

1                    **EVAPOTRANSPIRATION OF AN HEDGE-PRUNED**  
2                    **OLIVE ORCHARD IN A SEMIARID AREA OF NE SPAIN**

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9                    **Abstract**

10                    The evapotranspiration of hedge-pruned olive orchards (*Olea europaea* L. cv.  
11                    Arbequina) was measured under the semiarid conditions of the middle Ebro River  
12                    Valley in a commercial olive orchard (57 ha) during 2004 and 2005. No measured  
13                    ET<sub>c</sub> values for this type of olive orchards have previously been reported. An eddy  
14                    covariance system (krypton hygrometer KH20 and 3-D sonic anemometer CSAT3,  
15                    Campbell Scientific) was used. The eddy covariance measurements showed a lack  
16                    of the energy balance closure (average imbalance of 26 %). Then sensible and latent  
17                    heat (LE) flux values were corrected using the approach proposed by Twine et al.  
18                    (2000) in order to get daily measured olive evapotranspiration (ET<sub>c</sub>) and crop  
19                    coefficient (K<sub>c</sub>) values. The highest measured monthly ET<sub>c</sub> averages were about 3.1  
20                    to 3.3 mm day<sup>-1</sup>, while the total seasonal ET<sub>c</sub> during the irrigation period (March to  
21                    October) was about 585 mm (in 2004) and 597 mm (in 2005). Monthly K<sub>c</sub> values  
22                    varied from about 1.0 (Winter) to 0.4-0.5 (Spring and Summer). These K<sub>c</sub> values  
23                    were similar to K<sub>c</sub> values reported for round-shape canopy olive orchards, adjusted

24 for ground cover, particularly during late Spring and Summer months when  
25 differences among measured and published  $K_c$  values were about less than 0.1.

## 26 **Keywords**

27 Crop Coefficient; Eddy Covariance; *Olea europaea* L.; Water Use; High Density  
28 Orchard

## 29 **1. Introduction**

30 Olive (*Olea europaea* L.) orchards are common in semiarid Mediterranean  
31 regions. In Europe, there were about 5.5 million ha in 2005 of which 2.5 million ha  
32 were located in Spain (Eurostat, 2008). 93 % of the Spanish olive orchards are for  
33 olive oil production and about 16 % of all Spanish olive orchards are irrigated  
34 (Anuario de Estadística Agroalimentaria, 2007). Traditional rainfed olive orchards in  
35 Spain have about 100 vigorous trees  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  and ground covers rarely exceed 25 %,  
36 while modern orchards are generally drip-irrigated, with low vigor varieties at about  
37 200-300 trees  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  and 40-50 % ground cover (Villalobos et al., 2000). Olive trees are  
38 commonly grown in areas where water is scarce. Therefore, the optimization of the  
39 water use in irrigated olive orchards is paramount (Palomo et al., 2002; Orgaz et al.,  
40 2006). The seasonal olive evapotranspiration ( $ET_c$ ) have been reported to range from  
41 560 up to 1020 mm depending upon environmental conditions, crop characteristics  
42 (variety, geometry, etc.) and orchard management (Fernández and Moreno, 1999;  
43 Villalobos et al., 2000; Testi et al., 2006).

44 Commonly,  $ET_c$  is estimated as:  $ET_c = ET_o \times K_c$  (Allen et al., 1998), where  $ET_o$   
45 is the reference evapotranspiration, and  $K_c$  is the crop coefficient. For fruit tree and  
46 olive orchards it is also recommended to include an additional reduction coefficient  
47 ( $K_r$ ) to take into account the ground cover fraction ( $f_c$ ); thus,  $ET_c = ET_o \times K_c \times K_r$

48 (Fereres and Castel, 1981). Several works have measured or estimated  $ET_c$  as well  
49 as  $K_c$  using several approaches: water balance (Fernández and Moreno, 1999;  
50 Palomo et al., 2002), evaporation pans (Michelakis et al., 1996), semiempirical ET  
51 equations, eddy covariance (Villalobos et al., 2000), sap flow (Fernández et al., 2001;  
52 Palomo et al., 1998). Allen et al. (1998) reported olive crop coefficients ranging from  
53 0.55-0.65 at the beginning of the season to 0.65-0.70 the rest of the season for  
54 ground covers of 40-60 %, similar  $K_c$  values than those reported by Goldhamer et al.  
55 (1994) for California (USA). For similar ground covers, Pastor and Orgaz (1994)  
56 reported crop coefficients for Córdoba (Southern Spain) decreasing from 0.65 in  
57 Spring and Fall to 0.45 in Summer. These Spring and Fall values were similar to  
58 those reported by Michelakis et al. (1994) for Crete (Greece) but Summer values for  
59 Southern Spain were about 0.1 lower as Crete weather conditions are milder.  
60 Fernández and Moreno (1999) recommended increasing these values by 0.05 as  
61 Pastor and Orgaz (1994) did not take soil evaporation into account. Villalobos et al.  
62 (2000), also for Córdoba, estimated  $K_c$  values for 30-40 % ground cover olive  
63 orchards ranging from 0.9-1.0 in Winter to 0.4 in August. Fernández et al. (2006)  
64 reported  $K_c$  values of 0.76-0.77 in May and October, 0.70-0.72 in June and  
65 September, and 0.63 in July and August for Sevilla (also in Southern Spain).  
66 Differences in  $K_c$  in these works were partially due to ground cover. In some cases,  
67 reported  $K_c$  were in fact  $K_c \times K_r$ . In addition, Fernández et al. (2006) pointed that  
68 variations in  $K_c$  values from different locations might be due in part to the method  
69 used to compute  $ET_o$ . Pereira et al. (2006) reported that olive transpiration can be  
70 estimated, at a daily step, as the product of  $ET_o$  estimated by the FAO Penman-  
71 Monteith (Allen et al., 1998) and the ratio of olive plant leaf area to the reference  
72 grass leaf area (which is assumed to be  $2.88 \text{ m}^2$  of leaf plant<sup>-1</sup>). These authors

73 reported that this simplified method also worked well for other wood species as  
74 apples and grapevines.

75         Reported  $K_c$  values depend on the geometric characteristics (canopy shape,  
76 distance between trees, etc.) of the olive orchards. These coefficients are therefore  
77 limited in some extent to the type of orchards where they were developed. Obtaining  
78 crop coefficients more universal would need to know the contribution of transpiration  
79 alone to total  $ET_c$ , for instance by sap flow measurements. However, this technique  
80 has a limited capability for measuring transpiration for a whole orchard due to the  
81 high variability of the sap flow measurements because of the considerable  
82 heterogeneity of the conductive area in mature olive trees (Fernández and Moreno,  
83 1999). Therefore, research efforts have been devoted during the last decade to  
84 model olive  $K_c$  as the sum of several components. Allen et al. (1998) presented the  
85 dual approach to get daily  $K_c$  estimates as the sum of basal crop coefficients ( $K_b$ ) due  
86 to transpiration and evaporation coefficients ( $K_e$ ) due to soil evaporation. Villalobos et  
87 al. (2000) followed a similar approach but the  $K_e$  was also divided in two components,  
88 a first one due to evaporation in wetted areas, and a second one due to evaporation  
89 in non-wetted areas. Villalobos et al. (2000) developed a model to compute daily  
90 olive ET in response to the main soil, climate and canopy conditions that influence it.  
91 This model was improved and validated by Testi et al. (2006). Daily simulations with  
92 this model allowed to Testi et al. (2006) to estimate average  $K_c$  values ranging from  
93 1.2-1.6 during Winter months to 0.5-0.7 during Summer months, while annual ET  
94 could range from 830-940 mm for a 100 trees  $ha^{-1}$  density up to 930-1025 mm for a  
95 300 trees  $ha^{-1}$  density depending upon locations. The simulated variability depended  
96 upon the specific tree density and geometry and the meteorological conditions of the  
97 simulation sites among other factors. The daily model by Testi et al. (2006) was used

98 by Orgaz et al. (2006) for a wide range of orchard scenarios (varying tree density,  
99 tree canopy volume and the fraction wetted by the emitters) to develop functional  
100 relationships to calculate  $K_c$  at a monthly time step as the sum of four components:  
101 tree transpiration, direct evaporation of the water intercepted by the canopy,  
102 evaporation from the soil and evaporation from the areas wetted by the emitters.  
103 Simulations of Orgaz et al. (2006) gave values of annual olive ET from 480 mm (100  
104 trees  $ha^{-1}$  densities) to 1090 mm (400 trees  $ha^{-1}$  densities) for Southern Spain.

105 Those models have been developed and tested for traditional and intensive  
106 olive orchards, with round-shape tree crowns. However, they have not been tested  
107 for hedge-pruned, high density olive orchards which have different tree canopy  
108 shape and root system. Tree canopy in hedge-pruned olive orchards forms a  
109 continuous "wall" within the rows (Gómez del Campo and Fernández, 2007), while  
110 hedgerow profiles can be rectangular, truncated rectangular, and triangular (Connor,  
111 2006). The volume of the root system and the soil moisture distribution are  
112 conditioned by plant density. Commonly, hedge-pruned olive orchards have a higher  
113 tree density (up to 2000 trees  $ha^{-1}$  in some cases), a much lower tree canopy volume,  
114 and a much higher ratio of sunlit leaf surface to tree crown volume (Gómez del  
115 Campo and Fernández, 2007). In addition, the illumination patterns on canopy walls  
116 are affected by row height, wall slope, and alley and row widths. Many combinations  
117 of these factors can provide equal areas of adequately illuminated foliage per unit  
118 orchard area, being the row width as the major design criterion to optimize the  
119 illumination pattern of the walls (Connor, 2006). The hedge-pruned olive orchards are  
120 a good alternative due to an early start of production, and mechanization and  
121 economy of harvest, using continuous fully mechanized harvester riding over the  
122 trees. Hedge-pruned olive orchards are not much extended yet, about 35000 ha in

123 the world of which 20000 ha are in Spain, but the cropped surface is growing at a  
124 rate of more than 8000 ha per year (Gómez del Campo and Fernández, 2007).

125 No experimental work has been done so far to get values of crop  
126 evapotranspiration and crop coefficient appropriate for hedge-pruned olive orchards.  
127 The only previous works on this topic were those by Grattan et al. (2006) and  
128 Berenguer et al. (2006), carried out in California. However, they used a fixed value of  
129  $K_c = 0.75$  for the whole season, modified by multiplying by a factor ( $K_r$ ), varying from  
130 0.72 to 1.0, depending upon canopy size of trees under different irrigation water  
131 treatments. Under these conditions, the estimated  $ET_c$  for the period May to October  
132 was about 570 mm.

133 The aim of this work was to measure evapotranspiration of hedge-pruned olive  
134 orchards under the semiarid conditions of the middle Ebro River Valley, as well as to  
135 get monthly crop coefficients for the whole crop season.

## 136 **2. Material and methods**

137 The experiment was carried out at Sástago (Zaragoza, NE Spain) from  
138 February 2004 to January 2006. Thereinafter the year “2004” refers to the period  
139 February 2004 to January 2005 and the year “2005” refers to the period February  
140 2005 to January 2006. The geographical coordinates of the experiment location were  
141 41°18' N latitude, 0°22' W longitude, and 150 m elevation above sea level. The long-  
142 term average annual meteorological conditions in the area are: precipitation, 315  
143 mm; mean temperature, 14.9 °C; minimum air relative humidity, 41 %; global solar  
144 radiation, 185 W m<sup>-2</sup>; wind speed at 2 m above ground, 3.1 m s<sup>-1</sup>; and reference  
145 evapotranspiration, 1392 mm.

146           The experiment was performed at a commercial olive orchard (*Olea europaea*  
147 cv. 'Arbequina') orchard of about 57 ha (Figure 1). Average soil slope in the orchard  
148 was 2.0 %. Soil texture is silty loam (0 to 30 cm depth) and silty clay loam (30 to 60  
149 cm). The average values of volumetric field capacity and permanent wilting point  
150 from 0 to 90 cm were 36.3% and 21.0%, respectively. The trees were planted in 1997  
151 at a spacing of 6.0 m x 3.0 m, thus tree density was 556 trees ha<sup>-1</sup>. The tree height  
152 was about 3.5 m above ground. As the tree crowns formed a continuous hedge wall  
153 within the rows of about 2.0 m width (average measured value), ground cover  
154 fraction ( $f_c$ ) as observed from nadir (overhead) was estimated as the base of the  
155 parallelepiped-shaped crown times the tree density (expressed in trees m<sup>-2</sup>); then, in  
156 this work,  $f_c = 0.334$ . The base of the tree crown was measured to be at about 1.0 m  
157 above ground. Then, the tree crown volume was estimated following Gómez del  
158 Campo and Fernández (2007) as the product of the tree crown height (2.5 m), row  
159 width (2.0 m) and the distance between trees within the row (3.0 m), i.e., 15 m<sup>3</sup> tree<sup>-1</sup>  
160 or 8340 m<sup>3</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup>, a much lower figure than that of traditional rainfed or round-shape  
161 crown drip irrigated orchards, 60-130 m<sup>3</sup> tree<sup>-1</sup> or 9200-10200 m<sup>3</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup> (Testi et al.,  
162 2006; Gómez del Campo and Fernández, 2007). Leaf area density was estimated as  
163 1.8 m<sup>2</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> from the tree crown volume following Orgaz et al. (2006). The olive  
164 orchard was surrounded by other smaller olive and fruit orchards, range and bushes.

165           All management practices (irrigation, pruning, herbicide application) were  
166 performed according to the farmer's criteria. Herbicides were periodically applied  
167 between the lines of olives to avoid presence of weeds in the orchard. Pruning was  
168 performed in winter. Mechanical topping of the olive trees was made at a height of  
169 3.5 m with a hedging machine with circular saws mounted in a rotor. Hydraulic  
170 scissors were used to eliminate the lower branches and small hedging operations.

171 Drip irrigation was applied from March to October each year, using preinstalled  
172 emitters at 1 m spacing and a discharge of 3.8 L h<sup>-1</sup>. Thus, each olive tree was  
173 irrigated with three emitters. Ground area wetted by the emitters was about 17 %.  
174 Daily irrigation depths were measured with an automatic flow meter. Table 1 lists the  
175 irrigation depths and number of irrigations per month for both years. Irrigation  
176 seasons lasted from 28 March to 28 October 2004, and from 11 March to 22 October  
177 2005.

178         Measurements were performed with an eddy covariance system installed on a  
179 micrometeorological tower (6.0 m height). It consisted of a krypton hygrometer  
180 (Campbell Scientific, model KH20) and a 3-D sonic anemometer (Campbell  
181 Scientific, model CSAT3). Both sensors were installed at 5.0 m above soil surface  
182 (with a distance of 0.11 m among them), pointing to the northwest direction (the  
183 predominant wind direction in the area), and operated at 10 Hz to record 30-minute  
184 averages, standard deviations and the respective covariances of water vapor  
185 densities, the three-component wind velocities, and the sonic temperature. Likewise,  
186 a net radiometer (Radiation and Energy Balance Systems, model Q-7) and two soil  
187 temperature probes (Campbell Scientific, model TCAV) operating at 0.05 Hz were  
188 used to record 30-minute averages of net radiation ( $R_n$ ) and soil temperature. The net  
189 radiometer was installed in the same tower and at the same height above the soil as  
190 the KH20 and the CSAT3; Villalobos et al. (2000) did not find significant differences  
191 between net radiation values measured over the trees and over the space between  
192 adjacent rows in an olive orchard planted at a spacing of 6.0 m x 6.0 m in Southern  
193 Spain. The soil temperature probes were buried at 0.02-0.06 m depths, one between  
194 adjacent rows and the other between trees within the same row. A CR23X (Campbell  
195 Scientific) datalogger was used to monitor all these sensors and store the recorded



196 data. Reliable eddy covariance measurements require, among other factors, to have  
197 enough fetch (upwind distance from plot edge to measurement spot). In the studied  
198 area, the predominant wind is northwest, and therefore the chosen measurement  
199 spot should have at least enough fetch for northwest winds. According to Monteith  
200 and Unsworth (1990), the fetch should be about 100 times the measurement height  
201 above crop canopy. This requirement would have been met in several spots within  
202 the studied olive orchard. However, soil stoniness in the plot decreased from north to  
203 south, and access tubes installation for soil water monitoring with capacitance probes  
204 is easier in soils without stoniness. For these two reasons, fetch and soil stoniness,  
205 the measurement spot was located in the southern part of the orchard (Figure 1).

206         A second datalogger (CR10X, Campbell Scientific) was used to monitor an air  
207 temperature and relative humidity probe (Vaisala, model HMP45AC), four soil heat  
208 flux plates (Hukseflux, model HFP01) and a rain gage (Campbell Scientific,  
209 ARG100). These sensors also operated at 0.05 Hz and were used to record 30-  
210 minute averages of air temperature and relative humidity, soil heat flux, and  
211 precipitation, respectively. The HMP45AC probe was installed at 4.1 m above soil  
212 surface. The HFP01 plates were buried at 0.08 m depth, at the same spots as the  
213 TCAV probes. The recorded soil heat flux values were corrected as described by  
214 Allen et al. (1996) using the soil temperature records to get soil heat flux at the soil  
215 surface. At each 30-minute period, the four soil heat flux values thus obtained were  
216 averaged to get a single value of soil heat flux (G). The rain gage was installed at the  
217 middle of the spacing between two consecutive tree rows at a height of about 2 m  
218 above ground.

219         Sensible ( $H_{EC}$ ) and latent ( $LE_{EC}$ ) heat fluxes (in  $W m^{-2}$ ) were obtained each 30-  
220 minute period from the eddy covariance instrumentation recordings as follows:

221 
$$H_{EC} = \rho c_p \overline{w' T'_{son}} \quad (1)$$

222 
$$LE_{EC} = (\lambda/C_{KH}) \overline{w' q'}$$
 (2)

223 where:  $\rho$ , air density ( $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ );  $c_p$ , specific heat of air,  $\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ ;  $\lambda$ , latent heat of  
 224 vaporization,  $\text{J g}^{-1}$ ;  $C_{KH}$ , factory calibration factor of the krypton hygrometer,  $\text{ln(mV)}$   
 225  $\text{m}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ;  $\overline{w' T'_{son}}$ , covariance between the fluctuations of vertical wind speed ( $w'$ ,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ )  
 226 and those of sonic temperature ( $T'_{son}$ ,  $^\circ\text{C}$ );  $\overline{w' q'}$ , covariance between  $w'$  and the  
 227 fluctuations of water vapor density ( $q'$ ), recorded as the natural logarithm of the  
 228 sensor voltage output according to the KH20 krypton hygrometer specifications  
 229 (Campbell Scientific, 1996).  $\rho$ ,  $c_p$ , and  $\lambda$  were computed from recorded air  
 230 temperature and relative humidity as described by Ham (2005). The factory  
 231 calibration factors  $C_{KH}$  were  $-0.165 \text{ ln(mV) m}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (in 2004) and  $-0.230 \text{ ln(mV) m}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$   
 232 (in 2005) as the krypton hygrometer installed in 2004 was removed and a new one  
 233 installed instead.

234 The half-hour values of  $LE_{EC}$  were later averaged to get daily values that were  
 235 converted to olive evapotranspiration ( $ET_c$ , in  $\text{mm day}^{-1}$ ) by dividing by the latent heat  
 236 of vaporization ( $\lambda$ ) and taking into account the appropriate time unit conversion (1  
 237 day = 86400 s). Experimental daily and monthly values of the olive orchard crop  
 238 coefficient,  $K_c$ , were derived as the ratio of daily (or monthly average) measured  $ET_c$   
 239 and the daily (or monthly average) estimated reference evapotranspiration ( $ET_o$ ),  
 240 computed by the FAO Penman-Monteith method (Allen et al., 1998) from the daily  
 241 meteorological variables (wind speed, solar radiation, and air temperature and  
 242 relative humidity) recorded in a nearby standard weather station located over grass.

243 
$$K_c = ET_c / ET_o \quad (3)$$

244 Soil water content was measured using Enviroscan permanent multisensor  
245 capacitance probes (manufactured by SENTEK, Stepney, Australia) installed in 12  
246 sites around an olive tree (Figure 2) with sensors installed at 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.5 and  
247 0.8 m depths. Readings were taken at hourly steps along the season.

### 248 **3. Results and discussion**

249 The meteorological conditions during the two years of measurements were  
250 different (Table 2). Thus, total precipitation during 2004 (365 mm) was slightly higher  
251 than during 2005 (345 mm). However, the distribution of precipitation along the  
252 season was completely different between both years. In 2004, about 62 % of the total  
253 precipitation was recorded from February to May, while about 55 % of total  
254 precipitation in 2005 was recorded from August to November. Only the recorded  
255 precipitation in May was quite similar in both years (Table 2). Differences in air  
256 temperature were smaller: annual averages were 14.4 °C in 2004 and 14.6 °C in  
257 2005; in general, average temperature was about 1.1 to 1.7 °C higher in 2004 from  
258 August to October and 3.5 °C in December, while it was about 1.3 to 2.4 °C higher in  
259 2005 from January to July. In correspondence with the monthly distribution of  
260 precipitation, monthly minimum air relative humidity in 2004 was higher from  
261 February to May, while it was higher (but in a lesser extent) during Fall in 2005.  
262 Finally, the average wind speed values show the windy conditions of the area for the  
263 whole season in both years but October; the highest differences between both years  
264 were observed in January and February (Table 2). Predominant wind directions  
265 during the measurement period were northwest (NW) and west northwest (WNW)  
266 which amounted about 52 % in both years, although the east southeast (ESE) and

267 southeast (SE) directions were also frequent during some periods and amounted  
268 about 21 % in both years (Figure 3).

269 Figure 4 shows the comparison between the measured  $R_n-G$  and the  
270 measured  $H_{EC}+LE_{EC}$  values for 30-min and daily periods. Although the coefficient of  
271 determination was quite high, it was obvious that the turbulent flux ( $H_{EC}+LE_{EC}$ ) of the  
272 energy balance equation was lower than the available energy ( $R_n-G$ ) term. In  
273 average, the ratio of the turbulent flux term to the available energy term was about  
274 0.74 both for 30-min and daily periods. A lack of an appropriate energy balance  
275 closure is commonly observed when performing eddy covariance measurements  
276 over quite different cropped surfaces (Twine et al., 2000; Wilson et al., 2002).  
277 Assuming the metabolic energy and the storage heat in plant tissues as negligible,  
278 the energy balance closure is defined as the ratio  $(R_n-G) / (H_{EC}+LE_{EC})$  (Twine et al.,  
279 2000; Foken, 2008). This ratio should approach a value of 1.0 although a value  
280 between 0.7 and 1.0 is generally considered as reasonable (Twine et al., 2000).

281 Several reasons could explain the lack of closure of the surface energy budget  
282 (Twine et al., 2000; Wilson et al., 2002); among others, the lack of coincidence of the  
283 source areas among various flux components measured very near a surface, no one-  
284 dimensional transport arising from insufficient fetch, missing of low frequency  
285 fluctuations, advective flux due to mean vertical velocities different than 0, and  
286 measurement errors related to sensor separation, frequency response, alignment  
287 problems, interference from tower or instrument-mounting structures. Twine et al.  
288 (2000) and Wilson et al. (2002) made a comprehensive review of surface fluxes  
289 measured with eddy covariance system under different locations, vegetation types,  
290 heterogeneity and other characteristics and concluded that there is a general lack of  
291 energy balance closure of about 20 % as an average. The imbalance was even

292 present under ‘ideal’ conditions (flat, homogeneous surfaces and short vegetation)  
293 and after performing several corrections to the measured sensible and latent heat  
294 fluxes as described for instance in Foken (2008).

295 In this work, it was assumed that fetch was adequate most of the time due to  
296 the predominant wind direction (Figure 3) and the location of the measurement spot  
297 within the plot (Figure 1). Fetch may have not been so adequate during periods with  
298 ESE or SE predominant wind direction. In addition, the measurements were  
299 performed under semiarid conditions (where advection may be significant) and over  
300 sloping terrain, and thus some of the problems mentioned in the previous paragraph  
301 may have been occurred. The average imbalance was about 26 % (Figure 4), close  
302 to the average value reported by Twine et al. (2000) and Wilson et al. (2002). In  
303 flood-irrigated olive orchards grown in Morocco, imbalances of about 74 % (Williams  
304 et al., 2004) and 8-10 % (Er-Raki et al., 2008) have been reported. Williams et al.  
305 (2004) argued that this lack of energy balance closure was due to energy storage  
306 within the olive tree biomass. Twine et al. (2000) proposed forcing closure as a  
307 possible solution. They assumed that the different problems affect in a similar  
308 proportion to the sensible and latent heat flux measured values, i.e. they assumed  
309 that the Bowen ratio ( $\beta$ , the ratio of sensible to latent heat flux), is correctly measured  
310 by the eddy covariance system, so that ‘corrected’ eddy covariance values of latent  
311 heat ( $LE_{EC\_c}$ ) fluxes can be derived as:

$$312 \quad LE_{EC\_c} = (R_n - G) / (1 + \beta) \quad (4)$$

313 This is the approach followed in this work. Because  $\beta$  may be close to -1  
314 during near sunrise and near sunset periods, and thus  $LE_{EC\_c}$  may not be computed  
315 during those periods, it was decided to average the 30-minute values of  $H_{EC}$ ,  $LE_{EC}$ ,

316  $R_n$  and  $G$  to get the corresponding daily averages, and then to apply Eq. (4) to get  
317 daily  $LE_{EC_c}$  values for the studied olive orchard. These daily averages were only  
318 computed if all 48 half-hour periods of a given day were available. The  $LE_{EC_c}$  daily  
319 values were later used to get measured  $ET_c$  and  $K_c$  (Eq. 3) values. A total of 425  
320 daily values of olive evapotranspiration were finally obtained.

321 Figure 5 shows the daily and monthly measured values of  $ET_c$  and those of  
322 estimated  $ET_o$  for the measurement period. Daily values showed significant variability  
323 along the season. In general terms, both  $ET_c$  and  $ET_o$  showed a similar pattern, along  
324 the season, increasing from Winter to mid-Summer and then decreasing thereafter.  
325 The highest daily measured  $ET_c$  value was about  $5.0 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ . The highest monthly  
326 averages of measured  $ET_c$  (about  $3.1$  to  $3.3 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ ) and estimated  $ET_o$  ( $7.4$  to  $7.8$   
327  $\text{mm day}^{-1}$ ) values were observed in June in 2004, and in July in 2004. These figures  
328 were about twice than those reported for intensive olive orchards with about a half  
329 plant density (Fernández and Moreno, 1999; Fernández et al., 2006).

330 Figure 5 also shows that the differences among  $ET_c$  and  $ET_o$  also increased  
331 from Winter to mid-Summer and decreased thereafter. The differences between  $ET_c$   
332 and  $ET_o$  during Spring 2005 were higher than those during Spring 2004. The lower  
333 sum of precipitation (thus higher average solar radiation) and irrigation dose (Table  
334 3), and minimum relative humidity, and the higher air temperature during this period  
335 in 2005 (Table 2) led to higher estimates of  $ET_o$  but lower  $ET_c$  by the olive orchard  
336 with respect to 2004. The opposite was observed in late Summer and Fall 2005. The  
337 higher sum of precipitation and irrigation dose in this period during 2005 lead to a  
338 higher  $ET_c$  with respect to 2004. Considering the irrigation period (March to October),  
339 seasonal  $ET_c$  was slightly higher in 2005 (597 mm) than in 2004 (585 mm).

340 Therefore, the differences in  $ET_c$  and  $K_c$  between both years were mainly due to the  
341 different meteorology observed.

342 It must be pointed out that  $ET_c$  is the sum of transpiration by the crop and soil  
343 evaporation. This latter component can be a significant part of a heterogeneous crop  
344 such an olive orchard, particularly during rainy periods. Villalobos et al. (2000) and  
345 Testi et al. (2006) reported that soil evaporation could be as much as 25-40 % of total  
346  $ET_c$  of an olive orchard. Therefore, the lower  $ET_c$  values shown in Figure 5 for Spring  
347 2005 were mainly due to a reduction of soil evaporation because the small amounts  
348 of recorded precipitation, and the higher  $ET_c$  values observed in late Summer and  
349 Fall 2005 were due to the increased precipitation during this period regarding to the  
350 same period in 2004. Thus, Figure 6 shows the evolution of soil water content at  
351 different soil depths along the irrigation seasons recorded next to the emitter (tube 3,  
352 Figure 2). In general terms, a daily fluctuation of soil moisture was observed  
353 particularly during irrigation days at soil depths of 0.1, 0.2, 0.3 and 0.5 m proving that  
354 irrigation water reached these soil layers till the middle of July in both experimental  
355 years. Figure 6 shows also that from the middle of July till the end of August irrigation  
356 did not affect the capacitance sensor located at 0.5 m depth. Regulated deficit  
357 irrigation was applied in this period, that coincides with the pit hardening phase, since  
358 agronomically is very convenient (Alegre et al., 1999). It can also be observed that  
359 soil moisture content at 0.8 m depth was kept above the field capacity threshold  
360 along all the irrigation season. Results showed that transpiration by the olive orchard  
361 was not limited by water availability except in the pit hardening phase. Likewise,  
362 according to Fereres et al. (2005), olives under a good irrigation supply maintain a  
363 leaf water potential at solar noon around -1.5 MPa. The average value of midday leaf  
364 water potential measured in 26 May 2005 in exposed mature leaves in the studied

365 orchard was -1.57 MPa (coefficient of variation, 7.0 %). Then, this suggests that  
366 there were no indications of water stress in the studied orchard in Spring and early  
367 Summer.

368 Berenguer et al. (2006) and Grattan et al. (2006) estimated cumulative  $ET_c$   
369 (May to October) of about 570 mm for high-density (1700 trees  $ha^{-1}$ ) 3-4 years old  
370 olive orchards (ground cover fraction of about 0.5) in California at an area with about  
371 50 % more rainfall but similar temperature and  $ET_o$  values to those observed in this  
372 work. This figure of 570 mm was about 14 % higher than the average cumulative  $ET_c$   
373 from May to October measured in this work (about 500 mm). Nevertheless,  
374 Berenguer et al. (2006) and Grattan et al. (2006) concluded that irrigation dose of  
375 about 70-75 % and of 30-40 % of estimated  $ET_c$  maximized yield and oil quality,  
376 respectively. In this work, the May-to-October irrigation dose was 281 mm in 2004  
377 and 293 mm in 2005. These values represent 60 and 55 % of the measured  $ET_c$  in  
378 2004 and 2005 (May to October), respectively, values that are included in the range  
379 of irrigation water suggested as adequate in the Berenguer et al. (2006) and Grattan  
380 et al. (2006) experiments. The olive yields of the Arbequina orchard of the present  
381 study were 4900 and 6300  $kg\ ha^{-1}$  in 2004 and 2005, respectively. These values are  
382 considered optimum for intensive olive orchard under the semiarid conditions of the  
383 middle Ebro River Valley. The oil quality obtained from this orchard was excellent,  
384 classified as extra virgin olive oil.

385 Likewise, using a simulation model to estimate olive evapotranspiration and  
386 crop coefficients under different scenarios, Orgaz et al. (2006) estimated seasonal  
387  $ET_c$  of 1087 mm in Córdoba (south of Spain) for a plant density of 400 trees  $ha^{-1}$  (the  
388 maximum simulated density) with a ground cover fraction of 0.65 and a wetted soil  
389 fraction (by drip irrigation) of 0.1. These plant density and wetted soil fraction were



390 relatively close to those observed in this work. But ground cover fraction was about  
391 double. It is common to estimate  $ET_c$  of fruit tree and olive orchards by multiplying  
392 the crop coefficient by a reduction coefficient ( $K_r$ ) estimated as a function of ground  
393 cover fraction ( $f_c$ ), for instance using the equation by Fereres and Castel (1981):  $K_r =$   
394  $(2 f_c) / 100$  (with the limit of  $K_r = 1.0$  for  $f_c > 50 \%$ ,  $f_c$  expressed in percent). In this  
395 work,  $f_c$  was 33.4 %, and thus  $K_r$  could be estimated as 0.67. Thus, if this  $K_r$   
396 coefficient is multiplied by the seasonal  $ET_c$  of 1087 mm estimated by Orgaz et al.  
397 (2006), a value of 728 mm is obtained, which is quite close to the seasonal  $ET_c$  (722  
398 mm) observed in this work as an average value for both years. In addition, Orgaz et  
399 al. (2006) simulated a monthly  $ET_c$  in July (the peak month) of 150 mm for the same  
400 orchard. Again, multiplying this value by the estimated  $K_r = 0.67$ , a value of 100 mm  
401 is obtained, quite close also to the average monthly  $ET_c$  in July (97 mm) measured in  
402 this work. Villalobos et al. (2000) also simulated evapotranspiration for olive orchards  
403 in Córdoba under different scenarios and reported seasonal  $ET_c$  of 758 m for ground  
404 cover fraction of 0.3. Palomo et al. (2002) measured olive evapotranspiration in  
405 Sevilla (south of Spain) for an olive orchard with a ground cover fraction of 0.34 and  
406 found seasonal  $ET_c$  of 653 mm, about 10 % lower than that observed in this study.  
407 Therefore, in terms of seasonal  $ET_c$ , the values obtained in this work for a hedge-  
408 pruned olive orchard were reasonably similar to those found for round-shape crowns  
409 olive orchards under drip irrigation and similar ground cover fractions.

410 Table 4 lists the monthly  $K_c$  values obtained in this work for the measurement  
411 period. The  $K_c$  values were different between both years but in Summer (June to  
412 August). These differences among years responded to the different meteorological  
413 conditions of both years as discussed previously for the monthly  $ET_c$  values. Table 4  
414 also lists the average monthly  $K_c$  values for both years. Figure 7 shows the average

415 monthly  $K_c$  curve obtained in this work. This curve showed a U-shape, with  $K_c$  values  
416 close to 1.0 observed in Winter, decreasing to values close to 0.40 during Summer  
417 and increasing again to values close to 1.0 during early Winter. This U-shape is in  
418 accordance with simulated  $K_c$  curves at different scenarios by Testi et al. (2006) in  
419 Córdoba (Spain) and Fresno (California, USA), and with measured  $K_c$  curves  
420 reported by Villalobos et al. (2000). Other authors have reported  $K_c$  curves with a  
421 more flat shape although values for Winter months were also higher than during  
422 Summer (Figure 7) (Pastor and Orgaz, 1994; Fernández et al., 2006; Orgaz and  
423 Fereres, 2001). However, Allen et al. (1998) recommended a  $K_c$  curve that had  
424 slightly lower values early in the season (Figure 7).

425         Figure 7 also compares the experimental monthly  $K_c$  values obtained in this  
426 work with published  $K_c$  values. For this comparison, the selected published  $K_c$  values  
427 were obtained using the FAO Penman-Monteith equation to estimate  $ET_o$  except for  
428 the Pastor and Orgaz (1994) case for which the Hargreaves method was used to  
429 estimate  $ET_o$ . For monthly estimates of this variable, the Hargreaves and FAO  
430 Penman-Monteith methods provide similar  $ET_o$  estimates in semiarid and windy  
431 areas as the one used in this study (Martínez-Cob and Tejero-Juste, 2004). Figure  
432 7A shows the original published  $K_c$  values for which  $K_r = 1.0$  except in the case of  
433 Testi et al. (2006) for which published  $K_c$  values correspond to a ground cover of 26  
434 % ( $K_r = 0.52$ ). Figure 7B shows those published  $K_c$  values adjusted for a  $K_r = 0.67$ ,  
435 that obtained in the studied olive orchard. In general,  $K_c$  values obtained in this work  
436 were similar than those published in the above mentioned papers (after adjusting for  
437  $K_r$ ) during the middle months of the year as differences were in general less than 0.1  
438 (Figure 7B). The main difference was against  $K_c$  values from Pastor and Orgaz  
439 (1994), likely due to the fact that these authors did not take soil evaporation into

440 account as argued by Fernandez and Moreno (1999).  $K_c$  values from Allen et al.  
441 (1998), after adjusting for  $K_r$ , were the highest during the summer months. This would  
442 lead to overestimation of  $ET_c$  during these months. Er-Raki et al. (2008) also reported  
443 that  $K_c$  values by Allen et al. (1998) led to overestimation of evapotranspiration of  
444 flood-irrigated olive orchards in central Morocco (a plant density of 225 trees  $ha^{-1}$  and  
445 soil surface partly covered by grass).

446 In the middle Ebro River Basin, where the experimental site (Sástago) is  
447 located, most of the rain is recorded in Spring and Autumn (Table 2). Rainfall during  
448 Winter is less frequent but foggy days are common. Then a combination of lower  
449 evaporative demand (lower  $ET_o$ ), higher soil moisture in the top soil layer and higher  
450 canopy intercepted water could explain that the evaporation of water from top soil  
451 and intercepted water can be maintained at a higher rate relative to  $ET_o$ . Thus,  
452 although olive transpiration rates are lower during colder months, these higher  
453 relative evaporation rates of soil moisture and intercepted water could explain those  
454 high  $K_c$  values observed during Winter and the U-shape of the  $K_c$  curve (Testi et al.,  
455 2006). Another factor that could explain the relative evaporation rates of canopy  
456 intercepted water is the significant canopy water storage capacity of olive orchards  
457 due to the maintenance of foliage during Winter. In addition, as  $ET_o$  is low in colder  
458 months, a small energy supply, for instance from canopy or soil cooling, may allow  
459 increasing the  $K_c$  by 0.4 to 0.5 (Testi et al., 2006). It is interesting to note that the  $K_c$   
460 values during Winter reported by Villalobos et al. (2000) and Testi et al. (2006) were  
461 much higher than those reported in this work likely due to the higher rainfall (both  
462 relative and absolute) recorded during Winter in south of Spain. Finally, it should be  
463 pointed that ratios (such the  $K_c$ ) are statistics that are unstable and unbounded when  
464 the denominator is close to zero (Wilmott, 1981). Therefore, when  $ET_o$  is low, as in

465 Winter, that is another factor that can explain the high  $K_c$  values observed in colder  
466 months.

467 The experimental  $K_c$  values listed in Table 4 integrate the different  
468 components of  $K_c$ , those due to transpiration, soil evaporation and intercepted water  
469 evaporation. The daily  $K_c$  values obtained in this work showed high variability, both  
470 within a given month and between years. This was expected due to the contribution  
471 of several factors, such as the soil evaporation, which is highly dependent on  
472 precipitation, a variable that has also a high variability. Because the different  
473 components of  $K_c$  have not been measured in this work, the usefulness of the  
474 recorded daily  $K_c$  values is limited to the experimental years. Monthly  $K_c$  values, as  
475 those listed in Table 4, are more useful because they smooth out variability observed  
476 due to the specific meteorological conditions of the experimental years. Further  
477 research should be performed to quantify the components of  $K_c$  separately for this  
478 type of olive orchards. Models developed for round-shape canopy orchards such as  
479 those of Testi et al. (2006) and Orgaz et al. (2006) could help in this future research.  
480 These models would be more suitable to be used for precise irrigation where daily  $K_c$   
481 values are required. These models would need to be validated for hedge-pruned  
482 olive orchards.

#### 483 **4. Conclusions**

484 The eddy covariance measurements reported in this paper showed a lack of  
485 the energy balance closure. The average imbalance was about 26 %. Thus, following  
486 to Twine et al. (2000), corrected eddy covariance H and LE values were obtained by  
487 forcing the energy balance closure assuming that the Bowen ratio was correctly  
488 determined by the eddy covariance system.

489           The highest daily measured olive orchard evapotranspiration ( $ET_c$ ) value was  
490 about  $5.0 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ , while the highest monthly average of measured  $ET_c$  was about  
491  $3.1$  to  $3.3 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ . The seasonal evolution of  $ET_c$  relative to that of  $ET_o$  was  
492 different in both studied years mainly because the contribution of soil evaporation  
493 due to the different seasonal distribution pattern of rainfall and, in a lesser extent, air  
494 relative humidity. The highest differences between  $ET_c$  and  $ET_o$  were observed  
495 during the drier months. Considering the irrigation period (March to October),  
496 seasonal  $ET_c$  was about  $585 \text{ mm}$  (in 2004) and  $597 \text{ mm}$  (in 2005).

497           In accordance with the seasonal evolution of  $ET_c$  and  $ET_o$ , experimental crop  
498 coefficients ( $K_c$ ) were different in both years. These  $K_c$  values showed a U-shape  
499 curve, with the highest values being observed during Winter months (close to 1.0)  
500 and the lower values during Spring and Summer, about 0.4 to 0.5. In general, the  $K_c$   
501 values obtained in this work were similar to those reported in previous works (after  
502 adjusting for ground cover), particularly during late Spring and Summer when  
503 differences were less than 0.1 in general.

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611

612 **Tables**

613 Table 1. Monthly irrigation depths (ID) and number of irrigations (NI) during: a) March  
614 to October 2004; b) March to October 2005.

Variable	Year	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct
ID, mm	2004	28.0	31.8	23.6	59.5	55.7	58.1	54.8	29.2
	2005	33.2	40.6	46.9	59.4	68.5	56.8	38.9	22.7
NI	2004	2	18	16	26	30	30	27	20
	2005	7	24	31	30	31	30	27	11

615

616 Table 2. Average monthly meteorological conditions during the measurement period  
 617 recorded at a nearby grass station. a) 2004 (February 2004 to January 2005); b)  
 618 2005 (February 2005 to January 2006).

Month	Pr (mm)		T <sub>air</sub> (°C)		RH <sub>min</sub> (%)		U <sub>2</sub> (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	
	2004	2005	2004	2005	2004	2005	2004	2005
January	2.4 <sup>a</sup>	27.4 <sup>b</sup>	3.6 <sup>a</sup>	5.0 <sup>b</sup>	66 <sup>a</sup>	68 <sup>b</sup>	4.5 <sup>a</sup>	2.4 <sup>b</sup>
February	53.4	18.2	5.1	4.9	67	40	2.4	5.0
March	59.4	5.0	8.6	10.2	46	31	3.1	3.2
April	67.8	15.2	11.7	13.9	45	32	3.5	3.9
May	45.0	48.2	16.2	18.6	35	29	2.7	3.0
June	2.0	23.2	24.0	23.9	24	23	3.1	2.8
July	29.0	7.8	24.0	25.3	25	21	3.1	3.3
August	25.0	36.4	24.6	23.5	25	26	2.5	3.7
September	12.4	65.6	21.7	20.0	30	32	3.4	2.6
October	29.6	54.0	17.1	16.0	36	50	2.1	2.0
November	8.4	35.4	8.3	9.1	56	58	4.1	3.2
December	30.2	9.0	7.2	3.7	65	60	3.8	2.8

619 Pr, precipitation; T<sub>air</sub>, mean air temperature; RH<sub>min</sub>, minimum relative humidity; U<sub>2</sub>,  
 620 mean wind speed at 2.0 m above ground.

621 <sup>a</sup> during 2005; <sup>b</sup> during 2006.

622

623 Table 3. Monthly sum of precipitation and irrigation dose (mm) during the  
624 measurement period. a) 2004 (February 2004 to January 2005); b) 2005 (February  
625 2005 to January 2006).

Year	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
2004	2.4 <sup>a</sup>	53.4	87.4	99.6	68.6	61.5	84.7	83.1	67.2	58.8	8.4	30.2
2005	27.4 <sup>b</sup>	18.2	38.2	55.8	95.1	82.6	76.3	93.2	104.5	76.7	35.4	9.0

626 <sup>a</sup> during 2005; <sup>b</sup> during 2006.

627

628 Table 4. Monthly values of experimental crop coefficients during the measurement  
 629 period a) 2004 (February 2004 to January 2005); b) 2005 (February 2005 to  
 630 January 2006).

Year	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
2004		0.69	0.68	0.69	0.67	0.43	0.42	0.38	0.35	0.66	0.70	
2005	0.90 <sup>a</sup>		0.29	0.31	0.45	0.48	0.42	0.45	0.72	0.88	1.23	0.94
Average	0.90	0.69	0.49	0.50	0.56	0.46	0.42	0.42	0.54	0.77	0.97	0.94

631 <sup>a</sup> during 2006.

632

633 **Figure captions**

634 Figure 1. Olive orchard and location of the eddy covariance station. UTM, Universal  
635 Transverse Mercator.

636 Figure 2. Location of the soil water monitoring access tubes equipped with a  
637 capacitance sensors installed at 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.5 and 0.8 m depth. Numbers 1 to  
638 12 are used to identify each access tube.

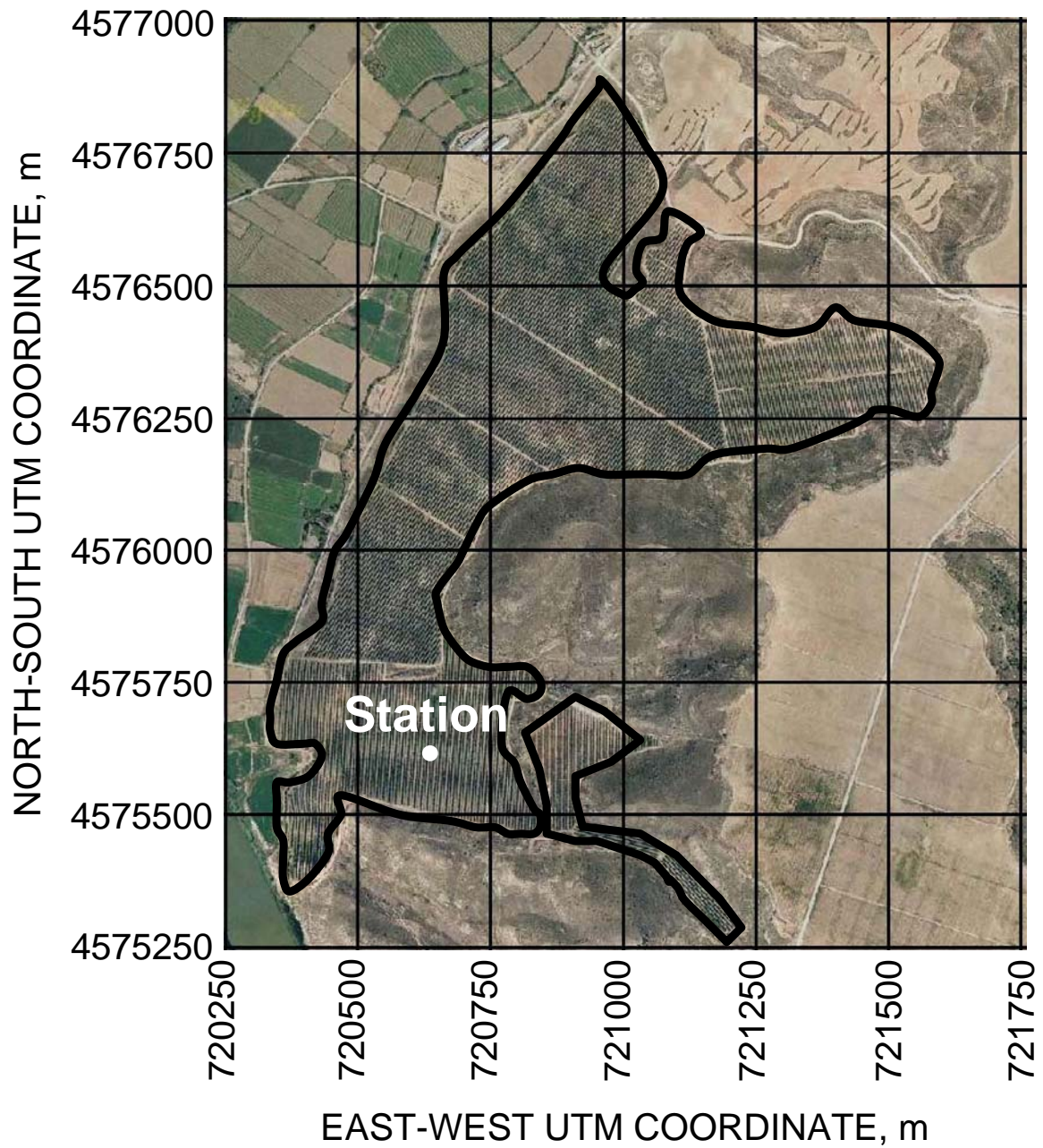
639 Figure 3. Relative frequencies (%) of different wind directions recorded at the  
640 measurement site from February 2004 to January 2006.

641 Figure 4. Averages of available energy ( $R_n-G$ ) versus those of turbulent fluxes  
642 ( $LE_{EC}+H_{EC}$ ) for the measurement period. (A) Half-hour; (B) Daily.

643 Figure 5. Measured olive evapotranspiration ( $ET_c$ ) and estimated reference  
644 evapotranspiration ( $ET_o$ , method FAO Penman-Monteith) from February 2004 to  
645 January 2006. (A) Daily; and (B) monthly averages (in this case, vertical lines  
646 represent one standard deviation).

647 Figure 6. Hourly readings of soil moisture content at 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.5 and 0.8 m  
648 depths from March to October (2004 and 2005) recorded at tube 3 (Figure 2)  
649 located next to the emitter.

650 Figure 7. Average measured monthly crop coefficient at Sástago (Zaragoza, Spain)  
651 (Sást) versus monthly crop coefficients reported by Testi et al. (2006) at Córdoba  
652 (Tes06), Pastor and Orgaz (1994) (PO94), Orgaz and Fereres (2001) (OF01),  
653 Fernández et al. (2006) (F06) and Allen et al. (1998) (FAO56). A) Original  
654 published values. B) Published values adjusted for  $K_r = 0.67$ .

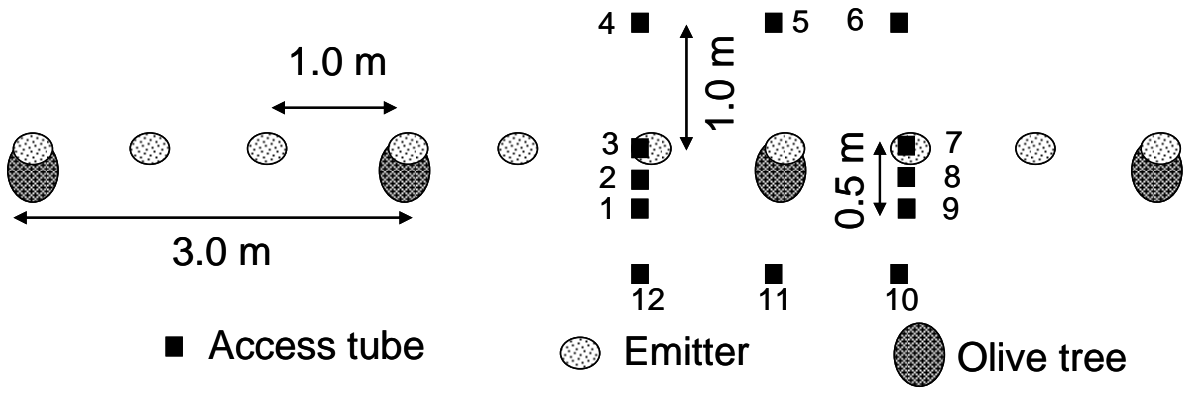


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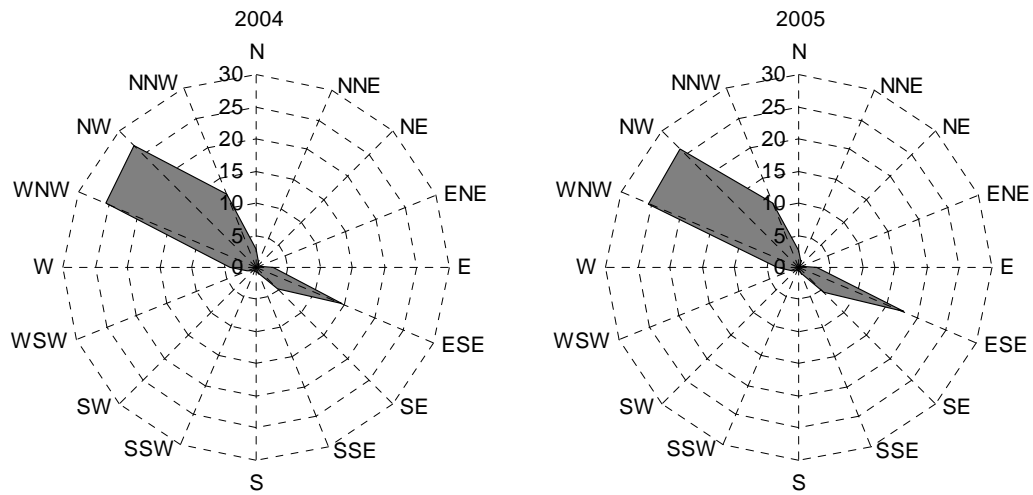


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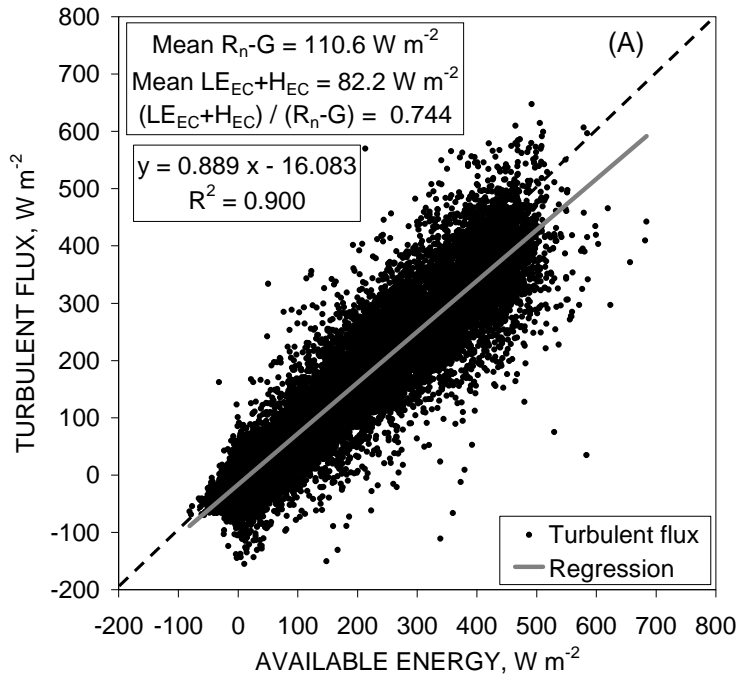
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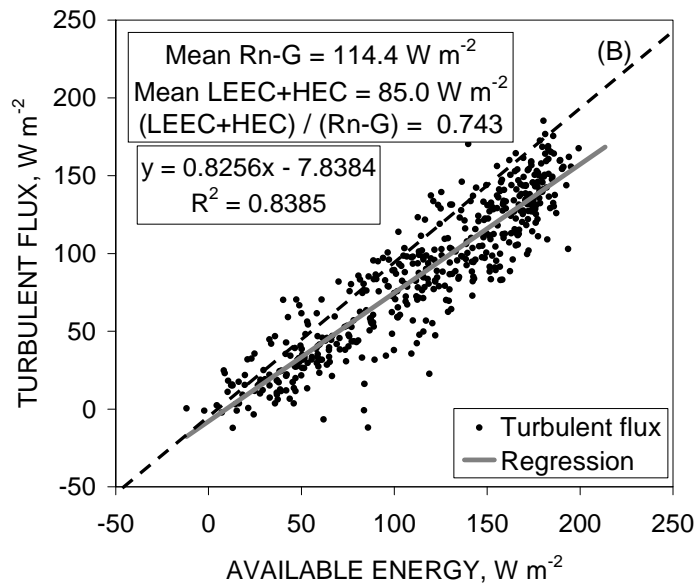
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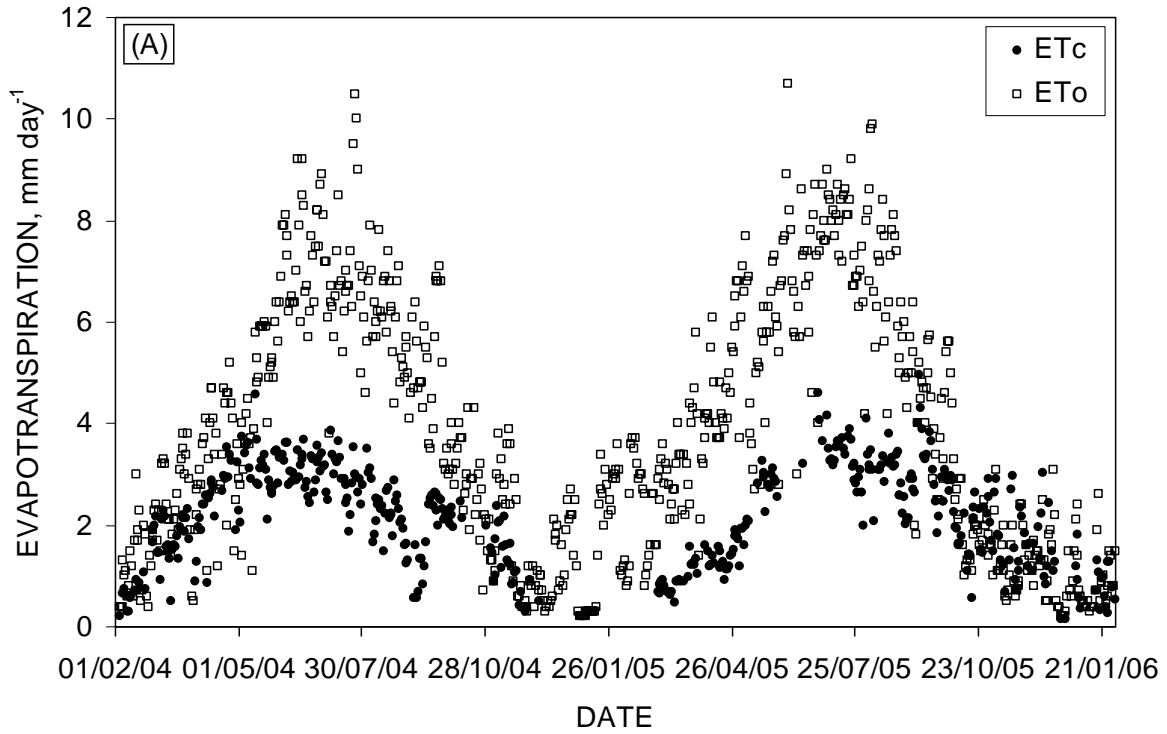
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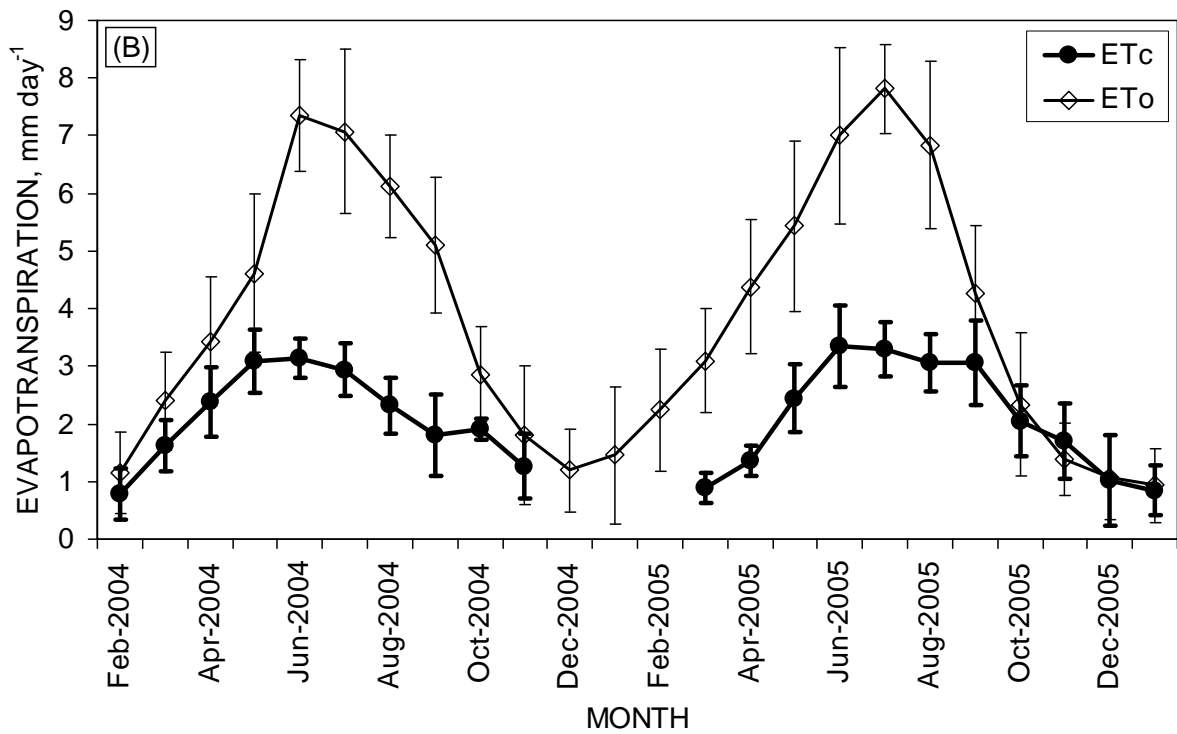
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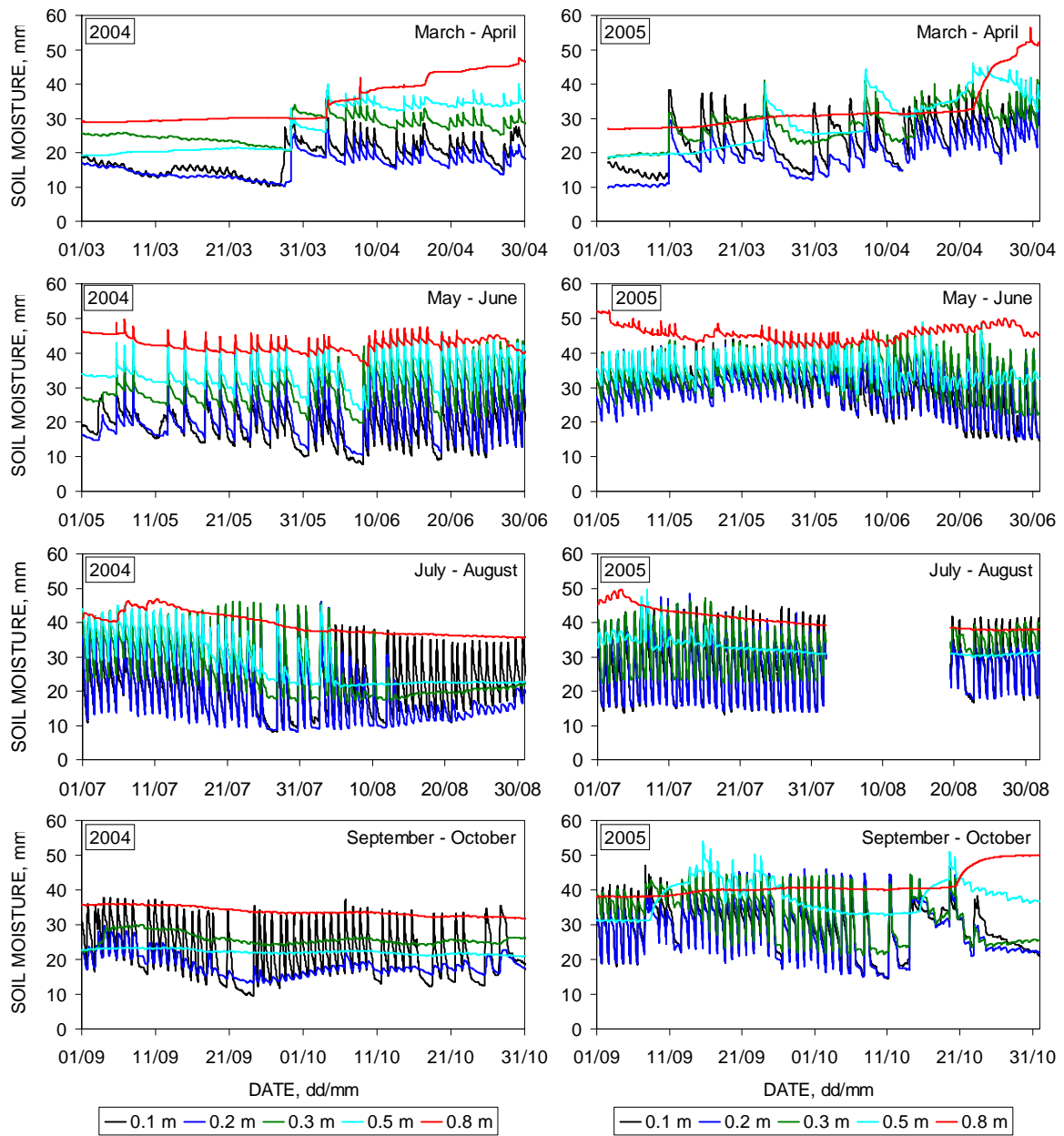


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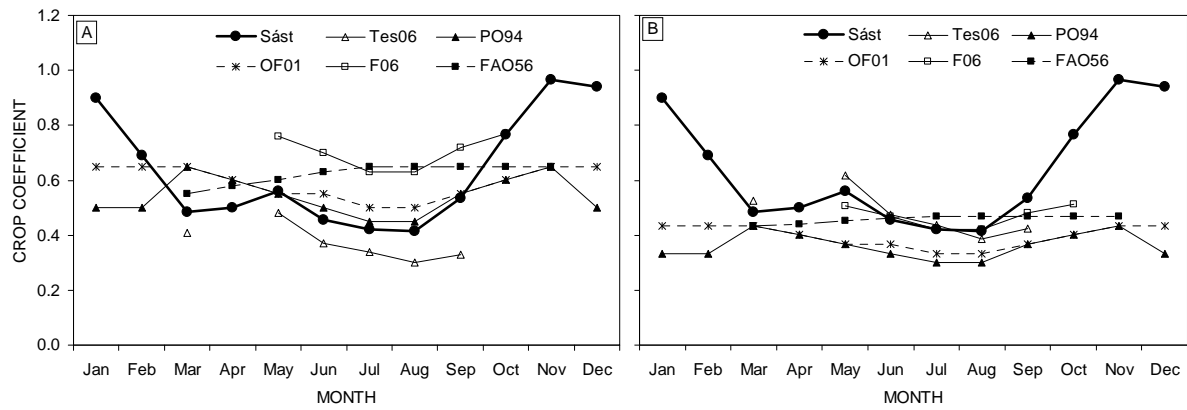
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