

Highlights

- > Eddy covariance and sap-flow techniques allow a better comprehension of the combined roles of actual crop transpiration and soil evaporation.
- > For the investigated crop, when the availability of soil water content decreases under a threshold value ($\approx 0.16 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$) for a long period, the plant transpiration is only driven by soil water content.
- > For the investigated crop, the “seasonal” crop coefficients suggested by the FAO-56 using both “single” and “dual” approach were experimentally confirmed.
- > In absence of direct measurements of actual transpiration, a suitable stress descriptor can be evaluated from values of soil water content in the root zone.

Combined use of eddy covariance and sap flow techniques for partition of ET fluxes and water stress assessment in an irrigated olive orchard

C. Cammalleri¹, G. Rallo², C. Agnese², G. Ciralo³, M. Minacapilli², G. Provenzano²

1) U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service, Hydrology and Remote Sensing Laboratory, Beltsville, MD, USA.

2) Department of Agro-Environmental Systems (SAGA), Università degli Studi di Palermo, Viale delle Scienze Ed. 4 - 90128, Palermo, Italy.

3) Department of Civil, Environmental and Aerospace Engineering (DICA), Università degli Studi di Palermo, Viale delle Scienze Ed. 8 - 90128, Palermo, Italy

Corresponding author:

Giovanni Rallo, PhD.

Department of Agro-Environmental Systems (SAGA).

Università degli Studi di Palermo.

Viale delle Scienze Ed. 4 - 90128, Palermo, Italy.

e-mail: rallo.giovanni@gmail.com

Tel: +39 (0)91 7028150.

Fax: +39 (0)91 484035.

Keywords: Eddy Covariance, Sap-Flow, Flux partition, Water stress, Olive.

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Correct estimation of crop actual transpiration plays a key-role in precision irrigation scheduling,
3 since crop growth and yield are associated to the water passing through the crop.

4 Objective of the work was to assess how the combined use of micro-meteorological techniques
5 (eddy covariance, *EC*) and physiological measurements (sap-flow, *SF*) allows a better
6 comprehension of the processes involving in the Soil-Plant-Atmosphere continuum.

7 To this aim, an experimental dataset of actual evapotranspiration, plant transpiration, and soil water
8 content measurements was collected in an olive orchard during the midseason phenological period
9 of 2009 and 2010.

10 It was demonstrated that the joint use of *EC* and *SF* techniques is effective to evaluate the
11 components of actual evapotranspiration in an olive orchard characterized by sparse vegetation and
12 a significant fraction of exposed bare soil.

13 The availability of simultaneous soil water content measurements allowed to estimate the crop
14 coefficients and to assess a simple crop water stress index, depending on actual transpiration, that
15 can be evaluated even in absence of direct measurements of actual transpiration.

16 The crop coefficients experimentally determined resulted very similar to those previously
17 evaluated; in particular, in absence of water stress, a seasonal average value of about 0.65 was
18 obtained for the “single” crop coefficient, whereas values of a 0.34 and 0.41 were observed under
19 limited water availability in the root zone.

20 The comparison between the values of crop water stress index evaluated during the investigated
21 periods evidenced systematically lower values (less crop water stress) in the first year compared to
22 the second, according to the general trend of soil waters content in the root zone.

23 Further researches are however necessary to extent the experimental dataset to periods
24 characterized by values of soil evaporation higher than those observed, in order to verify the crop
25 coefficients even under different conditions than those investigated.

26 1. INTRODUCTION

27 In the last decade, observations of physical processes developing in the Soil-Plant-Atmosphere
28 (SPA) continuum become fundamental for agricultural water management, especially in arid and
29 semi-arid ecosystems (Noy-Meir, 1973), where water is a limiting factor of the production, and the
30 application of precision irrigation represents an appropriate management strategy. The development
31 of precision irrigation aimed to reduce irrigation plays a major role in Mediterranean countries,
32 where the reduction of water availability in the last 20 years has been observed (UNEP/MAP-
33 PlanBleu, 2009).

34 At present, studies on the dynamic of trees transpiration (T), field evapotranspiration (ET) and soil
35 water content (SWC) in areas characterized by sparse drought-resistant crops like olives groves,
36 represent one of the most appealing challenges of agro-hydrological researches. In this context,
37 particular relevance assumes the partition of actual ET in crop transpiration (T) and soil evaporation
38 (E), because only the first term is essentially related to the crop water requirement and stress
39 condition (Jackson et al., 1981). This interest is enhanced by the large variability in both space and
40 time of these two components (Kemp et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1995).

41 The assessment of actual olive evapotranspiration, ET , and its partitioning, can be achieved with
42 different methodologies. Whole actual evapotranspiration is commonly obtained using micro-
43 meteorological techniques, i.e. by measuring the total water vapour fluxes with the Eddy
44 Covariance (EC) technique, representing at present the best known and widely accepted
45 methodology (Verstraeten et al., 2009).

46 The role of soil evaporation in sparse vegetated areas can be relevant, particularly when the fraction
47 of exposed soil is predominant (Heilman et al., 1994; Savage et al., 2000). This means that under
48 this condition, EC technique could not be able to recognize the effective crop water use, because of
49 the relatively high contribute of soil evaporation.

50 In general, to separate ET in T and E , additional measurements of T or E are requested. Approaches
51 based on tracking stable isotope in the water vapour fluxes, have been recently proposed to detect

52 the source of fluxes (soil or vegetation) at field scale (Ferretti et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2010;
53 Williams et al., 2004).

54 Alternatively, measurements of soil evaporation or plant transpiration can be carried out with
55 microlysimeter (Martínez-Cob and Faci, 2010) and sap-flox sensors (Rousseaux et al., 2009)
56 respectively. The latter represents a commonly used technique to monitor the sole transpiration term
57 at the scale of single plant. Considering that the temporal delay induced by the effect of tree
58 capacitance can be assumed negligible at daily scale, the methodology allows reliable estimations
59 of T fluxes, aiming to derive variables that can be directly related to the plant water status.
60 However, multiple sources of uncertainty could be detected when processing sap flow observations
61 (Allen et al., 2011), including inaccuracy in detection trunk geometry and sap wood depth,
62 significant effect of trunk capacitance (Motisi et al., 2012) and/or the wood response to probe
63 implantation (Clearwater et al., 1999).

64 Up-scaling transpiration fluxes from plant to field scale is complicated by the spatial heterogeneity
65 of vegetation characteristics (Schaeffer et al., 2000); it is therefore necessary to know crop-specific
66 parameters like leaf area index or sapwood surface (Oishi et al., 2008; Soegaard and Boegh, 1995).

67 In absence of direct measurements, separate evaluation of E and T fluxes can also be obtained with
68 agro-hydrological models; in fact several surface-vegetation-atmosphere-transfer (SVAT) models
69 allow to determine the temporal dynamic of E and T using various schematizations of the physical
70 processes; these models however, require a high number of soil and crop parameters (Cammalleri et
71 al., 2010a; Crow et al., 2008; Minacapilli et al., 2008; Minacapilli et al., 2009, Rallo et al., 2012).

72 A simplified way to deal with actual ET components is the “dual approach” method suggested by
73 Allen et al. (1998), in which soil evaporation and potential plant transpiration are estimated by
74 multiplying reference evapotranspiration ET_0 , respectively to a soil evaporation coefficient (K_e) and
75 a basal crop coefficient (K_{cb}). Despite this approach is affected by theoretical limitations, it can be
76 considered acceptable for practical applications.

77 The main objective of the paper is to assess if the joint use of *EC* and *SF* techniques is effective to
78 partition the whole actual evapotranspiration in *T* and *E*, in an olive orchard characterized by sparse
79 vegetation and a significant fraction of exposed bare soil. Moreover, under the examined
80 environmental conditions, experimental values of crop coefficients, as defined by Allen et al.
81 (1998), are determined. The dynamic of a crop water stress index (Jackson et al., 1981), evaluated
82 according to measured actual transpiration, was finally investigated.

83 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

84 **2.1 Site description**

85 The experimental study area, showed in Fig. 1, is mainly cultivated with olive orchard (*cv.*
86 “*Nocellara del Belice*”) and has an extension of about 13 ha. The site is located in the South-West
87 of Sicily (Italy), about 5 km far from the town of Castelvetro (37.6494° N, 12.8492° E, 123 m
88 a.s.l.) and it is characterized by a flat landscape and a rather homogeneous soil type.

89 Within the study field the plants, having a height of about 3.5 m, are spaced according to a regular
90 grid 5 × 8 m (density of 250 plants/ha); the average fraction cover is about 0.35.

91 The climate of the area is typically Mediterranean, characterized by moderate rainfall during
92 autumn and winter and quite high air temperatures and low precipitation in summer. Fig. 2 shows
93 the daily and cumulative rainfall distributions registered, from June to December 2009 and 2010, by
94 SIAS (*Servizio Informativo Agrometeorologico Siciliano*) in a meteorological station located about
95 500 m apart from the study area. The meteorological station also allows to monitor solar radiation,
96 wind speed, air temperature and relative humidity.

97 Irrigation water is supplied by a drip irrigation system (four 8 l h⁻¹ emitter/plant). Irrigation
98 volumes, decided by the farmer according to the ordinary management practised in the area,
99 resulted quite different in the two years, as detailed in Table 1.

100 Traditional laboratory methods were used to evaluate soil hydraulic properties of undisturbed soil
101 cores, representative of four different depths (0, 30, 60 and 100 cm) of a soil profile. At each depth

102 two soil samples 0.05 m height and 0.08 m diameter were collected in order to determine some
103 points of the water retention curve, in the range of matric potential between -0.05 and -153 m.
104 Hanging water column apparatus was used to evaluate soil water contents corresponding to matric
105 potential values ranging from -0.05 m to -1.5 m; pressure plate apparatus with sieved soil samples
106 0.05 m diameter and 0.01 m height, was used to measure soil water contents corresponding to soil
107 matric potentials of -3.37 m, -10.2 m, -30.6 m and -153.0 m. For each undisturbed soil sample, dry
108 bulk density was also determined. Soil texture was measured by the hydrometer method. Soil
109 textural class, according to USDA classification, is classified as silty clay loam; average clay, silt
110 and sand contents resulted equal to 24, 16 and 60% respectively.

111 The average water retention curve obtained along the soil profile was then used to determine soil
112 water contents at field capacity, SWC_{fc} , and wilting point, SWC_{wp} , whose value resulted equal to
113 $0.32 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ and $0.08 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$.

114 2.2 Micrometeorological fluxes measurements

115 Energy balance and evapotranspiration measurements were performed using the Eddy Correlation
116 (*EC*) method (Rosenberg *et al.*, 1983; Kaimal and Finnigan, 1994; Stull, 1988), that is widely
117 accepted as the reference methodology to observe the atmospheric turbulence in the surface
118 boundary layer. Using *EC*, it is possible to derive the sensible heat flux, H (W m^{-2}), as:

$$119 \quad H = \rho c_p \sigma_{wT} \quad (1)$$

120 where ρ (g m^{-3}) is the air density, c_p ($\text{J g}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$) is the air specific heat capacity at constant pressure
121 and σ_{wT} ($\text{m s}^{-1} \text{K}$) is the covariance between vertical wind speed and air temperature.

122 Similarly, the vertical flux of water vapour content, *i.e.*, the latent heat flux, $\lambda * ET$ (W m^{-2}), can be
123 expressed as:

$$124 \quad \lambda ET = \lambda \sigma_{wq} \quad (2)$$

125 where λ (J g^{-1}) is the latent heat of vaporization and σ_{wq} ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the covariance between the
126 vertical wind speed and the water vapour density.

127 The auxiliary experimental set-up is also constituted by net radiometer, to measure net radiation, R_n ,
128 and self-calibrated flux plates, to measure soil heat flux, G_0 .

129 The energy balance closure can be tested considering the closure ratio, CR , evaluated as:

$$130 \quad CR = \frac{(H + \lambda ET)}{(R_n - G_0)} \quad (3)$$

131 This ratio, as suggested by Prueger et al. (2005), has to be computed only from the subset of data
132 for which R_n is higher than 100 W m^{-2} . For the following analysis, the surface balance closure was
133 forced according to the procedure proposed by Twine et al. (2000), in order to keep constant the
134 observed Bowen ratio between the sensible and latent heat fluxes.

135 In the centre of the experimental area (Fig. 1) an *EC* tower has been installed. The system allows to
136 obtain high frequency measurements of the three wind components and the H_2O and CO_2
137 concentrations by means of a three dimensional sonic anemometer (CSAT3-3D, Campbell
138 Scientific Inc.) and an infrared open-path gas analyzer (LI7500, Li-cor Biosciences Inc.),
139 respectively. Both the instruments were installed at an elevation of 7 m above the ground; the
140 sample frequency for the raw data was equal to 20 Hz.

141 The auxiliary experimental set-up is represented by a low frequency (30-min), 4-components net
142 radiometer (CNR-1 Kipp & Zonen) located at an elevation of 8.5 m and two self-calibrated flux
143 plates (HFP01SC, Hukseflux) placed respectively in the exposed and shadowed bare soil, at a depth
144 of about 0.1 m. All the data (high and low frequency) were stored in a CR5000 data logger
145 (Campbell Scientific Inc.) equipped with a PCMCIA memory card.

146 *EC* footprint was computed with the model proposed by Kormann and Meixner (2000), based on
147 the analytical solution of the two-dimensional advection-diffusion equation for non-neutral
148 stratifications. Fig. 1 shows the footprint, represented by the source area encompassing the 90% of
149 the observed fluxes, obtained using the daytime predominant wind conditions (average speed of 3.1
150 m s^{-1} and direction of 140°). Finally the 30-min fluxes data were aggregated at daily scale and latent

151 heat fluxes, acquired in W m^{-2} , were then transformed in actual evapotranspiration values, ET (mm
152 d^{-1}).

153

154 **2.3 Sap flow and soil water content measurements**

155 The Heat Dissipation Technique, *HDT*, (Granier, 1985) allows to obtain the sap velocity by
156 measuring difference of temperature between a heated and an unheated needle inserted radially into
157 the sap wood. Therefore, the probe measures the heat dissipation in the sapwood, increasing with
158 the sap flow. When the sap velocity is minimal, the temperature difference ($\Delta\tau$) between the two
159 sensors is maximal ($\Delta\tau_{\text{max}}$); for practical purposes, $\Delta\tau_{\text{max}}$ is assumed to correspond to the zero flow
160 condition.

161 This approach allows the estimation of sap velocity, v (cm min^{-1}), by using the empirical
162 relationships proposed by Granier (1985):

$$163 \quad v = 0.714 \left(\frac{\Delta\tau_{\text{max}} - \Delta\tau}{\Delta\tau} \right)^{1.231} \quad (4)$$

164 Sap fluxes, q ($\text{cm}^3 \text{min}^{-1}$), can be evaluated multiplying the sap flow velocity for the cross-sectional
165 area of conducting sapwood, S (cm^2):

$$166 \quad q = v S \quad (5)$$

167 Hourly measurements of sap velocity were acquired on three olive trees by using, for each of them,
168 two standard thermal dissipation probes (SFS2 TypM-M; UP GmbH) installed into the trunk, at a
169 height of about 0.4 m from the ground level. According to the footprint analysis, the position of the
170 trees was chosen inside the area where the “relative normalized contribution” to flux was estimated
171 near to the maximum (Fig. 1). Moreover, the three plants were selected according to their trunk
172 diameter, so that they can be considered representative of entire experimental plot.

173 In all the trees, both the sap flow probes were installed on the north side of the trunk and then
174 insulated, to avoid the direct sun exposure.

175 At the end of the experiments, the sapwood area was determined by a colorimetric method, on a
176 total of six wood carrots extracted with a Pressler gimlet on the same three trees, in between each
177 couple of the sap flow needles. The conductive section was identified by adding methyl-orange to
178 the carrot, in order to enhance the difference between the sapwood and the heartwood. Each image
179 of colored wood carrot was then analyzed with software Image-Pro Plus 6.0 to recognize the
180 sapwood depth.

181 Temporal variability of soil water content (*SWC*) was continuously monitored around the same
182 trees where sap flow sensors were installed, by using a time domain reflectometry system (TDR-
183 100; Campbell Scientific Inc.). A number of 12 probes, 20 cm length, were installed along four
184 soil profiles, to explore *SWC* in the layers 10-30, 30-60 and 50-80 cm. Unfortunately it was not
185 possible to install TDR probes in the evaporative layer, due to the incoherent topsoil (0-10 cm). The
186 planimetric position of the sensors, showed in fig. 1, was chosen in order to consider the spatial
187 variability of *SWC* after irrigation. Acquisition time step was set up to 3 hours in the period from
188 June to September of each year.

189 The data acquired by each probe were then aggregated to a daily time scale and the arithmetic mean
190 value for the entire root zone was finally evaluated.

191

192 **2.4 Data analysis and pre-processing**

193 For both the monitored years, the micro-meteorological data and the measurements of plant and soil
194 water status were pre-processed in order to create a daily database of reference evapotranspiration,
195 ET_0 , actual evapotranspiration, ET , plant transpiration, T , and soil water content, SWC .

196 For each of the two years (2009 and 2010) it was possible to dispose of a significant dataset of
197 simultaneous measurements of EC , T and SWC during the midseason phenological period (from the
198 first decade of June, corresponding to the “initial fruit development” stage to the first decade of
199 September, corresponding to the “maturity” stage) for a total of 90 days.

200 The meteorological data collected by SIAS were used as an auxiliary independent information to
 201 estimate the atmospheric evaporative demand in the study area. Reference crop evapotranspiration,
 202 ET_0 (mm d⁻¹), was determined according to the FAO-56 procedure (Allen et al., 1998), on the basis
 203 of the following Penman Monteith equation:

$$204 \quad ET_0 = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T_a + 273} U_2 (e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + 0.34U_2)} \quad (6)$$

205 where Δ [kPa °C⁻¹] is the slope of saturation vapour pressure curve, $e_s(T)$ [kPa] is the saturation
 206 vapour pressure at air temperature, R_n [MJ m⁻² d⁻¹] is the net radiation, G [MJ m⁻² d⁻¹] is the soil heat
 207 flux, $(e_s - e_a)$ [kPa] is the vapour pressure deficit, γ [kPa °C⁻¹] is the psychometric constant at air
 208 temperature T_a [°C] and U_2 [m s⁻¹] is the wind speed measured at 2 m from the soil surface.

209 EC measurements were pre-processed and the accuracy of balance closure was verified considering
 210 the closure ratio, CR evaluated with eq. 3, that resulted equal to 0.90 and 0.92 respectively for 2009
 211 and 2010, as can be observed in Fig. 3.

212 Sap fluxes, q (cm³ min⁻¹), computed by eq. (5), allowed to determine the daily volume of water
 213 consumed by a single plant assuming negligible, at the daily time interval, the effect of the tree
 214 capacitance (Motisi et al., 2012). The daily stand transpiration of a plant, T_{plant} , can thus be
 215 evaluated dividing this water volume for the plant pertinence area, A_p equal to 40 m². In order to
 216 evaluate a representative value of the stand transpiration referred to the entire field, T , it was
 217 necessary to up-scale T_{plant} , by considering, as a proximal variable, the ratio between the average
 218 Leaf Area Index, LAI (m² m⁻²), measured in field, and the corresponding value obtained on the
 219 single plant, LAI_p (m² m⁻²), in which sap fluxes were monitored:

$$220 \quad T = T_{plant} \frac{LAI}{LAI_p} \quad (7)$$

221 The values of LAI and LAI_p were estimated from in-situ observations, collected with a hand-held
 222 optic sensor (Villalobos et al., 1995) even if it has been recently demonstrated that, in absence of

223 direct measurements, high resolution remote sensing images can be used (Cammalleri et al.,
 224 2010b). For the examined conditions LAI resulted about to 0.89, whereas LAI_p was about 1.27.

225 Crop coefficients were evaluated according to the FAO-56 procedure (Allen et al., 1998), in which
 226 actual evapotranspiration, ET , can be evaluated as:

$$227 \quad ET = T + E = (K_{cb}K_s + K_e)ET_0 = K_{c,adj}ET_0 \quad (8)$$

228 where K_{cb} is the basal crop coefficient obtained when the soil surface is dry, but transpiration occurs
 229 at potential rate, K_s is a dimensionless stress coefficient dependent on SWC and K_e describes the
 230 evaporation component from wet soil, following rain or irrigation (Allen and Pereira, 2009). The
 231 sum $K_{cb}K_s+K_e$ represents the so called “dual” crop coefficient, $K_{c,adj}$.

232 According to the FAO-56 procedure, K_s has been computed as:

$$233 \quad K_s = \frac{TAW - D_i}{TAW - RAW} \quad \text{for } D_i > RAW \quad (9)$$

$$234 \quad K_s = 1 \quad \text{for } D_i \leq RAW \quad (10)$$

235 where TAW (mm) is the total available water, D_i (mm) is the amount of daily water depleted out
 236 from root zone during the i -th day, and RAW (mm) is the readily available water. The latter can be
 237 evaluated as a fraction, p , of TAW . As indicated in FAO-56 procedure, p can be determined as:

$$239 \quad p = p_{table} + 0.04(5 - ET_0) \quad (11)$$

240 Values of p_{table} for different crops are suggested by Allen et al. (1998). For the investigated case,
 241 p_{table} was set equal to 0.6.

242 The evaporation coefficient, K_e , can be also derived following the procedure described in Allen et
 243 al., (1998), requiring, however, to measure soil water contents in the topsoil.

244 When water stress is absent, ($K_s=1$), and soil evaporation is negligible, $K_{cb}+K_e$ returns to the
 245 standard crop coefficient K_c , as described in the “single” approach (Doorenbos and Pruitt, 1977;
 246 Allen et al., 1998), commonly used to compute the potential evapotranspiration, ET_p , as:

$$247 \quad ET_p = K_c ET_0 \quad (12)$$

248 Although values of K_c and K_{cb} for some crops can be found in the literature (Allen and Pereira,
 249 2009) a correct estimation of these coefficients requires a local evaluation based on direct
 250 measurements.

251 In this study K_{cb} and K_s coefficients were obtained combining the experimental measurements of ET
 252 and T with the values of soil water content in the root zone, SWC_r . The stress factor K_s was
 253 computed from eq. (9), in which:

$$254 \quad D_i = 1000 * (SWC_{fc} - SWC_{r,i}) * Z_r \quad (13)$$

$$255 \quad TAW = 1000 * (SWC_{fc} - SWC_{wp}) * Z_r \quad (14)$$

256 Using the measurements of transpiration, T , once evaluated K_s , the experimental values of K_{cb} were
 257 computed as:

$$258 \quad K_{cb} = \frac{T}{K_s ET_0} \quad (15)$$

259 Due to the absence of SWC measurements in the topsoil (0-10 cm) the experimental evaluation of
 260 K_e was not possible; thus K_e was derived from eq. (8) as a residual term:

$$261 \quad K_e = \frac{ET - T}{ET_0} \quad (16)$$

262 Then the “single” crop coefficient was computed as:

$$263 \quad K_c = K_{cb} + K_e \quad (17)$$

264 Finally, the crop water stress condition during the investigated periods was described according to a
 265 crop water stress index, $CWSI$ (Jackson et al., 1981) determined as:

$$266 \quad CWSI = 1 - \frac{T}{T_p} = 1 - \frac{T}{K_{cb} ET_0} \quad (18)$$

267

268

269

270 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

271 For each investigated period, the temporal dynamic of collected data was preliminarily analysed in
272 order to detect the main differences between the single components of the whole evapotranspiration
273 fluxes.

274 For the 2009 season, Fig. 4a shows the temporal dynamic of evapotranspiration ET , plant
275 transpiration, T , soil evaporation, E , as well as atmospheric demand, ET_0 , rainfall, P and the amount
276 of irrigation, I . For the same period, Fig. 4b shows the average soil water content in the root zone
277 (SWC_r , 30-100 cm) and in the upper soil layer (SWC_u , 10-30 cm).

278 In absence of direct measurements of surface soil evaporation and under the hypothesis to consider
279 negligible the daily tree capacitance (Motisi et al., 2012), the term E , was estimated as difference
280 between ET and T measurements.

281 The analysis of Fig. 4 evidences an average seasonal value of T of 2.3 mm d^{-1} ; similar values were
282 obtained by Rousseaux et al. (2009), during summer season, for an olive grove characterized by a
283 canopy cover of 23%.

284 A detailed analysis of Fig. 4 evidences that ET and T fluxes tendentially decrease from beginning
285 of June (initial fruit development stage) to September (maturity stage), according to the general
286 trends of reference evapotranspiration and soil water contents.

287 High values of ET (from 3 to 4 mm d^{-1}) and T (from 2 to 3 mm d^{-1}) were in fact observed during the
288 period between DOY 160 (second decade of June) and DOY 170, when soil water contents in the
289 root zone (SWC_r) and in the upper layer (SWC_u) were, on average, 0.22 and 0.10 respectively;
290 during the initial period, even soil evaporation, E , resulted high, with pick values greater than 1 mm
291 d^{-1} . This circumstance is in agreement to the high SWC_u values, despite these data were collected in
292 the layer 10-30 cm and not in the topsoil (0-10 cm).

293 After the second decade of June (DOY 180-210) ET values resulted slightly higher than T and the
294 consequent low soil evaporation (about 0.4 mm d^{-1}) is supported by the low SWC_u (about 0.05 m^3

295 m^{-3}). In the following period (DOY 210-230), the lack of EC measurements did not allow to
296 evaluate soil evaporation, so that only a general reduction of T can be observed.

297 A relevant contribution of soil evaporation can be detected after DOY 233 ($E = 1.33 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$), due to
298 the rainfall event, wetting the entire extension of the topsoil surface. Furthermore, the limited
299 irrigation volume did not produce any significant effect in SWC_r and accordingly the dynamic of
300 crop transpiration did not change.

301 Table 2, for each decades of the considered period, shows the mean values of SWC , K_s , ET_0 , ET , T ,
302 E , as well as crop coefficients K_{cb} , K_e , K_c and $K_{c,adj}$ and finally T/ET_0 , E/ET_0 and T/T_p ratios.

303 The average values of decadal crop coefficients, as well as T/ET_0 and E/ET_0 ratios, cannot be
304 directly related to a single factor, depending on the combined effects of ET_0 and SWC .

305 Moreover, similarly to what described by Rousseaux et al. (2009), decadal values of T/ET_0 and
306 E/ET_0 show low variability as evidenced by the corresponding values of the standard deviations. On
307 the contrary a high variability of the T/T_p ratio can be observed.

308 The average seasonal crop coefficients resulted very similar to those suggested by Allen et al.
309 (1998) and also experimentally determined by other Authors (Villalobos et al., 2000; Testi et al.,
310 2004), with seasonal actual transpiration equal to 34% of reference evapotranspiration.

311 The same data analysis was replied for 2010, as shown in Fig. 5. As can be observed, measured ET
312 and T fluxes tend to decrease from the begin (June) to the end (September) of the observation
313 period, even if all fluxes resulted lower than those evaluated in 2009.

314 Average values of $ET \approx 3 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$ and $T \approx 2 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$ were observed between DOY 160 and DOY
315 170, when the average soil water content in the root zone (SWC_r) and in the upper surface (SWC_u)
316 were approximately $0.16 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ and $0.11 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ respectively. In the following period (DOY 180-
317 235) ET values resulted generally slightly higher than T and the consequent low soil evaporation
318 (about 0.3 mm d^{-1}) is confirmed by values of SWC_u of about $0.08 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$. Despite the irrigation
319 volume (30 mm) in DOY 206 increased SWC_r , no significant influence on ET and T was observed,
320 probably due to the limited atmospheric water demand during the days after irrigation.

321 In the following period (DOY 235-245) even if T values decrease with the same tendency
322 previously observed, actual evapotranspiration tends to increase as a consequence of the high
323 atmospheric demand ($ET_0 \approx 7 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$) from DOY 236 to DOY 240.

324 Finally, after the rainfall event recorded during DOY 245, a significantly higher soil evaporation
325 can be detected.

326 The decadal mean values of SWC , K_s , ET_0 , ET , T , E , as well as crop coefficients K_{cb} , K_e , K_c and
327 $K_{c,adj}$, T/ET_0 , E/ET_0 and T/T_p obtained for 2010 are summarized in Table 3. As can be observed,
328 even in 2010 the values of K_e , K_c and K_{cb} resulted very similar to those evaluated in 2009.

329 On the contrary, in 2010 the decadal transpiration values resulted significantly lower than 2009 and
330 strongly dependent on the K_s stress coefficients evaluated according to the soil depletion (Fig. 6).

331 For the investigated crop, this circumstance suggests that when the availability of soil water content
332 decreases under a threshold value ($\approx 0.16 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$) for a long period, the plant transpiration is driven
333 by only the SWC in the root zone. The seasonal average value of T/ET_0 obtained in 2010 shows that
334 the transpiration was on average equal to 27% of reference evapotranspiration.

335 Finally, as observed for 2009 the seasonal crop coefficients, computed as averages over the entire
336 period, resulted very similar to those suggested by Allen et al. (1998) and confirmed by other
337 Authors (Villalobos et al., 2000; Testi et al., 2004). Particularly the average value of K_{cb} , K_e and K_c
338 resulted not significantly different during both the considered years. The experiments confirmed
339 that “seasonal” K_c coefficients for the investigated crop can be assumed equal to 0.65, as proposed
340 by Allen et al. (1998).

341 Moreover it is interesting to notice that again the ratio T/T_p at decadal scale is more variable than
342 T/ET_0 and E/ET_0 values as a consequence of the higher variability of K_s . For this reason the crop
343 water stress descriptor was chosen dependent on T/T_p .

344 Figure 7a,b shows the temporal dynamic of $CWSI$ and soil water content in the root zone, SWC_r in
345 2009 and 2010.

346 The comparison between the values of $CWSI$ obtained during the investigated periods evidences
347 generally lower values (less water stress) in the first year compared to the second, with seasonal
348 average values of 0.32 and 0.53 for 2009 and 2010, respectively.

349 Differences of $CWSI$ can be justified by the different soil water contents in the root zone, SWC_r ,
350 particularly in the first decade of June (DOY 160-170) and after the second decade of August (DOY
351 220-230).

352 The absence of water stress ($CWSI = 0$), evident at the beginning of June 2009, is certainly
353 consequent to the high cumulative rainfall observed during two months antecedent the investigated
354 period (see Fig. 2), producing a significant water storage in the soil.

355 Differently, in 2010 the lower cumulative rainfall antecedent the observation period and the
356 consequent lower SWC_r compared to 2009, determined conditions of crop water stress ($CWSI > 0$)
357 since the beginning of the investigated period. The higher initial water availability seems to reflect
358 the minor extension of crop water stress observed in 2009 compared to 2010.

359 In absence of measurements of actual transpiration, a simplified crop water stress index, $CSWI^*$,
360 can be evaluated after substituting in eq. 18 the values of actual transpiration, T^* , indirectly
361 estimated as $K_{cb}K_sET_0$, obtaining:

$$362 \quad CWSI^* = 1 - K_s \quad (19)$$

363 Eq. 19 requires only the knowledge of K_s , that can be estimated as a function the soil water
364 depletion D_i . According to eq. 8, D_i can be obtained from direct measurements of SWC or by
365 following the simplified soil water balance approach proposed in the FAO-56 procedure.

366 Figure 8 shows the comparison between the decadal values of $CSWI$ and $CSWI^*$ for both the
367 considered years. As can be observed the decadal indexes evaluated with measured actual
368 transpirations (eq. 18) resulted very similar to those calculated according to K_s (eq. 19). In absence
369 of direct measurements of actual transpiration, a suitable stress descriptor can be therefore
370 evaluated from measured or estimated values of soil water content in the root zone.

371

372 CONCLUSIONS

373 The research assessed how the joint measurements of eddy covariance and sap-flow techniques
374 allow a better comprehension of the combined roles of actual crop transpiration and soil
375 evaporation in a typical Mediterranean olive orchard, where the problem of evapotranspiration fluxes
376 partitioning is quite complex.

377 An experimental dataset of *ET* and *T* measurements, collected from June to September 2009 and
378 2010, has been analysed. In absence of direct measurements of soil evaporation, the *ET* and *T*
379 measurements, coupled with simultaneous measurements of soil water contents, ensured the correct
380 partition of evapotranspiration fluxes.

381 In both the investigated years *ET* and *T* fluxes resulted very similar during dry periods, due to the
382 negligible contribute of soil evaporation; on the other hands the differences became relevant only
383 for a few days after rainfall events. *ET* fluxes measured in 2009 resulted generally higher than those
384 recognized in 2010, as a consequence of higher *SWC* observed in 2009. Moreover, the different soil
385 water status between the two years evidenced that when the availability of soil water content
386 decreases under a threshold value ($\approx 0.16 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$) for a long period, the plant transpiration is only
387 driven by the soil water content.

388 The experimental dataset allowed to assess decadal values of crop coefficients evaluated according
389 to the “single” and the “dual” approaches suggested by the FAO-56 procedure. Average seasonal
390 crop coefficients resulted practically the same in both the investigated years and similar to those
391 suggested by other Authors.

392 The temporal dynamic of *CWSI*, computed using direct measurements of *T*, was analyzed and the
393 observed differences during the examined periods were related to the soil water content in the root
394 zone. In fact, the systematically lower values of *CWSI* (less water stress) in the first year reflects the
395 corresponding generally higher soil water content in the root zone.

396 Finally, the decadal values of the simplified crop water stress index obtained with measured soil
397 depletion, resulted quite similar to those derived from *T* measurements, demonstrating that, at this

398 temporal scale, a suitable stress descriptor can be obtained using parameters derived by measured or
399 estimated soil water contents.

400 Further experiments will be carried out in order to extent the experimental dataset to periods
401 characterized by high values of soil evaporation, in order to verify the crop coefficients under
402 different conditions than those investigated.

403

404 **Acknowledgments**

405 Contribution to the paper has to be shared between Authors as following: Field data collection and
406 pre-processing were cared by G. Rallo and C. Cammalleri. All the AA. equally contributed to set-
407 up the research, process the data and write the paper.

408 The authors wish to thank the farm “*Tenuta Rocchetta - by Angela Consiglio*” for kindly host the
409 experimental setup. The research was funded by the DIFA project of the Sicilian Regional
410 Government and PRIN 2008 (Provenzano) co-financed by Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università
411 e della Ricerca (MIUR) and by Università degli Studi di Palermo.

412 **References**

413 Allen, R.G., Pereira, L.S., Raes, D., Smith, M., 1998, Crop evapotranspiration, Guideline for
414 computing crop water requirements, FAO irrigation and drainage paper n. 56, Rome, Italy, 326
415 pp.

416 Allen, R.G., Pereira, L.S., 2009, Estimating crop coefficients from fraction of ground cover and
417 height. Irrig. Sci. 28, 17-34.

418 Allen, R.G., Pereira, L.S., Howell, T.A., Jensen, M.E., 2011, Evapotranspiration information
419 reporting: I. Factors governing measurement accuracy. Agr. Water Manage. 98(6), 899-920.

420 Cammalleri, C., Agnese, C., Ciraolo, G., Minacapilli, M., Provenzano, G., Rallo, G., 2010a, Actual
421 evapotranspiration assessment by means of a coupled energy/hydrologic balance model:

422 Validation over an olive grove by means of scintillometry and measurements of soil water
423 contents. *J. Hydrol.* 392(1-2), 70-82.

424 Cammalleri, C., Anderson, M.C., Ciraolo, G., D'Urso, G., Kustas, W.P., La Loggia, G.,
425 Minacapilli, M., 2010b, The impact of in-canopy wind profile formulations on heat flux
426 estimation in an open orchard using the remote sensing-based two-source model. *Hydrol. Earth*
427 *Syst. Sci.* 14(12), 2643-2659.

428 Clearwater, M.J., Meinzer, F.C., Andrade, J.L., Goldstein, G., Holbrook, N.M., 1999. Potential
429 errors in measurement of nonuniform sap flow using heat dissipation probes. *Tree Physiol.* 19,
430 681-687.

431 Crow, W.T., Kustas, W.P., Prueger, J.H., 2008. Monitoring root-zone soil moisture through the
432 assimilation of a thermal remote sensing-based soil moisture proxy into a water balance model.
433 *Remote Sens. Environ.* 112, 1268-1281.

434 Doorenbos, J., Pruitt, W.O., 1977. *Crop Water Requirements*. FAO Irrigation and Drainage Paper
435 24. United Nation Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

436 Ferretti, D.F., Pendall, E., Morgan, J.A., Nelson, J.A., Le Cain, D., Mosier, A.R., 2003. Partitioning
437 evapotranspiration fluxes from a Colorado grassland using stable isotopes: seasonal variations
438 and ecosystem implications of elevated atmospheric CO₂. *Plant Soil.* 254, 291-303.

439 Granier, A., 1985. Une nouvelle méthode pour la mesure du flux de sève brute dans le tronc des
440 arbres. *Ann. Sci. Forest.* 42, 193-200.

441 Heilman, J.L., McInnes, K.J., Savage, M.J., Gesch, R.W., Lascano, R.J., 1994. Soil and canopy
442 energy balances in a west Texas vineyard. *Agr. Forest Meteorol.* 71, 99-114.

443 Jackson, R.D., Idso, S.B., Reginato, R.J., Pinter, J.P.J., 1981. Canopy temperature as a drought
444 stress indicator. *Water Res. Res.* 17, 1133-1138

445 Kaimal, J.C., Finnigan, J.J., 1994. *Atmospheric Boundary Layer Flows*. Oxford University Press,
446 New York, USA, 289 pp.

447 Kemp, P.R., Reynolds, J.F., Pachepsky, Y., Chen, J., 1997. A comparative modeling study of soil
448 water dynamics in a desert ecosystem. *Water Res. Res.* 33, 73-90.

449 Kormann, R., Meixner, F.X., 2000. An analytical footprint model for non-neutral stratification.
450 *Bound. Lay. Meteorol.* 99, 207-224.

451 Martinez-Cob, Faci, J.M., 2010. Evapotranspiration of an hedge-pruned olive orchard in a semiarid
452 area of NE Spain. *Agr. Water Manage.* 97, 410-418.

453 Minacapilli, M., Iovino, M., D'Urso, G. 2008. A distributed agro-hydrological model for irrigation
454 water demand assessment. *Agr. Water Manage.* 95, 123-132.

455 Minacapilli, M., Iovino, M., Blanda, F. 2009. High resolution remote estimation of soil surface
456 water content by a thermal inertia approach. *J. Hydr.* 379(3-4), 229-238.

457 Motisi, A., Rossi, F., Consoli, S., Papa, R., Minacapilli, M., Rallo, G., Cammalleri, C., D'Urso, G.,
458 2012. Eddy covariance and sap flow measurements of energy and mass exchanges of woody
459 crops in a Mediterranean environment. *Acta Hort. (ISHS)*. 951, 121-127.

460 Noy-Meir, I., 1973. Desert ecosystems: environment and producers. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 4, 51-
461 58.

462 Oishi, A.C., Oren, R., Stoy, P.C., 2008. Estimating components of forest evapotranspiration: A
463 footprint approach for scaling sap flux measurements. *Agr. Forest Meteorol.* 148, 1719-1732.

464 Prueger, J.H., Hatfield, J.L., Kustas, W.P., Hipps, L.E., MacPherson, J.I., Parkin, T.B., 2005. Tower
465 and aircraft eddy covariance measurements of water vapor, energy and carbon dioxide fluxes
466 during SMACEX. *J. Hydrometeorol.* 6, 954-960.

467 Rallo, G., Agnese, C., Minacapilli, M., Provenzano, G., 2012. Comparison of SWAP and FAO
468 Agro-Hydrological Models to Schedule Irrigation of Wine Grapes. *J. Irrig. Drain Eng.*, 138(7),
469 581-591.

470 Rosenberg, N.J., Blad, B.L., Verma, S.B., 1983. *Microclimate. The biological environment.* Wiley,
471 New York, USA, 255-257.

472 Rousseaux, M.C, Figuerola, P.I., Correa-Tedesco, G., Searles, P.S., 2009. Seasonal variations in sap
473 flow and soil evaporation in an olive (*Olea europaea* L.) grove under two irrigation regimes in an
474 arid region of Argentina. *Agr. Water Manage.* 96, 1037-1044.

475 Savage, M.J., Graham A.D.N., Lightbody, K.E., 2000. An investigation of the stem steady state
476 heat energy balance technique in determining water use by trees. *Water Res. Comm. Report No.*
477 348/1/00, 181 pp.

478 Schaeffer, S.M., Williams, D.G., Goodrich, D.C., 2000. Transpiration in cottonwood/willow forest
479 patches estimated from sap flux. *Agr. Forest Meteorol.* 105, 257-270.

480 Smith, S.D., Herr, C.A., Leary, K.L., Piorkowsky, J.M., 1995. Soil-plant water relations in a
481 Mojave desert mixed shrub community: a comparison of three geomorphic surfaces. *J. Arid*
482 *Environ.* 29, 339-351.

483 Soegaard, H., Boegh, E., 1995. Estimation of evapotranspiration from a millet crop in the Sahel
484 combining sap flow, leaf area index and eddy correlation technique. *J. Hydrol.* 166, 265-282.

485 Stull, R.B., 1988. *An Introduction to Boundary Layer Meteorology.* Kluwer Academic Publishers,
486 Dordrecht, 666 pp.

487 Testi, L., Villalobos, F.J., Orgaz, F., 2004. Evapotranspiration of a young irrigated olive orchard in
488 southern Spain. *Agr. Water Manage.* 121, 1-18.

489 Twine, T.E., Kustas, W.P., Norman, J.M., Cook, D.R., Houser, P.R., Meyers, T.P., Prueger, J.H.,
490 Starks, P.J., Wesely, M.L., 2000. Correcting eddy-covariance flux underestimates over a
491 grassland, *Agr. Forest Meteorol.* 103(3), 279-300.

492 UNEP/MAP-PlanBleu, 2009. *State of the Environmental Development in the Mediterranean.*
493 Athens, Greece, 204 pp.

494 Verstraeten, W.W., Veroustraete, F., Feyen, J., 2009. Assessment of evapotranspiration and soil
495 moisture content across different scales of observation. *Sensors* 8, 70-117.

496 Villalobos, F.J., Orgaz, F., Mateos, L., 1995. Non-destructive measurements of leaf area index in
497 olive (*Olea europaea* L.) trees using a gap inversion method. *Agr. Forest Meteorol.* 73, 29-42.

498 Wang, L., Caylor, K.K., Villegas, J.C., Barron-Gafford, G.A., Breshears, D.D., Huxman, T.E.,
499 2010. Partitioning evapotranspiration across gradients of woody plant cover: Assessment of a
500 stable isotope technique. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 37, L09401.

501 Williams, D.G., Cable, W., Hultine, H., Hoedjes, J.C.B., Yopez, E.A., Simonneaux, V., Er-Raki, S.,
502 Boulet, G., de Bruin, H.A.R., Chehbouni, A., Hartogensis, O.K., Timouk, F., 2004.
503 Evapotranspiration components determined by stable isotope, sap flow and eddy covariance
504 techniques. *Agr. Forest Meteorol.* 125, 241-258.

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Correct estimation of crop actual transpiration plays a key-role in precision irrigation scheduling,
3 since crop growth and yield are associated to the water passing through the crop.

4 Objective of the work was to assess how the combined use of micro-meteorological techniques
5 (eddy covariance, *EC*) and physiological measurements (sap-flow, *SF*) allows a better
6 comprehension of the processes involving in the Soil-Plant-Atmosphere continuum.

7 To this aim, an experimental dataset of actual evapotranspiration, plant transpiration, and soil water
8 content measurements was collected in an olive orchard during the midseason phenological period
9 of 2009 and 2010.

10 It was demonstrated that the joint use of *EC* and *SF* techniques is effective to evaluate the
11 components of actual evapotranspiration in an olive orchard characterized by sparse vegetation and
12 a significant fraction of exposed bare soil.

13 The availability of simultaneous soil water content measurements allowed to estimate the crop
14 coefficients and to assess a simple crop water stress index, depending on actual transpiration, that
15 can be evaluated even in absence of direct measurements of actual transpiration.

16 The crop coefficients experimentally determined resulted very similar to those previously
17 evaluated; in particular, in absence of water stress, a seasonal average value of about 0.65 was
18 obtained for the “single” crop coefficient, whereas values of a 0.34 and 0.41 were observed under
19 limited water availability in the root zone.

20 The comparison between the values of crop water stress index evaluated during the investigated
21 periods evidenced systematically lower values (less crop water stress) in the first year compared to
22 the second, according to the general trend of soil waters content in the root zone.

23 Further researches are however necessary to extent the experimental dataset to periods
24 characterized by values of soil evaporation higher than those observed, in order to verify the crop
25 coefficients even under different conditions than those investigated.

Figure1

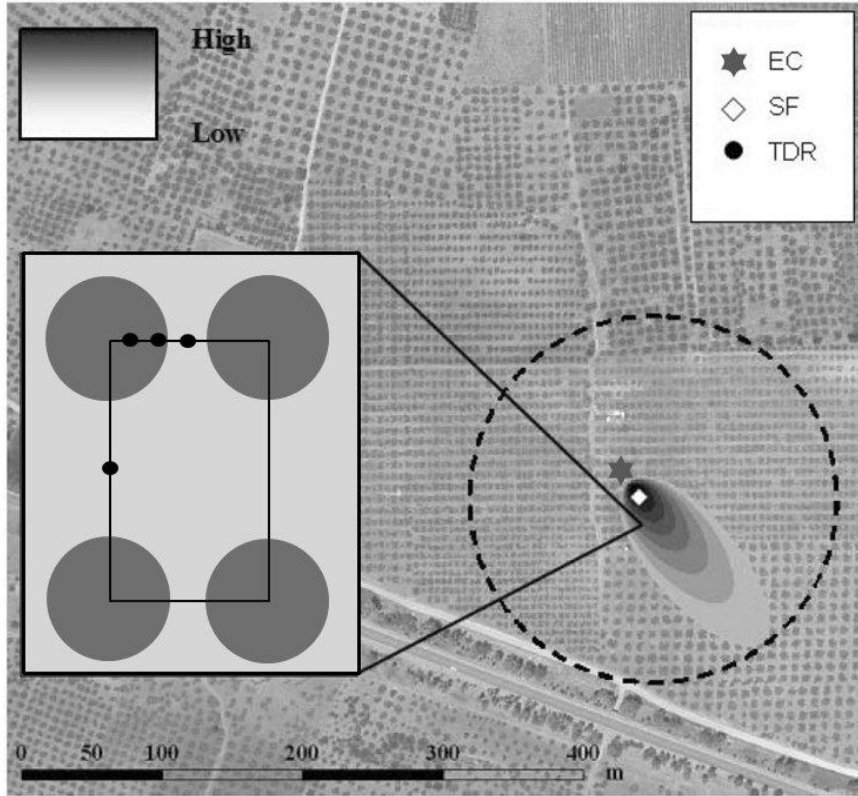


FIG.1

Figure2

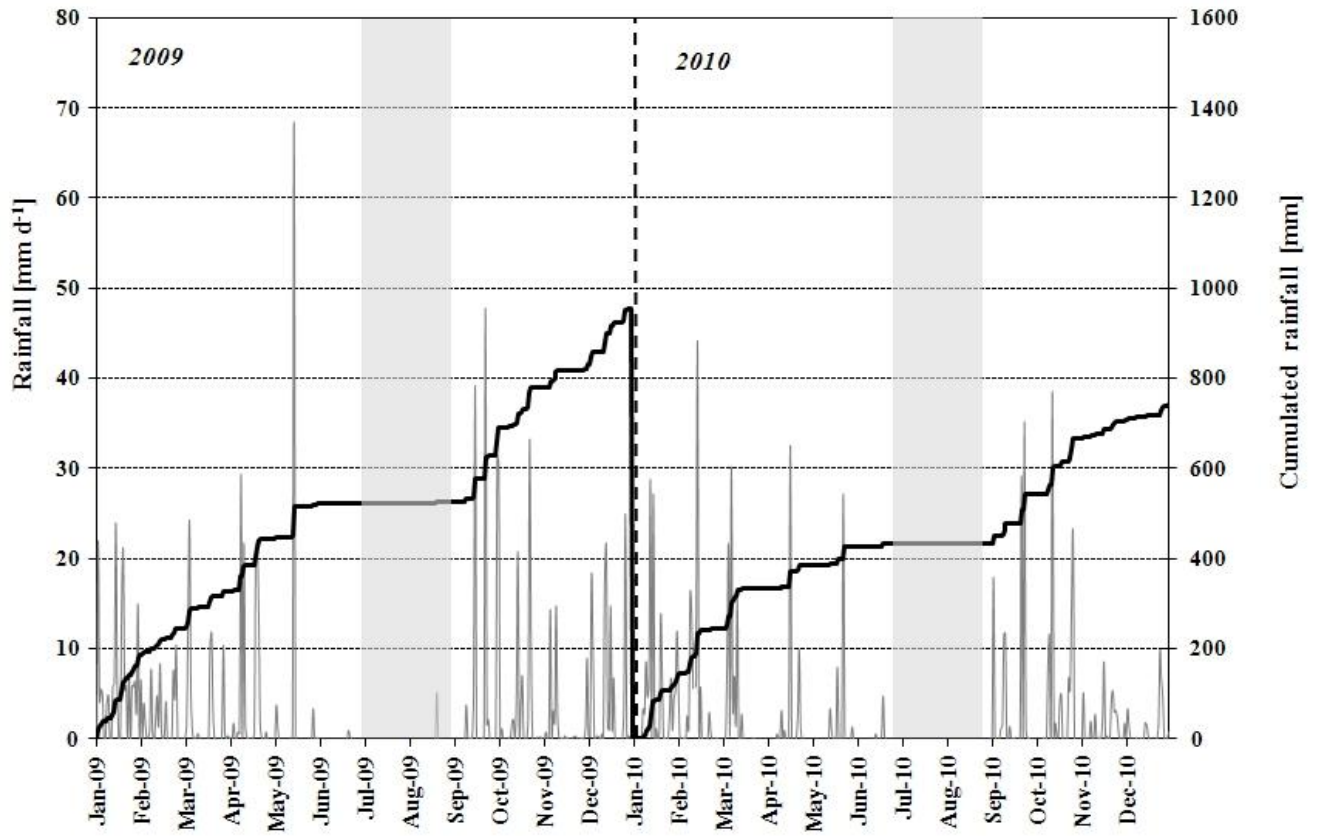


FIG.2

Figure3

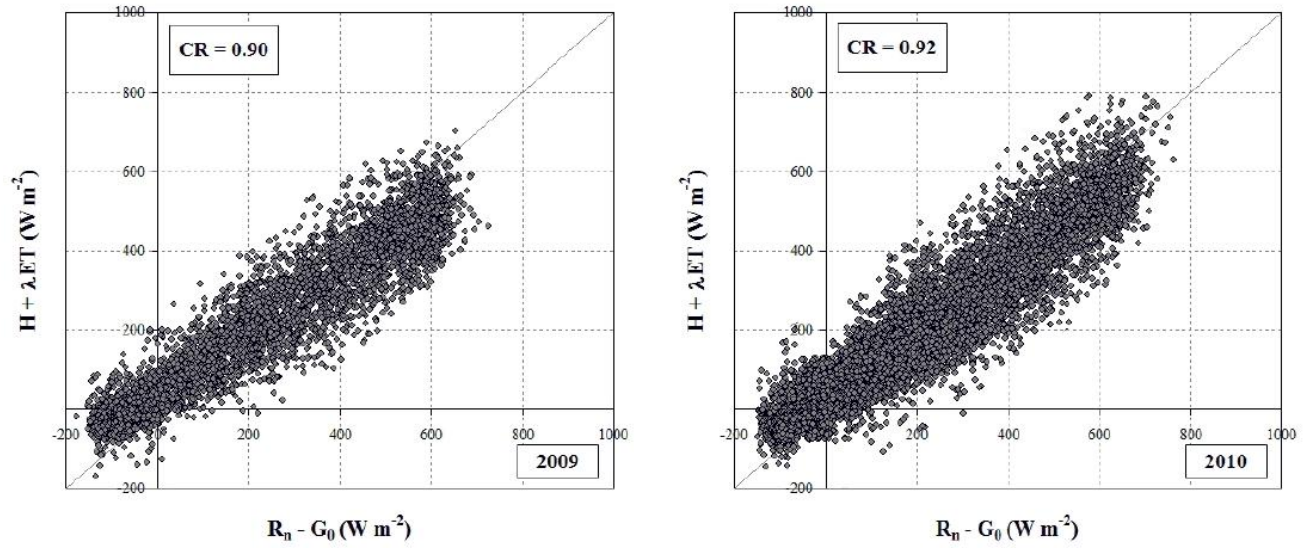


FIG.3

Figure4

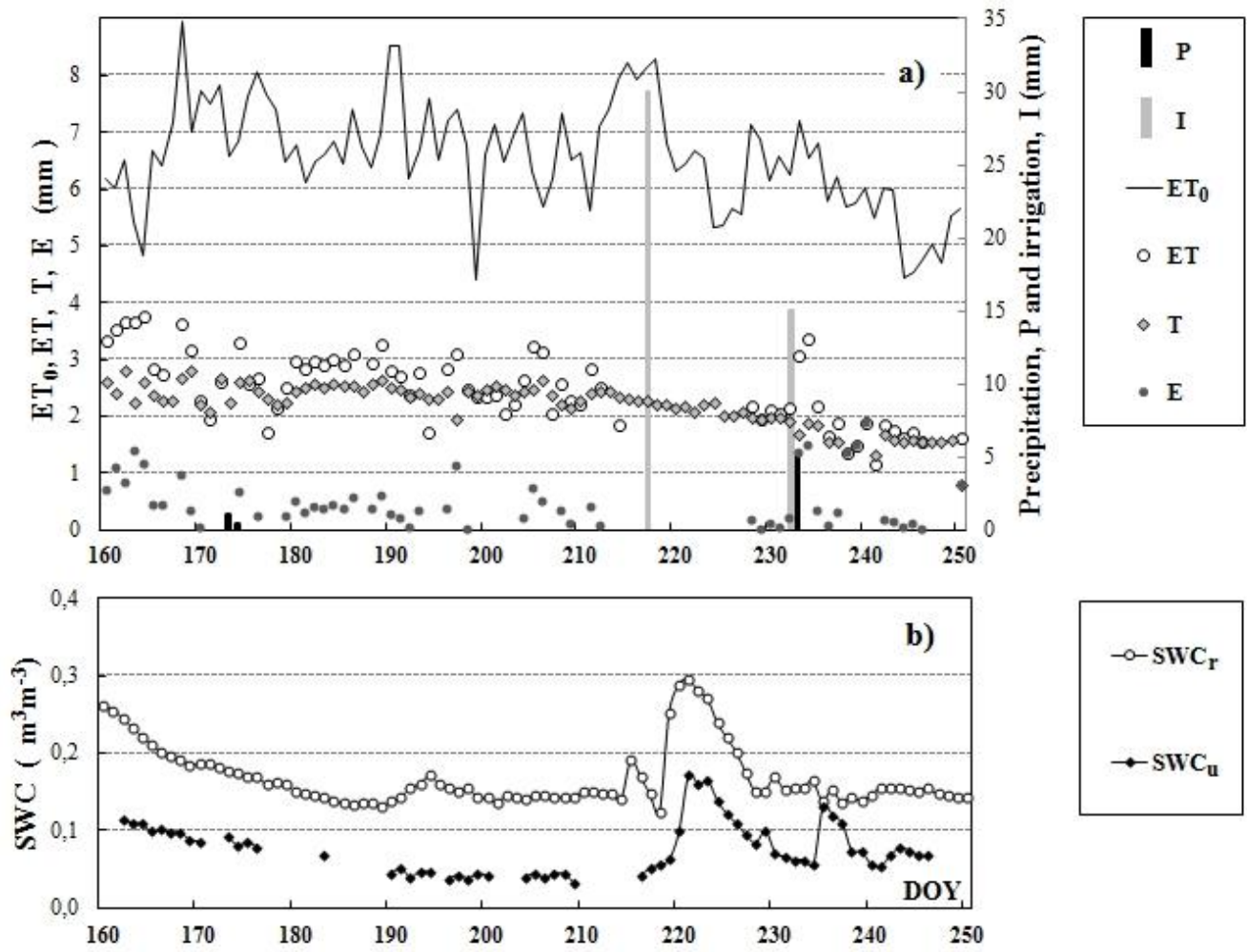


FIG.4

Figure5

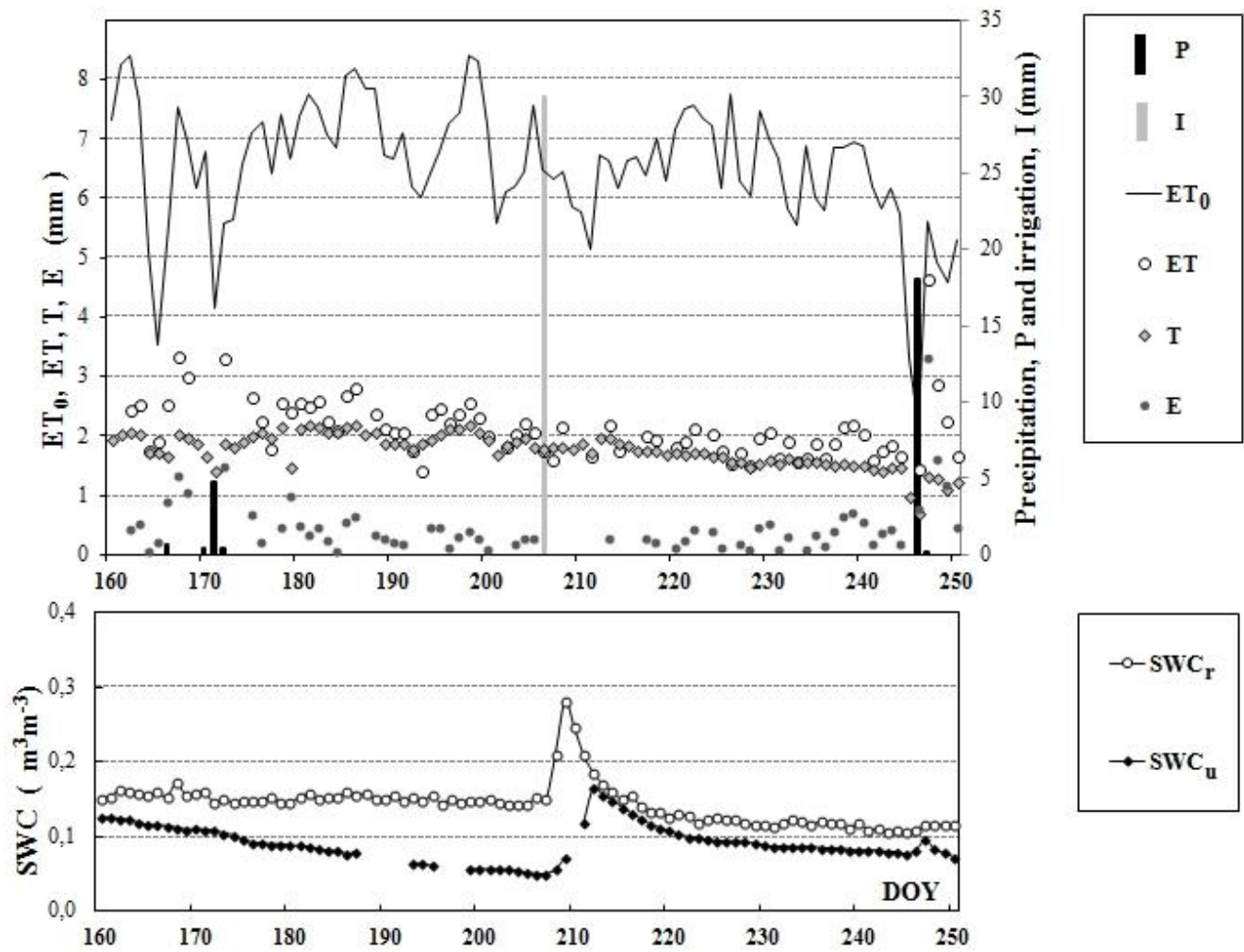


FIG.5

Figure6

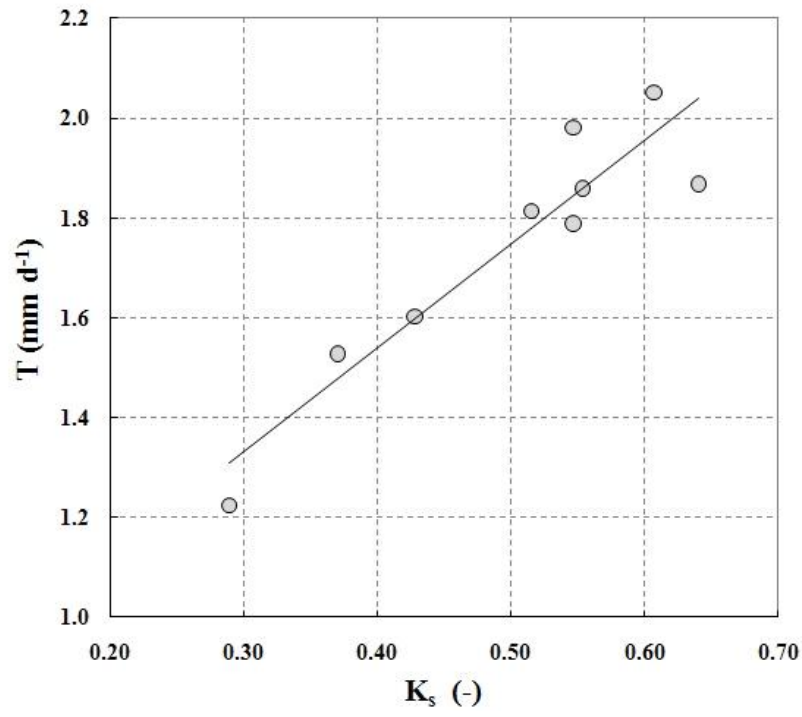


FIG.6

Figure7

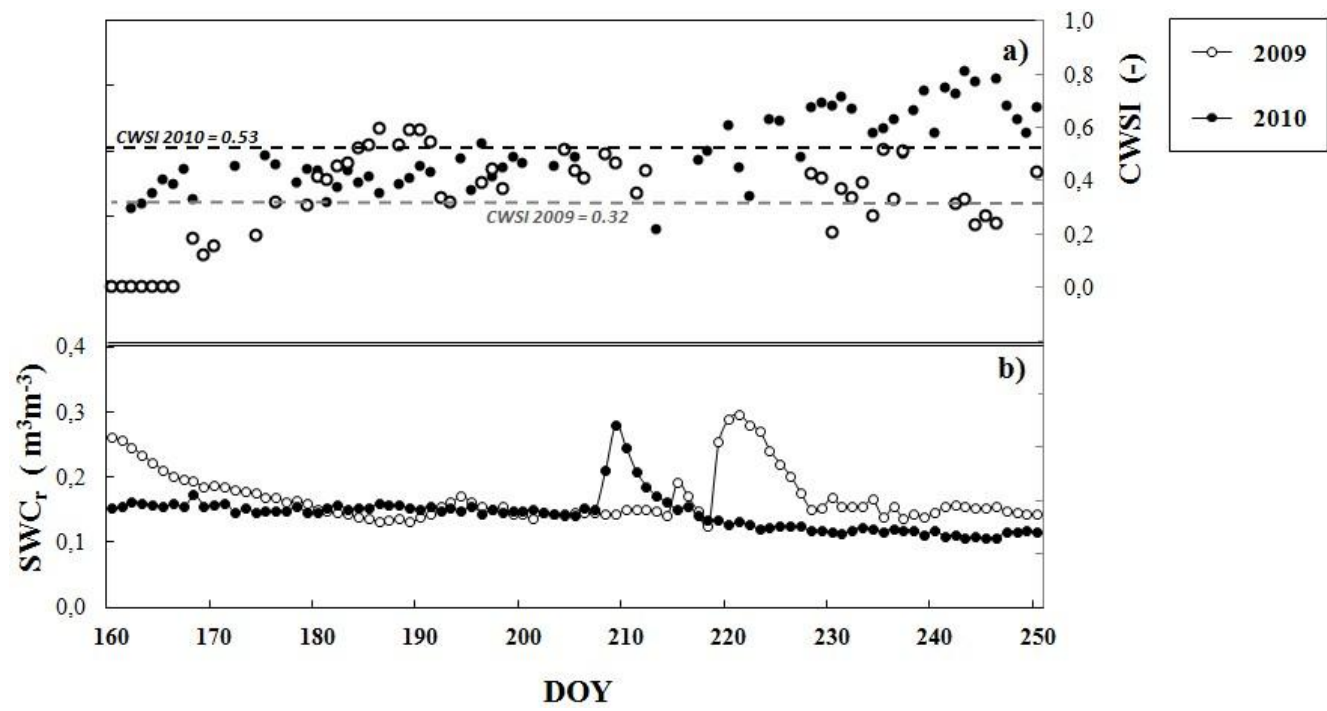


FIG.7

Figure8

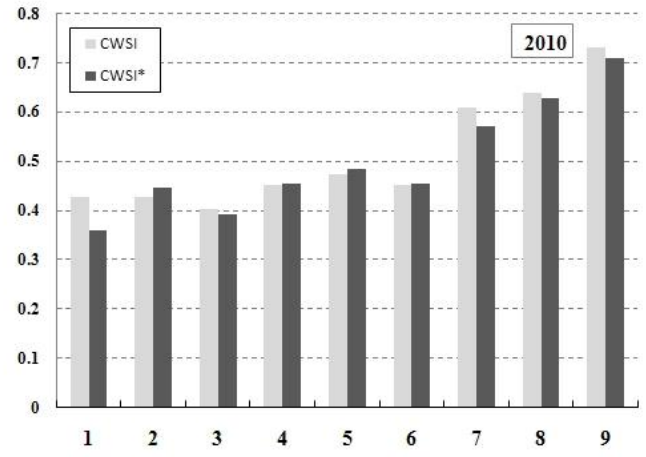
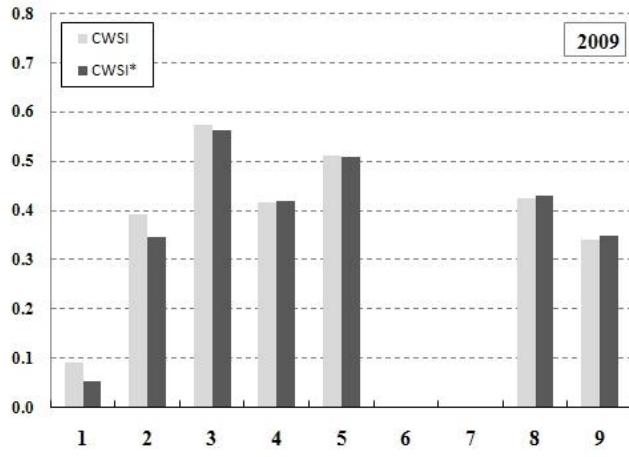


FIG.8

Figure Caption List

Fig. 1. Orthophoto of the experimental site, showing the location of Eddy Covariance system, EC , and Sap Flow sensors, SF ; the filled area represents the footprint for the daytime predominant wind (average speed of 3.1 m s^{-1} with direction of 140°). The zoom emphasizes the locations of TDR probes.

Fig. 2 Daily and cumulative rainfall distributions registered from June to December 2009 and 2010.

Fig. 3. Analysis of the surface energy balance closure for the EC system. Scatterplot between $(R_n - G_0)$ and $(H + \lambda ET)$ measured with EC system in 2009 (left) and 2010 (right). Values of the Closure Ratio, CR , are also indicated.

Fig. 4. Temporal dynamic of the main hydrological variables observed from June to September 2009. Upper graphs (a) shows rainfall, P , irrigation, I , reference evapotranspiration, ET_0 , actual evapotranspiration, ET , and its measured components. Lower graph (b) illustrates the average soil water content in the root zone, SWC_r , and in the upper soil layer, SWC_u .

Fig. 5. Temporal dynamic of the main hydrological variables observed from June to September 2010. Upper graphs (a) shows rainfall, P , irrigation, I , reference evapotranspiration, ET_0 , actual evapotranspiration, ET , and its measured components. Lower graph (b) illustrates the average soil water content in the root zone, SWC_r , and in the upper soil layer, SWC_u .

Fig. 6. Scatterplot between decadal measured actual transpiration, T , and crop stress coefficient, K_s , observed during 2010.

Fig. 7. Temporal dynamic of Crop Water Stress Index, $CWSI$, and soil water content in the root zone, SWC_r , obtained in 2009 and 2010.

Fig. 8. Comparison between decadal $CWSI$ and $CWSI^*$ values for both years.

Table 1

Date	DOY	2009		2010	
		(m ³ ha ⁻¹)	(mm)*	(m ³ ha ⁻¹)	(mm)*
25/07	206	-	-	210	30
05/08	217	210	30	-	-
20/08	232	105	15	-	-

* Irrigation depths have been computed considering a wetted fraction area of 0.7.

Table 2

DOY		SWC _r	SWC _s	K _s	ET ₀	ET	T	E	K _c	K _{cb}	K _e	K _{c,adj}	T/ET ₀	E/ET ₀	T/T _p
Start	End	(m ³ m ⁻³)	(-)	(-)	(mm d ⁻¹)	(mm d ⁻¹)	(mm d ⁻¹)	(mm d ⁻¹)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
160	170	0.22	0.10	0.95	6.63	3.25	2.50	0.75	0.54	0.41	0.12	0.52	0.39	0.12	0.70
171	180	0.17	0.08	0.65	7.27	2.83	2.40	0.43	0.60	0.54	0.06	0.40	0.35	0.06	0.55
181	190	0.14	0.05	0.44	6.86	2.98	2.56	0.42	0.94	0.87	0.06	0.44	0.38	0.06	0.40
191	200	0.15	0.04	0.58	6.79	2.73	2.37	0.36	0.65	0.60	0.05	0.38	0.33	0.05	0.54
201	210	0.14	0.04	0.49	6.66	2.80	2.42	0.38	0.80	0.74	0.06	0.43	0.37	0.06	0.45
211	220	0.18	0.10	0.56	7.38	-	2.33	-	-	0.69	-	-	0.39	-	-
221	230	0.22	0.09	0.61	6.17	-	2.09	-	-	0.49	-	-	0.30	-	-
231	240	0.15	0.08	0.57	6.28	2.66	1.79	0.87	0.58	0.50	0.08	0.36	0.28	0.08	0.49
241	250	0.15	0.07	0.65	5.22	1.72	1.49	0.23	0.48	0.43	0.04	0.33	0.29	0.04	0.60
Seasonal average				0.61					0.65	0.59	0.06	0.41	0.34	0.07	0.53
<i>Standard deviation</i>				<i>0.14</i>					<i>0.16</i>	<i>0.15</i>	<i>0.03</i>	<i>0.06</i>	<i>0.04</i>	<i>0.03</i>	<i>0.10</i>

Table 3

DOY		SWC _r	SWC _s	K _s	ET ₀	ET	T	E	K _c	K _{cb}	K _e	K _{c,adj}	T/ET ₀	E/ET ₀	T/T _p
Start	End	(m ³ m ⁻³)	(-)	(-)	(mm d ⁻¹)	(mm d ⁻¹)	(mm d ⁻¹)	(mm d ⁻¹)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
160	170	0.16	0.11	0.64	6.66	2.48	1.87	0.61	0.58	0.49	0.09	0.40	0.29	0.09	0.57
171	180	0.15	0.09	0.55	6.42	2.54	1.86	0.69	0.61	0.51	0.11	0.39	0.29	0.11	0.57
181	190	0.15	0.08	0.61	7.46	2.37	2.05	0.32	0.50	0.46	0.04	0.32	0.28	0.04	0.60
191	200	0.15	0.06	0.55	7.12	2.24	1.98	0.25	0.54	0.51	0.04	0.31	0.28	0.04	0.55
201	210	0.18	0.09	0.52	6.28	2.02	1.81	0.21	0.58	0.55	0.03	0.31	0.29	0.03	0.53
211	220	0.16	0.12	0.55	6.48	1.98	1.79	0.19	0.53	0.50	0.03	0.29	0.28	0.03	0.55
221	230	0.12	0.09	0.43	7.04	1.88	1.60	0.28	0.62	0.58	0.04	0.27	0.23	0.04	0.39
231	240	0.12	0.08	0.37	6.43	1.86	1.53	0.34	0.71	0.66	0.05	0.29	0.24	0.05	0.36
241	250	0.11	0.08	0.29	4.99	2.14	1.22	0.91	1.11	0.92	0.19	0.44	0.25	0.19	0.27
Seasonal average				0.50					0.64	0.58	0.07	0.34	0.27	0.07	0.49
<i>Standard deviation</i>				<i>0.11</i>					<i>0.19</i>	<i>0.14</i>	<i>0.05</i>	<i>0.06</i>	<i>0.02</i>	<i>0.05</i>	<i>0.12</i>

Table Caption List

Table 1. Irrigation volumes scheduled in 2009 and 2010.

Table 2. Mean values of the main hydrological variables, including plant and soil components of actual evapotranspiration and crop coefficients observed in 2009.

Table 3. Mean values of the main hydrological variables, including plant and soil components of actual evapotranspiration and crop coefficients observed in 2010.