1	Local organic and inorganic amendments to improve table grape production in
2	Mediterranean vineyards of Southern Türkiye
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21	Abstract: In the Mediterranean region, calcareous soils are generally considered to be
22	of low fertility. The use of large amounts of chemicals and irrigation to compensate for
23	low productivity reduces the producer's net profit and degrades physical and chemical
24	properties of the soils. As a result, the selection of adaptable genotypes is important in
25	agriculturally limited lands. Grapevine is one of the leading crops in the Mediterranear

basin due to its high tolerance to abiotic conditions. However, the fact that the 1 2 grapevine grows in extreme soils does not mean that such crop does not respond to a good nutritional program, especially to the natural amendments. In this research, natural 3 organic and inorganic soil amendments were tested on "Prima" grape cultivar grown in 4 calcareous soils of the Mediterranean basin, with the aim of developing environmental-5 6 friendly and cost-effective nutrition recommendations. Basaltic pumice (P), cereal straw (S), commercial dried compost (DC), grapevine pruning residue (PR), and farm cattle 7 8 manure (FM) were used alone or in different combinations. The combination of P+PR+FM produced the best results for yield, cluster weight and berry weight, but also 9 for the highest acidity and the lowest ripening index (Total soluble solids /Acidity). The 10 11 highest ripening index values were obtained from S+FM and PR+FM applications. The effects of the treatments on total sugars, organic acids, and malvidin-3 glucoside 12 anthocyanin, a relatively abundant component in V. vinifera grapes, were not different. 13 On the other hand, P+PR+FM showed significant higher values of ascorbate peroxidase 14 15 and total amino acids. The highest total anthocyanins were shown by DC, P+DC and 16 P+PR+FM. The results of the work demonstrated that the uses of different mixtures of natural and readily available materials have positive and diverse effects on grape 17 quantity and quality in Mediterranean calcareous soils where vine is widely cultivated. 18

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Keywords: Amino acids, antioxidant enzymes, grapevine, soil amendments, soil management, vitamins

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1. Introduction

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- 2 Table grape is one of the most important fruit crops in the world, with a global
- 3 production of 27.3 million tons, around 36% of the total production of grape, including
- 4 wine grapes and raisins (OIV, 2019; FAOSTAT, 2021)^{1,2}.
- 5 Vineyard efficiency has been continuously increasing in recent years, as evidenced by
- 6 the increase in global grape production, despite the decline in global vineyard surface
- 7 area (OIV, 2021)³. This agricultural intensification must take into account the
- 8 sustainable use of natural resources, such as soil, water, and fertilizers. Awareness of
- 9 sustainable use of natural resources is even more important for that soils having
- 10 cropping limitations, due to natural factors such as geology, morphology, and climate,
- as well as anthropic impact and agricultural mismanagement. Çilek et al. (2020)
- reported that only a few places on the planet have soils without natural limitations for
- cultivation. In addition, one third of the world's soils have lost their productivity due to
- mismanagement practices (FAO and ITPS, 2015). Throughout history, humans have
- 15 attempted to improve soil conditions on poorly agricultural lands, improving the
- 16 physical-hydrological conditions of the soils through terracing, drainages, and

Website https://www.oiv.int/public/medias/8767/acitvityreporteng.pdf [Accessed 20

June 2023].

OIV (2019). International Organisation of Vine and Wine, Statistical Report on World Vitiviniculture [Online]. Website http://oiv.int/public/medias/6782/oiv-2019-statistical-

report-on-world-vitiviniculture.pdf [Accessed 30 November 2022].

² FAOSTAT (2021). Food and agriculture data. The Food and Agriculture Organization [Online]. Website https://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/QCL. [Accessed 20 June 2023].

³ OIV (2021) International Organisation of Vine and Wine, Activity Report [Online].

irrigation, as well as chemical properties through fertilization and amendments. As a 1 2 result, human landscapes, or anthroscapes, have been developed for sustainable agriculture (Akça et al., 2020). Kapur et al. (2019) stated that viticulture is important 3 for food security in limited soil and water resources of Mediterranean basin where table 4 5 and wine grapes have been domesticated and evolved for thousands of years (Dong et 6 al., 2023). Grapevine is one of the few plants that can thrive in a wide range of climates and soil types. As a result, it is a plant that can be found not only in the Mediterranean 7 8 basin, but also on six different continents (Schultz, 2016), making it the most widely 9 grown fruit on the planet. However, just because grapes are grown in different locations and under a variety of different conditions does not mean that they will not respond to 10 11 optimal soil management and plant nutrition. Costantini et al. (2018) reported erosion being the major threat to grapevine production 12 in Mediterranean basin countries. In addition to erosion, nutrients other than N, P and K 13 are not provided to the soil or plant in grape cultivation, which has negative effects on 14 yield and quality, especially on sites where low value-added grapes, such as table grape, 15 16 are cultivated (Tangolar et al., 2020). Although priming technology helps overcome 17 adverse environmental conditions (e.g. salt stress) (Montanaro et al., 2022), it has been observed that increasing the use of agricultural chemicals to address declining soil 18 19 fertility in grape fields is often impractical, due to chemical pollution, high costs, and market demand for organic crops (Mariani and Vastola, 2015). Another issue for grape 20 21 production is the use of agrochemicals, together with non-conservative agronomic 22 practices such as deep tillage and insufficient amount of organic matter adding to soils, 23 resulting in a decrease of soil organic carbon, which is currently low in Mediterranean Basin soils (Francaviglia et al., 2012, 2018). In addition, grapes grown under rainfed 24

conditions, in most areas incur additional costs such as irrigation, as a result of reduced 1 2 rainfall due to climate change (Ramos and Mulligan, 2005; Masia et al., 2021; Yadav et al., 2022). Most Mediterranean vineyards are located on shallow and calcareous soils, 3 with low water retention and organic matter, sometimes on slopes. These conditions 4 make these soils very fragile and scarcely resilient to erosion, nutrient deficiencies, and 5 6 organic carbon depletion (Akça et al., 2020). In this sector, as in many other agricultural sectors, it is strategic to optimize the best 7 8 practices of soil management and plant nutrition, which combine the increase of yield 9 and quality, with the reduction of the costs, for economic benefit of the farmers, and the maintenance or improvement of the soil quality. Several options can be selected by table 10 11 grape producers to achieve these objectives (Cataldo et al., 2021). Intercropping and cover cropping in vineyards have been shown to improve soil quality and reduce 12 erosion, with no negative effects on grape yield and quality (Gattullo et al., 2020; 13 Warren Raffa et al., 2021). On the other hand, such management increases the 14 evapotranspiration of the vineyard system, reducing the available water for grapevine. 15 16 Therefore, in the Mediterranean climate, a scheduled drip irrigation system is required 17 in most of the cases (Tarricone et al., 2020). Another option for efficient and sustainable soil management in Mediterranean 18 19 vineyards is the use of natural organic and inorganic amendments to improve soil and crop quality (Priori et al., 2020; Wallace and Terry, 2020; Cataldo et al., 2021). 20 21 One of the most commonly used amendments is the composted organic material, 22 consisting of manure, pruning and other plant residues, which has been used in agriculture and horticulture for years, and, more recently, also used in viticulture 23 (Gaiotti et al., 2017; Martínez et al., 2018). The results of these studies demonstrated 24

- that the use of compost in viticulture increased soil biological activity, as well as plant
- 2 nutrient availability and root development (Martínez et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2020). The
- addition of biochar to soil, with or without compost, has also been recently proposed, in
- 4 order to improve soil water and nutrient retention, water infiltration and soil aeration, as
- 5 well as microbiological activities (Schmidt et al., 2014).
- 6 In terms of inorganic amendments, pumice has been used in agriculture, and particularly
- 7 in horticulture, for several purposes. Pumice lightens the soil, making tillage easier,
- 8 improves soil aeration, increases water retention, and reduces negative effects of
- 9 crusting and shrink-swelling of clays (Malekian et al., 2012). A recent study (Kong et
- al., 2021) reported positive effects of the use of pumice in soils as amendment, to
- increase water retention and preventing soil salinity in arid environment.
- 12 Studies about the effects of the different organic and inorganic amendments on table
- grape yield and quality are few (Martínez et al., 2018; Tangolar et al., 2020) and did not
- test the synergistic effects of the different amendments.
- 15 The aim of this work was to test various organic and inorganic materials that are readily
- available with low cost that can be used individually or in combination to improve
- 17 grape yield and quality (depending on the presence of sugar, organic acid, polyphenols,
- antioxidant enzyme, vitamin and amino acid) by improving soils with limited physical
- 19 (shallow) and chemical (low organic carbon, high CaCO₃) properties in Southern
- 20 Türkiye on Mediterranean coast.

2. Materials and methods

22 **2.1. Study area**

- 23 The study on the effects of various natural mineral and organic amendments on grape
- yield and quality was carried out for two years (2017 and 2018), in the Viticultural

1 research unit of Çukurova University, Adana, Türkiye. The experimental vineyard is

2 located at an altitude of 70 m above sea level, coordinates 37°01′50″ N and 35°22′46″

3 E. The soil of the vineyard was classified as Haplic Calcisol (Loamic, Hypercalcic)

4 according to the International classification system (IUSS WRB Working Group, 2015)

5 (Figure 1), with clay loamy texture, sub-alkaline pH (7.83), high calcium carbonate

6 content (53.6%), low organic carbon stock (about 25 t C ha⁻¹, calculated from 1%

7 organic matter at 20 cm with 1.25 g.cm⁻³ bulk density). The climate of the site is

classified as hot-summer Mediterranean climate (Csa) subclass, according to the

Köppen climate classification system, with a mean annual temperature of 24°C, mean

relative humidity of 64% and total precipitation during vegetative season (April to

11 October) of 205 mm (MGM, 2022)⁴.

2.2. Plant material and treatments

13 The treatments were applied to a four-year-old "Prima" (Vitis vinifera L.) cultivar

grafted on "1103 Paulsen" rootstock. The vines were trained with Guyot system (0.50 m

15 high) at a density of 6,666 plants ha⁻¹ in 1.0 m × 1.5 m spacing, and south-north

orientation. Bunches and berries thinning, as well as growth regulator applications, were

not performed and 15 buds per vine were left during pruning in order to promote plant

18 homogeneity.

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19 Seven treatments were tested in the field to improve soil quality, as well as grape yield

and quality for two years. Inorganic amendment such as pumice (P) (Table 1), was used

alone and in combination with organic amendments. Three treatments involved the use

⁴ MGM (2022) Adana General Climate Data. General Directorate of Meteorology [Online]. Website https://www.mgm.gov.tr/veridegerlendirme/il-ve-ilceler istatistik.aspx?k=A&m=ADANA [Accessed 24 January 2022].

- of organic amendments such as commercial dry compost (DC) (Table 2), mixture of
- 2 grapevine pruning residues and farm cattle manure (PR+FM), mixture of cereal straw
- and farm manure (S+FM). A control treatment, with no amendments, was also tested
- 4 (Table 3 and 4).
- 5 Basaltic pumice (P) was obtained from Delihalil quarries located in Osmaniye town, 80
- 6 km east of from study site. Basaltic pumice is rich in plant nutrients sources such as Fe,
- 7 Mg, K, P and Ca with a bulk density of 0.9 g cm⁻³ and a porosity reaching to 50%
- 8 (Demir et al., 2005) with a diameter from 0.7 to 15 mm. Pruning residues (PR) were
- 9 obtained from the neighboring experimental vineyard farm of Çukurova University after
- pruning in January, as well cereal straw (S) and mature farm cattle manure (FM) from
- the animal husbandry facilities of the Cukurova University. Compost produced from
- farm manure, prunings and straw was composted for six months each year. Then, the
- compost was applied to experimental plots in February 2017 and in January 2018 by
- incorporating to the 0-20 cm soil by hand-driven rotator. The outcomes of the
- applications were evaluated using samples collected in 2018.

2.3. Grape yield, cluster, berry and juice analysis

- 17 In June 2018, when the total soluble solids reached 13-15 °Brix, which is
- approximately considered the full ripening of the berries, five clusters from each plot
- were randomly sampled (Winkler et al., 1974) and transported to the laboratory in a
- 20 refrigerated box. The weight of the clusters (g) and the weight of the berries (g 100
- 21 berry⁻¹) were measured in the laboratory on the same day. The concentration of total
- soluble solids (TSS) (°Brix) was determined by a digital refractometer (Atago, Japan).
- The titratable acidity (TA) (g 100 mL⁻¹ grape juice) was expressed as tartaric acid, and
- 24 the pH was determined using a pH meter. The TSS/TA ratio was used to calculate the

- 1 ripeness index. Grape yield (g vine⁻¹) was calculated by multiplying the number of
- 2 grape bunches by the average bunch weight.

3 **2.4. Phytochemical analysis**

- 4 Berry samples weighing approximately 500 g were randomly selected from different
- 5 plants of treatments as two replicates for phytochemical analysis. Samples were
- 6 collected, and stored at -20 °C until processing. Phytochemical analyses were performed
- 7 at the Department of Genetic and Bio-Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University
- 8 of Yeditepe, İstanbul.

9 **2.4.1. Sugar analysis**

- 10 The high-performance liquid chromatography-evaporative light scattering detection
- 11 (HPLC-ELSD) method was used to determine soluble sugars (glucose, fructose, and
- sucrose) in berries (Ma et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2018). All samples and standards were
- filtered through 0.45 μ m Millex Millipore filters before introducing samples of 10 μ L to
- the HPLC-ELSD. A solvent ratio was adjusted to 85 acetonitrile: 15 water (v/v) with a
- 15 flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹. The column and drift tube temperatures were set to 45 °C and
- 16 82 °C, respectively, and the nebulizer gas flow was set to 2 mL min⁻¹. Peaks were
- 17 measured using HPLC grade sugar calibration standards (Sigma-Aldrich, Shanghai,
- 18 China).

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2.4.2. Organic acid analysis

- 20 To the berry sample (1 g), 10 mL deionized water was added, and the solution was
- 21 homogenized using an Ultra Turrax (IKA, T-25) for the organic acid analysis. After
- centrifugation at 1200 rpm for 50 min (Kitir et al., 2019), 1 mL of the centrifuged
- 23 supernatant was filtered through a 0.45 μm Millex Millipore filter and then injected into
- 24 HPLC (LC-10A HPLC Series, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). The HPLC equipped with a

- 1 pump system a UV/Vis detector (SPD-20A) monitored at 210 nm, for the analysis of
- 2 organic acids. Identification and quantification of acids were done by injecting 20 μL
- 3 stock solution to separate different acids on a Supelcogel TMC-610H column (30
- 4 cm×7.8 mm, i.e., Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) by using 0.1% phosphoric acid as the
- 5 mobile phase at a flow rate of 0.6 mL min⁻¹ in the isocratic mode of HPLC at room
- 6 temperature (26 °C).

2.4.3. Amino acids

- 8 Fresh sample of 1 g was treated with 0.1N HCl, homogenized with Ultra Turrax (IKA-T
- 9 25), and incubated at 4 °C for 12 hours. The supernatants were filtered through 0.22 μm
- 10 filters (Millex Millipore) after centrifugation at 1200 rpm for 50 minutes. The
- supernatants were then transferred to a vial, and the amino acids were analyzed by
- HPLC as described by Antoine et al. (1999) and Kitir et al. (2019). Measurements were
- taken on Zorbax Eclipse-AAA 4.6 × 150 mm, 3.5 μm columns (Agilent 1200 HPLC)
- were taken at 254 nm, and the amino acids were identified by comparison with
- standards of O-phthaldialdehyde (OPA), fluorenylmethyl chloroformate (FMOC), and
- 16 0.4 N borate. In the mobile phase chromatography system, the following solutions were
- used: Phase A: 40 mM NaH₂PO₄ (pH: 7.8) and Phase B: Acetonitrile/Methanol/Water
- 18 (45/45/10, v/v/v) solutions. The mobile phase flow rate through the system was 2 mL
- 19 min⁻¹ and the column temperature was 40 °C. After 26 minutes derivation process in
- 20 HPLC, aspartate, glutamate, arginine, serine, glutamine, histidine, glycine, asparagine,
- 21 alanine, tyrosine, cysteine, valine, methionine, tryptophan, phenylalanine, isoleucine,
- leucine, lysine, and sarcosine were analyzed.
- 23 A 500 mg frozen berry sample was crushed using liquid nitrogen, homogenized and
- extracted with 10 mL of 3-sulfosalicylic acid, which was then filtered through a

- 1 Whatman filter paper (Ø2) for proline measurement. In a test tube, two mL of filtrate
- 2 was reacted with 2 mL acid-ninhydrin and 2 mL of glacial acetic acid at 100 °C for 1
- 3 hour, and then the reaction was stopped in an ice bath. This mixture was extracted with
- 4 4 mL toluene, mixed vigorously with a test tube stirrer for 15-20 s and the
- 5 concentrations of proline from the extracts were measured spectrophotometrically at
- 6 520 nm (Bates et al., 1973).

7 **2.4.4.** Antioxidant enzyme activity

- 8 Berries weighing 200 mg were homogenized in 5 mL 100mM phosphate buffer (pH:
- 9 7.0) containing 1 percent (w/v) polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP) and all analyses were
- 10 performed at 4°C to determine superoxide dismutase (SOD), peroxidase (POD),
- 11 glutathione S-transferase (GST), glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD),
- ascorbate peroxidase (APX), glutathione reductase (GR) and catalase (CAT) activities.
- 13 The homogenate was centrifuged at 1200 rpm for 15 min, and the supernatant fraction
- was tested for enzyme activity. The rate of hydrogen peroxide degradation was used to
- determine the CAT activity, as described by Abedi and Pakniyat (2010). The CAT
- activity was determined by a decrease in reaction mixture absorbance at 240 nm that
- was caused by adding H_2O_2 . The reaction mixture contained 50 mM phosphate buffer
- 18 (pH: 7.0), 10 mM H₂O₂ and 100 μL extract. The activity was calculated using a 39.4
- 19 mM cm⁻¹ oxidation extinction coefficient for H₂O₂. Peroxidase activity was measured at
- 20 436 nm to determine its ability to convert guaiacol into tetraguaiacol (Angelini et al.,
- 21 1990). Superoxide dismutase activity was determined using Abedi and Pakniyat's
- 22 (2010) method of measuring inhibition in the photochemical reduction of nitro blue
- 23 tetrazolium (NBT) at 560 nm. Total SOD activity was determined by monitoring the
- prevention of NBT chloride depletion. Under a 40W fluorescent lamp, 200 µL of the

reaction mixture (50 mM phosphate buffer (pH: 7.8), 0.1 mM1 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), 63 mM NBT, 50 mM riboflavin, 13 mM 2 methionine, and 50 µL of plant extract) were placed in 96 well microplate. After 8 3 minutes of lighting, the absorbance at 560 nm was measured. As a control, a no 4 illuminated reaction mixture was conducted in the same manner. One unit of SOD 5 activity was determined to be the amount of enzyme that inhibited the sNBT reduction 6 by 50%. 7

2.4.5. Phenolic compounds

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9 Phenolic compounds in plant samples were analyzed as defined by Li et al. (2017) using an Agilent 1200 Series high-performance liquid chromatography coupled with an 10 Agilent 6410 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (HPLC-QqQ-MS/MS, Agilent 11 Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The 0.1 mL berry sample was filtered through a 12 0.45 µm polyethersulfone membrane prior to injection into the HPLC. With a flow rate 13 of 0.4 mL/min, phenolic compounds from the samples were separated on a Poroshell 14 120 EC-C18 column (4.6 \times 150 mm, 2.7 μ m). (A) 0.1 percent v/v formic acid in water 15 16 and (B) 0.1 percent v/v formic acid in acetonitrile: methanol (1:1, v/v) were used in the 17 mobile phase. The gradient elution protocol was as follows: 10% B to 46% B from 0 to 28 min; 46% B to 10% B from 28 to 29 min; and 10% B isocratic from 29 to 34 min. 18 19 The column was maintained at 55 °C during the gradient elution program,. With a spray voltage of 4 kV, a gas temperature of 350 °C, and a nebulizer pressure of 35 psi, 20 negative electrospray ionization was employed on QqQ-MS/MS. The temperature of the 21 22 ion source was set to 150 °C. To identify phenolic compounds in the samples, a multiple 23 reaction monitoring mode for the transition of the precursor to production was used. Procyanidin B1, procyanidin B2, procyanidin C1, (+)-catechin, (-)-epicatechin, (-)-24

- 1 epigallocatechin and gallocatechin, myricetin, myricetin-3-O-glucoside, quercetin-3-O-
- 2 galactoside, quercetin-3-O-glucuronide, dihydroquercetin, syringetin-3-O-glucoside,
- 3 gallic acid, protocatechuic acid, caffeic acid, and 4- hydroxycinnamic acid were used as
- 4 external standards for quantifying flavanols and phenolic acids.

5 **2.4.6.** Anthocyanins

- 6 In a mortar filled with liquid nitrogen, samples were ground into powders
- 7 (approximately 0.2 g). Following that, the slightly modified extraction method of
- 8 Butelli et al. (2008) was used. Two mL of 100% MeOH was used to extract the powder
- 9 (Sigma, St. Louis, MI, USA). The powder/solvent mixture was kept at 4 °C for 12 hours
- and shaken every 15 min for the first 2 hours to avoid light exposure. After
- centrifugation at 2800 rpm for 30 min, the supernatant was filtered through a 0.22 µm
- membrane filter and analyzed on an Agilent Technologies 1200 series HPLC. The
- mobile phase consisted of two solvents: Solvent-A, which was 87% water, 11%
- acetonitrile (ACN), and 2% acetic acid, and Solvent-B, which was 40% water, 58%
- ACN, and 2% acetic acid. At a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹, the gradient elution was as
- 16 follows: 0 min 4% B, 20 min 20% B, 35 min 40 percent B, 40 min 60% B, 45 min 90%
- B, and 55 min 4% B. The detection wavelength was 520 nm, and the column oven
- temperature was set to 30 °C. Anthocyanin standards (petunidin-3-(trans-coumaroyl)-
- rutinoside-5-glucoside) of Anhui Biothun (Anhui, China) were used for the analyses.
- 20 Purified anthocyanin extracts were dissolved in 100% MeOH before being analyzed by
- 21 mass spectrometry on a Q-TOF 5600 (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA) system in
- positive mode with m/z values ranging from 300 to 1000.

23 **2.4.7. Vitamins**

24 Vitamin A

- 1 Berry samples were grinded for Vitamin A (Retinol). Berry samples were extracted with
- a mixture of *n*-hexane and ethanol. 1% BHT was added and kept in a dark environment
- 3 for one day. At the end of this period, the samples were centrifuged at 4000 rpm (+4 °C)
- 4 for 10 min. The obtained supernatant was filtered through Whatman filter paper and 0.5
- 5 mL of *n*-hexane was added. Drying was then performed using nitrogen gas. The residue
- 6 in the tubes was dissolved in a methanol+tetrahydrofuran mixture. Analyses were
- 7 carried out in Thermo Scientific Finnigan Surveyor model high performance liquid
- 8 chromatography (HPLC) and in amber glass vials on Tray auto sampler using PDA
- 9 array detector (Al-Saleh et al., 2006).
- 10 Vitamin B

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- A total of 10 g of the samples prepared by crushing the frozen berries were weighed and homogenized. The samples were then transferred to a conical flask that already had 25
- mL of extraction solution. To sonicate the solution, a shaking water bath at an ambient
- temperature of 70 °C was used for 40 minutes. Following sonication, the sample was
- solution was again filtered with filter trips (0.45 μm) and 20 μl aliquot solutions were

cooled and filtered to make a volume of 50 mL with extraction solution. The extraction

- injected into the HPLC by using an auto-sampler. A reversed-phase C-18 analytical
- column (STR ODS-M, 150 mm 4.6 mm ID, 5 m, Shimadzu Corporation, Japan) was
- used to separate the B complex vitamins. At 40 °C, the mobile phase consists of a 9:1
- 20 (v/v) combination of 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH: 2.2) containing 0.8 mM
- 21 sodium-1-octanesulfonate and acetonitrile. The flow rate was kept constant at 0.8 mL
- 22 min⁻¹ using a PDA detector with a 270 nm absorption rate. The peak area of the
- 23 corresponding chromatogram was used to calculate B vitamins using the following
- 24 equation:

- 1 B vitamins (mg 100 g^{-1}) = Concentration of standard × (Area of sample/Area of
- 2 standard) × Dilution factor (Mozumder et al., 2019).
- 3 Vitamin C
- 4 The extraction solution was combined with 2.5 mL of frozen, crushed berry material
- 5 (3% MPA and 8% acetic acid for MPA-acetic acid extraction and 0.1% oxalic acid for
- 6 oxalic acid extraction). The mixture was titrated with indophenol solution (25% DCIP
- 7 and 21% NaHCO₃ in water) until a light, but distinct rose-pink color appears and
- 8 persists for more than 5 seconds (AOAC, 1990).

9 **2.5. Statistical analyses**

- 10 The experiment was designed to include three replications of two vines per
- 11 experimental unit. Utilizing the JMP statistical program based on SAS, one-way
- analysis of variance (ANOVA) with randomized complete block design was performed.
- 13 ANOVA with three replications was used for yield, cluster, berry, and juice
- characteristics, and ANOVA with two replications was used for phytochemical analysis.
- 15 The LSD (Least Significant Difference) test was used on the data to compare the means
- at a 5% significance level ($P \le 0.05$).

17 3. Results and Discussions

18 3.1. Effect of treatments on yield, cluster, berry and juice properties

- 19 The use of organic and inorganic amendments produced effects on grape yield and
- quality (Table 5). Yield was significantly higher than the control in PR+FM (+0.8 kg
- per plant), in P and P+S+FM (both about +2 kg per plant), and in P+PR+FM (+3 kg per
- plant). The P+PR+FM combination had the best results also in terms of bunch and berry
- 23 weight. On the other hand, this treatment did not seem to have any influence on the
- 24 juice properties, in terms of TSS, acidity, pH and ripening index, which were not result

statistically different (p>0.05) from the control. The S+FM mixture produced the 1 2 highest performance in TSS, pH, and ripening index, with 15.37%, 3.74 and 26.18, respectively. In general, all the treatments including farm manure (FM) showed positive 3 effects in yield, bunch weight, berry weight, and TSS. Organic-based compost, farm 4 5 manure and vermicompost are known to improve productivity in poor soils (Popović et 6 al., 2020). On the contrary, the mixture of pumice and dry compost (P+DC) resulted in slightly lower yield, bunch and berry weight than the control, and that the low nitrogen 7 8 content in the mixture inhibited the organic material decomposition (Fog, 1988; 9 Vivanco and Austin, 2011; Schuster, 2016; Dong et al., 2019; Hou et al., 2021). This may be probably due to the decomposition of cellulosic high organic matter content of 10 11 the DC soil microorganisms depleting soil nitrogen prior to plant uptake, which may also be due to the low maturity of commercial compost used. In addition, due to the 12 high water retention of pumice (Table 2), nutrients are initially retained by pumice. As a 13 result, mixtures with farm manure tend to have naturally higher nitrogen than dry 14 15 compost resulting in higher grape yield and bunch weight. 16 The possible reasons for the positive effects of pumice, P+S+FM, and P+PR+FM on 17 yield, bunch weight and berry weight could be that pumice, straw and pruning residues provide aeration and water retention together with the nutrient content of farm manure. 18 19 Treatments containing farm manure always showed positive effects on yield, bunch and berry weight, and TSS. This showed that farm manure nutrients are readily available, 20 21 such as nitrogen at 2%, and, as stated by Oldfield et al. (2019), high yield occurs in soils 22 with less than 2% organic matter which also the case for the studied soils.

3.2. Effects of treatments on grapes phytochemical properties

The organoleptic characteristics of the grapes affect their taste, which are the elements 1 2 that increase the marketing opportunity (Baccichet et al., 2021). Sugars and organic acids are among the most important characteristics to determine the quality of the 3 grapes. The amount of anthocyanins increases with the increasing amount of sugar in 4 the grapes towards ripening (Winkler et al., 1974). Anthocyanins produce the distinctive 5 6 colors of the fruit, and thus contribute to the quality of the fruit. Thus, anthocyanins are also ripening indicators because most fruits accumulate these compounds mainly during 7 8 the ripening process (Jaakola, 2013). The difference between sugars and organic acids other than sucrose sugar and citric acid 9 and their total values was not statistically significant (p>0.05) (Table 6). The values 10 ranged between 192.24 (S+FM) and 233.53 (Control) g kg⁻¹ fresh weight for total 11 sugars and between 14.21 (PR+FM) and 19.48 (P) g kg⁻¹ fresh weight for total organic 12 acids. It was observed that the obtained values were generally in agreement with the 13 values obtained for different grapes reported in literature (Kelebek, 2009; Tangolar et 14 al., 2015, 2016). Thus, it was evaluated that experimental applications did not have a 15 16 significant effect (p>0.05) on the taste at the level of total sugars and organic acids. The 17 total sugar of the control appeared to be relatively higher than the other all treatments, which is most likely the concentration effect, i.e the relatively low weight of the 18 19 bunches of control resulted in high sugar content per unit weight (Table 5). Total organic acids and total sugars were not significantly different (p>0.05) between 20 treatments and control, although organic acids were generally slightly higher in all 21 treatments with pumice. The lowest acidity was found in PR+FM with 14.21 g kg⁻¹ 22 fresh weight, showing that nutrition capacity of the farm manure has a positive effect on 23 the taste of the grape. Although the total sugar content of PR+FM was lower than that of 24

- the Control, P, and P+DC treatments, the lower total organic acid content stands out,
- 2 showing that the application has a positive influence on the fruit's taste.
- Among the treatments DC, P+DC, and P+S+FM showed the highest total anthocyanin 3 values with 261.53, 261.28 and 249.81 mg kg⁻¹ fresh weight respectively (Table 7). This 4 may be due to the relatively early ripening of the grapes in the treatments. The total 5 anthocyanin content varied between 199.20 mg kg⁻¹ (P) and 261.53 mg kg⁻¹ (DC) in 6 7 our study (Table 7). These were close to the values reported by Eshghi et al. (2014), who reported that total content of anthocyanin in berries of 35 grape cultivars varied 8 from 42.74 mg kg⁻¹ to 619.04 mg kg⁻¹, based on fresh weight. The results of the present 9 study were in line with Tangolar et al. (2016). Cantos et al. (2002) also indicated that 10 11 anthocyanins were the main phenolic compounds in red grapes ranging from 69 "(Crimson Seedless)" to 151 "(Flame Seedless)" mg kg⁻¹ fresh weight of grapes. 12 However, Galet (1993) and Kelebek (2009) reported that the total amount of in 23 13 different grape cultivars range between 42 and 4893 mg kg⁻¹ and Mazza and Francis 14 (1995) reported that the total amount of anthocyanins in the berry of some grape 15 cultivars range between 300-7500 mg kg⁻¹. Rusjan and Korosec-Koruza (2007) also 16 determined higher amount of total anthocyanins (2179-2219 mg kg⁻¹) in red grapes. 17 Researchers noted that comparing results to the literature is challenging due to the 18 19 various kinds studied, ecological settings, ripening stage, and analytical methodologies. For example, while Özer (2003) suggested that the treatments with FM generally 20 yielded lower anthocyanin which may be attributed to higher N contents retarding 21

maturation of crops. Parrado et al. (2007) found that the application of organic matter

from red grape bioethanol production waste induced an increase in anthocyanin levels.

The difference between applications for malvidin-3 glucoside was not significant

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- 1 (p>0.05), but for other anthocyanins, significant differences $(p\leq0.05)$ were found
- between applications. DC and P+S+FM for peonidine-3-glucoside; P+DC and P+S+FM
- 3 for petunidin-3-glucoside; DC for delphinidin-3-glucoside; S+FM and PR+FM
- 4 applications for cyanidin-3-glucoside gave higher value. The fact that there was no
- 5 difference in terms of malvidin-3 glucoside which contains the highest rate amount of
- 6 the anthocyanins in colored grapes (Winkler et al., 1974; Kelebek, 2009), was evaluated
- 7 as an indication that the applications did not create enough statistical difference on the
- 8 berry color during the trial period.
- 9 In present study, four flavanols and two flavanols (Table 8) were quantified. All of
- these compounds except from quercetin-3-glucoside were affected by the treatments.
- In particular, myricetin-3-glucoside and isorhamnetin-3-glucoside showed significant
- higher values in P, S+FM and PR+FM treatments, whereas catechin were higher in DC,
- 13 P+DC, and PR+FM. Total flavanols showed significant higher values only in S+FM,
- whereas total flavanols were higher in PR+FM, S+FM, and DC. Therefore, in general
- 15 S+FM and PR+FM applications were the most prominent in terms of the flavanol and
- 16 flavanol compounds, reported in Table 8.
- 17 The S+FM and P+S+FM applications were statistically more prominent ($p \le 0.05$) in
- terms of total phenolic acids, in particular for gallic and p-coumaric acids (Table 9).
- 19 These values are in accordance with results obtained from Tangolar et al. (2016),
- 20 reporting total phenolic acids in "Prima" cultivar between 403.29 and 535.6 mg kg⁻¹
- 21 fresh weight, besides in Cantos et al. (2002) total phenolic compounds ranged from 115
- to 361 mg kg⁻¹ fresh weight. Total phenolic compounds values of Lachman et al. (2009)
- obtained from berry skin from different regions ranged from 370.1 mg L^{-1} to 238.7
- $^{-1}$ Mur results are also in agreement with the values found by Kelebek (2009) and

Eshghi et al. (2014). In present study, the accumulation of total phenolic acids and 1 especially flavanols was enhanced by FM addition, in comparison to the control 2 treatment. This suggests that supplementing FM to PR and SM mixture has a positive 3 effect on the accumulation and biosynthesis of phenolic compounds. 4 5 Several studies suggest that phenolic acids can act as antioxidants by scavenging hydroxyl radicals (Chandrasekara, 2018). Thus, they are crucial not only for plant health 6 but also for humans health. In this experiment, the highest value of the total phenolic 7 8 acids was obtained in the S+FM mixture followed by P+S+FM, which is also rich in 9 organic material rather than minerals. Here, we can argue that organic material induces phenolic acid development more than mineral material, such as pumice alone. 10 11 The activities of some of the enzymes analyzed from the berries are shown in Table 10. The activities of all the enzymes analyzed, with the exception of GST, were modified by 12 the treatments. The highest activities were found in S+FM for GR, in S+FM and P for 13 G6PD, in P+S+FM for CAT, in S+FM and P+PR+FM for POD, in P+S+FM for SOD, 14 and in P+PR+FM for APX. The enzyme activities were higher in the pumice, the straw, 15 16 and the farm manure mixtures than the others. As with phenolic acid development, 17 mixtures dominated by organic material generally showed higher values of enzyme activities than mineral mixtures (Table 10). Antioxidant enzymes not only increase 18 19 plant resistance, especially for abiotic stresses such as salinity, water and drought stress (Movludi et al., 2014; Pandey et al., 2017), but also increase the nutritional value of 20 grapes and their positive effects on human health (Krishnamurthy and Wadhwani, 21 22 2012). Thus, with the addition of organic matter to the soil, provides significant benefits 23 are provided in this regard. Antioxidant enzymes (e.g., SOD, glutathione peroxidase

(GPX) and glutathione reductase (GR), CAT, etc.) are able to stabilize, or deactivate

free radicals before they attack cellular components (Krishnamurthy and Wadhwani, 1 2 2012). To minimize the damage caused by free radicals, these substances reduce their energy and interfere with the oxidative chain reaction. Researchers have indicated that 3 antioxidant enzymes have found a substantial link between free radicals and more than 4 sixty different health conditions, including the aging process, cancer, diabetes, 5 Alzheimer's disease, strokes, heart attacks and atherosclerosis (Jideani et al., 2021). For 6 these reasons, by reducing exposure to free radicals and increasing the intake of 7 8 antioxidant enzyme rich foods or antioxidant enzyme supplements, our body's potential to reduce the risk of free radical related health problems becomes more palpable. Zhang 9 et al. (2014) suggested that CAT, POD, and SOD are also important antioxidant 10 11 enzymes that play a crucial role in the elimination of superoxide and hydrogen peroxide in plants, all of which reduce the harmful effects of reactive oxygen species. 12 In Troiani et al.'s study (2003), SOD activity values were determined as 53.00 and 7.67 13 units 100 g⁻¹ for peel and pulp in "Rubi" cultivar, 11.50 and 141.11 units 100 g⁻¹ in 14 "Borbon" cultivar, and 327 and 44 units 100 g⁻¹ in "Benitaka" cultivar. These values 15 were found to be approximately close to the values we determined in our study as 16 16.80-25.97 units 100 g^{-1} SOD activity in Prima berries. 17 Vitamins are essential components of a healthy diet and serve as indicators of a well-18 19 balanced diet. They are also beneficial by acting as antioxidants in different ways (Tardy et al., 2020). For example, vitamins C and A act as neutralizing antioxidants and 20 free radical chain breaker for hydroxyl and superoxide radicals and hydrogen peroxide. 21 22 Uğur et al. (2020) stated that vitamin C protects against numerous diseases by decreasing free radical damage in the body via its significant antioxidant activity. 23 P+S+FM treatment showed significant higher content of A, B1, and B6 vitamins, 24

- whereas several treatments (P, DC, P+DC, PR+FM) showed only significant increase of
- 2 B1 vitamins, if compared with control (Table 11). From Table 11, we can conclude that,
- 3 grapes have less vitamin C than pepper, cabbage, broccoli, strawberry, kiwi, orange, and
- 4 cauliflower (which have vitamin C levels ranging from 150.7 to 21.2 mg 100 g⁻¹
- 5 according to Uğur et al. (2020).
- 6 The daily recommended value for vitamin C is 60-110 mg (Anonymous, 2021, 2022)^{5,6}
- 7 (Uğur et al., 2020). Uğur et al. (2020) reported that the amount of vitamin C required to
- 8 prevent or treat early deficiency symptoms is between 6.5 and 10 mg day⁻¹. The results
- 9 of this study are in line with those reported by other researchers as mg vitamin C in 100
- 10 g⁻¹ fresh weight. For example, Pinheiro et al. (2009) found 10.8 mg Vitamin C in edible
- part of in grapes, Abdrabba and Hussein (2015) as an average of pulp-seed-peel had
- also found 14.61 mg Vitamin C. Besides these, Souza et al. (2012) reported that
- ascorbic acid value changed between 4.9 and 12.2 mg in the skin of grape (Vitis vinifera
- L.). So, although there is no significant difference between the trial applications, in
- 15 general terms, it can be said that grape can be used for people's daily vitamin C
- 16 requirements.
- B vitamins are required by the body for a cultivar of functions, for example; thiamin
- 18 helps the body produce adenosine triphosphate (ATP), a molecule required for energy

⁵ Anonymous (2021). National Institutes of health Vitamin C. Fact Sheet for Health Professionals [online]. Website https://ods.od.nih.gov/factsheets/VitaminC-HealthProfessional/ [Accessed 24 April 2023].

⁶ Anonymous (2022). Dietary reference intakes for vitamin C, vitamin E, selenium, and carotenoids [online]. Website https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK225480/ [Accessed 19 April 2023].

transportation within cells, riboflavin assists in the metabolism of the food you eat, 1 2 turning it into energy and similar to riboflavin, pyridoxine is important for energy production (Healthsomeoness, 2022)⁷. Tzin and Galili (2010) defined that these amino 3 acids are not only essential components of protein synthesis in plants, but they are also 4 5 found in a cultivar of growth hormones and secondary metabolites with a wide range of biological functions and health-promoting properties, such as resistance to abiotic and 6 7 biotic stresses. Their production in plants is therefore essential for quality and quantity 8 of production. In addition, the importance of amino acids, which are the building blocks 9 of proteins, in human nutrition, cannot be overestimated (Key et al., 2019; Rose, 2019). There was no significant difference between the treatments for histidine, glycine, 10 asparagine, alanine, isoleucine, leucine, and lysine among the 20 amino acids, evaluated 11 in our study (Table 12). The highest values for arginine were obtained in the S+FM, 12 P+S+FM, and P+PR+FM applications (47051, 47360, and 49187 μg kg⁻¹, respectively); 13 the highest values for proline were obtained in the P and S+FM applications (53721 and 14 53700 μ g kg⁻¹, respectively). 15 16 Pumice treatment yielded the maximum values for three amino acids (Table 12), namely tryptophan, phenylalanine, and proline. Cystine, tryptophan, glutamate, and glutamine 17 were the most abundant amino acids in dry compost. The P+DC application showed 18 19 higher levels of glutamate, while S+FM showed higher levels of arginine, serine, tyrosine, sarcosine, and proline values. During the P+S+FM treatment, valine, 20 methionine, tryptophan, and arginine performed better than the other amino acids 21 ⁷ Healthsomeoness (2022). What vitamins are in grapes? [Online]. Website https://www.healthsomeness.com/what-vitamins-do-grapes-contain/. [Accessed 24 June

2023].

studied. Glutamine and tryptophan were the most abundant amino acids in PR+FM, 1 while arginine, cysteine, sarcosine, and aspartate were the most abundant amino acids in 2 P+PR+FM. For all amino acid values, the P+PR+FM application produced the 3 maximum value of 289947 µg kg⁻¹, while the control application produced the lowest 4 value of $257138 \,\mu\mathrm{g \, kg}^{-1}$. 5 Among the mixtures, S+FM, P+S+FM and P+PR+FM showed relatively higher acid 6 components than others (Table 12a, 12b). In addition, higher values were measured in 7 8 terms of amino acids, with the total value of all treatments compared to the control. As a 9 result, it was recognized that natural inputs, particularly organic materials, might be used to increase the amino acid content of grapes. The advantages of increasing amino 10 11 acids in grape by agronomic treatments are considered particularly significant in terms of human nutrition and plant health. Although some amino acids amount varied among 12 13 applications, it can be argued that the overall rising trend in amino acids will improve the studied cultivar and ecology. 14 Huang and Ough (1991, Canoura et al. (2018), Bouzas-Cid et al. (2015, 2018a, 2018b, 15 16 2018c), Sánchez-Gómez et al. (2016), Gutiérrez-Gamboa et al. (2017, 2018a, 2018b, 2020), Fernández-Novales et al. (2019) and Wu et al. (2019) reported that the amino 17 acid content of grape berries are affected by different cultivars, rootstocks, and 18 19 locations, as well as fertilization and other viticultural practices. For example, in the study of Gutiérrez-Gamboa et al. (2020), the effect of the foliar application of a seaweed 20 extract on a "Tempranillo blanco" cultivar was determined for must and wine amino 21 22 acids and ammonium content. The results suggested that "Tempranillo blanco" behaved 23 as an arginine accumulator cultivar. Biostimulation after seaweed applications at a high dosage to the grapevines increased the concentration of several amino acids in the 2017 24

season, while scarcely affected their content in 2018. In another research of Gutiérrez-1 Gamboa et al. (2018 b), results showed that of some elicitors and nitrogen foliar 2 applications to "Garnacha" and "Tempranillo" grapevines decreased the must amino 3 acid concentration. The treatments applied to "Graciano" grapevines affected the grape 4 5 amino acid content. Based on the percentage of variance attributable, the cultivar had a greater effect on the essential amino acid composition than the treatments and their 6 interaction. Amino acid values obtained in the present study varied from 1864 µg kg⁻¹ 7 (in control for valine) to 49187 µg kg⁻¹ (in P+PR+FM for arginine). These values were 8 in line with the values of valine (1.07 mg L⁻¹) of Fernández-Novales et al. (2019) for 9 "Grenache", and arginine (38.44 - 89.60 mg L⁻¹) of Valdés et al. (2019) for 10 11 "Tempranillo" berries. In addition, in the review study of Winkler et al. (1974), the amino acid values in the must varied between 6 (for glysine) and 3490 mg L⁻¹ (for 12 proline) in the 5 wine grape cultivars. They varied from 0.0 (for tyrosine) to 327 mg L^{-1} 13 (for arginine) in "Merlot" and "Cabernet Sauvignon", and it ranged from <1.0 (for 14 methionine) to 905 mg L⁻¹ (for arginine) in 18 grape cultivars. 15 16 Arginine and proline amino acids were recorded as the most abundant amino acids in all 17 treatments used in our experiment; valine, cystine and tyrosine were determined as the amino acids with the lowest values. These results are in agreement with reports of 18 19 Winkler et al. (1974), Fernández-Novales et al. (2019), and Valdés et al. (2019), who reported that arginine and proline were the most abundant amino acids in their studies. 20 The results of this study clearly showed that the addition of organic and inorganic 21 22 materials to the soil, alone or in mixture, had a positive effect on the amino acid content 23 of the grapes.

4. Conclusions

Mediterranean soils have probably been in agricultural use for the longest time in the world, and disappointingly, the quality of these soils is deteriorating due to overproduction but inadequate maintenance. In order to ensure high yield and quality of table grape in Mediterranean area, together with a sustainable use, both economically and environmentally, of external resources, a balanced use of fertilizers and amendments is thus mandatory particularly in soils with physical (depth) and chemical (organic matter, high CaCO₃, low micronutrients) limitations. The recycling of biowaste and/or low-cost natural inorganic materials can contribute to reduce the dependence from synthetic fertilizers, increasing the soil and yield quality. In present study, volcanic pumice (P) as a mineral source, straw (S), cattle farm manure (FM), and dry compost (DC) as organic matter sources, single or mixed (with or without pruning residues, PR), were used to improve the quality of a shallow Calcisol with low organic matter and nutrients in a table grape vineyard in southern Türkiye. The results of the study showed that inorganic and organic soil amendments, alone or in various combinations, positively affected several characteristics of the grapes. With the information obtained, a decision can be made regarding which amendment to apply, alone or in mixture, when a specific grape characteristic is to be targeted. In this study, P+PR+FM showed the best performance in sugar accumulation per plant (1900 g plant⁻¹), and the best accumulation of total amino acids in the berries, in particular aspartate, arginine, and cysteine, while P+S+FM showed the highest anthocyanin content together with DC and P+DC. However, it should be mindful that the application doses of the tested combinations and the organic matter material to inorganic material mixture ratios utilized in this study may not be applicable to all soils. But, the positive response of the grapevine to the organimeral mixture added to the soil in this two-

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- 1 year study demonstrates that the soils studied are significantly deteriorated, require
- 2 immediate remediation. Aside from that, global environmental issues such as
- desertification, climate change, and biodiversity loss jeopardize the condition of healthy
- 4 soils, much alone degraded soils. In conclusion, using every type of inorganic and
- 5 organic materials that are not detrimental to human or environmental health in
- 6 agricultural areas should be stressed on both a local and global scale.
- As a result, although we achieved positive results both in chemistry and quantity of in
- 8 calcareous Mediterranean soil, additional studies are needed to determine the detailed
- 9 effects of such treatments on soil quality, such as soil carbon sequestration, biological
- activities, and soil water dynamics, in order to achieve optimal yields while preserving
- and even enhancing soil ecosystem services. In addition, the benefits of such soil
- conditioners should be described to farmers as soon as possible, and the use of natural
- conditioners should be encouraged so that the treatments can be disseminated over vast
- areas and food security can be ensured.
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- 20 Author Contributions: Conceptualization, supervision, methodology, investigation,
- 21 project administration, S.T.; writing-review & editing, discussion and interpretation,
- visualization, S.T. and S.P.; investigation, resources, pomological analysis, formal
- 23 analysis, data curation, S.T. and S.T.; resources, phytochemical analysis, M.T.;
- 24 applications, visualization, writing-original draft, E.A.

1 All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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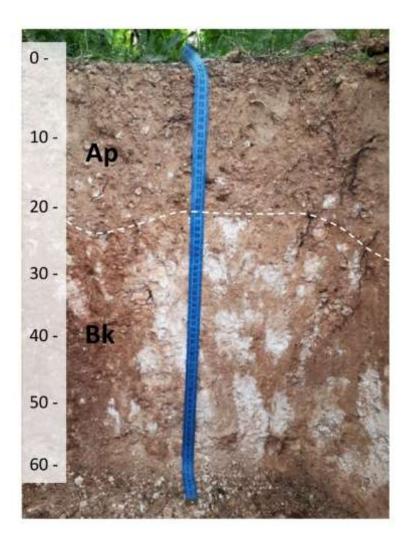


Figure 1. The soil profile within the experimental vineyard. Ap is the tilled horizon, whereas Bk is the subsurface calcic horizon (Bk), characterized by frequent white soft and hard concentration of calcium carbonate. The soil is classified as Haplic Calcisol (Loamic, Hypercalcic) to FAO system (IUSS-WRB Working group, 2015).

1 Table 1. The chemical and physical properties of the basaltic pumice.

Properties	Values	
SiO ₂	46%	
Al_2O_3	21%	
Fe_2O_3	7%	
CaO	11%	
MgO	7%	
Na_2O_+ K_2O	8%	
Water retention	19.6%	
Porosity	71.3%	
рН	7.0-7.4	
Bulk density	$1-2 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$	

2

3 Table 2. The chemical and physical properties of dry compost.

Properties	Values
Total nitrogen	2%
Total P (P_2O_5)	2%
Water soluble K ₂ O	2%
EC	0.95 dS m^{-1}
Organic matter	50%
Total humic+fulvic acids	10%
C/N	12.6
pH (1:1)	6.8-8.8

1 Table 3. Treatments.

Treatments	Ratio	Applied Amount
Treatments	(V:V)	(each year)
Control		No application
Pumice (P)	1	50 t ha ⁻¹
Dry compost (DC)	1	4 t ha ⁻¹
Pruning residue:Farm manure (PR+FM)	1:2	50 t ha ⁻¹
Straw: Farm manure (S+FM)	1:2	50 t ha ⁻¹
Pumice: Dry compost (P+DC)	1:2	$50 \text{ t ha}^{-1} + 4 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$
P+(S+FM)	-	$50 \text{ t ha}^{-1} + (50 \text{ t ha}^{-1})$
P+(PR+FM)	-	$50 \text{ t ha}^{-1} + (50 \text{ t ha}^{-1})$

1 Table 4. Macro, micronutrients, pH and electrical conductivity (EC) of the materials used in the study.

	N	Iacro eleme	ents (mg 100	g^{-1}	Micro	o elements (1	ng kg ⁻¹)		EC
Materials ^x	P	K	Ca	Mg	Fe	Mn	Zn	pН	(dSm^{-1})
Control	27.7 c ^y	403 cd	4234 ab	308 bc	7.56 bc	13.42 bcd	2.12 c	7.68	0.361 d
P	30.8 c	354 d	3911 d	202 d	5.50 d	11.34 d	2.26 c	7.72	0.335 d
DC	28.2 c	456 cd	4306 a	303 bc	6.58 cd	13.18cd	2.48 bc	7.76	0.383 cd
PR+FM	52.6 a	776 ab	3740 e	341 abc	8.40 ab	20.62 ab	2.73 ab	7.75	0.511 abc
S+FM	53.5 a	767 ab	3889 d	381 ab	8.19 ab	19.76 abc	2.98 a	7.75	0.638 a
P+DC	33.4 bc	479 c	4170 b	274 cd	5.86 d	13.29 bcd	2.24 c	7.66	0.449 bcd
P+(S+FM)	53.3 a	660 b	3598 f	288 cd	8.11 ab	21.57 a	2.78 ab	7.79	0.510 abc
P+(PR+FM)	43.8 ab	818 a	4044 c	399 a	9.24 a	23.10 a	3.01 a	7.69	0.561 ab
LSD 5%	11.5	114	120	86	1.32	7.33	0.38	NS	0.15
P value	0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0045	0.0002	0.0155	0.0005	0.494	0.0053

 $[\]overline{}^{x}$: P: Pumice, S: Straw, DC: Dry compost, PR: Pruning residue, FM: Farm manure, $\overline{}^{y}$: Means (n = 3) followed by different letters on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at $p \le 0.05$. NS: Nonsignificant.

Table 5. Two-year cumulative effect of the various treatments on "Prima" grape yields, cluster, berry and juice properties.

Treatments ^x	Yield (g vine ⁻¹) ^y	Bunch weight (g)	Berry weight (g 100 berry ⁻¹)	Total soluble solids (%)	Acidity (g 100 mL juice ⁻¹)	рН	Ripening index (TSS/Acidity)
Control	5875de	345.6de	433.9bc	12.63 c	0.692ab	3.41e	18.39cd
P	7719b	454.0b	458.7ab	13.57bc	0.647abcd	3.54cd	21.11bc
DC	6340cd	372.9cd	485.9ab	14.37ab	0.679abc	3.49de	21.21bc
P+DC	5180e	304.7e	372.9 d	12.50c	0.640bcde	3.60bc	19.52cd
S+FM	6354cd	373.8cd	438.3abc	15.37a	0.587de	3.74a	26.18a
P+S+FM	7864b	462.6b	432.6bc	14.13b	0.610cde	3.62bc	23.15ab
PR+FM	6674c	392.6c	394.0cd	13.97b	0.568e	3.69ab	24.76a
P+PR+FM	8860a	521.2a	490.9a	12.60c	0.722a	3.49de	17.53d
LSD 5%	752	44.26	53.51	1.193	0.078	0.085	3.385
p value	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	0.004	0.001	0.010	< 0.0001	0.0008

x: P: Pumice, S: Straw, DC: Dry compost, PR: Pruning residue, FM: Farm manure, y: Means (n = 3) followed by different letters
 on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at p ≤ 0.05.

Table 6. Effect of different treatments on sugar and organic acid contents (g.kg⁻¹ fresh weight) of "Prima" berries.

				Total	Total sugar				Total
Treatments'	Glucose ^y	Fructose	Sucrose		per plant	Malic	Tartaric	Citric	Organic
				suguis	(g plant ⁻¹)				acids
Control	74.94	153.18	5.41b	233.53	1372 ab	6.84	9.02	0.17c	16.03
P	94.82	126.18	4.41bc	225.41	1740 ab	5.91	13.40	0.17c	19.48
DC	86.55	112.00	5.43b	203.98	1293 ab	5.84	12.44	0.21bc	18.49
P+DC	94.24	120.64	5.16b	220.03	1140 b	7.44	12.82	0.34b	20.60
S+FM	76.67	112.82	2.75c	192.24	1222 b	7.13	10.10	0.25bc	17.48
P+S+FM	91.00	104.72	8.24a	203.97	1604 ab	4.96	10.70	0.66a	16.33
PR+FM	88.69	113.45	4.07bc	206.20	1376 ab	5.37	8.68	0.16 c	14.21
P+PR+FM	78.00	131.27	5.12b	214.39	1900 a	5.90	11.92	0.17 c	17.99
LSD 5%	NS	NS	1.81	NS	638	NS	NS	0.14	NS
p value	0.955	0.685	0.006	0.957	0.0201	0.368	0.476	0.0009	0.494

x: P: Pumice, S: Straw, DC: Dry compost, PR: Pruning residue, FM: Farm manure, y: Means (n = 3) followed by different letters
 on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at p ≤ 0.05. NS: Nonsignificant.

1 Table 7. Effect of different treatments on anthocyanin content (mg kg⁻¹ fresh weight) of "Prima" berries.

Treatments ^x	Malvidin	Peonidin	Petunidin	Delphinidin	Cyanidin	Total
Treatments	-3-glu ^y	-3-glu	-3-glu	-3-glu	-3-glu	Total
Control	79.48	52.91 bc	46.29 c	29.94 с	7.13 ab	215.76 bc
P	69.48	46.59 c	46.24 c	29.51 с	7.38 ab	199.20 с
DC	77.35	67.31 a	58.08 ab	55.51 a	3.28 c	261.53 a
P+DC	84.40	63.01 ab	59.19 a	50.71 ab	3.97 bc	261.28 a
S+FM	75.07	49.31 c	40.95 c	27.34 с	7.83 a	200.51 c
P+S+FM	77.90	64.86 a	68.12 a	34.42 bc	4.51 abc	249.81 a
PR+FM	72.07	48.63 c	48.42 bc	28.79 c	7.62 a	205.53 bc
P+PR+FM	72.01	57.89 abc	57.79 ab	40.62 abc	6.07 abc	234.39 ab
LSD 5%	NS	11.55	10.62	16.96	3.64	31.70
p value	0.407	0.020	0.007	0.032	0.102	0.007

x: P: Pumice, S: Straw, DC: Dry compost, PR: Pruning residue, FM: Farm manure, glu: glucoside, y: Means (n = 3) followed by different letters
 on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at p ≤ 0.05. NS: Nonsignificant.

1 Table 8. Effect of different treatments on flavanol and flavanol content (mg kg⁻¹ fresh weight) of "Prima" berries.

Treatments ^x	Dutiny	Myricetin-	Isorhamnetin	Quercetin-	Total	Catechin	Epicatechin	Total
Treatments	Kuuii	3-glucoside	-3-glucoside	3-glucoside	flavanol	Catecinii	Epicateciiii	flavanol
Control	29.57 bc	4.67 c	9.88 d	17.98	62.10 bc	107.02 b	160.72 c	267.74 c
P	28.92 bc	6.24 a	15.71 b	19.33	70.20 ab	143.22 ab	186.91 bc	330.13 bc
DC	28.11 bc	4.21 d	10.60 cd	18.11	61.03 bc	190.27 a	186.93 bc	377.20 ab
P+DC	31.00 ab	4.18 d	9.88 d	18.20	63.26 bc	185.33 a	167.93 с	353.27 abc
S+FM	35.77 a	5.28 b	17.39 a	19.90	78.34 a	155.34 ab	225.61 ab	380.96 ab
P+S+FM	31.93 ab	3.99 d	11.64 c	16.22	63.78 bc	155.63 ab	202.59 abc	358.22 abc
PR+FM	24.04 c	5.54 b	18.03 a	21.51	69.12 bc	183.29 a	255.04 a	438.33 a
P+PR+FM	29.54 bc	3.93 d	8.04 d	18.68	60.18 c	105.50 b	170.52 с	276.02 c
LSD 5%	5.836	0.436	1.654	NS	9.218	56.98	53.23	92.70
p value	0.053	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	0.204	0.025	0.048	0.042	0.041

x: P: Pumice, S: Straw, DC: Dry compost, PR: Pruning residue, FM: Farm manure, y: Means (n = 3) followed by different letters
 on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at p ≤ 0.05. NS: Nonsignificant.

Table 9. Effect of different treatments on phenolic acid content (mg kg⁻¹ fresh weight) of "Prima" berries.

Treatments ^x	Gallic ^y	Protocatechic	Trans-caftaric	Trans-coutaric	<i>p</i> -coumaric	Ferulic	Total
Control	24.78 cd	24.30 ab	29.60 abc	9.24 bcd	13.30 d	30.72 ab	131.94 с
P	23.21 d	22.62 bc	28.92 bc	13.13 a	16.37 bcd	30.14 b	134.39 с
DC	25.42 cd	24.66 ab	27.39 bc	8.12 d	14.99 bcd	30.15 b	130.73 с
P+DC	28.41 bc	25.24 ab	31.00 ab	8.62 cd	13.96 cd	27.15 b	134.38 c
S+FM	35.96 a	25.07 ab	35.77 a	10.22 bc	25.58 a	28.40 b	161.00 a
P+S+FM	31.48 ab	27.19 a	31.93 ab	8.95 bcd	20.77 ab	28.64 b	148.96 b
PR+FM	27.61 bcd	16.90 d	24.04 c	10.67 b	19.91 abc	35.36 a	134.49 с
P+PR+FM	27.66 bcd	20.75 c	29.90 abc	8.06 d	16.46 bcd	27.97 b	130.82 с
LSD 5%	4.535	3.034	6.244	1.939	6.075	4.756	9.575
p value	0.0048	0.002	0.067	0.006	0.022	0.072	0.001

x: P: Pumice, S: Straw, DC: Dry compost, PR: Pruning residue, FM: Farm manure, y: Means (n = 3) followed by different letters
 on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at p ≤ 0.05.

1 Table 10. Effect of different treatments on antioxidant enzyme activities (unit 100 g⁻¹ fresh weight) of "Prima" berries.

Treatments ^x	GR ^y	GST	G6PD	CAT	POD	SOD	APX
Control	8.92 bc	139.44	40.32 c	7.81 ab	22.25 cd	8.22 d	8.06 d
P	8.30 cd	168.01	52.43 a	7.42 abc	21.84 d	9.53 bc	8.34 cd
DC	7.09 d	157.77	41.67 bc	5.98 c	23.45 bc	10.09 b	8.78 bc
P+DC	7.11 d	151.08	46.04 bc	6.36 bc	24.05 b	10.16 b	8.58 cd
S+FM	12.29 a	143.07	53.26 a	5.99 c	25.56 a	9.13 c	9.41 ab
P+S+FM	10.12 b	144.52	47.70 ab	8.37 a	16.80 e	13.48 a	6.73 e
PR+FM	8.21 cd	178.16	47.72 ab	6.51 bc	22.56 cd	9.14 c	8.32 cd
P+PR+FM	7.15 d	161.84	42.56 bc	7.17 abc	25.97 a	9.80 bc	9.84 a
LSD 5%	1.53	NS	6.274	1.78	1.26	0.68	0.67
p value	0.0009	0.114	0.012	0.104	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	0.0003

^{*:} P: Pumice, S: Straw, DC: Dry compost, PR: Pruning residue, FM: Farm manure, y : Means (n = 3) followed by different letters on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at $p \le 0.05$. NS: Nonsignificant. GR: Glutathione reductase, GST: Glutathione S-transferase, G6PD: Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, CAT: Catalase (CAT-EC: 1.11.1.6), POD: Peroxidase (POD - EC: 1.11.1.7); SOD, Superoxide dismutase (SOD – EC: 1.15.1.1); APX, Ascorbate peroxidase.

Table 11. Effect of different treatments on vitamin content (mg 100 g⁻¹ fresh weight) of "Prima" berries.

Treatments ^x	A	B1	B2	B6	С
Treatments	(Retinol) ^y	(Thiamine)	(Riboflavin)	(Pyridoxine)	(Ascorbic acid)
Control	32.55e	41.35b	141.95a	73.05b	9.90
P	34.45cde	47.85a	143.35a	89.90ab	10.45
DC	33.85de	51.20a	144.45a	89.80ab	9.70
P+DC	35.30bcd	49.40a	148.05a	86.30b	9.95
S+FM	37.60b	41.10b	159.25a	79.60b	9.95
P+S+FM	41.6a	49.90a	123.35b	109.45a	11.60
PR+FM	34.85cde	50.35a	144.45a	91.00ab	9.60
P+PR+FM	36.85bc	41.50 b	154.35 a	81.70 b	10.25
LSD 5%	2.60	5.85	17.45	20.15	NS
p value	0.002	0.013	0.041	0.074	0.190

 $[\]overline{}^{x}$: P: Pumice, S: Straw, DC: Dry compost, PR: Pruning residue, FM: Farm manure, $\overline{}^{y}$: Means (n = 3) followed by different letters on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at $p \le 0.05$. NS: Nonsignificant.

Table 12a. Effect of different treatments on amino acid content ($\mu g \ kg^{-1}$ fresh weight) of "Prima" berries.

Treatments ^x	Aspartate ^y	Glutamate	Arginine	Serine	Glutamine	Histidine	Glycine	Asparagine	Alanine	Tyrosine
Control	11125 de	4111 c	40308 c	16279 с	12409 d	7148	7303	22626	21611	2288 e
P	10921 e	4763 ab	41701 bc	17225 bc	14361 abc	7167	8989	27140	20348	2497 d
DC	11723 cd	5044 a	43897 b	16935 с	15359 a	7223	8982	27058	21243	2586 cd
P+DC	12027 bc	5079 a	42916 bc	17644 abc	14816 ab	7402	8628	26123	22287	2686 bc
S+FM	12780 ab	4565 b	47051 a	18795 a	12328 d	7964	7958	23713	25380	2864 a
P+S+FM	12026 bc	4863 ab	47360 a	17465 abc	13154 bcd	6796	10342	26089	22366	2573 cd
PR+FM	11282 cde	4568 b	41592 bc	17429 abc	15099 a	7224	9098	27483	20431	2553 cd
P+PR+FM	12984 a	4901 ab	49187 a	18426 ab	12560 cd	7719	8171	23458	26047	2830 ab
LSD 5%	784.5	426.1	2992	1381	1808	NS	NS	NS	NS	176.3
p value	0.003	0.014	0.002	0.052	0.018	0.205	0.116	0.168	0.107	0.002

 $[\]times$: P Pumice, S Straw, DC Dry compost, PR Pruning residue, FM Farm manure, y : Means (n = 2) followed by different letters on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at $p \le 0.05$. NS: Nonsignificant.

1 Table 12b. Effect of different treatments on amino acid content (μg.kg⁻¹ fresh weight) of "Prima" berries.

Treatments ^x Control	Cysteine 2791 b	Valine 1864 d		Try 4889 bc	Phe 4508 d	Iso 5231	Leusine 5247	Lysine 7953	Sarcosine 15709 c	Proline 46648 c	Total amino acids 257138 e
P	2865 ab	2586 ab	4547 b	6239 a	5288 a	4927	5842	8823	16431 bc	53721 a	280365 cd
DC	3076 a	1913 cd	4229 bc	6165 a	4623 cd	5787	5025	9536	16911 b	52619 ab	282622 bcd
P+DC	2998 ab	1907 cd	4454 b	5923 ab	4777 bcd	5493	5321	8963	17180 b	52147 ab	281712 bcd
S+FM	2894 ab	2198 cd	4459 b	4723 с	4725 bcd	5387	5425	8113	18886 a	53700 a	287865 ab
P+S+FM	2809 b	2861 a	5072 a	6200 a	4979 ab	4885	5969	8966	17379 b	49354 bc	286333 abc
PR+FM	2821 b	2254 bc	4372 bc	6193 a	4770 bcd	5504	5312	9150	16820 b	52620 ab	279574 d
P+PR+FM	3092 a	2102 cd	4551 b	5064 bc	4904 bc	5337	5148	8523	18914 a	52004 ab	289947 a
LSD 5%	71.77	116.08	152.42	309.40	94.05	NS	NS	NS	328.80	1298.06	1841.91
p value	0.0957	0.0043	0.0292	0.0315	0.0125	0.1861	0.154	0.1489	0.0022	0.0611	< 0.0001

^{2 ×:} P Pumice, S Straw, DC Dry compost, PR Pruning residue, FM Farm manure, Met Methionine, Try Tryptophan, Phe Phenylalanine, Iso Isoleusine,

 $^{^{}y}$: Means (n = 2) followed by different letters on the same column are significantly different according to LSD test at $p \le 0.05$. NS: Nonsignificant.