EFFECTS OF NITROGEN, POTASSIUM FERTILIZERS AND CLUSTERS PER VINE ON YIELD AND ANTHOCYANIN CONTENT IN CABERNET SAUVIGNON GRAPE

Vason Boonterm¹, Anek Silapapun¹ and Nantakorn Boonkerd^{2*}

Received: Apr 23, 2010; Revised: Jun 7, 2010; Accepted: Jun 9, 2010

Abstract

The experiment was carried out in a humid subtropical climate located in the south of China, in Xichang, Sichuan province, (27°N, 102°E, and 1650 m above mean sea level) during the 2005 and 2006 seasons. Eight year old, irrigated Cabernet Sauvignon vines were planted at Xichang Chia Tai Wine & Spirits Co., Ltd. Vine plants were spaced 1.25 m apart with 2 vines and rows were 2.0 m apart and oriented approximately north/south. Vines were trained to a vertical shoot positioned training system (VSP), and were bilaterally cordon-trained, spur-pruned, and shoots were vertically positioned upright. Vines were irrigated by drip irrigation system. The 3 different levels of N-K were 0-0, 100-20, and 200-60 g/plant and the 3 different levels of clusters per vine were 10, 20, and 30 clusters per vine. Treatments were applied to 1 vine plot, each replicated 6 times in a split plot, in which the main plots were clusters per vine. Vine shoot lengths were maintained at 15 nodes by shoot trimming. It was found that the yield of grapes in year 2005 was higher than 2006. Increasing the rate of N-K in both years did not increase yields, but increased clusters increased yields in both years. Color and phenolic compounds in the berries were higher in year 2006 than 2005. At the 0-0 and 100-20 levels of N-K the phenolic compounds in the grape were lower than other treatments. It was also found that the Cabernet Sauvignon berry contained more malvidin than other anthocyanins.

Keywords: Anthocyanin, phenolic compounds, malvidin

Introduction

The most significant constituent of wine is water (75-90%). This amount of variation (15%) can be explained by the amount of phenolics, organic acids, mineral salts, and pectins which form the wine extract, and which differ from wine to wine. The second

largest constituent of wine is ethyl alcohol, which, according to the type of wine, varies from 8% to 13% (v/v) or more. The sugar content of dry wines is generally less than 2 g/l; while in a botrytized sweet wine it can reach almost 200 g/l (Dominé *et al.*, 2004).

¹ Crop Intregration Business C.P. Group, Bangkok, Thailand

² School of Biotechnology, Institute of Agricultural Technology, Suranaree University of Techology, 30000 E-mail: natakon@sut.ac.th

^{*} Correspoding author

Grape color is an integral and important part of red grape and red wine quality (Somers and Evans, 1974; Gishen et al., 2002). It is generally accepted that an increase in grape color coincides with an improvement in the phenol structure, an increase in aroma intensity and an increase in wine quality. The color of red or black grapes is caused by the presence of anthocyanins in the grape skins (Marais, 2005). The synthesis of anthocyanins is stimulated by light, both UV and visible, as well as by nutrient stress especially nitrogen and phosphorus deficiencies, and low temperature (Hopkins, 1995). Revilla et al. (1997) showed that the content of phenolics (catechin and procyanidins) in grapes is clearly affected by 4 agroecological factors: the cultivar, the year of production (i.e., the climate condition from year to year), the site of production (the effect of geographic origin of grapes, soil chemistry, and fertilization), and the degree of maturation. Reported levels of anthocyanins in red grapes range from 300 to 7500 mg/kg, but the levels vary highly according to the cultivar, maturity, production year and environmental conditions (Mazza, 1995). The above characteristics are controlled by cultivation managements; namely weed control, pest control, canopy management, crop loading, irrigation, and fertilizer management. These practices are considered as routine works. Among these the most immediate effect, which can give rise to the yield and wine quality are crop load and N-P-K in each specific area. In Xichang China the maturity of grape is in the rainy season in which sunlight is usually low. Thus to obtain high quality, grape cluster management should be conducted. Also soil in this area is high in P and K. Therefore we were interested in finding the rates of N and K on berry yield and quality because the P requirement in grape is low. The aim of this research was to investigate the rates of N and K and the clusters per vine on yield and the anthocyanin content in the grape.

Materials and Methods

Experimental Design

Fertilizer and clusters per vine treatments were applied to 1 vine plot each treatment was replicated 6 times in a split plot, main plot was cluster number and they were arranged in randomized complete block design. For a standard canopy area for each treatment the shoots were thinned to 20 shoots per vine prior to bloom. Vine shoot lengths were maintained at 15 nodes by shoot trimming. Three fertilizer treatments and 3 clusters per vine treatments were applied and repeated in each year of the experiment.

Treatments

Fertilizer treatments:

- F1 = Control (no fertilizer)
- F2 = N-K (100-20 g/vine) split 3 times soil application of actual N-K, 1st (30-5 g/ vine at bud break), 2nd (40-10 g/ vine at bloom), and 3rd (30-5 g/vine 30 days after bloom).
- F3 = N-K (200-60 g/vine) split 3 times soil application of actual N-K, 1st (60-20 g/vine at bud break), 2nd (80-20 g/vine at bloom), and 3rd (60-20 g/vine 30 days after bloom).

Urea and potassium sulfate, the sources of N and K, were applied in the rows under the treatment vines and incorporated into the soil. Clusters per vine treatments:

- C1 = 10 clusters per vine
- C2 = 20 clusters per vine
- C3 = 30 clusters per vine

Clusters per vine treatments were applied at veraison.

Population, Samplings and Location of Research

Vineyard: 8 year old, irrigated Cabernet Sauvignon vines were planted in Xichang, Sichuan province, China (27°N, 102°E, and 1650 m above mean sea level) during the 2005 and 2006 seasons at Xichang Chia Tai Wine & Spirits Co., Ltd. Vine plants were spaced at 1.25 m apart with 2 vines and rows were 2.0 m apart and oriented approximately north/south. Vines were trained to a vertical shoot positioned training system (VSP), and were bilaterally cordon-trained, spur-pruned, and shoots were vertically positioned upright. Vines were irrigated by drip irrigation.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

Tissue analysis: Plant tissue samples were collected in each year for each replication at bloom. Samples consisted of 20 petioles per treatment plot. Leaves opposite flower clusters were sampled at bloom. The petioles were separated from blades and placed in paper bags and were promptly dried at 70°C for 48 h. The N and K contents in the petioles were determined. The N and K contents in the grape berries were determined after harvest.

Component of yield and berry composition: 50 berries for each replication were randomly sampled, and the percentage of soluble solids concentrations was determined with a temperature compensating, hand-held refractometer. A portable pH meter was used to determine pH. Titratable acidity (TA) was determined by titration with 0.1M of NaOH to a pH 8.2 end point and expressed as g/l of tartaric acid. Phenolic compounds were measured by spectrophotometer and high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). At harvest, the fruit from each vine was harvested and weighed. Other yield components including cluster weights and berry weights were recorded. Cane pruning weights were collected after each growing season. The crop load (fruit weight per vine/pruning weight per vine) was determined for each treatment.

Determination of red pigments (color) and the total phenolic content of the grape berries was by the method of Iland, *et al.* (2000). Detection of grape berry anthocyanin was done by HPLC. The extracts from 3.4.4 were centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 10 min and filtrated with a 13 mm, 0.20 µm syringe filter (GAT Asia Limited). Ten microliters were used for HPLC analysis. The gradient cycle consisted of an initial 5 min isocratic segment (solution A, 100%). Then the linear gradient was changed progressively by increasing solution B (100% CH₃CN) to 10% at 10 min, 15% at 20 min, 20% at 25 min and then increasing solution A to 100% at 30 min. Solution A consisted of 4/4/92 CH₃OH/ CH₃CN/87 mmol/L H₃PO₄ in H₂O (v/v/v). Anthocyanins were determined by reverse-phase HPLC using a Luna 5U c18 100A column (4.6 µm, 150 mm) particle diameter 5 µm. A wavelength of 520 µm was used.

Statistical Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows release 13.0, from SPSS Inc., 2004, was used. As a parametric methodology, variance analysis was used.

Results and Discussion

Petiole Analysis and Yield

Results from 2 years of experiments as shown in Table 2 indicated that rainfall distribution had an influence on the yield components of the grape. Yield, berries per clusters and berry weight were higher in 2005 than 2006. This was probably due to insufficient water during maturity (July, August and September) in 2006 (Figure 1). Increasing rates of fertilizer (N-K) did not increase the yields of both years because the soil might contain enough N and was very high in K (Table 1). This phenomena was confirmed by petiole analysis (Table 3). Increasing the number of clusters increased the yields of both years. The number of berries per cluster and berry size was not changed when the fertilizer rates and clusters per vine were increased. The response of the grape vine to K occurs only when soil lacks K over a number of years

(Smolarz and Mercik, 1997). Wolf, *et al.* (1983) reported that the excessive application of K could be toxic to vines and cause yield reduction. A similar result was also found by other investigators (Ahalwat and Yamadagi, 1988) who confirmed that the toxicity was caused by using potassium chloride, KCl.

Results from petiole analysis found that there was no significant increase of N in the petiole when there was an increase in the level of N and cluster numbers in both 2005 and 2006. An increase of K at 60 g and clusters number at 30 clusters per vine could increase K in the petiole only in year 2006 (Table 3). Overall we could say that there was no significant difference in N and K in the petiole because the soil analysis in Table 1 showed a very high K content in the soil. This was in agreement with other investigators (Delgado *et al.*, 2006) who found that only the highest application rate of N and K would increase the level of these elements in plant tissue, but the lower rates had no effect. It was also reported that an excessive application of K and cluster thinning tended to increase the petiole and fruit K and fruit pH in most cultivars (Morris *et al*, 1987). The concentration in the petiole resulted in reducing acidity which can result in reducing wine quality (Ruhl, 1989) and berry quality.

Total Soluble Solid and TA

The total soluble solid (TSS), as measured in % Brix, in the berries was not affected by N-K and cluster levels. Increasing N-K levels increased pH and decreased TA; on the other hand, increasing the number of clusters increased TA (Table 4). This finding was agreed with Delgado *et al.* (2006) who reported that both



Figure 1. Monthly rainfall at experimental station in 2005 and 2006

| Table 1. | Soil analysis | s data of the ex | perimental site |
|----------|---------------|------------------|-----------------|
| | | | |

| Soil analysis | 2005 | 2006 |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|
| Texture | Clay loam | Clay loam |
| pH | 5.25 | 5.79 |
| OM (%) | 0.70 | 0.75 |
| N (ppm) | 9.90 | 9.80 |
| P (ppm) | 9.80 | 19.40 |
| K(ppm) | 470.00 | 156.00 |
| Ca (ppm) | 300.00 | 229.00 |
| | | |

rates of K (60 and 129 g/vine) caused a reduction in TA. This mechanism seems to be that the excessive K+ migrates to the fruit and enhances the formation of potassium bitatrate which precipitats and causes a lowering of TA. Ruhl (1989) assessed the effect of N application on other juice composition

parameters of Riesling, Chardonnay and Cabernet Sauvignon and he found that the effect of N on Chardonnay was significant. The results suggested that the increases in juice pH would result in a poorer quality of end product. Therefore the application of N and K fertilizer in wine grapes should be

| Treatments - | Yield (kg/vine) | | Berry per cluster | | Berry weight (g/berry) | |
|------------------|-----------------|-------|-------------------|---------|------------------------|--------|
| | 2005 | 2006 | 2005 | 2006 | 2005 | 2006 |
| Fertilizer (N-K) | | | | | | |
| F1 | 2.33a | 1.08b | 154.37a | 61.21b | 1.22b | 0.93b |
| F2 | 2.23a | 0.93b | 158.58a | 54.55ab | 1.81b | 0.87a |
| F3 | 2.18a | 0.83a | 152.92a | 49.84a | 1.13a | 0.90ab |
| No. of cluster | | | | | | |
| C1 | 1.24 | 0.59a | 157.49a | 64.93b | 1.19a | 0.90a |
| C2 | 2.30b | 0.97b | 154.41a | 54.45a | 1.17a | 0.89a |
| C3 | 3.20c | 1.28c | 153.67a | 46.22a | 1.16a | 0.92a |
| Mean | 2.25 | 0.95 | 155.19 | 55.20 | 1.17 | 0.90 |

Table 2. Influence of fertilizers (N-K) and number of clusters on yield, berry per cluster, and berry weight

In a column and each treatment means followed by a common letter are not significantly different at the 5% level by DMRT

Petiole N (%) Petiole K (%) Treatments 2005 2006 2005 2006 Fertilizer (N-K) F1 1.24a 1.04a 4.17b 4.17a F2 1.21a 1.14b 3.52a 4.15a F3 1.24a 1.11ab 3.84ab 4.42b No. of cluster C1 1.23a 1.12a 3.79a 4.11a C21.19a 1.07a 3.82a 4.26ab C3 1.27a 1.10a 3.92a 4.38b Mean 1.23 1.10 3.84 4.25

Table 3. Influence of fertilizers (N-K) and number of clusters on petiole N and K at blooming period

In a column and each treatment, means followed by a common letter are not significantly different at the 5% level by DMRT.

carefully considered and not over applied. The optimum range of TSS of Cabernet Sauvignon variety was 22.5-28.5°Brix and TA was less than 5.5 g/l (Golan and Shalit, 2010; McDonnell *et al.* 2008). Regarding the number of clusters per wine quality reducing the cluster numbers by thinning at veraison strongly improves the accumulation of sugars during ripening; berry skin anthocyanins and flavanoids were also more concentrated Arfelli *et al.* (1996); Guidoni *et al.* (2002); Gao and Cahoon (1998).

Grape Berry Color and Phenolic Compounds

Data in Table 5 showed that there were no significant differences in grape color when the levels of N-K and the clusters were increased, except that the levels of N-K in 2005 when there was no fertilizer and at the highest rate gave a higher color. A similar

 Table 4. Influence of fertilizers (N-K) and number of cluster on TSS (Brix), TA (g/l), and pH of grape berry

| Treatments | TSS (Brix) | TA (g/l) | рН |
|------------------|------------|----------|-------|
| Fertilizer (N-K) | | | |
| F1 | 18.25a | 10.79b | 3.32a |
| F2 | 18.08a | 10.50ab | 3.36b |
| F3 | 18.39a | 10.34a | 3.40c |
| No. of cluster | | | |
| C1 | 18.33a | 10.07a | 3.37a |
| C2 | 18.35a | 10.85b | 3.34a |
| C3 | 18.04a | 10.70b | 3.36a |
| Mean | 18.24 | 10.54 | 3.36 |

In a column and each treatment means followed by a common letter are not significantly different at the 5% level by DMRT.

Table 5. Influence of fertilizers (N-K) and number of clusters on color and phenolic compounds in grape berry

| Treatments | mg color/g berry | | Total phenolic/g berry | | |
|------------------|------------------|--------|------------------------|--------|--|
| | 2005 | 2006 | 2005 | 2006 | |
| Fertilizer (N-K) | | | | | |
| F1 | 0.886b | 0.894a | 828b | 1.292a | |
| F2 | 0.726a | 0.913a | 690a | 1.221a | |
| F3 | 0.889b | 0.905a | 765ab | 1.387b | |
| No. of cluster | | | | | |
| C1 | 0.889a | 0.924a | 798a | 1.322a | |
| C2 | 0.802a | 0.925a | 759a | 1.300a | |
| C3 | 0.810a | 0.863a | 726a | 1.279a | |
| Mean | 0.834 | 0.904 | 761 | 1.300 | |

In a column and each treatment, means followed by a common letter are not significantly different at the 5% level by DMRT.

trend was also obtained on total phenolic content per g berry in both years in which the high levels of N-K gave a higher level. This effect might be due to N because in this area the soil already contained a very high amount of K (Table 1). Delgado et al. (2004) reported that an increase in N reduced polyphenol synthesis in the berry skins. However, when K was high an application of N at the maximum level had higher polyphenols. This finding supported this reseach, which found that in 2006 the treatment of the highest N-K levels gave the highest phenolic polyphenol levels, when the N-K ratio was 3.6:4.3. Gao and Cahoon (1998) reported that the fruit's red pigmentation was increased quadratically by cluster thinning. The total anthocyanin in the berry skin was increased linearly by cluster thinning.

Grape Anthocyanin

The major compounds in the anthocyanin group are petunidin (Pt), cyanidin (Cy), and malvidin (Mv). In year 2005, the highest N-K level had a tendency to decrease Pt and Cy but to increase Mv. On the contrary, an increase to the highest cluster numbers had a tendency to increase Pt, Cy, and Mv. However in the lowest number of clusters, Pt and Cy were also high. In year 2006, there were no significant differences in Pt and Cy among fertilizer rates, but at no fertilizer and at the highest rates the grapes were high in Mv. The highest number of clusters gave the highest Pt and Cy but there were no significant differences in Mv content in all levels. The formation of malvidin-glucoside appears to be more prevalent to unfavorable environmental conditions than other anthocynins. In this study we found that petunidin and cyanidin were of the same pattern and they were the opposite of malvidin. Among the 3, malvidin was higher in the grape berries than the other 2 combined. This compound finding was supported by other investigators who found that malvidin was the major anthocyanin in the Cabernet Sauvignon grape (Burns et al., 2002).

Conclusions

The rainfall distribution at the experimental site in 2005 and 2006 was different, especially during July-September, when the rainfall in year 2005 was higher than 2006, which resulted in the grape yield in 2005 being higher. Increasing rates of fertilizer N-K did not increase the yield of either year, because

| Treatments | Petunidin (Pt) | | Cyanidin (Cy) | | Malvidin (Mv) | |
|------------------|----------------|--------|---------------|--------|---------------|---------|
| | 2005 | 2006 | 2005 | 2006 | 2005 | 2006 |
| Fertilizer (N-K) | | | | | | |
| F1 | 0.379c | 0.202a | 0.036b | 0.078a | 0.518a | 0.514ab |
| F2 | 0.267a | 0.194a | 0.026a | 0.072a | 0.562a | 0.445a |
| F3 | 0.318b | 0.217a | 0.032ab | 0.089a | 0.568a | 0.575b |
| No. of cluster | | | | | | |
| C1 | 0.321ab | 0.165a | 0.035b | 0.074a | 0.539a | 0.495a |
| C2 | 0.282a | 0.146a | 0.028a | 0.065a | 0.488a | 0.464a |
| C3 | 0.360b | 0.302b | 0.031ab | 0.100b | 0.622b | 0.577a |
| Mean | 0.321 | 0.204 | 0.031 | 0.080 | 0.549 | 0.511 |

 Table 6. Influence of fertilizers (N-K) and number of clusters on grape berry and anthocyanin compounds (mg/ml)

In a column and each treatment, means followed by a common letter are not significantly different at the 5% level by

the soil contained enough N and K. But increased cluster numbers increased the yield of both years. There were no differences in N and K in the petiole. The TSS in the berries was not affected by N-K and cluster levels. Increasing rates of N-K increased pH and decreased TA but decreasing cluster levels decreased pH. The application of a high rate of N-K gave a higher total phenolic content per gram berry in both years. The total of phenolic content and the color were higher in year 2006, which indicated that water stress influenced the synthesis of this compound. With regard to the effect of fertilizer N-K and cluster numbers on compounds in the anthocyanin group we found that no fertilizer treatment had a tendency to increase anthocyanin in the grape berry. It was also found that malvidin was the major anthocyanin compound in Cabernet Sauvignon. It could be concluded that, with high fertility, a soil application of N-P-K may not be necessary for the wine grape. Water influenced grape yield but water stress promoted the anthocyanin production. Therefore to produce good quality wine, soil and water management should be considered as a priority means in wine grape production.

Acknowlegement

The research work reported was a part of the first author Ph.D Thesis and was partially supported by C.P. Group of Company. I would like to thank the staff and my good friends, past and present at Xichang Chia Tai Wine And Spirits Co., LTD. Including Mr. Udomsak Pirunprooy and Mr. Pajon Yuyen for their help and support.

References

- Ahlawat, V.P. and Yamdagni, R. (1988). Effects of various levels of nitrogen and potassium application on growth yield and petiole composition on grapes CV. Perlette. Prog. Hort., 20(3-4):190-196.
- Arfelli, G., Zironi, R., Marangoni, B., Amati, A., and Castellari, M. (1996). The effects of cluster thinning on some ripening

parameters and wine quality. In: ISHS proceedings of the 1st Workshops on Strategies to Optimize Wine Grape Quality. Editrice Lo Scarabeo, Bologna, Italy, p. 379-386.

- Burns, J., Mullen, W., Landrault, N., Teissedre, P.L., Lean, M.E., and Crozier, A. (2002). Variations in the profile and content of anthocyanins in wines made from Cabernet Sauvignon and hybrid grapes. J. Agric. Food Chem. 50(14):4096-4102.
- Cholet, C. and Darné, G. (2004). Evolution of the contents in soluble phenolic compounds, in: proanthocyanic tanins and in anthocyanins of shot grape berries of Vitis vinifera L. during their development. J. Int. des Sci. de la Vigne et du Vin, 38:171–180
- Delgado, R., Gonzalez, M., and Martin, P. (2006). Interaction effects of nitrogen and potassium fertilization on anthocyanin composition and chromatic features of Tempranillo grapes. Int. J. Vine and Wine Sci., 40(3):141-150.
- Delgado, R., Matín, P., Álamo, M., and González, M.R. (2004). Changes in the phenolic composition of grape berries during ripening in relation to vineyard nitrogen and potassium fertilisation rates. J. Sci. Food Agric., 84:623-630.
- Dominé, A., Supp, E., and Ulbricht, D. (2004). A history of enjoying wine. In: Wine Könemann, Cologne, Germany, p. 10-76.
- Fournand, D., Vicens, A., Sidhoum, L., Souquet, J.M., Moutounet, M., and Cheynier, V. (2006). Accumulation and extractability of grape skin tannins and anthocyanins at different advanced physiological stages. J. Agric. Food Chem., 54:7331–7338.
- Gao, Y. and Cahoon, G.A. (1998). Cluster thinning effects on fruit weight, juice quality, and fruit skin characteristics in 'Reliance' grapes. Fruit Crop: A Summary of Research 1998. Ohio State University, Columbus, OH, USA, Research Circular 299-99.
- Gishen, M. Iland, P.G., Dambergs, R.G., Esler, M.B., Francis, I.L., Kambouris, A., Johnstone, R.S., and Hoj, P.B.

(2002). Objective measures of grape and wine quality. Proceedings of the 11th Australian Wine Industry Technical Conference; Oct 7-11, 2001; Adelaide, Australia, p.188-194.

- Golan, A. and Shalit, H. (2010). Wine Quality Differentials in Hedonic Grape Pricing. [On-line serial]. Available: http://www. google.co.th/search?q=standard+wine+ grape+quality&hl=th&client=firefox-a& rls=org.mozilla:en-US:official& channel=s&start=60&sa=N. 24/5/2010
- Guidoni, S., Allara, P., and Schubert, A. (2002). Effect of cluster thinning on berry skin anthocyanin composition of Vitis vinifera cv. Nebbiolo. Am. J. Enol. Viticult., 53(3):224-226.
- Hopkins, W.G. (1995). Introduction to Plant Physiology. John Wiley & Sons, inc., NY, USA, 142p.
- Iland, P.G., Ewart, A.D., Sitters, J.H., Markides, A.D., and Bruer, N. (2000). Techniques for Chemical Analysis and Quality Monitoring During Winemaking. Tony Kitchener Printing Pty Ltd, Adelaide, South Australia. 111p.
- Marais, J. (2005). Relationship between grape colour and wine quality. [On-line serial]. Available: http://www.wynboer.co.za/ recentarticles/200507colour.php3.11-10-2006.
- Mazza, G. (1995). Anthocyanins in grapes and grape products. Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr., 35:341-371.
- McDonnell, C., Dry, P.R., Wample, R.L., and Bastian, S. (2008). The effect of crop load and extended ripening on vine balance and wine quality in Cabernet

Sauvignon. Proceedings of the 2nd Annual National Viticulture Research Conference. July 9–11, 2008, University of California, Davis, USA, p. 49- 50.

- Morris, J.R., Sims, C.A., Striegler, R.K., Cackler, S.D., and Donley, R.A. (1987). Effects of cultivar, maturity, cluster thinning, and excessive potassium fertilization on yield and quality of Arkansas wine grapes. Am. J. Enol. Viticult., 38(4):260-264.
- Revilla, E., Alonso, E., and Kovac, V. (1997). The content of catechins and procyanidins in grapes and wines as affected by agroecological factors and technological practices. American Chemical Society, Washington, DC, USA, p. 69-80.
- Ruhl, E.H. (1989). Uptake and distribution of potassium by grapevine rootstocks and its implication for grape juice pH of scion varieties. Aust. J. Exp. Agric., 29:707-712.
- Somers, T.C. and Evans, M.E. (1974). Wine quality: Correlations with colour density and anthocyanin equilibria in a group of young red wines. J. Sci. Food Agric., 25:1369-1379.
- Smolarz, K. and Mercik, S. (1997). Growth and yield of grape in response to long term (since 1923) different mineral fertilization. Acta Hortic. 448: 42-432.
- Wolf, T.K,. Heaseler, C.W., and Bergman, E.L. (1983). Growth and foliar elemental composition of Seyvel Blanc grapevines as affected by four nutrient solution concentrations of Nitrogen, Potassium and Magnesium. Am. J. Enol. Viticult., 34(4):271-277.