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Keywords: affordable phenotyping; EPPN; grapevine; image analysis; leaf gas exchanges; water potential; water stress

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**Abstract:** This study examined whether morphophysiological traits (i.e., leaf area, plant water consumption, leaf water potential) of drought stressed grapevines (*Vitis vinifera* L.) might be determined through the use of non-destructive RGB and NIR image-based analysis techniques for possible implementation of affordable phenotyping. The study was carried out at a centre which is part of the European Plant Phenotyping Network (EPPN) also aiming at contribute to the standardisation of phenotyping protocols.

Four groups of 20 potted vines each were subjected to various irrigation treatments restoring 100% (control), 75% (IRR75%), 50% (IRR50%) and 25% (IRR25%) of their daily water consumption within a 22-day period of drought imposition. Leaf gas exchanges, leaf water potential ( $\Psi$ , photosystem II efficiency (Fv/Fm), RGB and NIR data were simultaneously collected during drought imposition. Values of  $\Psi$  in IRR25% vines reached -1.2 MPa pre-dawn, in turn stomatal conductance and net photosynthetic rate reached values as low as approx. 0.02 mol H<sub>2</sub>O m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and 1.0  $\mu$ mol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Through a cross-validation analysis, this study modelled (R<sup>2</sup>=0.78) the estimation of plant canopy area based on the number of pixel of RGB images of vines under various drought levels. Estimated leaf area was employed to calculate water consumption per unit leaf area, which resulted correlated (R<sup>2</sup>=0.86) with  $\Psi$ .

Results revealed a correlation between  $\Psi$  and Dark Green colour class (R<sup>2</sup>=0.71) and suggest a new working hypothesis concerning the phenotyping of leaf (or petiole) angle. NIR and Dark Green colour fraction decreased with increasing levels of drought while the Yellow one increased. The outcomes presented may strengthen the role of RGB and NIR based images to identify the occurrence of water-stress in *Vitis* spp. and contribute to

both the standardisation of phenotyping protocols pursued by the global phenotyping community and the possible development of new tools for precision irrigation in a HTP domain.

Matera, May 31<sup>st</sup> 2019

To:

**The Editor-in Chief**

***Scientia Horticulturae***

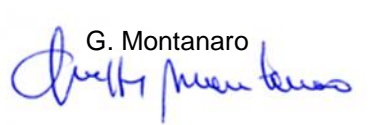
*Dear Sir,*

We appreciated the favourable position of the Editorial Board concerning the potential acceptance of the manuscript. Now I'm submitting the revised version of the manuscript titled "Drought phenotyping in *Vitis vinifera* using RGB and NIR imaging" Ms. No. **HORTI23411R1** for the re-evaluation for publication in *Scientia Horticulturae*.

The manuscript has been revised accepting the comments received by Reviewer #1, and we thanks the reviewer #3 for his/her positive comments. **Minor changes have been written in red in the revised version.**

We hope this revised version of the manuscript could be found appropriate for publication in *Scientia Horticulturae*.

We look forward to your next communication. Please let me know if you need any further information. Sincerely yours,

G. Montanaro  


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Manuscript ID HORTI23411R1

TITLE " Drought phenotyping in *Vitis vinifera* using RGB and NIR imaging"

Answer to Reviewer #1 comments.

1. *I understand that the imaging system provides you with some colour classes, which do not correspond by any means with spectral bands. I do not know if this is fully clarified in the manuscript. Please do it in the M&M section.*

Thanks for your comment. In order to further improve the clarity of the text, in a couple of sentences we specify that the RGB images were sourced by Visible light camera (please refer to lines 139 of the M&M section), in turn also the Line 380 was slightly reworded.

2. *Do you know if the embedded process for colour classification is based on Mahalanobis algorithm or similar? Did you choose the pixel seeds to define the different color classes or were they pre-configured in the system? Please include some info.*

Thanks for your comments, unfortunately the user manual of the LemnaTec Grid software does not report any clear information on the algorithm(s) adopted for the colour class classification. At the paragraph "8.2.2.5.1.1.3.1 Device- Colour classification" it is reported that the colour of each single pixel is assigned with a procedure based on the "Euklidan distance in RGB space". We believe that this general information might be of very limited interest for readers because no clear algorithm description is provided, hence we do not add it in the revised version. The vagueness of the algorithm used might likely be in some way due to a confidential nature of that information. By a scientific point of view, the replicability of the study is allowed because all information on LemnaTec machines and software employed were provided, ultimately considering that the LemnaTec software is not an open source, the deep knowledge of the algorithm used for colour class classification would not be useful for potential customization.

Concerning the choice of the pixel seeds (corresponding to the "anchor points" in the LemnaTecGrid software manual), it was operated but we were not accurate in reporting it in the M&M section. At the beginning of the image analysis, two anchor points (RGB colour values) per each colour class were identified as follow: Dark Green R126 G134 B68, R116 G123 B75; Green R156 G170 B87, R150 G177 B73; Yellow R255 G242 B157, R255 G244 B116; Brown R133 G104 B67, R124 G107 B60. This information is now included in the revised ms (please refer to 149-151 lines)

3. *Regarding the combination of PD and MD stem water potential. The papers you include as examples do not combine measurements of a given physiological variable at different times of the day with the same purpose as you do in your work (you want to run a regression, they don't). For this reason I still think this combination is completely sound, but I will not go further on this.*

Thank you.

Line 437. Please remove "reflectance" after RGB  
DONE, please refer to line 447 of the revised ms

Line 834 (Figure 10 caption). Add "classes" after Dark Green

DONE

## **Drought phenotyping in *Vitis vinifera* using RGB and NIR imaging**

By N. Briglia et al.

- This study examined whether morphophysiological traits (e.g., leaf water potential,  $\Psi$ ) of drought stressed grapevines might be determined through image-based analysis techniques
- Non-destructive image-based method for the prediction of leaf area in drought stressed vines ( $R^2 = 0.92$ ) is presented
- The Dark Green fraction colour class correlates ( $R^2 = 0.71$ ) with  $\Psi$ .
- Data presented support the development of affordable phenotyping and standardization of protocols

## **Drought phenotyping in *Vitis vinifera* using RGB and NIR imaging**

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1 **Abstract** This study examined whether morphophysiological traits (i.e., leaf area, plant water  
2 consumption, leaf water potential) of drought stressed grapevines (*Vitis vinifera* L.) might be  
3 determined through the use of non-destructive RGB and NIR image-based analysis techniques for  
4 possible implementation of affordable phenotyping. The study was carried out at a centre which is  
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7 various irrigation treatments restoring 100% (control), 75% ( $IRR_{75\%}$ ), 50% ( $IRR_{50\%}$ ) and 25%  
8 ( $IRR_{25\%}$ ) of their daily water consumption within a 22-day period of drought imposition. Leaf gas  
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11 pre-dawn, in turn stomatal conductance and net photosynthetic rate reached values as low as  
12 approx.  $0.02 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $1.0 \text{ } \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. Through a cross-validation  
13 analysis, this study modelled ( $R^2=0.78$ ) the estimation of plant canopy area based on the number of  
14 pixel of RGB images of vines under various drought levels. Estimated leaf area was employed to  
15 calculate water consumption per unit leaf area, which resulted correlated ( $R^2=0.86$ ) with  $\Psi$ . Results  
16 revealed a correlation between  $\Psi$  and Dark Green colour class ( $R^2=0.71$ ) and suggest a new  
17 working hypothesis concerning the phenotyping of leaf (or petiole) angle. NIR and Dark Green  
18 colour fraction decreased with increasing levels of drought while the Yellow one increased. The  
19 outcomes presented may strengthen the role of RGB and NIR based images to identify the  
20 occurrence of water-stress in *Vitis* spp. and contribute to both the standardisation of phenotyping  
21 protocols pursued by the global phenotyping community and the possible development of  
22 new tools for precision irrigation in a HTP domain.

23  
24 **Key words:** affordable phenotyping, EPPN, grapevine, image analysis, leaf gas exchanges,  
25 water potential, water stress.

26

## 27 **1. Introduction**

28 Drought occurrence is expected to increase in some cultivated areas due to future  
29 uncertainty in precipitations resulting mainly from climate changes, this in turn will reduce  
30 stock of freshwater for irrigated agricultural sector (IPCC, 2013; Ronco et al., 2017)  
31 requiring adaptation strategies including improved on-farm irrigation management.  
32 Although drought occurrence negatively influence certain plant performances (e.g., fruit  
33 size, carbon gain) (Miller et al., 1998; Shackel, 2007), the exposure of plant to drought  
34 might favour fruit quality traits depending on timing, intensity, duration of drought and  
35 crop species (Chaves, et al., 2010; Herrero-Langreo, et al., 2018). For instance, in grape  
36 berries the amount of key quality pigments (e.g., total anthocyanins) measured at harvest is  
37 higher in drought stressed vines compared to well irrigated ones (Acevedo-Opazo et al.,  
38 2010). Hence, irrigation management might potentially be relevant for both the  
39 conservation of natural resources (through water saving) and increased quality of product.

40

41 In addition to real time soil moisture probes, the measurements of several *in vivo* plant  
42 physiological parameters have been proposed for irrigation schedule including sap flow,  
43 stomatal conductance, leaf turgor pressure, shrinkage of stem/fruit, leaf (or stem) water  
44 potential ( $\Psi$ ) (Fernández, 2017). Some of these crop (i.e., soil and plant) parameters are  
45 collectively feeding most of the irrigation decision support systems now increasingly  
46 accepted by growers due to their decreasing price; however sensor reliability is still  
47 perceived as a weakness (Lichtenberg et al., 2015). Leaf water potential is a reliable plant  
48 water status indicator for irrigation scheduling but its application at large scale (e.g.,



49 commercial field) is hampered by the high costs (including time) needed for timely and  
50 adequately representative  $\Psi$  determinations (Girona et al., 2006, De Bei et al., 2010).  
51 Hence, a wider adoption of  $\Psi$  as irrigation schedule tool might be boosted by the  
52 development of easy accessible, accurate and low-cost proxy of  $\Psi$ .

53

54 Precision agriculture is challenging the reduction of environmental impact of practices and  
55 the improvement of product quality through a series of smart tools including plant  
56 phenotyping as supported by image analysis techniques (Fiorani and Schurr, 2013). In this  
57 context, some recently developed high-throughput phenotyping (HTP) innovations  
58 including unmanned aerial vehicles (UAV), robotised platforms and colour image-derived  
59 indices are promising tools for irrigation managing purpose (Berger et al., 2010; Gago et  
60 al., 2017; Diago et al., 2018). However, the infrastructure and man-labour cost as well as  
61 skills for operational HTP are debatable highlighting the importance of “affordable  
62 phenotyping” (Reynolds et al., 2018).

63

64 Recently, the estimation of the vineyard water status using multispectral imagery from an  
65 UAV platform and machine learning algorithm based on artificial neural networks have  
66 been proposed (Poblete et al., 2017; Romero et al., 2018; Fernández-Novales et al., 2018)  
67 but encompassing relatively complex procedures to the extent that the combination of  
68 several (up to 13) vegetation indices were needed. This complexity might slow its large  
69 scale diffusion (Rinaldi and He, 2014). According to this view it makes sense to evoke  
70 Rapaport and co-workers (2015) who developed water balance indices able to predict  $\Psi$

71 based on reflectance values at specific wavelengths (1 nm spectral resolution). However, it  
72 seems there is room to expand affordable phenotyping of  $\Psi$ .

73

74 Automated phenotyping of plant stress responses are mainly based on red-green-blue  
75 (RGB), fluorescence, near infrared (NIR) (e.g. Casadesus et al., 2007; Harbinson et al.,  
76 2012; Diago et al. 2018) and thermal IR imaging systems (e.g. Grant et al., 2007; Cohen et  
77 al., 2015; Bellvert et al., 2016; Gutiérrez et al., 2018), with RGB the most frequently used  
78 imaging module (Ge et al., 2016). In addition, RGB images have been used also at field  
79 scale to model canopy structure, plant growth, irrigation schedule, etc. thanks to their  
80 relatively low-cost and wide accessibility as seen by the use of even smartphone cameras  
81 (see Reynolds et al., 2018 for review). However specific information on RGB-based images  
82 and  $\Psi$  correlation in *Vitis* spp. are not adequately explored. Therefore, this study examined  
83 whether  $\Psi$  of grapevines subjected to drought would be correlated to RGB and NIR  
84 images.

85 Nowadays phenotyping biotic and abiotic stress is growing fast and standardisation of  
86 phenotyping protocols is becoming a common challenge (van Eeuwijk et al., 2018) where  
87 making parallel measurements of physiological and phenomic traits are highly desirable  
88 particularly under drought stress. Hence, in this study physiological traits (e.g., leaf gas  
89 exchanges, efficiency of photosystem II, plant water consumption) were simultaneously  
90 monitored along with  $\Psi$  and RGB and NIR images acquisition.

91

92 Leaf area (*LA*) represents almost the entire plant transpiring surface directly influencing  
93 plant water consumption and therefore it is a classical key parameter for irrigation  
94 management embedded as crop coefficient within crop water balance calculations  
95 (Doorenbos and Pruitt, 1977). Hence, a non-destructive estimation of *LA* might assist in  
96 defining HTP-based protocols for drought management. For this reason this study also  
97 aimed at improving *LA* estimation through RGB-based images and to test whether water  
98 consumption per unit of estimated *LA* correlates with  $\Psi$  of progressively drought stressed  
99 vines.

100

101

## 102 **2. Materials and methods**

### 103 *2.1 Plant material and experimental design*

104 The experiment was carried out at the ALSIA ‘Metapontum Agrobios’ Research Centre,  
105 located at Metaponto, Southern Italy (N 40° 23' E 16° 47') during the 2017 growing season  
106 under unheated and not-conditioned greenhouse conditions. A total of 80 3-year old own-  
107 rooted vines (cv Aleatico) were grown in a white 3.5 L PVC pot covered with plastic film  
108 to minimise direct evaporation of water from soil. The substrate was a 3:1 v/v mixture of  
109 sandy loam soil (82 % sand, 7 % silt and 11 % clay) and peat. At 15, 30 and 45 days after  
110 bud-break (early March) the vines were fertilised with a NPK fertiliser 14.7.14 (Slowenne  
111 212, Valagro Spa, Atessa, Italy) at a dose of 3 g per pot. From bud-break till the first day of  
112 irrigation treatment application (21<sup>st</sup> of April, hereafter referred as “day 0”) all vines were  
113 fully irrigated. Vines were weighed every evening and 100% of the amount of water

114 transpired daily was added to keep soil moisture at field capacity. The vines were trained  
115 with single main shoot and tied to a wooden stick supports, note that the wooden stick was  
116 painted blue in order facilitate image segmentation and data analysis. The vines had approx.  
117 15-20 leaves each.

118 Before the imposition of drought stress the reference weight at the field capacity was  
119 determined by fully irrigating each pot and then allowing the water to drain for 12 hours  
120 until a stable weight was reached.

121 At day 0, vines were grouped ( $\times 20$  vines each) and for the 22 days after drought imposition  
122 (DADI), irrigation (*IRR*) was modulated by restoring 100% (control), 75% (*IRR*<sub>75%</sub>), 50%  
123 (*IRR*<sub>50%</sub>) and 25% (*IRR*<sub>25%</sub>) of the daily water consumption.

124 Air temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and relative humidity (%RH) (HUMITER 50Y, Vaisala, Helsinki,  
125 Finland) and PAR (PPFD,  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) (quantum sensor Model SKP 215, Skye  
126 Instruments LTD, Llandrindod, Wells, UK) were measured inside the greenhouse at 15 min  
127 intervals, having hourly averages recorded (CR200, Campbell Scientific Inc., Utah, USA).  
128 The air vapour pressure deficit (*VPD*) was then calculated from the records of air  
129 temperature and relative humidity, according to Goudriaan and van Laar (1994).

130

## 131 2.2 Plant-phenotyping

132 A group of 4-5 vines per irrigation treatment (the same used for the physiological  
133 determinations, see below) were imaged pre-dawn (04:00-05:00 h solar time) and midday  
134 (12:00-13:00 h) at 0, 3, 6, 11, 14, 19 and 22 DADI using a LemnaTec 3D Scanalyzer  
135 phenotyping platform (LemnaTec GmbH, Aachen, Germany). Vines were automatically

136 conveyed into the imaging chambers in which they were stopped for image acquisition. The  
137 NIR chamber was equipped with a NIR cameras sensitive to wavelength 900-1700 nm  
138 (Vosskühler GmbH NIR-300PGE) with the 790 kilopixel resolution. The Visible light  
139 chamber **for the RGB image acquisition** was equipped with 2 megapixel **Visible light**  
140 cameras (Basler Scout scA1600-14gc). Lighting conditions inside the chambers were  
141 achieved by halogen lamps (Radium Ralogen PAR16 35W) for the NIR chamber and  
142 fluorescent tubes (Osram T5FH 21W 865 HE) for the Visible light chamber. A schematic  
143 representation of the plant phenotyping platform set up is reported in Figure 1. For each  
144 chamber 3 images were acquired, one from above the plant (Top View, TV) and 2 from the  
145 lateral at an orthogonal angle (0° and 90° Side View, SV). The image segmentation and  
146 analysis were performed using the software LemnaGrid v5 following Arvidsson et al.  
147 (2011). The LemnaGrid software v5 operated a colour classification of the RGB images in  
148 Dark Green, Green, Yellow and Brown colour class according to Acosta-Gamboa et al.  
149 (2017). **Two anchor points (RGB colour values) per colour class were identified as follow:**  
150 **Dark Green R126 G134 B68, R116 G123 B75; Green R156 G170 B87, R150 G177 B73;**  
151 **Yellow R255 G242 B157, R255 G244 B116; Brown R133 G104 B67, R124 G107 B60.**

152

153

### 154 *2.3 Leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll a (Chl-a) fluorescence*

155 Net photosynthetic rate ( $A$ ), stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) and transpiration ( $E$ ) rate per unit  
156 leaf area were measured midday (11:30-12:30 h) at day 0, 3, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 20 and 22  
157 DADI using a portable photosynthesis system Li-Cor 6400 (Li-Cor, Inc., Lincoln, NE,  
158 USA). During leaf gas exchange measurements temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration were

159 maintained at the prevailing environmental condition, PAR inside the cuvette fixed at 800  
160  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and the operating flow rate at  $500 \mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$ .

161 Gas exchange measurements were performed on 4-5 vines per irrigation treatment on two  
162 fully expanded leaves per vine selected from the mid-region (fourth/fifth node) of shoot.

163

164 On the same leaf used for leaf gas exchange measurements, Chl-*a* fluorescence was  
165 measured pre-dawn (04:00 – 05:00 h) and midday (11:30-12:30 h) through a portable  
166 chlorophyll fluorometer (PAM- 2500, Heinz Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany). Leaves  
167 were 45 min dark-adapted (leaf clip DLC-8 Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany) before  
168 midday measurements.

169 The basal ( $F_0$ ) and maximal ( $F_m$ ) Chl-*a* fluorescence were collected by applying a brief  
170 saturating light pulse ( $5,000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR) and used to calculate the variable  
171 fluorescence ( $F_v = F_m - F_0$ ). The maximum quantum yield of photosystem (PS) II ( $F_v/F_m$ ) was  
172 then calculated (Maxwell and Johnson, 2000).

173

#### 174 *2.4 Stem water potential and soil moisture*

175 At 0, 3, 11, 14 and 22 DADI the stem water potential ( $\Psi$ ) was measured pre-dawn ( $\Psi_{\text{PD}}$ )  
176 (04:00 – 05:00 h) and at midday ( $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$ ) (12:00 – 13:00 h) on fully expanded leaves (2 per  
177 vine) immediately above those used for gas exchanges by means of a pressure chamber  
178 (Model 600, PMS Instruments, Corvallis, OR), pressurised with  $\text{N}_2$  according to the  
179 protocol by Turner (1981). For the  $\Psi_{\text{MD}}$  determination leaves were covered with aluminium  
180 foil at least 90 min before measurements were taken. The leaves used for the  $\Psi$

181 determinations were then collected for leaf area measurement (see below). After the  $\Psi_{MD}$   
182 measurements, from the same pots soil samples were collected for soil moisture  
183 determination (% of dry weight) according to Black (1965).

184

185

### 186 *2.5 Estimation and evolution of leaf area*

187 Leaf area of vines was modelled using the RGB images collected for plant phenotyping  
188 (see above) determining the number of “plant object pixels” here referred as the projected  
189 shoot area (PSA) following a procedure similar to that of Hairmansis et al. (2014):

190

$$191 \text{ PSA} = N_{\text{pix}} 0^\circ \text{ SV} + N_{\text{pix}} 90^\circ \text{ SV} + 0.3 \times N_{\text{pix}} \text{ TV} \quad (\text{pixel}) \quad [1]$$

192

193 where “ $N_{\text{pix}} 0^\circ \text{ SV}$ ” and “ $N_{\text{pix}} 90^\circ \text{ SV}$ ” is the number of pixels corresponding to the plant  
194 object area of two orthogonal side-view images, while TV represents the number of pixel of  
195 the top view image. The pixel numbers were retrieved from the RGB images employing an  
196 image analysis pipeline developed using the LemnaGrid v5 software (Petrozza et al., 2014).

197

198 The RGB images for the PSA determination were collected midday on a total of 61 vines  
199 randomly selected within each irrigation treatment at day 3, 11, 14 and 22 after the  
200 initiation of drought stress. After the image collection vines were manually defoliated and  
201 leaf area measured (*LA*) (LI-3100 leaf area meter, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). Note that

202 pixel number and area of leaves used for  $\Psi$  determination were also included for PSA and  
203 *LA* determinations.

204

205 The estimated plant leaf area (*LA'*) was modelled using a linear model ( $LA' = a \times PSA + b$ )  
206 developed from the paired PSA and *LA* data subjected to a cross-validation analysis. That is,  
207 from the whole set of 45 paired values of *LA* and PSA, 10-fold were selected at random  
208 with replacement, each fold containing 36 paired values (i.e. 80% of the total) on which the  
209 model was trained. The remaining 20% was used for testing purposes.

210 According to Diago et al. (2012) the *LA'* model was then validated using another set of  
211 grapevine RGB images collected on additional 16 vines and its accuracy determined  
212 through the correlation coefficient  $R^2$  between actual leaf area and *LA'*.

213

214 Evolution of *LA'* in each irrigation treatment was non-destructively determined via imaging  
215 using the same 4-5 individual vines per irrigation treatment at 0, 3, 6, 9, 11, 14, 19, and 22  
216 DADI and calculating the mean PSA per treatment through eq. 1.

217

## 218 *2.6 Specific vine water consumption*

219 On the same vine used for  $\Psi$  determination the vine water consumption was determined by  
220 weighing the pots every evening. The weight of the previous day was used as a reference  
221 to determine daily water loss from each plant. Then values were normalised per unit of *LA'*  
222 and reported as  $\text{g H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ .

223



224

225 *2.7 Data analysis*

226 The statistical analysis was performed using R software (3.3.2 version) package ‘agricolae’  
227 (de Mendiburu, 2016), plotting and fitting were by OriginPro 9.3 (OriginLab Corporation,  
228 USA). Data were reported as mean and standard error of the mean ( $\pm$ SE). A one-way  
229 ANOVA was used to examine the differences between irrigation treatments at each  
230 sampling date, the differences among means were identified by Tukey Honest Significance  
231 Difference (HSD) post-hoc tests;  $p$  values  $<0.05$  were considered significant.

232

233 **3. Results and discussion**

234 This study was carried out at a robotised plant phenotyping platform and examined the  
235 influence of vine water status (as assessed through  $\Psi$ ) on simultaneously physiological and  
236 phenomic traits of grapevine expanding knowledge on HTP tools for vine performance  
237 assessment *sensu* Großkinsky et al. (2015).

238

239 *3.1 Physiological and morphometric drought response*

240 Soil moisture in well watered pots was stable around 35% dw during the experiment, while  
241 it progressively declined in drought stressed pots from the 3<sup>rd</sup> DADI becoming significantly  
242 different from that of control ones by 11 DADI (Fig. 2). At the end of experiment, soil  
243 moisture reached values close to 10% ( $IRR_{25\%}$ ), 14% ( $IRR_{50\%}$ ) and 21% ( $IRR_{75\%}$ ) (Fig. 2).  
244 Such soil moisture variation among treatments is similar to that observed by Sivilotti et al.  
245 (2005) in a pot experiment. Values of  $\Psi_{PD}$  ranged from approx. -0.2 (control vine) to a

246 minimum of approx. -0.8 ( $IRR_{50\%}$ ) and -1.15 MPa ( $IRR_{25\%}$ ) detected at 22 DADI, while in  
247 vines receiving 75% of daily water consumption  $\Psi_{PD}$  remained close to -0.2 MPa  
248 throughout the experiment similarly to that of control vines (Fig. 3).

249 When measured at midday,  $\Psi$  reveals the sign of drought imposition at 11 DADI as at this  
250 stage the  $\Psi_{MD}$  of various treatments differed significantly from that of control while at the  
251 same day the  $\Psi_{PD}$  was significantly differentiated only for the  $IRR_{25\%}$  treatment (Fig. 3).  
252 Hence, it appears that  $\Psi_{MD}$  is more informative than  $\Psi_{PD}$  in revealing changes in vine water  
253 status at least under the present experimental conditions.

254 From the 11<sup>st</sup> DADI onward  $\Psi_{MD}$  further decreased reaching the lowest value in  $IRR_{25\%}$  (-  
255 1.3 MPa) at the last day of the experiment when both  $IRR_{50\%}$  and  $IRR_{75\%}$  were close to -1  
256 MPa (Fig. 3). For the  $IRR_{75\%}$  treatment, the amount of water restored each day allowed an  
257 over-night recovery of plant water status as documented by their  $\Psi_{PD}$  that approached the  
258 values of well irrigated vines. Likely a longer or drier drought period would be required to  
259 induce a significant decline of  $\Psi_{PD}$  in  $IRR_{75\%}$  compared to control vine..

260

261 Both  $\Psi_{PD}$  and  $\Psi_{MD}$  patterns recall similar trends previously observed in grapevines  
262 subjected to water stress (Poni et al., 2014). Despite this being an “in-pot experiment”,  
263 based on the trends of  $\Psi$  the water withhold procedure should be considered slow enough  
264 to let vines to adapt to soil moisture depletion in terms of drought related changes to leaf  
265 water content and pigments (e.g., chlorophyll, xanthophylls) which may influence leaf  
266 reflectance (Palliotti et al., 2015).

267 The level of net photosynthetic rate recorded in well irrigated vines was similar to that of 6-  
268 8-year old field grown grapevines (Chaves et al., 2010) oscillating around the mean value  
269 of  $12.3 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  throughout the experiment (Fig. 4A). Drought-induced variations  
270 of  $A$  were considerably in accordance with that of  $g_s$ , however for the  $IRR_{25\%}$  group the  
271 initial decline of  $A$  detected within the early 11 DADI was more smooth than that of  $g_s$  (Fig.  
272 4A and C). This was likely due to an improved intrinsic water use efficiency occurred for  
273 the most drought stressed treatment (Poni et al., 2007).

274

275 Leaf transpiration in well irrigated grapevines ranged from 3.8 (6 DADI) to 9.9  $\text{mmol H}_2\text{O}$   
276  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (22 DADI) (Fig. 4B) mainly due to changes in  $VPD$  that peaked at  $\sim 2$  and  $\sim 4$  kPa at  
277 6 and 22 DADI, respectively (Fig. 5). Particularly, at the beginning of drought imposition  
278 (between 6 and 11 DADI) values of  $E$  for control,  $IRR_{75\%}$  and  $IRR_{50\%}$  treatments transiently  
279 declined because of lower  $VPD$  (Fig. 5). On average maximum air temperature ranged from  
280 approx. 26 to 28 °C even though it was 3-4°C lower at 0, 6, 8 and 20 DADI, maximum  
281 midday irradiance level was always above 1,000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  PAR is day 8 and 20 DADI  
282 are excepted (Fig. 5).

283

284 The differences in leaf transpiration detected among treatments reflect a typical down-  
285 regulated behaviour of  $E$  dependent upon the imposed irrigation treatment (Fig. 4B)  
286 (Medrano et al., 2003).

287 Stomatal conductance in well irrigated grapevines was stable at approx.  $0.3 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$   
288 <sup>1</sup> throughout the experiment excepting a transient decrease at 11 DADI (Fig. 4C). In

289 severely drought stressed grapevines ( $IRR_{25\%}$ ) the  $g_s$  significantly declined after the 3<sup>rd</sup>  
290 DADI and it sharply reached a value ~80% lower than that of control vines at 6 DADI.  
291 Thereafter the  $g_s$  of  $IRR_{25\%}$  further declined toward the minimum value reached by 11  
292 DADI where it remained until the end of the experiment (Fig. 4C).

293 The influence of reduced irrigation on  $g_s$  was similar for  $IRR_{50\%}$  and  $IRR_{75\%}$  showing a  
294 gradual reduction during the early 10 DADI when a  $g_s$  value of ~35% of that of well  
295 irrigated was reached (Fig. 4C). During the remaining period of the experiment (from 11 to  
296 22 DADI)  $g_s$  values recorded in  $IRR_{75\%}$  grapevines were approx. 40% of that of control  
297 ones, while in  $IRR_{50\%}$  vines the  $g_s$  was similar to that of  $IRR_{25\%}$  ones (Fig. 4C) remaining  
298 below the threshold of  $0.05 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  that identifies severe drought condition *sensu*  
299 Cifre et al. (2005).

300

301 Interpretation of leaf gas exchange variations induced by different irrigation supply should  
302 also include the variations of plant water status in order to comprehensively argue key  
303 drought-related physiological issues and allow a wider usefulness of data. Hence, here leaf  
304 gas exchanges are also discussed in parallel with  $\Psi_{MD}$  allowing construction of a more  
305 comprehensive data set to potentially be associated to vine phenotyping.

306

307 The decline of  $g_s$  was able to regulate leaf transpiration and net photosynthetic rate across  
308 the  $\Psi_{MD}$  range recorded (Fig. 6A, B) confirming water loss and carbon gain mechanisms  
309 observed in drought stressed grapevines (Medrano et al., 2003). The reduction of  $g_s$   
310 determined by drought imposition followed the changes of  $\Psi_{MD}$  (Fig. 6C) accordingly to

311 similar correlative information reported for both pot and open-field studies (Medrano et al.,  
312 2003; Cifre et al., 2005). In this study the efficiency of the PSII was not impaired by the  
313 drought imposition as suggested by the stable chlorophyll fluorescence ( $F_v/F_m$ ) recorded  
314 throughout the experiment which were independent of the  $\Psi$  changes (Fig. 6D). That is,  
315 values of  $F_v/F_m$  measured across the approx. -0.15/-1.5 MPa range of  $\Psi$  remained close to  
316 0.8 (Fig. 6D) which is believed the threshold for efficient PSII indicating that the reduction  
317 of net photosynthetic rates detected in drought stressed vines (Fig. 4A) was not metabolic  
318 as discussed in Montanaro et al. (2009). Hence, the unchanged  $F_v/F_m$  despite the worsening  
319 of  $\Psi$  confirms that fluorescence-based HTP has some limitations for the detection of water  
320 stress (Berger et al., 2010).

321

322 Estimation of grapevine *LA* through non-destructive techniques has been the subject of  
323 several HTP studies mainly devoted to segmentation of various plant organs (e.g., bunch,  
324 leaf) for crop monitoring and breeding purposes (Diago et al., 2012; Costa et al., 2016). The  
325 present study expands information on *LA* estimation in grapevines subjected to various  
326 irrigation treatments being potentially useful at least in plant phenotyping platforms  
327 contributing to the definition of “*standard conditions*” (Pieruschka and Hendrik, 2012).

328 In order to continuously evaluate the impact of drought on vegetation development and in  
329 turn on vine water consumption a RGB-based methodology was implemented to estimate  
330 the growth of leaf area which is a morphometric trait intimately related to soil moisture and  
331  $\Psi$  (Koundouras et al., 2008).

332 Results show that the actual leaf area of vines and the number of pixels corresponding to  
333 the leaf surface determined through eq. 1 were linearly correlated ( $R^2 = 0.78$ ) (Fig. 7). The  
334 resulting linear model ( $y = 416.11 + 0.915 \times \text{PSA}$ ) was capable to predict ( $R^2 = 0.92$ ) the  
335 leaf area of a different set of grapevines ( $n = 16$ ) (see the inset in Fig. 7). The cross-  
336 validated estimation of  $LA$  performed in this study consisted of data collected from vines  
337 under various irrigation levels improving previous similar models (e.g., Diago et al. 2012).

338

339 The  $LA'$  of various irrigation treatments was not influenced early after drought application  
340 (Fig. 8). At day 11 DADI, some significant differences were envisaged at least between  
341  $IRR_{75\%}$  and the more severely drought stressed vines ( $IRR_{25\%}$ ) (Fig. 8), unfortunately  $LA'$   
342 data for well irrigated vines were not available due to technical difficulties. Thereafter,  
343 control vine canopies showed significantly higher values than that of  $IRR_{25\%}$  and tend to be  
344 higher than that of  $IRR_{75\%}$  however differences were not always significant. At the end of  
345 the experimental period  $LA'$  in well irrigated vines increased by approx. 85% of the initial  
346 value, while  $IRR_{75\%}$  vines consistently showed a growth as low as ~45% of the initial  $LA'$   
347 (Fig. 8). The  $IRR_{25\%}$  and  $IRR_{50\%}$  treatments had their highest  $LA'$  increased similarly by  
348 approx. 20% of the initial value at 19 DADI (Fig. 8). However,  $LA'$  was 6-9% at the end of  
349 experiment likely due to a sharp leaf fall triggered by the severe drought (Munné-Bosch  
350 and Alegre, 2004).

351

352 The slowdown of leaf growth in grapevines under drought is an adaptive trait (Poni et al.,  
353 2007) which was non-destructively detected in this study through the modelled leaf area

354 allowing the identification of paired vine groups according to their  $\Psi_{PD}$  (i.e., control  
355 coupled with  $IRR_{75\%}$  versus  $IRR_{50\%}$  coupled with  $IRR_{25\%}$ ).

356 This study was not designed to detect the growth responses of various vegetative  
357 components (e.g., shoot, leaf) (see Pellegrino et al., 2008). However, results on the  
358 influence of water shortage on the overall leaf area growth are consistent with those  
359 reported by Gómez-del-Campo et al. (2002) for a similar experiment that was conducted  
360 using larger pots (35 L). Lanari et al., (2015) report a ~70% reduced leaf area (destructively  
361 determined) in potted (4 L) grapevines receiving 40% of full irrigation after 18 DADI. In  
362 the present experiment, leaf area in  $IRR_{25\%}$  vines was 40% lower than control 22 DADI  
363 when  $\Psi_{MD}$  was -1.3 MPa (Fig. 3 and 8), unfortunately data on  $\Psi$  are not provided by Lanari  
364 et al., (2015) making deep comparisons challenging.

365

366 The estimated leaf area was involved in the determination of daily water consumption  
367 which was on average  $0.16 \text{ g H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in well irrigated vines and in drought stressed  
368 ones at the beginning of the experiment when  $\Psi_{MD}$  was in the -0.5/-0.3 MPa region,  
369 thereafter it declined by 85% when  $\Psi_{MD}$  reached -1.2 MPa (Fig. 9). Such a reduction is  
370 comparable to that reported by Medrano et al. (2012) for non-irrigated, field grown  
371 grapevines. Results show that specific water consumption responded to the drought-  
372 induced decline of  $\Psi_{MD}$  following an exponential decay pattern ( $R^2 = 0.86$ ) (Fig. 9)  
373 suggesting it might be a promising HTP tool for both plant water status and consumption  
374 determination. In addition, considering that values of vine water consumption were  
375 calculated on a vine basis (see Method section) it might support the calculation of some

376 functional traits at vine scale (e.g., water use efficiency) thus avoiding criticisms related to  
377 their single-leaf assessment (Poni et al., 2014).

378

### 379 3.2 RGB and NIR response to drought

380 **The RGB** images sourced by **Visible light** cameras have great potential for morphological  
381 studies including leaf area estimation as shown in this study, nevertheless they are known  
382 to have some limitations in serving as a proxy for plant physiological traits (Großkinsky et  
383 al. 2015). The relatively weak correspondence between  $\Psi$  and some specific RGB colour  
384 class obtained in the present research partly supports that conclusion. That is, the Brown  
385 and Green colours data showed a poor correlation with  $\Psi$  as indicated by the values of  $R^2$  of  
386 0.24 and 0.04, respectively (Fig. 10A, 10B). However, an improved correlation was  
387 achieved considering the Yellow colour class whose fraction linearly increased with  
388 lowering  $\Psi$  ( $R^2 = 0.5$ ) when vines becoming more stressed (Fig. 10C). The yellowing of  
389 foliage is a regulatory process leading to leaf senescence in response to ageing or  
390 environmental stresses including drought (Munné-Bosch and Alegre, 2004). Recently, the  
391 yellowing (or the loss of greenness) of leaf has been discussed as a promising digital tool  
392 for identification of drought resistant (or sensitive) annual crops (e.g., rice and sorghum)  
393 (Harris et al., 2017; Lingfeng et al., 2018). This supports the interpretation of the increasing  
394 Yellow fraction being related to increasing drought (i.e., more negative  $\Psi$ ) (Fig. 10C).  
395 Interestingly, the fraction of the Dark Green colour class showed the highest correlation  
396 with  $\Psi$  reaching  $R^2 = 0.71$  (Fig. 10D). Such a close correspondence between reducing  
397 pattern of the Dark Green colour class under increasing drought might be explained



398 considering the putative increased leaf angle and in turn the increased exposure of the  
399 abaxial (lower) leaf surface occurring with drought. It makes sense to remember that the  
400 abaxial surface has a lighter colour compared to the adaxial (upper) one due to the presence  
401 of trichomes (Boso et al., 2010 and references therein).

402 Increased leaf lamina angle is among the plant drought defence mechanisms activated for  
403 PSII and water conservation reducing direct insolation and in turn temperature,  
404 conductance and transpiration of leaf (Palliotti et al., 2008; Jones et al., 2009). Incidentally,  
405 the stable  $F_v/F_m$  values recorded in well irrigated and drought stressed vines (Fig. 6D)  
406 might conceivably be associated with the protective increased leaf angle (i.e., leaf tends to  
407 be more vertical) in drought stressed leaves that most probably had occurred (Chaves et al.,  
408 2010). Inclination of leaf petiole from the vertical axis in grapevine might increase from  
409 60-70° in well irrigated vines up to 120° in drought stressed ones (approx. -1.8 MPa, early  
410 morning) (Nuzzo, pers. com.). This interpretation is in line with the idea that some RGB  
411 images are useful to track morphological changes (Großkinsky et al. 2015), however the  
412 causal chain “*drought* → *increased leaf angle* → *reduced Dark Green fraction*” deserves  
413 further study.

414  
415 The change of relative water content in leaf (i.e., the percentage of water present at the time  
416 of sampling, relative to the amount of water in a saturated leaf) is a reliable index of plant  
417 water status that linearly and closely correlates with  $\Psi$  in several species including *Vitis*  
418 (Smart and Bingham, 1974; Bota et al., 2004). Relative leaf water content is known as the  
419 most prominent parameter influencing leaf spectral reflectance and therefore non-  
420 destructively technologies including those based on NIR wavelengths, which are useful for

421 plant water status monitoring (Seelig et al., 2008; Berger et al., 2010; Diago et al., 2018).  
422 Recently, the  $\Psi$  in grapevines subjected to drought has been modelled using portable NIR  
423 equipment to record diffuse reflectance spectra of the leaf surfaces by means of contact  
424 probes (De Bei et al., 2011; Tardaguila et al., 2016). Rapaport et al. (2015) combine  
425 information on spectral signatures collected with both portable spectrometer and cameras  
426 equipped with specific narrow-band filters to model  $\Psi$  at canopy level using a set of 4-leaf  
427 images. In the present study a contactless and image-based methodology has been used to  
428 collect NIR colour class at plant canopy scale which were correlated with  $\Psi$  ( $R^2 = 0.44$ )  
429 even if a certain variability of NIR reflectance at a specific  $\Psi$  remain (Fig. 11). The  
430 potential influence on NIR reflectance exerted by other leaf traits linked to decreasing leaf  
431 water content such as leaf thickness (Seelig et al., 2008) and different signature of abaxial  
432 and adaxial surface (see discussion above) might help to explain such a variability. Results  
433 confirm the potential suitability of NIR colour class to be a proxy of  $\Psi$  within affordable  
434 phenotyping, however hyperspectral whole-canopy image-based NIR reflectance  
435 measurements in drought phenotyping studies might further strength the relationship  
436 between  $\Psi$  and NIR signatures in grapevines (Diago et al., 2017; Berger et al., 2010).  
437 This study reports correlative information between physiological traits and image-based  
438 HTP analysis for grapevines experiencing water shortage at a robotised plant phenotyping  
439 platform which is part of the EPPN (*European Plant Phenotyping Network*,  
440 [https://eppn2020.plant-phenotyping.eu/EPPN2020\\_home](https://eppn2020.plant-phenotyping.eu/EPPN2020_home)). EPPN and the global  
441 phenotyping community are doing efforts toward the standardisation of phenotyping  
442 protocols offering training in HTP, broaden access to shared-usage HTP facilities,

443 developing common data storage and standards for the design, analysis, and reporting of  
444 HTP data sets (van Eeuwijk et al., 2018).

445

#### 446 **4. Conclusions**

447 This study documents the suitability of the Dark Green fraction of the RGB spectrum to be  
448 a proxy for a relatively wide range of  $\Psi$  (from -0.2 down to -1.6 MPa) which would suggest  
449 a new study with the working hypothesis that leaf lamina (or petiole) angle can act as a  
450 HTP drought-induced trait. The monitoring of the  $LA'$  evolution in vines under various  
451 drought levels might be a promising HTP tool to identify occurrence of water-stress  
452 combining both morphometric (leaf area) and physiological (water consumption) responses.  
453 RGB and NIR sensors have been used in this study confirming that easily accessible  
454 sensors might support possible implementation of affordable phenotyping (*sensu* Reynolds  
455 et al., 2018) and assist in developing new tools for precision irrigation in a HTP domain.  
456 The parallel results on leaf gas exchange, plant water status and on efficiency of PSII  
457 collected along with RGB and NIR images under known environmental conditions might  
458 collectively favour the standardisation of phenotyping protocols.

459

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693

694 **Figure captions**

695

696 **Fig. 1.** Schematic representation of the plant phenotyping platform showing the internal  
697 distances, the track of the pot on the conveyor toward the image capture chamber (arrows);  
698 the position of the irradiance (PAR), temperature and humidity sensors and the position of  
699 the visible RGB and NIR chambers. A front view of the imaging chambers and conveyor is  
700 reported.

701

702 **Fig. 2.** Soil moisture (% dry weight) measured during the experiment in vines receiving  
703 75% ( $\square$ ), 50% ( $\Delta$ ) and 25% ( $\circ$ ) of their daily water consumption and under control ( $\bullet$ )  
704 receiving 100%. Note that at days 0 and 3 because there were not significant differences  
705 letters were not reported.

706

707 **Fig. 3.** Pattern of mean stem water potential ( $n= 4-5$ ,  $\pm$ SE) measured pre-dawn and midday  
708 in leaves of grapevines under drought (empty symbol) receiving 75% ( $\square$ ), 50% ( $\Delta$ ) and  
709 25% ( $\circ$ ) of their daily water consumption and under control irrigation ( $\bullet$ ) receiving 100%  
710 of daily water consumption. Comparison between treatments at the same time different  
711 letter indicates statistically significant according to Tukey's HSD test. Note that at days 0  
712 and 3 because there were not significant differences letters were not reported.

713

714 **Fig. 4.** Average values  $\pm$ SE ( $n =4-5$ ) of (A) net photosynthetic rate, (B) transpiration and  
715 (C) stomatal conductance measured in leaves of grapevines under drought receiving 75%  
716 ( $\square$ ), 50% ( $\Delta$ ) and 25% ( $\circ$ ) of their daily water consumption and under control irrigation ( $\bullet$ )  
717 receiving 100% of daily water consumption. Bars indicate the critical HSD values  
718 calculated in each sampling date (Tukey's HSD test,  $p<0.05$ ). Note that X-axis labels were  
719 positioned next to the thick to avoid overlapping.

720

721 **Fig. 5.** Diurnal variations of vapour pressure deficit (VPD), air temperature and irradiance  
722 (PAR) recorded inside the greenhouse during the measurement days.

723

724 **Fig. 6.** Correlation between (A) leaf transpiration, (B) net photosynthetic rate, (C) stomatal  
725 conductance, (D) PSII fluorescence and stem water potential measured (○) midday and (●)  
726 predawn in grapevine leaves.

727

728 **Fig. 7.** Correlation between actual leaf area (y-axis) and projected shoot area (PSA)  
729 calculated through eq. 1 and the resulting linear model ( $y = 416.11 + 0.915 \times \text{PSA}$ ) obtained  
730 after a cross-validation analysis, the grey filled area indicate the upper and lower 95% CI  
731 about the model. In the inset, predicted ( $LA'$ ) vs measured leaf area ( $LA$ ). Values of  $LA'$   
732 were calculated using the fitting linear equation resulting from the main plot on a different  
733 set of 16 vines.

734

735 **Fig. 8.** Leaf area ( $\text{cm}^2 \text{p}^{-1}$ ) estimated in well irrigated (black filled) and under drought (grey  
736 filled) grapevines receiving 75%, 50% and 25% of their daily water consumption. Bars are  
737  $\pm \text{SE}$  ( $n = 4-5$ ). Comparison of treatments at the same time different letter indicates  
738 statistically significant differences (Tukey's HSD test,  $p < 0.05$ ). Note that control values at  
739 day 11 were missed.

740

741 **Fig. 9.** Daily vine water consumption normalised per unit of estimated leaf area ( $\text{g H}_2\text{O cm}^{-2}$   
742  $\text{d}^{-1}$ ) plotted against the stem water potential measured at midday. Note that the estimated  
743 leaf area refers to  $LA'$  determined through the equation  $LA' = 0.915 * \text{PSA} + 416.11$  reported  
744 in Fig. 7.

745

746 **Fig. 10.** Correlation between stem water potential and (A) Brown, (B) Green, (C) Yellow  
747 fraction and (D) Dark Green classes, of the visible spectrum measured (●) pre-dawn and  
748 (○) midday on canopy of potted grapevines under various water status. Note that fitting  
749 lines refer to pooled midday and pre-dawn data, and that Brown and Dark Green values are  
750 reported in  $\text{Log}_{10}$  scale.

751

752

753 **Fig. 11.** NIR colour class measured (●) pre-dawn and (○) midday in canopy of potted  
754 grapevines under different water status. Midday and pre-dawn stem water potential data  
755 were pooled before the exponential decay fitting ( $y = 55 + 1.1576 \times X - 6.5497 \times X^2$ ;  
756 Levenberg Marquardt iteration algorithm)  
757  
758  
759  
760

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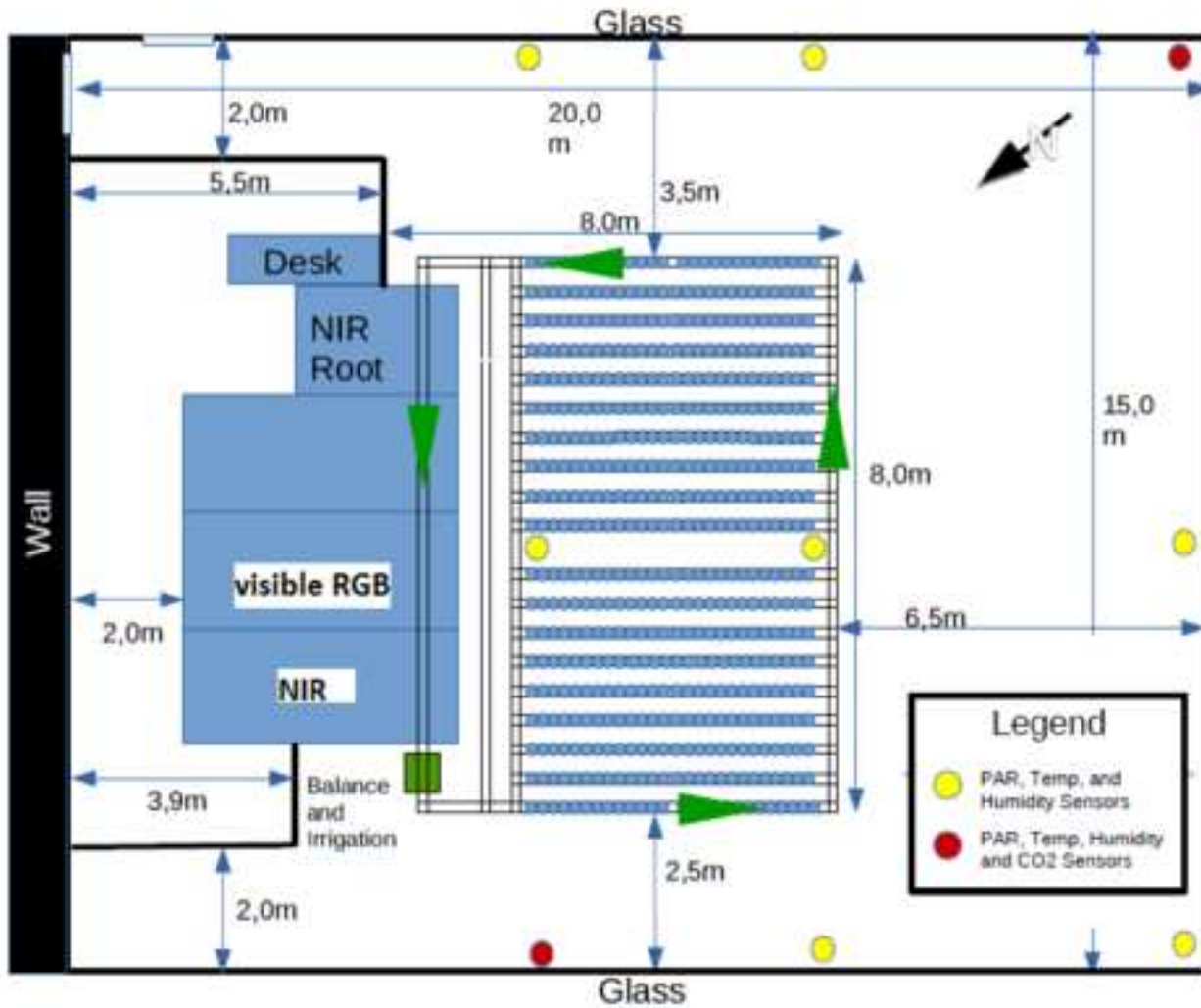


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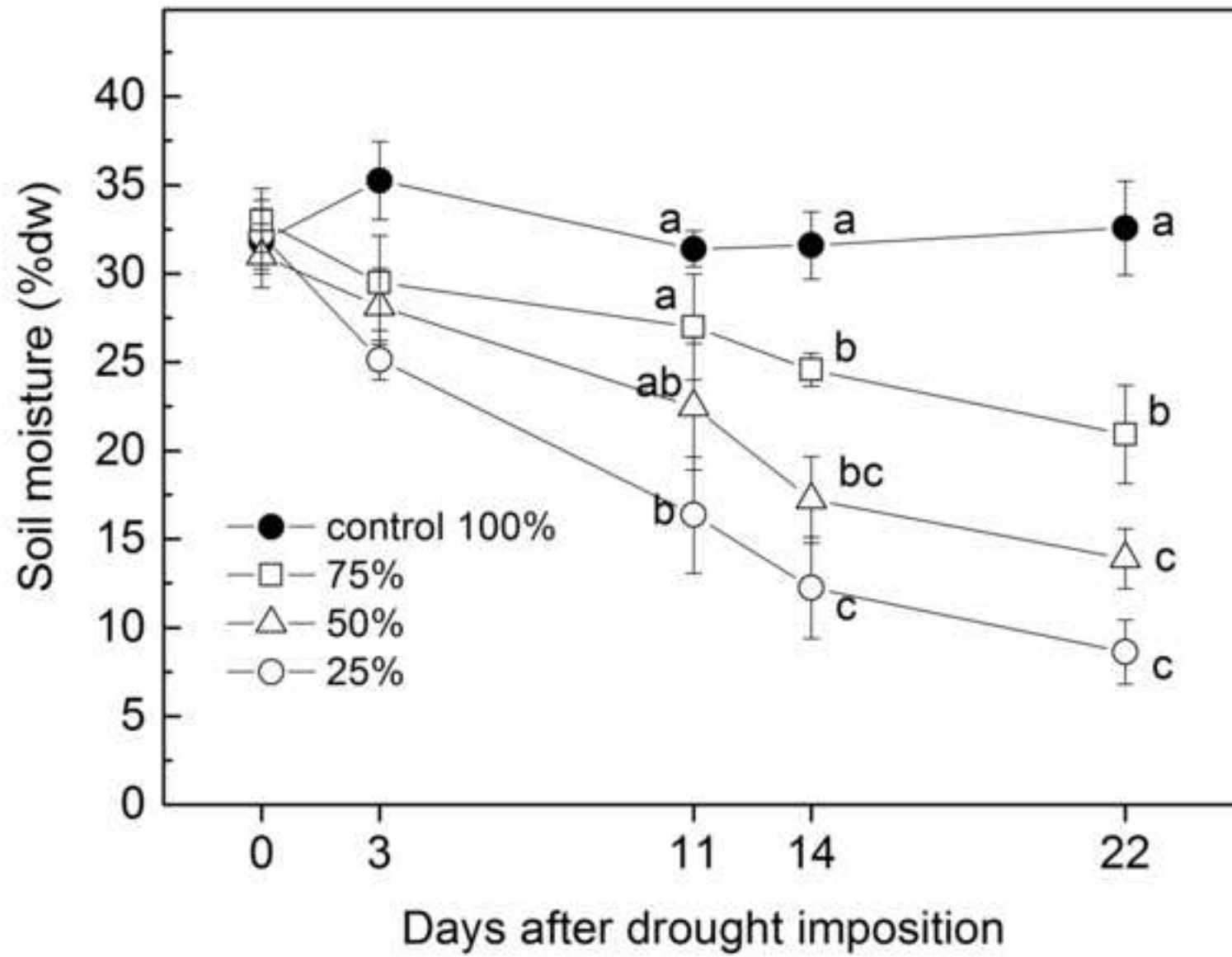


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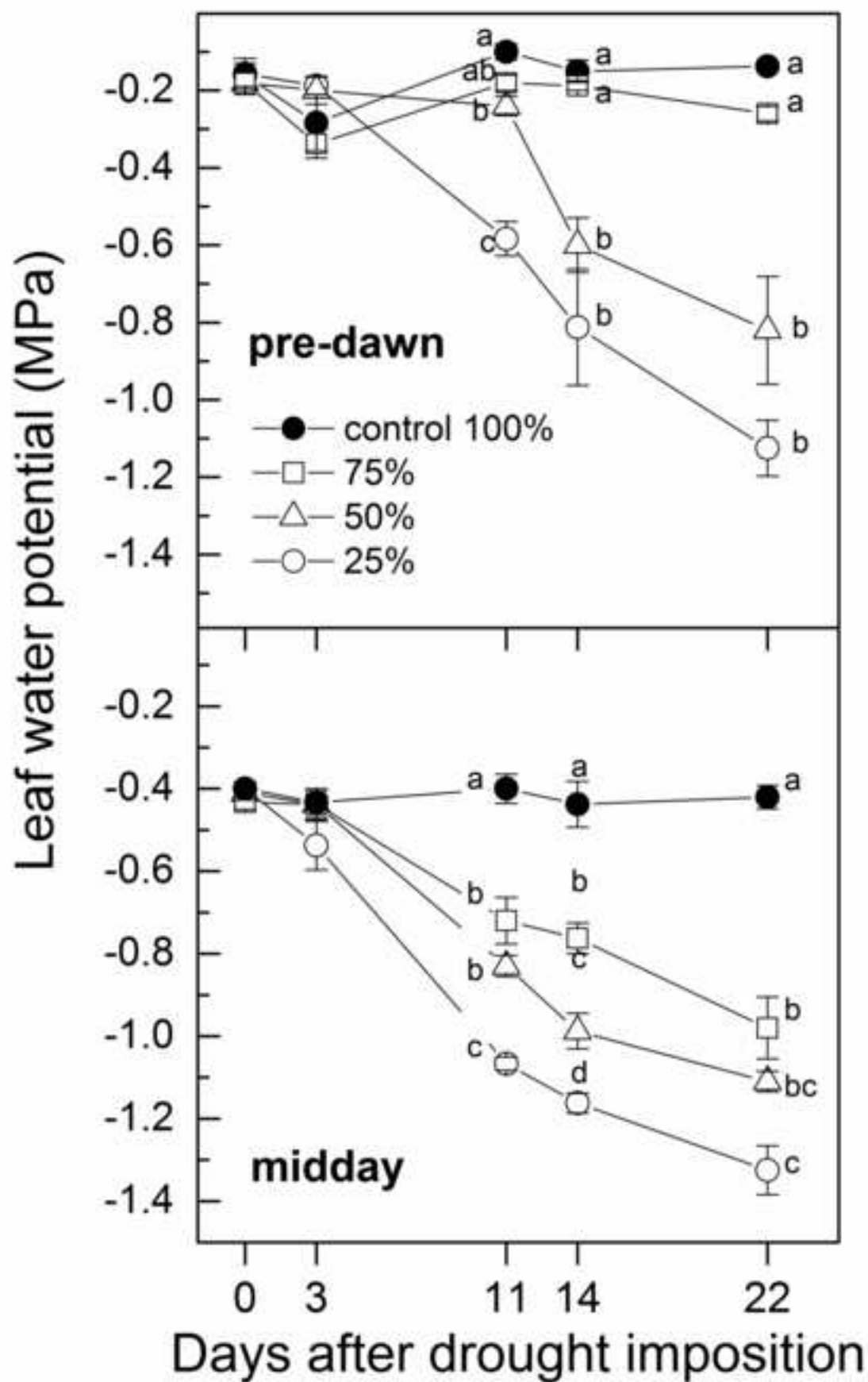




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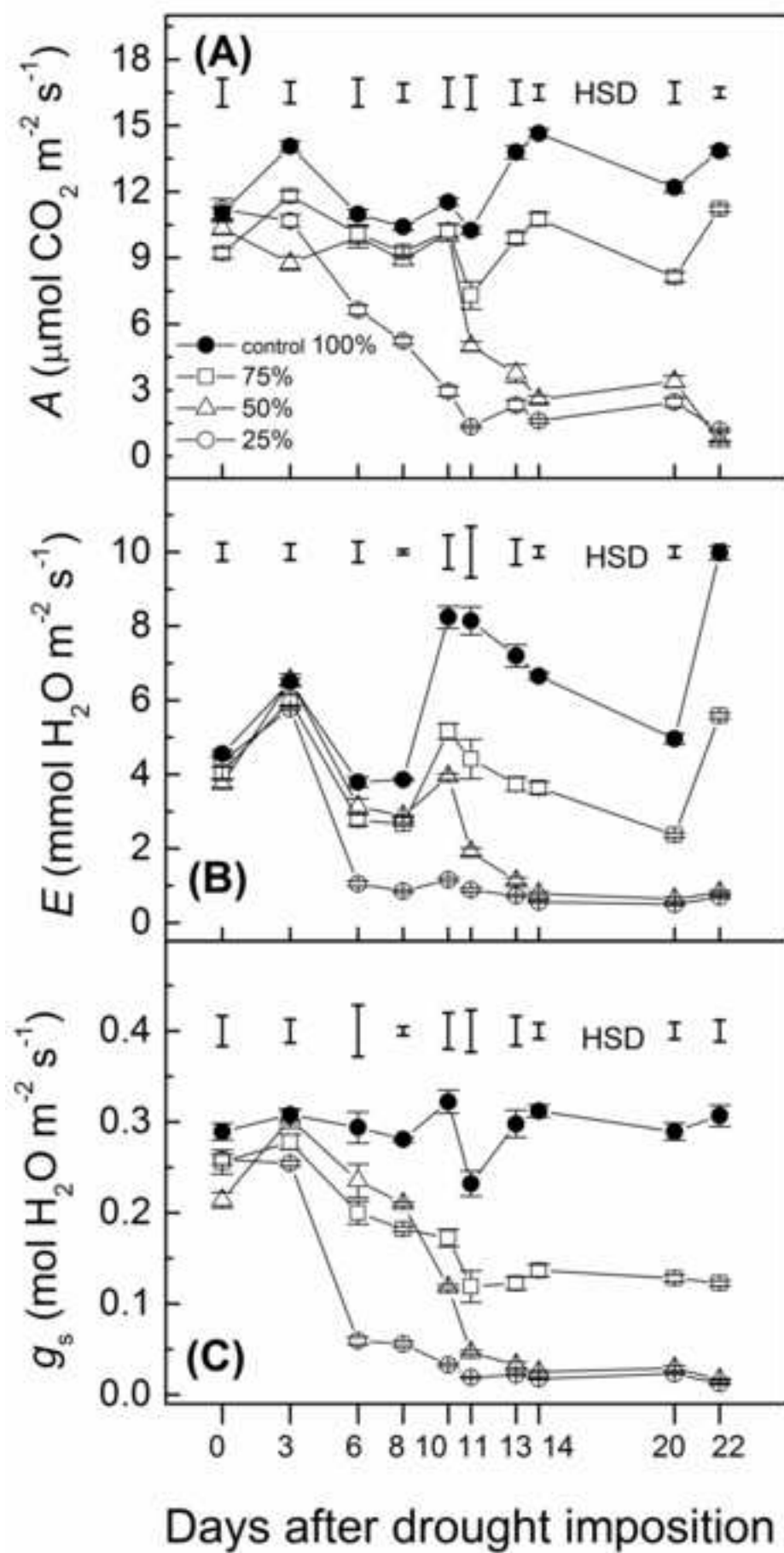


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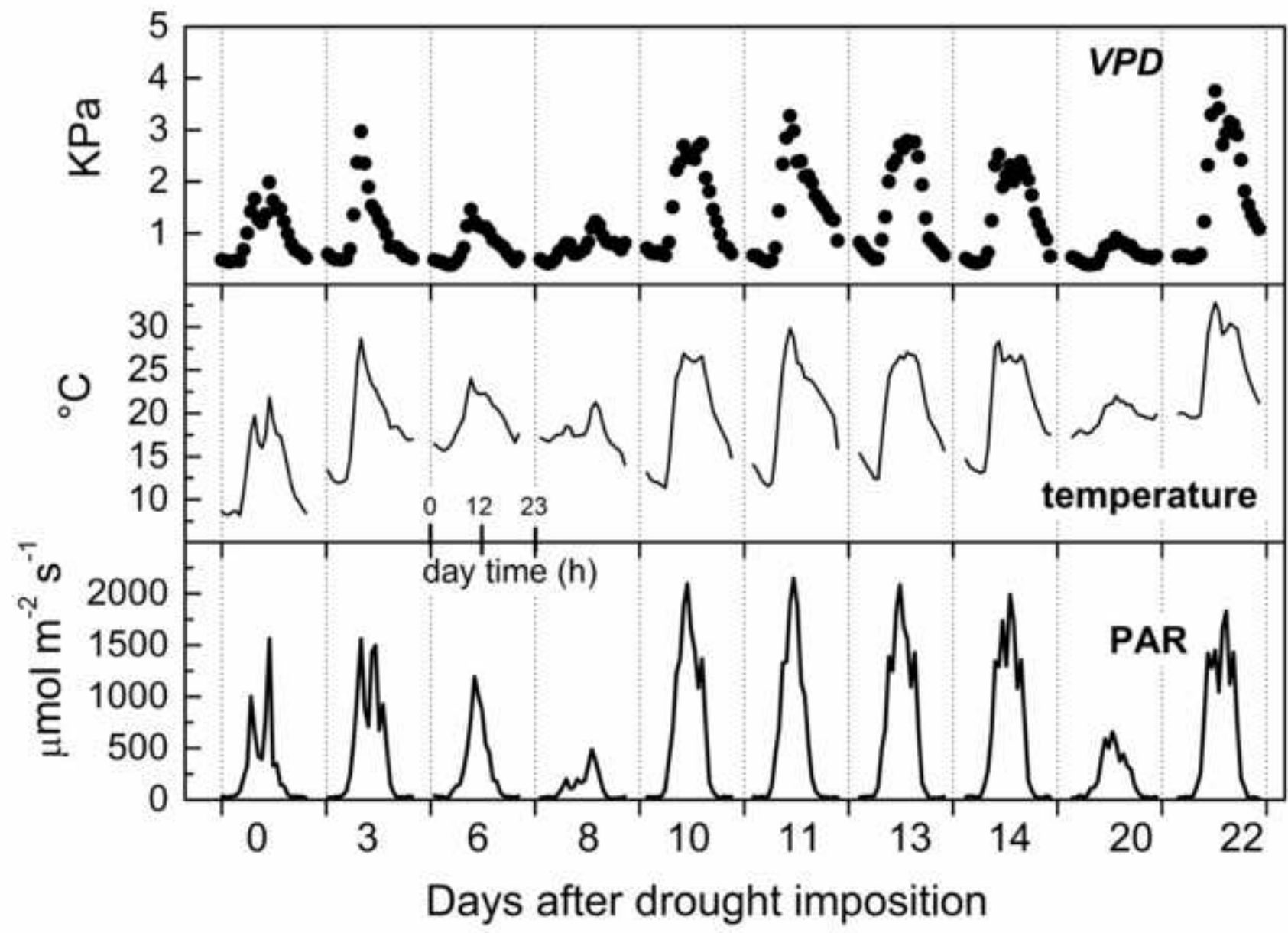


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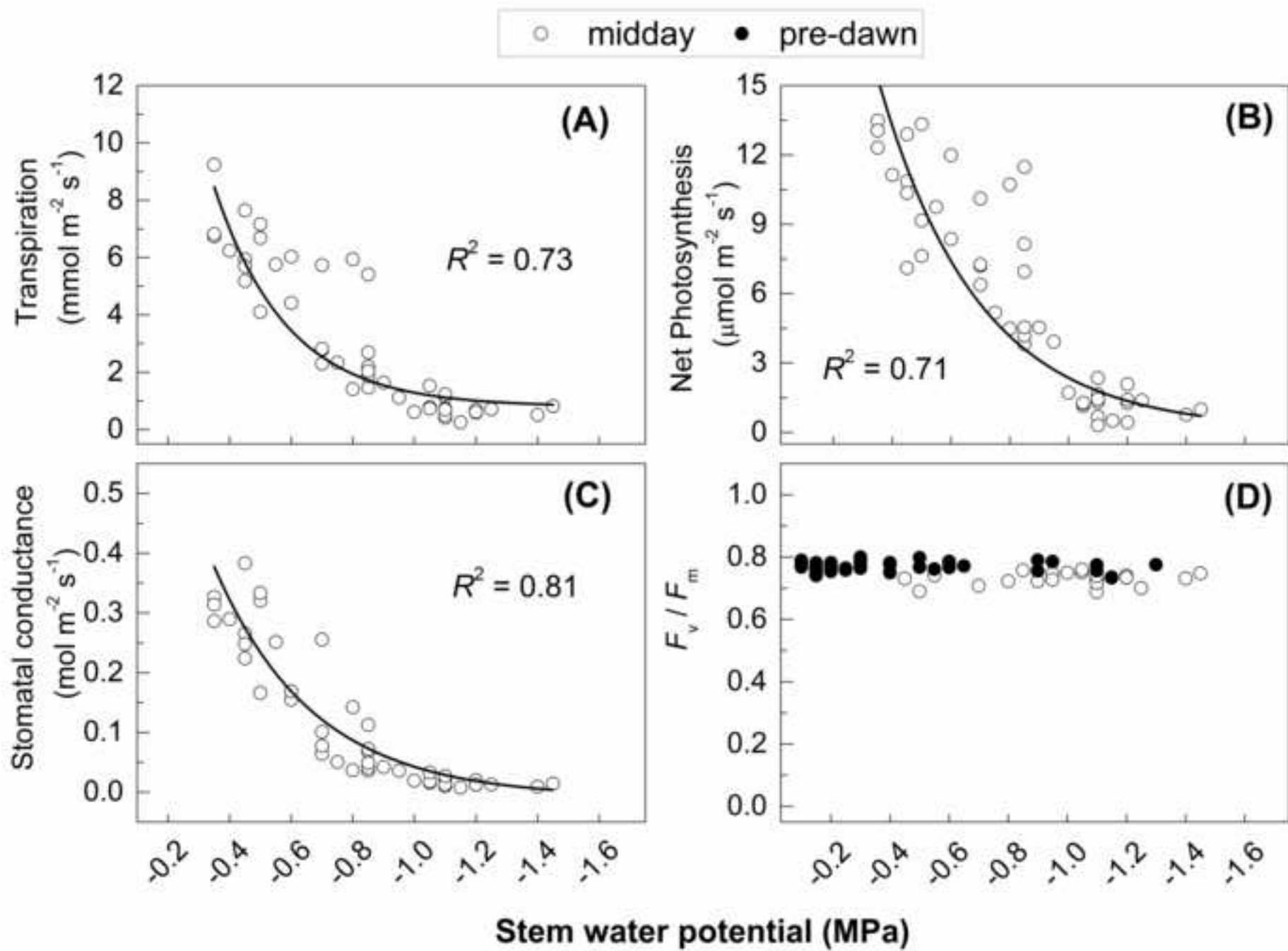


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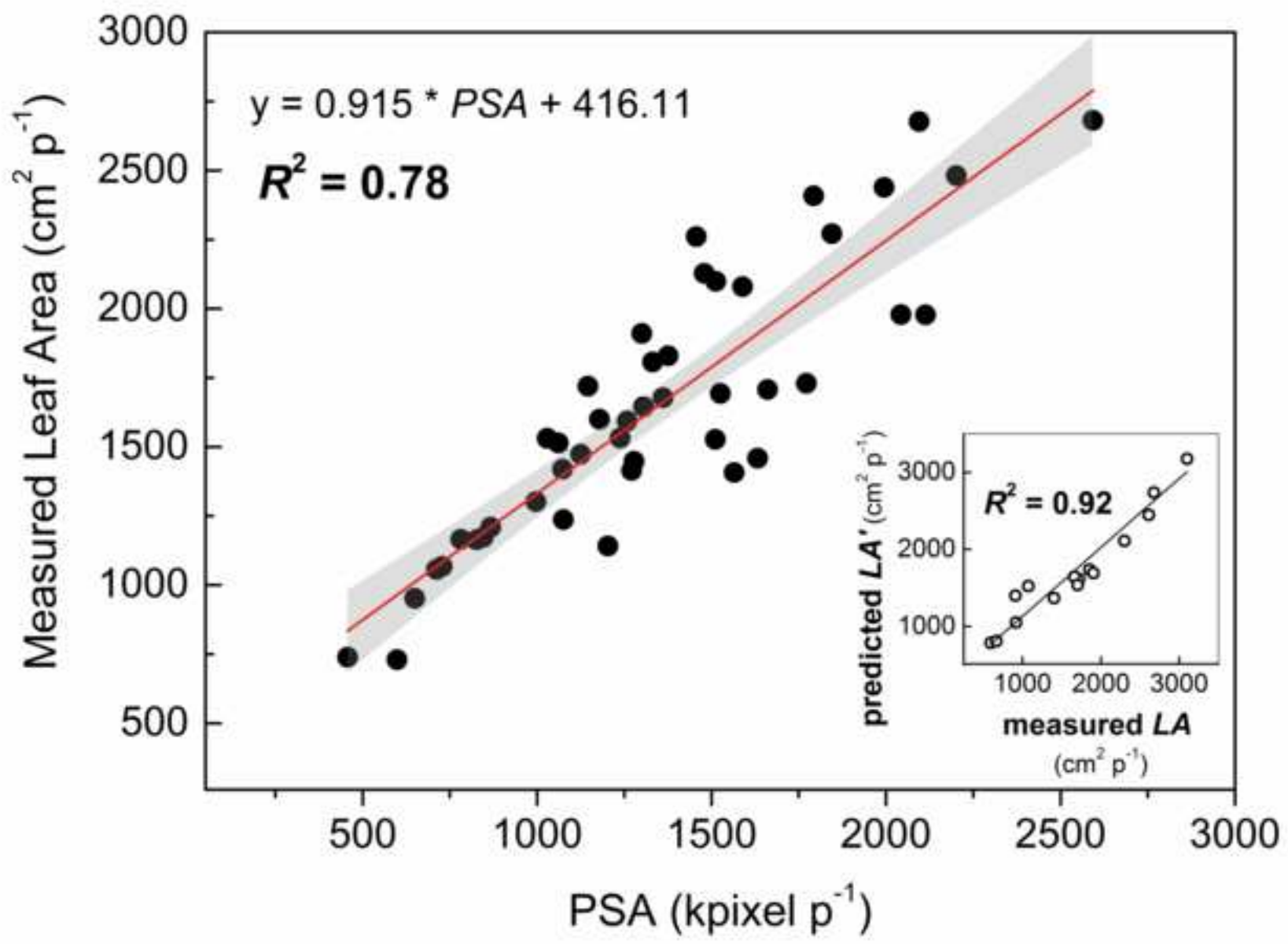


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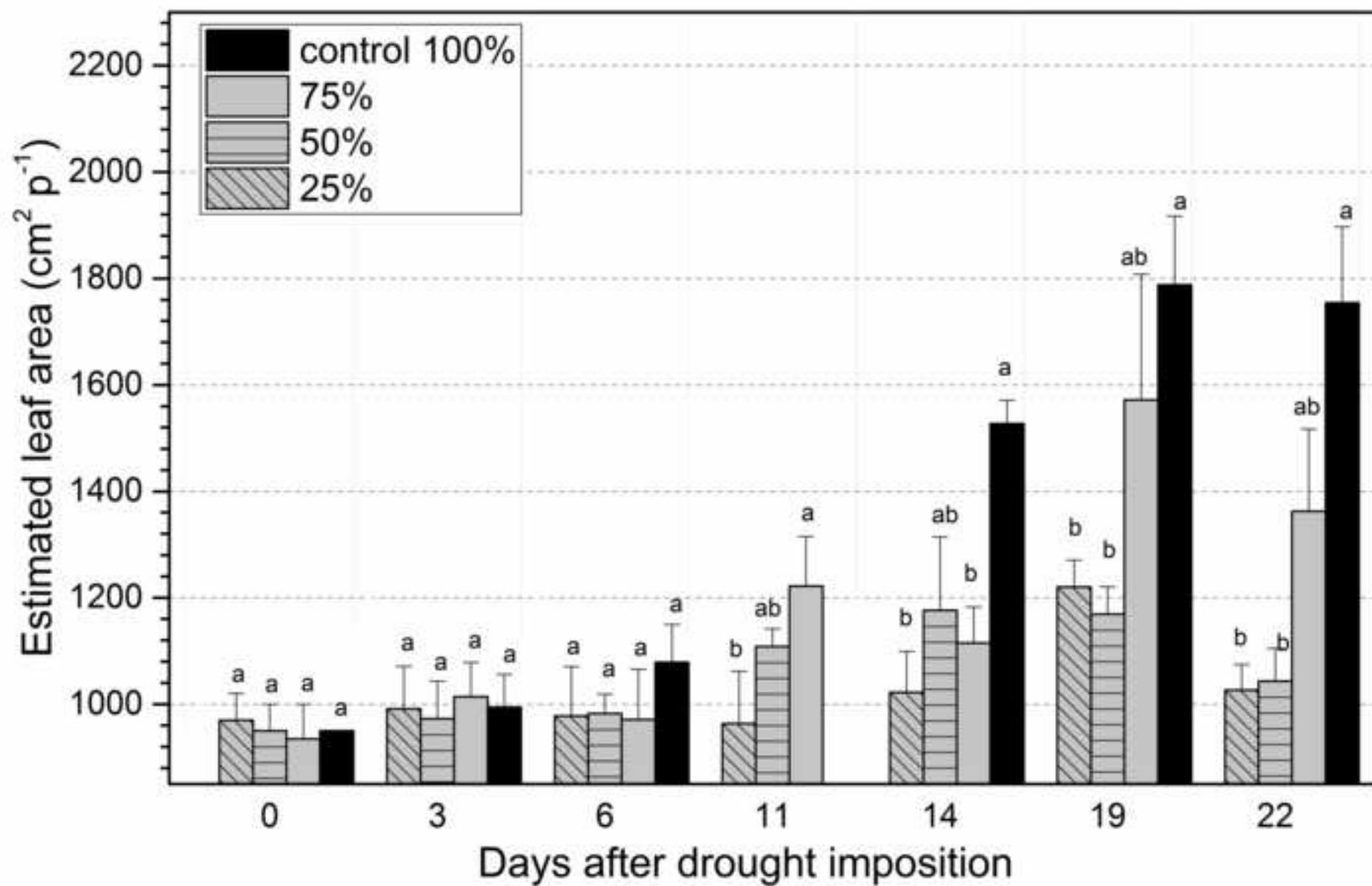






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