technique*

185 Two commercially important species were selected for their similar water needs and different
186 sensitivity to salinity-induced leaf scorch, as found in a previous work (P. Marzioletti and A.
187 Pardossi, unpublished results): *Photinia* × *fraseri* Dress cv. Red Robin (red tip photinia,
188 tolerant) and *Prunus laurocerasus* L. cv. Novita (cherry laurel or English laurel; sensitive).

189 One-year old rooted cuttings of the two species, which had been grown in 1.8-L plastic pots
190 (diameter 14 cm; height 12 cm), were transplanted in April and cultivated outdoors until
191 October in 9.6-L black plastic cylinder containers (diameter 24 cm; height 21.5 cm) placed on

192 a gravel bed. Each container held one plant and was irrigated with two drippers with a
193 discharge rate of 6.0 L h⁻¹. Crop density was 2.4 plant m⁻².

194 Plants were cultivated according to the standard growing practice in the region of Pistoia. For
195 instance, both species were pruned in July (to promote bottom branching) and fertilized using
196 water-soluble fertilizers (WSF) dissolved in the irrigation water and/or controlled-release
197 fertilizers (CRF) incorporated in the substrate before transplanting.

198 Substrate was a peat-pumice mixture (1:1, v:v), which is widely used in Pistoia for its good
199 aeration and fast water percolation. Bulk density, porosity and water retention curve of the
200 substrate were determined by an external laboratory (Laboratorio MAC, Vertemate con
201 Minoprio, Como, Italy) using the CEN method (CEN, 2011). The values of VWC at 1.0, 3.0,
202 5.0, 7.5, 10.0, 15.0 and 20.0 kPa suction were 0.541, 0.414, 0.367, 0.355, 0.329, 0.328 and
203 0.327 m³ m⁻³, respectively. Bulk density, porosity of the substrate, container water capacity,
204 and plant available water were 490 kg m⁻³, 80.6%, 4.4 L pot⁻¹, and 1.8 L pot⁻¹, respectively.
205 The container available water is here defined as the difference between the water content
206 calculated at 0 and -10 kPa matric potential at the bottom of the container itself (Incrocci et
207 al, 2014).

208 In each experiment, the substrate was enriched (5.0 kg m⁻³) with CRF (Osmocote Exact
209 Standard 15-9-11, longevity of 8-9 months, Everris International B.V., Geldermalsen, The
210 Netherlands). Substrate volume averaged 7.7 L pot⁻¹, which consisted of approximately 75%
211 of new substrate, the rest being the rooting medium. Therefore, the amounts of N and P
212 supplied with substrate were 103.9 and 27.3 kg ha⁻¹, respectively.

213 The standard nutrient solution was prepared dissolving a WSF (Universol Blue 18-11-18,
214 Everris International B.V. Geldermalsen, The Netherlands) in the irrigation water at a
215 concentration of 250 mg L⁻¹. Two sources of irrigation water were used in all the experiments:
216 fresh and saline water with 0.5 and 1.5 dS m⁻¹ EC (named EC_{IW}), respectively. Saline water
217 (SW) was prepared by adding 10 mol m⁻³ (588.4 mg L⁻¹) NaCl to fresh water (FW) to
218 simulate the availability of treated municipal/industrial wastewater potentially available in
219 Pistoia district. The EC of the nutrient solution (EC_{NS}) was 0.80 or 1.80 dS m⁻¹, depending on
220 EC_{IW}; the concentrations of N, P and K were 44.9, 12.1 and 37.4 mg L⁻¹, respectively. In all
221 the experiments, the pH of irrigation water was continuously measured by a pH probe
222 connected to the prototype and automatically adjusted to 6.0 with sulphuric acid.

223

224 *2.3 Description of the fertigation controller*

225 The prototype was developed from an existing commercial fertigation device (MCNET II,
226 Spagnol Greenhouse automation, Vidor, Italy) and could manage the irrigation of 16 separate
227 plots using different water sources and salinity control strategies (see next section). The
228 prototype automatically prepared the nutrient solution by injecting concentrated WSF and
229 acid solutions from two stock tanks into the raw water at a rate depending on the target EC
230 and pH, measured with a temperature-compensated EC probe (ECDCC/1, EMEC Ltd,
231 Bologna, Italy) and a pH glass electrode (Hanna Instruments Italia, Italy), respectively. The
232 device could be operated by a personal computer, either locally or remotely via the Internet; it
233 was connected to a weather station and two different types of sensors to monitor root zone
234 salinity: a dielectric sensor (WET™ Delta-T Devices Ltd, Burwell, Cambridge, United
235 Kingdom) measuring volumetric water content (VWC) and EC_B and a probe (ECDCC/1,
236 EMEC, Bologna, Italy) measuring the EC of drainage water (EC_{DW}). The pins of the WET™
237 sensor were placed in the substrate between 3.5 and 5 cm from the pot wall, and between 4
238 and 12 cm from the bottom. The WET™ sensor measures permittivity (ϵ), EC_B and
239 temperature simultaneously in the same volume of soil or substrate (Balendonck et al., 2004;
240 Pardossi et al., 2009). In order to avoid the influence of VWC on the measurement of EC_{PW}
241 with the dielectric sensor, the system used only the EC_B readings at full container water
242 capacity, occurring when the water runoff from the pots was virtually terminated (Incrocci et
243 al., 2009). Starting from an earlier calibration for the peat-pumice mixture (Incrocci et al.,
244 2009), permittivity and EC_B were tested at the beginning of each growing season at the
245 container capacity, and converted, to VWC and pore water EC (EC_{PW}), respectively, using the
246 following equations:

247

$$248 \quad VWC = 0.0594 + 0.0230 \cdot \epsilon - 0.0002 \cdot \epsilon^2 \quad (R^2= 0.96) \quad (1)$$

249

$$250 \quad EC_{PW} = 4.11 EC_B \quad (R^2= 0.90) \quad (2)$$

251

252 The EC_B was calculated as the average of three consecutive measurements performed 10, 20
253 and 30 min after the end of each irrigation event. The same procedure on data acquisition was
254 used for EC_{DW} measured with the EC probe. The EC probe measured EC_{DW} in a small
255 reservoir (approximately 0.1 L) connected to a collecting tray with four plants. The whole
256 apparatus was designed to minimize water evaporation and the influence of rainfall and of the
257 leachate of previous irrigations.

258

259 2.4 Description of the irrigation and salinity control software

260 The software installed in the prototype was able to (see figure S1 in the supplemental
261 material): i) schedule irrigation, either as a time clock controller (TIMER), or by measuring
262 the substrate VWC with the dielectric sensor (SMS), or by using a crop evapotranspiration
263 (ET) model (MODEL); ii) maintain the EC_{PW} or EC_{DW} below a pre-set threshold to prevent
264 the occurrence of crop salinity stress. When operating in the SMS or MODEL mode,
265 irrigation was scheduled to maintain a pre-irrigation substrate water deficit corresponding to a
266 crop-specific fraction of the total available water (Incrocci et al., 2014). Since the *Photinia* is
267 less sensitive to water stress than *Prunus*, we decided to use the same pre-irrigation substrate
268 water deficit, fitted on *Prunus*, for both species. The irrigation dose was determined by
269 multiplying the planned pre-irrigation substrate water deficit ($L\ pot^{-1}$) by a scheduling
270 coefficient (K_s). This coefficient is a measure of the excess water applied to prevent salt
271 accumulation in the substrate and to account for non-uniform water application (Rolfe et al.,
272 2000). The K_s was dynamically modulated by fertigator prototype according to the container
273 salinity build-up as described below.

274 In the SMS mode, the containers were irrigated whenever the substrate VWC, measured by
275 the sensor, dropped below a threshold. In our work, the VWC was $0.52\ m^3\ m^{-3}$ (-1.3 kPa
276 matric potential as average of the substrate volume monitored by the sensor), which
277 corresponded to a pre-irrigation substrate water deficit of 38-42% of the available water,
278 which was determined gravimetrically during the first week of each experiment as previously
279 reported (Incrocci et al., 2014).

280 In the MODEL mode, irrigation was automatically activated whenever any predicted value of
281 cumulated ET since the last irrigation exceeded the target pre-irrigation substrate water
282 deficit. The hourly rate of ET was estimated for each species as the product of ET_0 times the
283 crop coefficient (K_c), which could be manually entered into the computer by the user.
284 Reference evapotranspiration was calculated from measurements of air temperature and
285 humidity, wind speed and global radiation using an hourly equation developed by the
286 California Irrigation Management Irrigation System (CIMIS) and calibrated in the summer
287 climatic conditions of Pistoia (Bacci et al. 2008). In a previous paper (Incrocci et al. 2014), a
288 correlation between leaf area index (LAI) and plant height for both species was found (the
289 determination coefficients were 0.72 and 0.78 for *Prunus* and *Photinia* plants, respectively).
290 Moreover a significant relationship ($P \leq 0.01$) between LAI and K_c was also assessed.
291 Combining the two correlations, K_c had been estimated directly from plant height, and a good
292 correspondence between predicted and measured daily crop evapotranspiration had been

293 found (determination coefficients 0.77 and 0.75 respectively for *Prunus* and *Photinia* plants).
294 Thus, in this work, K_C was weekly calculated using the average plant height (H ; m) of 10
295 plants for each irrigation sector using the equations reported by Incrocci et al. (2014):

296
297 *Prunus*: $K_C = 0.328 (2.711 H - 0.426)$ (3)

298
299 *Photinia*: $K_C = 0.346 (3.152 H - 0.594)$ (4)

300
301 In order to prevent the occurrence of crop salinity stress, the controller calculated a salinity
302 stress index (SSI) defined as the number of consecutive times that the EC of substrate pore
303 water (EC_{PW}) or drainage water (EC_{DW}) surpassed a threshold. EC_{PW} or EC_{DW} were measured
304 shortly after each irrigation event. Whenever EC_{PW} or EC_{DW} reading surpassed the threshold,
305 the salinity stress index increased by one unit; it decreased by one unit when the measured EC
306 remained below the threshold. The salinity stress index was reset to zero if a number of
307 successive EC readings were lower than the threshold.

308 In order to counter-act the substrate salinization, the prototype could apply three different
309 salinity mitigation actions, each with different level of intensity: 1) the increase of standard
310 irrigation dose; 2) the increase of fresh/saline water (FW/SW) mixing ratio in the irrigation
311 water; 3) the reduction of water soluble fertilizer concentration in the nutrient solution.

312 The user must define for each irrigation sector a specific salinity control procedure: this
313 means that for each SSI, the user must set the combination and the intensity of the salinity
314 mitigation actions that the prototype will adopt in the next irrigation . More explicitly, after
315 each irrigation, the prototype calculate the SSI for each irrigation sector; according to the
316 salinity control procedure insert by the customer and the calculated SSI value, the prototype
317 will adopt a precise irrigation dose, the FW/SW ratio and the WSF content of irrigation water.
318 The EC threshold, the maximum limit of the salinity stress index, and the number of EC
319 readings - to reset the salinity stress index - could be changed by the user.

320 In our work, the threshold of EC_{PW} or EC_{DW} were set to 2.5 and 2.0 $dS\ m^{-1}$, respectively;
321 these values were considered the maximum tolerable salinity level for the ornamental species
322 under investigation. The maximum limit of the salinity stress index was set to 10 units in
323 consideration of the expected irrigation frequency (1-3 irrigations per day); the salinity stress
324 index was reset to zero after three successive EC readings below the threshold.

325
326 *2.5 Experimental design*

327 Different irrigation treatments were compared in each experiment (Table 2). Each irrigation
328 treatment was applied to 72 plants of each shrub species, which were grown in four blocks of
329 18 plants arranged in double row. The irrigation with fresh water (FW) under the control of a
330 timer was included in all the experiments as the “grower” control (FW-TIMER). In this
331 treatment, irrigation was activated once or twice per day (10.00 a.m. and/or 04.00 p.m.) and
332 irrigation dose (1.90 to 2.40 mm) was adjusted every one or two weeks to account for
333 variations in climatic conditions and plant dimensions according to the instructions from a
334 local nurseryman. He ignored how irrigation was scheduled in the other treatments. Irrigation
335 was switched off on rainy days in all the treatments.

336 During the three experiments, we tested the effects on the plant growth, water consumption
337 and nitrogen and phosphorous losses when different water sources, irrigation scheduling
338 methods, and EC probes were applied. For a better understanding of the experiment plan by
339 the reader, the acronym of each treatment in all experiments identifies: i) the source of
340 irrigation water (FW= fresh water; SW=saline water and MW= where SW, FW or a mixed of
341 both, was automatically decided by the prototype, according to the SSI calculated after the
342 last irrigation and the salinity control strategy set by the user); ii) the scheduling irrigation
343 method applied (TIMER= using a clock-time method; SMS= the irrigation was controlled
344 measuring the substrate VWC by a WETTM sensor; MODEL= the irrigation was scheduled
345 using an evapotranspiration method, based on the plant height); iii) the type of EC probe
346 adopted to calculate the SSI (EC_{PW} or EC_{DW} if the SSI is calculated using a dielectric sensor
347 or a drainage EC probe, respectively).

348 The first experiment was conducted in 2008 on *Prunus* (**experiment 1**) with the main goal to
349 check the correct operation of the prototype. Three treatments were compared: i) FW-TIMER;
350 ii) FW-SMS-EC_{PW} irrigated with fresh water and iii) MW-SMS-EC_{PW} irrigated with a
351 mixture of fresh and saline water (MW), both under the control of a dielectric sensor (Table
352 2). This sensor was placed in one of 10 plants of cherry laurel that had been selected at
353 transplanting for uniform size. Daily ET of these plants was gravimetrically monitored in two
354 weeks before the start of observations and the plant with the ET closest to the average value
355 was used as guide plant. The salinity control strategy implemented in the prototype to prevent
356 salinity build-up in the substrate irrigated with fresh water or a mixture of fresh and saline
357 water consisted initially in the reduction of WSF concentration (when the SSI is equal to 1
358 and 2), then in progressive increase of the FW/SW ratio (only in the MW-SMS-EC_{PW}
359 treatment, SSI from 3 to 6), and finally in the increase of irrigation dose (SSI from 7 to 10;
360 Table 2 and 3). Since in this experiment, the amount of WFS added to the various treatments

361 resulted quite different with possible effects on plant growth, in the second and third
362 experiment the amount of WFS was kept constant to all treatments.

363 **Experiment 2** was conducted with *Prunus* to compare different water sources, scheduling
364 irrigation methods (TIMER vs SMS), and salinity control procedures. The treatments were the
365 following (Tables 2 and 3): i) and ii) irrigation with fresh water or saline water, respectively,
366 under the control of a timer (FW-TIMER and SW-TIMER); iii) irrigation with fresh water
367 under the control of a dielectric sensor (FW-SMS-EC_{PW}); iv and v) irrigation with a mixture
368 of fresh and saline water (MW) under the control of a dielectric sensor with two salinity
369 control strategies (MW-SMS-EC_{PW1} and MW-SMS-EC_{PW2}). The MW-SMS-EC_{PW1} strategy,
370 aimed to reduce total water use and thus, the drainage water and nutrient losses. In this
371 treatment the prototype used saline water until the SSI remained equal to zero. When the SSI
372 increases, the first mitigation action applied was the progressive increase on the use of FW
373 with respect to SW use (SSI from 1 to 3), and as second the increase of the irrigation dose of
374 FW (SSI from 4 to 10). The goal of the second salinity control strategy (MW-SMS-EC_{PW2})
375 was to use saline water as much as possible in order to save fresh water: in this case, the
376 sequence of the two mitigation actions described in the previous treatment were reversed
377 (SSI= 1-3 and 4-6 progressive increase of irrigation dose and fresh water use, respectively) .
378 In TIMER and SMS treatments, irrigation was scheduled as in experiment 1.

379 The main goal of **experiment 3** was to compare two different approaches to monitor root
380 zone salinity: the measurement of EC_{PW} or EC_{DW}. The experiment was conducted with
381 *Prunus* and *Photinia* and included the following treatments: i) FW-TIMER; ii) and iii)
382 irrigation with fresh or saline water scheduled according to ET predictions (FW-MODEL and
383 SW-MODEL); iv and v) irrigation with saline water or a mixture of saline and fresh water
384 (MW) under the control of the ET model, and where the calculation of SSI was obtained by
385 the measurement of EC_{PW} (by a dielectric sensor, MW-MODEL-EC_{PW}) or EC_{DW} (by EC
386 probe put in the drainage water collector, MW-MODEL-EC_{DW}). In both these MW
387 treatments, the salinity control strategy applied had the goal to reduce the total water use (the
388 same tested in the experiment 2, see Tables 2 and 3).

389

390 *2.6 Measurements*

391 In all the experiments, daily crop ET, the volume and the nutrient concentration of both
392 irrigation and water runoff were measured in individual plants on 16, 17 and 13 different days
393 over the season 2008, 2009 and 2010, respectively. These days were carefully chosen in order
394 to be representative of the average climate conditions recorded in the last six-seven days

395 before the measurement. Four plants of each species were sampled from each irrigation
396 treatment (one plant per block).

397 Each plant was insert into a larger bucket, with a distance of 5-6 cm to the bottom, in order to
398 collect all drainage produced during the irrigation day, avoiding the contact between the
399 drainage water and the bottom of the containerized plant. The whole system (bucket + the
400 potted plant) and the only bucket was weighted at the 8.00 A.M. and after 24 h; successively,
401 the drainage water present in each bucket was sampled and the flow of each dripper of the
402 sampled plants were assessed, in order to calculate exactly the irrigation dose for each pot. In
403 addition, a flow-meter was installed after the electrovalve of each irrigation sector, and for
404 every selected day, a pot-dripper coefficient was calculated as the ratio between the pot
405 irrigation dose and the total irrigation water applied. Finally, the crop ET, the drainage water
406 and the leaching fraction was calculated as reported by Incrocci et al. (2014).

407 The N and P concentrations were assessed in the collected drainage samples using
408 spectrophotometric analytic methods, as described by Massa et al. (2010).

409 The sampling days marked the beginning and the end of each sub-period (roughly 7-10 days).
410 For each species and in all the treatments, the balance for water, N and P were computed on
411 the four selected plants by cumulating the amounts determined for each sub-period, as
412 following:

- 413 - the irrigation water use was obtained multiplying the irrigation water applied to the sector -
- 414 measured by the flow-meter times the mean value of initial and final pot-dripper coefficients;
- 415 - the drainage amount calculated as the latter irrigation water use multiplied by the mean of
- 416 initial and final measured leaching fractions;
- 417 - the amount of estimated N and P leaching computed as the latter drainage amount multiplied
- 418 by the mean of initial and final measured N and P concentrations, respectively.

419 These data calculated for each selected plants were converted into millimetres or kg ha^{-1}
420 considering a density of 2.4 containers m^{-2} .

421 At the end of each experiment, the four selected plants for each treatment were sampled for
422 destructive measurements of leaf area index and shoot dry mass (Incrocci et al., 2014). On 10
423 plants for each treatment, we determined the percentage of leaves with an overall scorched
424 area larger than approximately 5% of the total leaf area. Plant market quality was also
425 evaluated at the end of the experiment 2 and 3 as a subjective combination of plant growth and
426 the appearance of foliage and root system. Two local nurserymen assessed the quality of 12
427 plants randomly sampled from each treatment; they ignored how each plant had been
428 irrigated.

429

430 *2.7 Statistical analysis*

431 The differences between irrigation treatments were tested for each species using one-way
432 analysis of variance (ANOVA). Mean values were separated using LSD test. Statistical
433 analysis was performed with Statgraphics Plus 5.1 (StatPoint, Inc., Herndon, VA , USA).

434

435 **3. RESULTS**

436 *3.1 Experiment 1*

437 In this experiment, TIMER (control) containers were irrigated every day except on two days
438 because of rain, whereas treatment FW-SMS-EC_{PW} and MW- SMS-EC_{PW} faced only one day
439 without irrigation (day 17 and 29, respectively). TIMER treatment involved far more
440 irrigation events (210) than FW-SMS-EC_{PW} (164) and MW-SMS-EC_{PW} (120). During the
441 season, WSF was always added to the irrigation water for FW-TIMER treatment, while was
442 not added on 56 and 96 occasions in the FW-SMS-EC_{PW} and MW-SMS-EC_{PW} treatments,
443 respectively.

444 In TIMER containers, the leaching fraction averaged 34.7% against 17.6% or 18.7% in those
445 of FW-SMS-EC_{PW} and MW-SMS-EC_{PW} plots, respectively (Table 4). In the latter two
446 treatments, the total irrigation water use and water runoff were reduced by 32% and 64%,
447 respectively, compared with the control (Table 4). The use of fresh water decreased by 55% in
448 MW-SMS-EC_{PW} treatment.

449 As expected, EC_{NS} and EC_{PW} measured at each irrigation event were generally higher in
450 containers irrigated with a mixture of fresh and saline water than in the other treatments (Fig.
451 2). In the control, mean EC_{PW} remained invariably below the threshold (2.5 dS m⁻¹), which
452 however was surpassed frequently and for several consecutive days both in FW-SMS-EC_{PW}
453 and MW- SMS-EC_{PW}; average salinity stress index was 1.7 and 4.3, respectively (Fig. 2).

454 The average concentration of N and P in the water runoff collected periodically during the
455 season was lower in the SMS treatments than in the control, in particular when plants were
456 irrigated with a mixture of fresh and saline water (Table 4). When irrigation was controlled
457 with the dielectric sensor, we found a remarkable decrease in total nutrient application both
458 for N and P (-21% in FW-SMS-EC_{PW} and -56% in MW-SMS-EC_{PW}) and loss (-71% for N
459 and -66% for P in FW-SMS-EC_{PW}; -73% for N and -78% for P in MW-SMS-EC_{PW}) with
460 respect to the control (FW-TIMER, Table 4).

461 Daily ET was slightly but significantly reduced (-15%, on average) in the SMS treatments
462 with respect to the control (Table 4). At the end of the experiment, no significant differences

463 were found across the treatments for plant height; in contrast, LAI and shoot dry weight were
464 significantly reduced in plants irrigated a mixture of fresh and saline water compared with
465 those irrigated with fresh water (Table 4).

466 All the plants irrigated with a mixture of fresh and saline water showed severe leaf scorch; at
467 the end of the experiment, 45% of the leaves on sampled plants were damaged. In contrast,
468 leaf scorch did not affect any plant watered with FW.

469

470 *3.2 Experiment 2*

471 In 2008, the reduction of plant growth in treatment MW-SMS-EC_{PW} was associated with
472 nutrient shortage resulting from many irrigations with WSF-free water (Tables 2 and 3).
473 Therefore, in 2009 we tested two salinity control strategies that did not include the reduction
474 of WSF concentration in the nutrient solution (Tables 2 and 3).

475 In this experiment, the control plants were not watered because of rain on 13 days whilst days
476 without irrigation were 26 to 31 in the plants irrigated under the control of a dielectric sensor.
477 The number of irrigation events was much greater in TIMER treatments (242) than in FW-
478 SMS-EC_{PW} (162), MW-SMS-EC_{PW1} (160) and MW-SMS-EC_{PW2} (153) treatments.

479 In TIMER treatments, mean leaching fraction was 56%, on average, against 14.2%, 26.5%
480 and 30.1% in FW-SMS-EC_{PW}, MW-SMS-EC_{PW1} and MW-SMS-EC_{PW2} treatments,
481 respectively (Table 5). The application of the substrate moisture sensor for irrigation
482 scheduling markedly reduced the total irrigation water use (-33% to -46%) and water runoff (-
483 67% to -88%; Table 5) with respect to the control. The use of fresh water was greater in MW-
484 SMS-EC_{PW1} plants (85.9% of the total irrigation water use) than in MW-SMS-EC_{PW2} plants
485 (56.2%, Table 5).

486 The EC_{NS} and EC_{PW} measured at each irrigation event were higher in plants irrigated with
487 saline water or a mixture of fresh and saline water than in those irrigated with FW; EC_{PW} was
488 not measured in TIMER containers. The mean of periodical measurements of EC_{DW} during
489 the season was also greater for containers irrigated with a mixture of fresh and saline water
490 compared with the other treatments (Table 5). In containers irrigated with a mixture of fresh
491 and saline water, mean EC_{PW} was above the threshold (2.5 dS m⁻¹) and the salinity stress
492 index averaged 7.0 and 4.3 in MW-SMS-EC_{PW1} and MW-SMS-EC_{PW2}, respectively (Fig. 3).

493 The use of dielectric sensor for irrigation scheduling decreased in all SMS treatments both the
494 supply and the estimated leaching of N and P in comparison to TIMER treatments (Table 5).
495 In FW-SMS-EC_{PW} treatment, the total use and loss of both N and P were markedly decreased
496 with respect to the TIMER system (for example, -75% and -84% respectively for N and P

497 leaching, Table 5). Irrigation with saline water significantly reduced daily ET, shoot dry
498 weight and LAI with respect to the control (Table 5).

499 At the end of the experiment, the percentage of damaged leaves accounted for 64.1 % and
500 42.0 % in SW-TIMER and MW- SMS-EC_{PW2}, respectively (Table 5). According to two local
501 growers, all the plants sampled from FW-TIMER, FW-SMS-EC_{PW} and MW-SMS-EC_{PW1}
502 plots were in the best market quality category; in contrast, SW-TIMER and MW-SMS-EC_{PW2}
503 plants were judged unmarketable due to leaf scorch.

504

505 3.3 Experiment 3

506 In this experiment, we tried to test a different approach to control the salinity build-up in the
507 container without the use of soil moisture sensor: root zone salinity was assessed measuring
508 either EC_{PW} or EC_{DW}.

509 In experiments 1 and 2, the values of EC_{DW} and EC_{PW} measured at the same irrigation event
510 were not significantly correlated due to wide data scattering; however, the experimental mean
511 values of EC_{DW} was 10% to 30% lower than the corresponding mean values of EC_{PW}.
512 Therefore, in experiment 3 the threshold for EC_{DW} was set 2.0 dS m⁻¹ instead of 2.5 dS m⁻¹ for
513 EC_{PW}, as in experiments 1 and 2.

514 In this experiment irrigation was based on a crop evapotranspiration model (reference
515 evapotranspiration times a crop coefficient), in order to avoid the use of a soil moisture
516 sensor, and at the same time to be tightly related to the plant water consumption for all the
517 treatments, with the exclusion of the control (TIMER) treatment.

518 In the control treatment, *Prunus* plants were not watered because of rain on 19 days whereas
519 MODEL plants were not irrigated in 33 days. The number of irrigation events was 132 and 83
520 in TIMER and MODEL treatments, respectively.

521 In TIMER containers, mean leaching fraction was 33.5% and ranged between 12.3% and
522 30.1% for those in MODEL treatments (Table 6). Irrigation water use and water runoff in
523 FW-TIMER and in treatments irrigated with a mixture of fresh and saline water (MW) were
524 similar and much higher than in FW-MODEL and SW-MODEL treatments (Table 6). The use
525 of fresh water was greater in MW-MODEL-EC_{PW} than in MW-MODEL-EC_{DW}, but it was
526 strongly reduced in both treatments (respectively, -51.1% and -34.5%) with respect to TIMER
527 plot.

528 Mean values of EC_{PW} in MW-MODEL-EC_{PW} treatment and EC_{DW} in MW-MODEL-EC_{DW}
529 were close to the threshold value (2.5 or 2.0 dS m⁻¹; Fig. 4). The salinity stress index average
530 was 3.7 and 2.8 in MW-MODEL-EC_{PW} and MW-MODEL-EC_{DW}, respectively. The mean of

531 periodical measures of EC_{DW} during the season was also greater for containers irrigated with
532 saline water and with a mixture of fresh and saline water compared with those irrigated with
533 fresh water (Table 6).

534 Compared with the control, ET-based irrigation scheduling with fresh or saline water
535 treatment (FW-MODEL and SW-MODEL) reduced the total use (-17%) and loss (-53%) of
536 N. Phosphorus was not considered in this experiment.

537 At the end of the experiment, no significant differences were found across the treatments for
538 plant height and LAI while shoot dry biomass was significantly smaller in plants irrigated
539 with saline water (Table 6). The number of damaged leaves was negligible in fresh water
540 treatments whereas accounted for 72.8%, 25.7% and 22.7% in SW-MODEL, MW-MODEL-
541 EC_{PW} and MW-MODEL- EC_{DW} , respectively (Table 6). The two evaluators judged all the
542 plants irrigated with saline water or with a mixture of fresh and saline water unmarketable
543 while those irrigated with fresh water were ranked in the first quality category.

544 Very similar results in terms of water and N balance, and plant growth, were found in
545 *Photinia* (Table 7; Fig. 4). This crop was irrigated more frequently (172 times in the control
546 and 130 times, on average, in MODEL plots) than *Prunus* as a result of greater size. For
547 instance, in MODEL plots N loss was reduced by 24% to 53% with respect to the control. In
548 contrast to *Prunus*, no *Photinia* plant showed scorched leaves and the two evaluators ranked
549 all the sampled plants in the first quality market category (Table 7).

550

551 **4. DISCUSSION**

552 *4.1. Irrigation scheduling*

553 In this work, irrigation was scheduled using a time clock system (TIMER), a soil moisture
554 sensor (SMS) or a simplified ET model (MODEL). The first one is the most used system in
555 commercial nurseries in many countries in consideration of its simplicity and low cost (e.g.
556 Grant et al., 2009; Incrocci et al., 2014; Lea-Cox, 2012; Majsztrik et al. 2011). In our work,
557 the leaching fraction of TIMER treatments was between 33.5% (Table 6) and 62.2 % (Table
558 5). These figures are within those recorded in commercial nurseries in Pistoia (Marzialetti and
559 Pardossi, 2003) and in other countries for instance in U.K (Grant et al. 2009) and in U.S.A.
560 (Majsztrik et al., 2011).

561 In comparison to the TIMER treatment, the total irrigation water use decreased by 26%–46%
562 in SMS (Tables 4 and 5) or MODEL (Tables 6 and 7) treatments, without significant
563 differences on season-cumulative ET and dry matter production.

564 The reduction of the total irrigation water use in SMS and MODEL treatments could be
565 attributed to a reduction of both irrigation frequency and leaching fraction (Tables 4, 5, 6, and
566 7), and not to a smaller irrigation dose, in agreement with previous findings (Incrocci et al.,
567 2014). The lack of important effects on plant ET suggests that all the plants of both species
568 received optimal irrigation in experiments 1-3.

569 Several authors had reported that the use of substrate moisture sensors or ET model for
570 irrigation control decreased the total irrigation water use of container nursery crops without
571 detriment to crop growth (e.g. Bacci et al. 2008; Grant et al. 2009 and 2012; Incrocci et al
572 2014; Lea-Cox et al., 2013).

573 The total irrigation water use depends on the length of the experimental period and on its
574 climatic conditions (for example the seasonal cumulated rainfall and ET_0): normalized data
575 for the experimental period length, being similar the daily ET_0 of the three experiments (see
576 Table 1), showed that the SMS or MODEL -using only fresh water- reduced the amount of
577 irrigation water in *Prunus* plants of 1.10, 1.98 and 0,66 mm day⁻¹, respectively for the 2008,
578 2009 and 2010 seasons, compared to control treatments (FW-TIMER).

579 Several authors reported that irrigation water scheduling is the most important issue to
580 properly manage nutrients leaching in ornamental crop production (Grant et al., 2009; Lea-
581 Cox, 2012; Majsztrik et al., 2011).

582 In *Prunus* plants, the SMS or MODEL irrigation scheduling reduced the normalized data of
583 total N supply (0.56, 1.03 and 0.32 kg ha⁻¹ day⁻¹) and estimated N leaching (0.25, 0.81, and
584 0.30 kg ha⁻¹ day⁻¹), respectively for the 2008, 2009 and 2010 seasons, compared to control
585 treatments (FW-TIMER). A similar trend was recorded for the phosphorus: the reduction of
586 total P supply (0.14, and 0.31 kg ha⁻¹ day⁻¹) and of estimated P leaching (0.05, and 0.26 kg ha⁻¹
587 day⁻¹), respectively for the 2008, and 2009 seasons, compared to control treatments (FW-
588 TIMER). We point out that in 2009 experiment the difference of supplied and leached
589 nutrients were so high due to the large amount of irrigation water applied in FW-TIMER
590 treatment: the normalized total irrigation water use was 4.35 mm day⁻¹ in 2009, and 3.54 and
591 2.49 mm day⁻¹, in 2008 and 2010, respectively.

592 Our results pointed out that optimal irrigation scheduling reduce the environmental impact
593 associated with nutrient emission mainly due to a reduction of water runoff.

594

595 *4.2 Crop response to saline water irrigation*

596 Plant tolerance to saline water irrigation is generally assessed from growth reduction. In
597 ornamental plants, however, one should also consider the appearance of foliage, because salt

598 stress can result in leaf damages that reduce their market value (Cassaniti et al. 2012, Valdés
599 et al., 2015a, b). *Photinia* is classified as salt sensitive plant (Miyamoto et al., 2004) while
600 *Prunus* is considered tolerant to salinity by some authors (Appleton et al., 2015) or sensitive
601 by others (Hill et al., 2004). In our work, *Photinia* and *Prunus* exhibited a different response
602 to NaCl salinity. In fact, saline water irrigation markedly reduced shoot growth in both
603 species (Tables 5 and 6 for *Prunus*; Table 7 for *Photinia*) while leaf scorch was observed only
604 in *Prunus*.

605 The irrigation control system developed in this work prevented the adverse effects of saline
606 water irrigation in both species, as confirmed by the similar shoot dry mass, LAI and mean
607 daily crop ET (Tables 4, 5, 6 and 7), with the exception of *Prunus* in the experiment 1 (MW-
608 SMS-EC_{PW}). Growth reduction observed in the latter experiment, could be also attributed to
609 the reduced amount of N and P supplied: in fact, the salinity control strategy had as first
610 mitigation action the reduction of WSF. Many studies demonstrate that salinity can impair
611 nutrient uptake in plants, thus reducing their growth (Grattan and Grieve, 1999; Cassaniti et
612 al., 2012).

613 During the whole experimental period, two main salinity control strategies were tested for the
614 possible use of saline water (or treated wastewater) on *Prunus* plants: the first strategy aimed
615 at reducing the total irrigation water use (MW-SMS-EC_{PW1}), and the second at saving as
616 much as possible the fresh water (MW-SMS-EC_{PW2} in 2009; MW-MODEL-EC_{PW} or MW-
617 MODEL-EC_{DW} in 2010). From a commercial point of view, for salt-sensitive species such as
618 *Prunus*, only the first strategy was reliable, since the latter strategy resulted in large leaf
619 damage percentages leading to an unmarketable production. As a matter of fact, the first
620 strategy if compared to FW-SMS-EC_{PW} produced a reduction of fresh water consumption
621 (2.41 and 2.37 mm day⁻¹, for MW-SMS-EC_{PW1} and FW-SMS-EC_{PW}, respectively), and an
622 increase of the total irrigation water use, the drainage water (2.81, 0.74 against 2.37, 0.34 mm
623 day⁻¹, respectively), and the estimated total N leaching (0.42 against 0.27 kg ha⁻¹ day⁻¹).

624 On the contrary, for more salt-tolerant species such as *Photinia*, the second salinity control
625 strategy did not affect the market crop quality. The comparison of the average of MW-
626 MODEL-EC_{PW}, and MW-MODEL-EC_{DW} with the FW-MODEL-EC_{PW} showed a reduction of
627 the fresh water consumption (1.33 and 2.89 mm day⁻¹, respectively), and an increase of the
628 total irrigation water use, and of the drainage water (3.50, 1.33 against 2.89, 0.54 mm day⁻¹,
629 respectively), thus leading to an increase of the estimated total N leaching (0.44 against 0.28
630 kg ha⁻¹ day⁻¹). These results mean that the second salinity control strategy led to an interesting
631 fresh water saving (1.56 mm day⁻¹), associated with a light increase of N loss (0.16 kg ha⁻¹

632 day⁻¹). These findings are in agreement with the conclusions of Stanghellini et al. (2007).
633 According to these authors, the production of salt-sensitive crops with moderately saline
634 water required a great LF, thus resulting in a large environmental impact due to nutrient
635 leaching.

636

637 *4.3 Sensing root zone salinity*

638 The WETTM sensor calculated the EC_{PW} from EC_B following the Hilhorst model (Hilhorst,
639 2000), taking in account the influence of substrate VWC. The Hilhorst calibration was
640 labour-consuming, since it must be done at different substrate water contents. In order to
641 simplify the calibration procedure, we had proposed to use a linear calibration between EC_{PW}
642 and EC_B, using only the EC_B values recorded at the full container capacity, that in our
643 experiments occurred after the end of irrigation events.

644 In this work, the pore water EC and the drainage EC values taken at the same time were
645 poorly correlated. This was expected as the relationship between EC_{PW} and EC_{DW} in container
646 crops is influenced by many factors such as: EC and ion content of irrigation water; leaching
647 fraction; substrate VWC and cation exchange capacity; salt distribution in the root zone,
648 which depends on the irrigation method, the use of controlled release fertilizers (since they
649 may not be uniform within the pot), and the plant uptake of both water and nutrients (De
650 Rijck and Schrevens, 1998; Incrocci et al., 2006; Sonneveld and Voogt, 2009).

651 Similar results were found in pot-grown plants of poinsettia and geranium by Valdés et al.,
652 (2014, 2015a). These authors found a significant linear regression between EC_{DW} and
653 substrate EC_B, which in turn is linearly related to EC_{PW}. In our in well-hydrated substrate,
654 EC_{PW} is approximately 4-fold bulk EC (see Eq. 2). According to Sonneveld and Voogt
655 (2009), EC_{PW} of soilless substrate is generally higher than EC_{DW}: in our experiments, this
656 statement was confirmed, since the seasonal average of the drainage EC measurements of
657 each specific treatment was lower than the average of EC_{PW} values (from -10% to -30%).
658 Therefore, different EC thresholds must be set when saline water irrigation is managed using
659 a dielectric sensor buried in the substrate or a probe measuring EC drainage water. Sonneveld
660 and Voogt (2009) had given some recommendation about the optimal EC of the nutrient
661 solution present in the substrate for cut flower and ornamental crops (from 1.0 to 2.5 dS m⁻¹)
662 and for fruit vegetable crops (from 2.5 to 5.5 dS m⁻¹).

663 The results of the experiment 3 confirmed that both the EC monitoring systems are reliable to
664 avoid salinity build-up when the salinity mitigation strategy is used.

665 The main advantage of dielectric sensors is that they can measure both substrate VWC and

666 EC_{PW} and then could be also used to schedule irrigation. However, these sensors are
667 expensive and need a substrate-specific calibration. In addition, the conversion of EC_B to
668 EC_{PW} is influenced by substrate moisture (Incrocci et al., 2009, 2014) and, two or more
669 sensors should be placed in the same irrigation sector because of possible sensor failure
670 and/or the discrepancy in sensor readings between the monitored container(s) and the others.
671 In the case of more than one sensor are used, a safety procedure must be embedded in the
672 fertigation device, in order to signal an eventual malfunctioning to the grower.
673 However, in the last years some much cheaper dielectric sensors became available for
674 growers, and in addition the calibration procedures can be by-passed using raw data readings
675 taken at the desired substrate water content assessed empirically by the growers.
676 In contrast, EC probes are much cheaper, can be easily calibrated and monitor more than one
677 container, as in our experiments. In principle, an EC probe could be immersed in the tank or
678 basin collecting the water draining from the whole irrigation plot, thus providing very robust
679 data about on root zone salinity. Finally, the use of EC probe combined to a scheduling
680 irrigation based on evapotranspiration model can facilitate the management of saline water
681 irrigation in the nursery industry.

682
683

684 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

685 In this study, we tested a prototype for management of container nursery crops irrigated with
686 different water sources, including saline water. The system scheduled irrigation used different
687 types of sensors to monitor weather conditions, substrate moisture and the salinity in the root
688 zone. Scheduling irrigation with dielectric sensors or simplified evapotranspiration model
689 reduced total irrigation water use by 24% to 46% and nutrient losses by 17% to 84%
690 compared to the standard timer-based irrigation with fresh water. The adoption of salinity
691 control procedures coupled with sensor or crop evapotranspiration scheduling method
692 alleviated the adverse effects of saline water irrigation on plant growth in both *Prunus* and
693 *Photinia*. However, in *Prunus* all the plants irrigated with saline water or most of those
694 irrigated with a mixture of fresh and saline water were affected by leaf scorch at the extent
695 that they were unmarketable at the end of growing season. In contrast, in the more salt-
696 tolerant *Photinia* plants, the use of the prototype resulted in a fresh water saving of 51% to
697 73% and all plants were classified in the top market quality category. Thus, in our
698 experimental conditions, the use of saline water joint to automatic salinity control strategies

699 for the cultivation of salt-sensitive ornamental species resulted not suitable for the commercial
700 nurseries, since it did not produce a saving in fresh water. Indeed, the tested procedure was
701 very interesting for growing medium-salt tolerant ornamental crops (i.e. *Photinia* plants): in
702 our case, the fresh water saving ranged from 51 to 65%. Sensor-based irrigation is not
703 straightforward in commercial nurseries because they have many irrigation plots and produce
704 hundreds of plant species with different water requirements and salinity tolerance. Wireless
705 sensor network technology and smart irrigation controllers, such as the prototype developed
706 in this work, could overcome these difficulties. The use of low cost EC probes, instead of
707 more expensive dielectric sensors, and crop evapotranspiration models for irrigation
708 scheduling can significantly reduce the investment cost of the whole control system. The
709 prototype could also be used for greenhouse operations. The application of sensor-based
710 fertigation is easier for container greenhouse production, where few and more uniform crops
711 are generally grown, thus limiting the number of irrigation sectors.

712

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1 **Table 1.** Basic information on the irrigation study conducted on hardy ornamental nursery stocks grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) between
 2 2008 and 2010.

Experiment (Year)	Planting date	Period of observations	Days of observations	Mean daily air temperature (°C)	Mean daily global solar radiation (MJ m⁻²)	Mean daily reference evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹)	Season-cumulated reference evapotranspiration (mm)	Season- cumulated rainfall (mm)
1 (2008)	28 April	10 June – 9 October	122	22.3	19.8	3.62	441.4	55.6
2 (2009)	20 April	18 May – 7 October	143	23.4	20.0	3.73	533.3	159.3
3 (2010)	29 April	25 June – 5 October	103	22.5	19.6	3.42	352.3	238.4

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1 **Table 2.** Description of irrigation treatments in different experiments conducted with hardy
2 ornamental nursery stocks grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) between 2008 and 2010: crop
3 species (*Photinia x Fraseri*; *Prunus laurocerasus*), water source (fresh water, FW; saline
4 water, SW; a mixture of fresh and saline water, MW), irrigation scheduling method (time
5 clock system, TIMER; soil moisture sensor, SMS; evapotranspiration model, MODEL); the
6 input parameter for the salinity control procedures (electrical conductivity of substrate pore
7 water, EC_{PW}, or EC of water runoff, EC_{DW}); the sequence of measures taken to prevent
8 excessive salinization of the substrate. Other abbreviations: WSF, concentration of water
9 soluble fertiliser in the irrigation water; FW/SW, the volumetric ratio between fresh water and
10 saline water in irrigation; ID, irrigation dose. The symbols “↓” and “↑” indicate, respectively,
11 a decrease or an increase in WSF, FW/DW and ID.

Exp. (Year)	Crop species	Treatment name	Water source	Irrigation method	Input parameter for salinity control	Sequence of salinity control measures
1 (2008)	<i>Prunus</i>	FW-TIMER	FW	TIMER	-	
		FW-SMS-EC _{PW}	FW	SMS	EC _{PW}	↓WSF; ↑ID
		MW-SMS-EC _{PW}	MW	SMS	EC _{PW}	↓WSF; ↑FW/SW; ↑ID
2 (2009)	<i>Prunus</i>	FW-TIMER	FW	TIMER	-	-
		SW-TIMER	SW	TIMER	-	-
		FW-SMS- EC _{PW}	FW	SMS	EC _{PW}	↑ID
		MW-SMS- EC _{PW} (1)	MW	SMS	EC _{PW}	↑FW/SW; ↑ID;
		MW-SMS- EC _{PW} (2)	MW	SMS	EC _{PW}	↑ID; ↑FW/SW
3 (2010)	<i>Prunus</i> and <i>Photinia</i>	FW-TIMER	FW	TIMER	-	-
		FW-MODEL	FW	MODEL	-	-
		SW-MODEL	SW	MODEL	-	-
		MW-MODEL- EC _{PW}	MW	MODEL	EC _{PW}	↑ID; ↑FW/SW
		MW-MODEL- EC _{DW}	MW	MODEL	EC _{DW}	↑ID; ↑FW/SW

12 **Table 3.** Description of salinity control procedures tested in different experiments with hardy
13 ornamental nursery stocks grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) between 2008 and 2010 and
14 irrigated using different water sources: fresh water (FW), saline water (SW) or a mixture of
15 them (MW). Irrigation was scheduled using a pre-set program (TIMER), a dielectric moisture
16 sensor (SMS) or the evapotranspiration model (MODEL). See text for details. The salinity
17 control procedures differed for the FW/SW ratio in the raw water, the irrigation dose and the
18 concentration of water soluble fertilizer (WSF) in the irrigation water for a given value of the

1 salinity stress index (SSI); the electrical conductivity (EC) of irrigation water before (EC_{IW})
 2 and after nutrient addition (EC_{NS}) is also shown. The SSI is the number of consecutive times
 3 that the EC of substrate pore water (EC_{PW}) or drainage water (EC_{DW}), measured after each
 4 irrigation event, surpassed a threshold of 2.5 or 2.0 $dS\ m^{-1}$, respectively.

SSI	FW/SW ratio	Irrigation dose (mm; seconds)	Nutrient content ($kg\ m^{-3}$)	EC_{IW} ($dS\ m^{-1}$)	EC_{NS} ($dS\ m^{-1}$)
FW-SMS- EC_{PW} (Experiment 1, 2008)					
0	100:0	2.00 (240 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
1	100:0	2.00 (240 s)	0.125	0.50	0.65
2	100:0	2.00 (240 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
3	100:0	2.10 (252 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
4	100:0	2.20 (264 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
5	100:0	2.30 (276 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
6-10	100:0	2.40 (288 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
MW-SMS- EC_{PW} (Experiment 1, 2008)					
0	0:100	2.00 (240 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
1	0:100	2.00 (240 s)	0.125	1.50	1.65
2	0:100	2.00 (240 s)	0.00	1.50	1.50
3	33:67	2.00 (240 s)	0.00	1.17	1.17
4	67:33	2.00 (240 s)	0.00	0.83	0.83
5	100:0	2.00 (240 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
6	100:0	2.00 (240 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
7	100:0	2.10 (252 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
8	100:0	2.20 (264 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
9	100:0	2.30 (276 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50
10	100:0	2.40 (288 s)	0.00	0.50	0.50

5 *To be continued*

FW-SMS-EC _{PW} (Experiment 2, 2009)					
0	100:0	2.25 (270 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
1	100:0	2.50 (300 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
2	100:0	2.75 (330 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
3	100:0	3.00 (360 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
4	100:0	3.25 (390 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
5	100:0	3.50 (420 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
6-10	100:0	3.75 (450 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
MW-SMS-EC _{PW1} (Experiment 2, 2009)					
0	0:100	2.25 (270 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
1	33:67	2.25 (270 s)	0.250	1.17	1.47
2	67:33	2.25 (270 s)	0.250	0.83	1.13
3	100:0	2.25 (270 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
4	100:0	2.75 (330 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
5	100:0	3.25 (390 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
6-10	100:0	3.75 (450 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
MW-SMS-EC _{PW2} (Experiment 2, 2009)					
0	0:100	2.25 (270 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
1	0:100	2.75 (330 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
2	0:100	3.25 (390 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
3	0:100	3.75 (450 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
4	33:67	3.75 (450 s)	0.250	1.17	1.47
5	67:33	3.75 (450 s)	0.250	0.83	1.13
6-10	100:0	3.75 (450 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80
MW-MODEL-EC _{PW} and MW-MODEL-EC _{DW} (Experiment 3, 2010, <i>Photinia</i> and <i>Prunus</i>)					
0	0:100	2.00 (240 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
1	0:100	2.42 (290 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
2	0:100	2.83 (340 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
3	0:100	3.25 (390 s)	0.250	1.50	1.80
4	33:67	3.25 (390 s)	0.250	1.17	1.47
5	67:33	3.25 (390 s)	0.250	0.83	1.13
6-10	100:0	3.25 (390 s)	0.250	0.50	0.80

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Table 4. Influence of the irrigation treatments on the balance of water, nitrogen and phosphorus, mean daily crop evapotranspiration (ET) and some growth parameters of *Prunus laurocerasus L.* plants grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) in 2008 (Experiment 1). The electrical conductivity (EC) of irrigation water, drainage water and substrate pore water (EC_{DW}), and the leaching fraction are also shown. Plants were watered using different water sources: fresh water (FW), or a mixture (MW) of fresh and saline water in different ratio according to the level of substrate salinity build-up. Irrigation was automatically scheduled using a pre-set program (TIMER) or a dielectric sensor (SMS). In two treatments, measures were taken based on EC_{PW} to prevent excessive salinization of the substrate. Crop ET was gravimetrically measured on different dates during the growing season while growth parameters were measured at the end of the experiment. See text and Tables 2-3 for details.

Parameter	FW-TIMER	FW-SMS-EC _{PW}	MW-SMS-EC _{PW}
Total irrigation water use (IWU; mm)	432.0 A	298.0 B	288.5 B
Fresh water use (% of IWU)	100 A	100 A	45.1 B
Water runoff (mm)	149.9 A	52.5 B	53.9 B
Leaching fraction (%)	34.7 A	17.6 B	18.7 B
Irrigation water EC (dS m ⁻¹)	0.80 B	0.68 C	1.03 A
Drainage water EC (dS m ⁻¹)	0.81 C	1.21 B	1.47 A
Drainage water N concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	28.3 A	23.8 B	21.0 C
Drainage water P concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	6.7 A	6.5 A	4.1 B
Total N supply (kg ha ⁻¹)	317.9 A	249.9 B	139.2 C
Estimated total N leaching (kg ha ⁻¹)	42.4 A	12.5 B	11.3 B
Total P supply (kg ha ⁻¹)	79.5 A	62.8 B	34.3 C
Estimated total P leaching (kg ha ⁻¹)	10.1 A	3.4 B	2.2 B
Mean daily crop ET (mm day ⁻¹)	2.09 A	1.82 B	1.72 C
Plant height (m plant ⁻¹)	0.70 A	0.64 A	0.67 A
Leaf area index (dimensionless)	2.74 A	2.5 AB	2.39 B
Shoot dry mass (t ha ⁻¹)	6.00 A	5.72 A	5.20 B
Leaf damage (%)	0.0 B	0.0 B	45.0 A

*In each row, mean values (n = 4) followed by the same letters are not significantly different (P < 0.01) according to LSD test.

Table 5. Influence of the irrigation treatments on the balance of water, nitrogen and phosphorus, mean daily crop evapotranspiration (ET) and some growth parameters of *Prunus laurocerasus L.* plants grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) in 2009 (Experiment 2). The electrical conductivity (EC) of irrigation water, drainage water and substrate pore water (EC_{PW}), and the leaching fraction are also shown. Plants were watered using different water sources: fresh water (FW) saline water (SW) or a mixture of fresh and saline water (MW), in different ratio according to the level of substrate salinity build-up. Irrigation was automatically scheduled using a pre-set program (TIMER) or a dielectric sensor (SMS). In three treatments, measures were taken based on EC_{PW} to prevent excessive salinization of the substrate. Crop ET was gravimetrically measured on different dates during the growing season while growth parameters were measured at the end of the experiment. See text and Tables 2-3 for details.

Parameter	FW-TIMER	SW-TIMER	FW-SMS-EC _{PW}	MW-SMS-EC _{PW1}	MW-SMS-EC _{PW2}
Total irrigation water use (IWU, mm)	622.3 A	557.9 B	338.9 E	401.4 D	418.2 C
Fresh water use (% of IWU)	100 A	0 D	100 A	85.9 B	56.2 C
Water runoff (mm)	386.8 A	280.3 B	48.0 E	106.4 D	125.8 C
Leaching fraction (%)	62.16 A	50.24 B	14.16 E	26.51 D	30.08 C
Irrigation water EC (dS m ⁻¹)	0.80 E	1.78 A	0.79 D	1.11 C	1.45 B
Drainage water EC (dS m ⁻¹)	1.19 D	2.80 A	1.75 C	1.95 BC	2.08 B
Drainage water N concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	39.7 D	88.4 A	79.2 B	58.9 C	76.1 B
Drainage water P concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	11.2 C	19.4 A	14.6 B	6.7 D	13.4 BC
Total N supply (kg ha ⁻¹)	401.3 A	367.0 B	254.0 D	297.0 C	301.2 C
Estimated total N leaching (kg ha ⁻¹)	153.5 B	247.7 A	38.0 E	62.7 D	95.7 C
Total P supply (kg ha ⁻¹)	112.3 A	91.2 B	67.5 D	81.2 C	84.2 C
Estimated total P leaching (kg ha ⁻¹)	43.5 B	54.5 A	7.0 D	7.1 D	16.9 C
Mean daily crop ET (mm day ⁻¹)	1.76 A	1.49 B	1.83 A	1.86 A	1.73 A
Plant height (m plant ⁻¹)	0.72 A	0.63 B	0.72 A	0.77 A	0.68 A
Leaf area index (dimensionless)	2.65 B	2.35 C	2.89 A	2.91 A	2.65 B
Shoot dry mass (t ha ⁻¹)	6.00 A	5.00 B	6.20 A	6.50 A	5.90 A
Leaf damage (%)	0 C	64.1 A	0.0 C	0.0 C	42.0 B

*In each row, mean values (n = 4) followed by the same letters are not significantly different (P < 0.01) according to LSD test.

Table 6. Influence of irrigation treatments on the balance of water, nitrogen and phosphorus, mean daily crop evapotranspiration (ET) and growth of *Prunus laurocerasus* plants grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) in **2010 (Experiment 3)**. The electrical conductivity (EC) of irrigation water, drainage water and substrate pore water (EC_{PW}), and the leaching fraction are also shown. Plants were watered using different water sources: fresh water (FW), saline water (SW) or a mixture of them (MW) in different ratio according to the level of substrate salinity build-up. Irrigation was automatically scheduled using a pre-set program (TIMER) or a weather-based ET model (MODEL). In two treatments, root zone salinity was controlled based on EC_{PW} measured with a dielectric sensor (MW-MODEL-EC_{PW}) or EC_{DW} measured with a EC probe (MW-MODEL-EC_{DW}). Crop ET was also gravimetrically measured on different dates during the growing season while growth parameters were measured at the end of the experiment. See text for details.

Parameter	FW-TIMER	FW-MODEL	SW-MODEL	MW-MODEL-EC _{PW}	MW-MODEL-EC _{DW}
Total irrigation water use (IWU; mm)	256.0 A	188.4 C	186.5 C	250.7 AB	239.9 B
Fresh water use (% of IWU)	100 A	100 A	0 D	48.8 B	34.5 C
Water runoff (mm)	85.8 A	23.1 D	26.5 D	78.6 B	72.2 C
Leaching fraction (%)	33.52 A	12.26 B	14.21 B	31.36 A	30.09 A
Irrigation water EC (dS m ⁻¹)	0.80 C	0.79 C	1.80 A	1.39 B	1.52 B
Drainage water EC (dS m ⁻¹)	0.91 D	1.01 D	2.36 A	1.94 B	1.73 C
Drainage water N concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	61.1 B	94.8 A	86.4 A	55.3 B	58.3 B
Total N supply (kg ha ⁻¹)	222.6 A	190.1 C	194.9 C	207.8 B	210.2 B
Estimated total N leaching (kg ha ⁻¹)	52.4 A	21.9 C	22.9 C	43.5 B	42.1 B
Mean daily crop ET (mm day ⁻¹)	1.65 A	1.60 A	1.55 A	1.67 A	1.63 A
Plant height (m plant ⁻¹)	0.55 A	0.53 A	0.52 A	0.56 A	0.51 A
Leaf area index (dimensionless)	1.10 A	1.15 A	1.17 A	1.12 A	1.15 A
Shoot dry mass (t ha ⁻¹)	3.40 A	3.10 A	2.70 B	3.20 A	3.20 A
Leaf damage (%)	6.6 C	7.9 C	72.8 A	25.7 B	22.7 B

*In each row, mean values (n = 4) followed by the same letters are not significantly different (P < 0.01) according to LSD test.

Table 7. Influence of irrigation treatments on the balance of water, nitrogen and phosphorus, mean daily crop evapotranspiration (ET) and growth of *Photinia x fraseri* plants grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) in **2010 (Experiment 3)**. The electrical conductivity (EC) of irrigation water, drainage water (EC_{DW}) and substrate pore water (EC_{PW}), and the leaching fraction are also shown. Plants were watered using different water sources: fresh water (FW), saline water (SW) or a mixture of them (MW) in different ratio according to the level of substrate salinity build-up. Irrigation was automatically scheduled using a pre-set program (TIMER) or a weather-based ET model (MODEL). In two treatments, root zone salinity was controlled based on EC_{PW} measured with a dielectric sensor (MW-MODEL-EC_{PW}) or EC_{DW} measured with a EC probe (MW-MODEL-EC_{DW}). Crop ET was also gravimetrically measured on different dates during the growing season while growth parameters were measured at the end of the experiment. See text for details.

Parameter	FW-TIMER	FW-MODEL	SW-MODEL	MW-MODEL-EC _{PW}	MW-MODEL-EC _{DW}
Total irrigation water use (IWU; mm)	397.0 A	298.0 D	300.0 D	368.6 B	352.8 C
Fresh water use (% of WU)	100 A	100 A	0 D	48.8 B	26.9 C
Water runoff (mm)	145.7 A	55.9 D	56.8 D	114.4 B	104.5 C
Leaching fraction (%)	36.70 A	18.76 C	18.93 C	31.03 B	29.61 B
Irrigation water EC (dS m ⁻¹)	0.78 C	0.79 C	1.78 A	1.41 B	1.58 B
Drainage water EC (dS m ⁻¹)	0.94 C	1.04 C	2.48 A	1.93 B	2.17 B
Drainage water N concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	42.07 C	51.34 B	61.27 A	40.75 C	42.69 C
Total N supply (kg ha ⁻¹)	278.5 A	239.5 C	240.1 C	261.5 B	256.3 B
Estimated total N leaching (kg ha ⁻¹)	61.3 A	28.7 C	34.8 C	46.6 B	44.6 B
Mean daily crop ET (mm day ⁻¹)	2.12 AB	2.15 A	2.02 B	2.07 B	2.05 B
Plant height (m plant ⁻¹)	1.03 A	1.05 A	0.95 B	0.99 AB	0.97 AB
Leaf area index (dimensionless)	2.65 AB	2.71 A	2.40 C	2.52 BC	2.50 BC
Shoot dry mass (t ha ⁻¹)	8.50 A	8.40 A	7.40 B	8.50 A	8.30 A

*In each row, mean values (n = 4) followed by the same letters are not significantly different (P < 0.01) according to LSD test.

FIGURE

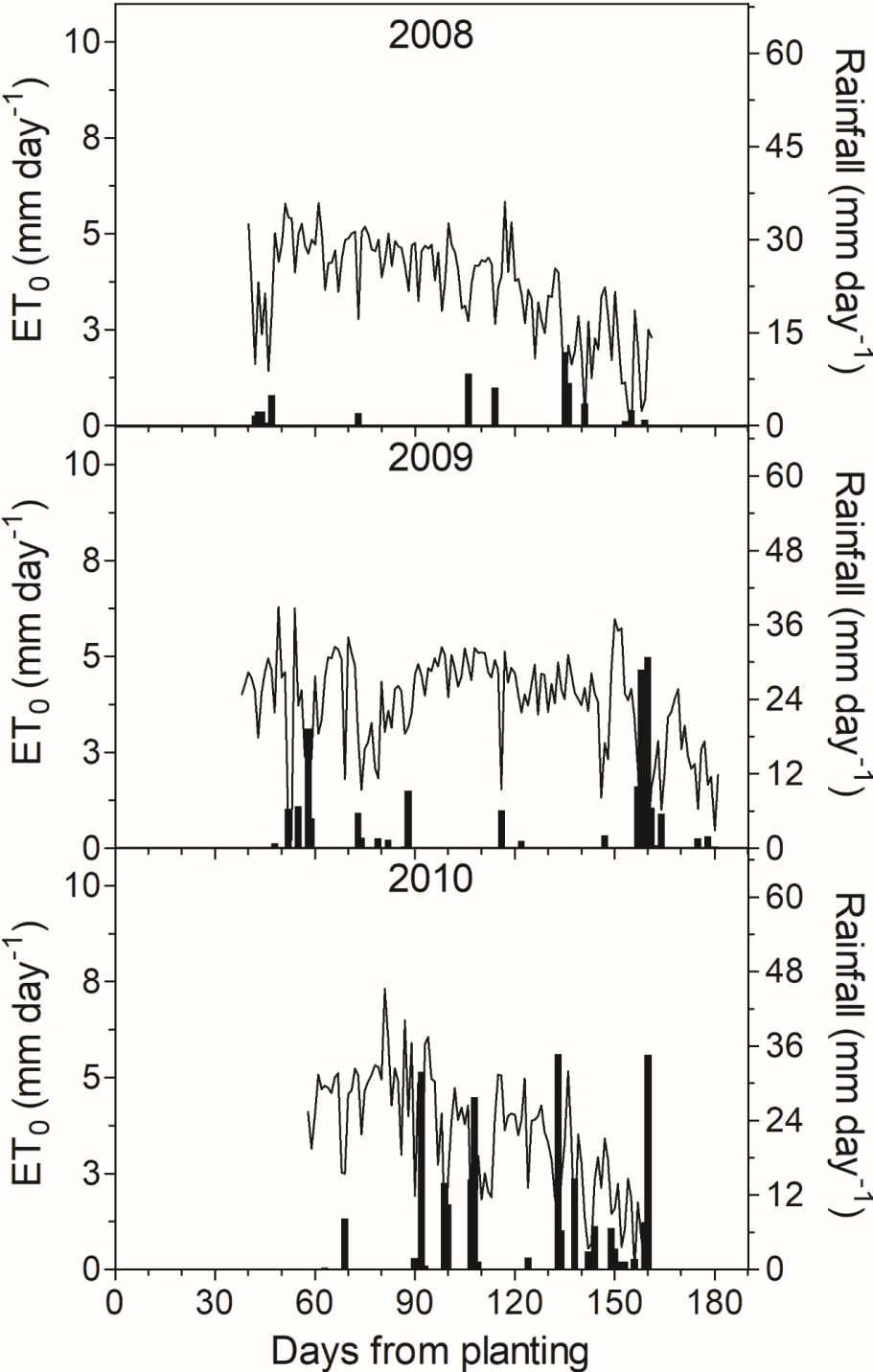


Fig. 1. Mean daily values of reference evapotranspiration (ET₀; line) and rainfall (columns) during the experiments conducted with container hardy ornamental nursery crops in Pistoia (Italy) between 2008 and 2010.

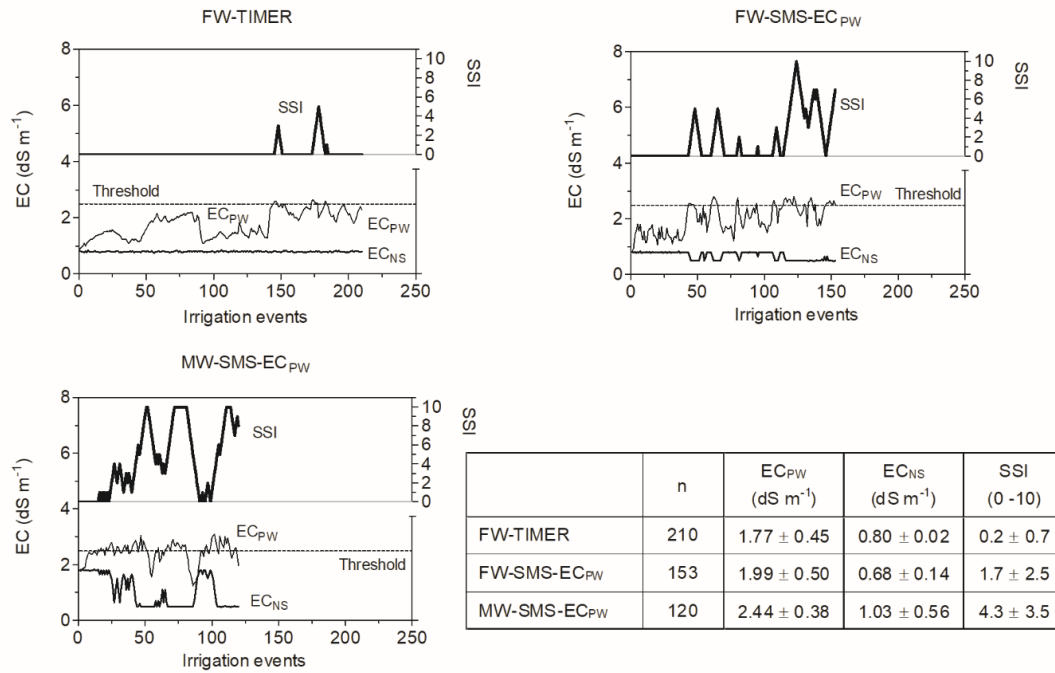


Fig. 2. Influence of irrigation treatments on the electrical conductivity of substrate pore water (EC_{PW}), drainage water (EC_{DW}) and nutrient solution (EC_{NS}), and the salinity stress index (SSI) in *Prunus laurocerasus* plants grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) in **2008 (Experiment 1)**. Plants were watered using different water sources: fresh water (FW) or saline water (SW) or a mixture of them (MW). Irrigation was automatically scheduled using a pre-set program (TIMER) or a WETTM sensor. The SSI is the number of consecutive times that EC_{PW} exceeded the threshold (2.5 dS m^{-1}).

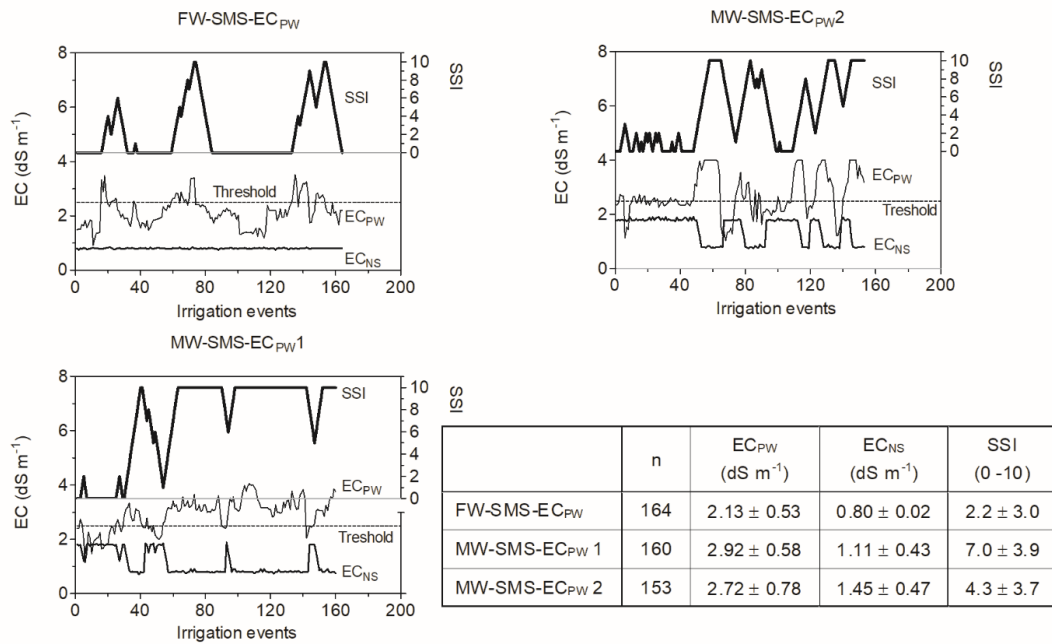
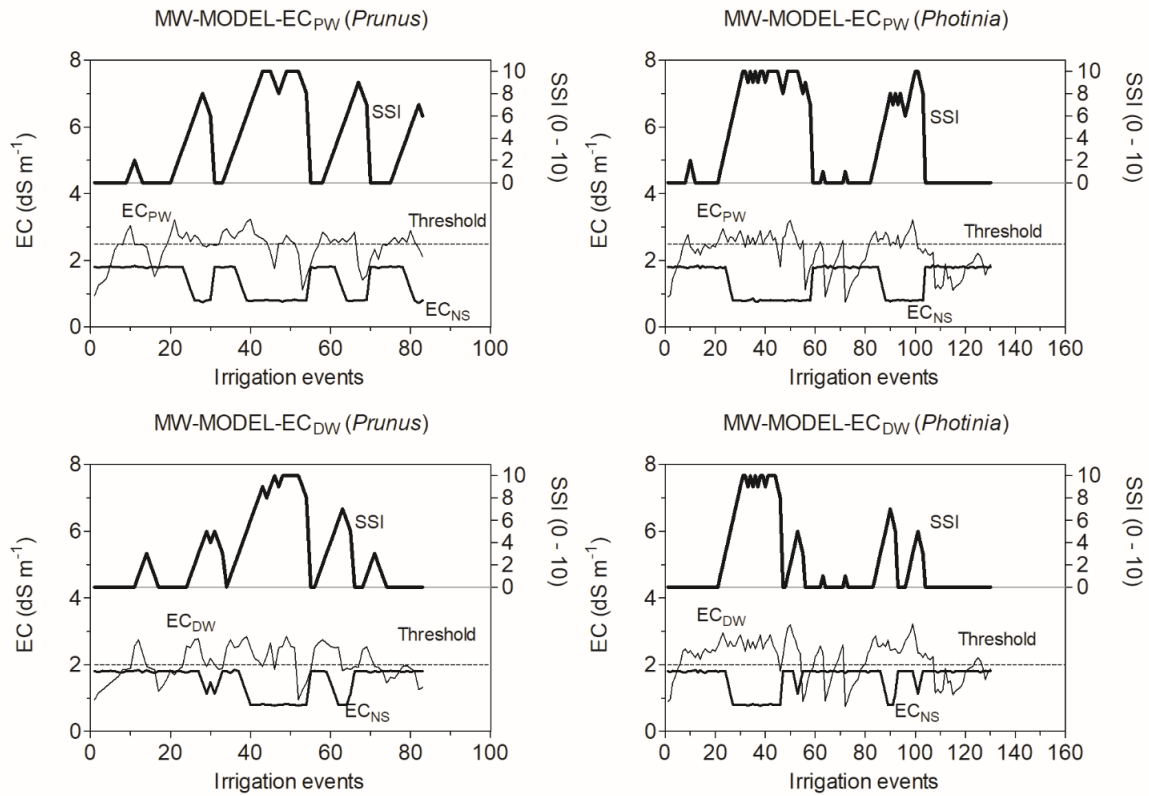


Fig. 3. Influence of irrigation treatments on the electrical conductivity of substrate pore water (EC_{PW}), drainage water (EC_{DW}), nutrient solution (EC_{NS}), and the salinity stress index (SSI) in *Prunus laurocerasus* plants grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) in **2009 (Experiment 2)**. Plants were watered using different water sources: fresh water (FW), saline water or a mixture of them (MW). Irrigation was automatically scheduled using a pre-set program (TIMER) or a dielectric sensor (SMS), which also measured EC_{PW} , measured with a WET. The SSI is the number of consecutive times that EC_{PW} exceeded the pre-set threshold (2.5 dS m^{-1}).



	EC _{PW} (dS m ⁻¹)	EC _{NS} (dS m ⁻¹)	SSI (0-10)	EC _{PW} (dS m ⁻¹)	EC _{NS} (dS m ⁻¹)	SSI (0-10)
	<i>Prunus (83 values)</i>			<i>Photinia (130 values)</i>		
MW-MODEL-EC _{PW}	2.40 ± 0.05	1.39 ± 0.05	3.7 ± 0.4	2.20 ± 0.05	1.41 ± 0.42	3.5 ± 0.4
MW-MODEL-EC _{DW}	2.04 ± 0.05	1.52 ± 0.05	2.8 ± 0.3	1.96 ± 0.04	1.58 ± 0.04	2.2 ± 0.3

Fig. 4. Influence of irrigation treatments on the electrical conductivity of substrate pore water (EC_{PW}) or drainage water (EC_{DW}), nutrient solution (EC_{NS}), and the salinity stress index (SSI) in *Prunus laurocerasus* and *Photinia x fraseri* plants grown in container in Pistoia (Italy) in **2010 (Experiment 3)**. Plants were watered using different water sources: fresh water, saline water or a mixture of them in different ratio (MW) according to the level of substrate salinity build-up. Irrigation was automatically scheduled using a weather-based ET model and substrate salinity build-up was controlled based on EC readings of a dielectric sensor or an EC probe. See text for details. The SSI is the number of consecutive times that EC_{PW} or EC_{DW} exceeded a threshold of 2.5 or 2.0 dS m⁻¹, respectively.