

1 **Running title:** Response of almond submitted to reclaimed water and deficit irrigation

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4 **Physiological responses of almond trees under regulated deficit irrigation using**
5 **saline and desalinated reclaimed water**
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23 **Abstract**
24

25 Regulated deficit irrigation (RDI) strategy using reclaimed water (RW) is becoming a
26 common procedure in some Mediterranean regions. Full and regulated deficit irrigation were
27 combined with desalinated (EC_w 1 dS m⁻¹) and saline (EC_w 3 dS m⁻¹) reclaimed water to irrigate
28 young potted almond trees over a 3-year period. The full irrigation treatments received 130% of
29 the crop evapotranspiration (ET_c) and the RDI treatments received 80% of ET_c during the kernel
30 filling. Trunk diameter decreased in both RDI treatments at the end of the experimental period,
31 although this response was more marked in the trees irrigated with saline RW. There were
32 negative relationships between shoot growth and leaf Na⁺ and Cl⁺ contents in the saline treated
33 trees, in which the accumulation of salts in leaves was associated with osmotic adjustment,
34 which was responsible for maintaining midday leaf turgor. Plant water status, measured by the
35 leaf and water potential, decreased in almond exposed to water deficit or irrigated with saline
36 RW, indicating a slight dehydration in these plants due to the difficulty in water uptake from the
37 substrate. Trees subjected to both deficit irrigation treatments showed lower stomatal
38 conductance values than full irrigated treatments during the RDI period. However, at the end of
39 experimental period, the lowest P_n values were found in plants irrigated with saline RW,
40 especially in trees irrigated with saline RW combined with RDI strategy, verifying the relevance
41 of duration of exposure to the stress. Saline and desalinated RW can be successfully used for
42 irrigating almond trees, which might be of great economic and competitive significance for
43 agriculture, but further research focused on a longer term should be carried out since
44 detrimental effects might appear. Deficit irrigation combined with saline RW in *P. dulcis* is not
45 recommended since it intensifies the negative effects of water and salt stress applied
46 individually.
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42 **Keywords:**

43 Ion uptake; osmotic adjustment; *Prunus dulcis*; salinity; treated wastewater; water relations

45 **Abbreviations**

46 EC_w: water electrical conductivity; SAR_w: water sodium adsorption ratio; Ψ_s: stem water
47 potential; Ψ_l: leaf water potential; Ψ_o: osmotic water potential; Ψ_t: turgor water potential ; Ψ_{100s}:
48 leaf osmotic potential at full turgor; P_n: net photosynthesis rate; g_s: stomatal conductance; E:
49 leaf transpiration rate; RGR: relative growth rate; VPD: vapour pressure deficit; ET_o:reference
50 evapotranspiration; FI; full irrigation, RDI; regulated deficit irrigation; S; saline reclaimed water;
51 D; desalinated reclaimed water; RW; reclaimed water; ET_c: crop evapotranspiration;

53 **1. Introduction.**

55 Water shortages are very frequent in many countries, and, together with the rising demand
56 for industry, growth of human population, climate change and specifically the trend towards
57 irrigated agriculture, have led to widespread problems of water scarcity, especially in
58 Mediterranean countries (Romero-Trigueros et al., 2020). This situation imposes the need to
59 optimize its use in all human activities (Fulcher et al., 2016, Álvarez et al., 2019). Among the
60 different productive uses of water, agriculture is by far the main water user in most water scarce
61 regions and, consequently, any potential improvement in the use of the available water
62 resources may play a role toward achieving a more sustainable use of water (Feres and
63 Soriano, 2007; Alcon et al., 2013). Stakeholders involved in water resource management are
64 looking for knowledge necessary to successfully irrigation management. To achieve this
65 objective, several water conservation strategies have been recommended, for example by using
66 precise tools for assessing crop water requirements (Mirás-Avalos et al., 2016), reclaimed water
67 (Grant et al., 2012; Nicolás et al., 2018; Erel et al., 2019), drought and salt tolerant genotypes or
68 rootstocks (Yadollahi et al., 2011; Jiménez et al., 2013; Álvarez et al., 2020), applying deficit
69 irrigation strategies (Ruiz-Sánchez et al., 2010; Romero-Trigueros et al., 2019a; Sánchez-
70 Blanco et al., 2019) and providing information about the water use requirements of the trees
71 depending on the phenological periods varying (Goldhamer and Beede, 2004).

72 Almond (*Prunus dulcis* (Mill.) D.A. Webb) is a major tree nut species whose production and
73 profitability are highly dependent on irrigation supply (Egea et al., 2010), especially in regions
74 such as the Mediterranean basin characterized by low rainfall and high evaporative demand
75 during the almond growing season. The physiological and morphological response of almond to
76 different irrigation levels has been extensively investigated (Torrecillas et al., 1988, Shackel,
77 2007; Egea et al., 2010; Espadafor et al., 2017). One of the most promising techniques to
78 maximize the water use in tree crops with little or no impact on crop yield and quality is
79 regulated deficit irrigation (RDI), which is defined as an irrigation strategy that provides irrigation
80 water below the full needs for specific development stages. Past research has revealed the
81 interest of this irrigation technique, with special attention paid to fruit crops, including almonds,

82 where it has been successfully employed (Goldhamer and Viveros, 2000; Girona et al., 2005;
83 Romero and Botía, 2006; Stewart et al., 2011).

84 Due to the increasing pressure on fresh water resources, the use of saline waters and
85 reclaimed water (RW) has become a reliable alternative for irrigation in agriculture (Acosta-
86 Motos et al., 2016; Romero-Trigueros et al., 2019b). This situation imposes the need to use
87 non-conventional water resources (desalinated or reclaimed water) for irrigation. Saline RW has
88 been successfully used in several fruit crops like citrus (Nicolás et al., 2016), olive (Erel et al.,
89 2019) and other species (Pedrero et al., 2018; Perulli et al., 2019). The main conclusions from
90 these studies are that treated wastewater can be used as an additional water resource for tree
91 irrigation in water-scarce Mediterranean environments. Little information is available on the
92 effect of using saline or reclaimed water to irrigate almond trees, although they represent an
93 important section of fruit trees production and such information be of great interest for designing
94 and promoting water conservation strategies (Phogat et al., 2018). Notably, the studies related
95 to salinity in almonds are specifically focused on the evaluation of salt tolerance in genotypes
96 (Rouhi et al., 2007; Dejampour et al., 2012; Rajabpoor et al., 2014; Bahrami et al., 2015) and
97 rootstocks (Doll et al., 2014; Momenpour et al., 2018). Research on the physiological
98 performance of *P. dulcis* irrigated with RW is still lacking, as the previous studies about salinity
99 tolerance of almonds have been conducted just on irrigation NaCl solutions and it is well known
100 that the chemical properties of the water applied also affect the response of plant, being the
101 kind of water a relevant aspect (Gómez-Bellot et al., 2013). In addition, increasing water
102 resource problems in arid regions are even leading to growers to use the RW combined with
103 deficit strategies (Mounzer et al., 2013). Many works have focused on water and salt stress
104 applied individually, but very few have evaluated the physiological changes that take place
105 when both stresses applied simultaneously, despite the fact of being known that the response
106 by plants to combination of these two stresses may differ if water and salt stress applied
107 individually or simultaneously (Brown et al., 2006; Sucre and Suárez, 2011; Glenn et al., 2012).

108 In general, under saline or drought conditions, plants reduce their water uptake capacity, but
109 using irrigation waters with high salt concentrations can also cause ion toxicities and nutritional
110 imbalance, depending on the kind of salts in the irrigation water (Acosta-Motos et al., 2014). In
111 this sense, RW may contain high concentrations of salts and, in consequence, their use in
112 irrigation for long term may have negative effects on soils and plants (Ayers and Westcot,
113 1985), particularly for those crops relatively sensitive to salinity, such as almonds (Phogat et al.,
114 2018). It is for these reasons that reducing salt concentration in these water resources, leading
115 to desalinated RW, could be an interesting option to reduce problems associated with salinity,
116 providing different solutions to agriculture of arid and semi-arid environments.

117 However, studies regarding the physiological effects of the irrigation with RW on almond
118 trees are lacking. The short-term response in term of growth and yield of almond trees to
119 irrigation with desalinated and saline RW combined with RDI strategy during 1 year has been
120 well described in a previous study (Vivaldi et al., 2019), but no information is available on its
121 physiological response of several years of irrigation with these non-conventional water

122 resources. Due to that the response of plants to salinity depends not only on the water
123 composition, but also on the time of exposure to salt stress (Nicolás et al., 2016), the present
124 work was carried out over a three-year period in *P. dulcis*, using the same trees tested by
125 Vivaldi et al. (2019) but after two additional growing seasons (three seasons in total from 2017
126 to 2019).

127 The main objective of this research was to study the mid-term effects on young almond
128 potted trees exposed to RW and different irrigation strategies, with special interest in plant
129 growth, ion accumulation and tree water status, in order to identify the mechanisms that the
130 plants develop to cope with these stresses. For this, a three-year experiment was designed to
131 evaluate single and interaction effects of different levels of irrigation and salinity, in an attempt
132 to check the sustainability of these irrigation strategies and to identify the most adequate in
133 each context. The results can also be important contributions to scheduling irrigation strategies
134 in water scarce regions, where low quality waters are often combined with deficit irrigation
135 strategies, as well as making more sustainable almond crop production in regions with limited
136 water resources. Our working hypothesis were: responses of almonds irrigated with reclaimed
137 water would be different from those of trees irrigated with saline water with the same level of
138 salinity; degree of salt stress tolerance would be correlated with the ability to control ion
139 accumulation in leaves; and reclaimed water would confer a protective effect on water stress
140 tolerance, as observed for other species.

141

142 **2. Material and methods**

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144 *2.1. Plant material and experimental conditions*

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146 The study was performed during three consecutive seasons (2017-2019) in an experimental
147 orchard cultivated with 3-years old (in 2017) almond trees (*Prunus dulcis* (Mill.) D.A. Webb, cv.
148 “Guara”) grafted on a hybrid Rootpak 20® of *Prunus besey* x *Prunus cerasifera* L-H. Bailey and
149 Ehrh. Plants were transplanted in January 2017 into 100L polyethylene pots (diameter 50 cm,
150 height 65 cm) filled with soil. The soil texture was classified as loam (44.78% sand, 12.32% clay
151 and 42.90% silt) (USDA textural soil classification). Plants were placed outdoors in a plot in the
152 University of Bari experimental station located in the southeast of Italy (Bari, Apulia Region)
153 (41°06'41”N, 16°52'57”E, 5 m above sea level). Pots were on the ground with a 1.85 x 2.10 m
154 planting system in rows oriented N-NE to S-SW.

155 The climate data were recorded by an automatic weather station located about 100 m from
156 the experimental site. Air temperature, solar radiation, air relative humidity, rainfall and wind
157 speed 2.5 m above the soil surface were collected every 15 min. These data were used for
158 calculating ET₀ and crop water requirements. All treatments received the same amounts of
159 fertilizer (N-P₂O₅-K₂O), applied through the drip irrigation system. Pest control practices and
160 pruning were those commonly used by growers in the area, and no weeds were allowed to
161 develop in the pots.

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1 163 *2.2. Treatments*

2 164

3 165 Two irrigation water sources were used. The first was desalinated RW (D), produced on the
4 166 DESERT prototype and obtained by treating secondary wastewater from the Bari (Italy)
5 167 secondary wastewater treatment plant, using ultrafiltration, active carbon, and reverse osmosis
6 168 to reach an EC_w of 1.0 dS m⁻¹. DESERT (Low-cost water DEsalination and SEnsor
7 169 Technology) is an innovative water desalination compact module that enhances the energy
8 170 savings by using solar energy developed in the framework of the DESERT European project
9 171 (Water JPI, 2016). The second source was saline RW (S), obtained by mixing the secondary
10 172 wastewater from Bari SWTP with the brine produced in the DESERT prototype, reaching a final
11 173 EC_w of 3 dS m⁻¹. For each water source, two irrigation treatments were established. The full
12 174 irrigation (FI) treatments involved irrigation with D or S during the whole season at 130% ET_c (D-
13 175 FI and S-FI, respectively). The RDI treatments consisted of irrigation at 130% ET_c, except
14 176 during the kernel filling, when received 80% of the ET_c (from late June to early August, 35-40
15 177 days) (D-RDI and S-RDI). Irrigation was applied each year from March to October. Therefore,
16 178 four irrigation treatments based on the water quality of the irrigation source and water quantity
17 179 were performed. The irrigation treatments consisted of a desalinated full irrigation treatment (D-
18 180 FI) irrigated through the growing season to fully satisfy crop water requirements using
19 181 desalinated reclaimed water, a saline full irrigation treatment (S-FI) using saline reclaimed
20 182 water, and two regulated deficit irrigation treatments: desalinated regulated deficit irrigation (D-
21 183 RDI) plants were irrigated using desalinated RW, and saline regulated deficit irrigation (S-RDI)
22 184 plants were irrigated using saline RW.

23 185 The irrigation doses were scheduled on the basis of the daily crop evapotranspiration (ET_c),
24 186 calculated by the water balance method. Et_c was calculated using the following equation
25 187 recommended by FAO:

26 188
$$Et_c = K_r \cdot K_c \cdot ET_0$$

27 189 where K_r is the reduction coefficient (K_r=0.75), K_c is the crop coefficient as described by Vivaldi
28 190 et al. (2019) and ET₀ is reference evapotranspiration. ET₀ was calculated by Penman-Montheith
29 191 equation using climate data provided by the climate station located 100 m from the experiment.
30 192 The water was supplied by drip irrigation with three pressure compensated drippers per tree,
31 193 each with a flow rate of 2 L h⁻¹. Trees were irrigated daily during the three-year experiment. The
32 194 irrigation was controlled automatically by a head unit programmer and the amount of water
33 195 applied for each irrigation treatment were measured with in-line flowmeters placed in each
34 196 treatment. A total of 40 trees made up this assay (10 per treatment). Each irrigation treatment
35 197 had five replicates, distributed in a completely randomized design. Each replicate consisted of
36 198 two trees.

37 199

38 200 *2.3. Water quality*

39 201

202 The inorganic solute content, pH and EC_w of each irrigation water source were assessed
203 monthly during the irrigation season in 2017, 2018 and 2019. The samples were collected in
204 glass bottles, transported in an ice chest to the laboratory, and stored at 5°C before processed
205 for chemical and physical analyses. The concentrations of Na⁺, K⁺, Ca⁺², B⁺³ and Mg⁺ were
206 determined by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-ICAP 6500 DUO
207 Thermo, England). Anions (Cl⁻, NO³⁻, PO⁴³⁻, SO⁴²⁻) were analysed by ion chromatography with a
208 liquid chromatograph (Metrohm, Switzerland). EC_w was determined using a PC-2700 meter
209 (Eutech Instruments, Singapore), and pH was measured with a pH-meter Crison-507 (Crison
210 Instruments S.A., Barcelona, Spain).

211 212 *2.4. Plant growth and water status measurements*

213
214 At the beginning and at the end of each growing season, trunk diameter was measured in
215 five trees per treatment with a sliding caliper, 0.20 m above the soil surface. Shoot length values
216 were collected during growing period in 2018, by measuring the length of two shoots for each
217 tree and four trees per treatment, and the relative growth rate (RGR) was calculated as the rate
218 of increase of length per unit of initial shoot length. At the end of growing period in 2018, twenty
219 leaves per tree in four trees per treatment were washed with distilled water and dried at 80°C,
220 before stored at room temperature for inorganic solute analyses. The concentration of Cl⁻ was
221 analyzed by chloride analyzer (Chloride Analyser Model 926, Sherwood Scientific Ltd.) in the
222 aqueous extracts obtained when mixing 100 mg of dry vegetable powder with 40 mL of water
223 before shaking for 30 min and filtering. The concentrations of Na⁺ were determined in a
224 digestion extract with HNO₃:HClO₄ (2:1, v/v) by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry
225 (ICP-ICAP 6500 DUO Thermo, England).

226 Seasonal changes in leaf water potential (Ψ_l), stem water potential (Ψ_s), leaf osmotic
227 potential (Ψ_o), leaf turgor potential (Ψ_t), leaf osmotic potential at full turgor (Ψ_{100s}), stomatal
228 conductance (g_s), net photosynthesis rate (P_n) and transpiration (E) were determined in five
229 trees per treatment in mature leaves at midday. Ψ_l was estimated according to the method
230 described by Scholander et al. (1965), using a pressure chamber (Model 3000; Soil Moisture
231 Equipment Co, Santa Barbara, CA, USA), for which leaves were placed in the chamber within
232 20 s of collection and pressurized at a rate of 0.02 MPa s⁻¹ (Turner, 1988). Ψ_s was measured in
233 non-transpiring leaves that had been bagged with both a plastic sheet and aluminum foil for at
234 least 2 h before measurement in order to prevent leaf transpiration: in this way leaf water
235 potential equaled stem water potential (Begg and Turner, 1970). In six representatives dates
236 during the experimental period, leaves from the Ψ_l measurements were frozen in liquid nitrogen
237 (-196°C) and stored at -30°C. After thawing, the osmotic potential (Ψ_o) was measured in the
238 extracted sap using a WESCOR 5520 vapour pressure osmometer (Wescor Inc., Logan, UT,
239 USA), according to Gucci et al. (1991). Ψ_t was estimated as the difference between leaf water
240 potential (Ψ_l) and leaf osmotic potential (Ψ_o). Throughout the experimental period, leaf osmotic
241 potential at full turgor (Ψ_{100s}) was estimated as indicated above for Ψ_o , using excised leaves with

242 their petioles placed in distilled water overnight to reach full saturation. Ψ_1 and Ψ_{100s} were only
243 measured during 2018 and 2019. Leaf stomatal conductance (g_s), net photosynthesis rate (P_n)
244 and leaf transpiration rate (E) were determined in attached leaves using a gas exchange system
245 (LI-6400, LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA), while the P_n/g_s ratio was used as an estimation of the
246 intrinsic water use efficiency.

247 248 *2.5. Statistical analyses of data*

249
250 The data were analysed by one-way ANOVA using Statgraphics Plus for Windows 5.1
251 software. Ratio and percentage data were subjected to an arcsine square-transformation before
252 statistical analysis to ensure homogeneity of variance. Treatments means were separated by
253 Duncan's Multiple Range Test ($P < 0.05$). Pearson's correlation analysis was used to test for
254 relationship between leaf ion concentrations and RGR of shoot length.

255 256 **3. Results**

257 258 *3.1. Irrigation, water quality and volume applied*

259
260 Significant differences on the water quality were found between the two irrigation sources
261 during the whole experiment (Table 1). Saline reclaimed water (S) had high salinity, with EC_w
262 values (≈ 3 dS m^{-1}) higher than those measured in the desalinated reclaimed water (D) (≈ 1 - 1.1
263 dS m^{-1}). S also increased the concentrations of some nutrients such as NO_3^- , PO_4^{3-} , SO_4^{2-} , K^+ ,
264 Mg^{+2} and Ca^{+2} with respect to D, whereas the concentration of B^{+3} remained invariable. The high
265 Na^+ concentration observed in S, also increased the water sodium adsorption ratio (SAR_w) level
266 from a mean value close to 4.6 [meq/L] $^{0.5}$ observed in the D source to about 6.7 [meq/L] $^{0.5}$ in the
267 S source. It is also noteworthy that concentrations of phytotoxic elements such as Na^+ and Cl^-
268 concentrations were clearly different in each irrigation water source. D had lower Na^+ and Cl^-
269 concentration as a result of desalination process, reaching on the average, values of Na^+ (165
270 mg L^{-1}) and Cl^- (211 mg L^{-1}), as compared to the S (328 for Na^+ and 416 mg L^{-1} for Cl^-).

271 The mean annual ET_0 and rainfall for the three experimental seasons were 1291 and 586
272 mm (Fig. 1) The amounts of irrigation water applied in 2017, 2018 and 2019 in the full irrigation
273 treatments were 368, 246 and 221 mm, while in the RDI treatments were 305, 201 and 184 mm
274 respectively, which meant reductions of about 20% each year in the RDI treatments (Fig. 1).

275 276 *3.2 Plant growth and leaf mineral concentrations*

277
278 Regulated deficit irrigation and reclaimed water affected the growth and size of the almond
279 trees and a significant decrease in trunk diameter and shoot length compared with D-FI trees
280 was measured during the experimental period. However, the specific response depended on
281 the treatment and parameter in question. Throughout the experiment, trunk diameter was

282 similar in all treatments, but began to be inhibited three years after application of the RDI (Table
283 2). At the end of the experimental period, trunk diameter was significantly inhibited by both RDI
284 compared to full irrigation trees, the smallest plants (4.2 cm), being those subjected to RDI
285 combined with saline RW. As regard RGR as a function of shoot length, no differences between
286 the D-FI and D-RDI treatments were observed, but lower rates were found in the trees irrigated
287 with saline RW (Fig. 2; $F= 17.91$, $P= 0.00003$). While no accumulation of Na^+ and Cl^- was found
288 in the leaves of trees submitted to D-RDI treatment compared with D-FI treatment, the contents
289 of both ions increased in the leaves of the trees irrigated with saline RW (Fig. 2). In all
290 treatments, the Cl^- content in the leaves was markedly higher than the corresponding of Na^+
291 content (between 12 and 30 fold higher), despite that the concentrations of both ions in the
292 irrigation water were similar (7.0 and 5.5 mmol L^{-1} in D; 11.7 and 10.6 mmol L^{-1} in S, for Na^+ and
293 Cl^- respectively). This means that *P. dulcis* plants are able to restrict Na^+ accumulation in leaves
294 to a greater extent than Cl^- . Thus, the trees increased their leaf Cl^- content sharply, reaching a
295 value of 2.4% in S-RDI plants. The highest Cl^- value was measured in leaves of S-RDI plants,
296 while the highest Na^+ value was in S-FI, which means that the retention and transport of both
297 ions was different. Significant relationships between RGR and leaf Na^+ and Cl^- content were
298 observed in the almond trees in 2018 at the end of the deficit irrigation period (Fig. 2).

300 3.3. Plant water relations and osmotic adjustment

302 The seasonal evolution of stem water potential (Ψ_s) and leaf water potential (Ψ_l) during the
303 experimental period for both water sources (D and S) and irrigation treatments (FI and RDI) is
304 shown in Fig. 3A, B. Plants irrigated at full water requirements using desalinated RW
305 maintained the Ψ_s close to -1.0 MPa during the three-year experimental period (Fig. 3A). By
306 contrast, under drought conditions, the Ψ_s values progressively decreased in both RDI
307 treatments compared with full irrigation trees, reaching values at midday of -2.5 and -2.6 MPa
308 for the S-RDI and D-RDI treatments, respectively at the end of deficit irrigation period in 2018.
309 However, these values were never reached in 2019 which was a year characterized by a larger
310 amount of rainfall over the deficit irrigation period and lower evaporative demand compared with
311 2017 and 2018 (Fig. 1). Once full irrigation conditions were restored, Ψ_s in the RDI treatments
312 immediately recovered and matched that of the full irrigation trees during the first two growing
313 seasons. While in 2019, this recovery took more time, especially in S-RDI, and differences
314 among treatments only disappeared at the end of the experimental period.

315 No pronounced differences in Ψ_s were found between trees of both full irrigation treatments
316 (D-FI and S-FI) during most of the experimental period, although lower Ψ_s values were
317 observed in plants irrigated with saline RW compared with trees irrigated with desalinated RW in
318 2019. Similarly, in plants subjected to both RDI, 3 years after the beginning of the irrigation with
319 reclaimed water S-RDI plants had the lowest Ψ_s . As expected, Ψ_s and Ψ_l were higher in general
320 in the trees of both full irrigation treatments than in both RDI treatments, although Ψ_s measured

321 at midday showed lower variability than Ψ_t (Fig. 3A, B). Thus, Ψ_s was able to detect differences
322 among treatments to a greater extent than Ψ_t .

323 The application of the RDI strategy, with desalinated or saline RW, reduced the leaf osmotic
324 potential (Ψ_o) values compared with D-FI during the water stress periods, which induced similar
325 values of leaf turgor potential (Ψ_t) in the D-FI and S-RDI treatments, and even higher in D-RDI
326 at the end of the deficit period in 2019 (Fig. 3C). The lowest values for Ψ_t were found in D-RDI
327 trees, reaching a value of 0.5MPa during the RDI period in 2018, coinciding with the lowest
328 value of Ψ_s (Fig. 3D).

329 At the end of the deficit irrigation periods in 2018 and 2019, leaf osmotic potential values at
330 full turgor (Ψ_{100s}) decreased in trees irrigated with saline RW (S-FI and S-RDI), especially under
331 the combination of saline reclaimed water and regulated deficit irrigation (S-RDI) (Table 3). This
332 reduction was indicative of the osmotic adjustment that took place in these trees as a
333 consequence of the irrigation (0.37 MPa and 0.79 MPa for S-FI and S-RDI treatments,
334 respectively).

335

336 3.4. Leaf gas exchange

337

338 Stomatal conductance (g_s) and the photosynthetic rate (P_n) are shown in Fig. 4. The trees
339 subjected to both deficit irrigation treatments showed lower g_s values than the full irrigated trees
340 during the RDI period, especially in the case of trees irrigated with desalinated RW in 2018 (Fig.
341 4A). Such reductions with respect to the full irrigation trees were also observed in
342 photosynthesis levels, although the differences were less marked (Fig. 4B).

343 Once well-watered conditions were restored, both the P_n and g_s values of the plants that had
344 been exposed to deficit irrigation showed recovery with respect to the full irrigation treatments
345 and similar values of P_n and g_s were obtained in all treatments at the end of each growing
346 season. Trees irrigated at full water requirements using saline water reduced P_n with respect to
347 D-FI in 2019, 3 years after the beginning of the saline irrigation. At that time, the lowest P_n
348 values were found in S-RDI plants, this is when the two constraints were combined.

349 In general, trees subjected to RDI treatments showed higher P_n/g_s ratios (intrinsic water use
350 efficiency) than full irrigated trees during the deficit irrigation period, but these differences
351 between treatments disappeared when irrigation was restored (Fig. 4C). All treatments showed
352 a decline in leaf transpiration rate (E) as the evaporative demand of the atmosphere increased,
353 whereas more pronounced E reductions were found in D-RDI and S-RDI treatments in response
354 to a decrease in the irrigation amount (Fig. 4D). This parameter changed in the RDI treatments
355 according to the irrigation applied in each phase. In the RDI treatments, when irrigation pattern
356 was changed, the trees increased or decreased their leaf transpiration (E) and adjusted to the
357 new conditions, but with some particular characteristics. When trees were exposed to deficit
358 irrigation after full irrigation conditions, plants of both RDI treatments restricted their E in relation
359 to the full irrigation trees. This reduction was earlier and more marked in plants irrigated with
360 desalinated RW, while the leaf rate readjustment in S-RDI took more time and during the first

361 deficit irrigation period the leaf transpiration rate of S-RDI was similar to that of full irrigation
362 plants, despite the lower levels of water applied (Fig. 4D). Once well-watered conditions were
363 restored, the E in D-RDI plants quickly recovered and their E matched that of trees that had
364 been well irrigated since the beginning of the experiment. In contrast, E values in the S-RDI
365 plants increased more slowly and even were significantly lower than that in full irrigated trees at
366 the end of growing season in 2017.

367 The net photosynthetic rates (P_n) decreased as stomatal conductance decreased,
368 particularly when g_s was below $150 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, (Fig. 5A). In addition, plants showed higher
369 P_n/g_s ratios when stomatal conductance decreased from maximum to around $100 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$,
370 but when $g_s < 100 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, the decline in P_n/g_s was more pronounced (Fig. 5B). Only trees of
371 the D-RDI treatment reached g_s values below $100 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ during the deficit irrigation
372 period. Fig. 6 presents the response of g_s for all treatments to the decline of Ψ_s . Stomatal
373 conductance was maintained relatively high until Ψ_s reached at about -1.2 MPa . Afterwards, it
374 declined gradually, and by the time Ψ_s was below -2 MPa , g_s was lower than $100 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

375 376 4. Discussion

377
378 Fruit trees in general have demonstrated wide variability in their reaction to water stress and
379 salinity. Variations in plant growth have been previously used to identify water or salt tolerant
380 plants (Tattini and Traversi, 2008; Sidari et al., 2008). In our experiment, shoot growth in *Prunus*
381 *dulcis* plants was more influenced by the irrigation with saline reclaimed water than by water
382 deficit. However, Pedrero et al. (2015) irrigated young grapefruit trees for 3 consecutive years
383 with saline RW with the same level of salinity used in our essay ($\text{EC}=3 \text{ dS m}^{-1}$) reporting no
384 reductions of the canopy volume, which confirms the differences between species, and points to
385 the higher relative salt sensitivity of almond compared with grapefruit when using reclaimed
386 water.

387 The effects of salinity and water stress on plant growth were additive, as trees submitted to
388 RDI combined with saline RW had the lowest values of shoot length and trunk diameter, as
389 previously reported by Glenn et al. (2012). Each of the different stresses tested in our study
390 caused differences in growth responses of *P. dulcis*, indicating that the kind of stress and their
391 interaction are key factors to success when using reclaimed water and /or regulated deficit
392 irrigation strategies. In contrast to shoot length, trunk diameter was not reduced by saline RW
393 irrigation under full irrigation, while trees submitted to both deficit irrigation treatments showed
394 the lowest values of trunk diameter. Therefore, in almond trees, trunk growth was more
395 sensitive to water deficit than to salinity. The reported differential response between shoot
396 elongation and trunk diameter to salinity and deficit irrigation might be attributed to the variation
397 in the time required by salts to affect each parameter. In fact, not all growth parameters are
398 similarly affected by ionic and osmotic stress. This result is in agreement with Munns and Tester
399 (2008), who reported that the reduction in growth parameters like plant size or trunk cross
400 sectional area is evident much later than the reduction in cell production in young leaves.

401 *P. dulcis* plants can cope with water shortage during kernel filling or irrigation with saline RW
402 with no important reduction in growth. However, growth was markedly reduced by the
403 combination of saline reclaimed water and regulated deficit irrigation, which is a negative
404 aspect, as the reduction of the tree canopy could affect the crop fruit load /potential yield
405 (Nicolás et al., 2016; Romero-Trigueros et al., 2017).

406 In general, an increase in Na⁺ and Cl⁻ concentration in the irrigation water led to an
407 accumulation of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in the plant tissues of numerous species (Munns and Tester, 2008;
408 Zrig et al., 2015; Álvarez et al., 2018; Momenpour et al., 2018). In our study, higher Na⁺ and Cl⁻
409 contents were observed in the leaves of *P. dulcis* trees irrigated with S, correlating with their
410 lower shoot growth (Acosta-Motos et al., 2017). Under salt stress conditions, the ability to
411 control the Na and/or Cl contents of the leaves, minimizing entry through the roots, retaining
412 ions in the roots and lower stem and/or limiting transport to the aerial parts, is a crucial
413 mechanism that can result in improved plant growth and survival under saline conditions
414 (Pérez-Alfocea et al., 2000; Colmer et al., 2005).

415 In the present study, *P. dulcis* were not able to retain Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in the woody parts of the
416 tree, especially for Cl⁻ ions, although the retention and transport of each ion was different, as
417 previously reported by Tattini and Traversi (2008). Trees irrigated with saline RW of 3 dS m⁻¹ EC
418 increased their Cl⁻ content in leaves, especially in S-RDI, while the increase in the Na⁺ content
419 was similarly for both levels of irrigation, regardless the amount of water. The greater decline in
420 plant growth observed in the almond trees submitted to RDI combined with saline RW could be
421 attributed to excessive Cl⁻ in leaves. Indeed, in certain species Cl⁻ toxicity seems to be more
422 severe than Na⁺ (Fornes et al., 2007).

423 In plants exposed to water deficit, turgor maintenance is usually obtained by means of
424 increasing concentrations of solutes as a consequence of cell volume reduction, which has
425 been described as more efficient than turgor maintenance achieved through the production of
426 organic solutes (Navarro et al., 2009; Turner, 2018). In our assay, the almond trees exposed to
427 RDI reduced leaf osmotic potential as a tolerance mechanism to drought, which allow trees to
428 maintain the high cell turgor pressure values. In addition, the irrigation with saline RW pointed to
429 lower values of leaf osmotic potential at full turgor in almond trees, which is indicative of the
430 osmotic adjustment process that occurs in these trees, as previously found in almond trees
431 subjected to similar salinity levels (Shibli et al., 2003; Zrig et al., 2015). However, osmotic
432 adjustment was not observed in almond trees exposed to water deficit when irrigated with
433 desalinated RW.

434 Similar observations are described in other species grown under salinity and water stress,
435 where lower osmotic adjustment was found in water stress than in salt stress (Sucre and
436 Suarez, 2011; Álvarez et al., 2012; 2018). The osmotic adjustment can be achieved by uptake
437 the inorganic ion from the soil solution or by synthesis of organic solutes, the latter being the
438 more cost-effective strategy (Slama et al., 2008). This could indicate that these solutes (Na and
439 Cl) were responsible for the osmotic adjustment observed in almond plants when irrigated with
440 saline RW. Zrig et al. (2015) found that Cl⁻ and Na⁺ were the main osmolytes involved in

441 osmotic adjustment in almonds subjected to salinity. However, this mechanism of leaf turgor
442 maintenance by the accumulation of inorganic solutes, especially Cl^- , can have deleterious
443 effects on the plant (Pérez-Pérez et al., 2007). In the present investigation, it appeared that the
444 high accumulation of Cl^- in leaves of both S, especially S-RDI may have been responsible for
445 the reduction in growth and death of older leaves observed in these plants.

446 Plant water status, measured by the leaf and water potential, decreased in almond exposed
447 to water deficit or irrigated with saline RW, indicating a slight dehydration in these plants (Zrig et
448 al., 2015; Espadafor et al., 2017). During the first two years, the lowest values of the Ψ_s and Ψ_l
449 were observed in D-RDI, producing the lowest values of stomatal conductance and leaf
450 transpiration rate. However, in the last year of the experiment (2019) the lowest values were
451 observed for plants irrigated with S, especially when combined with RDI, due to the
452 accumulation of salts together with passive dehydration (Slama et al., 2008). Álvarez and
453 Sánchez-Blanco (2015) reported that stem water potential measured at midday can be used as
454 an indicator of the stress resulting from water and salt stress in *C. laevis* plants, not only with
455 salinity and water deficit separately but also when combined. A similar response was also noted
456 in our essay with *P. dulcis* when saline and desalinated reclaimed water was used for irrigation
457 combined with RDI, as Ψ_s was the most discriminating indicator for these stresses (Choné et al.,
458 2001).

459 *P. dulcis* is considered a species with high stomatal sensitivity to water deficit, that prevents
460 xylem cavitation by controlling stomatal function (Espadafor et al., 2017). Studies aimed at
461 developing regulated deficit irrigation strategies in almonds have reported that plant water
462 status had a dominant role in controlling stomatal closure and the reduction in stomatal
463 conductance was attributed to a decrease in leaf and stem water potential. The results of this
464 study are consistent with the finding of Shakel et al. (2007), who reported a reduction of 50% in
465 g_s when Ψ_s was -1.4 to -1.8 MPa, a level of water stress that may be moderate for almond, as
466 values as low as -4.0 MPa have been reported for severe stress levels. The decline in g_s
467 observed in the present work in response to the lowering of Ψ_s suggests a high sensitivity to
468 almond to water deficit. In this sense, almond trees are able to adapt to a reduced moisture
469 level in the soil and, as a result, leaf transpiration rate (E) is reduced (Espadafor et al., 2017). In
470 our experiment, environmental conditions and level of irrigation applied clearly affected
471 transpiration, as pointed out by Phogat et al. (2013), Álvarez et al. (2013) and Fereres et al.
472 (2014).

473 Although the amount of water applied was the same in both RDI treatments, the lowest
474 values for both E and g_s were found in the trees submitted to RDI combined with desalinated
475 RW (for the first two years) and in trees submitted to RDI combined with saline RW for the third
476 year. This indicates that these parameters do not only depend on the amount of water applied
477 but also on the EC of the water applied.

478 The inhibition of transpiration under deficit irrigation or salinity is seen as an adaptation and it
479 is one of the key mechanisms allowing plants to reduce water losses, delay the onset of more
480 severe stress under drought conditions and limit the accumulation of toxic ions in the shoots in

481 plants exposed to salinity. Evapotranspiration reductions have been attributed to lower stomatal
1 482 conductance in the short term and to the reduction in leaf area in the long term as stress
2 483 increases (Ali et al., 2012; Espadafor et al., 2017). In this sense, wilting and a great leaf loss
3 484 was observed during the last growing season in S-RDI treatment, when salt injury became
4 485 evident in the old leaves.
5 486

6 487 A decline in P_n due to irrigation with saline reclaimed water has also been described in a
7 488 variety of species, such as Carrizo citrange, a plant sensitive to salinity (Pérez-Pérez et al.,
8 489 2007) or in *M. communis*, an ornamental plant tolerant to salinity (Acosta-Motos et al., 2014).
9 490 Nevertheless, this parameter is not always decreased by the irrigation with reclaimed water.
10 491 Nicolás et al. (2016) reported that the rates of photosynthesis were not reduced in mandarin
11 492 trees after six years irrigating with reclaimed water with the same salt level (3 dS m^{-1}) and
12 493 Hassena et al. (2018) mentioned that irrigation with treated wastewater significantly increased
13 494 the P_n in young olive trees in similar experimental conditions.
14 495

15 496 As indicated in the results, no pronounced differences in photosynthesis were observed
16 497 during the first two years of the experiment between plants irrigated under full irrigation,
17 498 regardless the quality of the water source (D-FI and S-FI). However, the cumulative effect of
18 499 irrigation with saline RW (3 dS m^{-1}) for a longer period (3 years) was a reduction of P_n . In our
19 500 study, trees submitted to the combination of water deficit and saline RW showed a small degree
20 501 of P_n reduction during the first two years. However, the third year the reduction in P_n and g_s was
21 502 more pronounced in S-RDI than in D-RDI plants. Several works have verified that the
22 503 morphological and physiological responses of plants to the combination of water and salt stress
23 504 are more complex than a simple additive effect of water and salt stress applied individually
24 505 (Mittler 2006, Pérez-Pérez et al., 2007). Some studies have shown that drought may magnify
25 506 the adverse effects of salinity, reporting more negative impact on plant growth than their
26 507 individual effects (Álvarez and Sánchez-Blanco, 2015). However, numerous studies have
27 508 demonstrated that the addition of salt to plants submitted to water deficit actually has a positive
28 509 effect on biomass accumulation in several species and found that salinity mitigates the
29 510 deleterious effects of water stress and enhances plant survival (Glenn and Brown, 1998;
30 511 Martínez et al., 2005; Alla et al., 2011, Sucre and Suárez, 2011; Glenn et al. 2012).
31 512 Álvarez and Sánchez-Blanco (2014; 2015) in *C. citrinus* and *C. laevis* reported that if plants
32 513 show g_s values below $100 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for long periods, reductions in P_n are mainly caused by
33 514 non-stomatal factors and intrinsic water use efficiency is sharply reduced, which could delay
34 515 plant relief or cause irreversibly effects. As indicated in the results the values of g_s observed in
35 516 our study were maintained relatively high, being above $200 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ during most of the
36 517 experiment, while g_s values lower than $100 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, corresponding to $\Psi_s < -2 \text{ MPa}$ were
37 518 only observed occasionally. In this sense, the subsequent recovery in P_n that occurred in these
38 519 plants when irrigation was restored suggest that water stress did no cause irreversible damage
39 520 to leaf tissue, indicating that the maximal PSII primary photochemistry was not permanently
40 521 affected-by the stressful conditions experienced by plants and leaves can recover
41 522 photosynthetic capacity after stress (Álvarez et al., 2018).
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522 **5. Conclusion**

523 Our results showed that although both regulated deficit irrigation and saline reclaimed water
524 slightly decrease tree vegetative growth in *Prunus dulcis*, plants displayed different
525 morphological and physiological responses to each stress, being different between water and
526 salt stress and the combination of both stresses. The use of desalinated reclaimed water of low
527 conductivity (1 dS m^{-1}) combined or not with RDI treatment is a viable irrigation management
528 strategy for saving water without compromising the overall performance of the almond trees.
529 The tolerance of *P. dulcis* to drought was related to an effective mechanism of stomatal control
530 and its ability to recover water status and photosynthesis capacity, accompanied by an
531 increased water use efficiency (P_n/g_s ratio), which are aspect positives of deficit irrigation.
532 *Prunus dulcis* responded to irrigation with saline reclaimed water of moderate conductivity (3 dS
533 m^{-1}) combined or not with RDI treatment by reducing vegetative growth, restricting Na^+
534 accumulation in leaves in a great extent than Cl^- and showing osmotic adjustment. Thought
535 *Prunus dulcis* appears to develop mechanisms to confront drought and salt stress separately,
536 saline reclaimed water combined with deficit irrigation is not recommended, due to it reduced
537 photosynthesis, affected the capacity of plants to recover water and carbon balance after water
538 stress and induced a great reduction in growth due to leaf tissue dehydration and the high
539 content of Cl and Na accumulated in leaves. Based on the results of this study, desalinated and
540 saline reclaimed water can be used as additional water resources for almond tree irrigation. The
541 use of desalinated RW could be successfully applied combined or not with RDI strategies, while
542 the use of saline RW could be only recommended if full irrigation is carried out so to ensure the
543 sustainability of almond trees. This finding should be borne in mind when deciding irrigation
544 strategies for use in this kind of crops in water-scarce Mediterranean environments.

545

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560

561 **Author contributions**

1 562 GAV, SC and FP: design of the research; CRT, FP, GC and GL: performance of the
2
3 563 research; CRT and GC: data analysis; GAV, CRT and SA: data Interpretation; SA: writing the
4
5 564 manuscript; GAV, CRT and SA: critical revision of the manuscript; GAV and SC: funding
6
7 565 acquisition. All authors reviewed and commented on the manuscript.
8

9 566
10 567 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

11 568 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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13 570

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798
 799 **Figure captions**

800
 801 **Fig. 1.** Monthly values of reference evapotranspiration (ET_0 , mm month⁻¹), rainfall (R, mm month⁻¹),
 802 vapour pressure deficit (VPD, kPa), and irrigation in the full irrigation (FI) and regulated deficit irrigation
 803 (RDI) treatments (mm month⁻¹), during 2017-2019.

804
 805 **Fig 2.** Relationship between RGR as a function of shoot length and Cl⁻ (A) and Na⁺ (B) leaf content at
 806 the end of the growing season in 2018 in *P. dulcis* plants subjected to different irrigation treatments. Each
 807 point represents a single plant. Symbols represent the different treatments: Desalinated full irrigated (filled
 808 circles), desalinated regulated deficit irrigation (open circles), saline full irrigation (filled triangles) and
 809 saline regulated deficit irrigation (open triangles).

810
 811 **Fig. 3** Evolution of the stem water potential (Ψ_s , A), leaf water potential (Ψ_l , B), leaf osmotic potential
 812 (Ψ_o , C) and leaf turgor potential (Ψ_t , D) in *P. dulcis* plants submitted to different irrigation treatments.
 813 Values are means \pm s.e., n = 5. Symbols represent the different treatments: Desalinated full irrigated (filled
 814 circles), desalinated regulated deficit irrigation (open circles), saline full irrigation (filled triangles) and
 815 saline regulated deficit irrigation (open triangles). Dashed lines represent the beginning and end of the
 816 regulated deficit irrigation periods

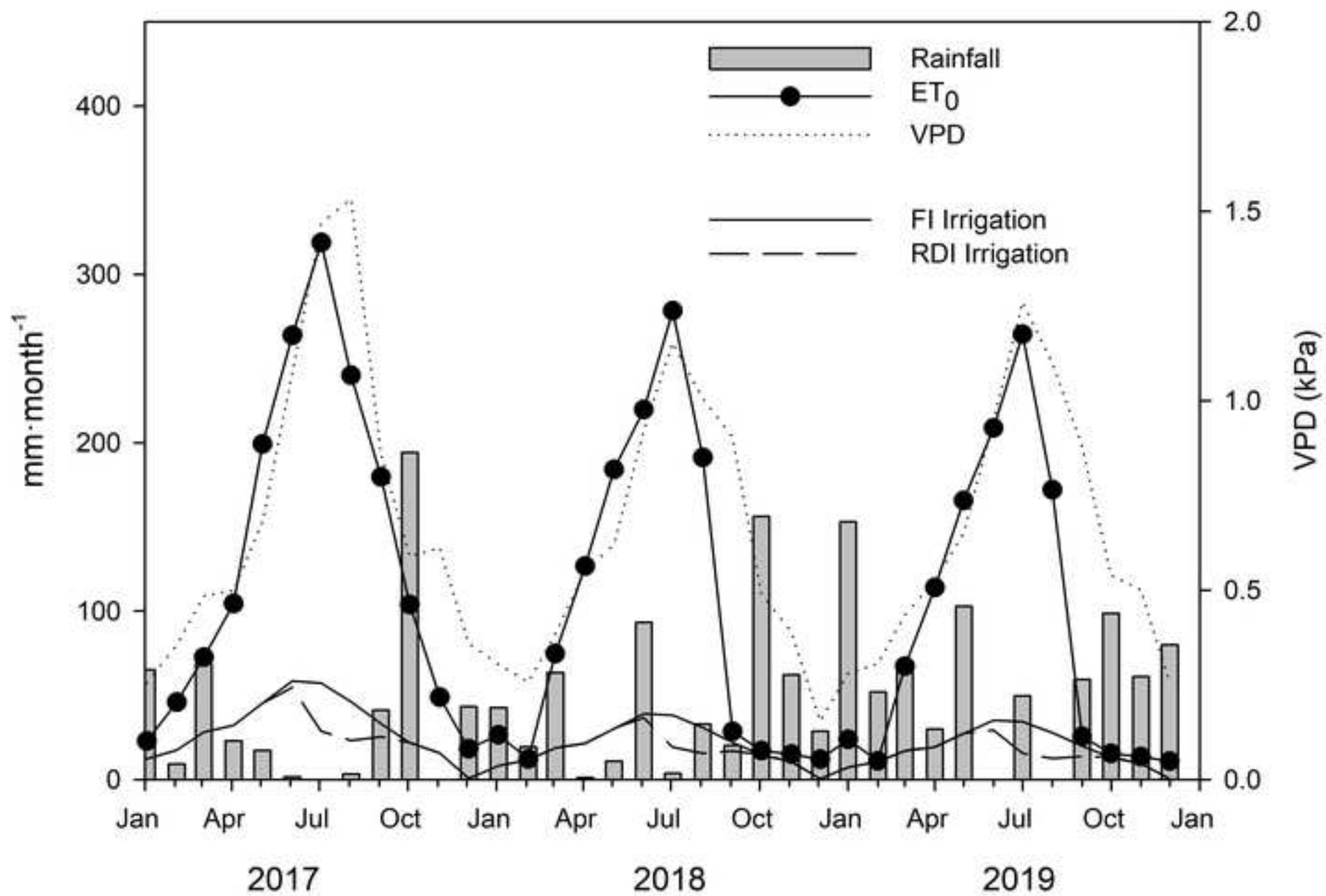
817
 818 **Fig. 4.** Evolution of stomatal conductance (g_s , A), net photosynthesis rate (P_n ; B), intrinsic water use
 819 efficiency (P_n/g_s , C) and leaf transpiration rate (E, D) in *P. dulcis* plants submitted to different irrigation
 820 treatments. Values are means \pm s.e., n = 5. Symbols represent the different treatments: Desalinated full
 821 irrigated (filled circles), desalinated regulated deficit irrigation (open circles), saline full irrigation (filled
 822 triangles) and saline regulated deficit irrigation (open triangles). Dashed lines represent the beginning and
 823 end of the regulated deficit irrigation periods.

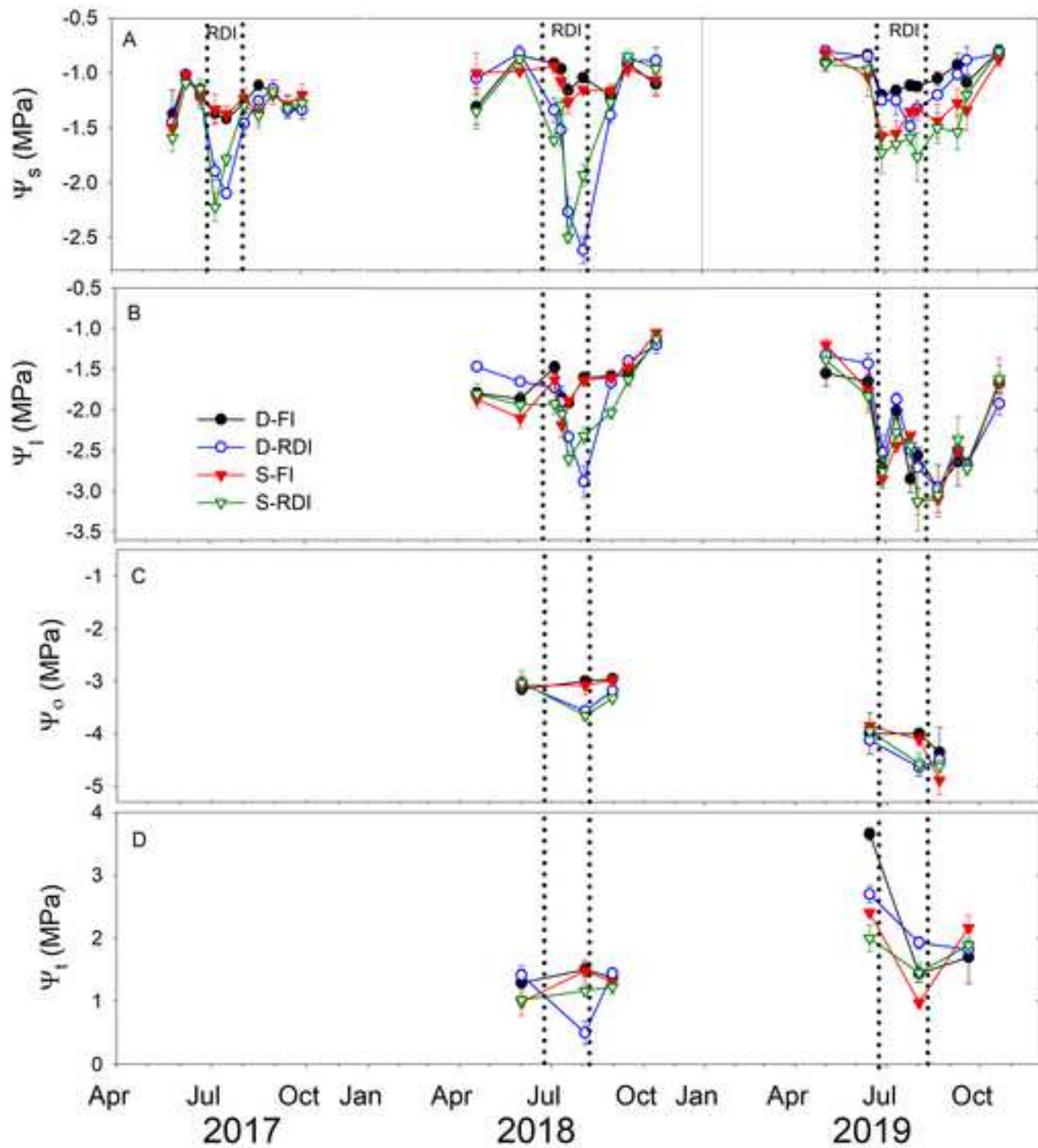
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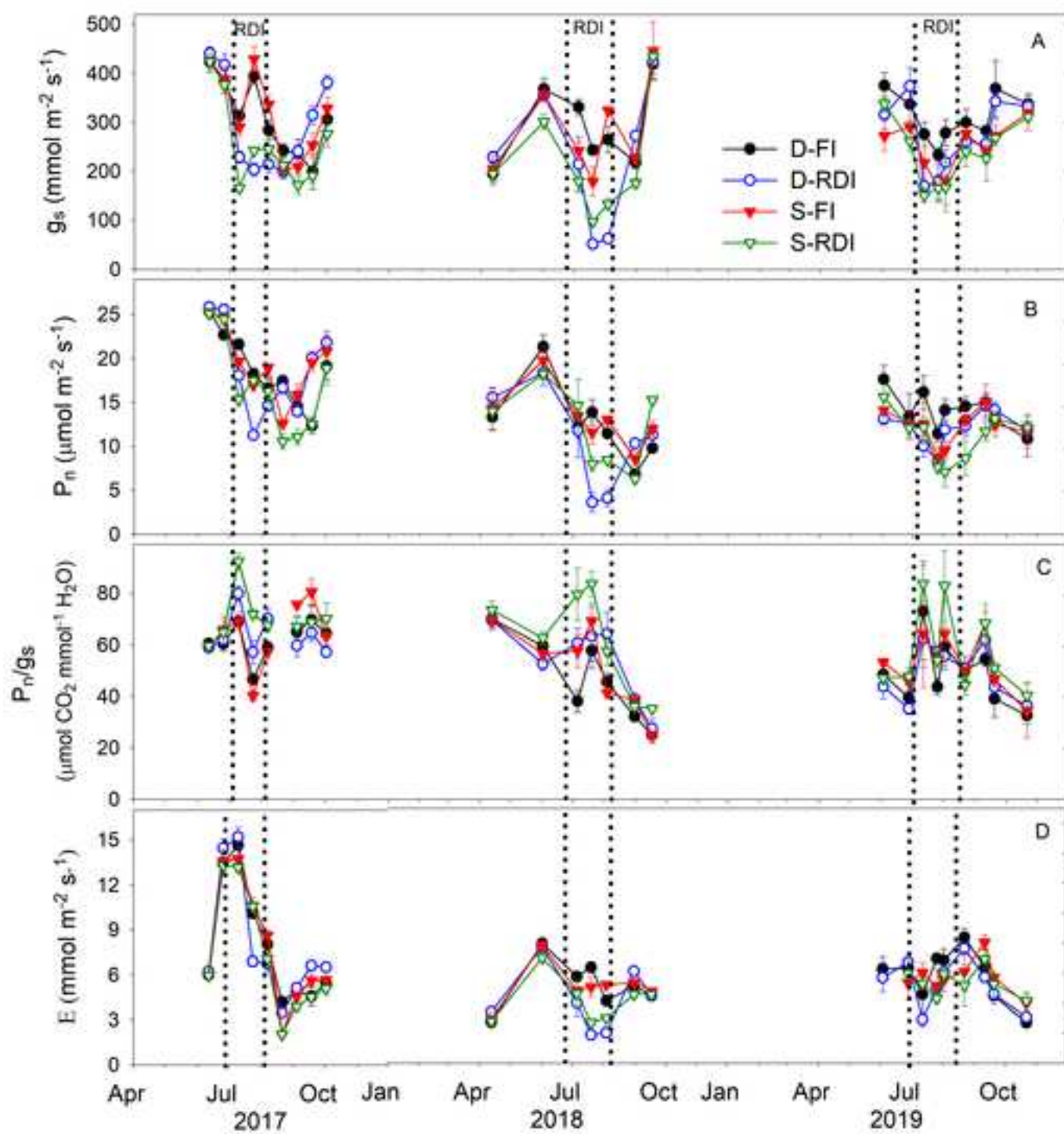
825 **Fig 5.** Relationship between net photosynthetic rate (P_n) and stomatal conductance (g_s) (A) and between
826 intrinsic water use efficiency (P_n/g_s) and g_s (B) in *P. dulcis* plants submitted to different irrigation
827 treatments. Each point represents a single plant.

828
829 **Fig 6.** Relation between stem water potential (Ψ_s) and stomatal conductance (g_s) in *P. dulcis* plants
830 submitted to different irrigation treatments. Each point represents a single plant.

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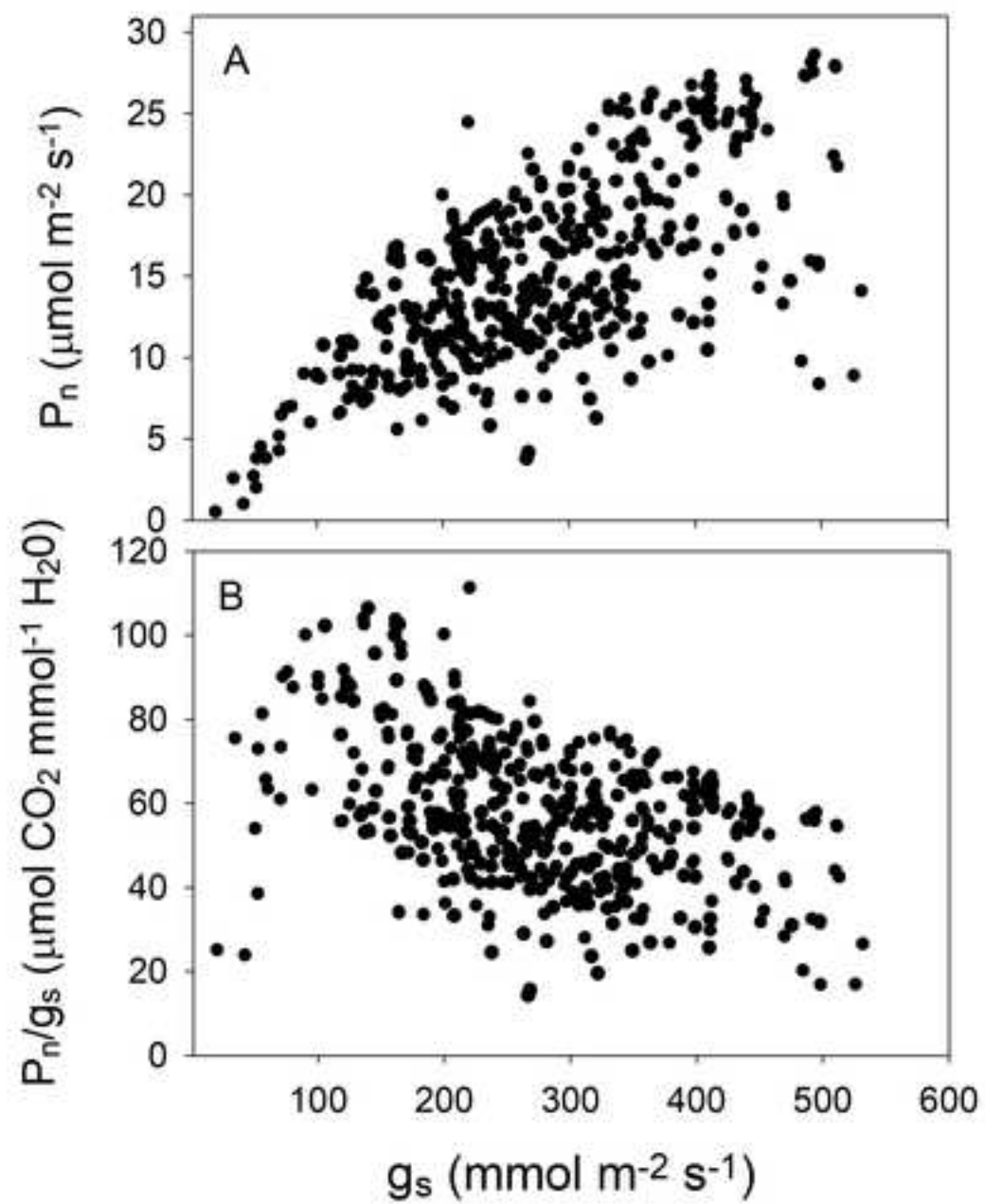


Figure 6

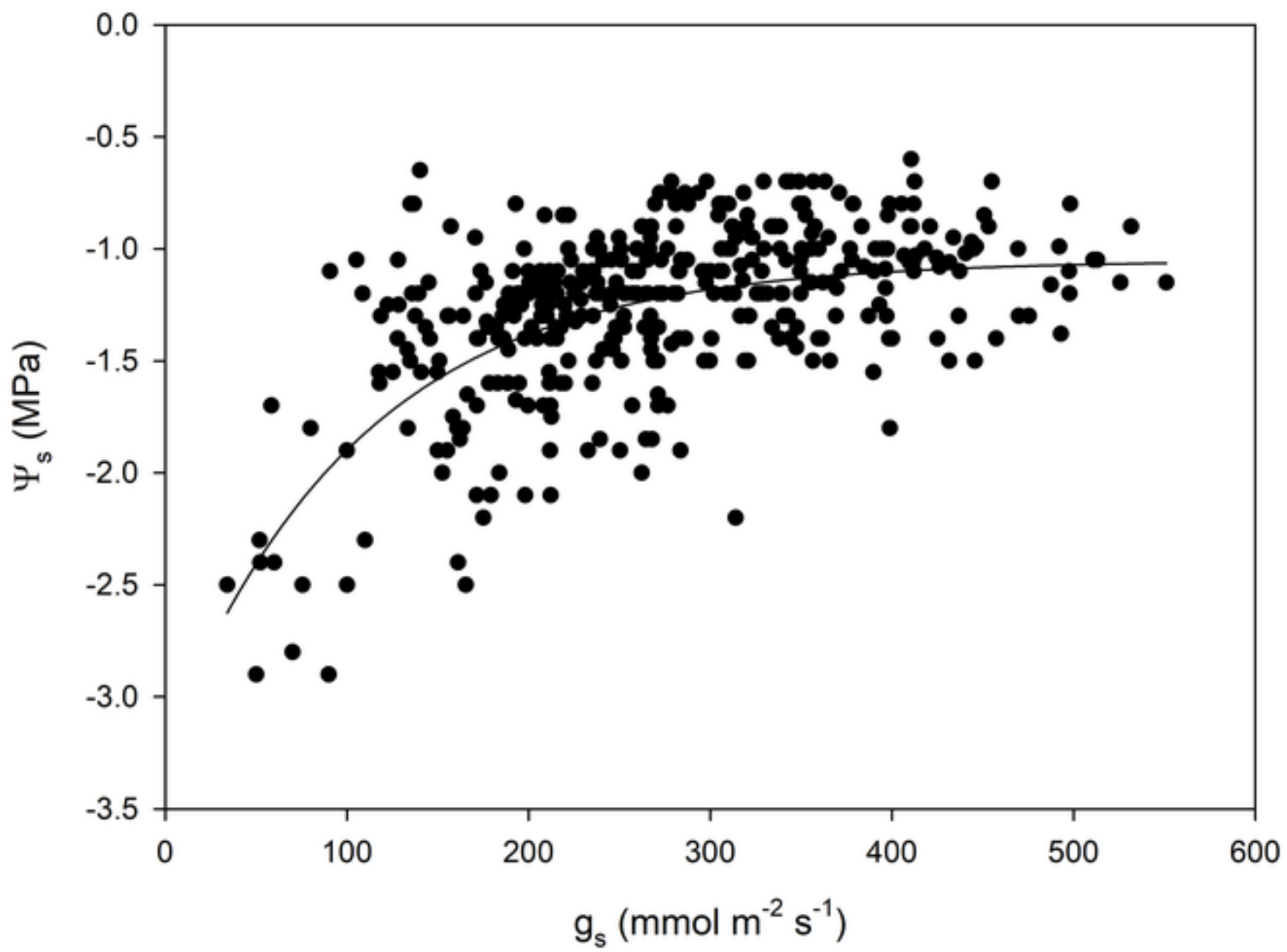


Table 1 Physical and chemical properties for desalinated reclaimed water (D) and saline reclaimed water (S) in 2017, 2018 and 2019

Property	Units	2017		2018		2019		
		D	S	D	S	D	S	
pH		7.53 ± 0.31	b 8.15 ± 0.20	a 8.11 ± 0.32	b 8.44 ± 0.34	a 7.70 ± 0.13	b 7.89 ± 0.11	a
EC _w	dS m ⁻¹	1.00 ± 0.15	b 3.00 ± 0.45	a 1.13 ± 0.61	b 3.00 ± 0.89	a 1.17 ± 0.04	b 2.56 ± 0.30	a
SAR _w	(meq/L) ^{0.5}	3.70 ± 0.42	b 7.20 ± 1.52	a 4.79 ± 1.94	b 5.69 ± 1.62	a 5.52 ± 0.75	b 7.09 ± 1.54	a
Ca ⁺²	mg L ⁻¹	56.28 ± 11.30	b 121.3 ± 22.1	a 50.76 ± 21.52	b 108.05 ± 57.15	a 65.18 ± 8.07	b 140.80 ± 8.12	a
Mg ⁺	mg L ⁻¹	20.9 ± 5.40	b 35.5 ± 6.10	a 18.31 ± 8.12	b 35.96 ± 16.82	a 13.56 ± 1.25	b 31.81 ± 2.28	a
K ⁺	mg L ⁻¹	20.67 ± 8.81	b 42.76 ± 6.30	a 20.37 ± 9.77	b 33.54 ± 12.60	a 14.49 ± 1.03	b 30.02 ± 3.76	a
Na ⁺	mg L ⁻¹	148.4 ± 53.2	b 353.2 ± 48.7	a 160.1 ± 85.7	b 270.7 ± 126.4	a 186.2 ± 25.0	b 359.2 ± 79.3	a
B ⁺³	mg L ⁻¹	0.14 ± 0.06	0.15 ± 0.07	0.13 ± 0.05	0.14 ± 0.04	0.14 ± 0.01	0.15 ± 0.01	
NO ₃ ⁻	mg L ⁻¹	15.83 ± 2.53	b 36.16 ± 9.28	a 28.39 ± 25.08	b 42.70 ± 19.93	a 25.6 ± 3.1	b 11.52 ± 1.14	a
PO ₄ ³⁻	mg L ⁻¹	1.3 ± 0.61	b 3.1 ± 0.52	a 2.01 ± 0.52	b 2.51 ± 1.45	a 2.09 ± 0.43	b 2.30 ± 0.29	a
SO ₄ ⁻²	mg L ⁻¹	98.0 ± 16.2	b 227.4 ± 37.5	a 92.4 ± 66.1	b 144.9 ± 92.1	a 49.3 ± 1.3	b 95.5 ± 0.3	a
Cl ⁻	mg L ⁻¹	198.1 ± 54.1	b 379.5 ± 72.3	a 199.8 ± 184.7	b 380.2 ± 181.3	a 236.0 ± 28.7	b 487.4 ± 112.8	a

Values are the mean ± SE of 12 individual samples taken throughout the crop cycle. Letters denote statistically significant differences at P < 0.05 level between treatments for each element and year.

Table 2. Trunk diameter at the end of each growing season in *P. dulcis* subjected to different irrigation treatments. Values are the mean±SE of five trees.

Year	Treatments				P
	D-FI	D-RDI	S-FI	S-RDI	
2017	3.73 ± 0.09 a	3.69 ± 0.05 a	3.64 ± 0.14 a	3.49 ± 0.17 a	ns
2018	4.63 ± 0.19 a	4.36 ± 0.10 a	4.54 ± 0.06 a	4.24 ± 0.16 a	ns
2019	4.86 ± 0.13 a	4.54 ± 0.07 b	4.76 ± 0.05 a	4.20 ± 0.09 c	*

Means within a row without a common letter are significantly different by Duncan 0.05 test.
(P; probability level, ns; non significance, *P<0.05)

Table 3. Leaf osmotic potential at full turgor (Ψ_{100s}) at the end of each growing season in *P. dulcis* subjected to different irrigation treatments. Values are the mean±SE of five trees.

Year	Treatments				P
	D-FI	D-RDI	S-FI	S-RDI	
2018	-1.89 ± 0.08 a	-2.04 ± 0.05 a	-2.12 ± 0.03 bc	-2.25 ± 0.06 c	**
2019	-1.79 ± 0.05 a	-1.83 ± 0.18 a	-2.20 ± 0.14 b	-2.59 ± 0.10 c	**

Means within a row without a common letter are significantly different by Duncan 0.05 test
(P; probability level, **P<0.01)