

1 **Stem water potential-based regulated deficit irrigation**

2 **scheduling for olive trees**

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Regulated deficit irrigation (RDI) involves water stress management in different
17 phenological periods throughout the season. Research in olive trees (oil production)
18 suggested RDI during pit hardening based in pre-dawn and midday stem water potential
19 threshold (SWP) thresholds. However, the previous thresholds may not be extrapolated to
20 table olive because fruit size, a very important feature in the table olive yield quality, is
21 very sensitive to water stress. RDI in table olive deserve further research to determine the
22 optimal water potential thresholds and the duration of the RDI periods for the specificity
23 of the crop (low crop load to promote high fruit size). The aim of this work was to study
24 different RDI schedules during pit hardening, considering different levels and durations of
25 water stress. The experiment was performed in the 2015, 2016 and 2017 seasons, in a
26 commercial mature table olive orchard (cv. Manzanilla) in Dos Hermanas (Seville, Spain).

27 Control treatments were based on midday SWP measurement in order to optimize the water
28 status with values around -1.4 MPa. Two RDI treatments were applied during pit
29 hardening, dated (according to the changes in longitudinal fruit growth) from mid-June to
30 the last week of August) to maintain water potential values around -2 MPa (RDI-1) and -
31 3.5 MPa (RDI-3). Another RDI treatment (RDI-2) received irrigation to maintain values
32 around -3.5 MPa but the recovery was performed at early July in order to obtain different
33 durations of water stress.. Irrigation strategies were evaluated with water relations
34 measurements (soil moisture, gas exchange), fruit and shoot growth and quality and
35 quantity yield indicators. Yield was not significantly affected in any of the RDI treatments
36 with an ANOVA analysis. However, fruit drop estimated as the percentage of fruit lost
37 only in the period of water deficit was related with water stress parameters (SWP and stress
38 integral, IS). In addition, the relationship between fruits size and these latter parameters
39 were significant and change according to yield level. Irrigation treatments did not affect
40 next season yield because shoot growth and number of inflorescence at the beginning of
41 each season were not different. RDI effect changed according to yield level, mainly in
42 relation with fruit size. Data suggest that yield levels up to 12 t ha⁻¹ were possible to manage
43 RDI without affecting fruit size or reducing commercial quality.

44 Keywords: Fruit load, fruit size, fruit drop, RDI, water relations, water stress level.

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46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 The water scarcity around the world threat limits irrigation for many crops. In most
49 production areas, water availability in olive orchards is lower than plant requirements and
50 deficit irrigation is common in commercial orchards. In addition, reduction of irrigation
51 could increase orchard profit if quality and quantity of yield were not affected. Traditionally,
52 olive irrigation studies based their recommendations in estimations of crop
53 evapotranspiration (ET_c) Gucci et al.(2012). Fernández (2014) did a comprehensive review
54 summarising different phenological stages in which drought sensitivity for olive trees is
55 very high and found that these stages were before full bloom, fruit set and before ripening.
56 In his work, regulated deficit irrigation (RDI) scheduling was based on those periods and
57 on the percentage of ET_c to manage water stress level in the resistant part of the season
58 (Fernández, 2014). However, in some works, irrigation scheduling with similar ET_c
59 reported clear differences in yield (Lavee et al., 2007; Gómez del Campo, 2013a).

60 Water status measurements have been suggested for different fruit trees to improve
61 RDI (Steduto et al., 2012). In the last years, several works presented data of stem water
62 potential (predawn and midday) in almost all phenological stages included in the study by
63 Fernández (2014). Water stress conditions before full bloom are very uncommon because
64 winter rainfall usually allows an almost optimal water status in this period. Moriana et al
65 (2003) reported one season with values of minimum midday stem water potential (SWP)
66 around -3 MPa with strong yield reduction and -2 MPa with a moderate reduction. The
67 probability of significant water stress during the period of fruit setting changes according
68 to the orchard location. In southern orchards, this period is dated around Spring (late April
69 and early May in Seville, Spain) and works report that it was very difficult to maintain
70 drought conditions (Moriana et al 2013). But in northern orchards, this period is in early
71 Summer (around July in the northern hemisphere) when periods of water stress are more
72 common. Moderate water stress, around SWP of -2 MPa, reduced endocarp growth, and

73 consequently the fruit size (Toledo, Spain, Gomez del Campo 2013a and Gómez del
74 Campo et al. 2014). Severe water stress affected fruit size and also flower induction in the
75 next season (predawn leaf water potential -3/-4 MPa, Pisa, Italy, Gucci et al 2019). The
76 most drought-resistant phenological stage occurs during massive pit hardening
77 (Goldhamer, 1999) and different water stress levels have been reported in this period.
78 Goldhamer (1999) observed a reduction in yield when predawn leaf water potential
79 reached -1.2 MPa in cv Manzanilla, while no significant differences were found in the same
80 cultivar for a SWP of -2.5 MPa (Moriana et al 2013; Girón et al 2015) or in other oil
81 cultivars (Moriana et al 2003; Iniesta et al. 2009; Gómez del Campo, 2013a; Ahumada-
82 Orellana et al., 2017). In this period, very severe water stress conditions (SWP -7 MPa,
83 Moriana et al 2003; -6 MPa Ahumada-Orellana et al 2017) reduced yield by 20-30% but
84 did not affect flower induction. The end of this period does not have any morphological
85 indicator and a fixed date at the end of August/early September is used (Fernández, 2014).
86 There are a few works that reported data from this period. Hueso et al (2019) suggested
87 that average SWP around -2 MPa from the end of August until harvest did not reduce yield.

88 The response to water stress is not always clear and only a few works presented
89 yield or yield components related to water stress level. Gucci et al (2007) and Caruso et al
90 (2013) reported a good agreement between cumulative predawn stem water potential and
91 oil yield with a linear/parabolic relationship. While Hueso et al (2019) reported a linear
92 decrease of oil yield from -2 MPa of average SWP. All these works presented a great
93 variability between seasons, even when relative values are considered, and part of this
94 variability could be affected by fruit load. Naor et al (2013) reported a very good agreement
95 between yield and fruit load using different equations depending on water stress level. The
96 latter work suggests that yield differences increase with fruit load and when fruit load
97 differences were low, it would be almost null (Naor et al., 2013).

98 Results relate with the vegetative and fruit growth in RDI strategies explain the
99 yield respond to water stress in the different phenological periods. Olive flowers growth in
100 shoots of previous seasons and alternate bearing of this specie has been related with this
101 process (Rallo, 1997). However, though shoot growth in mature olive is concentrated
102 before pit hardening and is very sensitive to water stress (Gómez del Campo, 2013b), this
103 was enough under a possible moderate water stress such as -1.2 MPa (Moriana et al, 2012).
104 Fruit growth is another important factor in RDI results, mainly in table olive where fruit
105 size is important in the final yield price. In no water stress conditions, fruit growth was
106 continuous (Hammami et al., 2011) and moderate water stress conditions stopped (Girón
107 et al., 2015). However, similar fruit size to full irrigated trees was obtained with an adequate
108 rehydration (Moriana et al., 2013. Girón et al., 2015) when water stress was not applied
109 during endocarp growth (Gómez del Campo et al., 2014). Then significant water stress
110 before pit hardening, reduce fruit size though improved pulp stone ratio. Pulp stone ratio
111 has been improved slightly without significant decrease in fruit size with RDI during pit
112 hardening or before harvest (Girón et al., 2015; Martín-Palomo et al 2020). Fruit size is
113 commonly managed in table olive trees with pruning but there is no information about the
114 optimum fruit load because price is very variable between cultivars or even seasons. Effects
115 on other fruit quality parameters in table olive are not commonly reported. Fruit color
116 (evaluated using mature index) was affected but not enough to reduce economical fruit
117 value in green olives even with irrigation restrictions near to harvest (Girón et al, 2015;
118 Martín-Palomo et al., 2020). Moderate water stress conditions decrease bruising (Casanova
119 et al., 2019) and hardness (Martín-Palomo et al., 2020) in table olives which could enhance
120 fruit price. There are no information about long term effect of RDI in physiological olive
121 tree response because irrigation works commonly are performed around 3 seasons. Several
122 authors reported no effect of next flowering season after severe conditions of water stress
123 (Girón et al., 2015; Hueso et al., 2019).

124 Evaluation of water stress is not easy, though significant relationship between yield
125 and water status were obtained. Water stress labels defined in Naor et al (2013) included
126 water status measurements very variable between seasons and along season. Such
127 disagreement between the water stress target and the actual value measured is usually
128 common (Gucci et al (2007), Moriana et al (2013)). Hsiao (1990) suggested that the real
129 effect of water stress is related to its level and the duration in each phenological stage
130 selected. Then the actual measured level of water stress should be considered in order to
131 evaluate the response to irrigation. Cumulative values of measured stem water potential
132 could be more useful than average or minimum values (for example, Gucci et al 2007;
133 Caruso et al 2013) although Girón et al. (2015) reported no improvement when using the
134 stress integral instead of minimum SWP.

135 The aim of this work was to evaluate different RDI strategies during the pit
136 hardening period trying to obtain a wide range of stress integral or minimum stem water
137 potential which could improve the water stress management in table olive trees. This
138 irrigation management also tries to evaluate the effect of crop load and water stress on fruit
139 size, very important quality parameter in table olive.

140 **2. Material and methods**

141 **2.1. Orchard description and irrigation treatments**

142 The experiment was performed during three seasons (2015, 2016 and 2017) in “Doña Ana”,
143 a commercial farm located in Dos Hermanas (37° 25' N, 5° 95' W, 42 m altitude, Seville,
144 Spain). The orchard presented a loam soil (more than 1 m deep) with a volumetric water
145 content of 0.31 m³m⁻³ at field capacity and 0.14 m³m⁻³ at the permanent wilting point. Soil
146 bulk density changed from 1.4 g cm⁻³ in the first 30 cm to 1.35 g cm⁻³ from 30 to 90 cm.
147 The experiment was carried out in a table olive orchard (*Olea europaea* L cv Manzanilla
148 de Sevilla) which in 2015 season was 30 years old and the distance between trees was 7m
149 x 4m. Soil management was no tillage with an spontaneous groundcover in the center of

150 the row. The width of vegetation cover was changed along the season (narrower in summer
151 than in winter) and weeds were chemically removed the whole season. Pest control,
152 pruning and fertilization practices were those commonly used by farmers. Fruit thinning is
153 not performed in Spanish commercial table olive orchard. Pruning is commonly used for
154 optimize fruit size and yield. Hard pruning was performed in all trees at the beginning of
155 the experiment (winter 2015) and light ones in the other two seasons. Irrigation system
156 was two side pipes per row of trees with 8 drips (2 L h^{-1}) per plant each (in total 16 emitters
157 per tree). Meteorological data were obtained for the weather station of "IFAPA Los
158 Palacios", around 6 km far from the experimental site, which is part of the Andalusian
159 water stations network (SIAR, 2019). The daily reference evapotranspiration (ET_o) was
160 calculated using the Penman-Monteith equation (Allen et al., 1998). The maximum daily
161 vapour pressure deficit (VPD) was calculated from the mean daily maximum temperature
162 and minimum relative humidity.

163 The experimental design consisted of completely randomized blocks including 4
164 irrigation treatments and 4 replicates (blocks). Each repetition was in a parcel of 12 trees
165 (3 rows per 4 trees) in which the two central trees in the central row were used as monitored
166 trees. Irrigation management treatments were applied according to the phenological stage
167 of the crop (Table 1). Massive pit hardening was the main phenological stage that defined
168 the season. According to Rapoport et al (2013) pit hardening is a continuous process which
169 change their intensity along the season. The change of rate growth of longitudinal fruit
170 growth is related with the beginning of the massive pit hardening (Rapoport et al 2013).
171 Before this period (Phase I), irrigation was optimal in all treatments and water stress started
172 when massive pit hardening was detected (around mid-June, Table 1). The common
173 recovery period started at the end of August but in order to obtain differences in the
174 duration of the water stress an early recovery (Table 1) around one month before was tested.
175 Dates of each phenological stage changes between seasons according to climatic conditions

176 and fruit load. There were 4 irrigation treatments which combined this phenological stages
177 and several water stress levels:

178 — Control treatment included plants in an optimum water status. Irrigation was
179 scheduled using a pressure bomb technique according to the recommendations of
180 Moriana et al (2012). The threshold values of midday stem water potential were
181 -1.2 MPa before the period of pit hardening (Phase I) and -1.4 MPa at beginning
182 of pit hardening until harvest (Phase II and III) according Moriana et al. (2012).

183 — RDI-1 involved a midday stem water potential of -1.2 MPa before the period of pit
184 hardening (Phase I), a moderate water stress during pit hardening: -2 MPa (Phase
185 II) and recovery in the last week of August (Phase III).

186 — RDI-2: involved a midday stem water potential of -1.2 MPa before the period of
187 pit hardening (Phase I), severe water stress until the middle of pit hardening (-3.5
188 MPa), early recovery at the end of June/mid July and -1.4 MPa until harvest. This
189 recovery was adjusted in order to reduce the period of water stress in half.

190 — RDI-3: involved a midday stem water potential of -1.2 MPa before the period of
191 pit hardening (Phase I), severe water stress at pit hardening: -3.5 MPa (Phase II)
192 and recovery in the last week August (Phase III).

193

194 Irrigation was scheduled weekly in each plot using midday stem water potential
195 (SWP) measurements. SWP was measured in one leaf in one tree of each plot with a
196 pressure chamber (model 1000, PMS, USA). Water was applied to obtain a water status
197 around the threshold selected and it was measured in each plot with a water meter. The
198 amount of applied water was estimated as a percentage of the maximum daily crop
199 evapotranspiration (ET_c) expected which was calculated as 4 mm day^{-1} . This percentage
200 changed according to the distance of the SWP measurements to the threshold value
201 (Moriana et al 2012). Below 10% of differences in SWP no irrigation was provided.

202 Between 10-20% of differences, 1 mm day⁻¹ (25% maximum daily ETc expected) was
203 used. When SWP differences were between 20-30%, irrigation was increased to 2 mm day⁻¹
204 (50% maximum daily ETc expected). If measured SWP was 30% more negative than
205 threshold, irrigation was maximum (4 mm day⁻¹).

206

207 **2.2. Measurements**

208 Vegetative and flower/fruit development were measured in one tree per plot. Few
209 days after shoot sprouting, each season, ten shoots per tree (with and without fruits) were
210 randomly selected and marked. Along the season, every 2-3 weeks, length and number of
211 inflorescence were counted. When massive pit hardening was dated, number of fruit per
212 inflorescence was also counted in these shoots. In order to estimate the percentage of fruit
213 drop, only shoots with fruits was considered. Percentage of fruit drop was estimated each
214 season as the ratio between the difference between initial fruit number and final fruit
215 number vs initial fruit number. Periodically, a survey of ten fruits per tree were randomly
216 selected. These fruits were not in the marked shoots and were used for fruit volume
217 estimations. Fruit volume was estimated with two measurements of fruit dimensions,
218 longitudinal and equatorial. The former was also used for determination of the beginning
219 of massive pit hardening period (Rapoport et al 2013).

220 Physiological measurements were used for evaluated irrigation treatments. SWP
221 was determined using leaves near the main trunk which were covered around one hour
222 before. SWP was measured weekly using the pressure chamber technique (Scholander et
223 al., 1965). Water potential baseline of Corell et al (2016) was included in the figures of
224 SWP in order to compare the pattern of treatments with theoretical optimum SWP. Briefly,
225 this equation is based in average daily maximum temperature and not consider the effect
226 of fruit load. Duration of water stress is a factor, which could affect the physiological

227 response of the trees. SWP data were used for calculated the water stress integral (Myers,
228 1988, Eq. (1)) during pit hardening (Phase II). The expression used was:

$$229 \quad SI = |\sum (SWP - (-1.4)) * n| \quad (1)$$

230 where: SI is the stress integral, SWP is the average midday stem water potential for
231 any interval, n is the number of days in the interval. The value -1.4 is a stem water potential
232 reference for this period (Moriana et al., 2012). In the case that SWP were more positive
233 than -1.4, the value will be considered equal to this and SI in this case would be zero.

234 Leaf gas exchange varied along the day with a maximum in the morning and a
235 decrease until midday, when minimum values are measured (Xiloyannis et al., 1998).
236 Maximum leaf conductance was measured during 2015 (first season) with a permanent
237 state porometer (SC-1, Decagon devices, UK) in two sunny, full expanded leaves per tree
238 around 10:30 am. In the next two seasons (2016 and 2017), minimum leaf conductance
239 was measured in order to minimize the variability between dates. In 2016 and 2017, gas
240 exchange was measured with a portable infrared gas analyser (IRGA) (CI-340, CID Bio-
241 Science, USA). This IRGA is more accurate system than porometer but requires more time.
242 Then in these two seasons, gas exchange measurements were obtained at midday
243 (minimum daily value).

244 Soil moisture was measured with a portable FDR system (HH2, Delta-T, UK), using
245 the default calibration suggested for the manufacturer for mineral soils. This system
246 obtained data in 10, 20, 30, 40, and 100 cm depth. One access tube per plot was installed
247 around 30 cm from a drip, which is the zone of greatest root activity (Fernández et al.,
248 1981). These measurements were obtained every week, the same date that the SWP
249 determinations. Only one access tube per plot provide less information and could be more
250 variable between plots. Then data were analyzed relative to the first measurement for
251 identification only of wet and dry cycles.

252 All treatments and plots were harvested the same day, when the owner started with
253 the rest of the orchard. Each measured tree was harvested and the yield of each individual
254 tree was weighted in the field. One sample per plot of around 1 kg was moved to the
255 laboratory for the determination of several other properties. Fruit size was estimated with
256 the number of fruit per kilogram (USDA, 2019). Fruit load was estimated as the ratio
257 between yield and fruit size in each plot. Ten fruits per plot was used in the measurements
258 of fruit hardness per plot. Pulp hardness was measured with maximum peak force of the
259 first compression (Szychowski et al 2015) with a force gauge (FM 200, PCE Instruments,
260 Spain). Maturity index (Hermoso et al., 1997) was used in 100 fruits per plot for estimated
261 change in fruit color. Bruising incidence (Jiménez et al., 2011), derived from manual
262 harvest, was also measured in 100 fruits per plot. Pulp vs stone ratio was measured in fresh
263 and dry weight in 3 samples of ten fruits per plot.

264 Data analyses were carried out with ANOVA and the mean separation was made
265 with a Tukey's test using the Statistix (SX) program (8.0). Significant differences were
266 considered for the p-level <0.05 in both tests.. In order to evaluate irrigation treatments
267 according to water stress level, lineal regressions were calculated between percentage of
268 fruit drop vs SI and vs SWP, number of fruits per kilogram vs yield considering each plot.
269 Multivariable analysis was performed between percentage of fruit drop vs SI and SWP to
270 improve these latter relationships. In addition, lineal regressions of number of fruits per
271 kilogram vs SI and vs SWP potential were performed to show the effect of water stress
272 according to yield level. These latter yield levels were defined using the relationship
273 between fruits per kilogram vs yield previously calculated.

274

275 **3. Results**

276 *Water relations*

277 Fig. 1 shows meteorological data for the three seasons of the experiment. The seasonal
278 pattern of the main meteorological data were typical of a Mediterranean area, warm winters
279 and hot and dry summers. Maximum values of daily reference evapotranspiration (ET_o)
280 were around 7 mm day⁻¹ in July and there was almost no rainfall. Rainfall concentrated
281 from Autumn to early Spring and was very variable from one season to another. In 2015,
282 seasonal precipitation was 289 mm, in 2016, 643 mm and in 2017, 345 mm. The average
283 seasonal rainfall in this location is 539 mm (AEMET, 2019). 2015 and 2017 were
284 extremely dry in comparison to the average year. The experimental period (Table 1) from
285 around DOY 120 to 265 in all seasons coincided with the most extreme values of ET_o,
286 maximum temperature and vapour pressure deficit (VPD) (Fig. 1). Maximum temperature
287 near 40°C and VPD around 4 KPa were measured in mid-summer with zero rainfall.

288 The pattern of applied water is presented in Fig. 2. The maximum seasonal values
289 were applied in 2016 and 2017, which presented greater yields than 2015. In addition, 2017
290 rainfall was very low and seasonal applied was maximum in all treatments in comparison
291 with the rest of the seasons. In all seasons, Control treatment presented a two phases
292 pattern. First the rate of applied water was slow until water potential reached threshold
293 values and then maximum rates were measured. In the rest of treatments, the increase in
294 the applied water was affected for water potential measurements. In 2015 and 2016, water
295 applied was lower and was delayed in comparison to Control. In 2017, problems with
296 Control irrigation were detected after pit hardening and the pattern of applied water was
297 slightly different to previous seasons.

298 The Relative Soil Water Content during the experiment is presented in Fig. 3. The
299 seasonal pattern was very similar for all years. Spring rainfall increased the relative water
300 content in all irrigation treatments in all three seasons. Throughout phase II, soil moisture
301 decreased in the three deficit treatments with minimum values at different moments of the
302 season. Soil moisture in RDI-2 was quickly recovered around mid-summer, while RDI-1

303 and RDI-3 increased a few weeks before harvest. During 2015 and 2106 seasons, Control
304 soil moisture was lower until mid Summer than others treatment. This pattern could be
305 related with the beginning of the period of greater rate of irrigation. In 2015 and 2016, the
306 irrigation was regular (every week) from around DOY 195 (2015) and DOY 170 (2016)
307 (Figure 2) when soil moisture increased.

308 The pattern of midday stem water potential was similar in all three years of study
309 (Fig. 4). Before pit hardening, SWP was similar in the four treatments and above -1.5 MPa.
310 SWP values decreased in all treatments from the beginning of the experiment. After the
311 beginning of pit hardening, when the irrigation restriction started, SWP decreased faster in
312 RDI treatments. During 2015, the lowest fruit load season, such decrease was very slow,
313 Control was almost constant around -1.5 MPa, and the rest of treatments slightly decreased.
314 Significant differences were found only at the end of the deficit period and between RDI-
315 3 and the rest of treatments. During 2016 and 2017, this SWP decrease during pit hardening
316 was greater than in 2015 and, even, Control reached values around -2 MPa some days.
317 Such decrease in Control values was partially predicted by the Corell et al (2016) baseline.
318 Then, Control could be in mild water stress conditions in short periods of 2016 and 2017
319 seasons. Significant differences were found from the mid of pit hardening period between
320 RDI-3 and Control, and also RDI-1 tended to lower values, mainly during the 2017 season.
321 Minimum SPW values near -4 MPa were reached at the end of this period in these two
322 seasons. The recovery of RDI-2 SWP was not always clear during pit hardening and
323 intermediate values between Control and the rest were measured. After pit hardening, all
324 treatments recovered SWP and were near Control values at the end of the experiment. This
325 rehydration was slower in RDI-1 and RDI-3, while it was almost complete at the end of pit
326 hardening or in the first weeks of the last period in RDI-2.

327 The stress integral (SI) data presented clear differences between seasons and
328 treatments (Fig. 5). During 2015, no significant differences were found between treatments

329 and the average value was 12 MPa day. This value was greater in the next two seasons,
330 even in Control trees. Maximum SI values were calculated in 2016, the year with the
331 highest fruit load. In this season, significant differences were found between RDI-3 and
332 Control, with more than double SI in the former than in the latter. RDI-1 and RDI-2 were
333 intermediate between these two values, with no significant differences. During the last
334 season, 2017, data were slightly lower than the previous one but followed the same pattern.
335 RDI-3 was around 4 times greater than Control, with significant differences between them.
336 Control values in this season were near the ones obtained in 2015. RDI-1 and RDI-2 were,
337 again, intermediate treatments with no significant differences but clear trends towards
338 greater values than Control, mainly RDI-1, which was almost three times higher than
339 Control.

340 The maximum leaf conductance data during 2015 (Fig. 6a) was very variable
341 throughout the season, with some dates showing values around half those on other dates.
342 Such differences were likely related to the time when the measurement was obtained,
343 because maximum daily values are very difficult to standardize. Before pit hardening,
344 treatments were almost equal and maximum seasonal values were measured. Significant
345 differences were observed only at the beginning of the pit hardening period between RDI-
346 3 and Control. After DOY 220, these values decreased in all treatments and no significant
347 differences were found. During 2016 (Fig. 6b), only one significant difference was
348 observed before pit hardening and most values were very similar. After the beginning of
349 pit hardening, significant differences were found at around DOY 180 between Control and
350 all deficit treatments, and they were permanent until the end of this deficit period. RDI-
351 3RDI-2 data slightly recovered a few weeks before the end of pit hardening, but this
352 rehydration was completed only one week before harvest, when no significant differences
353 between any treatments were found. During 2017 (Fig 6c), differences in minimum leaf
354 conductance between treatments were small. Only during pit hardening, RDI-2 was

355 significantly lower than Control before recovery and higher than RDI-3 after this moment.
356 RDI-3RDI-2During irrigation recovery, all treatments were very similar in their observed
357 values.

358 *Vegetative growth and fruit development*

359 Shoot elongation (Fig 7), taking as a reference the length of the first spring
360 measurement, showed a similar seasonal pattern in all treatments. Most of the shoot growth
361 occurred before pit hardening and growth sharply decreased or even stopped in all
362 treatments after the beginning of pit hardening. Differences between treatments were
363 established before this period. The average growth was very similar between seasons but
364 the differences between treatments changed. During the 2015 season (Fig. 7a), significant
365 differences were observed between RDI-3 and the rest of the irrigation treatments before
366 pit hardening. After the beginning of pit hardening, growth was almost zero in all
367 treatments. During the 2016 season (Fig. 7b), growth stopped in all treatments several
368 weeks after the beginning of pit hardening. Significant differences between RDI-1 and the
369 rest of treatments were found from two weeks before the beginning of pit hardening. The
370 rest of treatments presented similar values around the average of 2015. In the 2017 season
371 (Fig. 7c), shoot elongation was very similar between treatments. Before pit hardening, RDI-
372 3 tended to greater values than the rest, even with two dates when significant differences
373 were found. However, from the beginning of pit hardening, no significant differences were
374 found, and Control and RDI-1 tended to lower values. In this last season, shoot elongation
375 was slightly higher than in the two previous seasons.

376 The number of inflorescences per shoot were measured throughout the season (Fig.
377 8). All treatments presented a similar seasonal pattern, with a maximum peak at the
378 beginning, followed by a sharp decrease until pit hardening. Although there were some
379 significant differences at the beginning of the season in 2015 and 2016, the number of
380 inflorescences were almost equal from pit hardening. No clear influences of irrigation

381 strategies in the following season were found. After the first season and with different
382 irrigation strategies, Control and RDI-2 presented a significantly higher number of
383 inflorescences at the beginning of 2016, but no differences were found at the beginning of
384 2017. In all seasons, no drop was measured during the pit hardening period in any of the
385 treatments. The number of fruits per shoot was also measured but only from pit hardening
386 (Fig. 9).. In all treatments, the number of fruits was constant from this date until harvest.
387 Only in 2016, Control trees presented a significant lower number of fruits number during
388 the complete period; in the rest of the seasons no significant differences were found
389 between treatments.. The percentage of fruit drop data were compared to the stress integral
390 obtained during Phase II (Fig. 10a) and minimum SWP (Fig.9b). For both figures, the
391 increase of water stress also increased fruit drop. Both relationships were significant,
392 although the stress integral (Fig. 10a) was the most robust. Data of fruit drop in RDI-3
393 during the 2017 season were lower than expected for all indicators and it is not included in
394 the adjustment (data circled in Fig. 10). There was a linear increase until values around 50
395 MPa day (SI, Fig. 10a) and -2.5 MPa (SWP, Fig. 10b), reaching a 30% of fruit drop in each
396 shoot.. The multivariable regression with SI and SWP was not significantly better than the
397 SI adjustment.

398 The pattern of fruit volume showed differences between seasons and treatments
399 (Fig. 11). Fruit volume at harvest was affected by the fruit load. The greatest sizes were
400 found in the 2015 season, while the smallest occurred in 2016. During the 2015 season, the
401 one with lowest fruit load, there were no differences between the irrigation treatments for
402 most dates, only in the last measurement before harvesting, a smaller size was observed in
403 RDI-3 (Fig. 11a). The seasonal pattern of growth was almost linear during this season for
404 all treatments. In 2016 and 2017, significant differences were observed in the volume of
405 fruit between irrigation treatments in phase II and they did not disappear until the end of
406 the experiment. These differences were mainly between Control and RDI-3 and they were

407 around 15%. Control and RDI-1 presented a very similar linear pattern of development,
408 while RDI-2 and RDI-3 showed a reduction of fruit growth on some dates during pit
409 hardening. RDI-2 was completely recovered even before the end of pit hardening.
410 However, RDI-3 remained at the same level as Control by the end of 2016 but not in 2017,
411 when differences were permanent.

412 *Yield quality and quantity*

413 Fruit yield, applied water and fruit quality are showed in Table 2. There were no
414 significant differences between treatments in fruit yield for any season. However, Control
415 and RDI-2 tended to higher values in the 2016 and 2017 seasons and the cumulative yield
416 was almost equal for these two treatments (33.6 for Control vs. 33.0 t ha⁻¹ for RDI-2). On
417 the other hand, RDI-1 and RDI-3 tended to lower values and had both a very similar yield.
418 The percentage of yield reduction in these two RDIs, in comparison to Control, was found
419 to be around 20% in 2016 and 2017. Cumulative yield at the end of the experiment was
420 also lower for both treatments (RDI-1 25.9 and RDI-3 28.7 vs. Control 33.6 t ha⁻¹).
421 Considering the water applied, Control and RDI-2 presented, again, very close values in
422 all seasons. But, although the water applied during RDI-1 and RDI-3 was lower than in
423 Control, clear differences were found between these two treatments. Water saving in RDI-
424 1 was variable according to the season considered, around 50% less than Control in 2015,
425 but only 28% in 2016 and equal in 2017. On the contrary, RDI-3 received clearly less water
426 than the rest of treatments, with around 75% less than Control in 2015, 59% in 2016 and
427 62% in 2017. The greater values of water applied in RD-1 and RDI-3 occurred during the
428 rehydration period, because some plots needed more water to reach the correct rehydration.
429 There were no significant differences between treatments in pulp vs. stone ratio in fresh or
430 dry weight. In fresh weight, the pulp vs. stone ratio was similar in 2015 and 2017, and
431 slightly lower in 2016, the season with the highest yield. During 2015, the lowest fruit load
432 season, RDI-2 was the treatments with the lowest yield and it tended to greater values of

433 this measurement. In 2016 and 2017, RDI-3 tended to lower values of pulp vs. stone ratio,
434 with a reduction of 19% in comparison to Control. The rest of treatments were almost equal
435 with differences lower than 10%. The variations of this parameter in dry weight for
436 different treatments were similar, and the lowest values were obtained in all treatments
437 during 2016.

438 . The maturity index, which evaluates colour, bruising incidence and hardness, was
439 not significantly affected by irrigation treatment and in all seasons it was within
440 commercially expected values.

441 Final fruit sizes were strongly related with the season, but not significantly affected
442 by the irrigation treatments (Table 2). In order to evaluate irrigation treatments considering
443 the fruit yield, fruit size vs. yield for all treatments is presented in Fig. 12. Fruit size
444 decreased linearly with the increase in yield, but slope changed according to the irrigation
445 treatments considered. Significant differences were found between these relationships,
446 Control and RDI-2 showed near fits than RDI-1 and RDI-3. For the same value of yield,
447 fruit size was reduced more in the latter group than in the former, and this reduction was
448 greater when yield increased. An almost equal number of fruit per kg was found when yield
449 was below 5 t ha⁻¹. From this yield, RDI-1 and RDI-3 increased the slope of size reduction
450 in comparison with Control and RDI-2. Only when the yield was greater than 15 t ha⁻¹ RDI-
451 2, fit presented greater slope of reduction than Control. At the highest level of yield (20 t
452 ha⁻¹), the reduction of fruit size was around 30% greater in RDI 1 and 3 than in Control,
453 while the difference estimated with RDI-2 was only 9%. These data of fruit per kg were
454 compared with minimum SWP and SI but grouped according to yield intervals (below 6 t
455 ha⁻¹, between 6 to 14 t ha⁻¹ and greater than 14 t ha⁻¹) in Fig. 13. No significant relationship
456 was found in the lowest level of yield in any of the water stress indicators. The increase in
457 the water stress level increased the number of fruit per kg with better agreement in the SI
458 than in the minimum SWP. In the other two yield level, significant differences in the y-

459 intercept were observed only in SI. No significant differences were found in the slope of
460 both figures..

461

462 **4. Discussion**

463 The yield data presented clear trends of yield reduction in RDI-1 and RDI-3 in
464 comparison with Control and RDI-2 (Table 2) and such a decrease was confirmed by the
465 fruit drop and fruit size vs. water stress relationships (Figs. 10 and 13) and when yield level
466 was considered (Fig. 12). Yield reduction was likely related only to fruit size and fruit drop,
467 because flower induction in the following season was not affected (Fig. 8) and neither was
468 shoot growth (Fig. 7). Significant reduction of shoot expansion before pit gardening (Fig.
469 7) showed that SWP is not the earliest indicator of water stress which is commonly reported
470 in the literature (Hsiao, 1990; Pérez-López et al, 2007). Although this could be a limitation
471 of the methodology in young orchards, it would be not in mature where low shoot
472 expansion (Fig. 7) was not associated with lower yield in next season (Table 2) which is
473 one of the reasons suggested for alternated bearing in olive trees (Rallo, 1997).

474 . Fruit drop was a current season effect of water stress. The estimation of fruit drop
475 in the present work probably over-estimated yield reductions because the percentage of
476 fruit drop was greater than the average yield reduction (Fig. 10 vs. Table 2). The
477 relationship of Fig. 10 was very close to the one reported by Girón et al (2015) for the same
478 cv., but in a wide range of water stress levels (these latter data are incorporated to this Fig).
479 This latter work also over-estimated yield reduction (Girón et al., 2015). The over-
480 estimation would be likely related to the sampled zone, which varied throughout the season.
481 At the beginning, shoots were at the sampler height but when fruits increased their weight
482 this height of decreased. These changes in fruit height could reduce the level of radiation
483 and increase potential damage due to handling. The influence of light on fruit development

484 has been reported in different cultivars and densities (Cherbity-Hoffman et al., 2012;
485 Caruso et al., 2017) and could affect the fruit drop.

486 Fruit size is very important in table olive trees because, in addition to yield
487 reduction, there is a quality penalty. However, when data of reduction in yield and size in
488 Table 2 are considered, most of the yield decrease was likely related to fruit drop
489 (maximum reduction in yield around 21% vs. a decrease in fruit size of 8%, Table 2).
490 Similar results have been reported in cv Manzanilla, in which yield decreases from 8 to
491 24% were associated with size impact from zero to 6% (Goldhamer, 1999; Girón et al.,
492 2015). On the contrary, Ahumada-Orellana et al (2017) in cv Arbequina reported a
493 reduction of fruit size at all levels of water stress from 9% to 29% with yield reductions of
494 9% to 39%. Therefore, fruit drop would be likely related only to the highest level of water
495 stress, with a reduction in yield of 8-10% for this cv (Ahumada-Orellana et al., 2017), while
496 cv Manzanilla would be more sensitive, as suggested by Fig. 10, and the effects would be
497 more noticeable than for cv Arbequina, with around a 13-18%.

498 The reduction in fruit size was likely related to the impact on the mesocarp because
499 the water stress was applied after the end of endocarp growth (Rapoport et al 2013) and
500 could have affected the pulp vs. stone ratio, which is another important fruit feature for
501 table olives. The reduction of this parameter in RDI-1 was almost zero in fresh and dry
502 weight (Table 2) which suggests only a small dehydration in this treatment. On the
503 contrary, RDI-3 showed a higher impact, with a clear trend in the 2016 and 2017 seasons
504 (Table 2) and a significant reduction in the fruit volume pattern during the 2017 season
505 (Fig. 11). Gucci et al (2009) worked with cv Leccino, reported a maximum mesocarp area
506 obtained from -1 to -2 daily integrated stem water potential with a linear decrease from this
507 level of water stress. In the present work, the decrease in fruit size for both RDI treatments
508 of the present work was likely related to cell size and it could be recovered. Hammani et al
509 (2011) reported that the number and the size of fruit cell increased throughout the season

510 in olive trees of the cv Manzanilla, although the cell number decelerated from maximum
511 endocarp size. Gomez del Campo et al (2014) concluded that, in olive trees (cv Arbequina),
512 the cell area was more sensitive to drought conditions than the cell number, which was
513 hardly affected during the irrigation restriction. Therefore, the reduction of pulp vs. stone
514 ratio in RDI-3 in comparison to RDI-1 suggests that the recovery of the former was not
515 enough, although SWP values were similar to Control at harvest (Fig. 4).

516 Management and evaluation of irrigation strategies become difficult because the
517 SWP recovery did not involve the optimum management of water stress. The relationship
518 of the fruit size (Fig. 13) and the fruit drop (Fig. 10) with the stress integral was better than
519 with the minimum water potential. These results suggest that the duration and intensity of
520 water stress are better indicators than only its intensity. This would also explain also the
521 better response of early recoveries (as in RD-1 and RDI-2) although all treatments reached
522 a similar SWP at the end. Therefore, similar amounts of water applied could produce
523 different yield results according to water status. In olive irrigation literature, the water
524 applied is the most common recommendation (i.e. Goldhamer, 1999; Fernandez et al.,
525 2013) but there are examples in which similar amounts of water changed yield results (i.e.
526 Lavee et al., 2007; Gómez del Campo, 2013a). But recommendations based on water status
527 measurements are also difficult because if the duration was important, the frequency of
528 water status measurements could be limited. Crop load is another factor that could change
529 the irrigation strategy. The present work suggests that yield results were the sum of both
530 effects, fruit drop and fruit size, but with different intensity according to the fruit load. In
531 conditions of low yield (lower than 4 tha^{-1}) water stress did not affect fruit size (Fig. 12 and
532 12) and neither did fruit drop (Fig. 10). Naor et al (2013) reported that fruit load is a key
533 point to evaluate irrigation strategies and in this latter work, only significant differences
534 were found in oil yield between irrigation treatments for medium and high fruit load
535 seasons (Naor et al., 2013). Water relations in olive trees are strongly affected by very low

536 fruit load, which limited the decrease of the stem water potential (Martín-Vertedor et al.
537 2011, Naor et al.,2013). From 4 t ha⁻¹, the decrease in fruit size was linear with the water
538 stress level (Fig. 13). Differences in Figs. 12 and 13 between yield levels were due to fully
539 irrigation Control starting from smaller size in the highest yield (Fig. 12 and 13). Therefore,
540 in very high yield conditions (from 12 t ha⁻¹), optimum conditions will produce very small
541 fruits, more than 250 fruits kg⁻¹ (USDA, 2019), and RDI would be very limited because
542 the greatest differences in size could be expected (Fig. 12 and 13). In yields between 4 to
543 12 t ha⁻¹, RDI will be possible in moderate water stress conditions, which minimize fruit
544 drop, around 40 MPa day or -2 MPa minimum SWP, during massive pit hardening. In such
545 conditions, complete rehydration will be also important. Similar threshold values of SWP
546 for olive trees have been suggested by other authors (table, Girón et al 2015; oil, Hueso et
547 al 2019) but the importance of considering the water stress duration (for instance with the
548 stress integral) has not been studied.

549

550 **5. Conclusions**

551 RDI during pit hardening should be adapted to the yield level expected. Low yield
552 level (lower than 4 tha⁻¹) was not affected by any irrigation restrictions at this phenological
553 stage. But in order to minimize fruit dehydration, levels lower than -2 MPa before harvest
554 should be avoided. For medium yield (from 4 to 12 t ha⁻¹) a RDI management with low
555 effect on yield was possible. An SWP lower than -2 MPa or a stress integral lower than 40
556 MPa.day during pit hardening likely minimizes fruit drop. The stress integral could be a
557 good indicator to manage and interpret water stress. In addition, an efficient recovery
558 before harvest reduced the effect on fruit size and pulp vs. stone ratio. Such recovery would
559 be based on the level of SWP and on the time that trees were at an optimum level. Very
560 high yield level (from 12 t ha⁻¹) will limit the RDI management because, even in full

561 irrigated conditions, fruit size could reduce their commercial value. In addition, the greater
562 transpiration would increase the water stress level easily and maximize fruit drop.

563

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570

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701

Table 1.

Day of the year (DOY) and date (month/day) of each phenological stage of the three seasons experiments. The beginning of pit hardening was dated according to Rapoport et al (2013). Early recovery was adjusted in order to reduce the water stress period in half.

	2015	2016	2017
Start irrigation	120 (30/4)	154 (3/6)	140 (20/5)
Beginning of massive pit hardening (Phase II)	161 (10/6)	159 (8/6)	163 (12/6)
Early recovery	202 (21/7)	197 (16/7)	203 (22/7)
Regular recovery (Phase III)	237 (25/8)	223 (11/8)	241 (29/8)
Harvest	252 (9/9)	264 (21/9)	262 (19/9)

702

703

Table 2. Summary of yield quality and quantity during the 3 years of the experiment. (average± standard error)

	Yield	Load	AW	PS F	PS D	Size	MI	B _I	H
2015									
Control	3.1 ± 1.0a	1723 ± 217a	154 ± 28a	5.1 ± 0.4a	2.3 ± 0.0a	192 ± 8a	1.16 ± 0.03a	0.14 ± 0.01a	39.1 ± 0.7a
RDI-1	1.9 ± 0.5a	1036 ± 98a	89 ± 13a	5.3 ± 0.6a	2.3 ± 0.2a	198 ± 15a	0.97 ± 0.02a	0.44± 0.03a	41.9 ± 0.4a
RDI-2	1.9 ± 0.6a	989 ± 91a	108 ± 28a	5.9 ± 0.2a	2.5 ± 0.1a	185 ± 6a	1.22 ± 0.04a	0.30 ± 0.01a	37.9 ± 0.9a
RDI-3	3.4 ± 0.9a	2180± 272a	54 ± 16a	5.2 ± 0.2a	2.3 ± 0.1a	210 ± 20a	0.97 ± 0.01a	0.38 ± 0.00a	43.2 ± 0.2a
2016									
Control	18.3 ± 2.1a	16565 ± 737a	264 ± 39a	4.2 ± 0.2a	1.6 ± 0.0a	324 ± 13a	1.39 ± 0.17a	0.22 ± 0.02a	60.4 ± 0.3a
RDI-1	14.5 ± 1.1a	14260 ± 492a	190 ± 26a	4.1 ± 0.1a	1.7 ± 0.0a	349 ± 17a	1.00 ± 0.00a	0.44 ± 0.03a	55.4 ± 0.2a
RDI-2	17.3 ± 1.5a	16999 ± 354a	266 ± 90a	4.4 ± 0.3a	1.8 ± 0.1a	353 ± 11a	0.92 ± 0.01a	0.30 ± 0.01a	58.2 ± 1.1a
RDI-3	14.8 ± 1.5a	15421 ± 515a	108 ± 22a	3.4 ± 0.4a	1.5 ± 0.1a	372 ± 13a	0.94 ± 0.01a	0.38 ± 0.00a	55.7 ± 0.8a
2017									
Control	12.2 ± 2.0a	8368 ± 328a	274 ± 35a	5.8 ± 0.1a	2.3 ± 0.0a	244 ± 3a	1.04 ± 0.02a	0.62 ± 0.00a	38.0 ± 0.7a
RDI-1	9.5 ± 1.1a	7016 ± 330a	295 ± 39a	5.5 ± 0.2a	2.4 ± 0.1a	262 ± 16a	1.00 ± 0.00a	0.58 ± 0.02a	38.9 ± 0.2a
RDI-2	13.8 ± 0.5a	9727 ± 175a	360 ± 52a	5.7 ± 0.2a	2.4 ± 0.1a	252 ± 11a	1.08 ± 0.02a	0.63 ± 0.02a	37.7 ± 0.3a
RDI-3	10.5 ± 1.4a	8402 ± 303a	105 ± 14b	4.7 ± 0.1a	2.2 ± 0.1a	286 ± 8a	0.97 ± 0.00a	0.60 ± 0.02a	41.1 ± 0.5a

Different letters indicate significant differences in the same year ($p < 0.05$, Tukey Test). Yield ($n=4$ per treatment, $t \cdot ha^{-1}$); Load ($n=4$, $fruit \cdot tree^{-1}$) Applied water (AW $n=4$, mm); pulp stone weight ratio fresh ($n=12$, PS F) and dry ($n=12$, PS D); Size ($n=4$, $Fruits \cdot kg^{-1}$); Maturity Index ($n=4$, MI); Bruising Incidence ($n=4$, B_I); Hardness ($n=40$, H, N)

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Figure captions

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