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1 **Water stress during the post-harvest period affects new root formation but not starch concentration and**  
2 **content in Chardonnay grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* L.) perennial organs**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Water stress responses during the post-harvest period were evaluated in a Chardonnay container-grown  
16 grapevines grafted onto 1103 Paulsen rootstock. The irrigation treatments were: a control treatment (C)  
17 (irrigated to match  $ET_C$  demands) and a water stress treatment (WS) (irrigated when midday stem water  
18 potential reached a -1.1 MPa threshold). Photosynthesis, biomass and carbohydrate content were determined  
19 on five vines in each treatment on specific dates, from harvest until leaf fall. Stressed vines reduced leaf area  
20 due to defoliation, while well-watered vines had a higher carbon accumulation allowing the formation of new  
21 roots during the post-harvest period. No dry biomass accumulation was observed in the shoot and trunk organs  
22 after fruit harvest. Starch concentration and content were not affected by water stress. At the end of the  
23 experiment, starch concentrations were lower in the shoots and trunk than in the roots. Water stress induced a  
24 variation on biomass accumulation between above and below ground perennial organs, with the roots being the  
25 main organs in which biomass and starch concentrations were accumulated and kept, respectively.

26 **Keywords**

27 Leaf area, leaf net assimilation rate, reserve organs, stem water potential

## 1           **1. Introduction**

2           Water stress can be a limiting factor in perennial crops, affecting important physiological processes  
3 such as photosynthesis and respiration (Chaves et al. 2010). Plant growth depends on the carbon balance which,  
4 in turn, is linked to photosynthesis and the respiration balance and is often limited by water availability (Flexas  
5 et al. 2006). As a result, numerous studies have focused on plant responses to water stress during the vegetative  
6 growth period, with the grapevine providing a clear example (*Vitis vinifera* L.) (Girona et al. 2009, Rogiers et  
7 al. 2011).

8           The grapevine has its origin in the Mediterranean basin and its growth cycle has adapted to the climatic  
9 condition in this area (Terral et al. 2010). Grape production in the regions surrounding the Mediterranean basin  
10 is an important activity, occupying approximately 2,768,000 hectares (OIV 2017). In such regions, the onset of  
11 vegetative growth is defined by bud break (Duchêne et al. 2010). It takes place during spring and is accompanied  
12 by a significant mobilization of carbohydrates from plant reserves. This permits new vegetative growth until  
13 leaves reach 50 % of their final size to become net carbon exporters (Vaillant-Gaveau et al. 2014, Köse and  
14 Ates 2017). Depending on the grapevine cultivar, this mobilization of reserves may even be extended almost  
15 until anthesis (Zapata et al. 2003). The accumulation of carbohydrates during the previous season is therefore  
16 essential for sustaining the mobilization of reserves until photosynthesis becomes the main source of carbon in  
17 spring (Zapata et al. 2004, Smith and Holzappel 2009).

18           The accumulation of carbohydrates in storage tissues depends on total photosynthesis and the  
19 partitioning of carbon among different plant organs (Howell 2001, Smith and Holzappel 2009). In temperate  
20 climate vines, several studies have demonstrated that the majority of the carbohydrate restoration in storage  
21 tissues takes place during the post-harvest period, which supports vine reserve recovery (Bennett et al. 2005,  
22 Vaillant-Gaveau et al. 2014). Although the rate of photosynthetic activity decreases in line with leaf senescence  
23 (Bertamini and Nedunchezian 2003), functional leaves remain active and help the replenishment of reserves  
24 (Scholefield et al. 1978, Loescher et al. 1990). Even in areas with short post-harvest periods, carbohydrate pool  
25 replenishment tends to be sufficient to maintain yield levels (Bennett et al. 2005, Vaillant-Gaveau et al. 2014).  
26 In most grape-growing regions, vines retain their leaves after harvest (Bennett et al. 2005). However, the length  
27 of time that leaves are retained on the vine and the effectiveness of their photosynthetic activity depend on the  
28 cultivar, climatic conditions and viticultural practices (Williams 1996, Trought et al. 2011, Hall et al. 2016).

29           Starch is the primary reserve form for carbohydrates stored in trunk and root organs (Mullins et al.  
30   1992, Pellegrino et al. 2014, Köse and Ates 2017). Although starch concentration seems to be influenced by  
31   grapevine cultivar, climate and vine management (Bennett et al. 2005), the majority of starch storage is located  
32   in roots (Bates et al. 2002, Zapata et al. 2004). The root system consists of: coarse roots, which provide a  
33   structural framework, anchorage, transport and storage for carbohydrates, and nutrients for the woody organs;  
34   and fine roots, which are generally responsible for water and nutrient uptake (Comas et al. 2010). Root  
35   development in grapevines has been described as cyclical, with two main flushes of growth: in spring, between  
36   several days after bud break and bloom; and in autumn, between harvest and leaf fall (Mullins et al. 1992,  
37   Tomasi 2016). Root growth is an energy-dependent process involving endogenous sink-source relations which  
38   depend on the availability and partitioning of carbohydrates. The main environmental factors regulating root  
39   growth are soil temperature (Kaspar and Bland 1992, Rogiers et al. 2013, Clarke et al. 2015) and water  
40   availability. The latter has been described as the most important factor regulating root growth and development  
41   (Eapen et al. 2005, Tomasi 2016). However, the impact of water stress on carbon accumulation following  
42   harvest has so far received relatively little attention. Furthermore, compared with the above-ground organs  
43   (such as leaves, shoots and trunk organs), there are few studies of root processes in grapevines (Field et al.  
44   2009, de Herralde et al. 2010, Holzapfel and Smith 2012, Miranda et al. 2017). This is probably because these  
45   types of studies are highly time consuming and, to the best of our knowledge, at certain specific points in the  
46   post-harvest period (Bates et al. 2002); this is usually an overlooked period for grapevines (Hall et al. 2016).

47           In Mediterranean climatic regions, the post-harvest period coincides with low evaporative demand and  
48   late summer rain events. As a result, numerous studies have focused on grapevine responses to water stress  
49   during the period of vine growth (spring-summer) in which the probability of heat or water stress is high (Eapen  
50   et al. 2005, Duchêne et al. 2010). However, according to climate projections, an increase in the frequency and  
51   intensity of the drought events is expected, not only throughout the growing cycle of the grapevines, but also  
52   during post-harvest (Gonçalves et al. 2014, Ramos et al. 2018). Under such a scenario, the aims of the present  
53   study were to compare the relative contributions of the shoot, trunk and root organs of Chardonnay grapevines  
54   to the restoration of carbohydrate reserves under well-watered and water stress conditions during the post-  
55   harvest period.

56 **2. Materials and methods**

57 *2.1. Experimental site and plant material*

58 The experiment was carried out at Raïmat (41°40'37'' N – 0°28'38'' E), Lleida (Catalonia, Spain), during  
59 2015 and 2016. In spring 2015, 172 one-year-old Chardonnay grapevines that had been grafted onto 1103  
60 Paulsen rootstock were planted in 50-L containers. The growing media consisted of loose stones at the bottom  
61 of each container and a substrate mix consisting of peat, sand and silty-loam soil, in equal parts. Disease control  
62 and nutrition management were performed according to the wine grape production protocol of the 'Costers del  
63 Segre' Denomination of Origin (Catalonia, Spain).

64 *2.2. Experimental design, irrigation treatments and water applied*

65 The vines were fully irrigated until the beginning of the experiment, using the crop reference  
66 evapotranspiration method (Allen et al. 1998). The post-harvest irrigation study started in late August 2016,  
67 after fruit harvest (August 25). For this study, 64 uniform vines were selected and arranged in two rows, of 32  
68 vines each (with a separation between rows of 3 m). The container walls were painted white to prevent excessive  
69 root temperatures. The experiment was laid out in a complete randomized block design with two treatments and  
70 four replications of eight vines. The experimental unit consisted of eight vines (8 vines x 2 treatments x 4  
71 replications).

72 Two irrigation treatments were applied: a control (C), scheduled to satisfy full water requirements (100%  
73 ET<sub>C</sub>), and a water stress treatment (WS). In the latter, irrigation was triggered once the midday stem water  
74 potential (SWP) threshold of -1.1 MPa was reached, following Bellvert et al. (2016). The WS vines were  
75 scheduled to receive 50%, 15% and 10% of the ET<sub>C</sub>, in August, September and October, respectively. The  
76 amount of water applied to each experimental unit was monitored using digital water meters (CZ2000-3 M,  
77 Contazara, Zaragoza, Spain).

78 *2.3. Water status and net assimilation rate measurements*

79 Midday stem water potential (SWP) and leaf net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate ( $A_n$ ) ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )  
80 measurements were made once per week from post-harvest (August 26) until leaf fall (October 19), measuring  
81 one leaf of three of the eight vines per experimental unit in each replication and treatment. Midday stem water  
82 potential (SWP) was determined using a pressure chamber (3005-series portable plant water status console, Soil

83 Moisture Equipment Corp., Santa Barbara, California, USA) following the McCutchan and Shackel (1992)  
 84 procedure. Measurements were made at solar noon on shaded leaves located close to the main trunk. Leaves  
 85 were covered with plastic sheathes with aluminium foil bags for at least 1 hour before measurements were  
 86 taken. Leaf net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rates were measured with an infrared gas analyser (model LCi; ADC  
 87 BioScientific Ltd., Hoddesdon, Herts, UK). A portion of each leaf was placed in the chamber window area of  
 88 6.25 cm<sup>2</sup> and data were taken after 45 s, when the A<sub>n</sub> reading had stabilized. All the measurements were taken  
 89 in less than an hour. The integrated A<sub>n</sub> reading for successive dates and for the whole experiment was calculated  
 90 according to Basile et al. (2011), as follows:

$$91 \int A_n = \sum_i^{i+1} \left| \frac{A_n i + A_n i+1}{2} \cdot (t_{i+1} - t_i) \right| \quad (1)$$

92 Where A<sub>n</sub> is the leaf net assimilation rate and t are the measurement days.

93 The integrated A<sub>n</sub> ratio between irrigation treatments was determined as:

$$94 \text{Ratio } A_n = \int A_{n \text{ WS}} / \int A_{n \text{ C}} \quad (2)$$

95 Subscripts WS and C represent the water stress and control irrigation treatments, respectively.

#### 96 *2.4. Biomass determination*

97 Vine biomass was sampled during the post-harvest period on the following dates: August 25 (initial date  
 98 from which the differential irrigation treatments were applied), September 20, October 4, October 24 and  
 99 November 28. The first sampling date was scheduled before the start of the irrigation treatment, when five vines  
 100 were selected. For the following sampling dates, five vines were selected per treatment. The vines were split  
 101 into above-ground organs (leaves, shoots and trunk) and below-ground organ (root system). Each above-ground  
 102 organ was dried in a forced-air oven at 65°C to constant weight and then the dry weight of each organ was  
 103 recorded. Leaf area (LA) was measured on a subsample of 20 leaves from each vine, except on the last day,  
 104 because by then, all the leaves had naturally fallen off the vine. Leaf areas were measured with a leaf area meter  
 105 (Li-COR 3200; Li-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). After the sub-samples were measured they were placed in a  
 106 forced-air oven and dried to a constant weight. The resulting values were then related to the whole vine leaf dry  
 107 weights to obtain LA measures for each vine.

108 The root system was washed in a container at the field, and subsequently classified, into 4 categories, in  
 109 the lab: a) underground stem of the rootstock, b) thick roots (> 2 mm), c) fine roots (suberized), and d) new

110 roots (fine non-suberized). The differentiation between suberized and non-suberized fine roots was made by  
111 colour, as the new roots were lighter and finer, and the fine roots were darker (Clarke et al. 2015). The whole  
112 root system was dried and the dry weights were recorded as previously described for the above-ground organs.  
113 The proportion of new roots in relation to the total root system was expressed considering the severity and  
114 duration of the water stress effect, calculating the water stress integral from the SWP measurements for the  
115 period.

#### 116 *2.5. Starch accumulation*

117 Vine starch concentration was determined in the shoots, trunk and thick roots (> 2 mm). For each vine, 12  
118 g fresh weight samples were taken for the shoots and trunk and 10 g samples for the thick roots. These were  
119 frozen in liquid nitrogen and then dried in a forced-air oven at 65°C. Once the dry weight was constant, the  
120 samples were ground using a hand mill (M20; IKA-WERKE, Staufen, Germany). Starch concentration  
121 determination was carried out using a polarimetry technique in line with European regulation CE 152/2009.

#### 122 *2.6. Statistical analysis*

123 The effect of the irrigation treatment on leaf net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate, organ dry mass and starch content  
124 were evaluated by a one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's significant difference test. The same analysis  
125 was carried out on the assessment of the effect of the sampling dates on starch concentration. All the statistical  
126 analyses were performed using R software (R Core Team 2017) (R version 3.2.4 Revised) and the statistical  
127 significance was established at P<0.05.

### 128 **3. Results**

#### 129 *3.1. Applied water, water status and net assimilation rate*

130 Each vine received 237 L of water from bud break to harvest prior to the beginning of the experiment.  
131 Then, from harvest to leaf fall, the control (C) vines received 116 L per vine, whereas the water stress (WS)  
132 vines received 46 L per vine. During this period, the stem water potential (SWP) in the C vines ranged from -  
133 0.4 to -0.6 MPa (Figure 1). In the WS treatment, the aim was to subject the vines to moderate stress levels, with  
134 a threshold value of -1.1 MPa. The irrigation threshold was exceeded on two occasions: on September 13 (-1.2  
135 MPa) (following a 2.9 mm late summer rain event typical of Mediterranean conditions); and at the end of the



136 experiment (-1.4 MPa), when the vine water status recovered to non-stress values, following a 21.6 mm rainfall  
137 event (Figure 1). Since the environmental conditions of the experiment were not favourable for achieving stress  
138 after October 19 in the WS vines (Figure 2), that date was taken as the end point of the differential irrigation  
139 management.

140 The water stress imposed in the WS treatment induced some early leaf fall in mid-September (Figure 3).  
141 Thereafter, the reduction in leaf area (LA) ( $\text{m}^2$ ) was related to leaf senescence. In contrast, in the C treatment,  
142 only leaf senescence was responsible for reductions in LA (Figure 3).

143 The leaf net  $\text{CO}_2$  assimilation rate ( $A_n$ ) for the C treatment ranged from 5.9 to 10.6  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , while  
144 that for WS was between 2.3 and 14.1  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Figure 4). From the onset of the experiment until  
145 September 22, the WS leaf net assimilation rates were below those of the C treatment; for the remainder of the  
146 period, those for WS were greater than for C (Figure 4). The relation between the integrated  $A_n$  of WS vines  
147 and C vines was 1.00 (calculated by equation 2); this resulted from 412.40  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ vine}^{-1}$  for the WS and  
148 411.02  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ vine}^{-1}$  for the C vine values (calculated by equation 1) (Figure 4).

### 149 *3.2. Above-ground and below-ground biomass*

150 Irrigation restrictions did not induce any differences in biomass accumulation of perennial above-ground  
151 vine organs. Shoots and trunk did not indicate any significant differences in carbon accumulation for any of the  
152 sampling dates during the period analysed (Figure 5a and 5b).

153 The accumulated biomass measurements for the root systems were not significantly different between  
154 irrigation treatments (Figure 5c). Considering only new root biomass, a significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) increase was  
155 observed for the C treatment with respect to the WS treatment throughout the study; with the October 24  
156 exception (Figure 5c). Differences in accumulated biomass in new roots between the C and WS treatments were  
157 63.4, 44.6 and 50.8 % for the September 20, October 4 and November 28 sampling dates, respectively.

158 The proportion of new root biomass compared total roots biomass was greater in the C treatment compared  
159 to the WS treatment and increased as a function of accumulated waster stress (Figure 6). Since leaf fall occurred  
160 at the end of October, it was not possible to measure water status on the last measurement date (November 28).

### 161 *3.3. Starch accumulation*

162 Starch concentrations during the whole period were significantly different between sampling dates for

163 shoot and trunk organs, in both of the irrigation treatments (Table 1). Significant differences were observed  
164 ( $P < 0.05$ ) between the treatments on the last measurement date (November 28), when the lowest starch  
165 concentrations were registered and ranged from 10.6 and 11.6 %. The highest average starch concentration in  
166 C treatment shoots was 16.7 % for the September 20, October 4 and October 24 sampling dates. The C vines  
167 had the highest starch concentrations in the trunk on the September 20 and October 4 sampling dates, with an  
168 average of 15.7 % (Table 1). The highest starch concentrations in the WS treatment occurred on October 4, in  
169 shoots were registered 16.3 % and 15.2 % in the trunk. No significant differences in starch concentration were  
170 found in root organs for any sampling date or irrigation treatment, during the experiment.

171 As observed for dry mass, in all of the perennial organs, the starch content was not significantly different  
172 between irrigation treatments for any sampling dates (Figure 7). There were statistical differences between the  
173 first (August 25) and the last (November 28) sampling dates within the same irrigation treatments. Shoot starch  
174 content did significantly decline from 9.3 g of starch to 7.1 g in the C vines and 6.7 in the WS vines by November  
175 28 (Figure 7a). As with shoots, the minimum starch content in trunk was registered on the last sampling date  
176 (November 28), with 8.8 g in both treatments (11.2 g of starch was measured on August 25) (Figure 7b). Over  
177 time the starch content in the roots of the C and WS treatments appeared to diverge, but the differences were  
178 not statistically significant (Figure 7c).

#### 179 **4. Discussion**

180 One of the most noticeable effects of water stress during post-harvest was the rapid reduction of leaf area  
181 through defoliation, with plants accelerating the normal process of leaf senescence apparently to compensate  
182 for unfavourable water status conditions (Figure 3). During post-harvest, leaf functioning is considered to play  
183 an important role in carbohydrate assimilation until leaf senescence (Loescher et al. 1990, Köse and Ates 2017).  
184 In spite of the imposed water stress in our study, the total amount of assimilated carbon per leaf surface area  
185 was similar for both treatments throughout the experiment ( $\int A_{n\ leaf\ WS} / \int A_{n\ leaf\ C} = 1$ ) (Figure 4). However, the  
186 leaf biomass in WS vines was considerably reduced in comparison with C vines, due to defoliation (Figure 3),  
187 which it could have allowed a lower carbohydrate assimilation. The differences between the treatments with  $A_n$   
188 were smaller than expected, because the remaining WS leaves demonstrated greater photosynthetic activity than  
189 the C vines (Figure 4). In the C vines, the photosynthetic rate was similar to that reported in other studies  
190 (Sauvignon blanc, 5 – 11  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2\ \text{m}^{-2}\ \text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Greven et al. 2016). Abiotic factors such as temperature, light

191 and/or water are known to affect the photosynthetic capacity of vine leaves (Escalona et al. 1999). In the present  
192 experiment, however, the main factor responsible for the differences between treatments was the different leaf  
193 area (Figure 3). During the stress period, the remaining leaves on the WS vines had a greater  $A_n$ , which partially  
194 compensated for the impact of the reduction in leaf area attributable to water stress (Figure 4). This  
195 compensation may have been the reason why the starch content presented no clear treatment effects (Table 1,  
196 Figure 7).

197 No significant differences were found between the treatments in terms of shoot and trunk dry mass during  
198 the course of the experiment (Figure 5a and 5b). The figures 5a and 5b showed a hint of less biomass in the WS  
199 vine treatment, but the differences were not statistically significant. At the root level, however, new root  
200 formation took place in both treatments, but at different rates (Figure 6). The level of the initial stress imposed  
201 on WS on this study may be high enough to restrict the growth rate of new roots and keep this below that of the  
202 C treatment, even during periods when the plant water status recovered (Figure 1 and Figure 6). This argument  
203 is supported by Figure 6, where is presented a comparison between the water stress integral and the growth of  
204 new roots. This was probably related to the reduction in leaf area after the initial stress was applied in WS  
205 (Figure 3); this may have limited the photosynthetic capacity of the vine.

206 Respiration processes necessary for growth and organ maintenance are affected by water stress and, as a  
207 consequence, starch content could be also influenced (Flexas et al. 2006, López et al. 2013). Previous studies  
208 of vines subjected to water stress conditions have shown differences in starch concentrations and contents  
209 (Holzapfel et al. 2010). However, despite the different root growth rates, no significant differences were found  
210 in total root biomass (Figure 5c) and the same was true for starch content (Figure 7c). But since the biomass  
211 already present in the roots probably was large enough to mask differences, no differences were expected in  
212 root biomass and starch content. Although no statistically differences were found on total root dry mass between  
213 treatments (Figure 5c), it should not be ignored the apparent differences in root dry mass among vine treatments.  
214 Furthermore, no differences between treatments were found in starch concentration (Table 1). The differences  
215 that were found were in shoot and trunk starch concentrations corresponding to the last series of measurements  
216 taken in the experiment (Table 1). The last measurement date also coincided with the lowest starch content  
217 (Figure 7a and 7b) (Greven et al. 2016). In previous studies, starch concentration was evaluated in perennial  
218 organs for several grapevine cultivars and locations. Reported trunk starch concentrations ranged from 4 to 14

219 % (Bates et al. 2002, Zapata et al. 2004, Sadras and Moran 2013), and 10 % for a Chardonnay cultivar in New  
220 Zealand (Bennett et al. 2005). The same studies of vine roots reported starch concentrations of 8 to 30 %, and  
221 13 % for Chardonnay (in New Zealand). Our starch concentration values were similar to previous Chardonnay  
222 study (14 % in trunk and 12 % in roots, on average) (Table 1). This indicates that the level of water stress  
223 applied was not enough to influence the starch concentration in these organs. The differences between the  
224 concentrations in the shoots and trunk observed at the end of the experiment may have been related to the  
225 conversion of starch into other carbohydrates because no remobilization appeared to take place at the root level  
226 (starch values remaining constant, Table 1). The decrease on starch concentration in shoots and trunk after leaf  
227 fall (November 28, Table 1) could have been associated with the demand for carbohydrates for new root growth,  
228 maintaining organ respiration, or acclimatization of the grapevines to low temperatures. This is because  
229 increasing vine hardiness to winter conditions requires the conversion of starch into soluble sugars when  
230 temperatures fall below 5 °C and the days become shorter in the middle of winter (Hamman et al. 1996, Keller  
231 2010, Zufferey et al. 2012). These environmental conditions were similar to those corresponding to the last  
232 sampling measurements taken in the study (Figure 2).

233 Maintaining starch concentrations and root biomass in the WS treatment responded to a redistribution of  
234 carbohydrate assimilates on shoot and trunk reserves organs. Also, it responds to a conservative strategy for  
235 preserving carbohydrates in the form of starch to ensure carbon reserves for subsequent spring growth. Water  
236 stress is known to affect root growth in vines (Eapen et al. 2005, Comas et al. 2010, Maihemuti et al. 2016).  
237 The reduction in root growth induced by the water stress added to the lack of fruits in the post-harvest period  
238 reduced the potentially available sinks and favoured the allocation of new photosynthates towards reserves  
239 (Iniesta et al. 2009). Furthermore, pre-harvest reserve replenishment has been reported to begin during fruit  
240 maturation, when berry sugar accumulation slows; this means that reserve accumulation in roots could have  
241 started before and they may be replenished enough by harvest (Candolfi-Vasconcelos et al. 1994, Holzapfel et  
242 al. 2006, Rossouw et al. 2017). If this is so, even though the WS vines were stressed, they may have still been  
243 able to keep similar concentrations of reserves as the well-watered plants and this would have allowed them to  
244 regrow in the next season. This would imply that vines either have a conservation strategy that allows them to  
245 maintain carbohydrates in the form of starch, which gives priority to the survival of permanent structures over  
246 any increase in vine size (Greven et al. 2016). According to Greven et al. (2016), the carbohydrate dynamics

247 related to storage in reserve organs suggests that the trunk may serve as a relevant, albeit transitional, reserve  
248 storage organ between the root system and the rest of the vine, and as the most accessible storage sink. Roots,  
249 on the other hand, are widely considered to be the most important storage reserve organs in vines (Scholefield  
250 et al. 1978, Loescher et al. 1990, Bates et al. 2002).

251 Containers do not adequately recreate and represent field conditions (Bravdo 2005), because they prevent  
252 roots from spreading as widely as they would in soil conditions (Zapata et al. 2001). Furthermore, different  
253 stomatal closure processes could be involved with vines grown in soil, such as abscisic acid signalling  
254 (Vandeleur et al. 2009). This experiment may point out that water stress during post-harvest “forces” allocation  
255 of assimilates towards reserves, thereby allowing plants to maintain their reserves for the following season.

256 The early defoliation of vines, after several consecutive years under warm conditions and water limitations,  
257 has been reported to influence carbohydrate reserves. As a result in the subsequent seasons, it occurred the  
258 reductions in yields and poorer vegetative growth, because new growth is dependent on pre-existing reserves  
259 (Vaillant-Gaveau et al. 2014, Greven et al. 2016, Köse and Ates 2017). Under the conditions where our study  
260 was developed, we did not evaluate variations on carbohydrate reserves in front of water limitation. But it could  
261 be hypothesised that an accumulative effect on vine reserves during post-harvest period under these conditions  
262 may deplete them. As it has showed on this work, the most significant effect evaluated due to water stress was  
263 the reduction of fine root growth, which it may hinder the vegetative growth on the following season. Recent  
264 research related to climate change within the same study area has reported reductions in annual precipitation,  
265 in both autumn and winter, and an increase in temperatures, especially during summer (Gonçalves et al. 2014).  
266 Which it coincided according with the environmental conditions in which the work was tried to be carried out.  
267 Moreover, phenological shifts associated with increasing temperatures have been reported in several wine-  
268 growing regions (Jones and Davis 2000, Duchêne et al. 2010, Petrie and Sadras 2008). One of the main possible  
269 consequences of this shifts may be the enlargement of the post-harvest, its occurrence into warmer conditions  
270 and the increase of the irrigation water requirements (Hall et al. 2016). It is substantial to consider the possible  
271 interactions in grapevine behaviour, taking into consideration changes in environmental conditions, shifts in  
272 phenological events and carbon balances and partitioning (Ollat and Touzard 2014).

273 **5. Conclusions**

274 The main effect of water stress on grapevines during the post-harvest period was the defoliation of the  
275 vines and reduction in their total leaf area. Supplying full water demands until leaf fall permitted the  
276 maintenance of photosynthetic leaf area and consequently a higher level of carbohydrate accumulation, along  
277 with the formation of new roots which are responsible for high water and nutrient uptake. The lack of water  
278 caused vines to respond with variations on biomass accumulation between above and below ground perennial  
279 organs, indicating a high response in carbon economy in order to favour the survival of the permanent structures  
280 rather than total increases in vine size. Moreover, water stress did not influence the main storage organ, the  
281 roots, keeping the biomass and starch concentrations.

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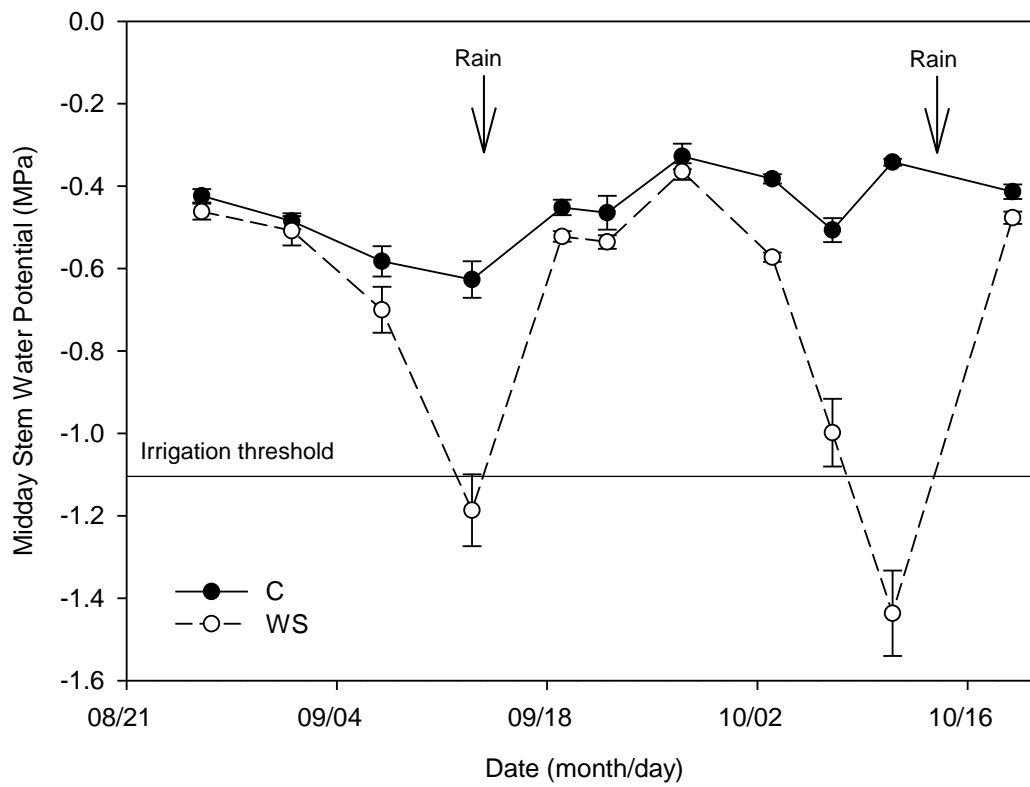
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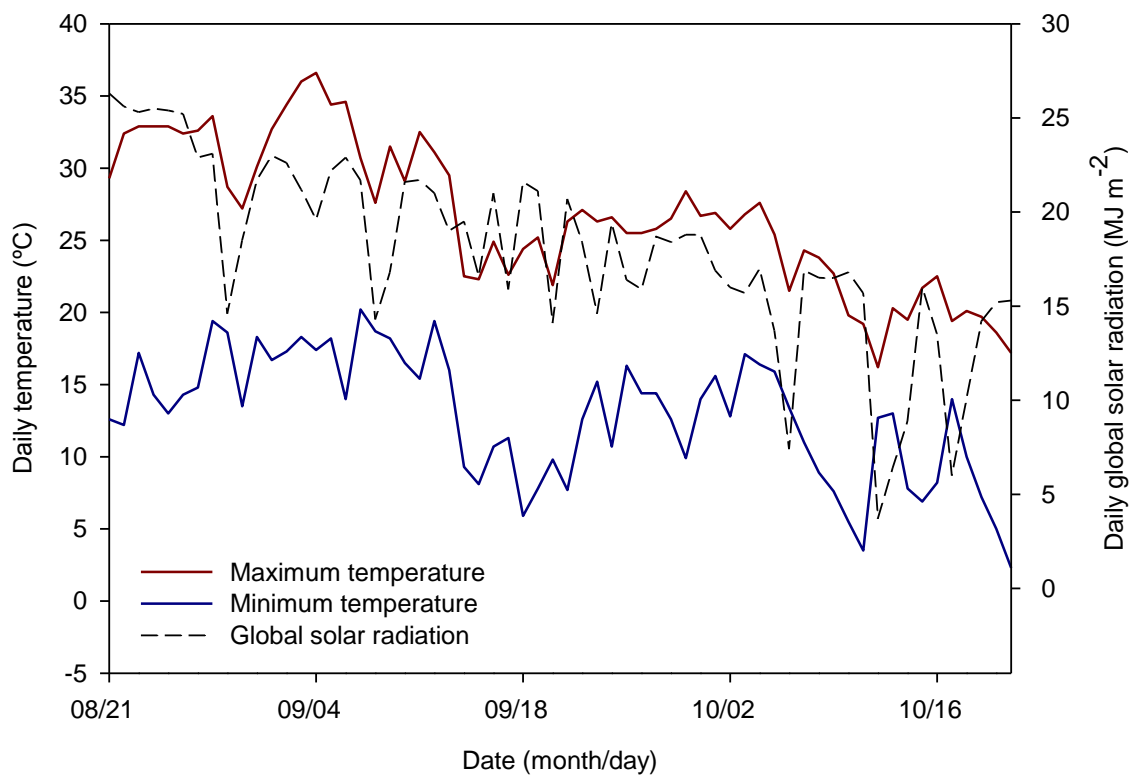
- 1 **Table 1.** Starch concentrations of shoots and trunk (perennial above-ground organs) and roots (below-ground  
 2 reserve organ) for vines harvested during the course of the post-harvest treatments.

Sampling date (month/day)	Treatment					
	Control (%)			Water Stress (%)		
	<i>Shoots</i>	<i>Trunk</i>	<i>Tick roots</i>	<i>Shoots</i>	<i>Trunk</i>	<i>Tick roots</i>
Starting date 08/25	14.2 ± 0.5 <sup>b</sup>	13.5 ± 0.3 <sup>b</sup>	12.3 ± 1.2 <sup>a</sup>	14.2 ± 0.5 <sup>b</sup>	13.5 ± 0.3 <sup>b</sup>	12.3 ± 1.2 <sup>a</sup>
09/20	16.7 ± 0.2 <sup>a</sup>	15.7 ± 0.2 <sup>a</sup>	12.5 ± 0.8 <sup>a</sup>	15.1 ± 0.5 <sup>ab</sup>	14.9 ± 0.4 <sup>ab</sup>	13.0 ± 1.6 <sup>a</sup>
10/04	16.6 ± 0.2 <sup>a</sup>	15.8 ± 0.2 <sup>a</sup>	14.0 ± 1.0 <sup>a</sup>	16.3 ± 0.2 <sup>a</sup>	15.2 ± 0.2 <sup>a</sup>	12.2 ± 0.4 <sup>a</sup>
10/24	16.8 ± 0.5 <sup>a</sup>	15.0 ± 0.2 <sup>ab</sup>	11.3 ± 0.7 <sup>a</sup>	15.7 ± 0.5 <sup>ab</sup>	14.8 ± 0.4 <sup>ab</sup>	12.5 ± 0.5 <sup>a</sup>
11/28	11.6 ± 0.3 <sup>c</sup>	10.7 ± 0.3 <sup>c</sup>	13.3 ± 1.1 <sup>a</sup>	10.9 ± 0.3 <sup>c</sup>	10.6 ± 0.4 <sup>c</sup>	11.3 ± 0.7 <sup>a</sup>

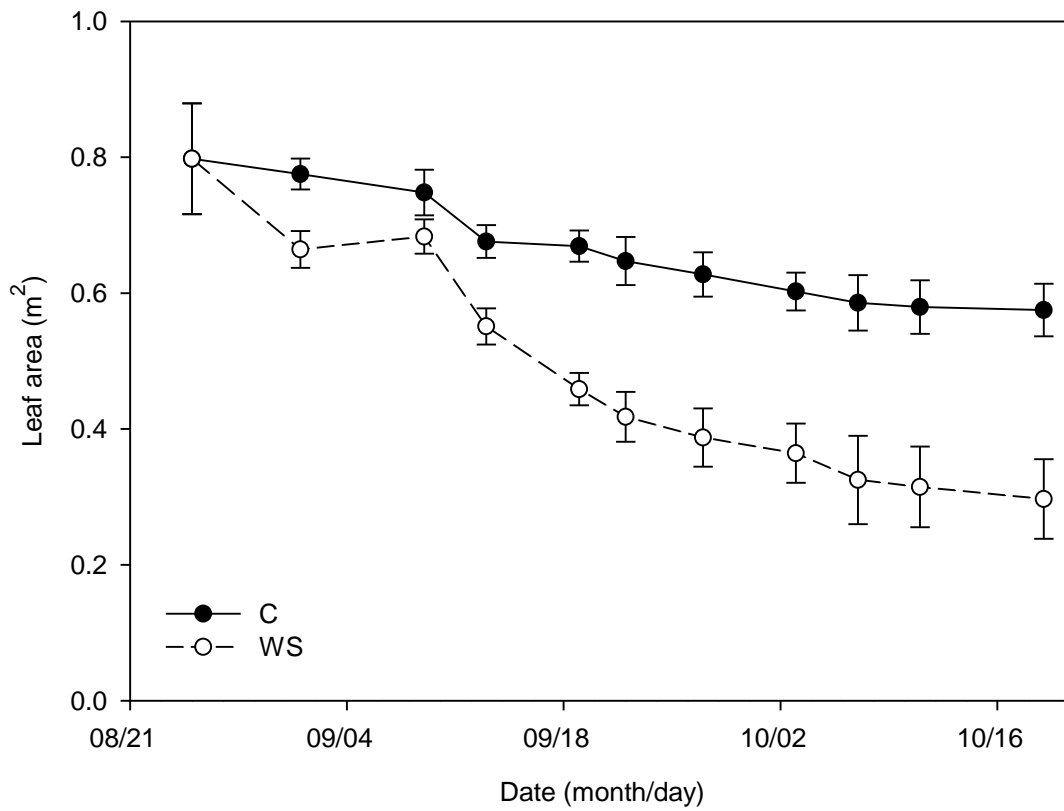
- 3 Different letters mean significant differences on starch concentration between sampling dates in the same organ  
 4 and in the same irrigation treatment (P<0.05).



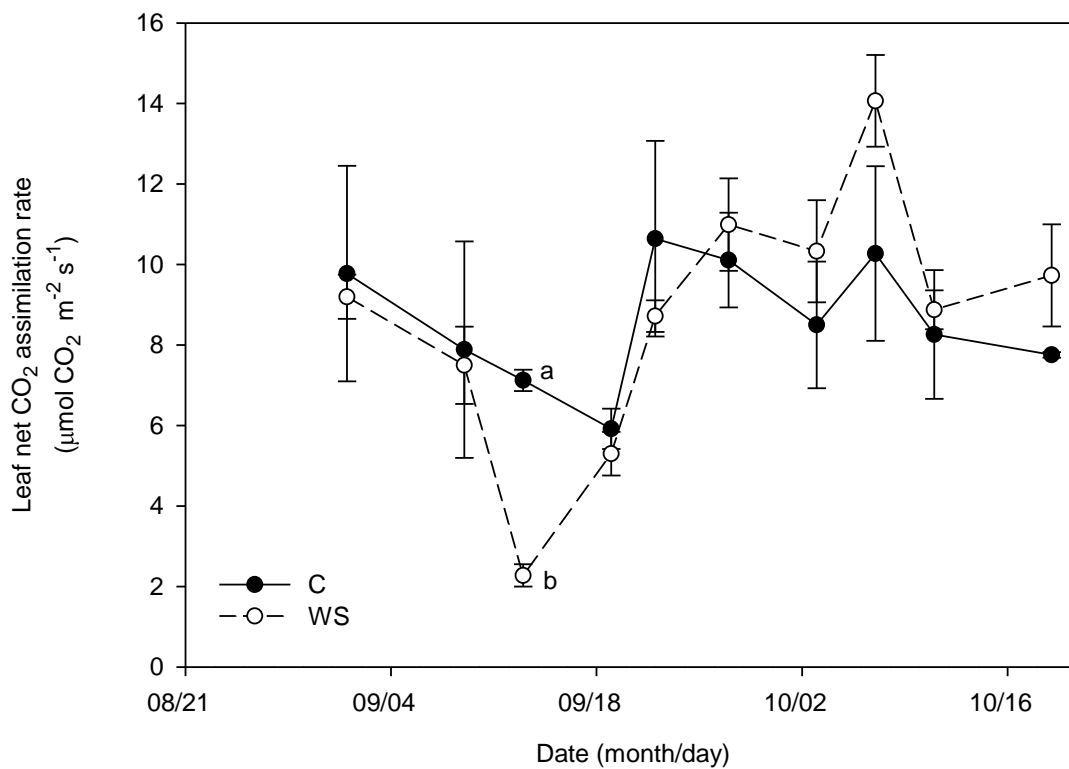
**Figure 1.** Post-harvest period patterns of midday stem water potential for vines under control (C) and water stress (WS) treatments. Natural leaf fall occurred on October 19. The irrigation threshold in the WS treatment was defined as -1.1 MPa. The bars indicate the standard error of the mean.



**Figure 2.** Climate summary during the experimental period with daily maximum and minimum temperature and daily global solar radiation. Environmental data was retrieved from the nearest weather station (1 km) from the study location (Raimat, [www.ruralcat.net/web/guest/agrometeo.estacions](http://www.ruralcat.net/web/guest/agrometeo.estacions)).

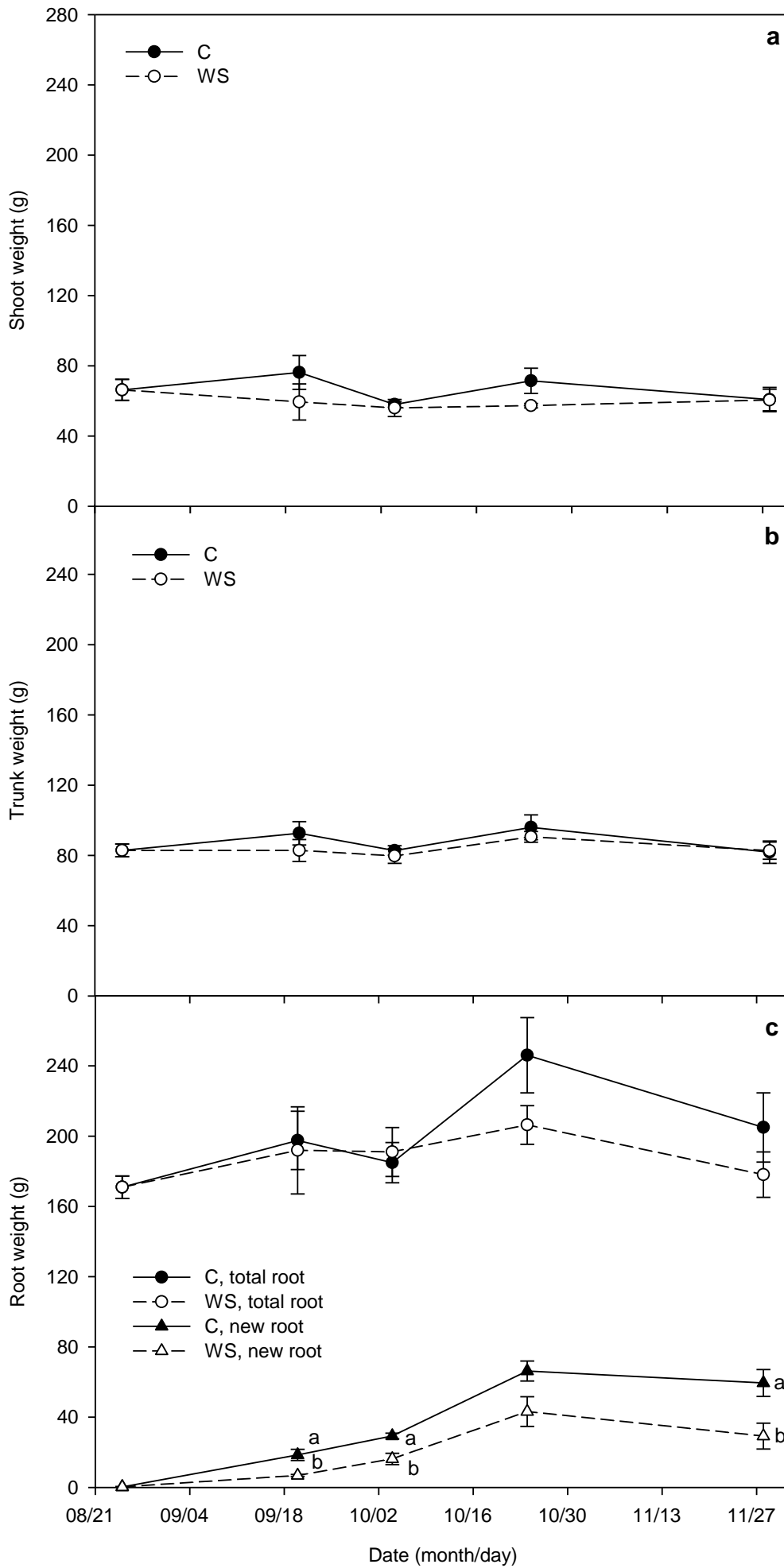


**Figure 3.** Leaf area pattern until leaf fall on vines under control (C) and water stress (WS) treatments. Natural leaf fall occurred on October 19. The values represent the means for five vines per treatment and the bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

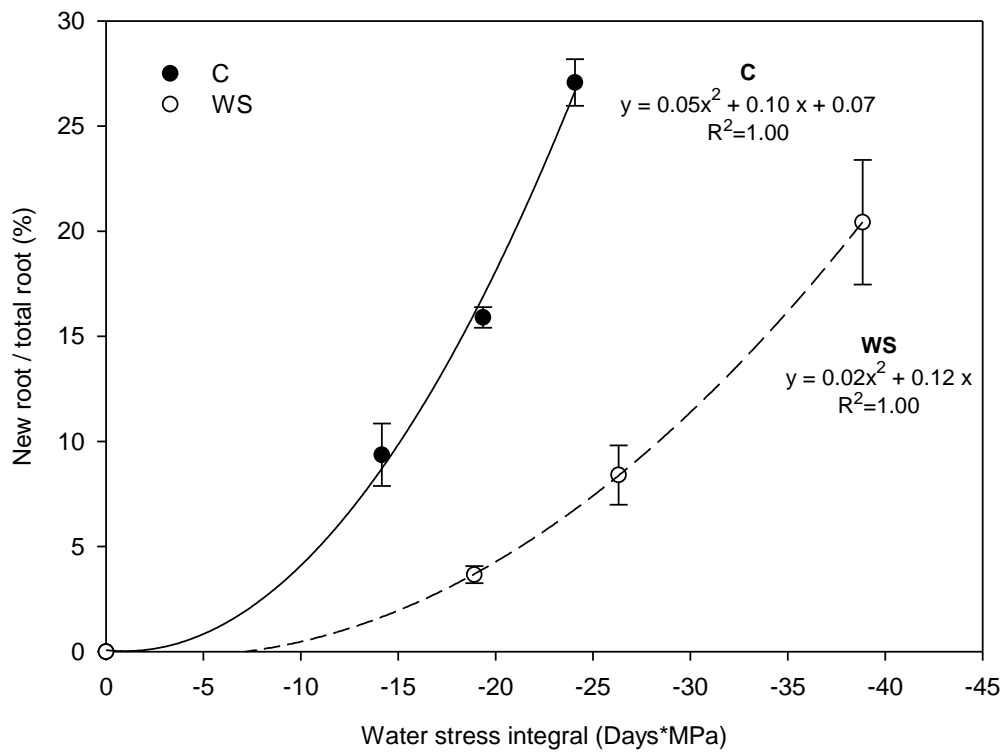


**Figure 4.** Post-harvest period patterns of leaf net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate for vines under control (C) and water stress (WS) treatments. Natural leaf fall occurred on October 19. Bars indicate the standard error of the mean. Different letters indicate significant differences between irrigation treatments for the same date ( $P < 0.05$ ).

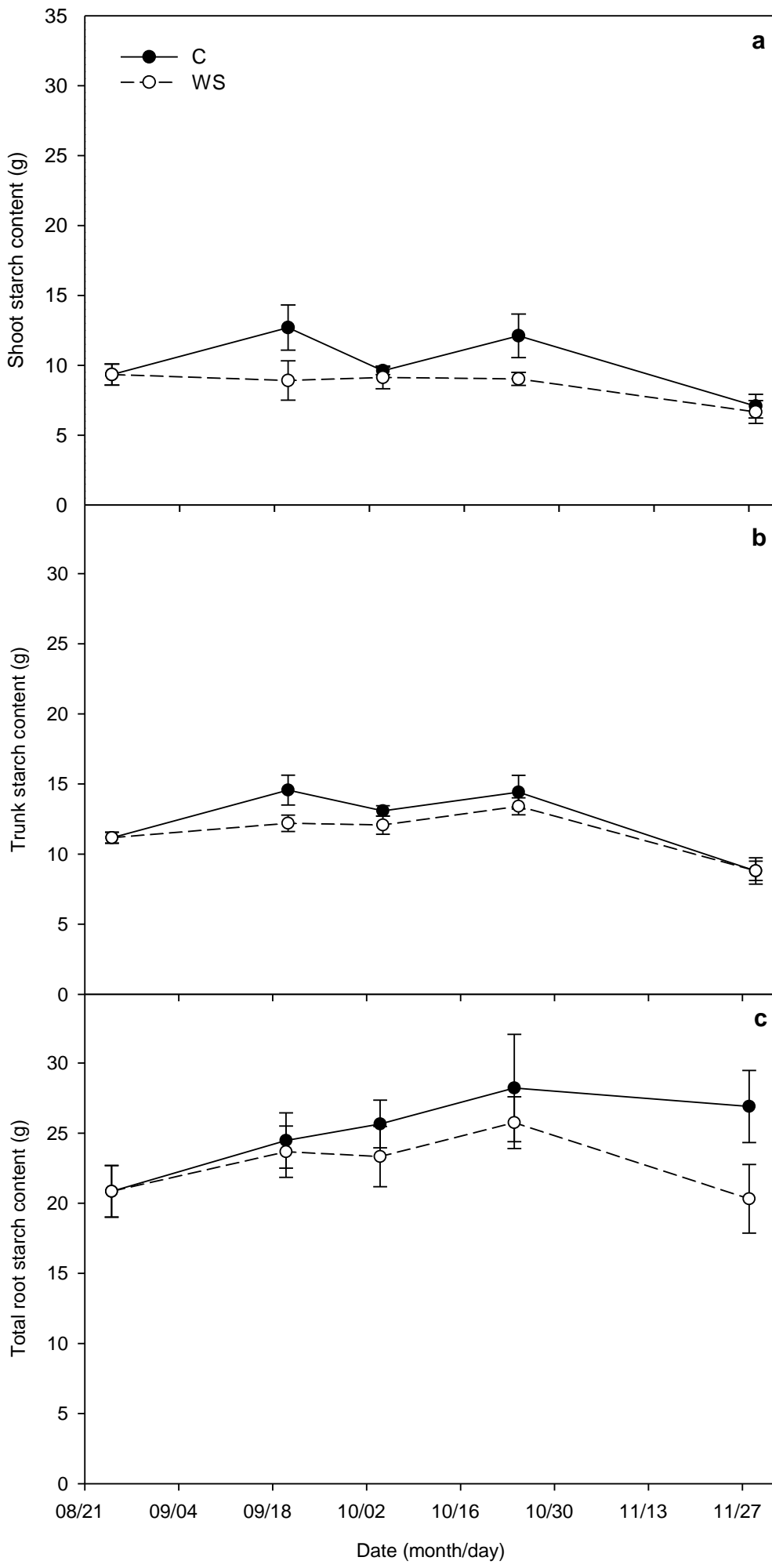




**Figure 5.** Post-harvest period patterns for dry mass in shoot (a), trunk (b), total root and new root organs (c) under control (C) and water stress (WS) treatments. The values represent the means of five vines per treatment and the bars indicate the standard error of the mean. There were no significant differences between irrigation treatments for the same sampling date ( $P < 0.05$ ).



**Figure 6.** Proportion of new root to total root weight in response to the cumulative water stress integral of vines under the control (C) and water stress (WS) treatments. The values represent means for five vines per treatment on the August 25, September 20, October 4 and October 24 sampling dates. Bars indicate the standard error of the mean. Equations represent the polynomial adjustment of the measures.



**Figure 7.** Post-harvest patterns of starch content in shoot (a), trunk (b) and total root (c) organs under control (C) and water stress (WS) treatments. The values represent the means for five vines per treatment and the bars indicate the standard error. There were no significant differences between irrigation treatments for the same sampling date ( $P < 0.05$ ).