

THE EFFECT OF REDUCED PRESSURE ON THE PERFORMANCE
OF CENTER-PIVOT SPRINKLER
IRRIGATION SYSTEMS

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Relevance of the Research

Irrigation surveys conducted by Schwab (21) in Oklahoma stated that in 1971, 229,335 acres (92,811 hectares) of land were irrigated by sprinklers out of a total of 656,418 acres (265,649 hectares) and 292 center-pivot self propelled sprinkler systems were in operation out of a total of 3,095 sprinkler systems. His 1973 report indicated that out of a total of 758,036 acres (306,773 hectares) of irrigated land, 312,614 acres (126,513 hectares) were irrigated by sprinkler systems and 645 center-pivot self propelled sprinkler systems were in operation out of a total of 3,230 sprinkler systems. The 1975 Irrigation Survey also indicated an increased tendency of farmers to use center-pivot sprinklers.

This information indicates that the number of center-pivot sprinkler systems is rapidly increasing in Oklahoma. The reasons for the increasing popularity are their labor saving advantages and their tremendous versatility. The system's ability to irrigate rolling terrain with a wide range of application rates account for its versatility. Center-pivot sprinkler systems have proven to be very useful in applying light applications very quickly which is beneficial in promoting the seed germination. Greater depths can also

be applied when desired to meet the water requirements of different types of crops at different growth stages.

Evaporation loss as high as 45 percent of the total applied water has been reported by Christiansen (8). This high loss of irrigation water is critical in areas with a limited water supply. Ground water reservoirs are being depleted by the present high rate of use of irrigation water without being replenished. It is therefore necessary to find ways and means to reduce evaporation loss during irrigation.

While studying any irrigation system, it is of primary importance that the system be able to apply water uniformly to the field with a comparatively lower cost of operation. Center-pivot sprinkler systems may offer a good promise to this aspect.

At present, a large percent of fuel or energy is used to operate a self propelled center-pivot sprinkler system to maintain a high operating pressure which usually ranges between 414 to 552 kilopascals. One reported reason for this high operating pressure is to provide better distribution of water to the field. If this high operating pressure can be reduced without materially affecting the system's ability to distribute water uniformly, energy could be saved and the system's operating cost could be lowered. The present energy crisis is a major factor in the increased farm production costs and the crisis is expected to continue in the future. If a good percentage of energy could be saved from each center-pivot sprinkler system, Oklahoma and the nation as a whole would save a large amount of energy. Because of these factors, extensive research is needed to explore the possibility of operating center-pivot sprinklers at reduced pressures with different nozzle types, sizes, and trajectory angles.

Scope of Investigation

The study described in this thesis was designed to evaluate the effect of reduced operating pressure on uniformity of application of water, sprinkler spacing, and evaporation loss of a center-pivot self propelled sprinkler system using data obtained from a single stationary sprinkler or spray nozzle.

A spray nozzle and full circle sprinkler with 26° and 6° trajectories were operated between average pressures of 134 and 556 kilopascals. The stationary distribution pattern obtained from each test was used to simulate a continuously moving system. The application rate, uniformity of application, and the sprinkler spacing were calculated from the continuously moving sprinkler system. The evaporation loss was also determined for each test. Attempts were made to determine the factors that affect evaporation loss.

Every test was repeated three times with measurements taken in the field to determine the following variables for each repetition:

1. Flow rate
2. Operating pressure
3. Relative humidity
4. Wind speed and direction
5. Air temperature
6. Volume of sprayed water collected in catch-cans

While measuring the flow rate, operating pressure, and wind speed, alternate provisions were utilized to evaluate the correctness of the data.

Objectives

1. To determine evaporation loss from different types of sprinklers at different operating pressures, and to study the factors that affect evaporation loss.
2. To study the effect of wind on distribution patterns at different pressures, nozzle types and sizes, relative humidity, and temperatures.
3. To evaluate the effect of reduced operating pressure on uniformity of application.
4. To determine the best sprinkler spacing for an acceptable uniformity coefficient and the corresponding application rate for different sprinkler types at different operating pressures.
5. To study the effect of pressures and sprinkler types on application rates.
6. To evaluate the effect of angle of trajectory on uniformity of application, evaporation loss and wetted diameter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The center-pivot sprinkler irrigation system was first patented in 1952. Since that time, considerable research has been conducted and a good number of technical papers have been written on many aspects of it. However, the literature reviewed for this study covered the following aspects of center-pivot sprinkler irrigation systems:

1. Application losses due to evaporation and drift
2. Uniformity of application and application depth
3. Application rate
4. Pressure and uniformity of application

Application Losses Due to Evaporation and Drift

In an extensive study on sprinkler irrigation, Christiansen (8) investigated the spray evaporation from the system. He utilized the widely accepted catch-can method to evaluate the system and reported a loss range of 10 to 45 percent of the total inflow to the system. He also observed that there was no correlation of losses with climatic variables. This conclusion was partly supported by Seginer and Kostrinsky (22).

Seginer and Kostrinsky (22), on the basis of their study on data obtained from tests with two single nozzles of 0.40 and 0.50 cm in

$\frac{3}{4}$ " $\frac{1}{4}$ "

diameter, were of the opinion that there exists a very high correlation between the loss and the solar radiation while the correlation between the loss and the wind speed is practically nonexistent. They reported that wind was totally unconfounded with the other meteorological parameters. They observed very low correlation between wind and solar radiation and stated that the drift loss, which almost by definition is a result of the wind alone, need not be well correlated with the evaporation loss, which is only partially affected by the wind and the separation of these two loss components may not be essential for sprinkler evaluation purposes.

Frost and Schwalen (12) investigated combined spray evaporation loss by use of the catch-can method. No corrections were made for evaporation loss from the water collected in the cans during the test period since in their previous work the correction had appeared to be negligible. From results of their 700 tests run under a wide range of climatic conditions, they observed that losses increased with temperature, wind movement, and operating pressure and decreased with increase in the relative humidity and nozzle sizes. Frost and Schwalen found good correlation between losses and vapor pressure deficit. Their previous work indicated very low application efficiency at high temperature and at low relative humidity.

In an attempt to determine the water losses from sprinklers, Clark and Finley (10) conducted tests with a system of 15 sprinklers over an area of 1673 square meters (0.167 hectares). Their study revealed that wind velocity and vapor pressure deficit had the most influence on evaporation, while operating pressure had a minor influence. They stated that at high wind speeds, the wind was the

dominant factor causing the water losses.

Seginer (23) studied the effect of application rate on the total water loss during sprinkling. He considered the total loss to be the summation of spray evaporation, surface evaporation, and drift loss. Using an electrical resistance model of evaporation during sprinkling, he indicated that the evaporation loss might be negligible in comparison with the drift loss.

In research conducted by Kraus (18) it was found that the total application loss from the sprinkler system ranged from 3.4 to 17.0 percent. A direct relationship between loss and relative humidity was established. No accurate correlation could be made with the wind speed because of its difficulty to measure. Thirty-six percent of the total loss was reported due to drift.

Petersen (20) studied the pressure, spacing, and uniformity of application of a center-pivot sprinkler irrigation system and reported the evaporation loss to range from 2.26 percent for spray nozzle to 25.4 percent for full circle sprinkler.

Uniformity of Application and Application Depth

Evaluation of the uniformity of application of water from the sprinkler irrigation systems has been discussed by Beale and Howell (2). Heermann and Hein (14) compared various coefficients to measure uniformities and relationships among the various coefficients. They stated that the coefficient of uniformity as proposed by Christiansen (8) was a satisfactory measure of uniformity of application. The well known Christiansen's uniformity coefficient which was used to determine the uniformity of application of water in this study, is

given by,

$$C_u = \left[1 - \frac{\sum |d - d_{avg}|}{n \cdot d_{avg}} \right] 100 \quad [1]$$

where

C_u = Uniformity coefficient in percent

d = Depth of water on any grid point in units of length

d_{avg} = Average value of d in units of length

n = Total number of grid points

Chu (9) commented on Christiansen's coefficient of uniformity as follows:

Although laborious, the above expression can be used to calculate the uniformity of a system if (a) the spacing of the grid system is small in comparison with the spacing of the sprinklers, and (b) if the region of the the grid system is clearly specified. (p. 540)

Heermann and Hein (14) compared the theoretical distribution of application depths with actual field measurements. Uniformities from field data were reported by them to be 90.5 and 87.3 for flow rates of 3596 and 2271 liters per minute, respectively, while those from theoretical distributions were 89.0 and 89.3 for the triangular pattern, and 89.5 and 89.3 for the elliptical pattern, respectively, for the same flow rates. They stated that the two systems used for comparison demonstrated uniformity in application depths.

Pair (19) tested sprinkler nozzles, 1/8 to 1/2 inch (0.32 to 1.27 cm) in diameter, on a center-pivot sprinkler system under southern Idaho conditions. He reported uniformity coefficients of 81 and 86 for wind speeds of 7.1 and 5.0 miles per hour (11.43 and 8.05 kilometers per hour).

Bilanski and Kidder (3) investigated the effect of operating pressure, nozzle diameter, and angle of inclination of the sprinkler nozzle with the horizontal on the distribution of water. They reported that as the angle of inclination was increased, the maximum trajectory distance increased and the amount of water deposited at the point of maximum accumulation of water decreased; as the angle of inclination increased, the rate of decrease was diminished.

Jones (15) studied the effect of wind speed on the uniformity of water application from tests on a 10-tower center-pivot system with an overall lateral length of 1299 feet (396 meters). He reported an average uniformity coefficient of 85.2 with a standard deviation of 2.48. Jones also observed that the uniformity of water application decreased linearly with the wind speed.

Petersen (20), from his study on pressure, spacing, and uniformity of center-pivot sprinkler system, recommended spacings for a fixed diameter part circle, full circle, and spray nozzle to attain acceptable uniformity of application. He recommended spacings such that within the range of spacings, the uniformity coefficient remained above 80 for pressures between 200 and 550 kilopascals.

Branscheid and Hart (6) conducted tests to determine correct methods for utilizing single sprinkler patterns in the prediction of field distribution. By comparing distribution patterns from a single sprinkler and from a lateral line of 13 equally spaced sprinklers, they concluded that predicting field distribution by use of the single sprinkler data is accurate.

Davis (11) used catch-cans to collect spray samples from operating sprinkler systems. He evaluated patterns of distribution

for sampling-station densities in which a station represented two, five, six and 10-foot (0.61, 1.52, 1.83, and 3.05 meters) grid spacings. He stated that low sampling density may result in deceptively higher values of distribution parameters. Davis observed that six foot (1.83 meters) grid spacing gave similar results as those from two foot (0.61 meters) grid spacing while the 10-foot (3.05 meters) grid spacing gave inaccurate result. He concluded that for purposes of identifying the uniformity of water distribution, each sampling station should represent from 2.0 to 2.5 percent of the pattern area or from five to six percent of the wetted diameter of the pattern.

Bittinger and Longenbaugh (4) studied the theoretical distribution of water from a moving sprinkler. They investigated the distribution pattern resulting from a continuously moving sprinkler, the course of movement being both in a straight line and in a circular path. They concluded that sprinklers which move in a circular path have a skewed pattern when located close to the pivot point. For sprinklers located at a distance of at least five sprinkler radii from the pivot point, the distortion of the pattern is small and a straight line travel path may be assumed.

Application Rate

The effectiveness of the center-pivot sprinkler system is evaluated by using established guidelines such as the ASAE recommendations (1) covering minimum requirements for the design, installation and performance of sprinkler irrigation equipment. One of these recommendations specify that water should be applied at a rate which does not cause runoff during the normal operating period, nor cause

water to stand on the surface of the ground after the sprinkler line has been shut off.

Heermann and Hein (14), while comparing theoretical distribution of application rates with actual field measurements, observed non-uniformity in application rates. They stated that the application rates may be too high for many conditions and suggested to limit the length of the line or to utilize sprinkler heads with a longer pattern radius to get rid of this problem.

Pair (19) from his tests under southern Idaho conditions observed that the application rates varied from 0.21 in/hr (0.53 cm/hr) at the first tower from the pivot point to 1.01 in/hr (2.57 cm/hr) at the last tower on the outer end of the lateral. He found that the application rate from the larger nozzles for much of the lateral exceeded the soil infiltration rate of 0.89 in/hr (2.26 cm/hr) resulting in runoff. Many soils under irrigation today have infiltration rates of less than 0.35 in/hr (0.89 cm/hr).

Field observations of the effect of water application rates in California was reported by Gray (13). He studied actual field installations and observed that while using sprinkler irrigation, water application rates as low as 0.011 in/hr (0.10 cm/hr) resulted in an improvement in the soil structure. He also noted that the soils became more friable following the low application rates of sprinkling.

Bitjukov (5) investigated the effect of sprinkler irrigation drop size and application rate on the stability of the surface inch of a well-structured, heavy, black loam soil on field plots in the Ukraine. He stated that the degree of disruption of the crumb structure of soil depends as much on the rate of application as on

the drop size. An increase in the application rate which caused surface puddling resulted in considerable disruption of the surface soil aggregate.

Keller (16) investigated the effect of sprinkler intensity on soil tilth and concluded that soil tilth can be destroyed by high application rate.

Busch, Rochester, and Jernigan (7) studied the effect of sprinkler intensity on soil crusting and reported that lower application rate produces weaker crust.

Petersen (20) reported that the application rate for the full circle sprinkler was 0.6 cm/hr and those for the part circle sprinkler and the spray nozzle were 1.7 and 5.5 times greater, respectively, than that of the full circle sprinkler.

Pressure and Uniformity of Application

One of the recommendations of the American Society of Agricultural Engineers (1) states that a uniform distribution of application depth be achieved in a center-pivot sprinkler system. For practical purposes this is done by limiting the pressure drop on a lateral to 20 percent of the higher pressure. An excessive pressure difference would cause considerable non-uniformity in water application with a conventional system. This is not true for center-pivots.

Wiersma (24) tested the effects of pressure on the uniformity of application from a handmove irrigation system. He observed that there was little or no difference in uniformity of application of water between pressures of 56 and 48 psi (386 and 331 kilopascals) and only a slight difference between pressure of 30 and 40 psi (207 and

276 kilopascals). Wiersma concluded that the use of pressures above 56 psi (386 kilopascals) was of little value in obtaining a better distribution of water. This was supported by Petersen (20). Petersen indicated that high uniformities can be obtained at much lower than 55 Newtons per square centimeter (550 kilopascals) of pressure.

Bilanski and Kidder (3), from their study on effect of pressure on the distribution of water, stated that the trajectory distance was increased only five feet (1.52 meters) by raising the pressure from 30 to 60 psi (207 to 414 kilopascals). They also noted that larger diameter nozzles gave better distribution at any given operating pressures.

Kincaid and Heermann (17) investigated the pressure distribution on a center-pivot sprinkler system and developed curves which can be used to determine the pivot pressure required to maintain a specified minimum pressure at the outer gun of the lateral. Their analyses indicated that an increase in the pipe size results in a decrease of pressure loss along the lateral which in turn reduces pumping cost and provides more uniform pressure distribution along the lateral.

CHAPTER III

EXPERIMENTAL EQUIPMENT AND SETUP

The System

Data for this research project were collected from a single stationary sprinkler system. The system consisted of the sprinklers and spray nozzle, pump, pipelines, orifice plate and U-tube manometer, flowmeter, and pressure gauges. To obtain data for climatic variables, a recording wind vane, anemometer, hygromograph, and sling psychrometer were used. Graduated transparent cylinders and several catch-cans were used to collect and measure the distribution of water sprayed by the sprinkler. The layout of the system is shown in Figure 1, and a view of the system after making it ready for the test is shown in Figure 2. A brief description as well as the purpose of the location of the system, equipment, and instruments is presented below.

Location of the System

The system under study needed an adequate supply of water and sufficient area for placing catch-cans to collect all the sprinkler spray. Such a location was available at the Water Conservation Structures Laboratory of the Agricultural Research Service near Stillwater, Oklahoma. In addition to providing a large area, this

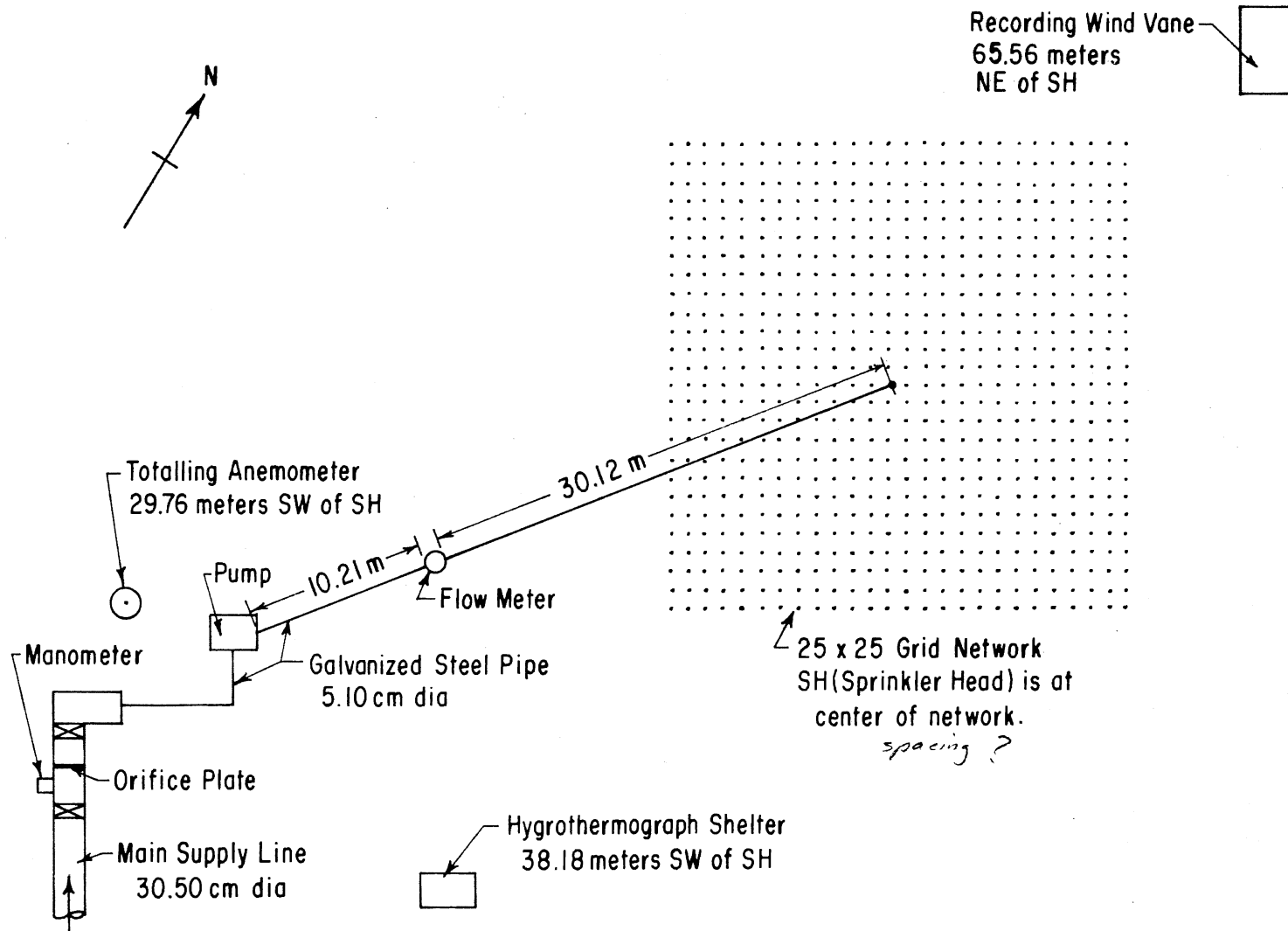


Figure 1. Layout of the System

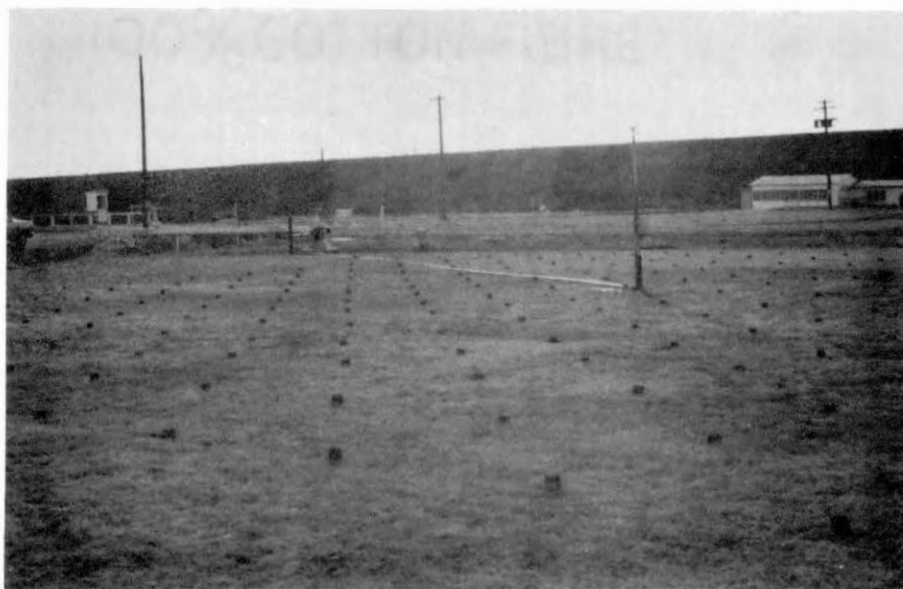


Figure 2. A View of the System

laboratory had the facility to supply water to the sprinkler system by gravity from the nearby Lake Carl Blackwell through a 30.50 cm diameter main pipeline as needed.

Sprinklers and Spray Nozzle

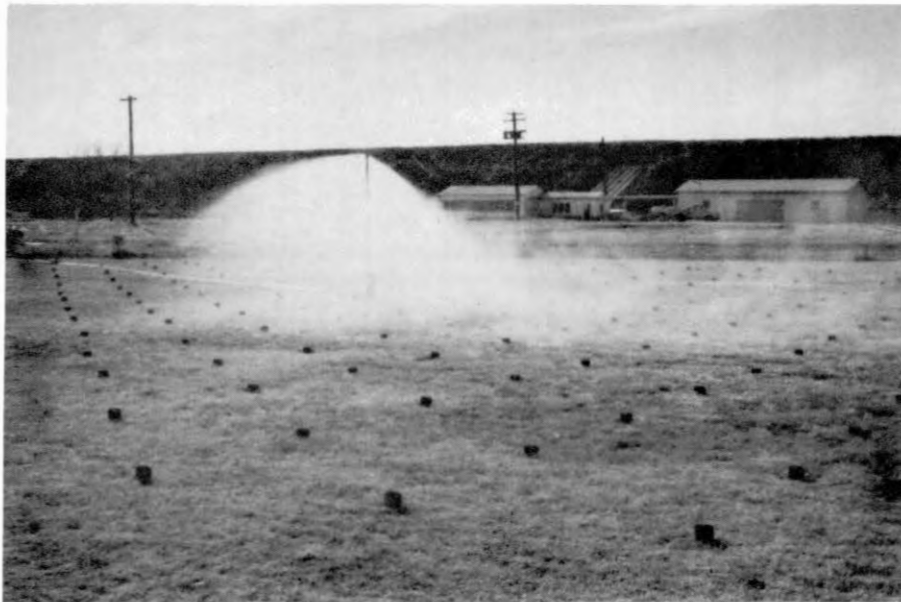
Sprinklers and spray nozzle that are currently being used with center-pivot sprinkler systems were tested in this work. One Flood Jet Spray Nozzle, Model 1/2k-80, manufactured by the Spraying Systems Company, one Full Circle Sprinkler, Model 70 EW, manufactured by the Rain Bird Sprinkler Manufacturing Corporation, and one low trajectory Full Circle Sprinkler, Model 4006, manufactured by the Senninger Irrigation, Inc., were selected for testing. All future references to the Spray Nozzle, Full Circle Sprinkler by Rain Bird Sprinkler Manufacturing Corporation, and the Full Circle Sprinkler by Senninger Irrigation, Inc., will be designated as FJSN, 26° FCS, and 6° FCS, respectively. The FJSN was tested with a nozzle diameter of 0.726 cm. The 26° FCS had a 26° angle of inclination of the sprinkler barrel with the horizontal and was tested with a nozzle diameter of 0.632 cm. The 6° FCS had a 6° angle of inclination with the horizontal and was tested with nozzle diameters of 0.483, 0.559 and 0.635 cm. The sprinklers and the spray nozzle are shown in Figures 3, 4, and 5 both at idle and operating conditions.

Pump

The usual operating pressure of a center-pivot sprinkler system is between 414 and 552 kilopascals. The 26° FCS had the maximum flow rate and pressure requirement among the sprinklers and spray

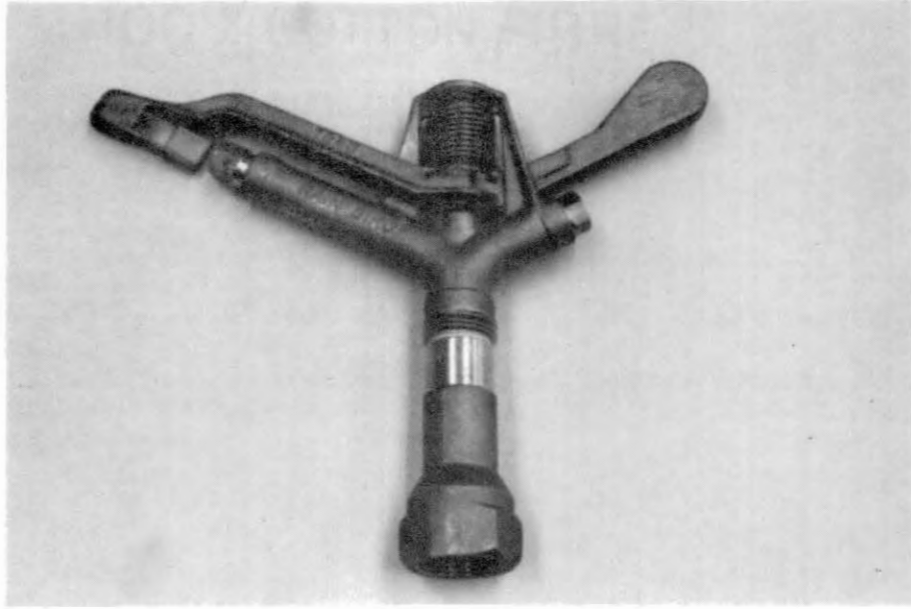


(a) Idle Condition



(b) Operating Condition

Figure 3. Flood Jet Spray Nozzle

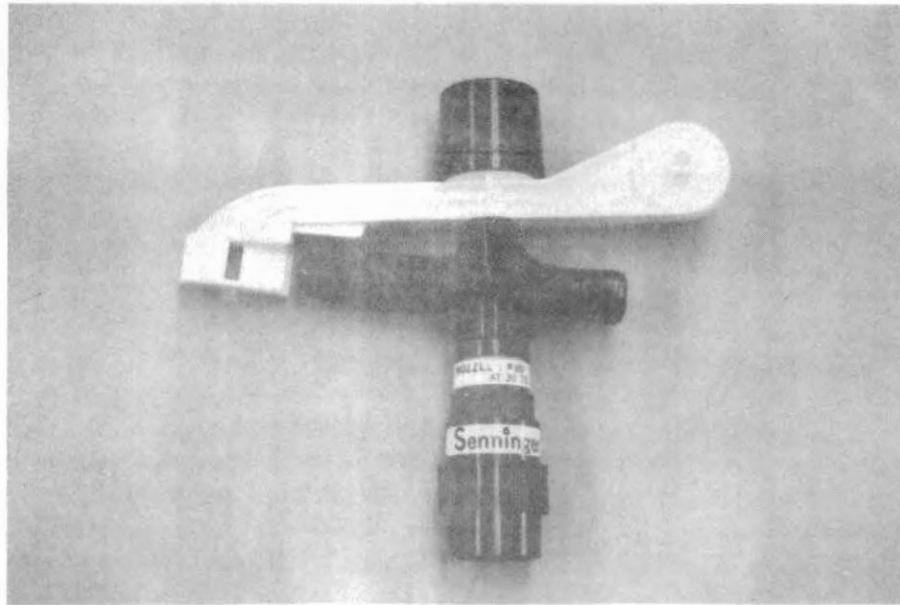


(a) Idle Condition



(b) Operating Condition

Figure 4. 26° Full Circle Sprinkler



(a) Idle Condition



(b) Operating Condition

Figure 5. 6° Full Circle Sprinkler

nozzle tested. It needed about 80 liters of water per minute at 550 kilopascals of pressure. Therefore, a pump had to be selected such that it could provide the above flow rate and pressure. The pump selected was a single stage centrifugal Marlow Pump, Model 2-1/2 C15S. It was a high head-low flow pump; it had a pumping capacity of 136 liters per minute at a maximum pressure of 759 kilopascals. The pump is shown in Figure 6 after installation.

Pipelines

The sprinkler system was supplied with water by gravity through a 30.5 cm diameter main pipeline. Galvanized steel pipe, 5.04 cm nominal diameter, was used to connect the main supply line to the pump, and the pump to the sprinkler riser. The same diameter pipe was used as a sprinkler riser, 2.74 meters tall, and was secured at the end of the pipe line to the ground. Sprinkler heads were attached to the top of the sprinkler riser.

Orifice Plate and U-Tube Manometer

To determine the application loss due to evaporation and drift, it was necessary to measure accurately the inflow of water to the system. Accurate measurement of flow was accomplished by measuring the head loss across a gated orifice with a U-tube differential manometer, connected upstream and downstream of the orifice plate. A King Manometer, with a graduated scale on it to read accurately to 0.04 cm was used. It could measure a maximum head loss of 1.52 meters of water. An orifice diameter of 2.15 cm was constructed which could fulfill the maximum flow rate of 80 liters per minute with a head loss

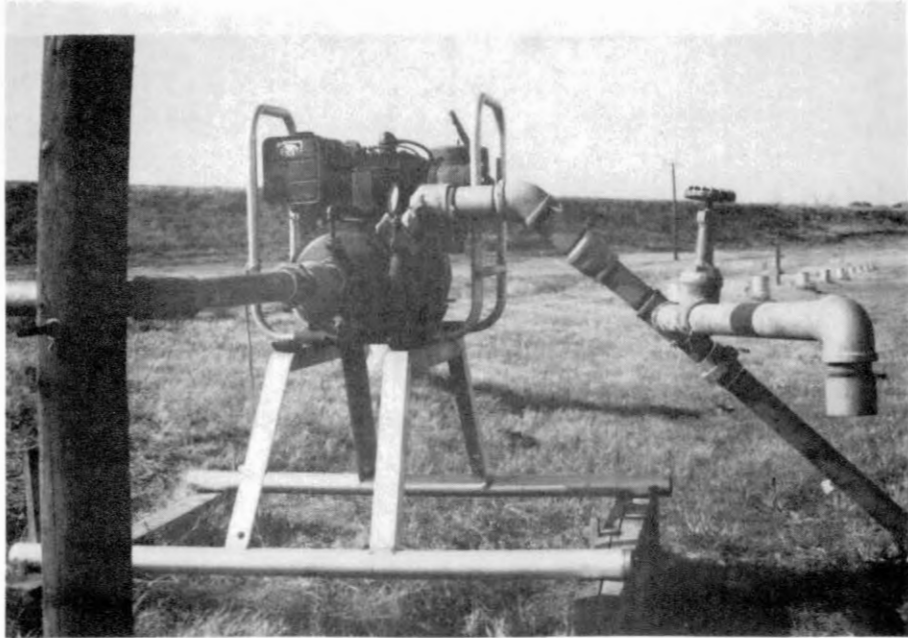


Figure 6. Single Stage Centrifugal Pump

of 1.52 meters or less. The orifice plate was constructed of 0.40 cm thick aluminum plate and installed into the 30.5 cm main supply line.

Flow Meter

To check the flow rates to the system obtained by the orifice plate and manometer, a 5.04 cm nominal diameter flow meter was installed in the pipeline between the pump and the sprinklers. The flowmeter used was a Trident Model 3. It could be read to the nearest one-tenth of a gallon by recording the total flow in gallons over a specified period of time.

Pressure Gauges

Standard pressure gauges, which indicated pressures in psi were used to measure pressures during the test. One pressure gauge was installed 45.72 cm below the sprinklers and the static pressures at this pressure gauge were assumed to be the operating pressures of the sprinklers. A second pressure gauge was installed on the pump as a check of the pressure gauge at the sprinkler.

Recording Wind Vane

To determine the speed as well as the direction of wind, a recording wind vane was installed by the Agricultural Research Service. It was a Belford Observatory 8 Direction Recorder and was located 65.56 meters northeast of the sprinkler head. The wind directions that the wind vane could record were north, south, east, west, northeast, southeast, northwest, and southwest.

Anemometer

A cup-type totalling anemometer was used to determine wind speeds. The anemometer was installed 29.76 meters southwest of the sprinkler head and used as a check of the wind speed obtained by the recording wind vane. The recording wind vane and the anemometer are shown in Figures 7 and 8.

Hygrothermograph

A Brown Recorder Hygrothermograph, shown in Figure 9, was used to record the temperatures during the test periods. The hygrothermograph was installed in a weather shelter located 38.18 meters southeast of the sprinkler head.

Sling Psychrometer

To determine the relative humidity during the test period, a sling psychrometer was used to record the dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures. The mercury thermometer that recorded the dry bulb temperature was graduated from -20° to 120° °F while the one that recorded the wet bulb temperature was graduated from 0° to 120° F. Both the thermometers were accurate to 1 °F.

Catch-Cans

Since the catch-can method of sampling the distribution of sprayed water was employed, several catch-cans were required. Number 3 squat cans obtained from a food canning plant were available for use. These cans were 10.9 cm in inside diameter, and 8.7 cm in height with

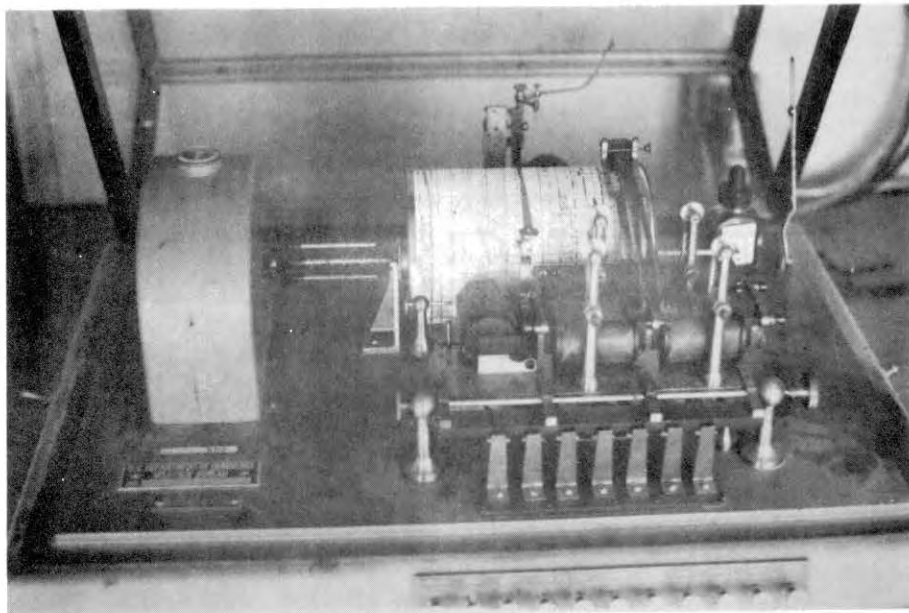


Figure 7. Closeup of the Recording Wind Vane



Figure 8. Totalling Anemometer

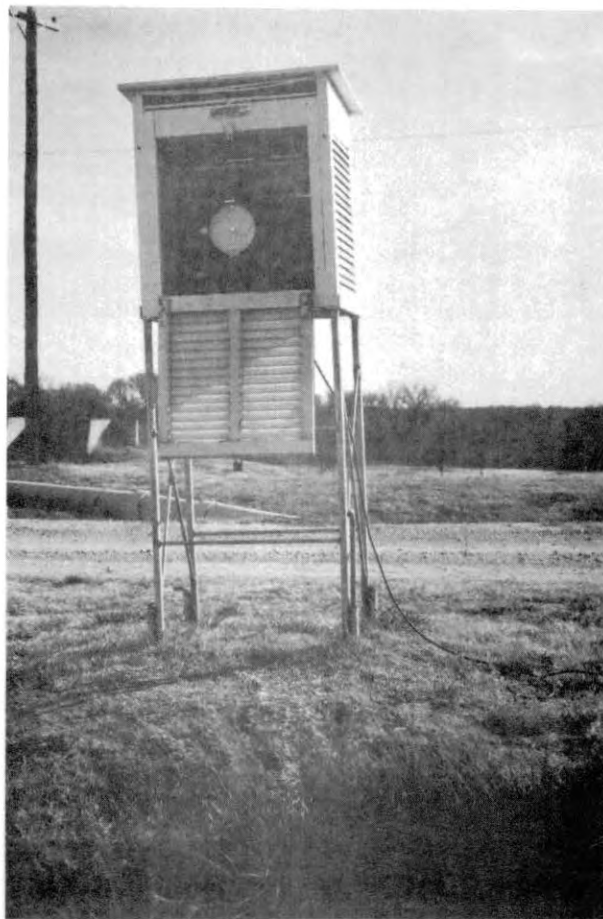


Figure 9. Hygrothermograph in Shelter

sharp edges and no lids. They were placed in a grid network before every test.

Graduated Cylinders

To measure the volume of water caught by each can in the grid network, two graduated cylinders were used. The smaller one was graduated from 0 to 100 ml (milliliters) and was accurate to one ml, while the larger one was graduated from 0 to 500 ml and was accurate to 10 ml. Positions of the pump, pipeline, orifice plate, U-tube manometer, flowmeter, anemometer, recording wind vane, hygrothermograph and the catch-cans are shown on the system layout diagram in Figure 1.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE

The sprinkler system consisted of the sprinklers and spray nozzle, pump, pipelines, orifice plate and manometer, flowmeter, pressure gauges, anemometer, recording wind vane, and the hygrothermograph. Before installing this equipment it was necessary to calibrate some of it.

The orifice plate was calibrated by the time-volume method. The calibration was done such that the calibration curve could be used to determine the flow of water to the system in liters per minute by using the head loss, in cm of water, across the orifice plate. The flowmeter was calibrated by the time-volume method in the field, the hygromograph and the pressure gauges by comparing them with accurate thermometer and pressure gauge, respectively, in the laboratory.

An experimental schedule was prepared and followed.

Each test was run at four pressure levels, namely 134, 278, 415, and 556 kilopascals and each test was repeated three times. For each repetition, records of the test duration, flow of water to the sprinklers, pressures at the sprinkler and at the pump, temperature, relative humidity, direction and speed of wind, and the volume of water caught by each can were kept. The procedure of recording the data for the above listed parameters are described below.

Test Duration

Preliminary tests were conducted with each type of sprinkler to select a suitable test duration. Durations were selected such that a sufficient amount of water was caught by the cans. A duration of only 24 minutes was selected for the FJSN since it had a high application rate. For both the 26° FCS and 6° FCS, the duration was selected as 150 minutes because of their light application rates.

Determination of Flow of Water

Flow of water to the sprinklers was determined using both the orifice and the flowmeter. Head loss across the orifice was recorded from the manometer. Manometer readings at three, ten, and ten minute intervals were taken for the FJSN, 26° FCS, and 6° FCS, respectively. Since the test duration for the FJSN was less, a shorter interval between readings was selected. These readings were averaged at the end of each repetition to obtain an average head loss across the orifice which was used to determine the flow in liters per minute using the orifice calibration curve.

The flow meter recorded the total flow of water in gallons to the sprinklers during the test period. To determine the flow rate, readings of the flowmeter were taken before and after each test. The difference of these two readings when divided by the test duration gave the flow rate in gallons per minute, which was converted to liters per minute and compared with those obtained from the orifice readings. The two flow rates usually agreed within four percent and the flow rates obtained by the orifice were used in the analyses of

the data.

Measurement of Pressures

Before opening the flow to the sprinkler, the pressure at the pump, indicated by the pressure gauge set on it, was raised to the desired operating pressure by adjusting the pump-engine rpm (revolution per minute). Flow was then opened to the sprinkler and the desired static pressure, indicated by the pressure gauge below the sprinkler, was then set again by changing the pump-engine rpm.

Reading of pressures were taken at three, ten, and ten minute intervals for the FJSN, 26° FCS, and 6° FCS, respectively. Pressures obtained from the static pressure gauge were averaged at the end of each repetition to obtain an average operating pressure which was used during analyses of the data.

Measurement of Temperatures

Intermittent recording of the temperatures during the test period was not necessary as the hygrothermograph recorded the temperature continuously.

Determination of Relative Humidity

A sling psychrometer was used to determine the relative humidity during the test period. Dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures were recorded at the beginning and end of each test. These temperatures were used with a psychrometric chart, printed by General Electric, to determine the relative humidity both at the beginning and end of the test. The two relative humidity values were averaged and the average

values were used in the analyses.

Determination of Wind Speed and Direction

The recording wind vane was used to determine both the wind speed and direction. The cup-type totalling anemometer, used to determine wind speed, was employed to make a check of the wind speeds obtained from the recording wind vane. Results obtained from the wind vane usually agreed within four percent of those obtained from the anemometer and were used in the analyses.

The recording wind vane recorded eight wind directions, namely north, south, east, west, northeast, southeast, northwest, and southwest. The prevailing wind direction during each test period was considered to be the wind direction during the test.

Measurement of Spray Distribution

To get a good representation of the distribution of water, the 25 by 25 grid network shown in Figure 1 was chosen for every test, the position of the sprinkler head being at the center (13 by 13 position). This grid network size was selected to make sure that all the sprinkler spray from the 26° FCS, which had the largest wetted diameter, remained within the network. Spacing between two grid points was chosen depending on the wetted diameter. Davis (11) stated that in order to get a good representation of water distribution, each sampling station (grid point) should represent from 2.0 to 2.5 percent of the pattern area, or from five to six percent of the wetted diameter. Therefore, grid spacings of one, two, and two meters were chosen for FJSN, 26° FCS, and 6° FCS, respectively, which ensured

each sampling station to represent less than 2.5 percent of the pattern area.

Before every test, the inner surfaces of the catch-cans were wetted to compensate for the water that would stick to the cans while pouring it into the graduated cylinders for measurement. Cans were placed over the sampling stations before every test, and immediately after the test, the volume in ml caught by each can was measured using two graduated transparent cylinders. For volumes less than 100 ml, the smaller cylinder was used while volumes greater than 100 ml were measured by the larger cylinder. Evaporation from the cans was considered negligible since Frost and Schwalen (12) found it so and therefore no suppressant was used in the cans to prevent surface evaporation.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Application Losses Due to Evaporation and Drift

Seginer (23) defined various loss components of sprinkler systems as spray evaporation, surface evaporation, and drift. Frost and Schwalen (12) observed that surface evaporation from catch-cans were negligible. Seginer and Kostrinsky (22) felt that separation of the two loss components, spray evaporation and drift, may not be essential for purposes of sprinkler evaluation. Therefore, in this study, the application losses were considered as the sum of evaporation and drift losses, which occurred between the sprinkler nozzles and the ground surface, and will be designated as evaporation loss.

Evaporation loss for a test repetition was found by determining the difference between the volume of water leaving the nozzle and the volume reaching the ground surface. The volume of water leaving the nozzle is, by continuity, equal to the volume entering the system. Volume entering the system is the volume passing through the orifice. Therefore, the flow rate obtained from the manometer readings and the orifice calibration curve, when multiplied by the test duration would give the volume leaving the nozzle. The following relationship was used for this:

$$VE = (QO) (TM) \quad [2]$$

where

VE = Volume of water entering the system in liters

Q0 = Flow rate at the orifice in liters per minute

TM = Test duration in minutes

To determine the volume of water that reached the ground, it was necessary to calculate the volume of water that would be caught by the area represented by each sampling station. This was done by finding the depth caught by each can placed over every sampling station of the 25 by 25 grid network and then multiplying this depth by the area represented by each sampling station. The volume of water caught by the area represented by each sampling station when summed over the entire area gave the volume of water reaching the ground surface.

The depth caught by each can was determined by using the relationship:

$$DC (I, J) = \frac{VC (I, J)}{CA} \quad [3]$$

where

DC (I, J) = Depth caught by each can in cm

VC (I, J) = Volume caught by each can in ml

CA = Internal cross-sectional area of catch-cans in sq cm

I = Number of rows in the grid network varying from one to 25

J = Number of columns in the grid network varying from one to 25

Volume that would be caught by the area represented by each sampling station would then be given by the equation below:

$$V (I, J) = \frac{DC (I, J) (G A)}{1000} \quad [4]$$

where

$V (I, J)$ = Volume of water that would be caught by area
represented by each can in liters

GA = Area represented by each sampling station in sq cm

Total volume reaching the ground was then determined by:

$$VR = \sum_{I=1}^{25} \sum_{J=1}^{25} V (I, J) \quad [5]$$

where

VR = Total volume of water reaching the ground surface in liters.

The percentage of evaporation was determined by using the following relationship:

$$EVAP = \left(\frac{VE - VR}{VE} \right) 100 \quad [6]$$

These calculations were done with an IBM 370 computer for each test repetition. The results for evaporation loss is given in Table I.

The average evaporation loss by each nozzle and the sprinklers was found to range from 15 to 35 percent for FJSN, from 40 to 52 percent for 26° FCS, and from 8 to 41 percent for 6° FCS for pressures between 134 and 556 kilopascals.

Factors Affecting Evaporation Loss

Factors that affect evaporation loss were considered to be the nozzle type and size, operating pressure, relative humidity and wind speed. Statistical analyses were performed on these variables to determine their relative effects on evaporation.

The table of means, presented in Table II, showed that average

TABLE I
EVAPORATION LOSS

Type	Nozzle Diameter (cm)	Test No.	Repetition	Operating Pressure (Kilopascals)	Evaporation (%)
FJSN	0.726	1	1	127	19
			2	124	15
			3	123	15
		2	1	266	19
			2	283	19
			3	282	35
		3	1	426	21
			2	430	23
			3	430	21
		4	1	563	25
			2	551	30
			3	569	27
26° FCS	0.632	5	1	155	50
			2	121	41
			3	146	48
		6	1	278	44
			2	273	43
			3	279	46
		7	1	407	40
			2	415	45
			3	408	51
		8	1	551	45
			2	556	44
			3	554	52
6° FCS	0.635	9	1	133	34
			2	123	29
			3	129	31
		10	1	280	34
			2	281	31
			3	280	33
		11	1	408	32
			2	415	33
			3	415	40
		12	1	556	34
			2	553	39
			3	549	41
6° FCS	0.483	13	1	136	35
			2	139	27
			3	140	26
		14	1	279	29
			2	281	34
			3	281	24

TABLE I (Continued)

Type	Nozzle Diameter (cm)	Test No.	Repetition	Operating Pressure (Kilopascals)	Evaporation (%)
6° FCS	0.559	15	1	408	24
			2	418	36
			3	415	28
		16	1	549	34
			2	560	38
			3	557	30
		17	1	136	32
			2	136	28
			3	139	8
		18	1	278	9
			2	274	10
			3	280	31
		19	1	415	14
			2	412	26
			3	411	31
		20	1	553	23
			2	557	34
			3	558	24

TABLE II
TABLE OF MEANS

Pressure (Kilo- pascals)	Type	Nozzle Diameter (cm)	Number of Tests	Evapo- ration (%)	Humidity (%)	Wind Speed (km/hr)
134	FJSN	0.726	3	16	49	14.88
134	26° FCS	0.632	3	46	51	12.82
134	6° FCS	0.635	3	32	38	9.84
134	6° FCS	0.559	3	23	60	10.30
134	6° FCS	0.483	3	29	51	8.11
278	FJSN	0.726	3	24	42	14.04
278	26° FCS	0.632	3	44	46	12.24
278	6° FCS	0.635	3	33	38	7.07
278	6° FCS	0.559	3	17	72	10.87
278	6° FCS	0.483	3	29	57	6.08
415	FJSN	0.726	3	21	57	13.15
415	26° FCS	0.632	3	45	44	11.70
415	6° FCS	0.635	3	35	39	12.45
415	6° FCS	0.559	3	24	41	9.39
415	6° FCS	0.483	3	29	49	9.39
556	FJSN	0.726	3	28	52	16.37
556	26° FCS	0.632	3	47	36	10.02
556	6° FCS	0.635	3	38	31	13.48
556	6° FCS	0.559	3	27	39	13.87
556	6° FCS	0.483	3	34	52	20.05
	FJSN	0.726	12	22	50	14.61
	26° FCS	0.632	12	46	44	11.69
	6° FCS	0.635	12	34	36	10.71
	6° FCS	0.559	12	23	53	11.11
	6° FCS	0.483	12	30	52	10.91
134			15	29	50	11.19
278			15	29	51	10.06
415			15	31	46	11.22
556			15	35	42	14.76
Overall Means			60	31	47	11.81

evaporation loss ranged from 22 to 46 percent for different sprinklers and spray nozzle and from 29 to 35 percent for different pressure levels. It also indicated that at pressures between 134 and 278 kilopascals, the evaporation loss was the same, but at pressures higher than 278 kilopascals, it increased slowly. It means that evaporation loss due to an increase in pressure can be kept to a minimum if the maximum operating pressure is limited to 278 kilopascals.

Attempts were also made to determine the relative influence of the factors considered on evaporation loss. An analysis of variance of the data ignoring relative humidity and wind speed showed that the nozzle type and size had a significant effect on evaporation while pressure had comparatively little and there was no interaction between pressures and nozzle sizes. This result is shown in Table III.

It was hypothesized that data on evaporation and relative humidity, as well as evaporation and wind speed, for different pressure levels would fit straight lines. This hypothesis was made since three data points were available for each pressure level as a consequence of taking only three repetitions. Based on this hypothesis, a test of parallelism was done on these lines taking relative humidity as covariable on evaporation. The test indicated an insignificant F value of 1.74 on the null hypothesis that the lines were parallel and therefore the null hypothesis could not be rejected. Since the lines were parallel and indicated a non-zero slope, the use of covariance could be made.

The analysis of covariance showed that the effect due to relative humidity had an F value of 56.25 while the nozzle type and size value was 32.8 indicating that relative humidity had a larger effect on

TABLE III
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

CENTER PIVOT SPRINKLER SYSTEMS, 1977

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR VARIABLE EVAP		MEAN	31.1175000			
SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE			
PRESS	3	292.64889	97.54963			
SPRAY	4	4473.64755	1118.41189			
PRESS*SPRAY	12	216.67889	18.05657			
REP(PRESS SPRAY)	40	1512.48420	37.81210			
CORRECTED TOTAL	59	6495.45953	110.09253			

TESTS	SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F VALUE	PROB > F
NUMERATOR:	PRESS	3	292.64889	97.54963	2.57985	0.0659
DENOMINATOR:	REP(PRESS SPRAY)	40	1512.48420	37.81210		
NUMERATOR:	SPRAY	4	4473.64755	1118.41189	29.57814	0.0001
DENOMINATOR:	REP(PRESS SPRAY)	40	1512.48420	37.81210		
NUMERATOR:	PRESS*SPRAY	12	216.67889	18.05657	0.47753	0.9161
DENOMINATOR:	REP(PRESS SPRAY)	40	1512.48420	37.81210		

evaporation loss than nozzle type and size. This suggests that running the sprinkler system at high humid conditions, preferably at night, will result in lower evaporation losses.

Test of parallelism was also performed on the lines taking wind speed as covariable on evaporation. It indicated a significant F value of 2.4 to the null hypothesis that the lines were parallel and therefore the null hypothesis had to be rejected. Since the lines were not parallel, a common slope could not be found and consequently analysis of covariance could not be performed. Results of parallelism test with relative humidity (RH) as covariable, analysis of covariance with relative humidity as covariable, and parallelism test with wind speed (WS) as covariable are shown in Tables IV, V, and VI. In these tables, 'Press' stands for operating pressure in kilopascals and 'Spray' stands for type and size of different nozzles.

Uniformity of Application

Christiansen's uniformity coefficient, given by Equation 1, is a good measure of the uniformity of application. A uniformity coefficient of 100 would mean perfect uniform distribution of water.

Branscheid and Hart (6) stated that predicting field distribution by use of single sprinkler data is accurate. Therefore, this study evaluated the uniformity of application by determining Christiansen's uniformity coefficient from patterns simulated from a single stationary sprinkler data. The procedure of analysis is given below.

For every pattern, a 25 by 25 array which corresponds to the grid network, was used. The sprinkler riser as well as the sprinkler head

TABLE IV
 PARALLELISM TEST, RELATIVE HUMIDITY
 AS COVARIABLE ON EVAPORATION

	DF	SS	MS	F	PR > F
Corrected Total	59	6495.46			
Press	3	292.65	97.55	4.85	0.0107
Spray	4	4473.65	1118.41	55.62	0.0001
Press * Spray	12	216.68	18.06	0.90	0.5638
RH (slope)	1	447.00	447.00	22.23	0.0001
RH (Press * Spray) (parallelism)	19	663.34	34.91	1.74	0.1148
Error	20	402.15	20.11		

TABLE V
 ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, RELATIVE HUMIDITY
 AS COVARIABLE ON EVAPORATION

	DF	SS	MS	F	PR > F
Corrected Total	59	6495.46			
Press (adjusted)	3	68.39	22.80	0.83	0.4831
Spray (adjusted)	4	3584.16	896.04	32.80	0.0001
Press * Spray	12	240.54	20.04	0.73	0.7104
RH (covariable)	1	1536.89	1536.89	56.25	0.0001
Error	39	1065.49	27.32		

TABLE VI
 PARALLELISM TEST, WIND SPEED AS COVARIABLE
 ON EVAPORATION

	DF	SS	MS	F	PR > F
Corrected Total	59	6495.46			
Press	3	292.65	97.55	4.24	0.0179
Spray	4	4473.65	1118.41	48.61	0.0001
Press * Spray	12	216.68	18.06	0.78	0.6603
WS (Slope)	1	2.00	2.00	0.09	0.7711
WS (Press * Spray) (parallelism)	19	1050.31	55.28	2.40	0.0293
Error	20	460.17	23.01		

was assigned a position at the center of the array (13, 13). The can volumes as measured from each stationary test were placed at the appropriate positions within the array using the location of the sprinkler head as reference. These 25 by 25 arrays for each test repetition are given in the Appendix A. Depths, DC (I, J), in each can in the grid were determined by using Equation 3 and the application rate at each can was found by using the following relationship:

$$AR (I, J) = \left(\frac{D (I, J)}{TM} \right) 60 \quad [7]$$

where

AR (I, J) = Application rate in can (I, J) in the grid in cm/hr. This two-dimensional array of application rates, AR (I, J), was then simulated to a moving one and a one-dimensional array of accumulated depths, AD (J), J varying from one to 25, was generated from it in the following way.

An imaginary row of 25 cans was placed ahead of the continuously moving array AR (I, J) which was assigned a velocity of movement of 18.29 meters per hour. A straight line travel path of AR (I, J) was assumed as described by Bittinger and Longenbaugh (4). Figure 10 represents this simulation of pattern movement.

The depths that would be caught and accumulated in the imaginary row of cans when the pattern AR (I, J) completely passed over it would be given by the relationship:

$$AD (J) = \frac{CS}{PV} \sum_{I=1}^{25} AR (I, J) \quad [8]$$

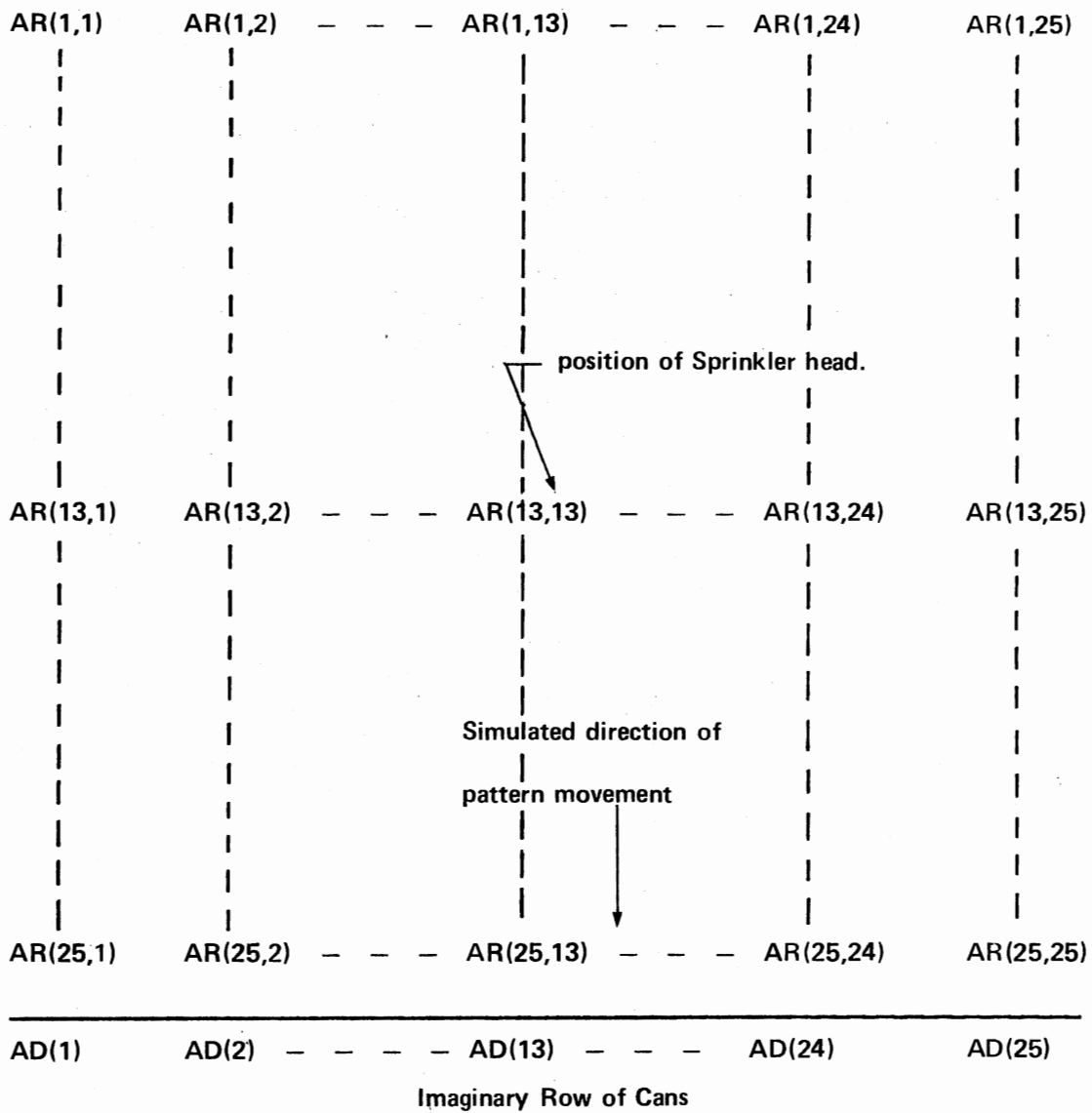


Figure 10. Simulation of Pattern Movement

where

$AD(J)$ = Accumulated depth in can (J) in cm

CS = Distance between cans in meters

PV = Assigned pattern velocity in meters per hour

Seven of this array of accumulated depths, $AD(J)$, J varying from one to 25, were placed side by side and were meshed toward the center array from both left and right side by unit increment to obtain a new array of simulated depths, $SD(J)$, that would be applied if seven identical distribution patterns were overlapped. The meshing continued for all 25 increments. Each increment would represent a spacing between sprinklers, depending on the can spacing. For example, the spacing between sprinklers would be 24, 48, and 48 meters for the first increment, 23, 46, and 46 meters for the second increment, and so on, for FJSN, 26° FCS, and 6° FCS, respectively.

Simulated depths, $SD(J)$, which would represent the accumulated depths obtained from a complete passage of at most seven overlapped patterns, were generated for each increment of meshing by summing the depths in column J , J varying from one to 25, in the center array.

Christiansen's uniformity of application, given by Equation 1, was then applied on $SD(J)$ to determine the uniformity coefficient when the spacing between sprinklers became equal to or less than the wetted diameter of the pattern in concern, during the process of meshing.

This analysis was done with an IBM 370 computer on every test repetition. The uniformity coefficient versus spacing between sprinklers, spacing being equal to or less than the pattern wetted diameter, were plotted for each test repetition. Three typical plots

at four different pressures for FJSN, 26° FCS, and 6° FCS are given in Figures 11, 12, and 13. The other plots are given in the Appendix B.

Effect of Pressure on Uniformity, Spacing,
and Pattern Wetted Diameter

A study on the plots shown in Figures 11, 12, and 13 and appended in Appendix B would indicate that acceptable uniformity coefficients can be achieved from a large variation of operating pressures.

Jones (15) measured the uniformity of application from a center-pivot sprinkler irrigation system and reported an average uniformity of 85.2. Heermann and Hein (14) reported uniformities between 87.3 and 90.5. Pair (19) observed uniformity coefficients of 81 and 86. Petersen (20) used a uniformity of 80 as a suitable lower limit for a center-pivot system. It appears that a uniformity coefficient value of 80 or above may be considered as acceptable. Using this criterion, a recommendation for spacing between sprinklers is made and presented in Table VII. The table also shows the values of the uniformities within the range of the recommended spacings for different types of sprinklers and the spray nozzle operating at pressures between 134 and 556 kilopascals. The uniformities varied from 83 to 90, from 90 to 91, and from 85 to 91 for the FJSN, 26° FCS, and 6° FCS, respectively.

Figure 14 shows the effect of pressure on the pattern wetted diameter. It was observed that the wetted diameter increased as the operating pressure increased from 134 to 278 kilopascals. The increase was small at pressures beyond 278 kilopascals. These data agreed with the report of Bilanski and Kidder (3) who stated that raising the

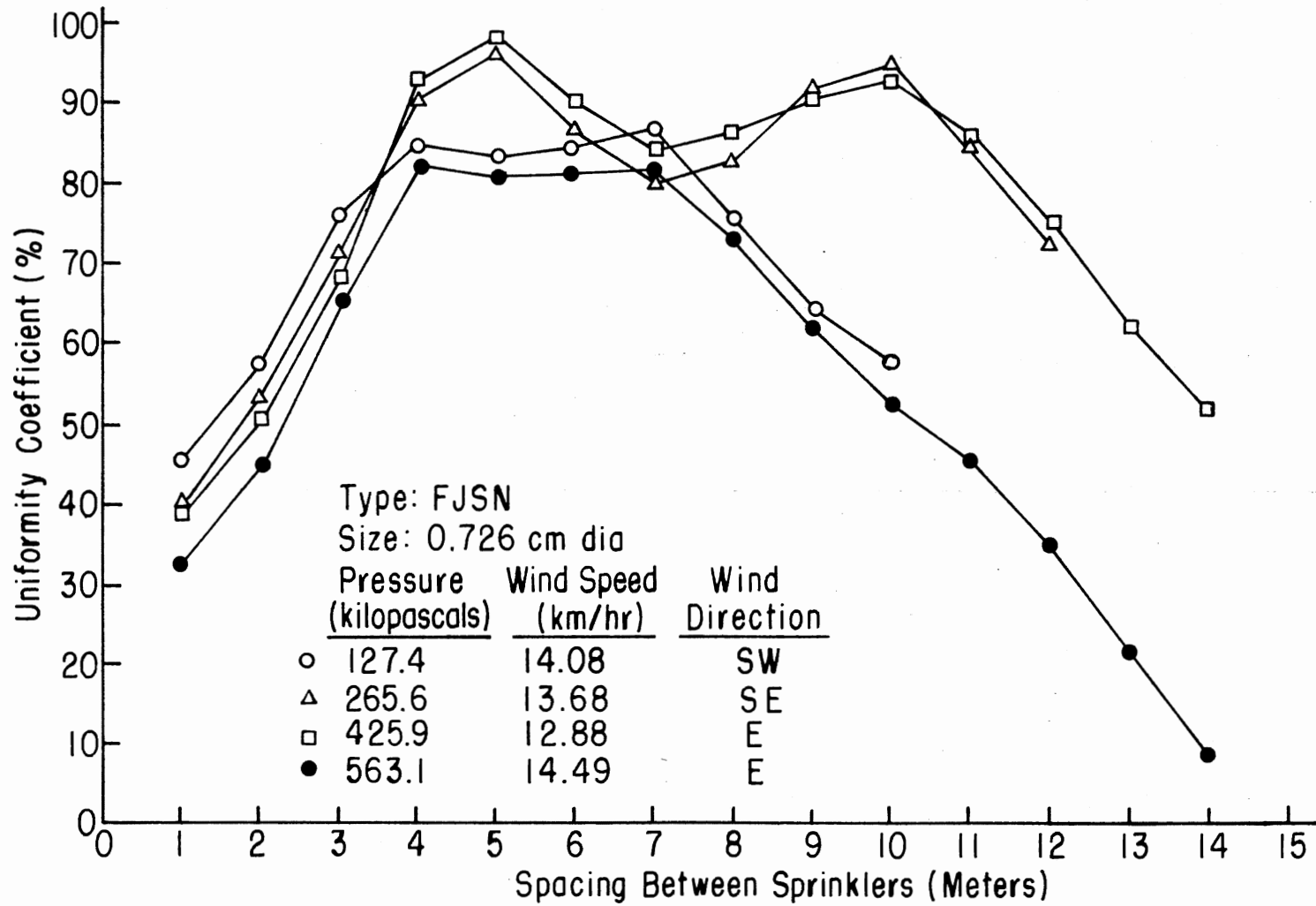


Figure 11. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the Flood Jet Spray Nozzle, Repetition 1

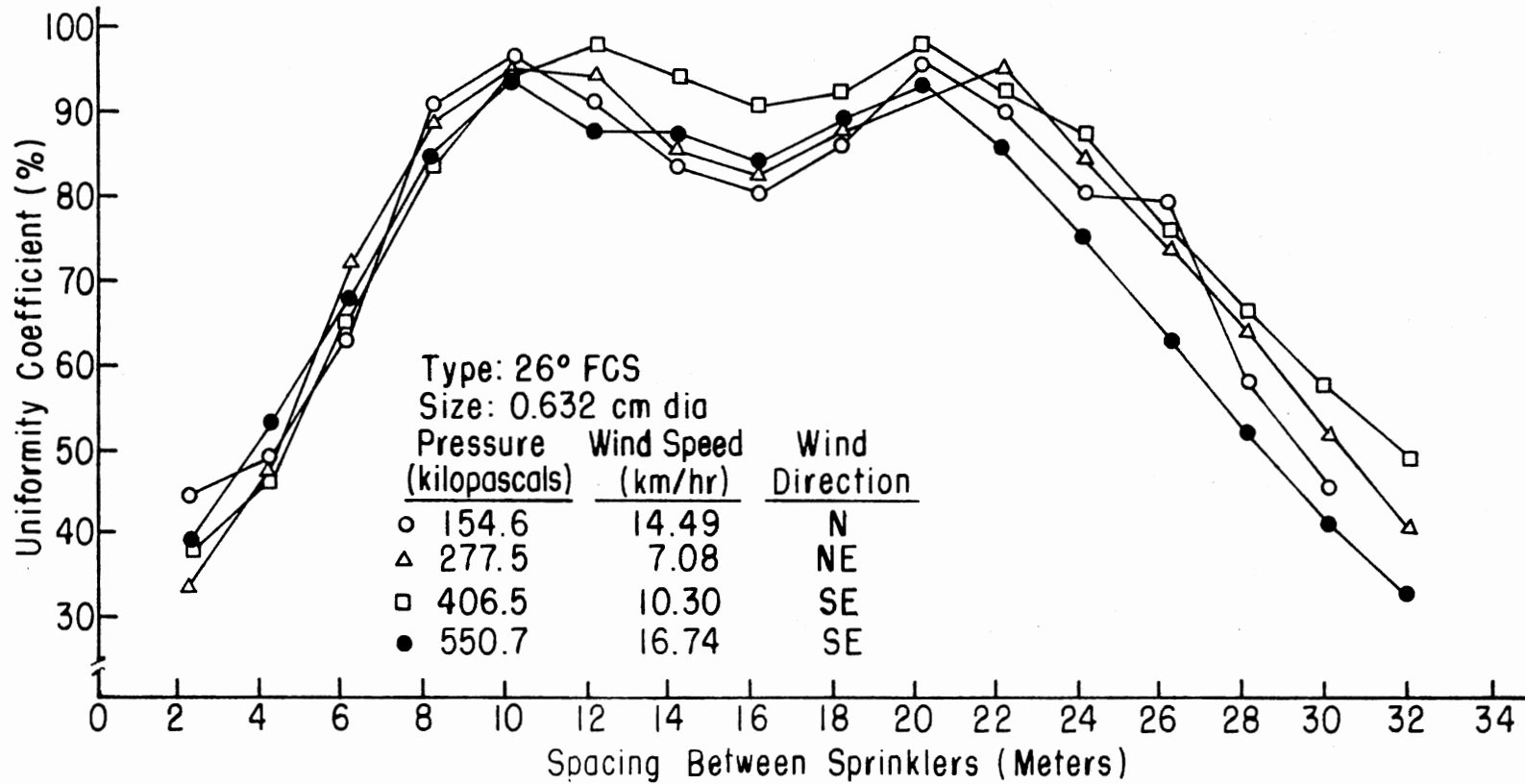


Figure 12. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 26° Full Circle Sprinkler, Repetition 1

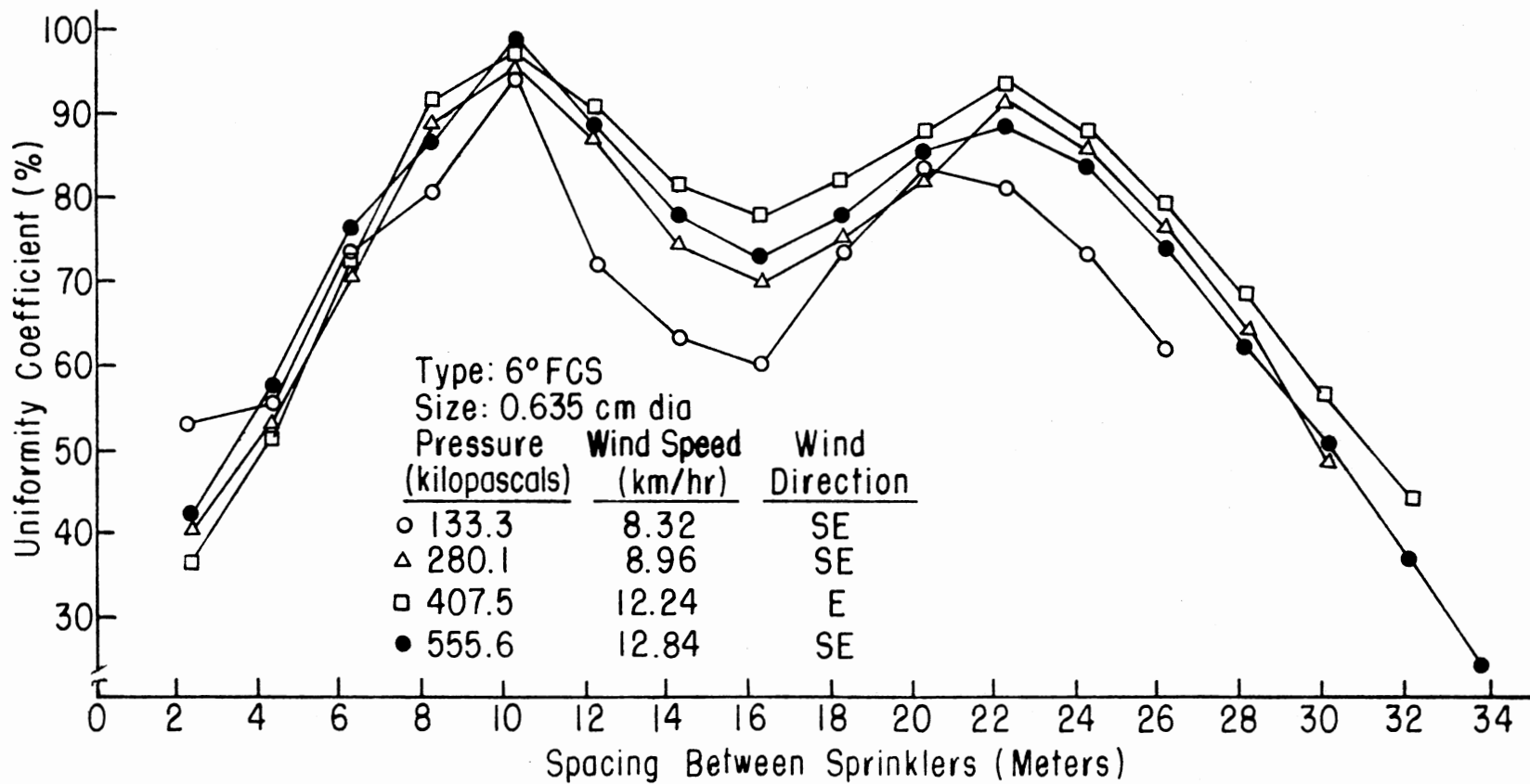


Figure 13. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler, Repetition 1

TABLE VII
RECOMMENDED SPACINGS FOR THE SPRINKLERS
AND THE SPRAY NOZZLE

Type	Nozzle Diameter (cm)	Pressure (Kilopascals)	Recommended Spacings, S (Meters)	Average Uniformity (%)	Average Application Rate (cm/hr)
FJSN	0.726	134	4 < s < 7	85	4.31
		278	4 < s < 11	88	3.49
		415	4 < s < 11	90	4.17
		556	4 < s < 7	83	5.14
26° FCS	0.632	134	7 < s < 12, 19 < s < 23	91	0.30
		278	7 < s < 12, 17 < s < 23	91	0.45
		415	8 < s < 14, 17 < s < 24	90	0.48
		556	8 < s < 22	90	0.50
6° FCS	0.635	134	8 < s < 10	85	0.66
		278	7 < s < 13, 23 < s < 25	90	0.60

TABLE VII (Continued)

Type	Nozzle Diameter (cm)	Pressure (Kilopascals)	Recommended Spacings, S (Meters)	Average Uniformity (%)	Average Application Rate (cm/hr)
		415	8 < s < 12, 18 < s < 22	88	0.61
		556	8 < s < 13, 19 < s < 22	88	0.69
6° FCS	0.559	134	8 < s < 10, 18 < s < 21	85	0.22
		278	8 < s < 10	88	0.68
		415	7 < s < 11	91	0.68
		556	7 < s < 12, 19 < s < 22	89	0.55
6° FCS	0.483	134	8 < s < 10, 18 < s < 22	88	0.20
		278	8 < s < 12, 21 < s < 24	89	0.31
		415	7 < s < 11	89	0.53
		556	7 < s < 9	93	0.63

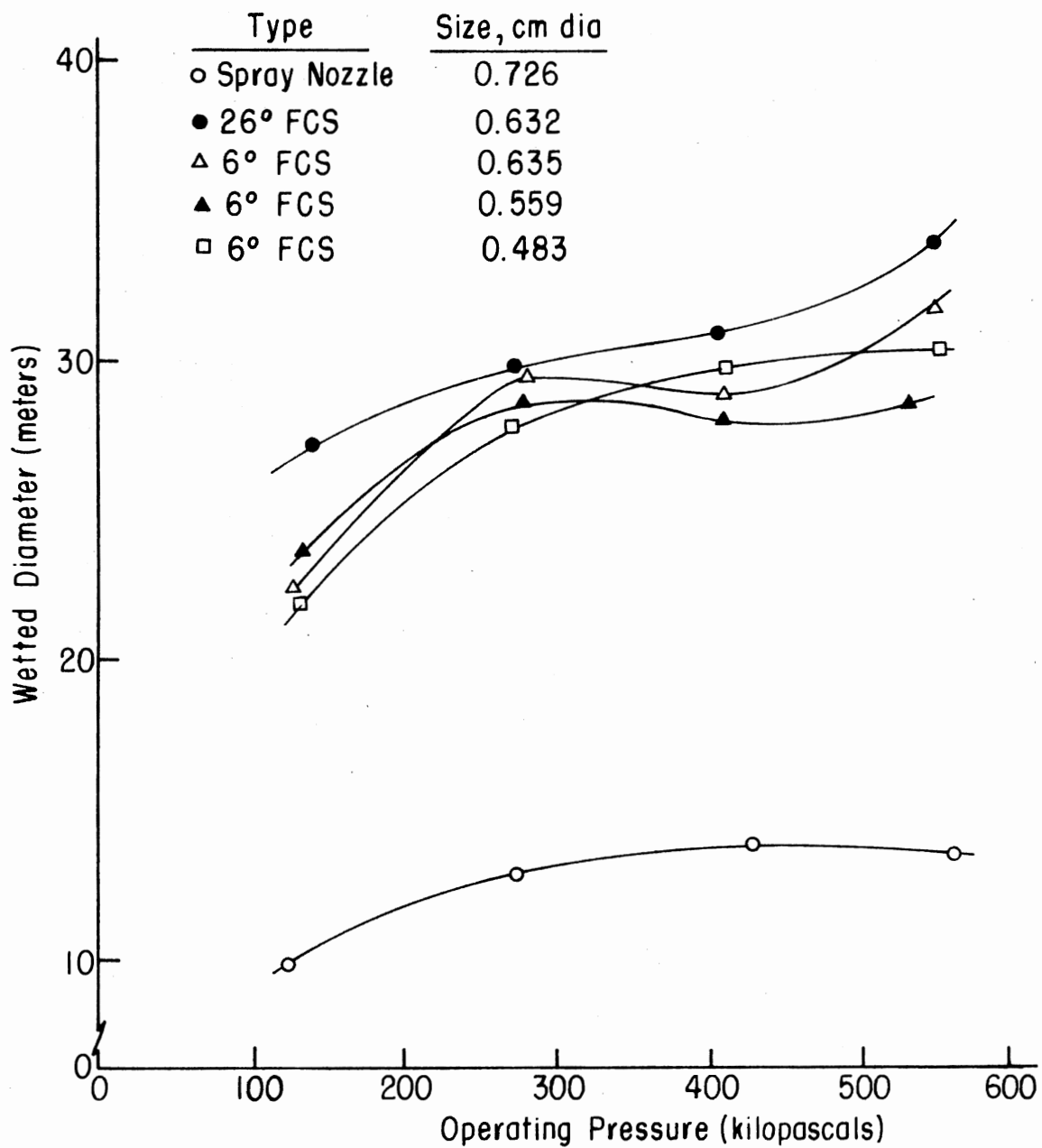


Figure 14. Wetted Diameter Versus Operating Pressure for the Sprinklers and the Spray Nozzle

pressure from 30 to 60 psi (207 to 415 kilopascals) resulted in an increase of only five feet (1.52 meters) in the trajectory distance. It also indicated that increasing pressures beyond 278 kilopascals is not very effective in obtaining a greater wetted diameter. Table VII and Figure 14 indicate that an operating pressure of 278 kilopascals is almost as good as pressures between 278 and 415 kilopascals, from the viewpoint of uniformity of application and pattern wetted diameter, provided that the recommended spacing between sprinklers is followed.

Effect of Wind on Distribution Patterns

Extensive study by Wiersma (24) on effect of wind on water distribution revealed that the distribution is affected very little, or not at all, by wind, at pressures between 48 and 56 psi (331 and 386 kilopascals) and that the angle of wind direction with respect to lateral lines has little or no effect on the distribution pattern. Seginer and Kostrinsky (22) stated that the only effect of wind was that of distorting the distribution pattern.

This study viewed the effect of wind only on the stationary single sprinkler pattern. The distribution patterns for some selected tests are shown in Figures 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20, which seem to agree with the above researchers. These contours were drawn on the average depths of water obtained from all three repetitions within a test.

It was also observed that the distribution pattern was distorted little in case of a FJSN for which the application rate was quite high.

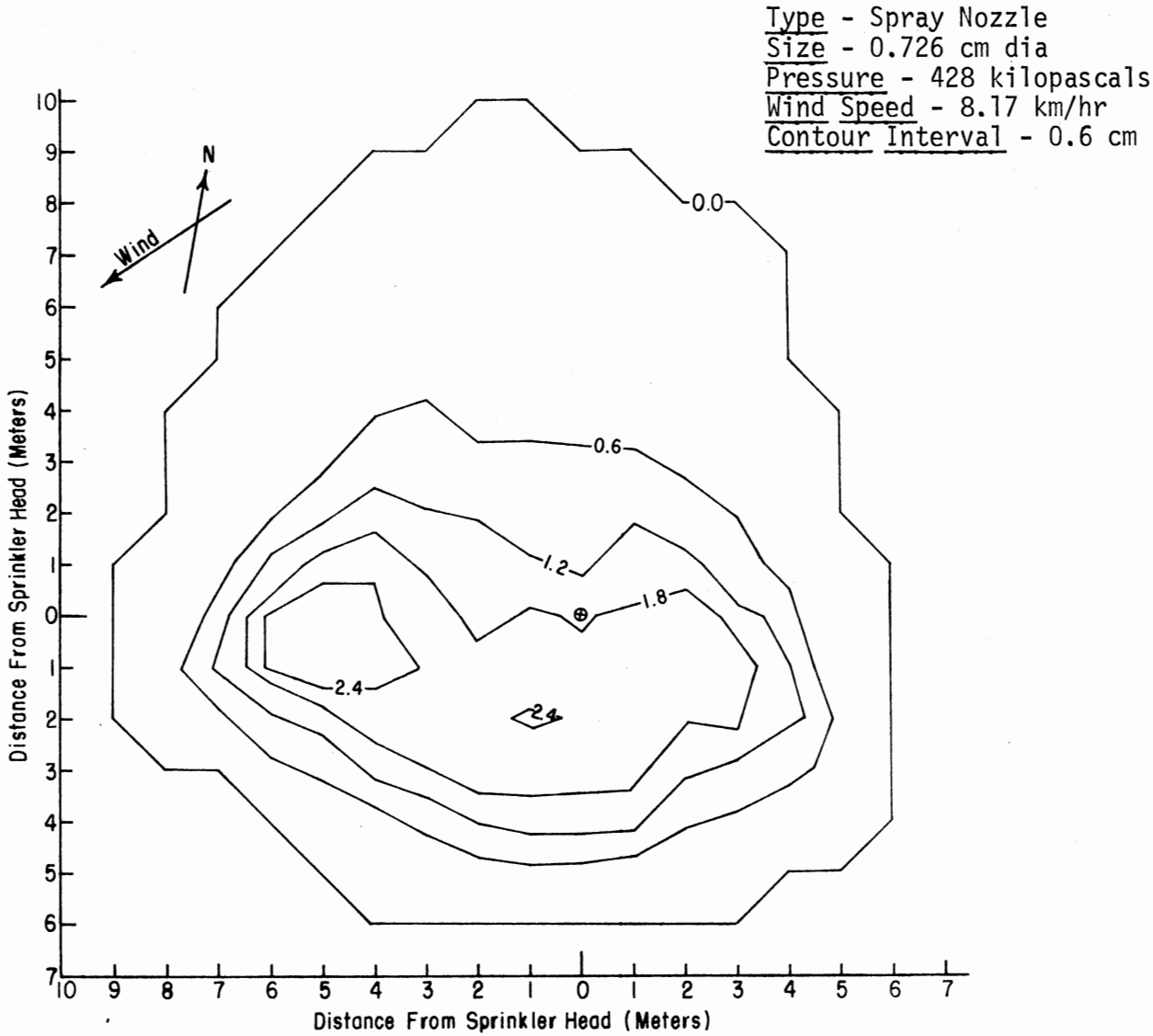


Figure 15. Contours of the Spray Distribution Depths from the Flood Jet Spray Nozzle at Low Wind Speed

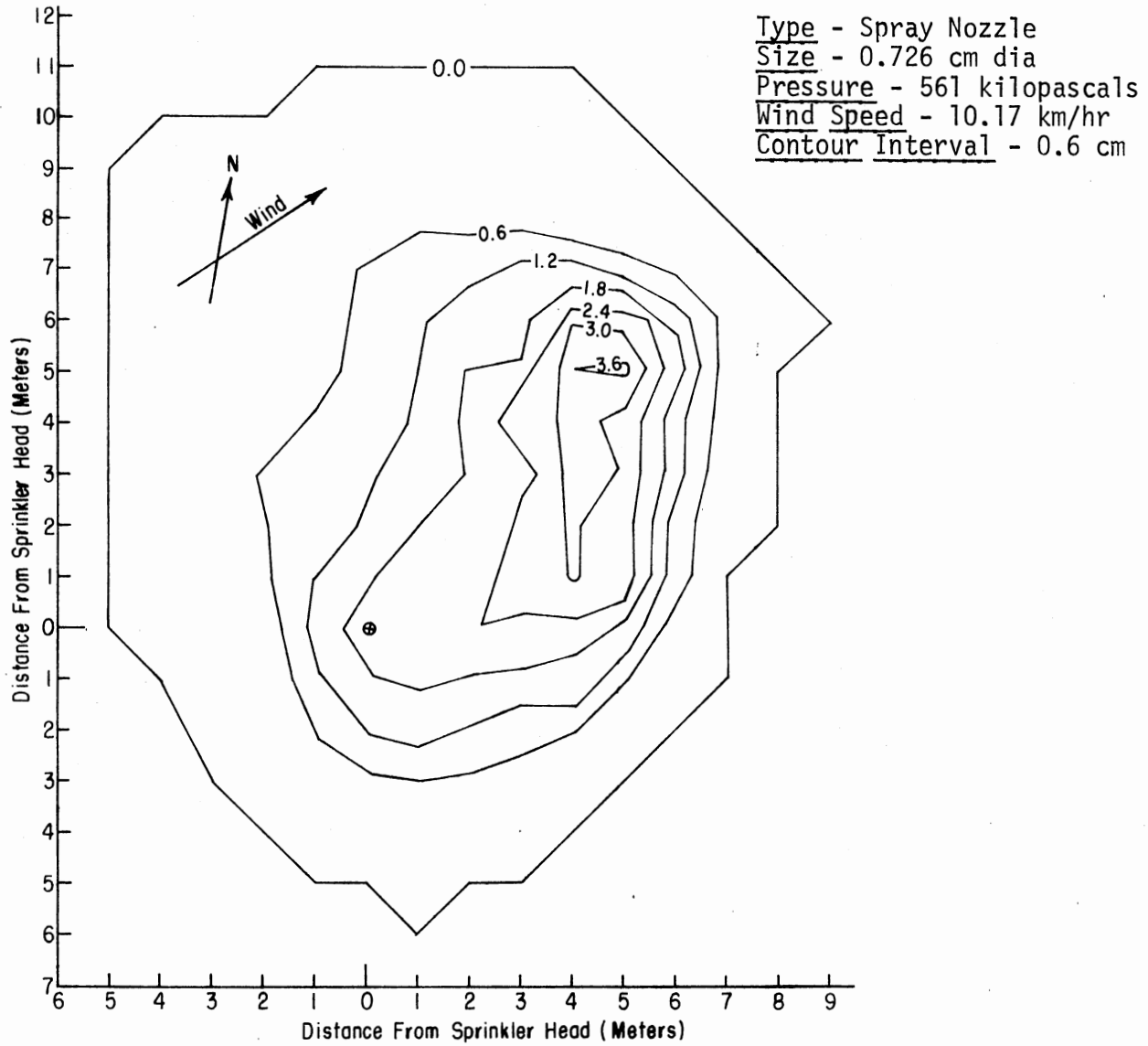


Figure 16. Contours of the Spray Distribution Depths from the Flood Jet Spray Nozzle at High Wind Speed

Type - 26° FCS
Size - 0.632 cm dia
Pressure - 410 kilopascals
Wind Speed - 7.27 km/hr
Contour Interval - 0.2 cm

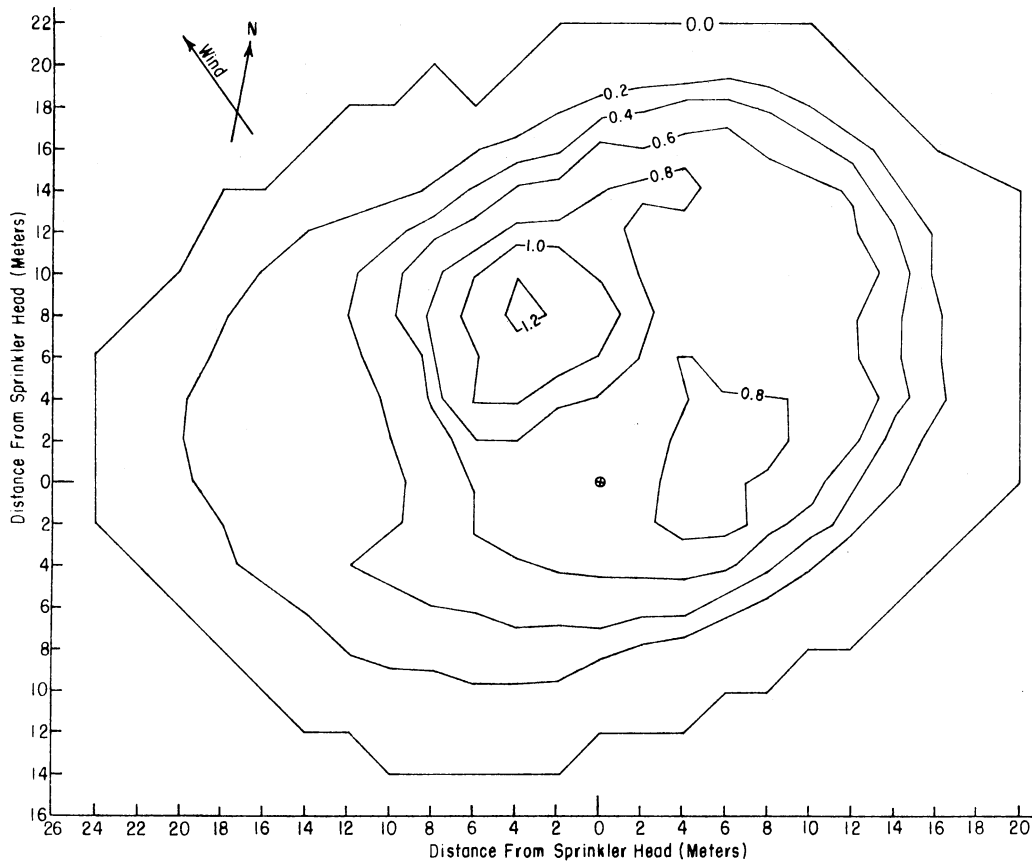


Figure 17. Contours of the Spray Distribution Depths from the 26° Full Circle Sprinkler at Low Wind Speed

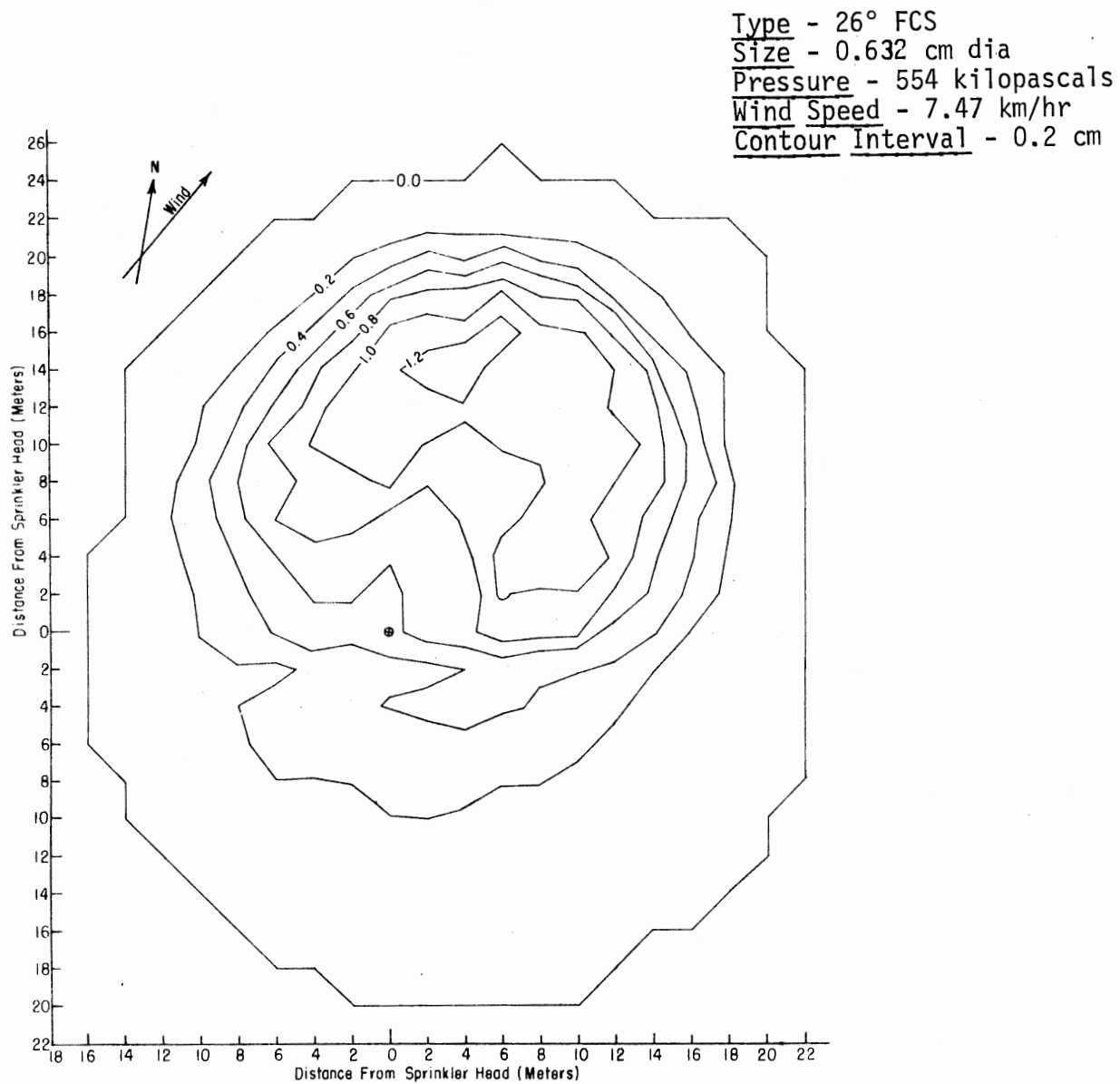


Figure 18. Contours of the Spray Distribution Depths from the 26° Full Circle Sprinkler at High Wind Speed

Type - 6° FCS
 Size - 0.483 cm dia
 Pressure - 280 kilopascals
 Wind Speed - 3.80 km/hr
 Contour Interval - 0.2 cm

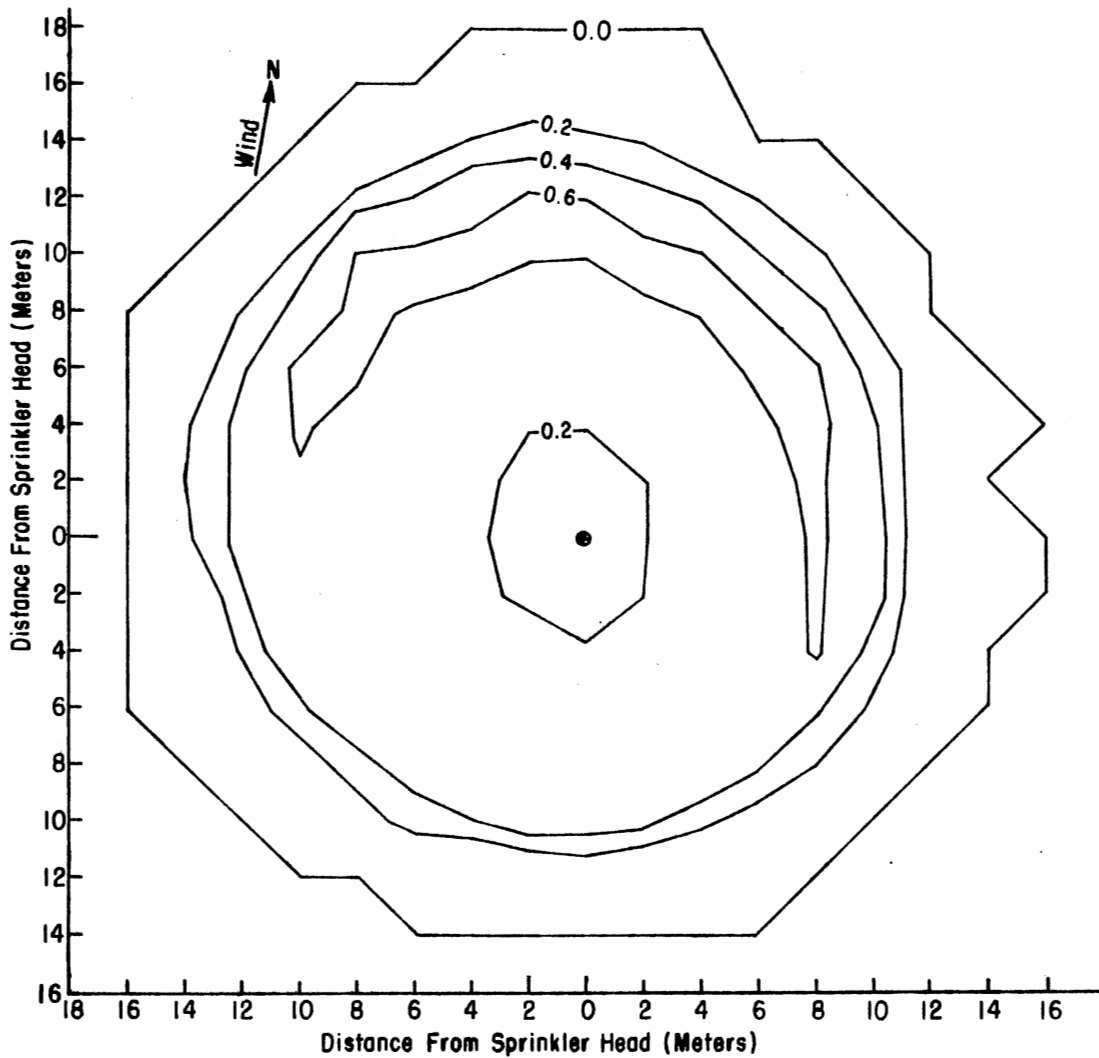


Figure 19. Contours of the Spray Distribution Depths from the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler at Low Wind Speed

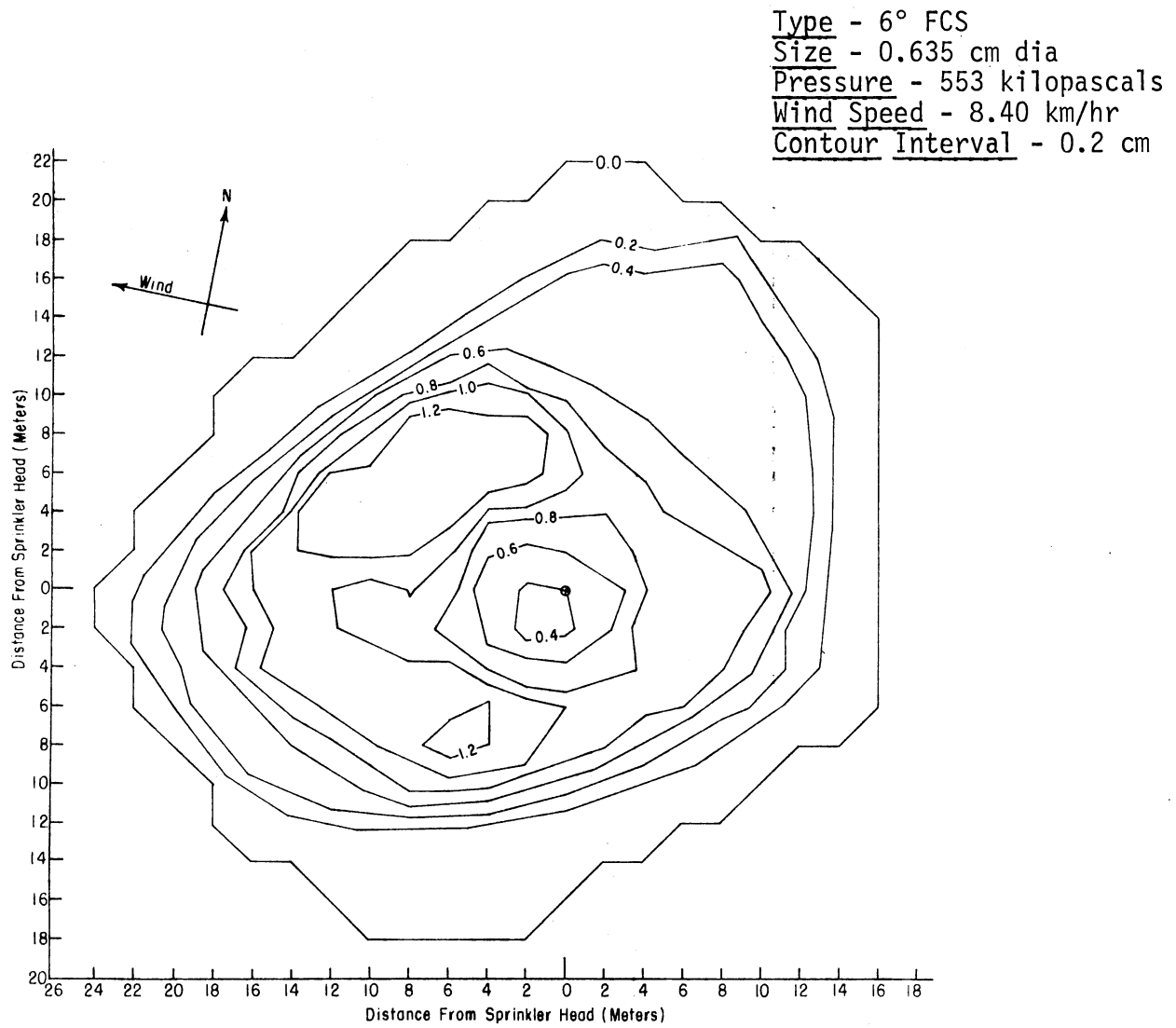


Figure 20. Contours of the Spray Distribution Depths from the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler at High Wind Speed

Average Application Rate

Application rates for spacings which would give uniformities of 80 or above for seven overlapped patterns were determined by meshing seven identical one-dimensional arrays of simulated application rates, SA(J), in a manner similar to that of meshing of the arrays of accumulated depths, AD(J), as described before. SA(J) represents an array of application rates which would be obtained from a continuously moving pattern and was generated in the following way.

Accumulated depths at column J of the array AD(J), which was already generated, were caught by the time the pattern AR (I, J) took to pass completely over the imaginary row of cans placed ahead of it. This time would be given by the following relationship:

$$T (J) = \frac{L}{PV} \quad [9]$$

where

T(J) = Time taken by the moving pattern AR(I, J) for a complete passage over the imaginary row of cans in hours

L = Distance between two extreme points in column J which was wet in meters

PV = Velocity of pattern movement in meters per hour

SA(J) was then determined by using the equation given below:

$$SA(J) = \frac{AD(J)}{T(J)} \quad [10]$$

where

SA(J) = Simulated application rates in column J in cm/hr

Mean application rate for the seven combined patterns corresponding to

each sprinkler spacing which yielded uniformities of 80 or above was computed by taking the mean of the application rates from the center array after the patterns were meshed together. An average application rate for all the above spacings were computed by averaging the above means from the three test repetitions. Average application rates for all the sprinklers and the spray nozzle tested were determined for each of the four pressures and are presented in Table VII.

Effect of Pressure on Average Application Rate

A plot of the average application rate versus operating pressure for each of the sprinklers and the spray nozzle is shown in Figure 21. Within the range of the recommended spacing, the average application rates were found to range from 3.49 to 5.14 cm/hr, from 0.30 to 0.50 cm/hr, and from 0.20 to 0.69 cm/hr for the FJSN, 26° FCS, and 6° FCS, respectively, for the four pressures.

Effect of Reduced Pressure on Energy Savings

This study established that a center-pivot sprinkler irrigation system could be operated at low pressures without materially affecting its uniformity and pattern area and with less evaporation loss. Operating a system at reduced pressure would mean great savings in energy consumption as well as operating cost, provided that the recommended sprinkler spacing is maintained.

For example, if a system is operated at the reduced pressure of 207 kilopascals instead of 552 kilopascals, the irrigation pump would need a reduced pressure head. The reduction in pressure head would

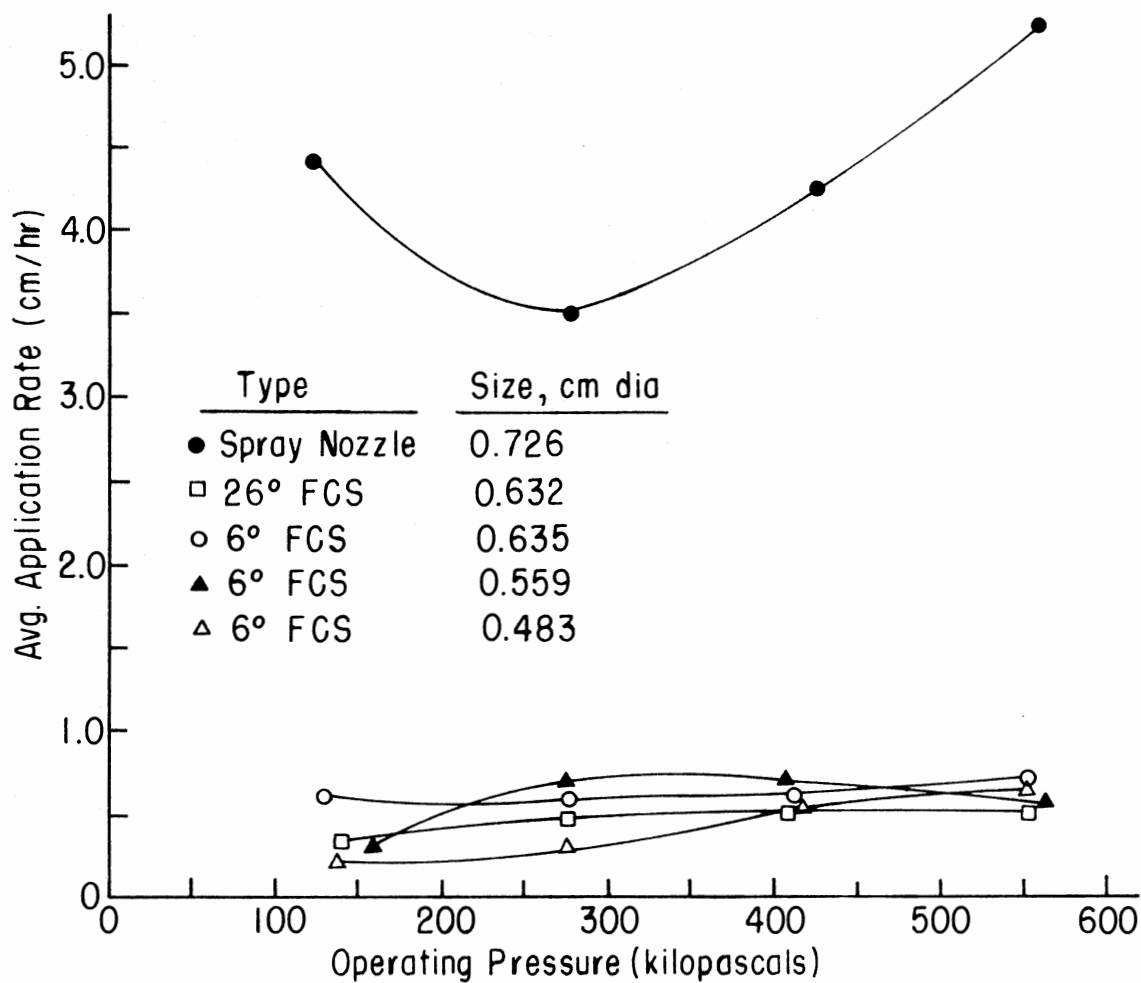


Figure 21. Average Application Rate Versus Operating Pressure for the Sprinklers and the Spray Nozzle

be 345 kilopascals or 35 meters of water. Assuming a 70 percent efficient pump and using nomographs presented by Petersen (20), energy savings per unit volume of water applied would be 1335 kilowatt-hours per hectare-meter. And money saved per unit volume of water applied would be \$40.00 per hectare-meter assuming a total power cost per unit of energy of three cents per kilowatt-hour.

Thus operating the sprinkler system at a reduced pressure of 207 kilopascals following the recommended sprinkler spacing would mean satisfactory sprinkler performance with much lower operating cost, energy consumption, and evaporation loss.

Effect of Trajectory Angle on Pattern Wetted Diameter, Uniformity, and Evaporation Loss

Two types of full circle sprinklers, one having a 26° trajectory angle, and the other 6°, were tested in this study. Based on three repetitions and stationary distribution patterns, results obtained from analyses are summarized in Table VIII which indicate that the low trajectory sprinkler had uniformities comparable to those of the high trajectory sprinkler but it had about 24 percent less evaporation loss and about seven percent less wetted diameter on the average for the four pressures.

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON OF WETTED DIAMETER, UNIFORMITY, AND
EVAPORATION LOSS OF 6° FCS AND 26° FCS

Type	Nozzle Diameter (cm)	Pressure (Kilopascals)	Relative Humidity (%)	Wind Speed (km/hr)	Wetted Diameter (Meters)	Uniformity (%)	Evaporation (%)
6° FCS	0.635	128	38	9.84	24.42	69	32
		280	38	7.07	31.29	63	33
		412	39	12.45	30.82	53	35
		552	31	13.48	33.57	48	38
26° FCS	0.632	140	51	12.82	29.01	69	46
		276	46	12.24	31.76	55	44
		410	44	11.70	32.83	52	45
		554	36	10.02	35.82	49	47

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

Tests were conducted on a single stationary sprinkler head with two different types of full circle sprinklers and a spray nozzle to evaluate the performances of a center-pivot sprinkler system at reduced operating pressure. The 6° trajectory full circle sprinkler was tested with three different nozzle sizes while the 26° trajectory full circle sprinkler and the spray nozzle were tested each with only one size. Every size of the sprinklers and the spray nozzle was tested at four pressure levels, each level being repeated three times.

From the stationary distribution tests, evaporation loss for the sprinklers and the spray nozzle was determined for every test repetition. Evaporation loss was considered to be the combined loss of spray evaporation and drift. It was defined as the loss that occurred between the nozzle and the ground surface. Loss from catch-cans was considered negligible as reported by Frost and Schwalen (12) and no correction was made for it.

Average evaporation loss was found to be 22 percent for the spray nozzle, 46 percent for the 26° trajectory full circle sprinkler, and 29 percent for the 6° trajectory full circle sprinklers. It was also observed that pressures of 134, 278, 415 and 556 kilopascals resulted

in evaporation losses of 29, 29, 31, and 35 percent, respectively. These results indicated that at pressures between 134 and 278 kilopascals, evaporation loss was the same but at pressures higher than 278 kilopascals it increased slowly.

Attempts were made to determine the relative influence of nozzle type and size, operating pressure, relative humidity, and wind speed on evaporation. It was found that relative humidity probably had the greatest effect on evaporation. The nozzle type and size also had a significant effect while pressure had comparatively little. Effects of wind on evaporation could not be determined due to the lack of data at wide variations of wind speeds.

Effect of wind on the distribution pattern was observed. Contours of depths of applications were used to demonstrate this phenomenon. It was observed that at higher application rates, the distortion was less.

The distribution from the stationary test was used to determine the uniformity of application of a center-pivot sprinkler system. The stationary pattern was simulated to a continuously moving one and depths collected by an imaginary row of cans placed ahead of the continuously moving pattern were determined for a complete passage of the pattern. These depths were meshed together with the depths obtained from six other identical patterns. Meshing was done by unit increment, each increment representing a spacing between sprinklers. Christiansen's uniformity of application equation was used to determine the uniformity coefficient for the combined depths after every increment of meshing, when the spacing between sprinklers became equal to or less than the pattern wetted diameter.

From the results of the meshed patterns, plots of the uniformity coefficient versus sprinkler spacing indicated that high uniformities can be achieved from any of the four pressures. After reviewing the reports of Jones (15), Heermann and Hein (14), Pair (19), and Petersen (20), an acceptable uniformity was selected at 80 or above. Using this criterion, a recommendation was made for sprinkler spacings for different sprinklers and the spray nozzle at different pressures as shown in Table VII. Average application rates and uniformities corresponding to the recommended spacings were also determined and are shown in Table VII. It was found that within the range of the recommended spacings and for pressures between 134 and 556 kilopascals, the uniformities ranged from 83 to 93, while average application rate varied from 0.20 to 5.14 cm/hr, among the different sprinklers and the spray nozzle tested.

From the point of view of uniformity (Table VII), wetted diameter (Figure 14), and evaporation loss (Table I), this study established that center-pivot sprinkler systems can be operated at reduced pressures below 278 kilopascals without materially affecting its performance. A reduced operating pressure would save energy and pumping cost which was demonstrated by an example.

A comparison was made between the 6° trajectory full circle sprinkler and the 26° trajectory full circle sprinkler and it was observed that the 6° trajectory full circle sprinkler had uniformities comparable to the 26° trajectory full circle sprinkler. However, the 6° trajectory full circle sprinkler indicated about 24 percent less evaporation loss and about seven percent less wetted diameter on the average of the four pressures.

Conclusions

1. Average evaporation losses for each nozzle and sprinkler ranged from 15 to 35 percent for FJSN, from 40 to 52 percent for 26° FCS, and from eight to 41 percent for 6° FCS, for pressures between 134 and 556 kilopascals.
2. Overall evaporation loss was 22 percent for the spray nozzle, 46 percent for the 26° trajectory full circle sprinkler, and 29 percent for the 6° trajectory full circle sprinklers.
3. For pressures between 134 and 278 kilopascals, evaporation loss remained the same but at pressures above 278 kilopascals, evaporation loss increased slowly.
4. Relative humidity and nozzle type and size had the greatest effect on evaporation loss while operating pressure had comparatively little effect.
5. Effect of wind speed on evaporation loss could not be determined due to the lack of variation in wind speeds.
6. The only effect of wind on distribution patterns was observed in distorting the pattern. The higher the application rate, the less was the degree of distortion.
7. Within the range of the recommended sprinkler spacing, uniformities and application rates for the seven combined patterns ranged from 83 to 93 and from 0.20 to 5.14 cm/hr, respectively, for pressure between 134 and 556 kilopascals.
8. A center-pivot sprinkler irrigation system can be operated at reduced pressures, between 134 and 278 kilopascals, resulting in satisfactory uniformity and less evaporation loss, provided the recommended sprinkler spacing is followed.

9. Comparison between the 6° trajectory full circle sprinkler and the 26° trajectory full circle sprinkler showed that the 6° trajectory full circle sprinkler had uniformities comparable to the 26° trajectory full circle sprinkler. However, it had about 24 percent less evaporation loss and about seven percent less wetted diameter.

Suggestions for Future Research

1. Perform extensive tests at shorter pressure intervals between pressures of 134 and 278 kilopascals to decide reduced operating pressure more precisely using a single sprinkler head.
2. Determine effect of relative humidity, wind speed and direction, temperature, operating pressure and nozzle size on evaporation loss by taking enough replications with different size spray nozzles and full circle sprinklers.
3. Determine effect of wind speed, wind direction, nozzle size, trajectory angle, and height of the sprinkler nozzles on sprinkler spacing.
4. Determine uniformity and evaporation loss at reduced pressure on a commercial center-pivot sprinkler system following the recommended spacings.
5. Test different size spray nozzles and full circle sprinklers with a single sprinkler head at a wide range of relative humidity, wind speed, and temperature, preferably at controlled levels.
6. Perform extensive test with different sizes of 6° trajectory full circle sprinklers to evaluate its evaporation loss, uniformity, and application rate.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

DISTRIBUTION OF SPRINKLER SPRAY

VOLUME OF WATER COLLECTED IN CANS IN THE GRID NETWORK, IML

SPRINKLER TYPE: 4 DEGREE LOW TRAJECTORY SPRINKLER NOZZLE SIZE (CM OF DIA) : 0.635 TEST SERIAL NO: 31
TEST NO: 11 REPLICATION NO: 1 TEST DATE: AUG 25 OPERATING PRESSURE (KPA SCAL): 1407.50 TEST DURATION(MIN): 150.

Table with 36 columns of numerical data representing volume collected in cans for Test No. 11, Replication No. 1.

SPRINKLER TYPE: 4 DEGREE LOW TRAJECTORY SPRINKLER NOZZLE SIZE (CM OF DIA) : 0.635 TEST SERIAL NO: 32
TEST NO: 11 REPLICATION NO: 2 TEST DATE: AUG 27 OPERATING PRESSURE (KPA SCAL): 415.00 TEST DURATION(MIN): 150.

Table with 36 columns of numerical data representing volume collected in cans for Test No. 11, Replication No. 2.

VOLUME OF WATER COLLECTED IN CANS IN THE GRID NETWORK.(ML)

SPRINKLER TYPE: 6 DEGREE LOW TRAJECTORY SPRINKLER NOZZLE SIZE (CM OF DIA) : 0.483 TEST SERIAL NO: 37
TEST NO: 13 REPLICATION NO: 1 TEST DATE: AUG 29 OPERATING PRESSURE (KPASCALS):135.50 TEST DURATION(MIN): 150.

Table with 25 columns of numerical data representing water volume collected in cans. The first 20 columns are mostly zeros, with some values appearing in the last 5 columns (21-25). Values range from 0 to 119. The table ends with the header information for the second test.

SPRINKLER TYPE: 6 DEGREE LOW TRAJECTORY SPRINKLER NOZZLE SIZE (CM OF DIA) : 0.483 TEST SERIAL NO: 38
TEST NO: 13 REPLICATION NO: 2 TEST DATE: SEPT 1 OPERATING PRESSURE (KPASCALS):139.10 TEST DURATION(MIN): 150.

Table with 25 columns of numerical data representing water volume collected in cans for the second replication. The first 20 columns are mostly zeros, with some values appearing in the last 5 columns (21-25). Values range from 0 to 83. The table ends with the header information for the third test.

APPENDIX B

UNIFORMITY COEFFICIENT VERSUS SPRINKLER SPACING
FOR THE SPRINKLERS AND THE SPRAY NOZZLE

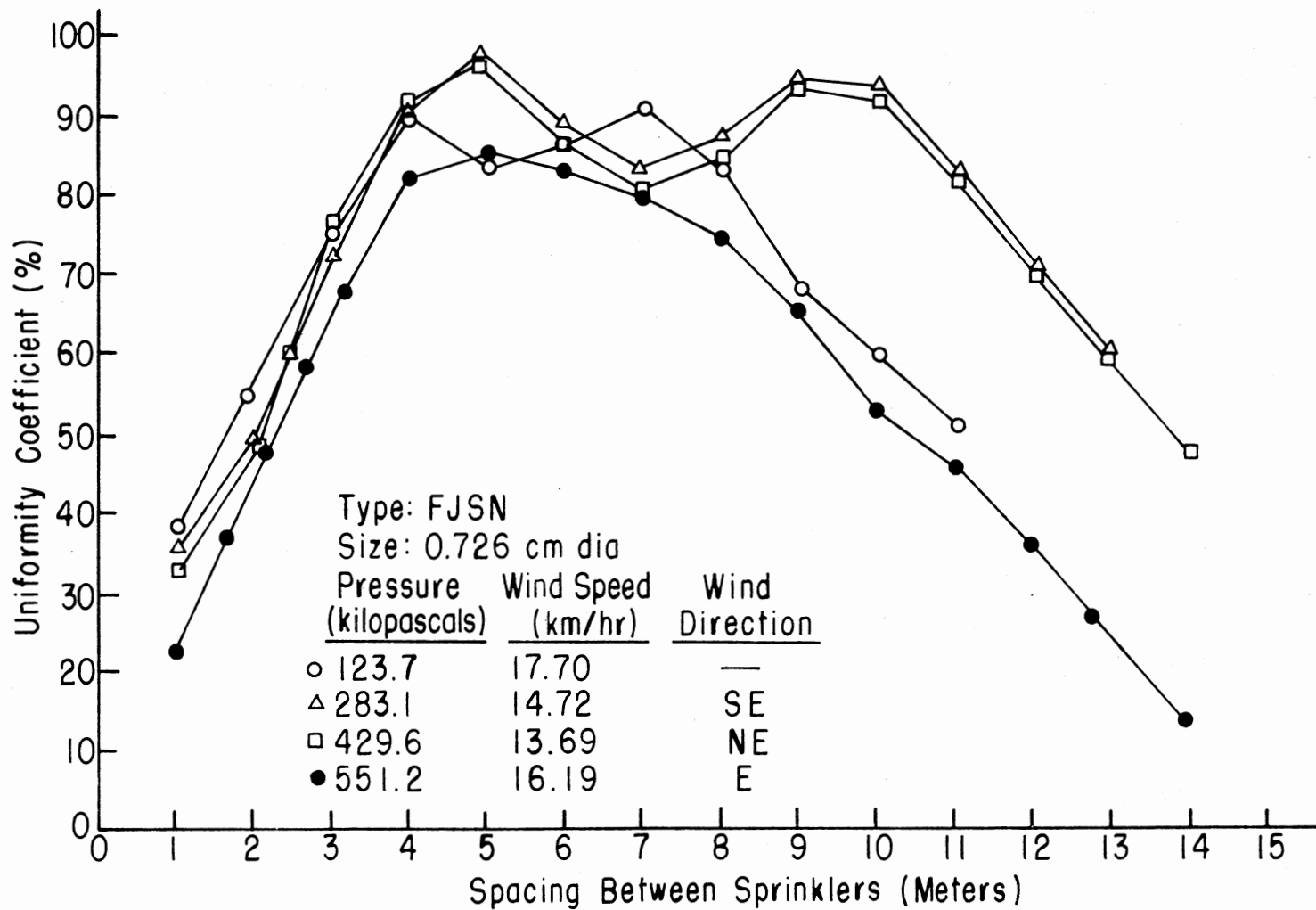


Figure 22. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the Flood Jet Spray Nozzle, Repetition 2

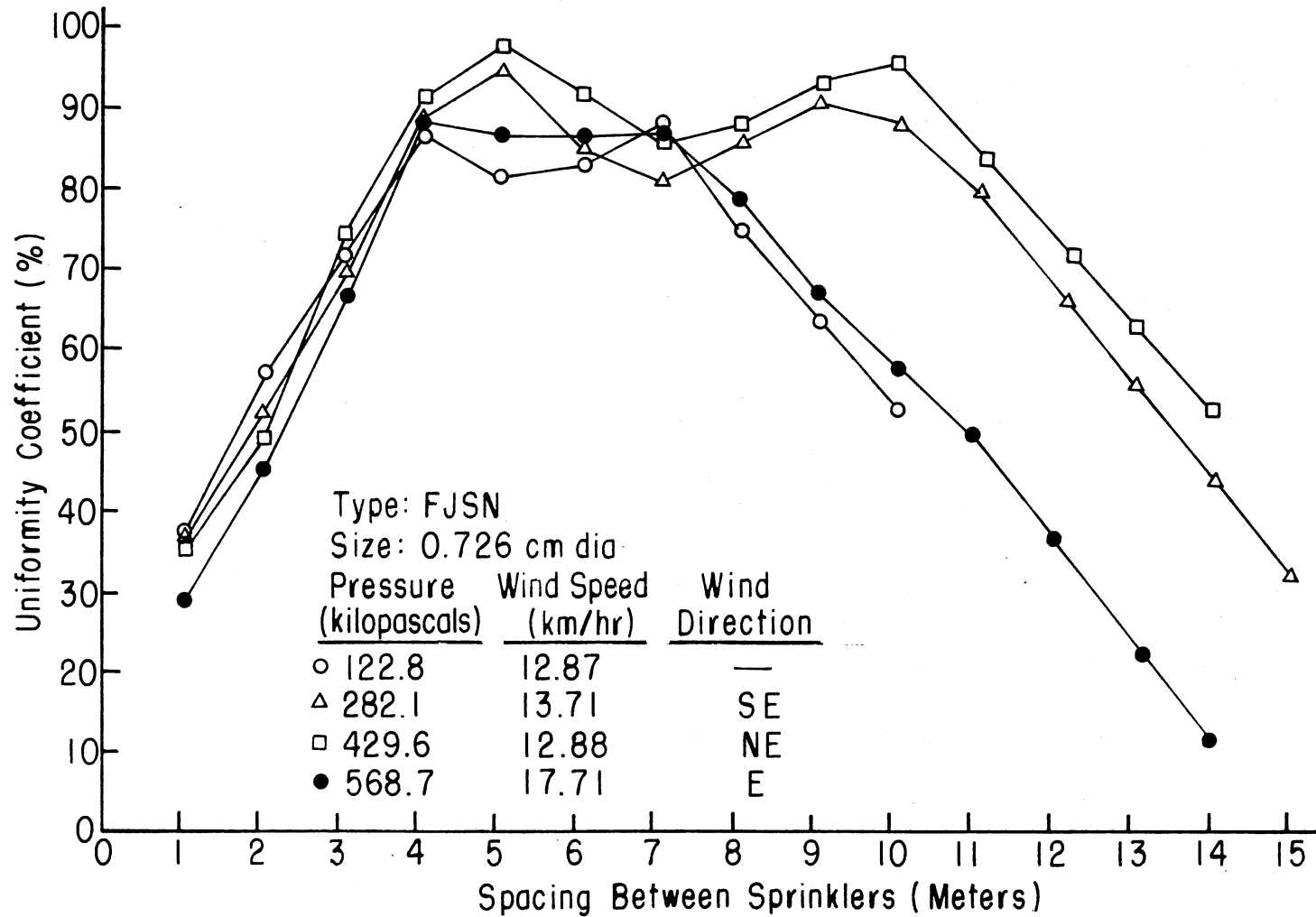


Figure 23. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the Flood Jet Spray Nozzle, Repetition 3

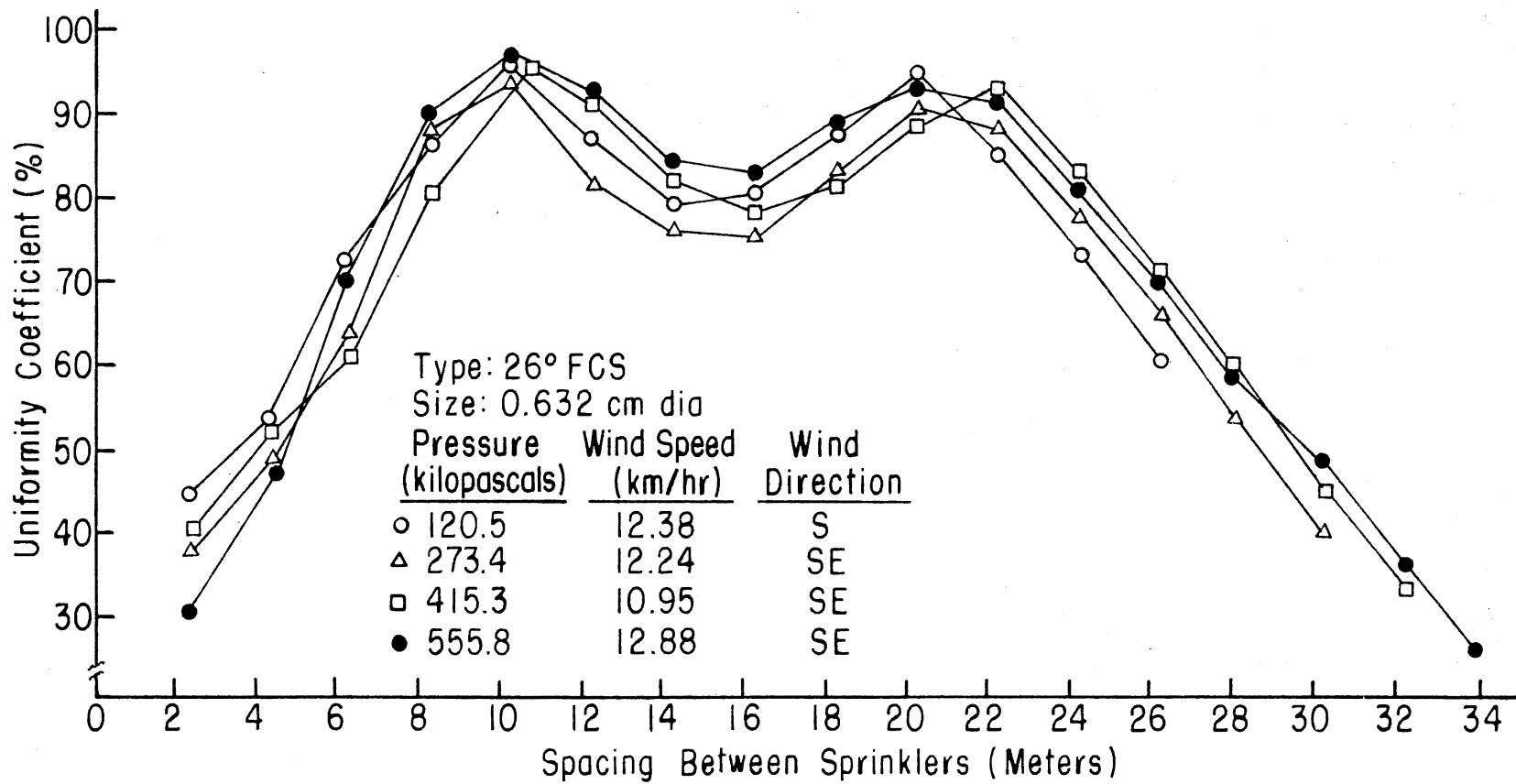


Figure 24. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 26° Full Circle Sprinkler, Repetition 2

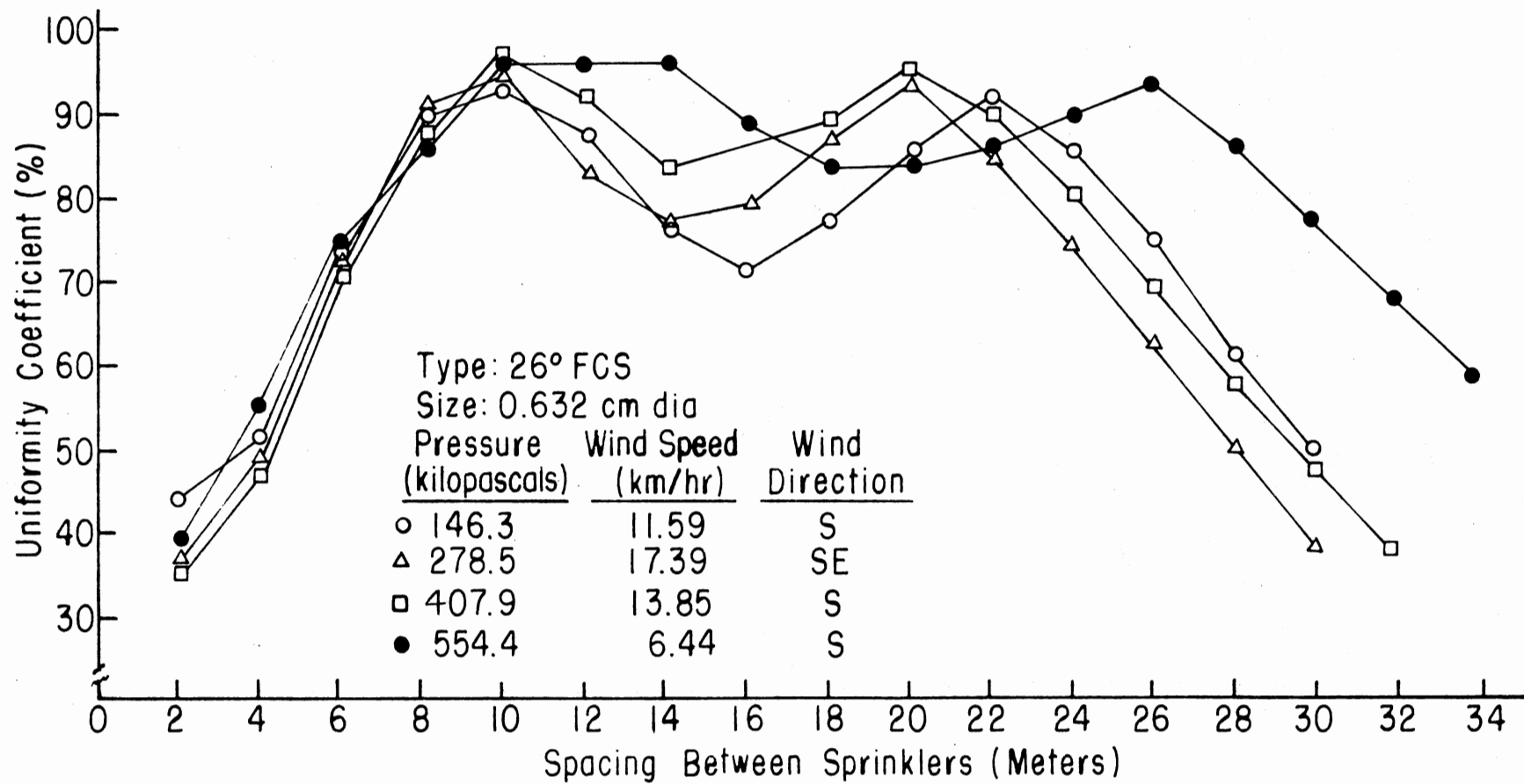


Figure 25. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 26° Full Circle Sprinkler, Repetition 3

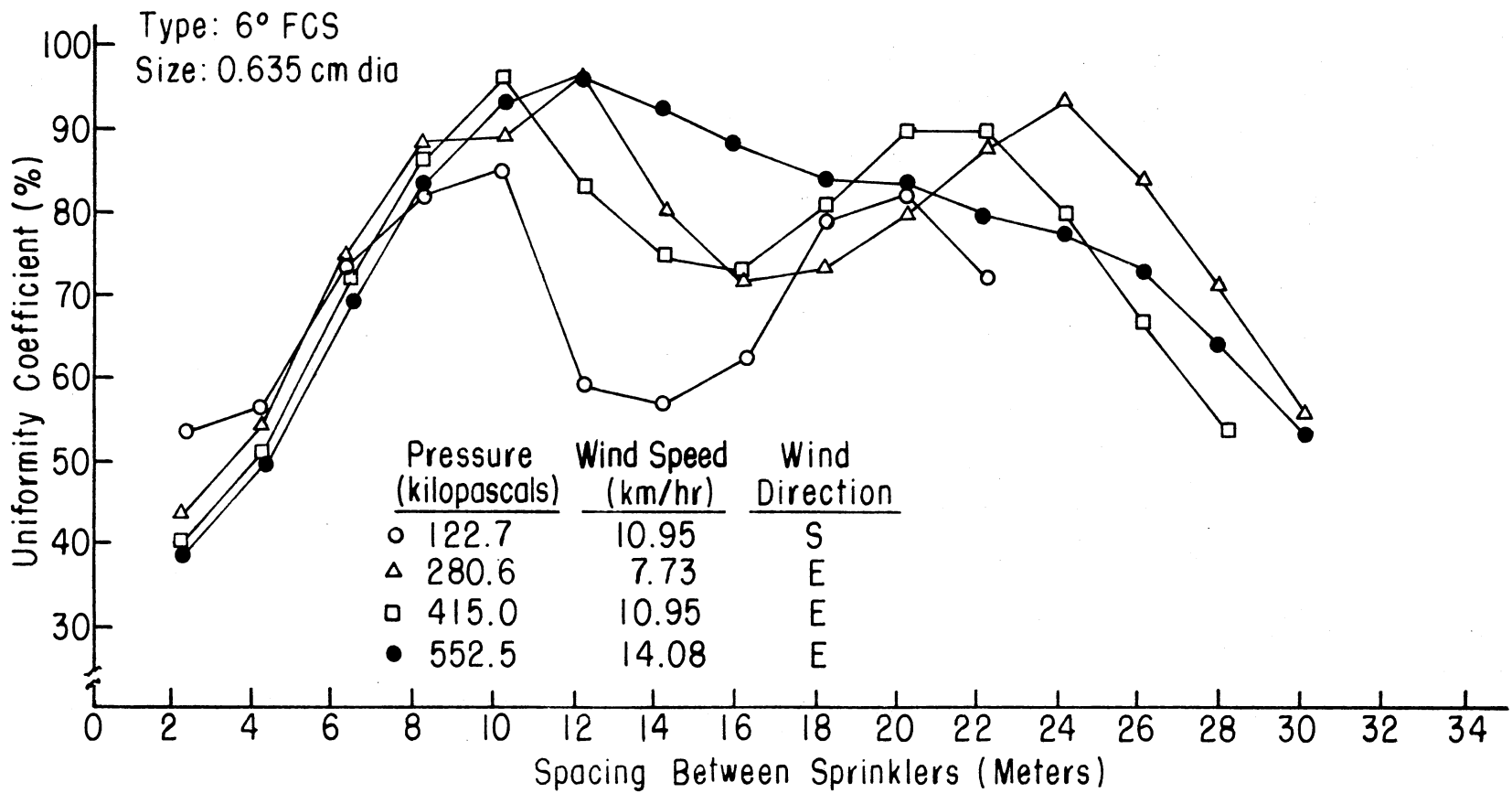


Figure 26. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler (0.635 cm Diameter), Repetition 2

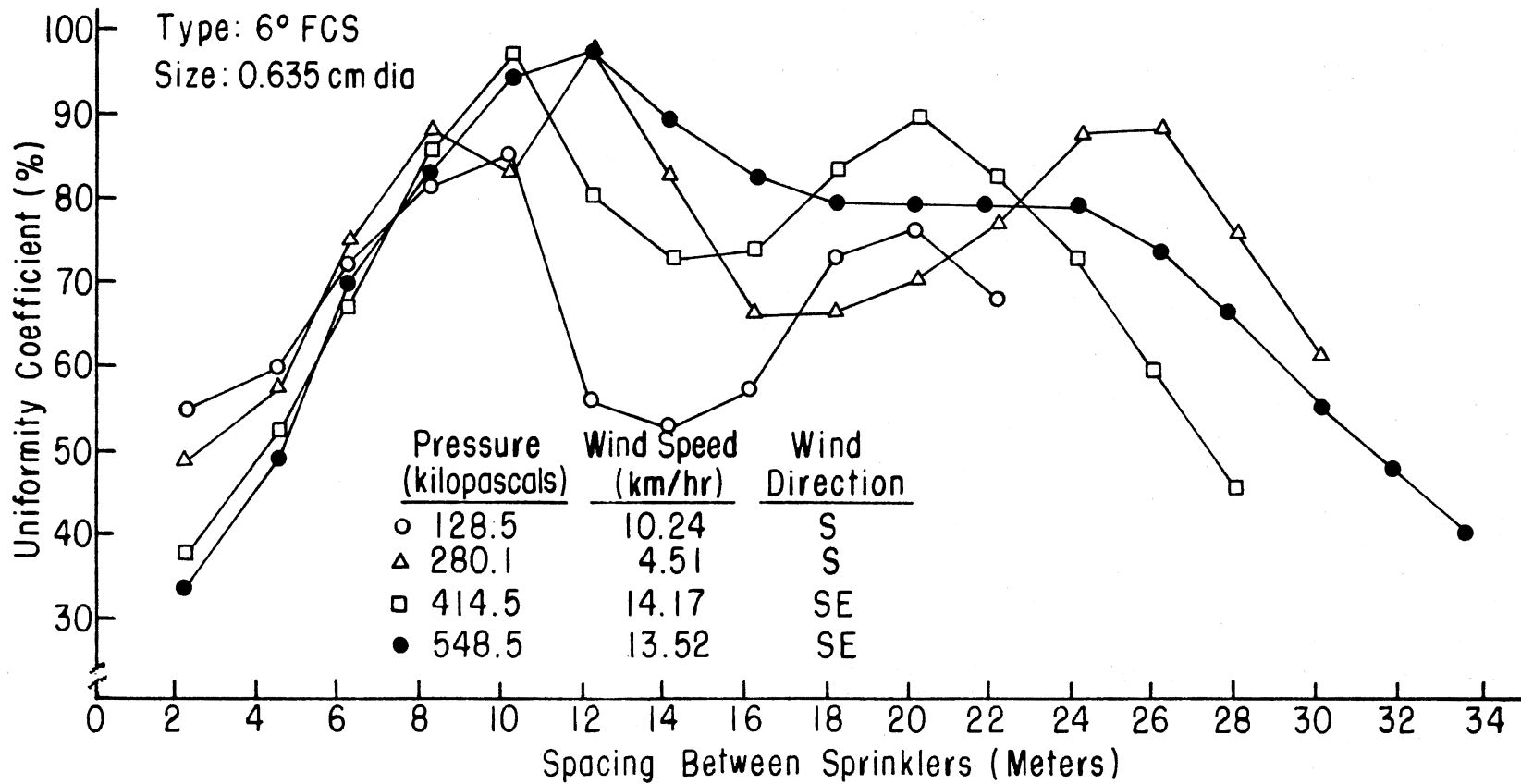


Figure 27. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler (0.635 cm Diameter), Repetition 3

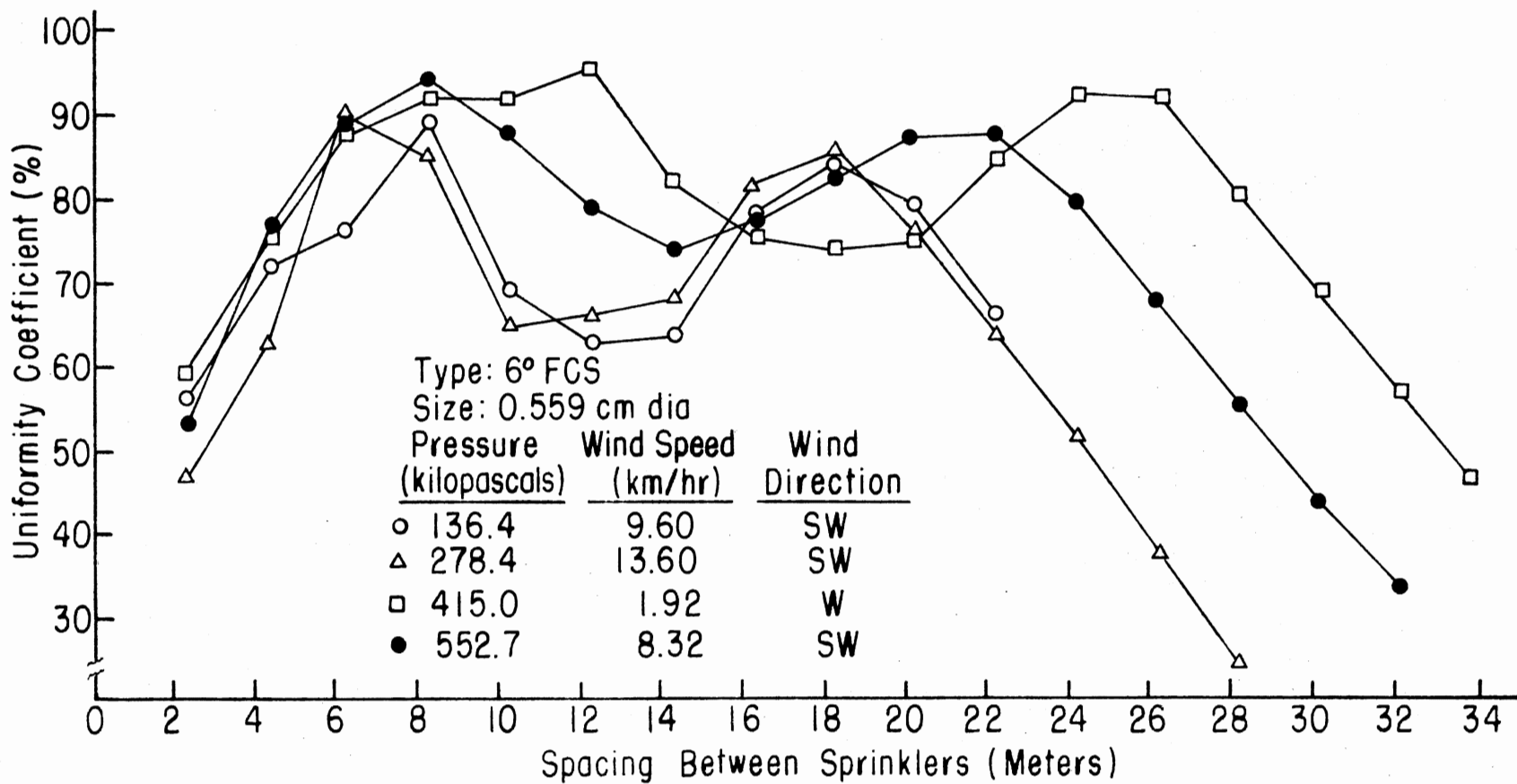


Figure 28. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler (0.559 cm Diameter), Repetition 1

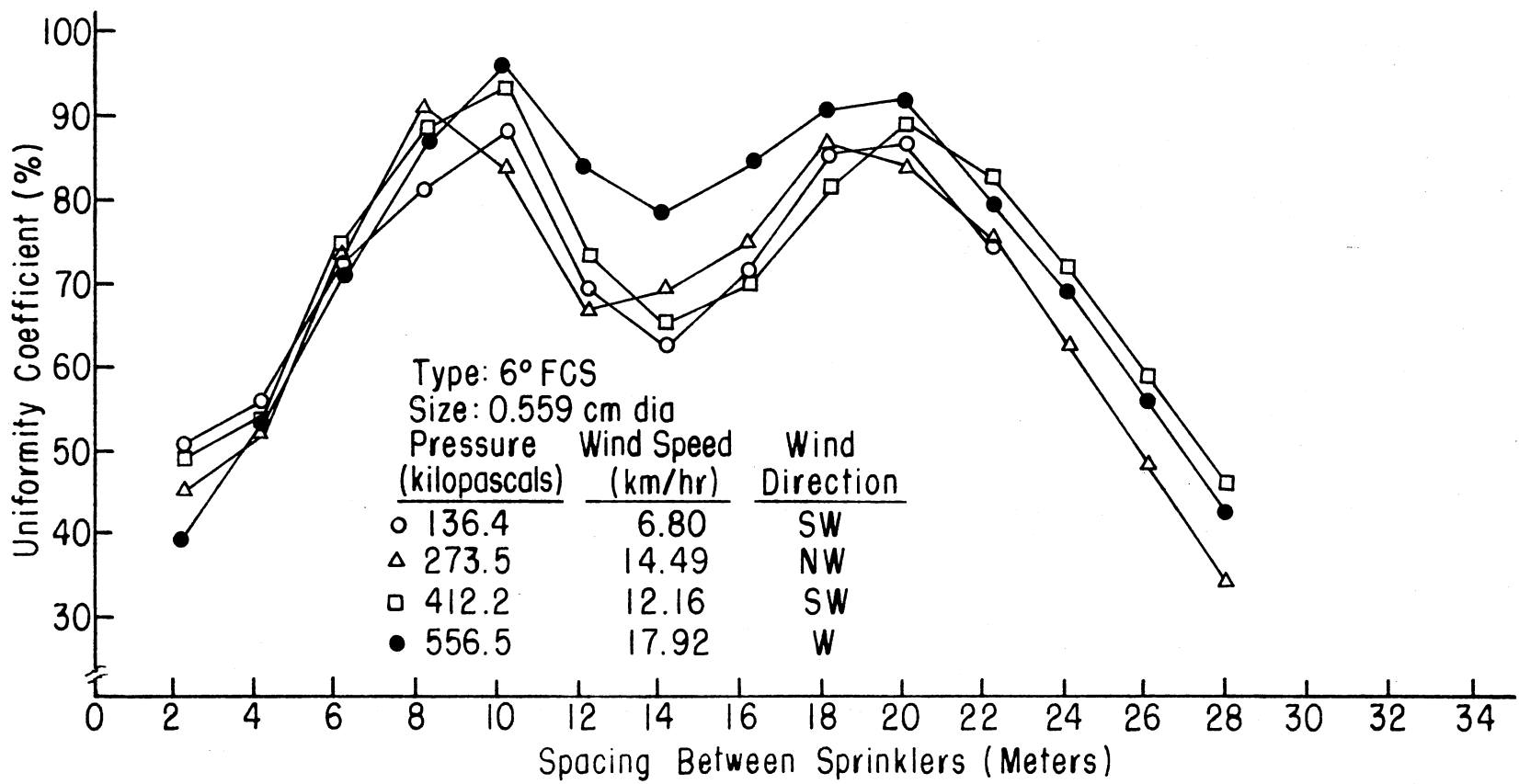


Figure 29. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler (0.559 cm Diameter), Repetition 2

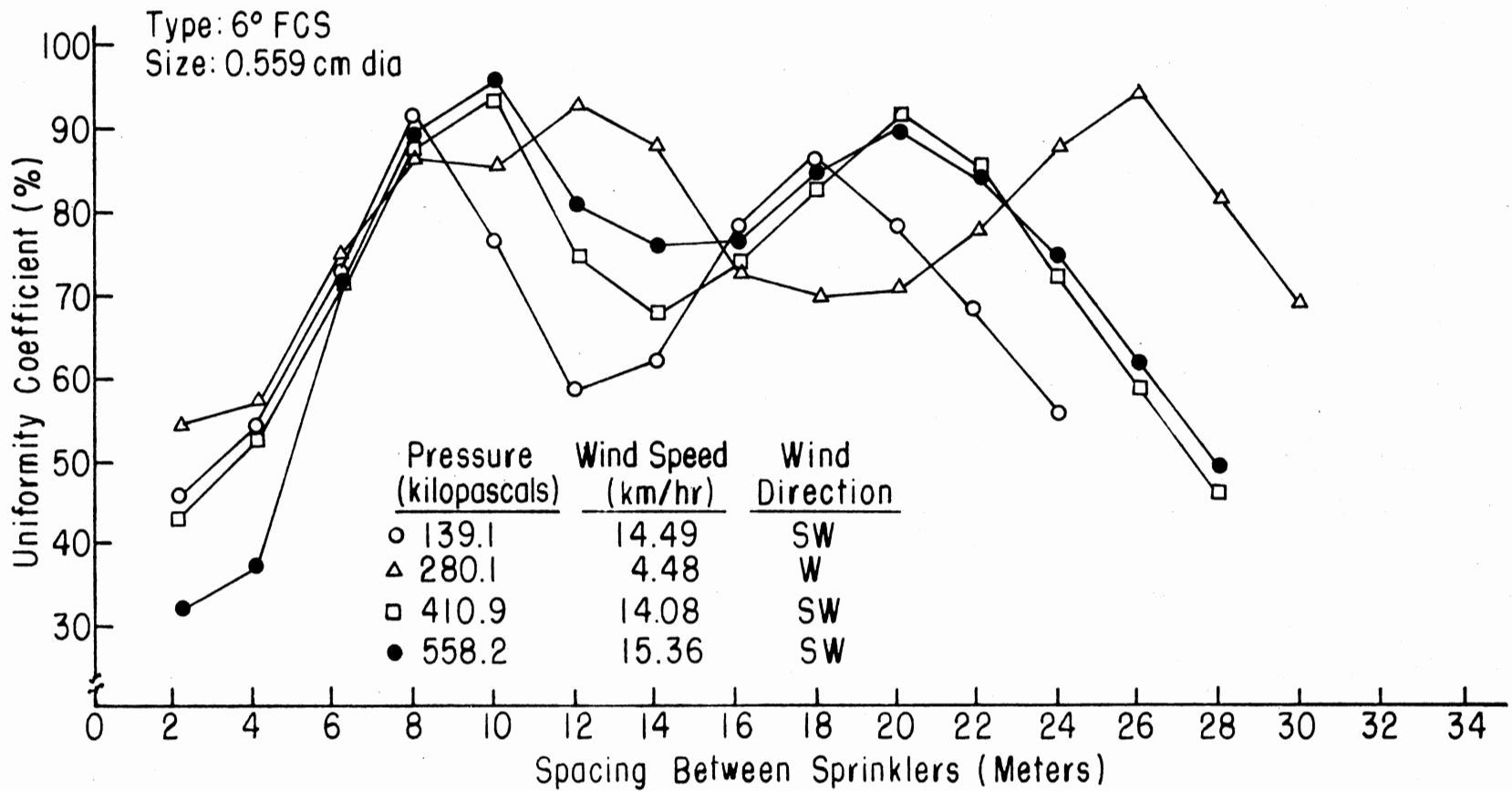


Figure 30. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler (0.559 cm Diameter), Repetition 3

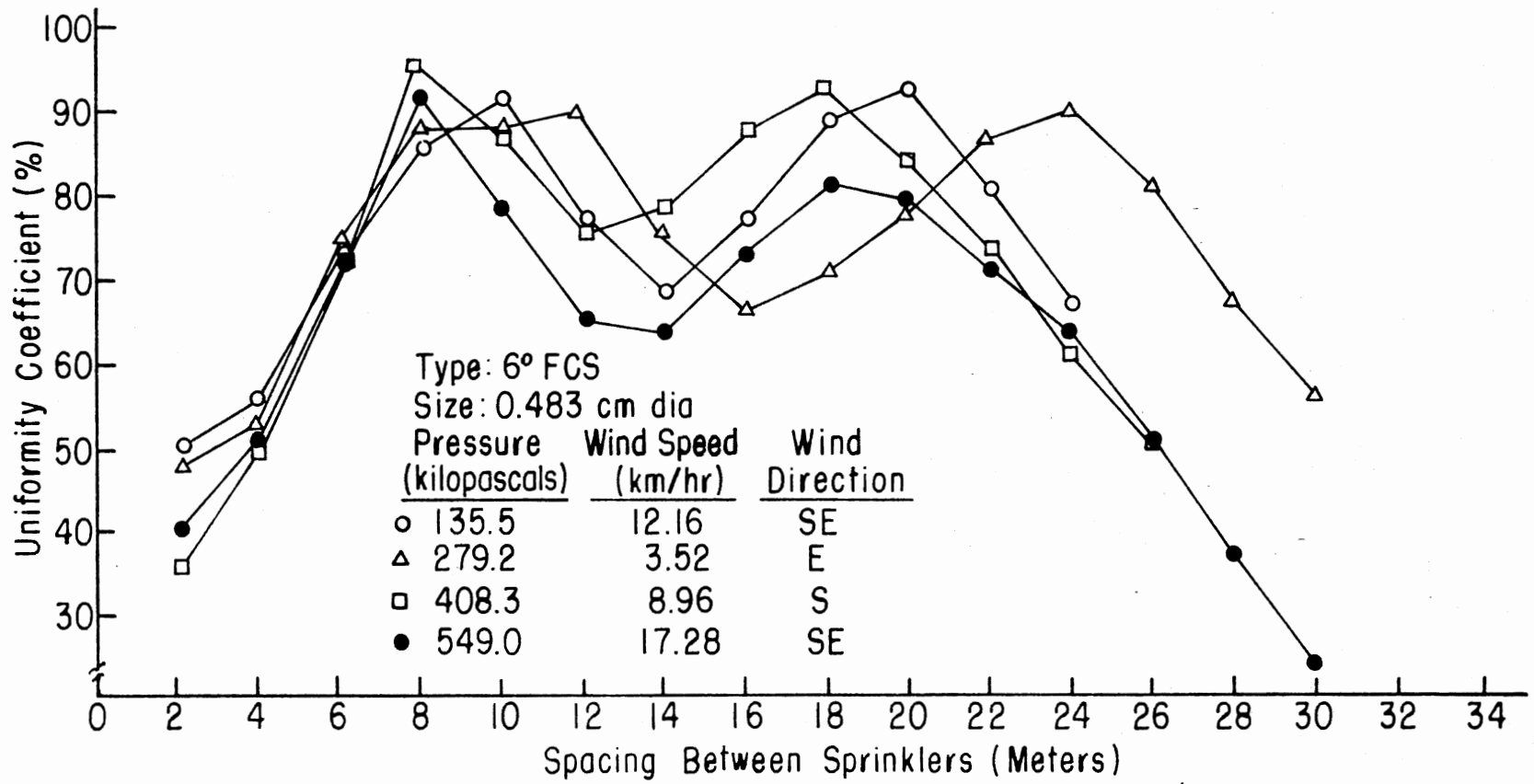


Figure 31. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler (0.483 cm Diameter), Repetition 1

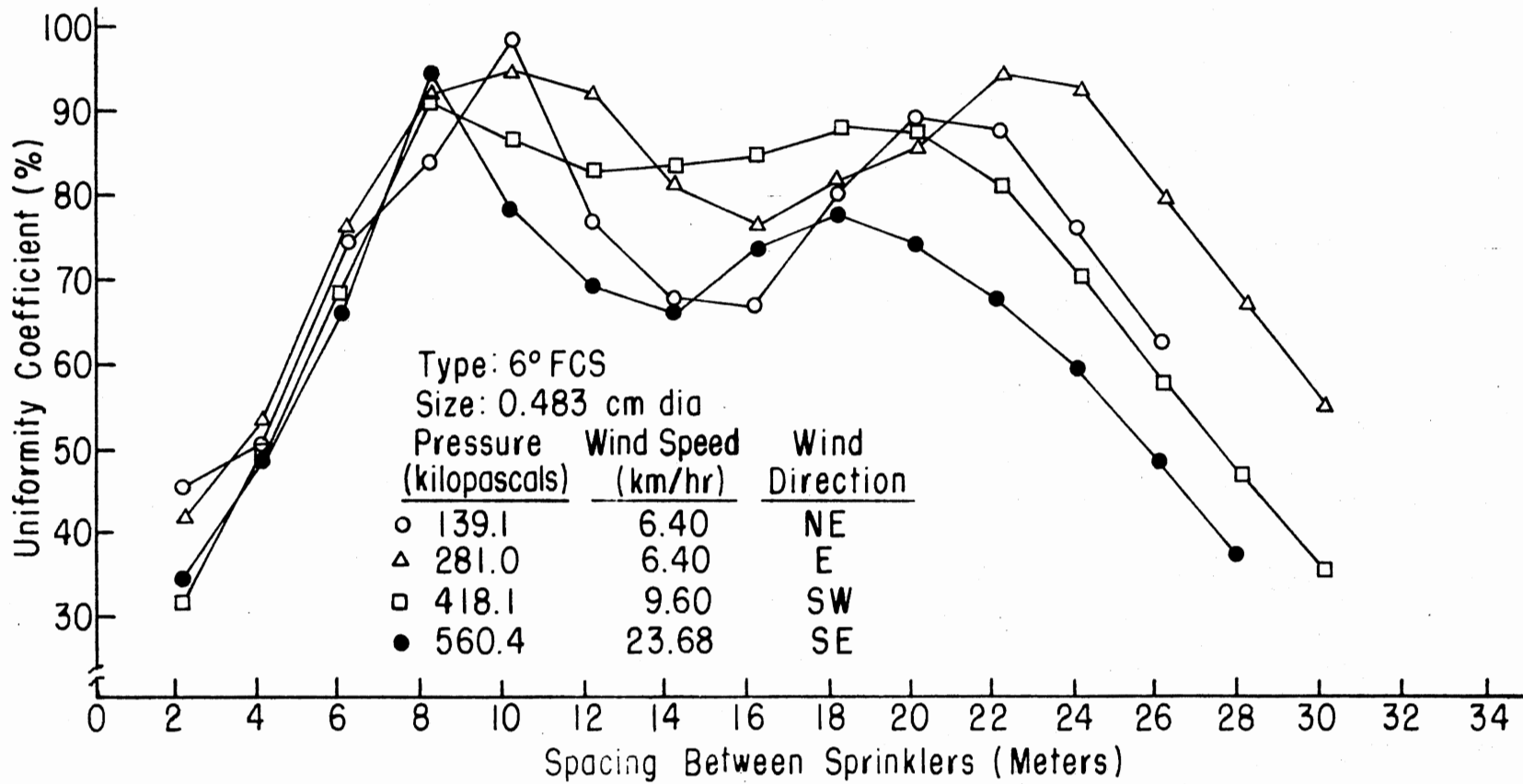


Figure 32. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinklers for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler (0.483 cm Diameter), Repetition 2

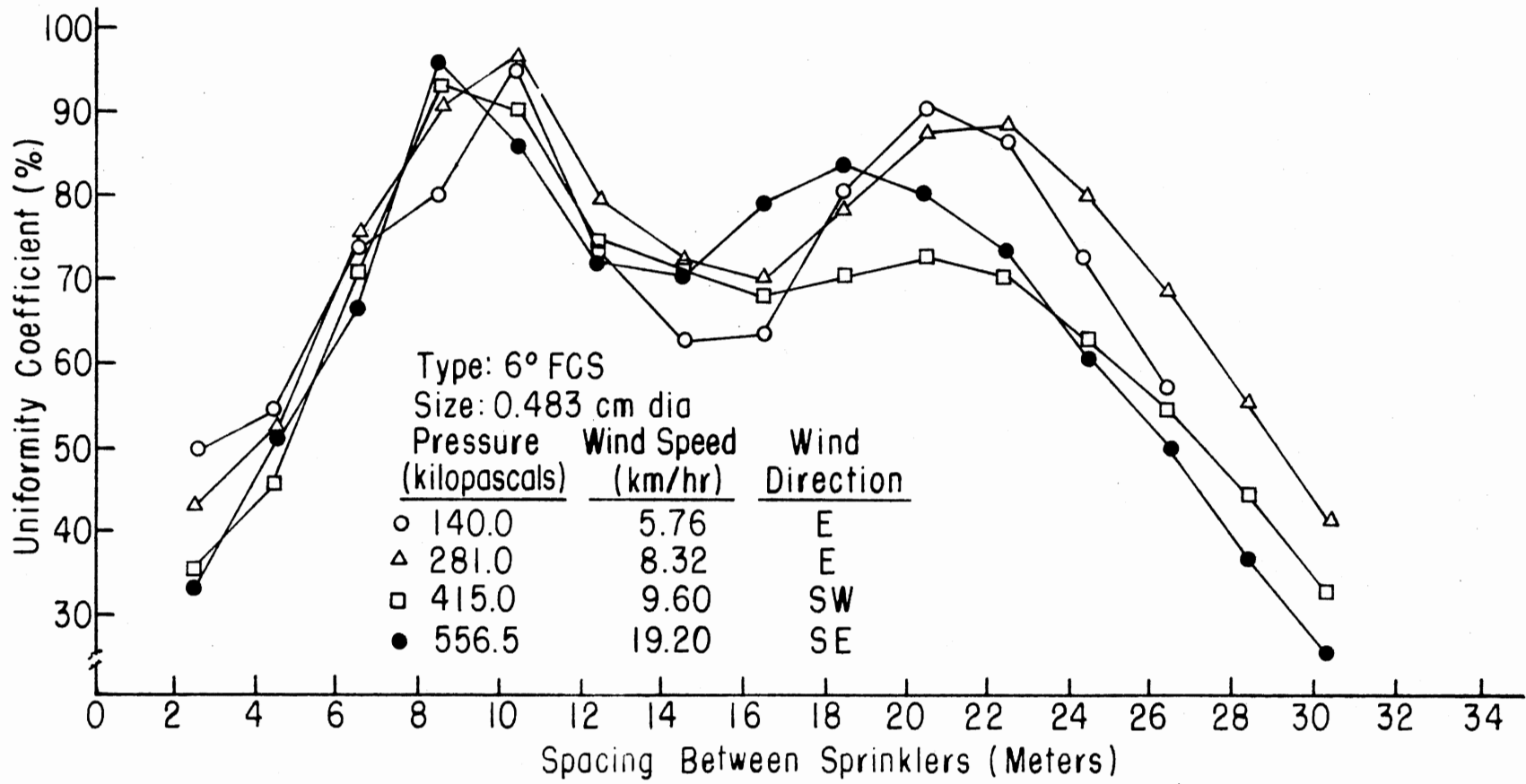


Figure 33. Uniformity Coefficient Versus Spacing Between Sprinkler for the 6° Full Circle Sprinkler (0.483 cm Diameter), Repetition 3

VITA²

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