

1 **Variable rate sprayer. Part 2 – Vineyard prototype: Design,**
2 **implementation, and validation**

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12 *Abstract*

13 The structural characteristics of the canopy are a key consideration for
14 improving the efficiency of the spray application process for tree crops. However,
15 obtaining accurate data in an easy, practical, and efficient way is an important problem
16 to be solved. This paper describes the technical characteristics of a sprayer prototype
17 developed for vineyards, following the principles and previous laboratory tests
18 described in the complementary paper *Variable rate sprayer. Part 1 - Orchard*
19 *prototype: design, implementation and validation*. This prototype can modify the
20 sprayed volume application rate according to the target geometry by using an algorithm
21 based on the canopy volume inspired by the tree row volume (TRV) model. Variations
22 in canopy width along the row crop are electronically measured using several ultrasonic
23 sensors placed on the sprayer and used to modify the emitted flow rate from the nozzles
24 in real time; the objective during this process is to maintain the sprayed volume per unit
25 canopy volume ($L m^{-3}$). Field trials carried out at different crop stages for Merlot and
26 Cabernet Sauvignon vines (*Vitis vinifera*) indicated a good relationship between the
27 applied volume and canopy characteristics. The potential pesticide savings were
28 estimated to be 21.9% relative to the costs of a conventional application. This
29 conclusion is in accordance with the results of similar research on automated spraying
30 systems.

31

32 **Keywords:** Variable rate application, ultrasonic sensors, canopy geometry, vineyard

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38 **Nomenclature**

39	C_{Hj}	Canopy height at sector j (m)
40	C_{Vj}	Canopy volume to spray per unit time at sector j ($\text{m}^3 \text{min}^{-1}$)
41	C_{Wj}	Canopy width (semi-width) for sector j (m)
42	D	Sprayer output, amount of product per unit row length of application (L m^{-1})
43	d_j	Measured distance from sensor to the external layout of the canopy (m)
44	d_{max}	Maximum measured distance by ultrasonic sensor (m)
45	$Dv0.1$	Volumetric diameter percentile 10 (μm)
46	$Dv0.9$	Volumetric diameter percentile 90 (μm)
47	e	Distance between sensor and central axis of sprayer (m)
48	f	Sampling frequency of the system (Hz)
49	i_a	Application coefficient - actual (L m^{-3})
50	i_o	Application coefficient - objective (L m^{-3})
51	NMD	Numeric median diameter (μm)
52	p_j	Pressure on sector j (bar)
53	p_{max}	Maximum working pressure of the system (bar)
54	p_{min}	Minimum working pressure of the system (bar)
55	q_j	Flow rate at section j (L min^{-1})
56	q_n	Individual nozzle flow rate (L min^{-3})
57	r	Row spacing (m)
58	S_{Lj}	Canopy slice length at sector j (m)
59	v	Forward speed (km h^{-1})
60	V_{in}	Electrical output signal emitted by ultrasonic sensor (V)
61	V_{out}	Electrical output signal sent to electromagnetic valve (V)
62	VMD	Volume median diameter (μm)

63

64 **1 INTRODUCTION**

65 In the last few years, improvement of the pesticide application process has been
66 established as a major objective of the official regulatory bodies of the European
67 countries. The European Union legislation for the sustainable use of pesticides was
68 implemented with the publication of Directive 128/2009/CE (European Parliament,
69 2009), which established the reduction of risk during the pesticide application process
70 as the main objective.

71 During the pesticide application process, risk as a function of pesticide dose and
72 harm to sensitive non-target areas are both related to the total amount of plant protection
73 products (PPP) and the spraying efficiency during the distribution process over the
74 entire canopy. However, for orchard and vineyard applications, the different methods

75 commonly used to determine the most suitable amount of PPP and the corresponding
76 application volume rate are difficult to understand in most cases. A direct consequence
77 of this complexity is that different methods have been proposed for the establishment of
78 label dose expression; these different methods make various claims for the improved
79 efficiency of pesticide use (Koch *et al.*, 2001; Walklate *et al.*, 2003; Walklate *et al.*,
80 2006; Koch, 2007; Walklate *et al.*, 2011). In all cases, the proposed alternative for dose
81 expression has been linked to one or several canopy characteristics with great
82 differences in the measurement difficulty. Among the available crop parameters, the
83 canopy volume is one of the most commonly used for dose expression (Byers *et al.*,
84 1971; Byers, 1987; Furness and Magarey, 2000; Bjugstad and Stensvand, 2002;
85 Montermini *et al.*, 2007; Viret and Höhn, 2008). However, in most cases, establishing a
86 method for canopy measurements has been the most difficult aspect of improved
87 methodologies for PPP application. Once the canopy characteristics have been
88 measured and introduced in the dose adjustment process, the result is a homogeneous
89 and uniform dose distribution per canopy unit.

90 Advances in electronics and in information and communication technologies
91 have permitted new developments in specialty crop production around the world (Lee *et*
92 *al.*, 2010), with a wide range of purposes and applications. In the particular case of PPP
93 application, ultrasonic sensors began to be used in crop production in the 1980s
94 (McConnell *et al.*, 1983). Giles *et al.* (1988 and 1989a) used commercial ultrasonic
95 sensors to estimate the tree canopy volume in apple and peach orchards. This
96 information was used to adapt the application volume rate to the canopy characteristics.
97 Through the use of this method, savings ranged from 28% to 52%. Since then, the use
98 of electronic devices for canopy characterisation has increased in the last few decades.
99 Different authors have used sensors for canopy characterisation of citrus trees (Tumbo

100 *et al.*, 2001; Whitney *et al.*, 2002; Zaman and Salyani, 2004), fruit trees (Balsari *et al.*,
101 2008; Escolà *et al.*, 2011; Hocevar *et al.*, 2011), and vineyards (Landers, 2008). In all of
102 these cases, a high degree of concurrence between the manual and automated
103 measurements was reported. The potential savings in pesticide use determined during
104 the tests are of interest.

105 The use of electronic devices for canopy characterisation and the need to clarify
106 the dose expression concept have given rise to the concept of the variable application
107 method (Zheng *et al.*, 2005). Several groups have developed prototypes to adapt the
108 application volume rate to the variations in canopy characteristics using ultrasonic and
109 LIDAR sensors (Balsari *et al.*, 2008; Brown *et al.*, 2008; Doruchowski *et al.*, 2009;
110 Escolà, 2010). Relevant benefits in terms of dose reduction, drift control, and uniform
111 deposition were achieved by all of the proposed methods.

112 The objective of this research is to develop a prototype that can apply a variable
113 amount of liquid according to the canopy variability along the crop row for PPP
114 applications in vineyards. This paper has two parts: a) a detailed description of the
115 electronic system for canopy measurements and the calculation of the adapted flow rate;
116 and b) an evaluation of the benefits one of the variable application method over the
117 conventional method.

118

119 **2 MATERIAL AND METHODS**

120 *2.1. Description of the principle*

121 According to the recently developed Pesticide Adjustment to the Crop
122 Environment (PACE) tool (Cross and Walklate, 2008) one of the European methods of
123 label dose rate expression is based on the tree row volume (TRV) concept, which is
124 defined as the amount of product applied per unit ground area for a given tree row

125 volume per unit ground area. The typical unit used in this method is litre per hectare of
126 ground area for a TRV of 10,000 m³ ha⁻¹. The TRV concept was also considered as an
127 alternative in the conclusions of the Dose Expression Group at their first meeting
128 (Wohlhauser, 2009), where the major agrochemical manufacturers of Europe proposed
129 to harmonise data submissions in support of the leaf wall area (LWA) dose rate for
130 evaluating the efficacy of pesticide registration. The TRV expression method has been
131 previously adopted for pesticide registration in some European countries, and some
132 website tools have been developed to calculate the total amount of pesticide per unit
133 ground area based on this principle (www.agrometeo.ch).

134 However, different dose expression methods are used in different EU member
135 nations and even within the same country. Assuming that D (L m⁻¹ or kg m⁻¹), as the
136 sprayer output, expresses the amount of product per unit row length of application
137 (Walklate and Cross, 2011), the influence of every single canopy parameter in the dose
138 expression is clear (Table 1). The establishment of a relationship among the different
139 options is also of interest. These relations are linked to the canopy structure and
140 principal parameters, and determining them seems to be a key point to achieving an
141 accurate spray application process.

142 According to Table 1, among the other dose expression methods already in use
143 in Europe, the TRV concept requires a standard measurement of the canopy width
144 (Walklate *et al.*, 2011). Some attempts to improve the electronic measurements of
145 canopy parameters, such as canopy width, to adapt the applied volume to the variable
146 characteristics of the canopy have already been developed (Solanelles *et al.*, 2006). The
147 prototype developed in this research is based on the electronic method for canopy width
148 measurements; the variability along the crop line is considered, and the amount of spray

149 liquid is modified accordingly in order to achieve a proportional spray distribution
150 based on canopy geometry.

151 The control algorithm (explained in Part 1 of this research) is based on the
152 measurement of canopy width (C_{Wj}) at section j , and its variations along the crop line.
153 Once that parameter is electronically determined, information about the tractor forward
154 speed along the row (v) and canopy height (C_{Hj}) of every single section j is added; the
155 algorithm was developed in order to calculate the canopy volume to be sprayed per unit
156 time (C_{Vj}), which is expressed in cubic metres per minute (see nomenclature). Equation
157 [1] indicates the relationship applied for this process:

$$158 \quad C_{Vj} = \frac{1,000}{60} \times C_{Wj} \times C_{Hj} \times v \quad [1]$$

159 where C_{Vj} is the unit canopy volume to be sprayed per unit time ($\text{m}^3 \text{min}^{-1}$); C_{Wj} , the
160 canopy width at a certain position (m); C_{Hj} , the canopy height (m); j is the intended
161 section; and v , the tractor forward speed (km h^{-1}).

162 The main objective of the algorithm was to modify the emitted nozzle flow rate
163 based on the measurements of canopy volume along the crop line and its variations in
164 order to maintain a constant (as named in part 1) objective application coefficient (i_o). In
165 this research, the objective was to maintain a constant value for the application
166 coefficient (i_o) of 0.095 L m^{-3} , which was selected according to previous research
167 (Byers *et al.*, 1971; Gil, 2001). Equation [2] indicates the established relation between
168 parameters:

$$169 \quad q_j = C_{Vj} \times i_o \quad [2]$$

170 where q_j is the flow rate (L min^{-1}); C_{Vj} , the canopy volume to be sprayed per unit time
171 ($\text{m}^3 \text{min}^{-1}$) at section j ; and i_o , the objective application coefficient (L m^{-3}).

172 The prototype was developed to be capable of a variable application rate
173 according to the canopy variations along the crop line by proper modification of the

174 nozzle flow rate. This fundamental concept is opposite to that widely used in the
175 conventional spray application process, where the nozzle flow rate is maintained
176 constant along the track independent of the canopy characteristics. The conventional
177 spray application process produces an uneven liquid distribution in relation with canopy
178 variations to result in different values of the actual application coefficient (i_a) and to
179 generally create an overdose where the canopy volume is low and deficiencies when it
180 is high.

181

182 2.2. *Sprayer design*

183 A conventional air-blast orchard sprayer (Hardi LE-600 BK/2 with a centrifugal
184 fan having a 400-mm diameter) was used as the prototype for variable application. The
185 sprayer was equipped with a 600-L tank capacity and six individual and adjustable
186 outlets (three on each side of the machine); up to five nozzles could be arranged on each
187 outlet. A stainless steel mast was fitted in the front part of the sprayer as close as
188 possible to the centre axis of the machine (Figure 1). Three ultrasonic sensors were
189 fitted to the mast, and the distance between them could be adjusted according to the
190 canopy dimensions. A GPS antenna was also installed on top of the mast so that a GPS
191 receiver could be used to evaluate the uniformity of the forward speed along the track
192 and to record geographical coordinates. The sensors continuously estimated the canopy
193 width from only the left side of the sprayer. All the sensors were connected to a
194 controller placed in a waterproof box located on the rear right side of the sprayer. The
195 controller was a Compact Field Point (National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA)
196 equipped with analogue and digital input/output modules (see part 1). A rugged
197 computer and wireless router were also connected to remotely monitor and control the
198 system. A box containing three sets of electrovalves (proportional and on-off), an

199 electronic flow meter, and a general pressure sensor were installed on top of the sprayer
200 at the rear. Individual pressure sensors were also placed at every single manifold.

201

202 FIGURE 1

203

204 The operational parameters for each intended spray application were first
205 selected and transmitted wirelessly to the system through a laptop placed in the tractor
206 cab (Figure 2). Specific software programmed in Labview® (National Instruments,
207 Austin, TX, USA) was developed to control and program the entire system. The
208 technical specifications of the components (Table 2) were selected according to the
209 particular working conditions in the field (e.g. working temperature, vibration,
210 protection against liquids and dust) and their capacity for data acquisition and
211 management. Figure 3 shows the connection scheme for all the components.

212

213 FIGURE 2 AND FIGURE 3

214

215 *2.3. Function of the prototype*

216 The principle of functioning is as follows. The entire canopy structure was
217 divided into three levels: low, medium, and high. For each individual level (Figure 4),
218 variations in the canopy width were measured and recorded. The variations in canopy
219 width for half of the row were measured by every single ultrasonic sensor at different
220 heights following Equation [3]:

$$221 \quad C_{wj} = r/2 - d_j - e \quad [3]$$

222 where C_{wj} is the canopy width (m) for half of the row at height j ; r , the distance between
223 crop rows (m); d_j , the distance measured from the sensor to the external layout of the

224 canopy (m) at height j ; and e , the distance between the sensor and central axis of the
225 sprayer (m), assuming an equidistant displacement of the sprayer between two adjacent
226 crop lines.

227

228 FIGURE 4

229

230 According to the principle for functioning of the ultrasonic sensors, the electrical
231 output signal for each single measurement was transformed into distance based on an
232 calibration curve (see Part 1) obtained experimentally under laboratory conditions.

233 Equation [4] presents that relation:

$$234 \quad d_j = -14,215 \times V_{in} + 181,21 \quad [4]$$

235 where d_j is the measured distance from the sensor to the external layout of the canopy
236 (m) at height j and V_{in} , the electrical output signal (V) emitted by the ultrasonic sensor.

237 The sampling frequency of the sensor (f) was adapted to 12.5 Hz (80 ms between
238 two consecutive measurements) in order to obtain an average of at least 10
239 measurements per metre of travel distance for proper adjustment of the sprayer (Balsari
240 *et al.*, 2002). This sampling frequency resulted in a canopy volume slice length (S_L) of
241 0.1 m for an average forward speed of 1.25 m s^{-1} (maximum: 1.38 m s^{-1} ; minimum: 1.11
242 m s^{-1} ; CV: 4.06%) according to the GPS data. This value was then used to estimate the
243 canopy volume to be sprayed for each single measurement. For each single value, the
244 system then calculated the canopy volume at different heights (C_{vj}). Consequently, the
245 independent flow rate to be delivered individually by each of the three manifolds is
246 shown in Equation [5]:

$$247 \quad q_j = 60 \times C_{Wj} \times \frac{1}{3} C_H \times S_{Lj} \times f \times i_o \quad [5]$$

248 where q_j is the individual flow rate (L min^{-1}) at manifold j (two nozzles); C_{wj} , the
249 canopy width (m) for half of the row at height j ; C_H , the total canopy height (m); S_{Lj} , the
250 canopy length according to the sampling resolution (m) corresponding to the sampling
251 frequency; f , the sampling frequency (Hz); and i_o , the objective application coefficient
252 (0.095 L m^{-3}). The principle of the variable rate application prototype was to adapt the
253 emitted flow rate for every manifold to the variations in canopy geometry along the vine
254 row. To assess the capabilities of the prototype, all the actual application coefficients
255 (i_a) were compared with the objective coefficient (i_o) for the entire range of canopy
256 width measurements.

257 Variations in the flow rate for each manifold were controlled by three
258 electromagnetic high frequency solenoid variable rate valves. This valve modified the
259 flow rate in a continuous manner according to an external control signal (0–10 V)
260 provided by the controller depending on the canopy volume (all voltages appearing in
261 this paper are DC quantities). The chosen valve was a normally closed Posiflow ¼"
262 (ASCO/JOUCOMATIC S.A., Rueil-Malmaison, France) placed on top of the sprayer at
263 the rear (Figure 5).

264

265 FIGURE 5

266

267 The solenoid of the valve was supplied with a 300 Hz Pulse Width Modulate
268 (PWM) 24-V signal with a duty cycle proportionally modified according to the external
269 control signal. This operation was performed by the driver of the valve to result in a
270 continuous variation of the position of an internal plunger causing a variation in the
271 flow rate. The intended flow rate, calculated according to equation [5], was then
272 converted into an electrical control signal to be delivered to each variable rate

273 electrovalve. The conversion of the desired flow rate into the electrical control signal
274 was performed according to the calibration curve (Figure 6), which is represented by
275 equation [6], experimentally obtained for the solenoid valves (see part 1):

$$276 \quad V_{out} = 0.2354 \times e^{5.4304q_j} \quad [6]$$

277 where V_{out} is the electrical control signal sent to the electrovalve (V) and q_j is the
278 desired flow rate to be delivered at manifold j ($L \text{ min}^{-1}$).

279

280 **FIGURE 6**

281

282 Because of the technical characteristics of the electromagnetic valves and
283 ultrasonic sensors and their locations relative to the centre of the sprayer (see Figure 1),
284 the maximum ranging distance of the sensors (d_{max}) was limited to 0.7 m for a row
285 spacing (r) of 3.0 m. The system could not estimate the distance for values higher than
286 0.7 m (corresponding to thin row semi-widths) because this exceeded the measurement
287 range of the ultrasonic sensors. In these situations, the electrovalves turned off
288 automatically to interrupt the spray emission. All measured distances below 0.7 m were
289 then transformed into the required flow rate (q_j) following equation [5], and the
290 corresponding working pressure was then calculated. Because of the hydraulic
291 requirements of the solenoid valves, the differential pressure ($\max \Delta p = 8.0 \text{ bar}$) had to
292 be limited so that the system could be turned off completely when no vegetation was
293 detected. This meant that the maximum working pressure (p_{max}) was initially set at 8.0
294 bar. On the other hand, the lower limit working pressure (p_{min}) on the system was
295 established at 3.0 bar in order to guarantee that the nozzles generated an adequate spray
296 pattern and droplet size spectrum. As a consequence of these two limitations and with
297 the aim of maintaining the working pressure within the most suitable range for optimal

298 actuation of the solenoid valves, three pressure intervals were established in order to
299 adjust the final emitted flow rate to the crop width: lower than 3.0 bar (p_{min}), between
300 3.0 and 11.0 bar, and higher than 11.0 bar (p_{max}). The system was implemented with
301 three on-off electrovalves to allow the complete closure of the system for locations
302 without a canopy. Canopy width measurements obtained with the three ultrasonic
303 sensors and the working pressure detected by the three pressure sensors in the system
304 were automatically recorded and related in pairs. In order to quantify the ability of the
305 system to modify the applied volume according to the canopy geometry variations, the
306 measured canopy volumes and corresponding working pressure selected by the
307 prototype were compared separately for each individual ultrasonic sensor in every test.

308 Based on this scenario, the theoretical and practical ranges of actuation for the
309 two brown hollow cone Albus ATR nozzles on each manifold are shown in Figure 7.
310 For the pressure range between 3.0 and 11.0 bar, the combination of the nozzle flow rate
311 for the selected nozzles, technical characteristics of the ultrasonic sensors, and objective
312 application coefficient (i_o) resulted in a crop width range (C_{Wj}) of 25.0–40.0 cm, which
313 is equivalent to a canopy volume (C_{Vj}) of 0.22–0.525 m³. Thus, the prototype was
314 adjusted so that the nozzle flow rate could be automatically modified only for a canopy
315 width (C_{Wj}) of 25.0–40 cm. Crop zones with a measured crop width (C_{Wj}) less than 25.0
316 cm but more than 0 cm (no crop) were sprayed at a constant pressure (p_{min}) of 3.0 bar;
317 crop zones with a measured canopy width greater than 40.0 cm were sprayed at a
318 constant pressure (p_{max}) of 11.0 bar.

319

320 FIGURE 7

321

322 2.4. Flowchart and system management process

323 The system starts to run when the control unit is turned on (Figure 8) and
324 prompts for the introduction of specific spraying parameters related to the crop
325 characteristics (row distance, objective application coefficient, forward speed, and
326 maximum crop height). The data acquisition system begins to receive information from
327 the ultrasonic sensors (V_{in}), electronic flow meter, and pressure sensors installed in the
328 system. All data are then managed and processed in the controller, where signals
329 acquired from each of the ultrasonic sensors are transformed first into canopy volume,
330 then into intended flow rate, and finally into an electric control signal (V_{out}) to be sent to
331 the corresponding solenoid valve.

332

333 FIGURE 8

334

335 The algorithm flowchart (Figure 9) illustrates the following description. A
336 reading of the ultrasonic sensors is performed every 0.1 m along the row. At an average
337 forward speed of $v = 4.5 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, the period of the software loop is $t = 80 \text{ ms}$. For each
338 measured data, the system determines the distance from the sensor to the nearest vine
339 foliage. According to equation [3], this value is transformed into crop width (C_{wj}). All
340 conversions are based on a defined vine row-to-row spacing distance (r) and the
341 assumption that the sprayer travelled along the centre line between rows (Giles *et al.*,
342 1989b); potential errors were assumed to derive from the difficulty in maintaining the
343 tractor in the exact centre of the row (Zaman *et al.*, 2007). Once the distance (d_j) has
344 been determined by each of the ultrasonic sensors and the range readings are converted
345 into crop width (C_{wj}), the system transforms those values into the required flow rate per
346 manifold (q_j) according to equation [5] in order to apply the required amount of liquid in
347 proportion to the vine row width variations. As every manifold was equipped with two

348 Albus ATR brown hollow cone nozzles (Saint-Gobain Ceramiques Avancees
349 Desmarquest, Evreux, France), the flow rate for a single nozzle was calculated
350 according to equation [7]:

$$351 \quad q_n = 0.2262 \times p_j^{0.4487} \quad [7]$$

352 where q_n is the individual flow rate per nozzle (L min^{-1}) and p_j is the working pressure
353 on sector j (bar).

354 The previously described pressure range of actuation of the prototype and the
355 pre-established maximum and minimum values need to be included in the mathematical
356 expression to convert the intended flow rate into the needed working pressure for the
357 selected nozzles. Equation [8] indicates this relationship and was the criterion in the
358 software for selecting among the different options regarding the pressure range for
359 actuation of the prototype (Figure 7):

$$360 \quad p_j = 24.336 \times q_n^{2.0655} \quad [8]$$

361 where p_j is the working pressure on sector j (bar) and q_n is the individual flow rate per
362 nozzle (L min^{-1}).

363

364 FIGURE 9

365

366 2.4. Characterisation of droplet size spectrum

367 In order to evaluate the influence of pressure variations on the droplet size
368 spectrum generated by the prototype, a replicate of a single element of the sprayer
369 composed of a manifold, two brown ATR hollow cone nozzles, one proportional
370 electromagnetic valve, and one on-off valve was assembled and tested at the
371 Department of Agriculture, forestry and Food (DiSAFA) of the University of Turin. A
372 Malvern Spraytec (Malvern Instruments Ltd., Worcestershire, UK) was used to measure

373 the droplet size (Dodge *et al.*, 1987). The purpose was to determine the droplet size
374 variations in the previously defined range of variable working pressure of the prototype.
375 The entire replicate was installed in the centre of the laser chamber and fed with water
376 at different working pressures (3.0–11.0 bar). The working pressure was adjusted in
377 stepwise fashion (1.0 bar increments) by modification of the electric signal (V) received
378 by the electromagnetic valve. The measurements were performed three times at every
379 pressure value with the objective of determining the droplet spectra and its variation for
380 the entire pressure range.

381

382 2.6. Field trials

383 In order to evaluate the performance and accuracy of the developed prototype,
384 different field trials were arranged at *Castell del Remei*, a 70-ha wine farm, in Lleida,
385 Spain. A conventional application procedure at a constant application volume rate (L ha⁻¹)
386 according to the most commonly adopted practices at the farm was compared with the
387 variable application volume rate using the prototype. Two vine varieties (Merlot and
388 Cabernet Sauvignon) were sprayed in 2009 and 2010 at two different growth stages:
389 BBCH- 75 and BBCH-85 (Meier, 2001). Both the variable application procedure and
390 the conventional procedure were carried out using the same tractor and sprayer. The use
391 of the same sprayer was possible because the device was installed on the control system
392 of the prototype, which allowed the proportional or conventional application procedure
393 to be selected. Table 3 lists the working parameters for the field tests. In addition to the
394 engineering and electronic parameters explained and discussed in the previous sections,
395 the spray deposition on the canopy was comprehensively evaluated during the field
396 trials (Gil *et al.*, 2007; Llorens *et al.*, 2010).

397

398 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

399 *3.1. Droplet size measurements*

400 The results (Table 4) showed a uniform droplet size (*VMD*) with a narrow
401 variation from 109.71 μm (3.0 bar) to 88.70 μm (11.0 bar). The droplet sizes for the
402 entire measured range were from fine-F (3.0–4.0 bar) to very fine-VF (4.0–11.0 bar)
403 according to BCPC classification (Doble *et al.*, 1985). Table 4 lists additional
404 information about $Dv0.1$ and $Dv0.9$ the relative span values to characterise the variation
405 in droplet size for the spray spectrum. The obtained results indicate that the working
406 pressure influenced the average droplet size but was not as important as initially
407 expected.

408

409 *3.2. Accuracy of measurements and system response*

410 The theoretical working pressure range on the circuit was established according
411 to the technical characteristics of the ultrasonic sensors and selected nozzle type. The
412 prototype was developed with the aim of modifying the working conditions based on
413 the ultrasonic sensor's measurements. The delay between the data acquisition from the
414 sensor and the system response (solenoid electrovalve actuation) implied an elapsed
415 time during which the theoretical pressure was different from that intended (see the
416 explanation about laboratory measurements in part 1). Even after experimental
417 calibration of the system, which included this calculated elapsed time on the software,
418 some deviations were observed and quantified. These differences can be represented as
419 the comparison between the electrical signal sent to the electromagnetic valve and the
420 measured pressure achieved in the system (Figure 10). In general, a small diminution in
421 the obtained pressure was detected during the process. Of interest was the high
422 variability of the pressure in the system compared with the more stable electrical signal

423 received by the electrovalves, as a consequence of the stabilization time required by the
424 prototype.

425

426 FIGURE 10

427

428 *3.3. Distribution of canopy measurements obtained with ultrasonic sensors*

429 Figure 11 graphically represents all the measurements made separately for each
430 vine variety, crop stage, and year. In all cases, a great similitude was observed with the
431 expected theoretical curve (Figure 7) independent of the sensor placement (bottom,
432 middle, or top). Most of the actual working pressure values achieved in the system
433 during the variable application process were close to the theoretical line established in
434 Figure 7. This effect is shown in Figure 11, where only few points are far away from the
435 intended curve. It is also interesting to note that the lack of differences in the amount of
436 ‘failed points’ can be attributed to the different placements of the sensors (top, middle,
437 or bottom). In terms of the measurement distribution, the results corresponding to the
438 early canopy stage, BBCH 75 in 2009 and 2010, indicated a low measurement density
439 in the zones corresponding to high canopy width (over 0.40 m width); the lowest
440 measurement density occurred at the upper and lower levels of the canopy. The
441 differences in slope in the variable segment of the curve (pressure range of 3.0–11.0
442 bar) indicated that there was less variability in the canopy width in the early stages of
443 the 2009 and 2010 field trials for the two vine varieties. Regarding the relative
444 distribution of the measurement points in the defined intervals (Table 5), around one-
445 fourth of the points (23.14%) were classified in the variable range of actuation of the
446 prototype, and around one-half of the measurements (46.0%) were classified with

447 narrow canopy geometry (canopy width < 25 cm). The percentage of zero values (zones
448 without vegetation) was very similar among all varieties and crop stages.

449

450 FIGURE 11

451

452 3.4. Application coefficient: actual versus objective

453 Results were grouped according to the sensor placement (top, middle, and
454 bottom positions); for each group, the values of the actual application coefficient (i_a)
455 were compared with the intended values, i.e. objective application coefficients (i_o). This
456 comparison was done not only with the results obtained with the prototype using
457 variable rate technology but also with the actual application coefficient values (i_a)
458 generated during the conventional application process. Figure 12 plots the results for
459 every variety, crop stage, and year. A detailed analysis of those curves indicates that, in
460 all cases, the resulting application rate for conventional spraying was close to the
461 intended value (horizontal line on the graphics) only for large canopy widths (right-
462 hand side part of the curves). Meanwhile, the actual application coefficient (i_a) delivered
463 with the prototype acting as a variable rate technology (point clouds) was much closer
464 to the objective, especially in the previously defined canopy width range corresponding
465 to the variable application. Differences among varieties and crop stages were observed
466 in the zones corresponding to very low and very high canopy widths (left- and right-
467 hand side parts of the curves, respectively). For those cases, a spray overdose was
468 detected in the narrow canopy areas as a consequence of the previously established
469 minimum working pressure of the system (3.0 bar). However, the differences were
470 much smaller than those observed for the conventional application. On the other hand,
471 the pre-established maximum working pressure on the system ($p_{max} = 11$ bar) resulted,

472 in some cases, in a deficit of the spray delivered (right-hand side part of the curves) with
473 some values under the horizontal line representing the objective application coefficient
474 (i_o).

475

476 FIGURE 12

477

478 3.5. *Quantification of potential pesticide saving*

479 A mathematical analysis of these results was used to estimate the potential
480 pesticide savings. These savings were represented by the area between the curve formed
481 by the actual application coefficient (i_a) for conventional application and the curve
482 plotted with the i_a generated with the proportional application method. Because of the
483 influence of the canopy geometry on the obtained results, two different zones were
484 independently evaluated (Figure 13): the first corresponded to canopy volumes smaller
485 than 0.22 m^3 ($C_{vj} \leq 0.22 \text{ m}^3$) and the second corresponded to zones with canopy
486 volumes greater than 0.22 m^3 ($C_{vj} > 0.22 \text{ m}^3$). These intervals in canopy volume (C_{vj})
487 were respectively linked to canopy widths ($C_{wj} \leq 0.25 \text{ m}$ and $C_{wj} > 0.25 \text{ m}$) measured
488 by ultrasonic sensors. The mathematical expression of the curves was obtained for these
489 two intervals (Table 6), and the potential savings were estimated by integration of the
490 area between these two curves using the basic statistic package R® (R Development
491 Core Team, 2010). The results indicated an average potential saving of 21.9% (Figure
492 14). There was a higher saving potential in the narrow canopy zones of $C_{wj} \leq 0.22 \text{ m}$
493 (upper graphic), which had average savings of 31.4%. This value dropped to 12.5%
494 average for zones with a canopy width of over 0.22 m (lower graphic on Figure 14).
495 These results indicated a similar response by the prototype that was independent of the
496 canopy variation; instead, it was influenced by the crop stage and sensor position. In

497 general, these estimated saving values correlated with the results of previous research
498 (Escolà *et al.*, 2007; Llorens *et al.*, 2010), and can be directly related with more precise
499 and safe use of plant protection products in accordance with the new European
500 Directive for the sustainable use of pesticides (European Parliament, 2009).

501

502 FIGURES 13 AND 14

503

504 **4. Conclusions**

505 Canopy characteristics have a substantial influence on spray deposition, and
506 some of the main parameters in the crop structure must be used to define the optimal
507 application volume rate. The prototype developed in this research allows ‘real-time’
508 quantification of the canopy volume being sprayed during the application process. Our
509 results demonstrated that this prototype can measure the canopy and instantly modify
510 the working parameters (pressure and nozzle flow rate) for a more accurate and safe
511 liquid distribution.

512 The sensing and control systems of the developed prototype are efficient and
513 reliable enough to detect minor variations in canopy structure, and these measurements
514 can be used to establish a more suitable amount of pesticide according to the target
515 characteristics. Based on the results of this study, a considerable amount of pesticides
516 can be saved using available new technologies for characterising the canopy structure
517 along the row. This conclusion is in concordance with those obtained in other similar
518 works (Jeon *et al.*, 2011; Zaman *et al.*, 2011).

519 Difficulties encountered during canopy measurements because of technical
520 limitations of the devices (principally, the ultrasonic sensor and solenoid valves) can be
521 avoided by replacing them with similar tools with higher accuracy. Other external

522 factors such as the maintenance of the driving path along the vine row (Zaman *et al.*,
523 2007) or the influence of external conditions (Jeon *et al.*, 2011) can have a greater
524 influence in some instances than the internal error resulting from the instrument itself.
525 Further development of the prototype should consider implementation with a precise
526 guidance tool such as RTK GPS.

527 The potential savings in the amount of PPP when using the developed prototype
528 were demonstrated. However, the system needs to be improved in order to achieve a
529 more robust and user-friendly sprayer for variable dosage of PPP. The problems
530 encountered during the field trials demonstrated a need for developing an easy-to-use
531 and low-cost commercial unit that growers can adopt without too many difficulties (Lee
532 *et al.*, 2010).

533

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542

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Table 1 Canopy parameters and their relationship with diverse dose expression models.
Relationship among diverse dose expression models

	GA ¹	LWA ²	TRV ³
<i>Factors affecting dose expression</i>			
<i>r</i>	$D_{GA} = D/r$		
<i>C_h</i>		$D_{LWA} = \frac{D}{C_h}$	$D_{TRV} = \frac{D}{C_h \times C_w}$
<i>C_w</i>			
<i>Relation between dose expression modes</i>			
GA			
LWA	$D_{GA} = \frac{D_{LWA} \times C_h}{r}$		
TRV	$D_{GA} = \frac{D_{TRV} \times C_h \times C_w}{r}$	$D_{TRV} = \frac{D_{LWA}}{C_w}$	

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678

¹Litres per hectare of ground area

²Litres per hectare of leaf wall area

³Litres per hectare of ground area for a tree volume of 10,000 m³ ha⁻¹

679 Table 2 Technical specifications of the components used in the prototype

Components	Model Manufacturer	Characteristics	Signal characteristics	Accuracy	Power supply
Ultrasonic sensor	Sonar-Bero Compact II 3RG6115-3GF00 Siemens	400÷3,000 mm	0÷10 V _{DC}	1.5%	24 V _{DC}
Variable rate valve	SCG202A052V Asco Joucomatic	Internal diameter 2.4 mm	0÷10 V _{DC}	3%	24 V _{DC}
ON/OFF valve	SC8374S402 Asco Joucomatic	ON/OFF	12 V _{DC}	---	24 V _{DC}
Pressure sensor	1000BGB2502A3UA GEMS Sensors	0÷25 bar	4÷20 mA	0.25%	8÷30 V _{DC}
Electromagnetic flow meter	Flow sensor-15 mm RS Amidata S.A.	1.50÷30.0 L/min	1,200 pulses/litre	1.5%	12 V _{DC}
Compact field Point controller	cFP-2120 National Instruments	188 MHz processor 128 MB SDRAM	1 Ethernet port 3 RS232 ports 1 RS485 port	---	11÷30 V _{DC}
Analogue input module	cFP-AI-100 National Instruments	8 voltage or current input channels	-30÷30 V _{DC} -20÷20 mA	---	11÷30 V _{DC}
Analogue output module	cFP-AO-210 National Instruments	8 analogue output channels	0÷10 V _{DC}	---	11÷30 V _{DC}
High-speed counter module	cFP-CTR-50 National Instruments	12 input channels 4 output channels	Input: 5÷30 VDC Output: 5÷30 VDC	---	0÷30 V _{DC}
Digital input output module	cFP-DIO-550 National Instruments	8 inputs, 8 outputs	11÷30 V _{DC}	---	11÷30 V _{DC}
GPS	Trimble agGPS332 ARK 3384.	12 channels	NMEA sentences 3 USB 2.0 ports 1 RS232 port	<1 m	12 V _{DC}
Rugged computer	ADVANTECH			---	12 V _{DC}

680

681

682 Table 3 Application parameters during the field tests

Variety	Year	BBCH ¹	LAI ²	Conventional application			Variable application		
				Fwd. speed (km h ⁻¹)	Pressure (bar)	Volume (L ha ⁻¹)	Fwd. speed (km h ⁻¹)	Pressure (bar)	Volume (L ha ⁻¹)
Merlot	2009	85	1.45	4.5	9.0	285	4.5	3–11	0.095
Cabernet Sauvignon	2009	85	0.89	4.5	10.0	283	4.5		
	2010	75	1.75	4.6	7.0	297	4.6		
Merlot	2010	85	1.52	4.6	7.0	265	4.6	3–11	0.095
	2010	75	1.06	4.6	7.0	302	4.6		
Cabernet Sauvignon	2010	85	1.31	4.6	7.0	270	4.6		

683

684 ¹Crop stage according to Meier (2001); ²Leaf area index

685

686 Table 4 Characterisation of the spray spectrum (brown ATR hollow cone nozzles). Values measured using a Malvern Spraytec
 687

Pressure (bar)	$D_{v0.1}$	VMD	$D_{v0.9}$	Relative Span ¹	Droplet Size Classification ²
3	66.59	109.71	168.00	0.92	Fine
4	60.99	103.79	163.06	0.98	Fine
5	56.89	99.66	160.14	1.04	Very Fine
6	55.79	97.93	157.60	1.04	Very Fine
7	47.56	90.87	157.83	1.21	Very Fine
8	48.05	91.05	157.26	1.20	Very Fine
9	44.86	88.33	157.35	1.27	Very Fine
10	45.62	88.88	157.16	1.25	Very Fine
11	45.51	88.70	156.86	1.26	Very Fine

¹Relative span: $(D_{v0.9} - D_{v0.1})/VMD$

²Droplet size classification is based on BCPC classification (Doble *et al.*, 1985)

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691 Table 5 Percentage of measurements for each range of actuation of the prototype
 692

Variety (crop stage)*	Year	US sensor actuation range (cm)			
		$C_{wj} = 0$ (p = 0)	$0 < C_{wj} \leq 25$ (p = 3 bar)	$25 < C_{wj} \leq 40$ (p = f(q))	$C_{wj} > 40$ (p = 11 bar)
Merlot	2009	10.97	50.01	28.42	10.60
Cabernet Sauvignon	2009	23.53	41.77	19.73	14.97
Merlot	2010	11.60	40.01	34.03	14.35
	2010	15.27	50.12	20.44	14.17
Cabernet Sauvignon	2010	23.64	52.28	17.41	6.67
	2010	19.99	41.78	18.79	19.44
Average		17.50	46.00	23.14	13.37

*Crop stage according to Meier (2001)

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 694

695 Table 6 Calculated coefficients for all integrals belonging to conventional and proportional application methods and individual saving values,
 696 which are represented as the area between the curves (v represents the canopy volume (C_{vj}) calculated after the ultrasonic sensor measurements).

Variety (BBCH) Year	Conventional function					Prototype function					Integral (d)	Area (saving) [(a) - (c) + (b) - (d)]			
	$\int_0^{0.22} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.525} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.22} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.525} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.22} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.525} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.22} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.525} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.22} (mv^n) dv$	$\int_0^{0.525} (mv^n) dv$					
Sensor placement	m	n	Integral (a)	m	n	Integral (b)	m	n	Integral (c)	s	t	u			
Cs (85) 2009	US top	0.08	-0.81	0.079	0.08	-0.81	0.055	0.03	-1.05	0.050	-1.06	0.72	0.04	0.046	0.038
	US middle	0.08	-0.81	0.079	0.08	-0.81	0.055	0.03	-0.97	0.042	-1.07	0.72	0.03	0.042	0.050
	US bottom	0.08	-0.81	0.079	0.08	-0.81	0.055	0.03	-0.99	0.044	-1.02	0.62	0.08	0.048	0.042
Me (85) 2009	US top	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.02	-1.13	0.042	-0.69	0.3	0.13	0.042	0.016
	US middle	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.02	-1.03	0.032	-0.79	0.38	0.11	0.041	0.028
	US bottom	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.02	-1.14	0.041	-0.3	-0.05	0.2	0.041	0.018
Cs (75) 2010	US top	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.03	-1.06	0.052	0.18	-0.43	0.26	0.038	0.011
	US middle	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.03	-0.96	0.041	-0.08	-0.22	0.23	0.041	0.019
	US bottom	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.04	-0.87	0.045	-0.09	-0.23	0.22	0.036	0.020
Me (75) 2010	US top	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.05	-0.94	0.066	0.7	-0.87	0.36	0.041	-0.006
	US middle	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.04	-1.03	0.064	0.87	-0.98	0.38	0.042	-0.006
	US bottom	0.06	-0.81	0.059	0.06	-0.81	0.042	0.06	-0.78	0.055	0.91	-0.98	0.35	0.035	0.010
Cs (85) 2010	US top	0.07	-0.81	0.069	0.07	-0.81	0.048	0.03	-1.06	0.052	0.18	-0.43	0.26	0.038	0.028
	US middle	0.07	-0.81	0.069	0.07	-0.81	0.048	0.03	-0.96	0.041	-0.08	-0.22	0.23	0.041	0.035
	US bottom	0.07	-0.81	0.069	0.07	-0.81	0.048	0.04	-0.87	0.045	-0.09	-0.23	0.22	0.036	0.036
Me (85) 2010	US top	0.07	-0.81	0.070	0.07	-0.81	0.048	0.04	-0.88	0.046	0.19	-0.45	0.28	0.042	0.030
	US middle	0.07	-0.81	0.070	0.07	-0.81	0.048	0.03	-1.02	0.047	0.14	-0.39	0.26	0.048	0.023
	US bottom	0.07	-0.81	0.070	0.07	-0.81	0.048	0.04	-0.89	0.047	0.19	-0.42	0.25	0.036	0.035

FIG1

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FIG2

[Click here to download high resolution image](#)



FIG3

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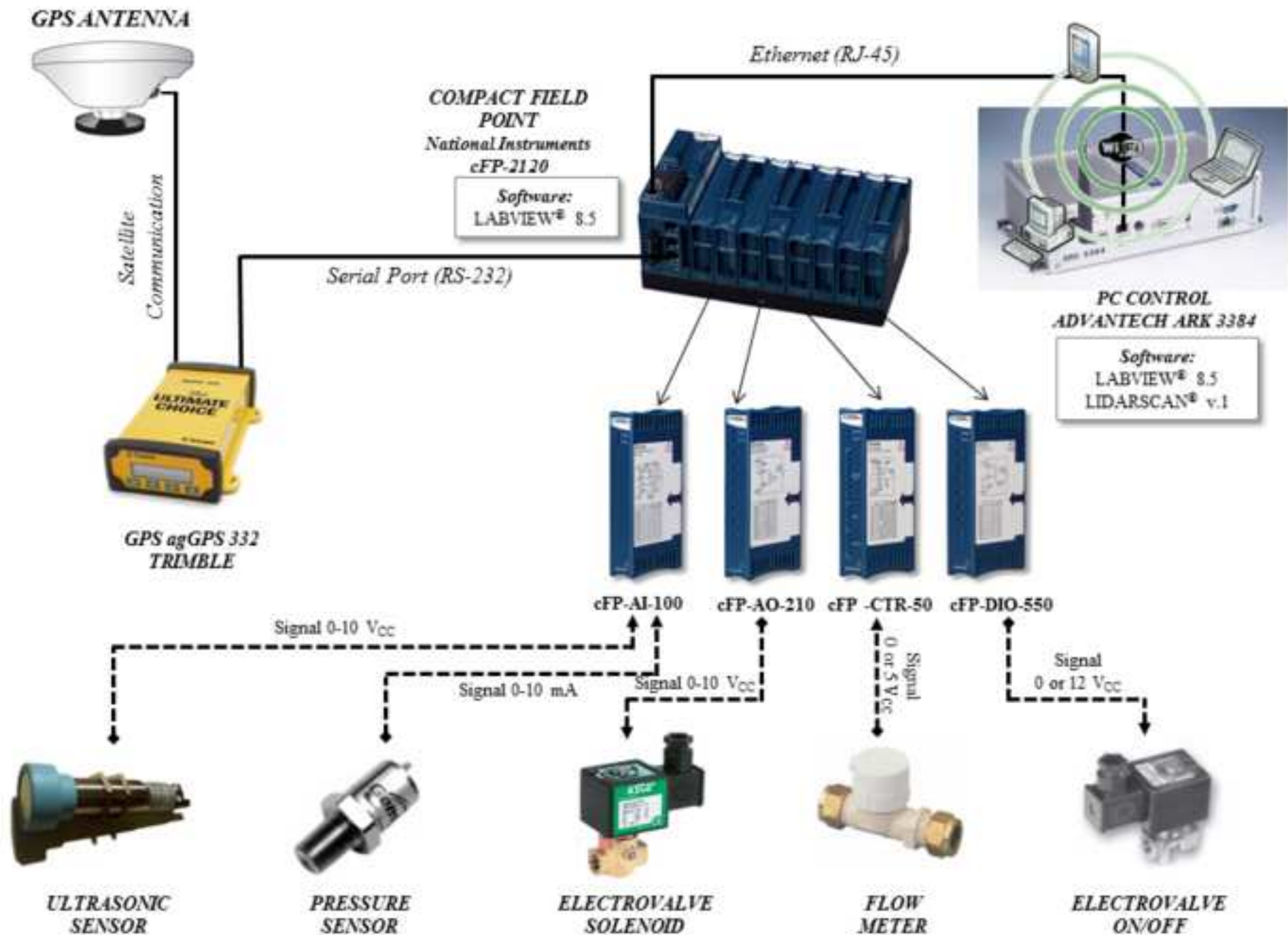


FIG4

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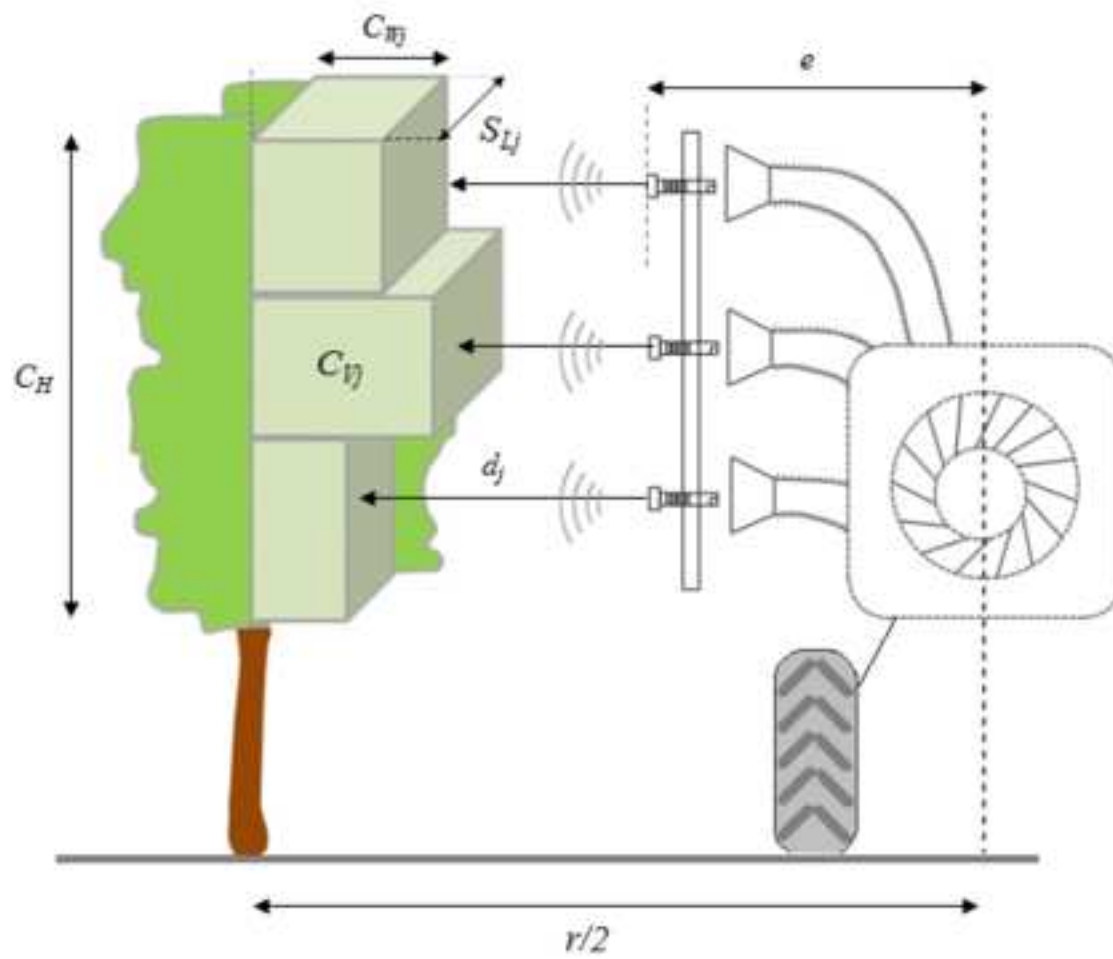


FIG5

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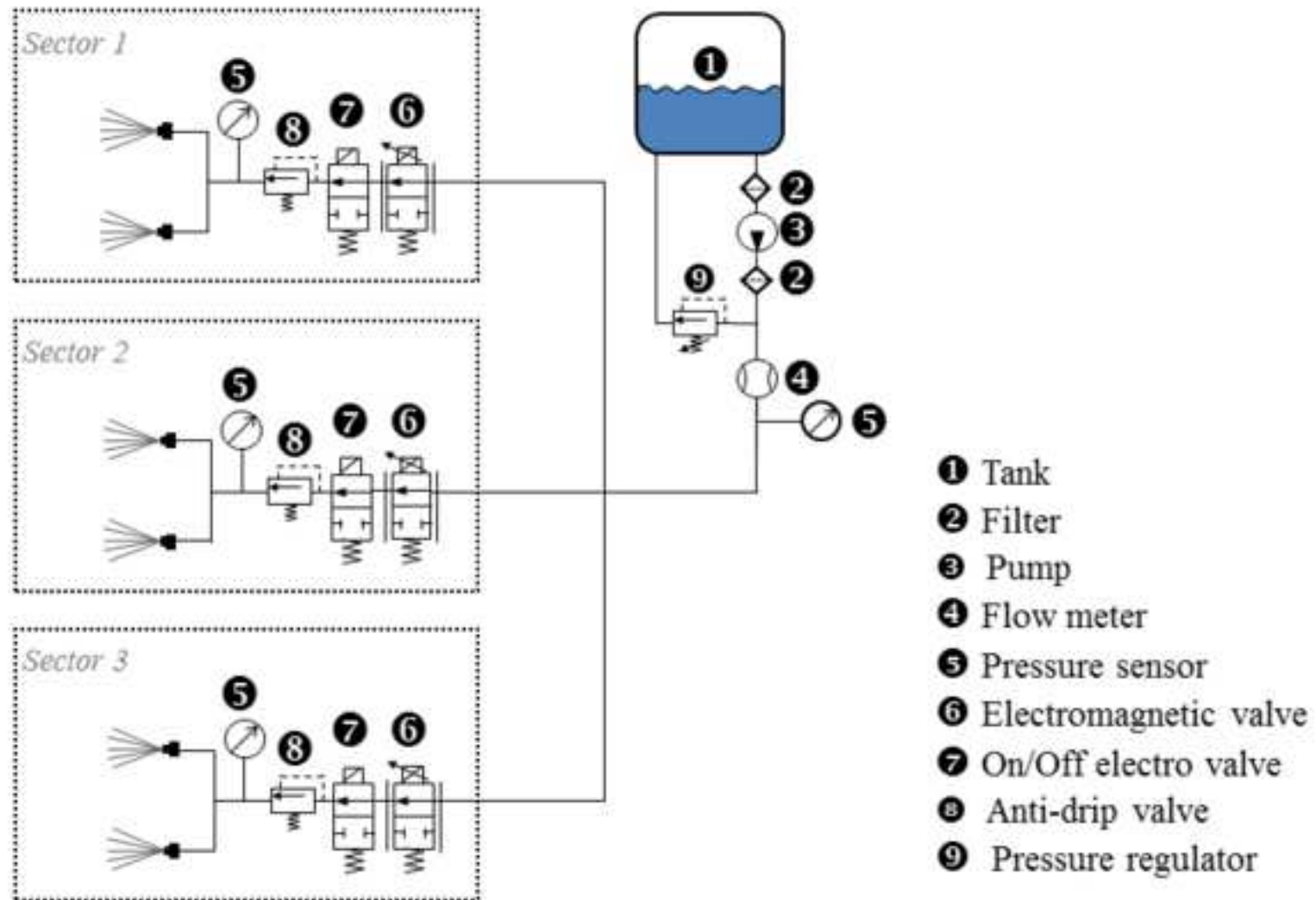


FIG6

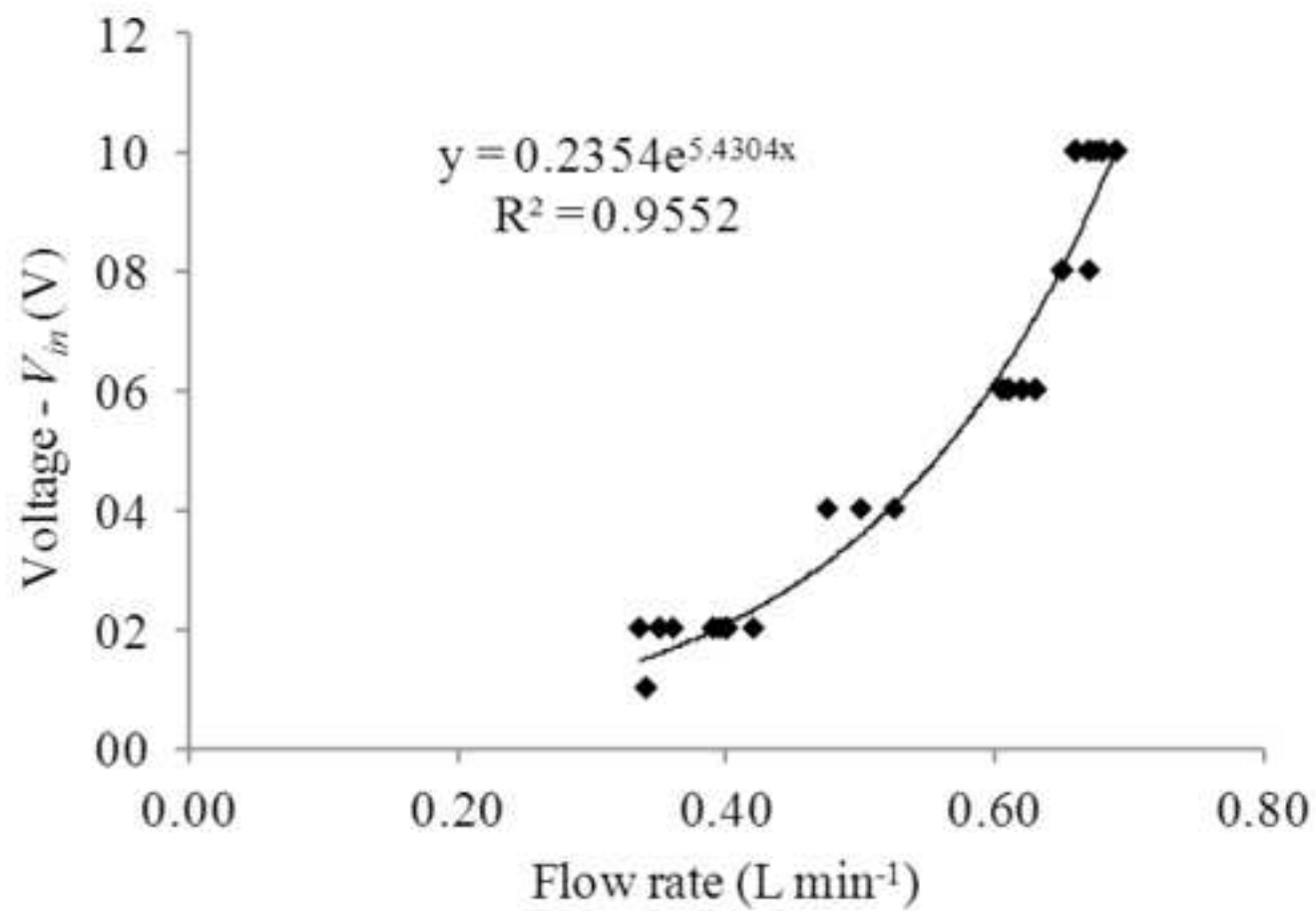
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FIG7

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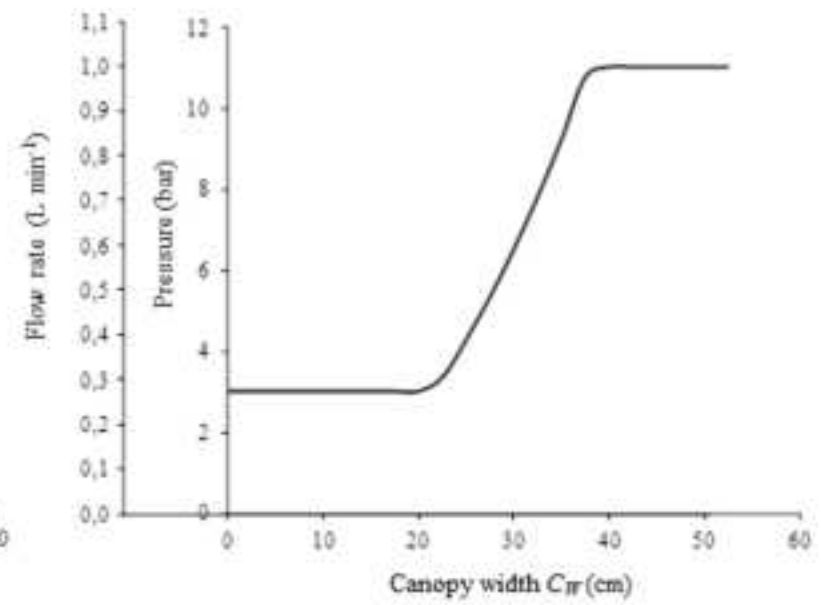
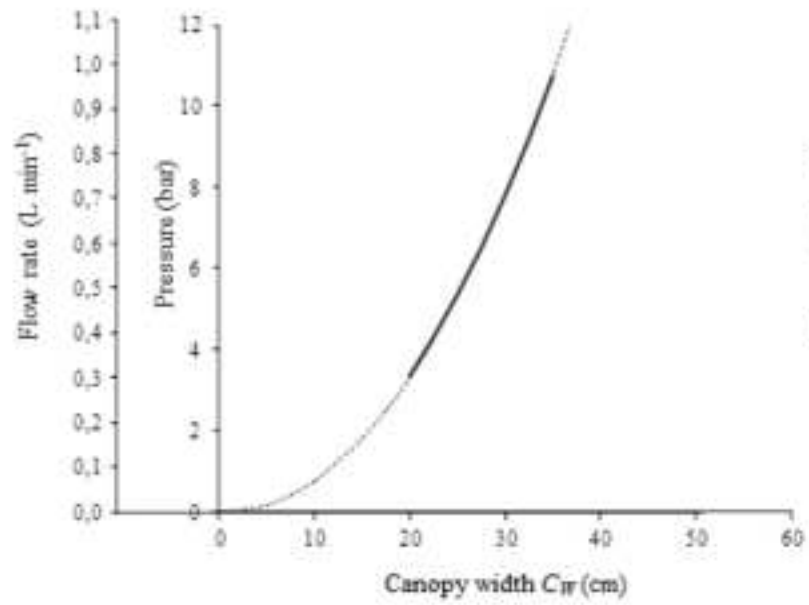


FIG8

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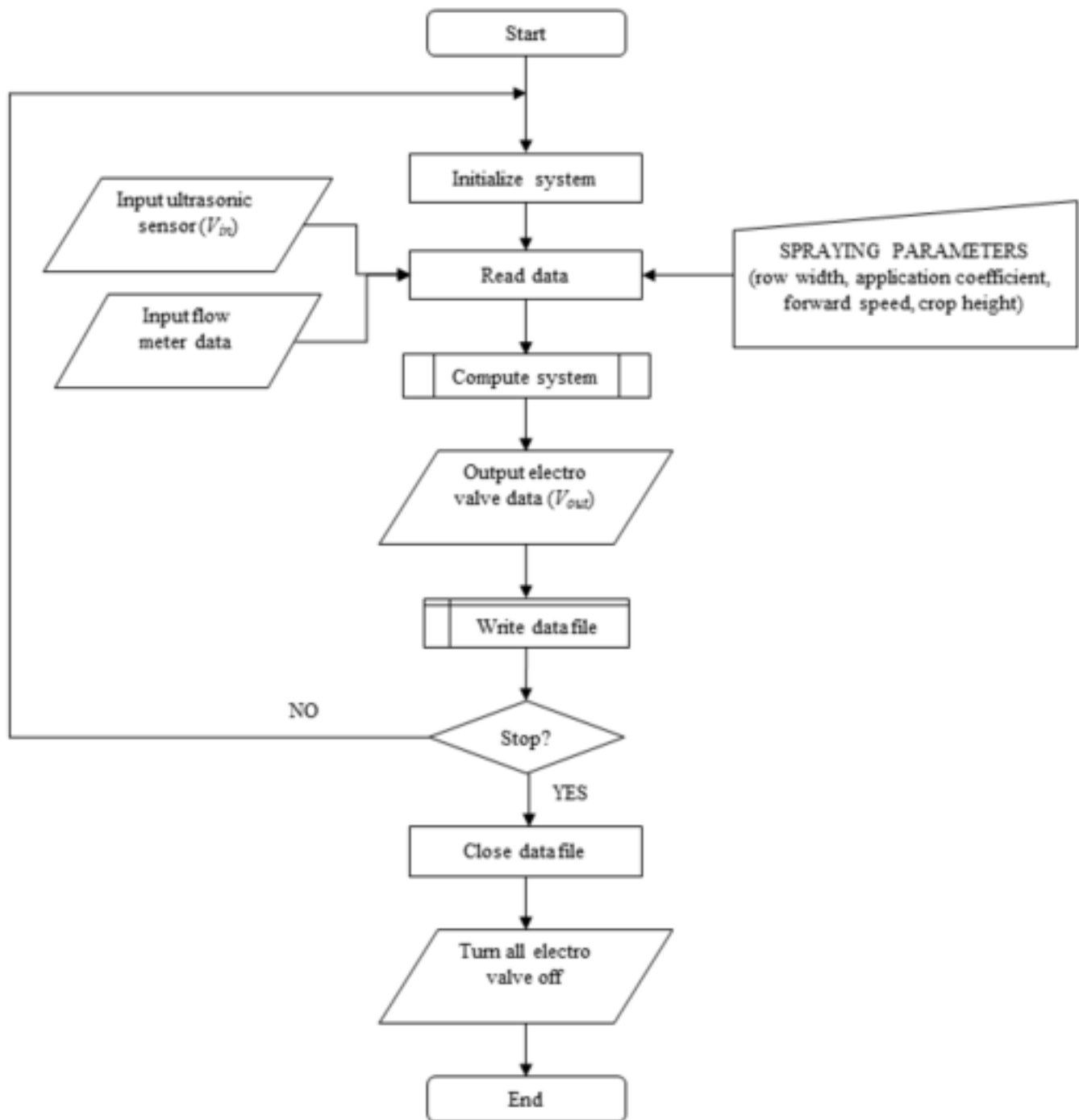


FIG9

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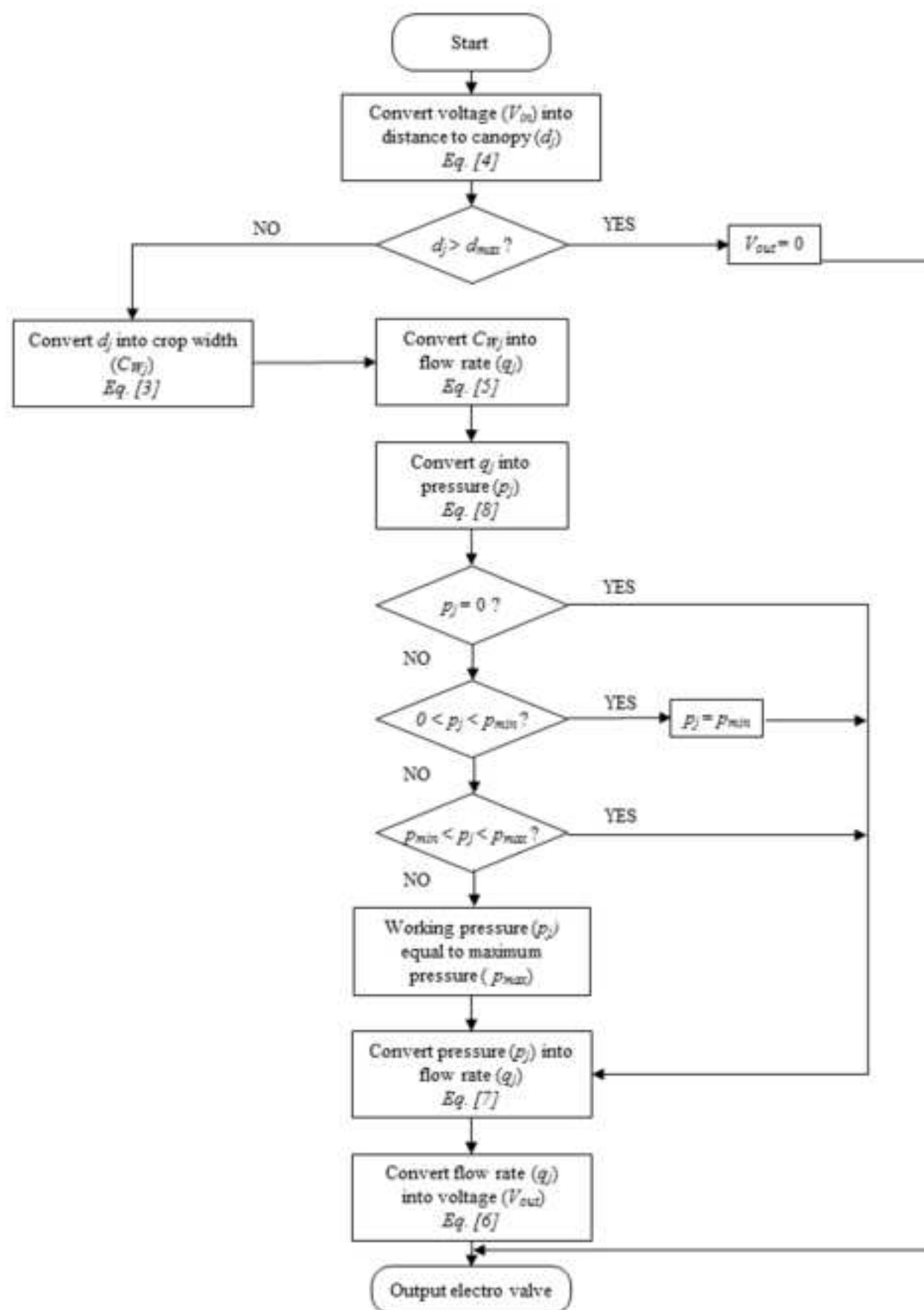


FIG10

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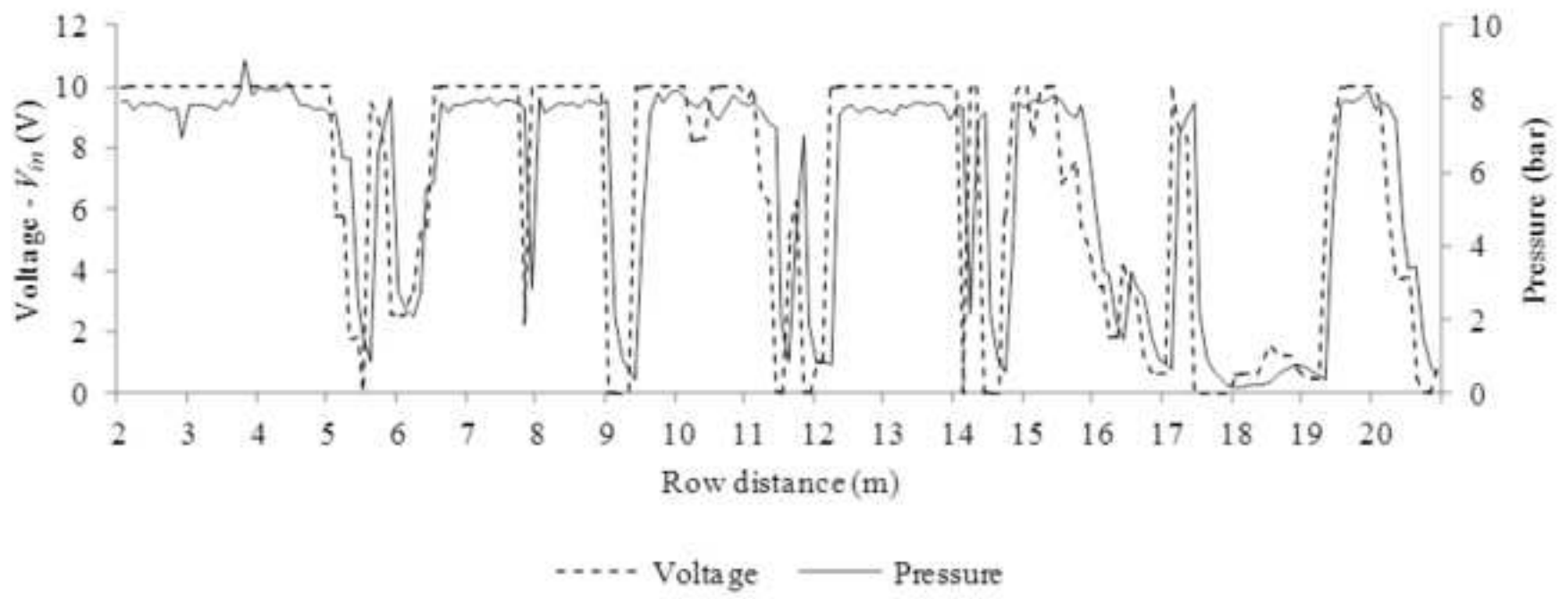


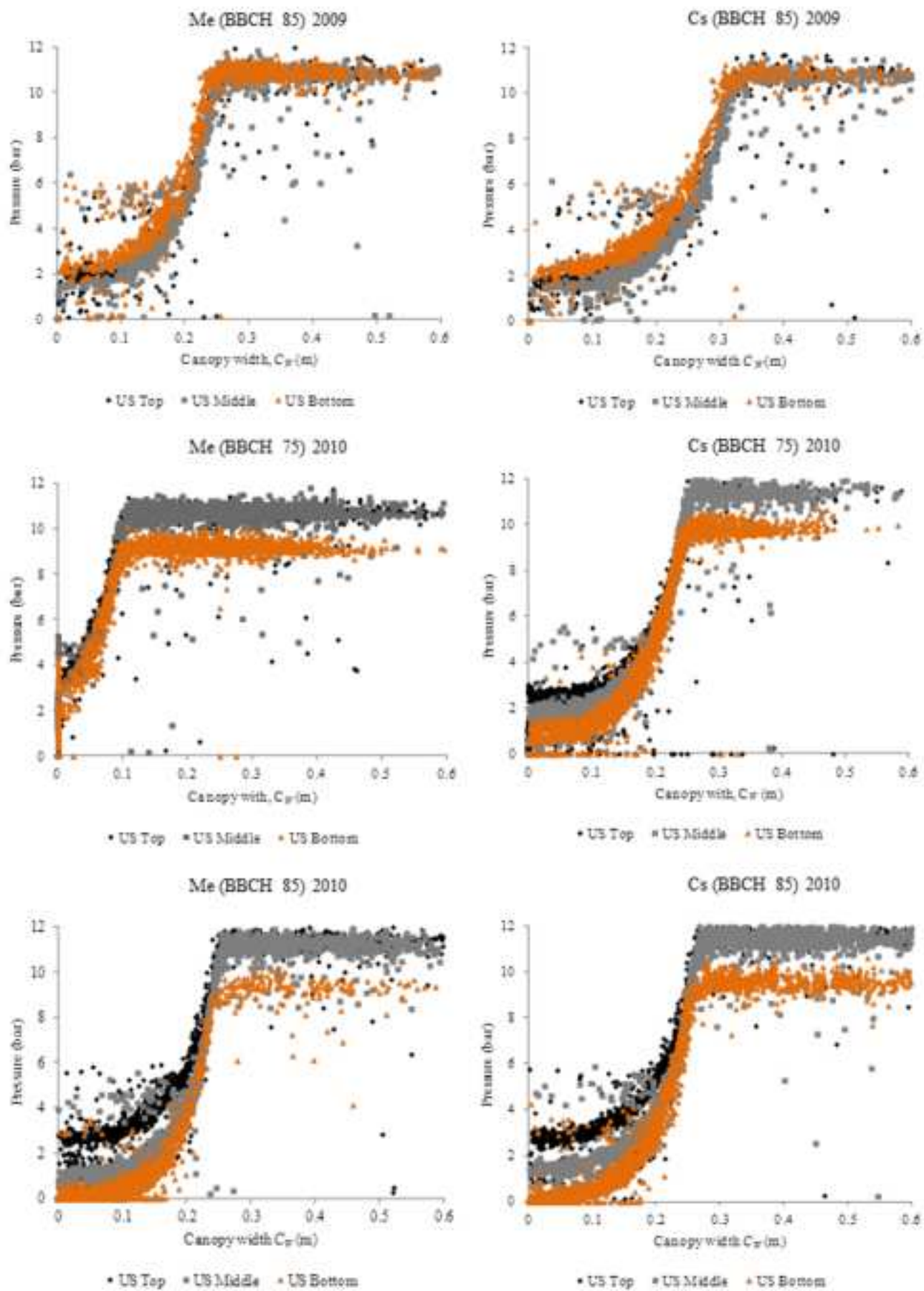
FIG11[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

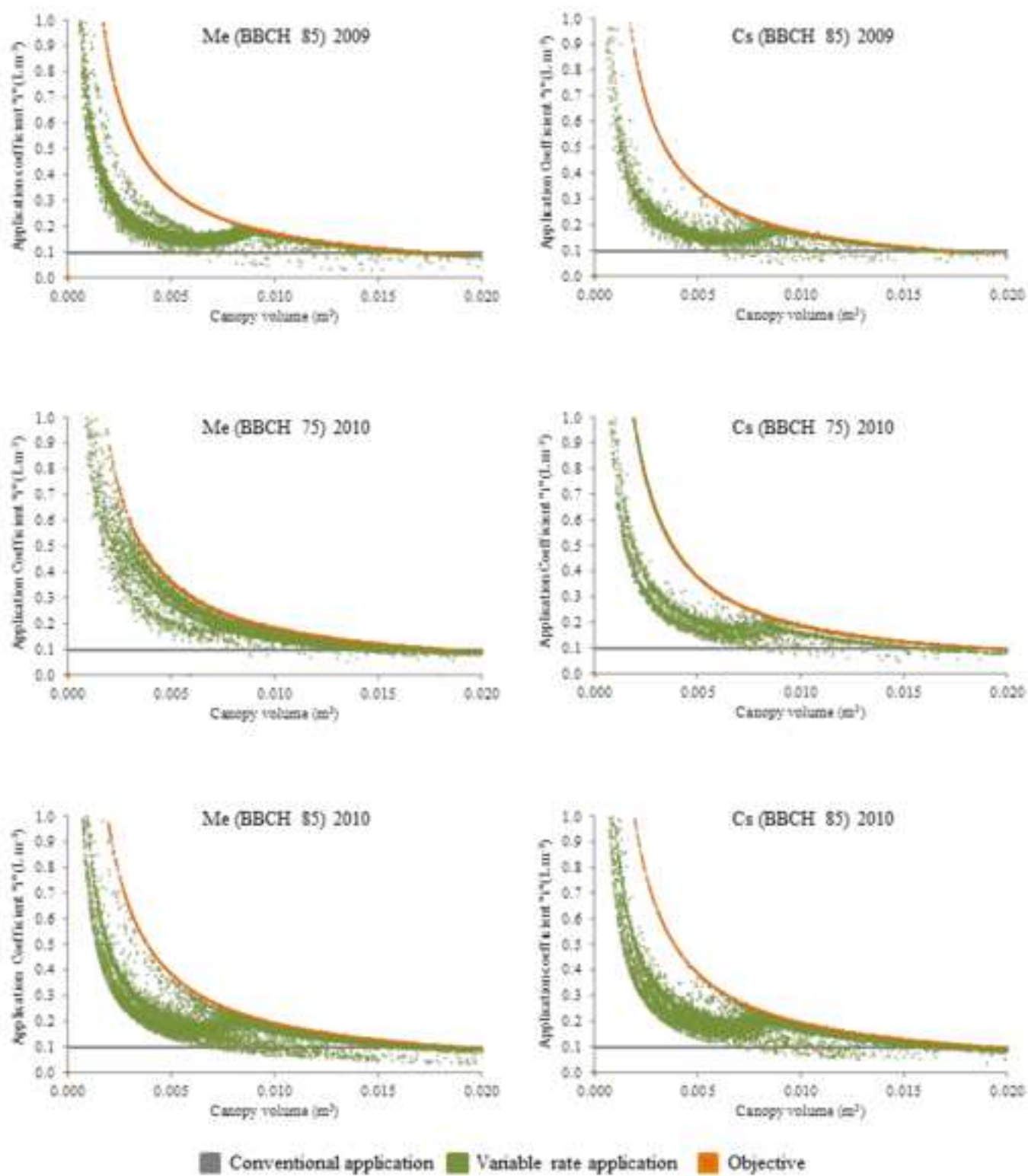
FIG12[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

FIG13

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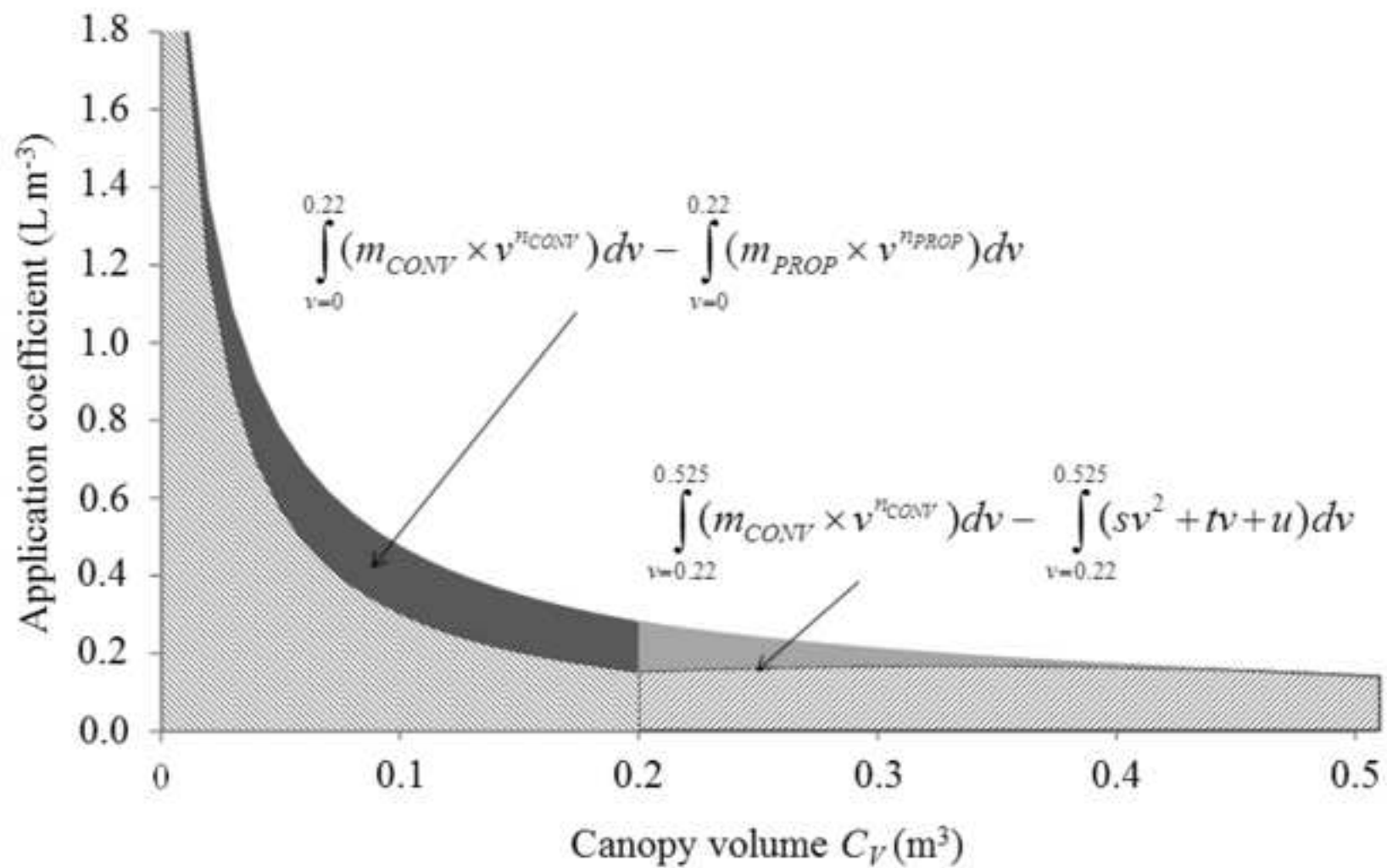


FIG14

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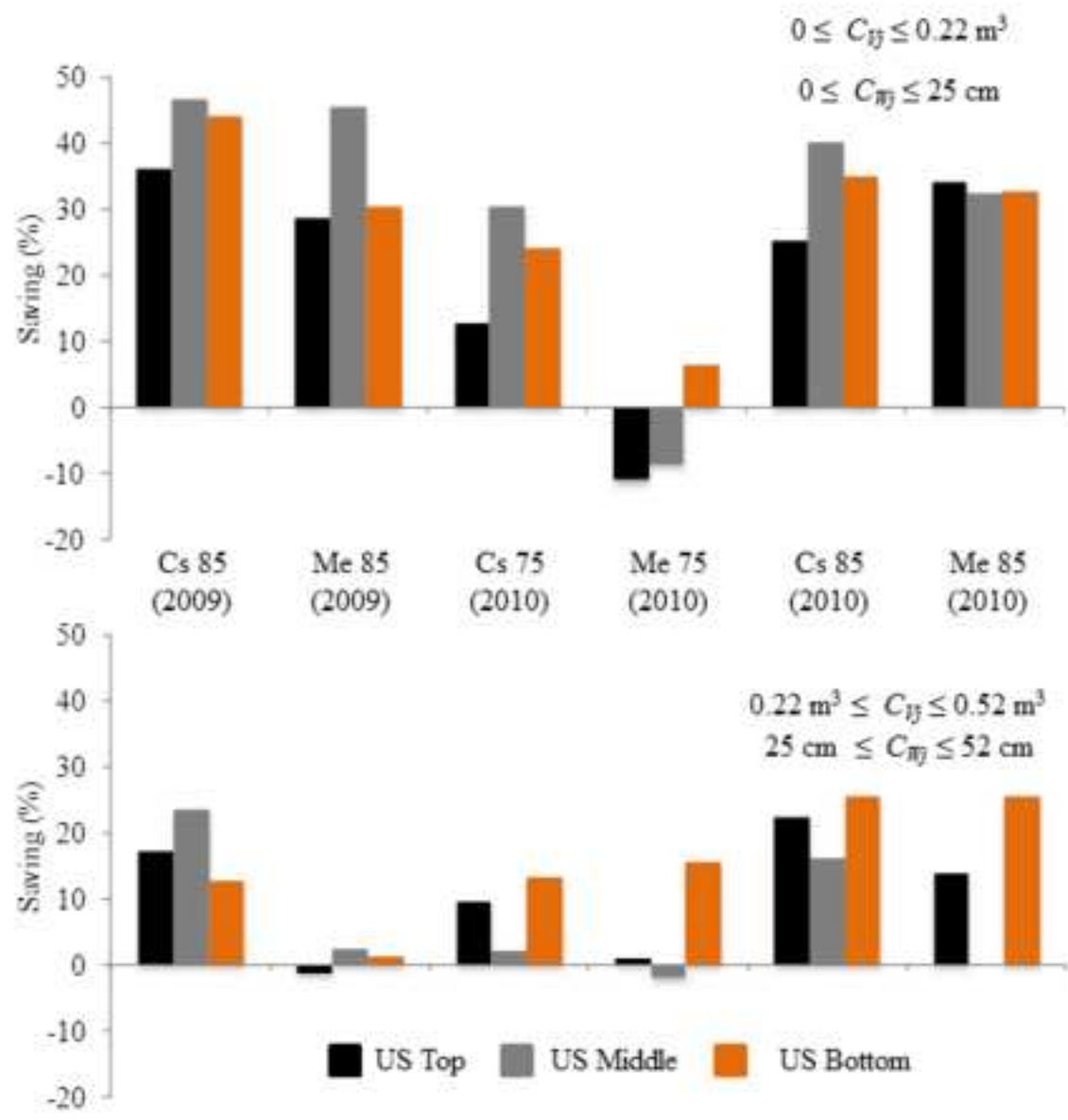


Figure captions

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