

## Effects of Climate Change on the Irrigation Scheduling Parameters in Calabria (South Italy) during 1925-2013

Capra A\* and Mannino R

Department of AGRARIA, Mediterranean University of Reggio Calabria, Italy

### Abstract

Climate characteristics play an essential role in the crop evapotranspiration and therefore affect irrigation. Reference evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) is a climatic parameter that can be computed from weather data and used to a reliable variable for assessing long-term trends of the atmospheric evaporative demand. The study aims to evaluate the effects of the climate change on  $ET_0$  and citrus and tomato irrigation scheduling parameters (irrigation depth, length of the irrigation season and number of irrigation) in Calabria, a Region of South Italy. The study covered 89 years (1925-2013) and 9 of the most relevant irrigated areas in the Region. The software CROPWAT was used to estimate the irrigation scheduling parameters. The time series were analyzed at yearly and seasonal scale using standard trend analysis tests (Mann-Kendall and linear trend test). The results showed a slight decreasing trend for maximum temperature and both increasing and decreasing trends for minimum temperature. Due to the asymmetric behavior of temperatures, impact on  $ET_0$  resulted in a decreasing tendency ( $-5.51 \text{ mm.decade}^{-1}$ ). There was a slight decrease in the seasonal irrigation depth for both citrus and tomato. The average annual magnitude of decreases throughout Calabria were  $2.40$  and  $5.51 \text{ mm.decade}^{-1}$  for citrus and tomato, respectively, corresponding to  $-7\%$  and  $-11\%$  of the mean irrigation depth of the period considered. This trend depended on both the decreased  $ET_0$  and precipitation trend: precipitation decreased at yearly scale, but increased in summer, the season when irrigation requirements are higher in the environment considered. The positive trend in summer precipitation also caused an advance of the last watering, resulting in a slight decrease of the length of the irrigation season. The results, on the whole, showed the importance of studies at regional scale considering the detection of trends even opposite with respect to those founded in studies on other areas in the same Mediterranean region. The elaboration of more local studies is useful in order to deepen knowledge on the problematic of each zone and to plan concrete actions.

**Keywords:** Climate change; CROPWAT; Evapotranspiration; Irrigation scheduling; Precipitation; Temperature

### Introduction

In regions under water stress, irrigation is the most relevant factor for allowing stable and high crop production. In these areas, irrigated agriculture is the biggest user of water requiring almost 70% of total water use [1]. Climate variables such as temperature and precipitation play an essential role in the evapotranspiration and water requirement of crops and therefore affect irrigation.

According to Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) [2], warming of the climate system is unequivocal, as is now evident from observations of increases in global average air and ocean temperatures, widespread melting of snow and ice and rising global average sea level.

Climate change is greatest in the Mediterranean area, a region where the impacts of such change may be amongst the most severe worldwide [3-6]. In this region, the risk of drought and desertification is already present in large areas [7,8].

In Italy, various authors [8-12] evidenced a decreasing trend in precipitation and an increasing trend in temperatures, with quite large differences mainly depending on the site. Extreme event analyses [8,10,13-15] showed increases in drought conditions in both north and south areas of Italy. Linear regression slope and often their sign (positive or negative), showed the high variability of the Italian climatic scenario [9,10,16].

Crop water requirement depend largely on evapotranspiration. According to a traditional approach, two evapotranspiration concepts, reference evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) and crop evapotranspiration under standard conditions ( $ET_c$ ), are distinguished [17]. They are defined as follows [17]:  $ET_0$  expresses the evapotranspiration from a reference

surface (generally a grass crop having specific characteristics);  $ET_c$  refers to evapotranspiration of a specific crop under standard conditions (large fields under excellent agronomic and soil water conditions).

The only factors affecting  $ET_0$  are meteorological variables, given a reference crop. Therefore,  $ET_0$  is a climatic parameter that can be computed from weather data and used to a reliable parameter for assessing long-term trends of the atmospheric evaporative demand [6,18,19]. Instead of, irrigation scheduling parameters depend also on precipitation, vegetation properties and soil characteristics, water availability, and to other non-climatic forces, which could mitigate the impact of changes in climatic regime. Therefore, trends in irrigation scheduling parameters cannot be predicted indirectly because the different variables involved in the calculation could show different or even opposite trends. As an example, when the evapotranspiration increases and precipitation (and water resources) decreases, climate affects irrigation agriculture doubly, especially if the growing cycle of the crops coincides with the period most affected by climate change.

In literature, various studies have analyzed  $ET_0$  trends and have shown a variety of results in different regions of the world ([6] for a review). Instead of, there are relatively few studies [20] evidencing

**\*Corresponding author:** Capra A, Department of Agraria, Mediterranean University of Reggio Calabria, Italy, Tel: +320 3323711; E-mail: [acapra@unirc.it](mailto:acapra@unirc.it)

**Received** November 26, 2015; **Accepted** December 14, 2015; **Published** December 17, 2015

**Citation:** Capra A, Mannino R (2015) Effects of Climate Change on the Irrigation Scheduling Parameters in Calabria (South Italy) during 1925-2013. Irrigat Drainage Sys Eng S1:003. doi:10.4172/2168-9768.S1-003

**Copyright:** © 2015 Capra A, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

the effects of climatic trends on irrigation scheduling based on long historical data-set. Some studies investigate crop water requirement trends on the basis of future scenarios ([21,22] between the more recent).

This study aims to evaluate the effects of climate change on  $ET_0$  and irrigation scheduling parameters during last century and the first decade of the present century in Calabria, a Italian Region located in the Mediterranean area. Measured meteorological variables (minimum and maximum air temperature and precipitation) and the derived agro meteorological index  $ET_0$  were analyzed in order to evaluate if any time trend does exist and how it affects the irrigation scheduling parameters (irrigation amount and frequency) for citrus and tomato groves. The area studied is a region characterized by highly complex precipitation and temperatures patterns [7,8,11,16,23-25]. The studies cited have analyzed spatial and temporal distribution of precipitation, temperature and drought within this region; however the effects of climate change on irrigation scheduling parameters discussed in the present paper have not been the subject of previous investigation.

## Study Area and Meteorological Data Set

The Calabria region is a long narrow peninsula with a surface of almost 15,000 km<sup>2</sup> and a coastline of almost 750 km on the Ionian and Tyrrhenian coasts of the Mediterranean Basin. The peninsula, located in the Southern Italy, extends for a length of about 250 km North to South and for a width ranging between 31 and 111 km East to West (Figure



**Figure 1:** Study areas.

1). A mountain range (the Apennines) running perpendicularly to the dominant moisture-bearing wind direction, the geographical position in the Mediterranean basin and the orographic variability characterizing the area cause strong rainfall and temperature variability [8,11,24]. The Region is mainly hilly: 42% of the land is mountainous, 49% hilly and 9% flat. Agriculture is mainly carried out in the flat and hilly areas and is characterized by the presence of orchards and herbaceous crops.

The Italian Hydrographic Service until 2002 and the Arpa Calabria to date manage in the Region a dense network of meteorological stations where precipitation and temperatures were recorded since 1916 for some station [16]. In this study, the analysis is carried out on meteorological stations selected on the basis of data set length and continuity and geographic and altitude representativeness of the irrigated areas of major economic importance for the Region. The irrigated areas were selected on the basis of the results of the 6<sup>th</sup> Italian General Census of Agriculture [26].

Crossing the aforementioned criteria, the period 1925-2013 (89 years) and the nine meteorological stations in Figure 1 (with a % of missing data < 20%) were selected for the study. The period before 1925 has been dropped due to the large number of missing data. Table 1 shows the main characteristics of the stations and the related data set length (Table 1).

## Methods

### Estimation of the irrigation scheduling parameters

The software CROPWAT [27] was used to estimate the irrigation scheduling parameters of citrus and process tomato groves, the most representative crops in the irrigated agricultural system of the Calabria region. CROPWAT has been widely used throughout the world in the evaluation of  $ET_c$  and the water amount to be supplied (CWR) and in the agricultural and irrigation planning ([21,22] between the more recent). Some studies [37-39] have demonstrated the consistency between the CWR measured by field experiments and that estimated by CROPWAT. FAO recommends the use of CROPWAT in order to estimate CWR under various scenarios of climate change [1,27].

Calculations of irrigation requirements and scheduling utilize inputs of climatic, crop and soil data, as well as irrigation and precipitation data. The simulations are based on the daily water balance [17].

Monthly climatic data (e.g., maximum and minimum temperatures, humidity, wind speed and actual sunshine hours), smoothed into daily values, and geographical information (coordinates and altitude of the location) are used by CROPWAT to calculate  $ET_0$  according to the FAO Penman-Montieth equation [17].  $ET_c$  is therefore estimated

Station	Exposure	UTM_ED50 Coordinates		Altitude (m a.s.l.)	Number of years available	
		Est	North		Temperatures	Precipitation
Castrovillari	Ionian	602950.1	4407949.0	353	87	95
Caulonia	Ionian	622133.9	4250441.0	275	87	91
Chiaravalle	Ionian	621718.5	4284454.5	550	87	98
Cittanova	Thyrrhenian	593822.4	4247114.0	407	87	98
Crotone	Ionian	680528.2	4329242.5	6	87	98
Fiumefreddo Bruzio	Thyrrhenian	591167.3	4344480.5	220	77	84
Reggio di Calabria	Thyrrhenian	583120.0	4533310.1	15	87	97
Rossano	Ionian	639440.3	4382580.0	300	71	73
S.Eufemia Lamezia	Thyrrhenian	608729.0	4309964.5	25	80	85

**Table 1:** Characteristics of the meteorological stations and data set length.

by crop information as crop type, planting dates, crop coefficient ( $K_c$ ) and length (days) of the initial, mid-season and late-season crop development stage. Precipitation data, root depth at the beginning and at the end of the crop growing season, soil data (e.g. field capacity, wilting point and infiltration rate), the critical level of soil moisture that causes stress, the irrigation scheduling criteria and the irrigation system efficiency are finally used to schedule irrigation (amounts and intervals).

CROPWAT shows the results of calculations in tables and figures. In particular, the Irrigation schedule table describes [17]: the date of each irrigation, the total available moisture, the readily available moisture, the total and effective precipitation, the actual crop evapotranspiration ( $ET_a$ ), the ratio  $ET_a/ET_c$ , the soil moisture deficit, the interval since the last irrigation took place, the irrigation depth to apply ( $I_i$ ), the irrigation water that is not stored in the soil and the adjustments the user can makes.

In the case examined, monthly temperatures and precipitation measured by the nine meteorological stations during 1925-2013 period were imputed to CROPWAT. The database used was the one presented in Capra et al. [16] updated until 2013. Humidity, wind speed and real sunshine hours data with the same spatiotemporal density of the temperatures and precipitation are not available in the Region, as it is very common in Mediterranean region [20]. In these conditions, CROPWAT estimates humidity, wind speed and sunshine data based on their CLIMWAT-databases and the FAO indirect procedures described in Allen et al. [17].

The simulation was applied to citrus Clementine and processing tomatoes, since they represent typical irrigated crops which use high water amounts and which have great economic importance in the Region [26].

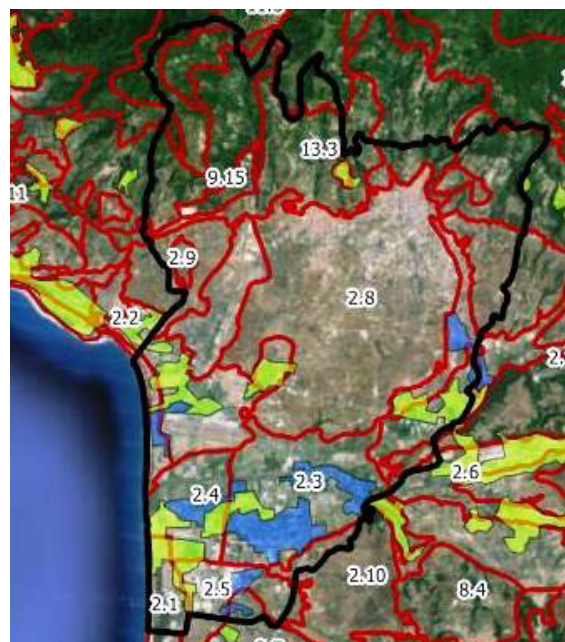
The agro-techniques (planting dates, length of the different growing stages, etc.) assumed in the simulation were those usually adopted in the agricultural areas investigated. The  $K_c$ , the root depth and the critical depletion level were obtained from FAO database for each crop. Table 2 shows crop input (Table 2).

The input data on soil characteristics are: the field capacity ( $\theta_{FC}$ ), the wilting point ( $\theta_{WP}$ ) and the infiltration rate ( $I$ ). The hydrological parameters of the soil are among the least available in routine surveys

	Initial	Development	Mid season	Late season	Total
Citrus					
Crop coefficient ( $K_c$ ) <sup>(1)</sup>	0.65		0.6	0.65	
Length of the growing season (days)	60	90	120	95	365
Maximum root depth (m)	1.1			1.5	
Critical depletion level (CWR <sup>(2)</sup> )	0.5		0.5	0.5	
Yield response factor ( $K_y$ )					0.8-1.1
Tomato					
Crop coefficient ( $K_c$ )	1.15		0.8	0.6	
Length of the growing season (days)	30	40	45	35	150
Maximum root depth (m)	0.7			1.5	
Critical depletion level (CWR <sup>(2)</sup> )	0.4		0.4	0.4	
Yield response factor ( $K_y$ )	0.4	1.1	0.8	0.4	1.05

(1) no ground cover, 50% canopy; (2) easily available moisture.

**Table 2:** Crop input.



**Figure 2:** Example of overlay between the Calabria soil map and the CORINE-LAND COVER map for the S. EufemiaLamezia agricultural area (2.2, 9.15 ..... = soil classes; yellow areas = CORINE grid code 13- Permanently irrigated land; light blue areas= CORINE grid code 16- Fruit trees and berry plantations).

and among the most expensive to measure. Throughout the years were consequently developed several pedotransfer functions for their derivation using soil data routinely measured [40,41]. The two following steps were used to estimate these data:

a) The Calabria soil map [42] was overlapped to the land use map [43] by a GIS to identify the soil types, and their physical-chemical characteristics, in the areas cultivated with the crops of interest in the agricultural areas observed;

b) Pedotransfer functions based on sand, silt, clay and organic carbon soil contents and on bulk density were used to estimate  $\theta_{FC}$ ,  $\theta_{WP}$  and  $I$ . The software SOILPAR 2.00 [44] was used for calculation.

Figure 2 shows an example of overlay of the two maps cited for the area S. Eufemia Lamezia. Table 3 describes the soil characteristics of the study areas (Figure 2).

The criteria to irrigate and to return the soil back to field capacity when all the easily available moisture (RAW) has been used was chosen between the different scheduling options offered by CROPWAT. According to FAO standard methods [17], RAW for no stress was fixed at 0.5 of total available water (TAW) for citrus and 0.4 for tomatoes. The irrigation system efficiency was fixed at 85%.

Almost 2000 simulations (obtained by the product between the number of agricultural areas examined, the observation years, the crop types and the soil types) were performed and analyzed.

## Trend analysis

The temporal variability of the irrigation parameters was analyzed using standard trend analysis tests. The tests applied were the non-parametric Mann-Kendall (MK) test, which reliably identifies monotonic linear and non-linear trends [45] and the linear trend (Lin) test [46]. The significance of the coefficients  $Z$  (for the MK test) and  $r$



	Crop	Texture	Clay (%)	Sand (%)	Silt (%)	Bulk density (g.cm <sup>-3</sup> )	Organic Carbon (%)	Field capacity (mm.m <sup>-1</sup> )	Welting point (mm.m <sup>-1</sup> )	Maximum infiltration rate (mm.day <sup>-1</sup> )
Castrovillari	Tomato	Sandy-loam	15.0	60.0	25.0	1.4	0.7	220	110	≥300
	Citrus	Loam	26.6	48.9	24.6	1.1	1.7	340	190	201
Caulonia	Citrus	Sandy-loam	19.7	51.4	28.9	1.2	0.9	280	140	≥300
Chiaravalle	Citrus	Sandy-clay-loam	21.2	51.5	27.3	1.1	2.4	340	180	≥300
Cittanova	Citrus	Sandy-loam	8.3	68.7	23.0	1.3	1.2	200	90	≥300
Crotone	Tomato	Clay-loam	31.2	34.8	34.1	1.2	0.8	350	200	81
Fiumefreddo B.	Tomato	Sandy-loam	14.7	63.2	22.1	1.2	1.8	270	140	≥300
Reggio Calabria	Citrus	Sandy-loam	10.9	65.5	23.7	1.3	0.7	200	100	≥300
	Tomato	Loam	14.6	50.1	35.4	1.0	3.3	360	170	≥300
Rossano	Citrus	Sand	81.5	3.0	15.5	1.5	0.5	120	50	≥300
S.Eufemia L.	Citrus	Sandy-loam	15.9	66.3	17.8	1.2	0.8	230	120	≥300
	Tomato	Sandy-loam	14.1	55.9	30.0	1.2	1.0	250	120	≥300

**Table 3:** Describes the soil characteristics of the study areas.

		Castrovillari	Caulonia	Chiaravalle	Cittanova	Crotone	Fiumefreddo Bruzio	Reggio Calabria	Rossano	S.Eufemia Lametia
P (mm)										
average	year	853.72	972.08	1461.50	1474.78	678.00	1065.66	609.29	941.94	920.20
	dry period	244.19	260.86	312.80	393.21	149.22	311.00	153.30	214.30	240.80
standard deviation	year	207.92	259.24	394.18	295.14	183.02	224.63	119.45	244.21	197.76
	dry period	89.39	101.18	132.60	125.51	72.54	100.76	52.78	83.84	92.71
T <sub>max</sub> (°C)										
average	year	20.78	26.08	18.23	26.86	21.43	25.61	22.09	27.11	21.50
	dry period	26.82	31.70	23.62	32.41	26.60	30.60	26.52	33.20	25.98
standard deviation	year	1.07	1.09	1.01	1.22	1.20	1.37	0.87	1.16	0.83
	dry period	1.31	1.55	1.36	1.84	1.53	1.59	1.52	1.55	1.10
T <sub>min</sub> (°C)										
average	year	10.17	9.02	9.61	7.02	13.11	8.39	14.43	8.02	12.70
	dry period	14.31	13.30	13.46	11.12	17.20	12.40	18.12	12.50	16.33
standard deviation	year	1.33	1.04	0.98	1.38	1.42	1.35	0.72	1.44	1.03
	dry period	1.60	1.16	1.14	1.45	1.56	1.32	0.89	1.62	1.11
ET <sub>0</sub> (mm)										
average	year	1078.23	1472.35	930.93	1579.93	974.39	1419.87	929.98	1560.19	987.26
	dry period	808.00	1057.80	687.60	1126.60	709.30	1008.70	668.70	1135.40	701.30
standard deviation	year	57.96	81.41	68.16	88.99	108.39	83.58	78.19	93.05	66.16
	dry period	44.47	71.09	56.58	78.56	84.82	66.60	60.56	73.82	55.45

**Table 4:** Climatic and bioclimatic characteristics of the areas studied during 1925-2013 period.

(correlation coefficient, for the Lin test) was checked for three different levels of probability ( $P \leq 0.01$ , 0.05 and 0.10).

The search for trend was applied to the datasets of P (mm), T<sub>max</sub> and T<sub>min</sub> (°C), for the derived bioclimatic parameter ET<sub>0</sub> (mm) and for the irrigation scheduling parameters.

Monthly data were cumulated (for P and ET<sub>0</sub>) or averaged (for T<sub>max</sub> and T<sub>min</sub>) at annual and seasonal scale. Seasonal analysis included: 1<sup>st</sup> quarter (from January to March), 2<sup>nd</sup> quarter (from April to June), 3<sup>rd</sup> quarter (from July to September), 4<sup>th</sup> quarter (from October to December) and dry period (from April to September) when irrigation is generally required. In the Mediterranean climate of southern Italy, the four quarters correspond to the season's winter, spring, summer and autumn, respectively; the April-September period (2<sup>nd</sup> quarter plus 3<sup>rd</sup> quarter) and the October-March period (4<sup>th</sup> quarter plus 1<sup>st</sup> quarter) represent the dry and wet period, respectively.

For each year, the irrigation parameters submitted to the research for trends were:

- The total irrigation depth ( $I_{r,s}$  in mm), obtained cumulating the depth of each irrigation ( $I_i$ );
- The duration of the irrigation season (D in days), e.g. the days between the first and the last irrigation;
- The number of irrigation in the irrigation season (N);
- The date of the first irrigation (day and month);
- The date of the last irrigation (day and month).

The trend analysis was carried out using the software TREND [47].

## Results and Discussion

### Main statistics of climatic and bioclimatic characteristics

Table 4 allows comparing the long period (1925-2013) mean climatic and bioclimatic characteristics of the areas analyzed at early and dry (irrigation) period scales.

The mean yearly temperatures varied between 18.23 and 27.11°C

for  $T_{\max}$  and 7.02-14.43°C for  $T_{\min}$  (Table 4). The average  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$  in dry period were 4-6°C and almost 4°C higher respect to the yearly averages, respectively.

Yearly  $ET_0$  varied in the range from 929.98 mm (Reggio Calabria) to 1579.93 mm (Cittanova).  $ET_0$  in dry period represented a percentage ranging from 71 to 75% of the yearly  $ET_0$ .

The lower precipitation, the higher temperatures and  $ET_0$  in the dry period highlights the need for artificial water supplies (irrigation) in the spring-summer seasons.

### Trend of climatic and bioclimatic characteristics

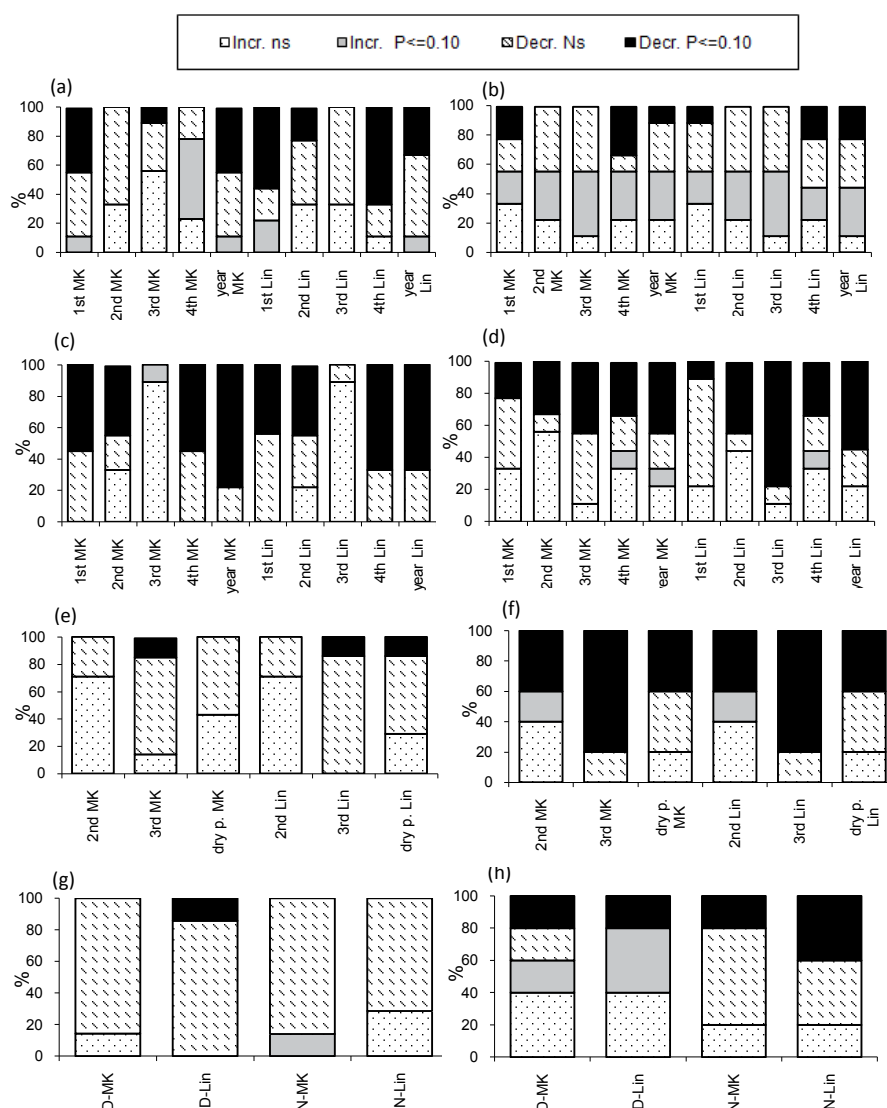
**Precipitation:** Figure 3a depicts, for the seasonal and yearly scale, the percentage of stations that showed increasing or decreasing trends, derived using both the Mann-Kendall (MK) and the linear (Lin) tests. The figure also shows the percentage of significant trends for  $P \leq 0.10$ .

The level of significance for  $P \leq 0.10$  has been considered because the percentage of significant trends was very low for  $P \leq 0.05$  and  $P \leq 0.01$  (Figure 3).

Results of the MK test evidence that almost all the series analyzed exhibited negative precipitation trend at yearly scale and for 1<sup>st</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> quarter (Figure 3a). Particularly, almost 80% and 60% of the series showed significant negative trend for annual and 1<sup>st</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> quarter, respectively. Whereas, one third of the stations showed increasing, but not significant, trends in 2<sup>nd</sup> quarter, and 90% of the series evidenced increasing trend in 3<sup>rd</sup> quarter.

Similar results were obtained with the Lin test (Figure 3a), with light differences in the percentage of stations showing increasing/decreasing or significant/not significant trends.

Despite the different number of stations considered, these results are coherent with those founded by [16] at the scale of the whole



**Figure 3:** Percentage of stations with increasing (Incr.) or decreasing (Decr.) and significant ( $P \leq 0.10$ ) trends estimated by the Mann-Kendall (MK) and linear (Lin) tests. (a) Maximum temperature; (b) Minimum temperature; (c) Precipitation; (d) Reference evapotranspiration; (e) Citrus irrigation depth; (f) Tomato irrigation depth; (g) Irrigation season duration (D) and number (N) for Citrus; (h) Irrigation season duration (D) and number (N) for Tomato.

region. This analysis, based on 110 precipitation series evidenced yearly precipitation decreased in mean of about 31.8 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup> (representing almost 30% of the yearly mean precipitation in the region) during the period 1921-2007.

The slopes (*b*) of the yearly trends (Table 5) ranged from -3.35 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup> (Reggio Calabria) to -67.17 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup> (Chiaravalle), corresponding to a decrease of 5% and 41% of the mean precipitation in the period observed, respectively. At seasonal scale, the slopes were generally negative, with the exception of the 3<sup>rd</sup> quarter, when the slopes were positive, but the negative slopes were generally higher than the positive slopes.

Particularly crucial for the water resource are the negative trends appeared during the wet period equal to a mean of almost 25 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup>, corresponding to almost 23% of the mean precipitation. This trend has a negative impact because it reduces the supply of the surface and underground water reserves. Instead of, the positive trends in the spring and, mainly, in summer precipitation can contribute to a decrease in the irrigation amount, as will be discussed in the paragraph 6.3.

**Temperatures:** Thermometric parameters indicated, at yearly scale, a general decreasing trend for  $T_{max}$ , whereas both increasing and decreasing trends were observed for  $T_{min}$ .

	(b) (mm.decade <sup>-1</sup> or °C.decade <sup>-1</sup> )			Castrovillari	Caulonia	Chiaravalle	Cittanova	Crotone	Fiumefreddo Bruzio	Reggio Calabria	Rossano	S.Eufemia Lamezia
	min	max	mean									
Precipitation												
year	-67.167	-3.354	-25.278	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
1 <sup>st</sup> quarter	-28.801	-1.045	-9.652	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
2 <sup>nd</sup> quarter	-12.708	2.017	-3.806	N	P	N	N	P	N	N	N	N
3 <sup>rd</sup> quarter	-0.991	5.307	2.977	N	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P
4 <sup>th</sup> quarter	-36.773	-4.363	-14.271	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
dry period	-9.292	6.930	-0.868	N	P	N	N	P	N	P	N	N
$T_{max}$												
year	-0.187	0.116	-0.057	N	N	N	P	N	N	N	N	N
1 <sup>st</sup> quarter	-0.185	0.068	-0.031	N	N	N	P	P	N	N	P	N
2 <sup>nd</sup> quarter	-0.195	0.145	-0.015	N	N	N	P	N	N	P	N	N
3 <sup>rd</sup> quarter	-0.264	0.098	-0.107	N	N	N	P	N	N	N	N	N
4 <sup>th</sup> quarter	-0.332	0.151	-0.072	N	N	N	P	N	N	N	N	N
dry period	-0.226	0.122	-0.061	N	N	N	P	N	N	P	N	N
$T_{min}$												
year	-0.077	0.304	0.079	N	N	N	P	P	N	P	P	N
1 <sup>st</sup> quarter	-0.153	0.238	0.038	P	N	N	P	P	N	P	P	N
2 <sup>nd</sup> quarter	-0.060	0.332	0.109	N	P	N	P	P	N	P	P	P
3 <sup>rd</sup> quarter	-0.061	0.368	0.121	N	N	N	P	P	N	P	P	P
4 <sup>th</sup> quarter	-0.170	0.280	0.043	N	N	N	P	P	N	P	P	N
dry period	-0.061	0.350	0.115	N	P	N	P	P	N	P	P	P
ET <sub>0</sub>												
year	-15.947	1.730	-5.507	N	P	N	P	N	N	N	N	N
1 <sup>st</sup> quarter	-1.704	0.604	-0.280	P	N	P	N	N	N	N	N	N
2 <sup>nd</sup> quarter	-4.486	1.438	-0.949	P	P	N	P	N	P	N	N	N
3 <sup>rd</sup> quarter	-7.770	0.188	-3.403	N	P	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
4 <sup>th</sup> quarter	-4.070	0.821	-0.743	P	P	P	P	N	N	N	N	N
dry period	-11.931	1.626	-4.352	N	P	N	P	N	N	N	N	N
Irrigation depth												
Citrus												
2 <sup>nd</sup> quarter	-4.234	5.378	1.360	P	P	P	I	-	-	N	P	P
3 <sup>rd</sup> quarter	-10.439	-0.275	-2.894	N	N	N	D	-	-	N	N	N
dry period	-12.763	4.790	-2.398	P	N	N	I	-	-	N	N	N
Tomato												
2 <sup>nd</sup> quarter	-8.274	9.960	1.401	N	-	-	-	N	P	P	-	P
3 <sup>rd</sup> quarter	-8.450	-2.848	-5.979	N	-	-	-	N	N	N	-	N
dry period	-15.646	1.510	-5.512	N	-	-	-	N	P	N	-	N
Length of the irrigation season												
Citrus	-2.988	1.968	-0.391	P	N	N	P	-	-	N	N	N
Tomato	-2.892	-0.081	-0.845	N	-	-	-	N	N	N	P	N
Number of irrigation in the season												
Citrus	-0.091	0.050	-0.018	P	N	N	P	-	-	N	N	N
Tomato	-0.257	0.084	-0.035	P	-	-	-	N	P	N	P	N

**Table 5:** Slopes and signs (N=negative; P=positive) of the trends detected in the areas studied.

Annual  $T_{min}$  increased in almost 60% of the areas examined, with a percentage of significant trends equal to 33% (Figure 3b). The results were similar for the four quarters, with a percentage of significant trends variable from 11% to 33% in relation to both the quarter considered and the method (MK or Lin test) used for trend detection. At yearly scale, the trend slopes ( $b$ ) (Table 5) were generally higher for the increasing trend (from 0.1-0.3°C.decade<sup>-1</sup>) respect to the decreasing trends (from -0.02 to -0.08°C.decade<sup>-1</sup>).

Both MK and Lin trends showed the annual  $T_{max}$  decreased in 80-90% of the studied stations (Figure 3c), with a proportion of significant trends ( $P \leq 0.10$ ) equal to almost one half. The results at seasonal scale were similar to that at the yearly scale for the 1<sup>st</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> quarter, whereas they showed a lower percentage of decreasing trends for the others quarters, and mainly for the 3<sup>th</sup>, analyzed by MK test (Figure 3b). Yearly trend slopes ranged from -0.19°C.decade<sup>-1</sup> to 0.116°C.decade<sup>-1</sup> (Table 5).

Despite the different number of stations considered, these results are coherent with those founded by [16] at the scale of the whole region. During the period 1921-2007, the analysis, based on 25 stations, showed yearly mean  $T_{min}$  increased of 0.09°C.decade<sup>-1</sup>, maximum and mean temperatures decreased of 0.1°C.decade<sup>-1</sup> and 0.08°C.decade<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

**Reference evapotranspiration:** At yearly scale,  $ET_0$  decreased in almost 70% of the stations for both the MK and Lin tests (Figure 3d). The negative trends were significant ( $P \leq 0.10$ ) in almost 50% of the stations. The negative trend slopes ranged from -1.73 to -15.95 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup> (Table 5).  $ET_0$  decreased 5.37-141.93 mm during the 89 years observed, corresponding to 0.3-9% of the  $ET_0$  mean of the same period. Increasing trends were significant in almost 10% of the stations only for yearly MK trend and for the 4<sup>th</sup> quarter MK and Lin trends. The yearly changes were mainly supported by the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> quarters: in fact,  $ET_0$  decreased in almost 70% of the areas in winter, 90% in summer and 60% in autumn; whereas both positive and negative trends were observed in spring.

The results are consistent with that found by [16] in a study on 25 stations distributed in the Region. In this study a mean annual  $ET_0$  decreasing of 112 mm/100 years was observed.

Cases of decreasing trend of  $ET_0$  are not rare in literature. The trends in  $ET_0$  were negative in India [48,49] in different Region of China [50-53] in Tiberian Plateau [54]. Other studies have shown positive trends in  $ET_0$ , including those in Florida [17], central India [55], Iran [56-58], Spain [6,19,59,60]. Furthermore, in some areas, e.g., Australia [60] and different Regions of Italy [11,16,20,61,62] large spatial variability in the evolution of  $ET_0$  during recent decades were observed (Table 5).

## Trend of the irrigation scheduling parameters

**Irrigation depth:** The mean total irrigation depth ( $I_{r,s}$ ) ranged from 197 to 687 mm for citrus and was 414-720 mm for tomato (Table 6). Almost the total amount of  $I_{r,s}$  was required in the period April-September (dry period). It is obvious for tomato, which crop cycle roughly correspond to this period. For citrus, the irrigation season extended until October only exceptionally, in very dry and hot years (Table 6).

$I_{r,s}$  decreased in almost 60-70% of the stations for citrus (Figure 3e). The decreasing trends were significant ( $P \leq 0.10$ ) in a percentage of stations lesser than 20% for Lin test only. Any of the increasing trend was significant. The seasonal changes were mainly due to the summer season (3<sup>rd</sup> quarter), when  $I_r$  decreased in a percentage of stations equal to almost 90% and 100% for MK and Lin test, respectively. Instead of, the trends were mainly positive (in almost 70% of the stations) in the 2<sup>nd</sup> quarter. The  $I_{r,s}$  negative trend slopes ranged from -4.79 to -12.79 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup> (Table 5). Mean  $I_{r,s}$  decreased 6-22% in the areas affected by negative trends and increased 1% and 7% in the two areas showing positive trends.

The trends showed a similar behavior for tomato (Figure 3f), with little differences in the percentage of positive/negative and significant/not significant trends.  $I_{r,s}$  decreased in 80% of the stations for both MK and Lin tests. The negative trends were significant ( $P \leq 0.10$ ) in one

	Castrovillari	Caulonia	Chiaravalle	Cittanova	Crotone	Fiumefreddo Bruzio	Reggio di Calabria	Rossano	S. Eufemia Lametia	Mean
Citrus										
Irrigation depth (mm)										
average	300.85	572.91	196.97	616.31	-	-	266.47	686.61	237.94	411.15
standard deviation	95.36	115.95	87.24	174.68	-	-	77.75	126.32	84.35	108.81
Irr. season duration (days)										
average	69.37	105.46	21.57	90.90	-	-	65.89	154.83	56.84	80.69
standard deviation	31.30	28.93	28.84	28.02	-	-	29.63	41.60	33.59	31.70
Number of irrigation										
average	3	5	1	5	-	-	2	3	2	3
standard deviation	0.96	0.87	0.63	1.19	-	-	0.71	1.38	0.86	0.94
Tomato										
Irrigation depth (mm)										
average	485.61	-	-	-	482.31	719.80	421.69	-	414.16	504.72
standard deviation	125.94	-	-	-	90.07	106.11	82.43	-	88.81	98.67
Irr. season duration (days)										
average	126.60	-	-	-	125.98	98.10	117.56	-	123.42	118.33
standard deviation	11.01	-	-	-	11.15	23.27	11.43	-	11.58	13.69
Number of irrigation										
average	10	-	-	-	12	16	7	-	10	11
standard deviation	2.08	-	-	-	2.83	1.28	1.30	-	2.41	1.98

**Table 6:** Mean values (1925-2013) of the irrigation parameters.

half of the cases. The negative trend slopes ranged from  $-2.64$  to  $-15.65$   $\text{mm.decade}^{-1}$  (Table 5), corresponding to  $-6\%$  and  $-29\%$  of the  $I_{r,s}$  mean of the period 1925-2013. Similarly to the citrus, the  $I_{r,s}$  trends were mainly due to the summer (3<sup>rd</sup> quarter), when  $I_r$  decreased in 100% of the stations, whereas this percentage was 60% in spring.

**Duration of the irrigation season and number of irrigations:** The mean duration of the irrigation season (D) was 81 and 118 days for citrus and tomato, respectively, with a wide range for the different areas considered, mainly for citrus (Table 6). For this crop, the minimum value was registered for Chiaravalle due to the lower values of  $T_{\max}$  coupled to the higher values of precipitation.

The length of the irrigation season showed decreasing trends, but generally not significant, for both citrus and tomato, with the only exception of Castrovillari and Cittanova, which trends were positive for citrus (Figure 3g). The shortening of the irrigation season was due to an anticipated closing, whereas there was no change in the date of the first irrigation.

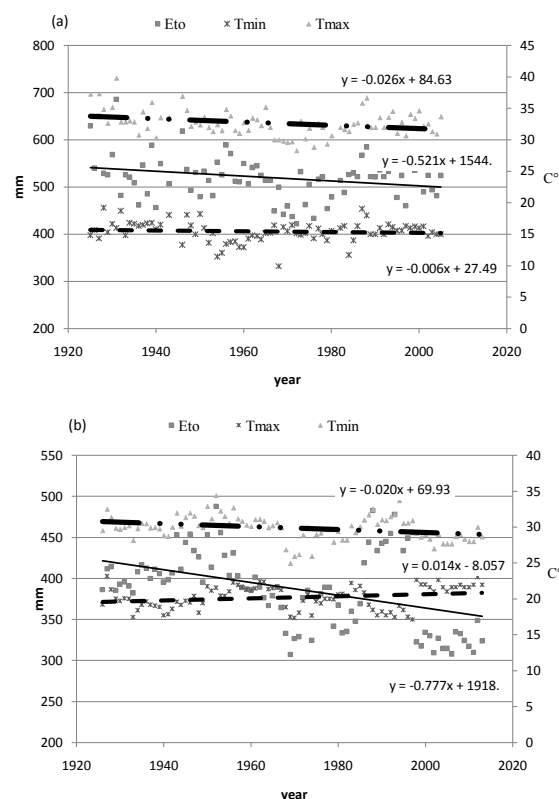
The mean number of irrigation in the season ranged from 1 to 5 for citrus, and from 7 to 16 for tomato (Table 6). It should be noted that CROPWAT estimates irrigation scheduling in the hypothesis to irrigate 100% of the crop surface area ( $10,000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ), and, therefore, when surface or sprinkle irrigation systems are used. The depth of each irrigation has to be reduced proportionally to the percentage wetted area and, therefore, the number of irrigations in the season to be increased in the same proportion, when localized irrigation is used [29,61]. As an example, the depth of each irrigation is reduced by half, and the number of irrigations is doubled, when the percentage wetted area is 50%.

The number of irrigations was decreasing in almost 80% of the stations for both citrus and tomato. The percentage of significant trends is very low (Figures 3g and 3h). The positive trends of Cittanova and Castrovillari can be considered null, due to the  $b$  values near to zero. That is due to the effect of the opposite trends in springtime and summer.

### Effects of meteorological variables on the trends of $ET_0$ and irrigation scheduling parameters

As it is well known, multiple factors may be associated with changes in  $ET_0$  [19]. In the Region examined, the temperature trends affected the  $ET_0$  trends, as expected. The decreasing of  $ET_0$  was mainly due to the decrease of  $T_{\max}$ . This is in accordance with the results of a study on the sensitivity of  $ET_0$  to changes in meteorological parameters in Spain [19] which showed  $ET_0$  was more sensitive to changes in  $T_{\max}$  than  $T_{\min}$ . In fact, evapotranspiration daily cycles are determined by the solar radiation, which is commonly recorded at the time of the day in which  $T_{\max}$  is measured; whereas during the night, when  $T_{\min}$  is measured, evapotranspiration is much lower. In some stations, the  $ET_0$  trend sign (positive or negative) depended on the difference in the slope and, mainly, in the sign (positive or negative) for the  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$  trends, e.g. the asymmetrical behavior of the two variables influenced the  $ET_0$  trend as observed in other studies [16,50,57,62]. This consideration is based on the fact that differences between  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$  are closely related to the daily solar radiation [17,63]. Figure 4 depicts, as examples, the  $ET_0$  summer decreasing trends for Fiumefreddo Bruzio, where both  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$  decreased, and for Crotone, where  $T_{\max}$  decreased and  $T_{\min}$  increased (Figure 4).

Different results were obtained, in different regions, on the meteorological factors influencing  $ET_0$  trend. Chattopadhyay and



**Figure 4:** Trends of  $T_{\max}$ ,  $T_{\min}$  and  $ET_0$  in the 3<sup>rd</sup> quarter for Fiume freddo Bruzio (a) and Crotone (b).

Hulme [49] stated that  $ET_0$  decreased over the Indian region, in spite of the general increase in temperature, due to increases in relative humidity and decreases in radiation. Xu et al. [53] indicated  $ET_0$  significant decreasing trend was mainly caused by a significant decrease in net total radiation in the Changjiang basin in China during 1960–2000. Zhang et al. [54] concluded that  $ET_0$  significantly decreased of 47% in the Tibetan Plateau during 1966–2003 despite the air temperature at most of the sites significantly increased. Trends of the same sign (positive) for both temperatures and  $ET_0$  were found in the western half of Iran [57] and in Apulia, a southern Italy Region near Calabria [20]. According to Vicente-Serrano et al. [19], the observed increases of  $ET_0$  in Spain were mainly driven by warming processes and reduced water supply to the atmosphere, which decreased relative humidity.

The trends of irrigation depth showed high variability, as discussed in the previous paragraph, due to their dependence on both the trend of  $ET_0$  (and, therefore, of  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$ ) and precipitation. The local meteorological parameters influenced the nature and magnitude of the  $I_{r,s}$  trends in different ways. The  $I_{r,s}$  trend could be decreasing even if  $ET_0$  increased, as long as precipitation increased, or vice-versa. A further cause of variability was the variability of the trends in the different sub-periods (2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> quarters) of the irrigation season.

Some examples can show this complexity in the Region studied. The following analysis refers to the dry period (April–September), that constitutes the irrigation season in the environment considered, and to the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> quarters, separately.

The  $I_{r,s}$  decrease was clearly due to both  $ET_0$  decrease and



precipitation increase in two stations (Crotone and Reggio Calabria) over nine (Table 5). Both  $I_{r,s}$ ,  $ET_0$  and precipitation trends were negative in dry period in three stations (Chiaravalle, Rossano and S. Eufemia Lamezia). The major role on  $I_{r,s}$  trends was played, for these stations, by the summer trends respect to springtime trends. In fact, at seasonal scale,  $I_r$  trends were positive, despite  $ET_0$  decreased, due to precipitation negative trends, in 2<sup>nd</sup> quarter, whereas both  $I_r$  and  $ET_0$  trends were negative, and precipitation trends positive, in summer. The positive  $I_{r,s}$  trends were mainly due to the precipitation negative trends in two of the examined stations (Castrovillari and Fiumefreddo), being  $ET_0$  decreasing.  $I_{r,s}$  decreased in Caulonia despite the positive trend of  $ET_0$ , due to precipitation increase in 3<sup>rd</sup> quarter. Lastly, the  $I_{r,s}$  increase was mostly explained by the  $ET_0$  increasing trend for Cittanova.

The date of the first irrigation remained unchanged, whereas there was an anticipated closing due to the positive trend in the summer rainfall.

Palumbo et al. [20], using the data measured in one agrometeorological station located nearby Foggia (Puglia Region, South Italy) and covering the 1957–2008 period, demonstrated growth trend of tomato water deficit (32 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup>) took place [64-66].

## Summary and Conclusions

In this study, we have analyzed the effects of climate change on citrus and tomato irrigation scheduling parameters in the most important irrigated areas of Calabria (South Italy), between 1925 and 2013, by comparing the changes of the irrigation depth, of the irrigation season length and the number of irrigations in the season, to the trends of climatic (temperatures and precipitation) variables involved in the calculation. The change in irrigation parameters is due exclusively to the climatic factors, since any agronomic aspect was considered constant.

The main results of this study are:

- There was a slight general decrease in the seasonal irrigation depth for both citrus and tomato. The average annual magnitude of decreases throughout Calabria were 2.40 and 5.51 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup> for citrus and tomato, respectively, corresponding to -7% and -11% of the mean irrigation depth of the 89 years considered
- The length of the irrigation season decreased in mean by 0.7 and 1 day.decade<sup>-1</sup>, for citrus and tomato, respectively; the number of irrigation decreased by 10% and 5% for citrus and tomato, respectively
- $ET_0$  generally decreased, with an average magnitude of -5.51 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup>, corresponding to -4%, and with a large spatial variability;  $ET_0$  trends depended mainly to maximum temperature (decreasing) than minimum temperature (increasing)
- The trends of the irrigation scheduling parameters depended on both  $ET_0$  and precipitation. Precipitation decreased at yearly scale, but increased in summer, the season when irrigation requirements are higher in the environment considered. The positive trend in summer precipitation also caused an advance of the last watering, resulting in a slight decrease of the length of the irrigation season
- Spatial pattern of the change is complex and mostly random due to the influence of the microclimate (minimum and maximum temperatures, precipitation) which, in turn, depends on exposure and local topography, as demonstrated in previous studies

The results, on the whole, show the importance of studies at regional scale considering the detection of trends even opposite

with respect to those found in studies on other areas in the same Mediterranean region. The elaboration of more local studies is useful in order to deepen knowledge on the problematic of each zone and to plan concrete actions.

At regional level, the results have practical interest, since they highlight how the change in the irrigation parameters for two crops economically relevant for Calabria are of little magnitude compared with the change in meteorological variables, such as the significant decrease in the autumn and winter wet period precipitation (-25 mm.decade<sup>-1</sup> in mean) that can reduce the availability of the underground and surface water for irrigation.

## References

1. FAO (2003) Unlocking the water potential of agriculture. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
2. IPCC (2014) Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Switzerland.
3. Gao X, Giorgi F (2008) Increased aridity in the Mediterranean region under greenhouse gas forcing estimated from high resolution simulations with a regional climate model. *Global and Planetary Change* 62: 195-209.
4. Lionello P, Abrantes F, Gacic M, Planton S, Trigo R, et al. (2014) The climate of the Mediterranean region: research progress and climate change impacts. *Reg Environ Change* 14: 1670-1684.
5. Norrant C, Douguedroit A (2006) Monthly and daily precipitation trends in the Mediterranean (1950-2000). *Theor Appl Climatol* 83: 89-106.
6. Vicente-Serrano SM, Azorin-Molina C, Sanchez-Lorenzo A, Revuelto J, Lopez-Moreno JL, et al. (2014) Reference evapotranspiration variability and trends in Spain, 1961-2011. *Global and Planetary Change* 121: 26-40.
7. Capra A, Pavanelli D (2010) Interactions between climate change, bioclimate and soil erosion in different climatic areas in Italy. Mexico.
8. Capra A, Scicolone B (2012) Spatiotemporal variability of drought on a short-medium time scale in the Calabria region (Southern Italy). *Theor and Appl Climatol* 110: 471-488.
9. Brunetti M, Buffoni L, Maugeri M, Nanni T (2000) Precipitation intensity trends in northern Italy. *Int J of Climatol* 20: 1017-1031.
10. Brunetti M, Buffoni L, Mangianti F (2004) Temperature, precipitation and extreme events during the last century in Italy. *Global and Planetary Change* 40: 141-149.
11. Capra A, Porto P, Scicolone B (2006) Regional analysis of climate and bioclimate change in South Italy. *Geo-environment and landscape evolution* II.
12. Vergni L, Todisco F (2011) Spatio-temporal variability of precipitation, temperature and agricultural drought indices in Central Italy. *Agric For Meteorol* 151: 301-313.
13. Bonaccorso B, Bordi I, Cancelliere A, Rossi G, Sutera A (2003) Spatial variability of drought: an analysis of the SPI in Sicily. *Water Res Manage* 17: 273-296.
14. Capra A, Indelicato S, Li Destri Nicosia O, Scicolone B (1992) Evaluation de la sécheresse d'après les données de précipitation.
15. Capra A, Li Destri Nicosia O, Scicolone B (1994) Application of fuzzy sets to drought classification.
16. Capra A, Consoli S, Scicolone B (2013) Long-term climatic variability in Calabria and effects on drought and agro meteorological parameters. *Water Res Manage* 27: 601-617.
17. Allen RG, Pereira LS, Raes D, Smith M (1998) Crop evapotranspiration. Guidelines for computing crop water requirements.
18. Katerji N, Rana G (2011) Crop reference evapotranspiration: a discussion of the concept, analysis of the process and validation. *Wat Resour Manage* 25: 1581-1600.
19. Vicente-Serrano SM, Azorin-Molina C, Sanchez-Lorenzo A, Revuelto J, Moran-Tejeda E, et al. (2014) Sensitivity of reference evapotranspiration to changes

- in meteorological parameters in Spain (1961-2011). AGU Water Resources Research.
20. Palumbo AD, Vitale D, Campi P, Mastroianni M (2011) Time trend in reference evapotranspiration: analysis of a long series of agrometeorological measurements in Southern Italy. *Irrig Drainage Syst* 25: 395-411.
  21. Chowdhury S, Al-Zahrani M, Abbas A (2013) Implications of climate change on crop water requirements in arid region: An example of Al-Jouf, Saudi Arabia. *Journal of King Saud University, Engineering Sciences*.
  22. Parekh F, Prajapati KP (2013) Climate change impacts on crop water requirement for Sukhi reservoir project. *Int J Innovative Research in Science, Engineering and Technology* 2: 4685-4692.
  23. Brunetti M, Caloiero T, Coscarelli R, Gullà G, Nanni T, et al. (2010) Precipitation variability and change in the Calabria region (Italy) from a high resolution daily dataset. *Int J Climatol* published online.
  24. Buttafuoco G, Caloiero T, Coscarelli R (2011) Spatial and temporal patterns of the mean annual precipitation at decadal time scale in southern Italy (Calabria region). *Theor and Appl Climatol* 105: 431-444.
  25. Coscarelli R, Caloiero T (2012) Analysis of daily and monthly rainfall concentration in Southern Italy (Calabria region). *J Hydrol* 416-417: 145-156.
  26. ISTAT (2010) 6° Censimento generale dell'agricoltura.
  27. FAO (2013) Software CROPWAT.
  28. Anadranistakis M, Liakatas A, Kerkides P, Rizos S (2000) Cropwater requirements model tested for crop grown in Greece. *Agric Water Manage* 45: 297-316.
  29. Capra A, Scicolone B (2003) Simulation-based evaluation of the efficiency of different irrigation scheduling strategies.
  30. Diop M (2006) Analysis of crop water use in Senegal with the CROPWAT model.
  31. Karanja FK (2006) Cropwat model analysis of crop water use in six districts in Kenya.
  32. Molua EL, Lambi CM (2006) Assessing the impact of climate on crop water use and crop water productivity: The Cropwat analysis of three districts in Cameroon.
  33. Sheng-Feng K, Shin-Shen H, Chen-Wuing L (2006) Estimation irrigation water requirements with derived crop coefficients for upland and paddy crops in Chia Nan Irrigation Association, Taiwan. *Agric Water Manage* 82: 433-451.
  34. Smith M (1991) CROPWAT Manual and Guidelines, FAO, Italy.
  35. Smith M, Kivumbi D, Heng LK (2000) Use of the FAO CROPWAT model in deficit irrigation studies. FAO.
  36. Smith M, Kivumbi D (2006) Calculation procedure use of the FAO CROPWAT model in deficit irrigation studies. FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization) Italy.
  37. Chatterjee SK, Banerjee S, Bose M (2012) Climate Change Impact on Crop Water Requirement in Ganga River Basin, West Bengal, India. *IPCBE* 46: 17-20.
  38. George B, Shende S, Raghuwanshi N (2000) Development and testing of an irrigation scheduling model. *Agric Water Manage* 46: 121-136.
  39. Giorgis K, Tadege A, Tibebe D (2006) Estimating crop water use and simulating yield reduction for maize and sorghum in Adama and Mieso districts using the Cropwat model.
  40. Pachepsky Y, Rawls WJ (2005) Development of pedotransfer functions in soil hydrology. Elsevier.
  41. Ungaro F, Calzolari C (2005) Development of pedotransfer functions using a group method of data handling for the soil of the Pianura Padana-Veneta region of North Italy: water retention properties. *Geoderma* 124: 293-317.
  42. ARSSA, Agenzia Regionale per lo Sviluppo della Calabria (2003) I suoli della Calabria.
  43. CORINE land cover (2006).
  44. Acutis M, Donatelli M (2003) SOILPAR 2.00: software to estimate soil hydrological parameters and functions. *Europ J Agronomy* 18: 373-377.
  45. Salas JD (1992) Analysis and modelling of hydrologic time series.
  46. Hirsch RM, Helsel DR, Cohn TA, Gilroy EJ (1992) Statistical analysis of hydrologic data.
  47. TREND Software.
  48. Bandyopadhyay B, Bhadra A, Raghuwanshi NS, Singh R (2009) Temporal trends in estimates of reference evapotranspiration over India. *J Hydrologic Eng* 14: 508-515.
  49. Chattopadhyay N, Hulme M (1997) Evaporation and potential evapotranspiration in India under conditions of recent and future climatic change. *Agric For Meteorol* 87: 55-74.
  50. Song ZW, Zhang HL, Snyder RL, Anderson FE, Chen F (2010) Distribution and trends in reference evapotranspiration in the north China plain. *J Irrig Drain Eng* 136: 240-247.
  51. Thomas A (2000) Spatial and temporal characteristics of potential evapotranspiration trends over China. *Int J Climatol* 20: 381-396.
  52. Wang Y, Jiang T, Bothe O, Fraedrich K (2007) Changes of pan evaporation and reference evapotranspiration in the Yangtze River basin. *Theor Appl Climatol* 90: 13-23.
  53. Xu C, Gong L, Jiang T, Chen D, Singh VP (2006) Analysis of spatial distribution and temporal trend of reference evapotranspiration and pan evaporation in Changjiang (Yangtze River) catchment. *J Hydrol* 327: 81-93.
  54. Zhang Y, Liu C, Tang Y, Yang Y (2007) Trends in pan evaporation and reference and actual evapotranspiration across the Tibetan Plateau. *J Geophys Res*.
  55. Darshana A, Pandey R, Pandey P (2012) Analysing trends in reference evapotranspiration and weather variables in the Tons River Basin in Central India.
  56. Kousari MR, Ahani H (2012) An investigation on reference crop evapotranspiration trend from 1975 to 2005 in Iran. *Int J Climatol* 32: 2387-2402.
  57. Tabari H, Marofi S, Amini A, Talaee PH, Mohammadi K (2011) Trend analysis of reference evapotranspiration in the western half of Iran. *Agric For Meteorol* 151: 128-136.
  58. Tabari H, Nikbakht J, Talaee PH (2012) Identification of trend in reference evapotranspiration series with serial dependence in Iran. *Wat Resour Manage* 26: 2219-2232.
  59. García-Garizabal I, Causapé J, Abrahao R, Merchan D (2014) Impact of Climate Change on Mediterranean Irrigation Demand: Historical Dynamics of Climate and Future Projections. *Water Resour Manage* 28: 1449-1462.
  60. Donohue RJ, McVicar TR, Roderick ML (2010) Assessing the ability of potential evaporation formulations to capture the dynamics in evaporative demand within a changing climate. *J Hydrol* 386: 186-197.
  61. Pavanelli, D, Capra A (2014) Climate change and human impacts on hydroclimatic variability in the Reno River Catchment, Northern Italy. *Clean Soil Air Water* 42: 535-545.
  62. Keller J, Briesner RD (1990) Sprinkle and trickle irrigation. AVI Book, USA.
  63. Moonen AC, Ercoli L, Mariotti M, Asoni A (2002) Climate change in Italy indicated by agrometeorological indices over 122 years. *Agric For Meteorol* 111: 13-27.
  64. Hargreaves GH, Samani ZA (1985) Reference crop evapotranspiration from temperature. *Trans Amer Soc Civil Engin* 1: 96-99.
  65. Abtew W, Obeysekera J, Iricanin N (2011) Pan evaporation and potential evapotranspiration trends in South Florida. *Hydrol Process* 25: 958-969.
  66. Daccachea A, Weatherheada EK, Stalhamb MA, Knox JW (2011). Impacts of climate change on irrigated potato production in a humid climate. *Agric For Meteorol* 151: 1641-1653.

**Citation:** Capra A, Mannino R (2015) Effects of Climate Change on the Irrigation Scheduling Parameters in Calabria (South Italy) during 1925-2013. Irrig Drainage Sys Eng S1:003. doi:[10.4172/2168-9768.S1-003](https://doi.org/10.4172/2168-9768.S1-003)