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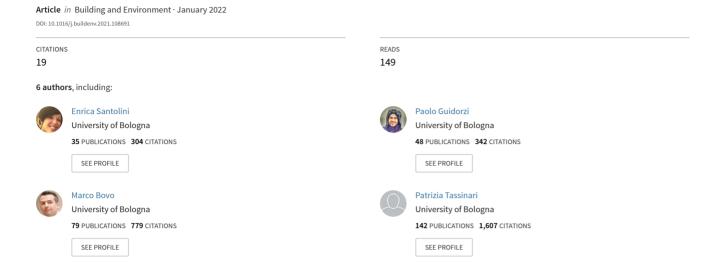
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(Article begins on next page)

Analysis of the effects of shading screens on the microclimate of greenhouses and glass facade buildings



Analysis of the shading screen effects on greenhouse environmental conditions evaluated with CFD simulations

- Enrica Santolini^a, Beatrice Pulvirenti^b, Paolo Guidorzi^b, Marco Bovo^a,
 Daniele Torreggiani^a, Patrizia Tassinari^a
- ^aDepartment of Agricultural and Food Sciences, University of Bologna, Via Giuseppe Fanin 48, 40127, Bologna, Italy
- ^bDepartment of Industrial Engineering, University of Bologna, via Terracini 34, 40131,
 Bologna, Italy

10 Abstract

Shading devices are widely used in the protected crop cultivation, mostly in the 11 Mediterranean area, since they allow to reduce the strong solar radiation effects in 12 the closed environment. On the contrary, they have negative effects on the ven-13 tilation efficiency of the greenhouse especially if they have low porous texture and 14 therefore they represent an obstacle to passage of air. Moreover, investigations about indoor environmental conditions and distributions can allow to improve the management of indoor climate, by means of the optimization of greenhouse structure and 17 air conditioning systems. This requires the characterization and the modeling of the 18 processes involved, and in particular of the convective heat transfer. In recent years, 19 Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) methods have been employed to investigate 20 scalar and vector variables which determines greenhouse microclimate with respect 21 to its structural specifications and equipment. So far, the majority of studies, related to the effects of shade screens on greenhouse climate, focused on experimental 23 investigation based on analytic model. Only few studies have used CFD simulations 24 to explore the response of greenhouse climate factors to the change of shading pa-25 rameters. The present study aims to investigate, by means of a CFD approach, the distribution of temperature and air flow in a naturally ventilated three-span glass 27 greenhouse, taking into consideration the external incident radiation, the optical properties of the materials and the presence of shading devices inside the structure.

Corresponding Author: enrica.santolini2@unibo.it

- 30 Keywords: Natural Ventilation, Solar radiation, CFD Modeling,
- 31 Greenhouse, Shading screens

1. Introduction

The Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) analyses are nowadays a powerful tool for modeling air flows and climate patterns in agricultural structures, like greenhouses. The CFD allows to investigate the influence of the

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greenhouse design parameters, wind direction, location of the mechanical ventilation devices, on different microclimatic parameters like temperature and humidity distributions, ventilation flow rate and incident solar radiation (Roy and Boulard, 2005). The use of CFD has been consolidated as a method for predicting also the climate conditions of inner crops by resolving the equations of heat and mass transfer for an accurate mesh of discrete locations (Boulard et al., 2002).

In Mediterranean countries, a concerning aspect for the crop growth is the indoor climate management during the hot and sunny days usually characterized by high-intensity solar radiation (He et al., 2014). The climate management is a fundamental aspect for a productive greenhouse since it influences not only 46 the growth of crops, but also the energy needs of the facility (Barbaresi et al., 47 2020) and then the profitability and sustainability of the sector. Several meth-48 ods can be used for cooling the greenhouse environment in order to establish 49 more suitable conditions for crop growth. Natural ventilation is usually the first option due to its low cost and simplicity, but it can be insufficient for 51 controlling heat gain and high temperature peaks during sunny summer days 52 (Baille, 1999). Then, other cooling methods have to be considered in combi-53 nation with natural ventilation (Katsoulas et al., 2001). A solution used more 54 and more is the introduction of shade screens, which could be placed inter-55 nally or externally to the cladding, to attenuate the incoming solar radiation and to avoid the direct damage of the intense sunshine to the crop's growth 57 during hot days (He et al., 2014). In fact, shading can be accomplished in 58 different ways. A popular technique consists in placing a porous screen over 59 the cover, adhering to it, or fixed atop the greenhouse, letting the outside air 60 flow beneath the screen and above the greenhouse (Piscia et al., 2012). These 61 devices have been investigated under several aspects by the researchers. The 62 first aspect of interest concerns the evaluation of the effects of the modification of some shading parameters (e.g. shade combination, rate and level) on the air temperature, climate heterogeneity, spectral distribution and growth 65 of the crops inside the greenhouse (Montero et al., 2013; Piscia et al., 2012; 66 Kitta et al., 2012; Kittas et al., 2003; Sapounas et al., 2010). On the other 67 hand, the interest has been focused on the physical properties of the shading 68 materials (Santolini et al., 2019; Miguel et al., 1997; Miguel, 1998; Miguel and 69 Silva, 2000; Valera et al., 2006, 2005) and their impact on greenhouse climate (Santolini et al., 2018; Baxevanou et al., 2010; Kittas et al., 1999).

Considering the relevant role of the solar radiation for the plant growth, information about quantity, quality and spatial distribution of daylight transmitted by greenhouse cladding and shading materials is essential to assess their influence on growth and development of crops (Baxevanou et al., 2010; Santolini et al., 2020; Barbaresi et al., 2020). The climate distribution predictions could allow to save energy and reduce the use of pests, enabling pest and disease control in a more sustainable way. Moreover, information about indoor environmental conditions and distributions should help to improve climate homogeneity, obtained by the optimization of both greenhouse structure

and climate air conditioning systems. This requires the characterization and the modeling of the processes involved, such as convective heat transfer mecha-82 nism (Boulard et al., 2002). In recent years, few studies used CFD methods to 83 investigate scalar and vector parameters of the greenhouse microclimate with 84 respect to structural characteristics and conditioning systems (Boulard et al., 85 2002; Bartzanas et al., 2004; Fatnassi et al., 2006; Santolini et al., 2018). So 86 far, most studies related to the effect of shading screens on greenhouse climate 87 focused on experimental investigations or by adopting analytic models. Few researchers employed numerical methods, e.g. CFD, to explore the response 89 of greenhouse climate by changing the shading parameters. Therefore, the application of CFD approach to investigate the greenhouse microclimate pattern 91 and the shading performances, in different configurations and for the local cli-92 mate condition, actually is a promising but almost unexplored research field 93 (He et al., 2014). 94 In the present study, a CFD model has been used to investigate the distributions of both temperature and air flow in a naturally ventilated three-span glass greenhouse, also taking into account the incident solar radiation. The radiative properties of the materials of the envelope and the presence of shading devices 98 have been properly taken into account. In particular, the paper analyses the 99 effects of three shading devices on the indoor conditions of a greenhouse. The 100 three shading devices have similar radiative properties but different textures. 101 Four different environmental scenarios, simulating four different conditions of 102 summer days in the Mediterranean areas, have been analyzed and compared. 103 The study brings together a novel CFD approach and a new method for climate 104 indoor measurements. The novel CFD approach consists in coupling a CFD 105 modeling of radiation and the approach for the simulation of the presence of 106 screens for screens Santolini et al. (2019). The innovative approach for indoor 107 experimental measurements is a patented technique that, by means of acoustic 108 measurements, allows to reach a very accurate determination of the position 109 of the sensors. The innovative method, described and proposed in the present 110 paper, provides very accurate evaluations of the shading effect of the different 111 screens in the analyzed scenarios. This approach allows to increase the knowl-112 edge of the screens behavior in protected crop cultivation and provides useful 113 indications about their application in this sector. 114

2. Materials and Methods

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The research has been developed by means of both experimental tests and numerical models carried out on a case study. It is a three-span greenhouse of the University of Bologna, sited in Imola, Italy (about 30 km East of Bologna). The different spans are separated by glass walls and are connected through internal doors. The investigations have been focused on the SE span, highlighted in blue, visible in Fig. 1. This span is provided with three benches for experimental crop cultivation has an independent control unit for indoor climate control, managing heating and cooling systems, vent opening, and shading

124 curtains.

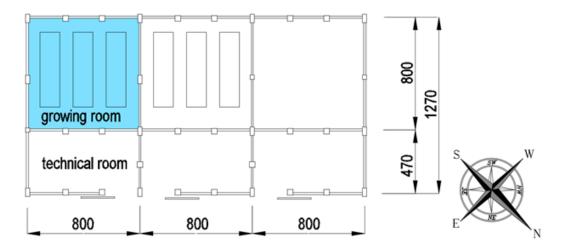


Figure 1: Section in plan of the greenhouse under study.

The volume of the span is divided, by means of a wall, in two different portions (see Figure 1). The main area is devoted to the cultivation of crops whereas the smaller area is a technical room hosting the heating and cooling systems. The outcomes of the investigations presented here considers only the main area of the span. The numerical simulations have been carried out with Ansys-Fluent 17.2 code (Fluent Inc, 2006). The computational domain is a parallelepiped with dimensions, in horizontal plane, 244.0 m x 63.5 m and 27.5 m in the vertical direction.

2.1. Numerical model description

The flow inside the greenhouse is considered unsteady, incompressible and turbulent. The flow and the transport phenomena for air flow and the heat transfer, are described by the Navier-Stokes equations. The time-averaged Navier-Stokes equations, for the mass, momentum and energy transport are presented in the following equations (1)(2) (Baxevanou et al., 2010):

$$\frac{\Delta U_i}{\Delta x_i} = 0 \tag{1}$$

$$\rho U_j \frac{\delta U_i}{\delta x_j} = -\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta x_i} + \frac{\delta}{\delta x_j} [(\mu + \mu_t) \frac{\delta U_i}{\delta x_j}] + f_b + S_j$$
 (2)

where U is the fluid velocity, P is the fluid pressure, ρ is the fluid density, μ is the fluid dynamic viscosity, μ_t is the turbulent viscosity, S_j is a source term and f_b is a vector which represents the body forces. The density variation was calculated according to the Boussinesq model in order to take into account the natural convection effects. The turbulence effects on the flow have been implemented in the Re-Normalization Group (RNG) based on k- ε model. The standard k- ε model is a semi-empirical model (see 3 and 4), based on model

transport equations for the turbulent kinetic energy (k) and its dissipation rate (ε) (Yakhot et al., 1992).

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta t}(\rho k) + \frac{\delta}{\delta x_i}(\rho k u_i) = \frac{\delta}{\delta x_j} \left[(\mu + \frac{\mu_t}{\sigma_k}) \frac{\delta k}{\delta x_j} \right] + G_b + G_k - \rho \epsilon - Y_M + S_k \tag{3}$$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta t}(\rho \epsilon) + \frac{\delta}{\delta x_i}(\rho \epsilon u_i) = \frac{\delta}{\delta x_i} [(\mu + \frac{\mu_t}{\sigma_{\epsilon}}) \frac{\delta \epsilon}{\delta x_i}] + C_{1\epsilon} \frac{\epsilon}{k} (G_k + C_{3\epsilon} G_b) - C_{2\epsilon} \rho \frac{\epsilon^2}{k} + S_{\epsilon}$$
 (4)

The RNG approach, which is a mathematical technique that can be used to derive a turbulence model similar to the standard k- ε model, results in a modified form of the epsilon equation which attempts to account for the different scales of motion through changes to the generation term. In particular, the RNG model considers these refinements, visible from the comparison of 3 and 4 with 5 and 6:

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta t}(\rho \epsilon) + \frac{\delta}{\delta x_i}(\rho \epsilon u_i) = \frac{\delta}{\delta x_i}[(\alpha_k \mu_{eff}) \frac{\delta \epsilon}{\delta x_i}] + G_b + G_k - \rho \epsilon - Y_M + S_k$$
 (5)

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta t}(\rho \epsilon) + \frac{\delta}{\delta x_i}(\rho \epsilon u_i) = \frac{\delta}{\delta x_j} [(\alpha_{\epsilon} \mu_{eff}) \frac{\delta \epsilon}{\delta x_j}] + C_{1\epsilon} \frac{\epsilon}{k} (G_k + C_{3\epsilon} G_b) - C_{2\epsilon} \rho \frac{\epsilon^2}{k} - R_{\epsilon} + S_{\epsilon}$$
(6)

- The RNG model has an additional term in the ε equation that significantly improves the accuracy for rapidly strained flows;
- The effect of swirl on turbulence is included in the RNG model, enhancing accuracy for swirling flows;
- While the standard k- ε model is a high-Reynolds-number model, the RNG theory provides an analytically-derived differential formula for effective viscosity that accounts for low-Reynolds-number effects. Effective use of this feature, however, depends on an appropriate treatment of the near-wall region.

These features make the RNG k- ε model more accurate and reliable for a wider class of turbulent flows. The complete set of the equations can be found in Lien and Leschziner (1994). The Semi-Implicit Method for Pressure-Linked Equations (SIMPLE) algorithm has been used to take into account pressure-velocity coupling and second-order discretization schemes have been used for convective and viscous terms of the governing equations. The velocity has been monitored in some particular points of the model in order to assess the on-grid convergence of the solution. The convergence criteria have been set

equal to 10^{-5} for the scaled residuals of each variables. For this study, where the radiation plays a significant role, the Discrete Ordinates Radiation model(DO model) has been used. The model considers both 173 the solar radiation and the radiations between the greenhouse surfaces. The 174 DO model allows to reach the solution in those applications facing with radia-175 tion on semi-transparent walls and can be applied to both gray and non-gray 176 radiation by a gray-band model. The model considers the absorption coeffi-177 cients of the surfaces since they can vary within spectral bands (Raithby, 1999; 178 Baxevanou et al., 2010). The DO model solves the general radiation transfer equation (RTE) for a set of n different directions for a finite number of discrete 180 solid angles, each one associated with a fixed vector direction. The angles θ 181 and ϕ are the polar and azimuthal angles and they are constants. 182 In the simulations, these angles have been divided in four control angle for θ 183 and ϕ (Piscia et al., 2012; Raithby, 1999; Murthy and Mathur, 2008). The ra-184 diation equations were computed every 10 iterations. Baxevanou et al. (2008) described in details the DO model applied to CFD models of greenhouses. In 186 the model, the specific thermal-radiative characteristics of the materials of the 187 greenhouse have been defined, as reported in Tables 1 and 2. 188

Table 1: Thermal characteristics of the materials, used as initial conditions.

Material	Density (ρ)	Conductivity (κ)	Specific heat capacity (C_p)
	$(\mathrm{kg}\ m^{-3})$	$(W m^{-1}K^{-1})$	$(J kg^{-1}K^{-1})$
Glass	2530	1.2	840
Aluminum	2719	202.4	871
Soil	1620	1.3	1480
Concrete	2200	1.5	1000

Table 2: Radiative characteristics of the materials, used as initial conditions.

Material	Absorbance	Emissivity
Glass	0.7	0.9
Aluminium	0.2	0.5
Soil	0.9	0.925
Concrete	0.6	0.88

The walls have been modeled as semi-transparent surfaces of tempered glass 4 mm thick, the benches have aluminum structures and surfaces, and the pavement has been considered a concrete slab.

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Considering the greenhouse is naturally ventilated, a logarithmic wind profile has been set at the inlet of the domain,

$$u_{wind} = \frac{u_*}{\kappa} log(\frac{z + z_0}{z_0}) \tag{7}$$

from which depends the turbulent kinetic energy (k) and the dissipation rate (ε) :

$$k = \frac{u_*^2}{\sqrt{C_\mu}} \tag{8}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{u_*^3}{\kappa(z + z_0)} \tag{9}$$

where u_* is the friction wind speed, z is the elevation calculated starting from the ground level, z_0 is the surface roughness, κ is the von Karman's constant assumed equal to 0.40 and C_{μ} is a experimental constant. The shading devices have been modeled by means of the porous-jump model, based on the Darcy-Forchheimer law which relates the pressure drop of the fluid flow through a porous medium with its physical characteristics (Santolini et al., 2019). Each one of the three screens has been defined by assuming its physical and radiative properties, as reported in Table 3 and obtained from the experimental tests described in Santolini et al. (2019).

Table 3: Physical and radiative properties of shading devices adopted in the present work.

Screen	Thickness	Permeability	Inertial coefficient	$Shading_{dir}$	$Shading_{diff}$
	(mm)	(1/m)	$(1/m^2)$	(%)	(%)
H3647	0.36	1.4883	7.2080×10^{-11}	43	50
H4215	0.32	0.5794	2.6627×10^{-09}	48	53
H5220	0.32	0.2759	4.9085×10^{-10}	52	52

These screens properties (see Tab.3) depend on the specific grid texture which could affect the air distribution, by means of permeability and inertial coefficient. In fact, the texture is characterized by a sequence of permeable layers, made of a weft of plastic thread, and impermeable layers, made of plastic strips. The number and sequence of these two types of strips determines the interaction of the screen with the incoming air flow.

2.2. Experimental campaign

2.2.1. Data acquisition

An experimental campaign has been conducted during a sunny day (23/04/2018), collecting data of direct solar radiation, indoor air velocity and temperature. The boundary conditions of the CFD simulations have been defined based on these measurements.

The solar radiation has been measured by a pyranometer (Delta Ohm with accuracy of $10 \, V/(W/m^2)$), positioned in the proximity of the greenhouse. The averaged direct solar radiation has been calculated as:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=0}^{n}(x_i)\tag{10}$$

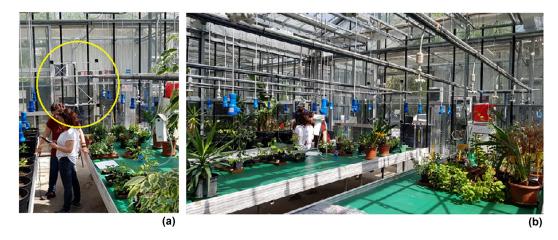


Figure 2: Description of the case study greenhouse: (a) Plan view of the building; (b) Inner view of the productive surface; (c) Images of the system used for locating the measurements (yellow circle).

where: x_i are the single data and n is the number of measurements. The magnitude and vector components of wind velocity have been collected by a weather station placed in situ. The indoor air velocity and temperature have been measured with a hot-wire anemometer (Delta Ohm with accuracy of 0.01 m/s). Each velocity measurement is the average of about 60 data collected in a time period of 2 seconds.

2.2.2. Positioning system description

An innovative 3D patented positioning system has been used to define in a precise way the position of the sensors. The system (Guidorzi, Jun 14, 2017) is shown in Fig. 2 (see the yellow circle). It is based on acoustic measurements and is similar, in principle, to the global positioning system (GPS). The components of the system are: a 1 m x 1 m grid with 4 amplified loudspeakers (A, B, C and D in Fig. 3a)), a small microphone, a multi-channel sound card and a computer, running a software created ad-hoc, that manages the measurements and records the acquired data.

The microphone, whose position is to be determined, receives the sounds emitted by the four loudspeakers on the grid. From the four arrival times of the respective acoustic waves and knowing the speed of sound in the air (as a function of the temperature), the 4 distances from the microphone and the loudspeakers are measured. To better understand why it is necessary to measure 4 distances, the problem of determining the position of a point on a 2D plane is considered as example, with reference to Fig. 3b), if only the distance of the unknown position target (yellow point) from a known position point 1 is available, the possible solutions are represented by the black circumference; if the distances of the target from two known position points, 1 and 2, are available, two solutions (intersections of the black and blue circumferences) are possible. Finally, if the distances from three known position points, 1, 2 and 3, are available, a single solution, intersection of the three circumferences,

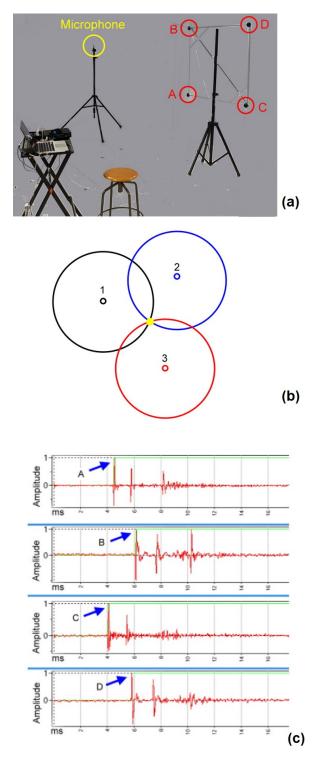


Figure 3: a) Geometrical setup of the 3D positioning system; b) Trilateration on a two-dimensional plane; c) Example of impulse responses acquired by the four loudspeakers.

is found. Extending the reasoning to the 3D space, knowing the distance of the target point from a point of known position, the possible solutions are on a sphere centered in the known position; if the distances from two known points

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are available, the possible solutions are on the circumference intersection of the two spheres centered in the known points; if the distances from three known points are available, two possible solutions exist. Finally if the distances from four known points are available, only one solution is obtained and it is the exact position of the target in the 3D space. The intersection point of the four spheres can be found by solving the following system:

$$(x - x_1)^2 + (y - y_1)^2 + (z - z_1)^2 = r_1^2$$
(11a)

$$(x - x2)2 + (y - y2)2 + (z - z2)2 = r22$$
 (11b)

$$(x - x_3)^2 + (y - y_3)^2 + (z - z_3)^2 = r_3^2$$
(11c)

$$(x - x_4)^2 + (y - y_4)^2 + (z - z_4)^2 = r_4^2$$
(11d)

where:

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- the microphone (target) in the unknown position is at the coordinates (x, y, z);
- the centers of the four spheres (i.e. the positions of the four loudspeakers) are in the known positions with coordinates (x_1, y_1, z_1) , (x_2, y_2, z_2) , (x_3, y_3, z_3) and (x_4, y_4, z_4) ;
- the distances between the four loudspeakers and the target, i.e. the rays of the four spheres, are respectively r_1 , r_2 , r_3 and r_4 .

The solution of the system of eq.11a, 11b, 11c and 11d) is explained in detail in the Appendix.

The measurement of the four distances between the grid and the microphone is carried out by simultaneously emitting from the four loudspeakers, four MLS (Maximum Length Sequence) pseudo-random audio signals. MLS signals have an audio spectrum similar to the white noise and are commonly used in the field of the acoustic such as the test of noise barriers (Garai et al., 2014; Garai and Guidorzi, 2015). The loudspeakers emit different MLS signals, with the same time length and orthogonal to each other. Thanks to the properties of the MLS sequences (Borish and Angell, 1983; Rife and Vanderkooy, 1989; Vanderkooy, 1994), it is possible to distinguish the four different signals at the microphone even if they are emitted simultaneously. Using the Fast Hadamard Transform (FHT) algorithm, four different impulse responses are obtained from the audio signals sampled by the microphone, as shown in Fig. 3 (c). From the timing of the first peak on the responses, it is possible to measure the arrival time of the sound from the four loudspeakers to the microphone. The generic distance, s, traveled by a sound wave in air between a loudspeaker and the microphone is calculated with the formula:

$$s = t \cdot c \ (m) \tag{12}$$

where t is the flight time (in seconds) determined by the first peak of the impulse response, as described above, and c is the speed of sound in air depending on the temperature according to the formula:

$$c = 331.6 + 0.6 \cdot T \ (m/s) \tag{13}$$

where T is the air temperature (${}^{\circ}C$).

MLS signals are immune to background noise, and then measurements can be made in noisy environments also. A necessary condition for the application of the methodology is that the loudspeakers must be in sigh of the microphone, in order to avoid the 4 loudspeakers must be properly placed so do not have inter-visibility problem. Small obstacles, (e.g. thin branches and leaves) are not a problem and have not created issues during the tests in the greenhouse.

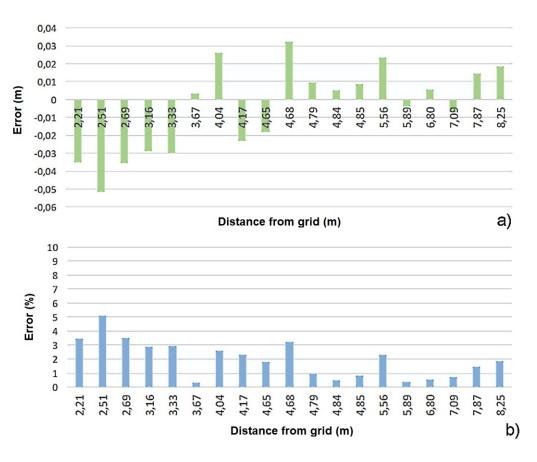


Figure 4: **a)** Measurement error on 1 m distance (sample rate 96 kHz); **b)** Percentage of error on distance measurements in a).

The accuracy of the measurement system depends on many factors, including the geometry of the measurement grid, the sampling rate of the sound card and the distance of the microphone from the grid. In particular, the sampling

rate determines the time step of the measured data and therefore the minimum distance distinguishable from the peaks of the impulse responses: with a 44.1 kHz sampling rate, the time step is 0.0104161667 ms, corresponding to a distance of about 7.8 mm, at a sound speed of 343 m/s; at 96 kHz sampling rate, the resolution on the distance is about 3.6 mm. However, an evaluation of the real accuracy of the system is not simple because the data of the individual distances are processed by the trilateration algorithm (searching for the solution of the system of Equations 11a, 11b, 11c and 11d). In order to have an assessment of the percentage error on the 3D position detected, a series of measurements, allowing a statistical analysis, were carried out, measuring the exact length of 1 meter at different distances from the loudspeaker grid, with various combinations of sampling rates. It has been found that, employing a 1 m x 1 m grid, the detection system works correctly inside an area of about 10 m in each spatial direction, starting from the grid. Probably, by increasing the size of the grid, it should be possible to extend this range. At a sample rate of 96 kHz, as can be seen in Figure 4 a), for the positions at least 3 meters away from the grid, the absolute error is generally less than 3 cm. The average error, over all distances, is less than 2\%, with a standard deviation of 2.34 cm. The accuracy of the positioning system therefore can be considered suitable for the type of measurements, realized in the present work.

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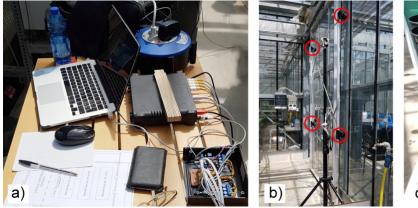




Figure 5: (a) Measurement system (computer, soundcard, amplifiers); (b) grid with loud-speakers; (c) particular of the microphone attached to the thermal probe.

Figure 5 shows the components of the positioning system: Fig 5 a) depicts the computer with the software that generates the MLS signals, samples the signal from the microphone, performs the trilateration calculations and saves the data. In Fig.5 a) the sound card and the electronic cards with the amplifiers for the loudspeakers are also visible. In Fig.5 b), the grid with the loudspeakers is shown. In Fig.5 c) the microphone attached to the anemometer is shown. The fixed distance between the microphone and the thermal sensor has been taken into account in the assessment of the positions.

2.3. Numerical model validation

Twenty four locations have been defined in the cultivation area, at three different levels, e.g. 1.0 m, 1.7 m and 3.0 m.

The numerical model of the case study has been validated against the collected experimental data. In the first simulation, the average of the solar radiation and wind velocity values collected during the whole experimental campaign, have been set as boundary conditions. The diffuse solar radiation value has been estimated by the solar calculator included in Ansys Fluent, on the basis of the geographical coordinates of the site, day and hour of the beginning of the measurements (23/04/2018, 11:30 am, local time). The direct solar radiation data shows a significant variation during the period of the experimental campaign, as showed in Figure 6. In fact, Figure 6 shows variation values, even higher than 300 W/m^2 in one hour. The solar radiation can significantly affect the indoor airflow distribution in a naturally ventilated greenhouse and then an approach adopting the average value could be too simplified.

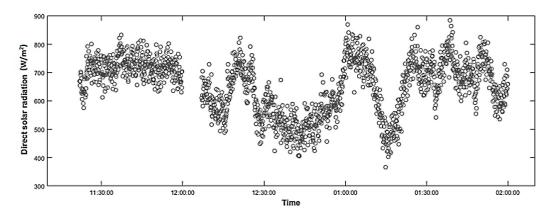


Figure 6: Direct solar radiation recorded by the pyranometer located in the proximity of the greenhouse.

Then, the direct solar radiation, averaged in a period of 15 minutes, has been used in the simulations. Figure 7 shows the comparison between the velocity values measured in the greenhouse and those obtained by the CFD simulation for the twenty four different positions.

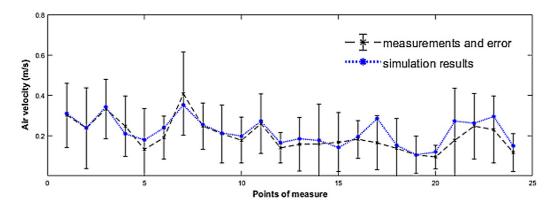


Figure 7: Comparison between measured air velocities and CFD simulation results.

The Figure 7 shows a very good agreement between the numerical results and the experimental measurements, with very low value of root mean square error (RMSE) that, calculated on the total set of measurements, results equal to 0.14 m/s.

2.4. Scenarios and combinations investigated

The solar radiation could significantly affect the indoor microclimate conditions of a greenhouse during the sunny days, especially in Mediterranean climate. Moreover, as showed before, the solar radiation can vary considerably from hour to hour, the radiation value assumed in the simulation can strongly influence the numerical results. Then, in order to have results representative of the typical conditions of the site during the hot season, the weather data collected during the whole summer season 2017 have been considered. Two representative conditions have been chosen. The first condition considers a strong direct solar radiation with low wind velocity. The second assumes a moderate direct solar radiation with high wind velocity. The first condition corresponds to peaks of solar radiation intensity, while the second intends to evaluate the typical trend of the indoor parameters during the summer season. Each condition has been analyzed by assuming two different representative wind directions, i.e. North-West and South-East, providing four representative ventilation scenarios for the structure at hand.

The cases have been performed considering the implementation of three different shading screens with different geometrical and radiation characteristics, (see Santolini et al. (2019)). The shading screens are placed inside the cultivation area in three different positions: one is horizontally located at about 4.0 m height; one is laterally placed close to the lateral vent and one is located in the back of the room, close to the back wall (see Fig. 8). The three different screens are characterized by different texture (variations of porosity and inertial coefficient) but they have similar radiative properties.

The effects of the presence of the screens have been investigated in terms of both entering solar radiation and ventilation efficiency. The sixteen combinations of inlet velocity and solar radiation, summarized in Table 4, have been

Table 4: Summary of the 16 combinations investigated in this work: $T_{initial}$ is the defined initial temperature, IR is the initial direct solar radiation value and $v_{friction}$ is the friction velocity considered for the wind profile definition.

Scenario	T _{initial} (°C)	IR (W/m^2)	$v_{friction} (m/s)$	Wind direction	Screen	Combinations
					No screen	1
1	22.8	794.5	6.3	NW	H3467	2
1	22.0	194.5			H4215	3
					H5220	4
			No screen	5		
2	22.8	2.8 794.5	6.3	SE	H3467	6
2 22.8	22.0				H4215	7
					H5220	8
					No screen	9
3	20.0	30.8	2	NW	H3467	10
3	30.8				H4215	11
					H5220	12
4 30.		1030	2	SE	No screen	13
	30.8				H3467	14
					H4215	15
					H5220	16

obtained by crossing four scenarios and four shading assumptions (i.e. the no screens condition and three different screens). The wind directions North-West (NW) and South-East (SE) in Table 4 has been obtained from the statistical analysis of the wind data available for 2017. They represent the direction more representative for the summer season.

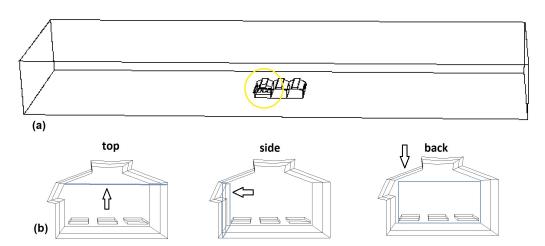


Figure 8: Image of the simulation domain and the screens positions: (a) is the simulation domain with the SE span of the greenhouse highlighted in yellow; (b) are the three positions of the screens inside the cultivation area of the SE span, highlighted in grey.

For all the sixteen combinations analyzed, the indoor environmental conditions in the productive area of the span highlighted in Figure 8, have been evaluated and reported in the following section.

3. Results and Discussion

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The indoor velocity distribution obtained within the greenhouse, for the Scenario 1 (i.e. combinations from 1 to 4) are shown in Figure 9, by means of a vertical section based in the middle of greenhouse.

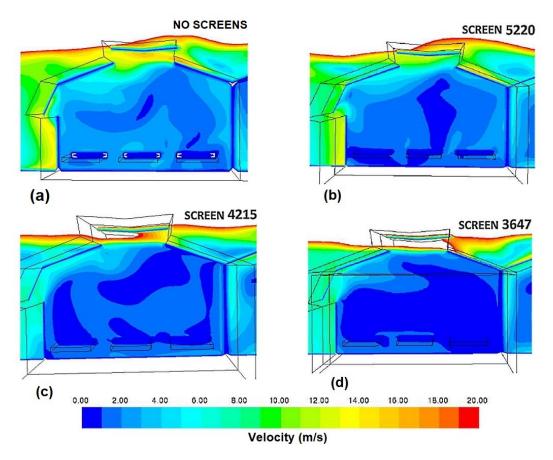


Figure 9: Contour of the air velocity magnitude distribution, on the middle vertical section of the cultivation area for the Scenario 1: (a) Combination 1; (b) Combination 2; (c) Combination 3; (d) Combination 4.

Figure 10 presents analogous results but for the Scenario 2. These scenarios are characterized by similar outdoor conditions but differ in the wind direction. The contour maps in Fig. 9 and 10 show the strong dependence of the velocity distribution from the presence and, then from the type of screen. As also obtained in other works, e.g. (Santolini et al., 2018), the presence of the shading devices strongly affects the airflow distribution inside the structure. The main effect of the screens, on the ventilation, is to reduce the mixing and the velocity magnitude, also in case of strong solar radiation. Smaller is the grid dimension of the screen and higher is the number of the impermeable strips respect to the number of the porous one in the texture, generally lower is the indoor magnitude velocity and enlarged are the areas of the section with velocity almost zero, as clearly visible in Figure 9.

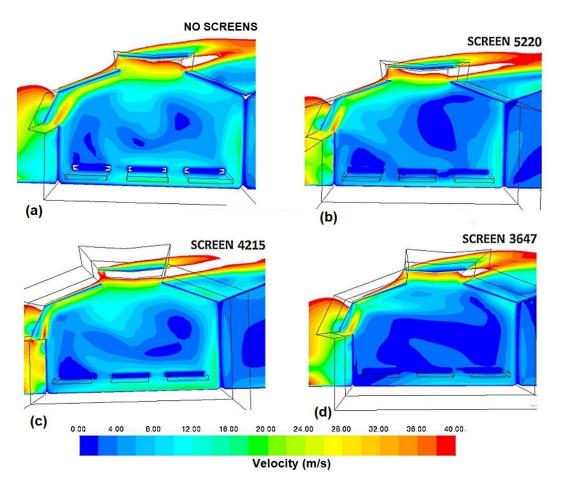


Figure 10: Contour of the air velocity magnitude distribution, on the middle vertical section of the cultivation area for the Scenario 2: (a) Combination 5; (b) Combination 6; (c) Combination 7; (d) Combination 8.

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However, the negative action of screens, reducing the air velocity magnitude, doesn't raise if the incoming air velocity increases, as visible from the comparison of the Scenario 1 and Scenario 2. This aspect highlights and confirms that inertial coefficient has a reduced impact on the airflow through the porous surface when the air velocity in inlet is increasing, as supposed in Santolini et al. (2019). The results obtained for the case with wind blowing from South-East (Scenario 2), where the wind has strong magnitude and it is perpendicular to lateral and roof vents. In this case, the effect of the screens, on the velocity field, are considerably less relevant than in Scenario 1. In Figure 10, the variation of the air velocity magnitude and distribution due to the presence of the screens is limited in all cases, particularly in presence of H4215. Analogous air velocity contours have been obtained, obviously with different magnitude order, for the Scenarios 3 and 4, and are not reported here for the sake of paper brevity. On the contrary, the temperature distributions inside the cultivation area, obtained for the two Scenarios 1 and 2, are very different. Figures 11 and 12

show the temperature distribution obtained on a vertical section, for Scenario

1 and 2, respectively. Both scenarios show a rather homogeneous temperature in the cultivation area, thanks to the presence of the screens.

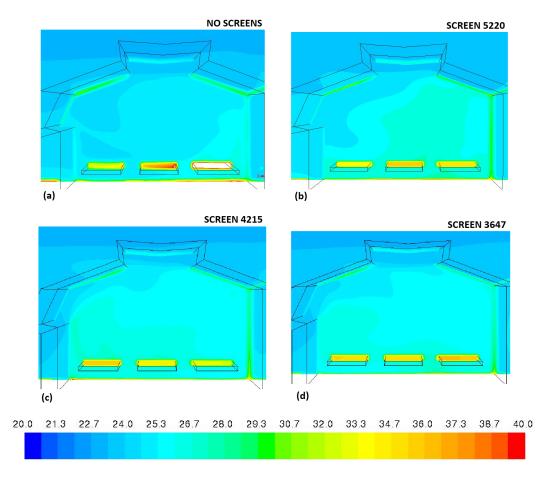


Figure 11: Contour of the temperature distribution, on the middle section of the cultivation area, of Scenario 1: (a) Combination 1; (b) Combination 2; (c) Combination 3; (d) Combination 4.

However, the two Scenarios show very different temperature reduction ranges, within the cultivation area. The average temperature in Scenario 1, in the cultivation area, is about 26.5 °C and is 23.5 °C in Scenario 2. Then, the difference in terms of temperature reduction, between the two Scenarios, is about 3 °C. In fact, in the Scenario 2 the wind velocity contribution in the cultivation area is more consistent. Another interesting aspect, emerging in the Scenario 2, is the effective mitigation of the temperature value of the first bench on the left, close to the lateral window, provided by the shading devices. A similar situation is visible also in the Scenario 1, where the worst condition in terms of high temperature is provided by the internal bench (right bench in the Figures 11), close to the internal wall separating two different spans, and located far from the lateral window.

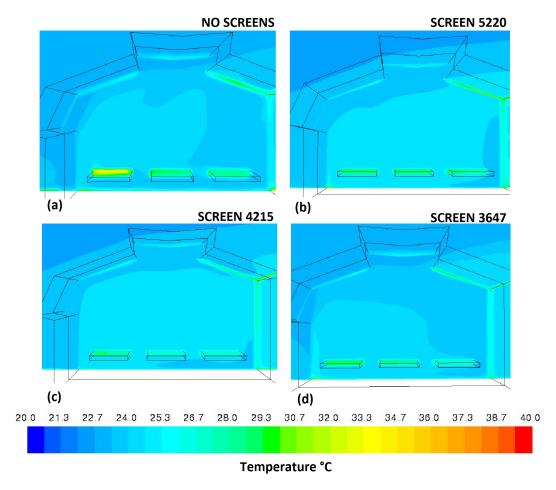


Figure 12: Contour of the temperature distribution, based on the middle section of the cultivation area, of Scenario 2: (a) Combination 5; (b) Combination 6; (c) Combination 7; (d) Combination 8.

Figure 11 and 12 show that shading devices will provide potential better conditions for the crop growth because the temperature distribution is more homogeneous in presence of the screens. The shading devices have a positive effect not only in the cases of strong wind and limited solar radiation but also in those cases with high solar radiation. Indeed, Figures 13 and 14 show the temperature distribution on the middle vertical section, for Scenario 3 and 4, respectively. The temperature distribution obtained for Scenario 3 shows homogeneous distribution together with average temperature values, higher than temperature in Scenario 4. This outcome can be attributable to the reduced action of the natural ventilation in the heat removal, due to both, the unfavourable wind direction and reduced wind magnitude, in synergy with the negative consequences of the screens presence.

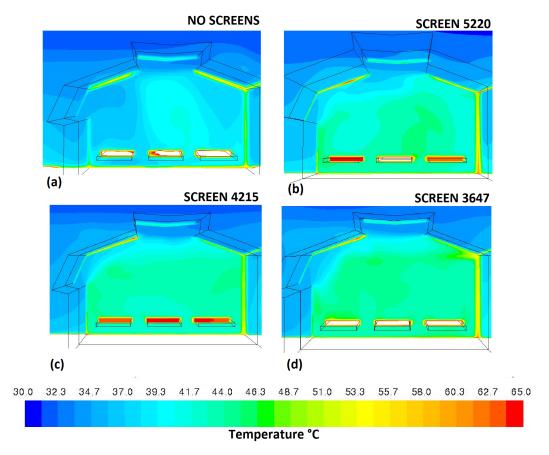


Figure 13: Contour of the temperature distribution, based on the middle section of the cultivation area of Scenario 3: (a) Combination 9; (b) Combination 10; (c) Combination 11; (d) Combination 12.

On the other side, in the Scenario 4, with the wind blowing from South-East direction, the shading devices allow to create a rather homogeneous temperature distribution, around 35-37 °C, inside the structure, without the consistent temperature increase showed in Figure 13 for the Scenario 3.

Focusing on the main aim of the use of the shading devices that is to maximize the plant growth, two different conditions are important: the temperature over the benches and the velocity value and distribution around the crops.

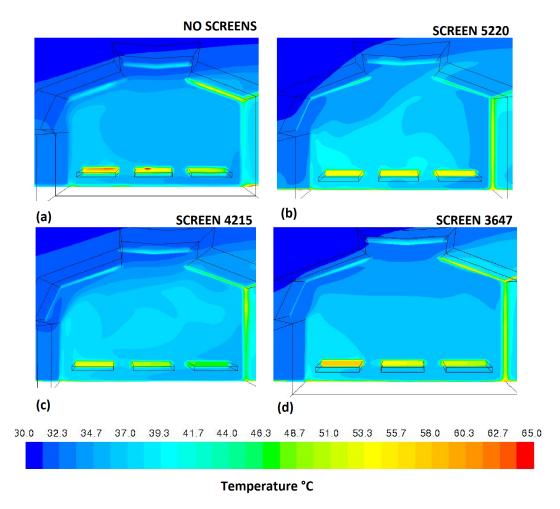


Figure 14: Contour of the temperature distribution, on the middle section of the cultivation area, of Scenario 4: (a) Combination 13; (b) Combination 14; (c) Combination 15; (d) Combination 16.

To this regard, firstly, the Scenarios 3 and 4 have been analysed. In Figure 15, the temperature distribution, at a distance of 10 cm from the benches, is presented for Scenarios 3 and 4. The Figure 15 shows the remarkable benefits of the introduction of the shading devices, in terms of both temperature level and distribution, close to the crops.

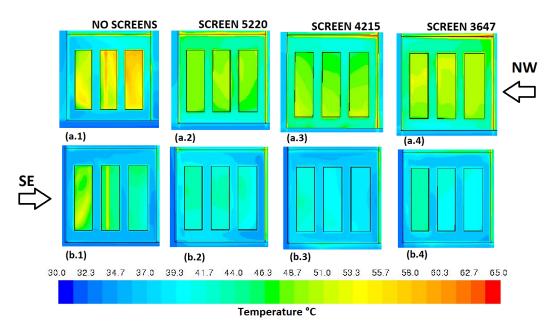


Figure 15: Contour of the temperature at the crop level: (a) Scenario 3; (b) Scenario (4).

In the case without screens (see No screens case), the first left bench, on 457 Scenario 3, and the third left bench, on Scenario 4, show the highest tem-458 perature at the crop level together with a poorly homogeneous distribution. 459 The temperature distribution becomes homogeneous only in the sub cases with 460 screens. Obviously, the positive impact of the screens depends on type of screen 461 and on wind direction. The influence of every type of screen, with wind blow-462 ing from NW, can be considered similar in terms of temperature magnitude, 463 but has slightly different temperature distributions. In presence of the screens 464 H5220 and H3647, the temperature distribution is rather homogeneous over 465 all the cultivation benches. On the contrary, the screen H4215 creates an area, 466 closer to the back wall of the greenhouse, with a slightly greater temperature. 467 Different conditions can be noticed in case of wind blowing from SE, because 468 the screens H4215 and H3647 have a stronger influence in reducing the tem-469 perature values, if compared to H5220 screen. 470 When the wind magnitude is higher and the solar radiation effects is limited, 471 the temperature distributions over the benches are similar if screens are intro-472 duced in the building, as showed in Figure 16. For these cases, the different 473 screens have similar influence on temperature magnitude and distribution. 474

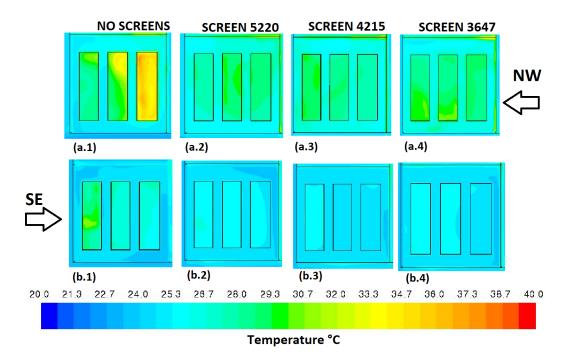


Figure 16: Contour of the temperature at the representative level: (a) Scenario 1; (b) Scenario 2.

Moreover, the temperature mitigation is less dependent on wind direction. These results are analysed in detail in Figure 17. The values reported in Figure 17 are the peak values obtained for each one of the 16 combinations at the level of 10 cm over the benches. The temperature reductions reported, instead, are obtained from the values in Figure 16 as difference between the value of the case considering a particular screen and the "no screens" case.

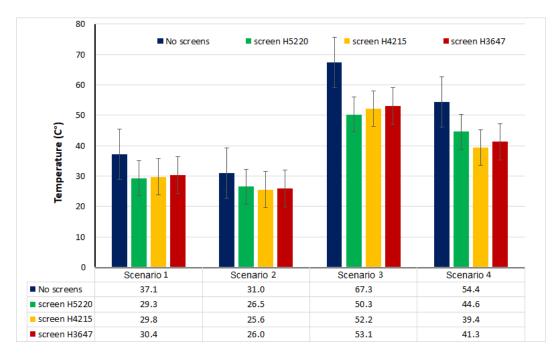


Figure 17: Peak temperature obtained for the various scenarios 10 cm over the bench level.

The H5220 screen allows to obtain a temperature reduction value ranging from 4.5 °C and 17 °C, with an average value around 9.8 °C. The temperature reduction achievable with the H4215 and H3647 are similar: it ranges from 4.5 °C to about 15 °C with average value about 5 °C. The temperature mitigation index, δ_T , have been been calculated by Eq. 14 for the three screens in the four scenarios, as reported in Table 5. The mean value for each screen has been estimated in order to identify a single index representative of the mitigation effect of each screen.

$$\delta_T = \frac{T_{max,noscreen} - T_{max,screen}}{T_{max,noscreen}} \tag{14}$$

where $T_{max,noscreen}$ is the peak of temperature in a specific scenario without screen and $T_{max,screen}$ is the peak of temperature in a specific scenario with a specific screen.

Table 5: Quantified temperature mitigation operated by each screen in a specific scenario by means of the δ_T index.

	H5220	H4215	H3647
Scenario	δ_T	δ_T	δ_T
1	0.21	0.197	0.18
2	0.16	0.174	0.16
3	0.253	0.224	0.211
4	0.18	0.276	0.241
mean	0.2	0.22	0.2

The screens show similar mitigation effects in three of the four scenarios. However, in the scenario 4 (high solar radiation and moderate wind velocity) the H5220 screen is characterized by a significantly important effect which is 1.5 and 1.3 times higher than the case with H4215 and H3647 respectively. The temperature reduction obtainable from each screen strongly depends on the external climate conditions. In fact, the final mitigation index shows marginal differences between the three devices, confirming anyway that H5220 and H3647 are slightly more efficient.

Finally, the analysis of the temperature trends for the various combinations along the vertical axis, can be useful to evaluate the effects of the screen presence and to assess the temperature homogeneity for increasing level in order to estimate the possible effects on crops with different height. The peak temperatures detected for different levels from 10 to 30 cm over the benches are depicted in Figure 18 for Scenarios 3 and 4.

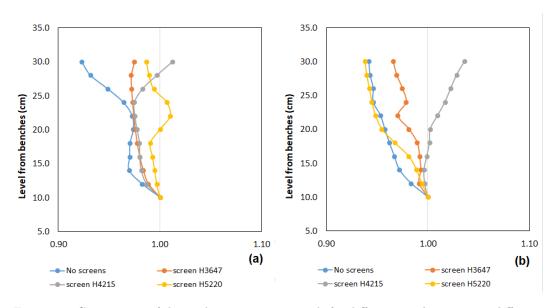


Figure 18: Comparison of the peak temperature trends for different combinations at different heights over the benches: (a) Scenario 3 and (b) Scenario 4.

In the figure, the values are normalized by the value observed at the reference level explained before and equal to 10 cm over the benches. The first graph shows the peak temperatures trends of the Scenario 3. The temperatures of the combinations with shading devices have, in general, a more homogeneous trends if compared with the case without screens ("No screens" case) since the values are usually closer to the unitary value.

Analogously, in Figure 18(b) are showed the trends for the Scenario 4. Also in this case, the adoption of the screens, improves the air temperature homogeneity at all the levels investigated, confirming the effectiveness of the shading devices in the mitigation of this type of problem in the greenhouse cultivation. Similar consideration could be found for the Scenario 1 and 2. They are not reported here for brevity reasons.

Since the considerations for the optimal conditions for plant growth usually must take into account temperature and air velocity distributions, the temperature and the air velocity magnitudes have been compared based on their average values, obtained for seven levels in the cultivation area. Then, seven sections from 10 to 30 cm over from the cultivation benches have been considered for the analysis. In Figure 19, blue bars are referring to the temperature values while red bars refer to the air velocity magnitudes.

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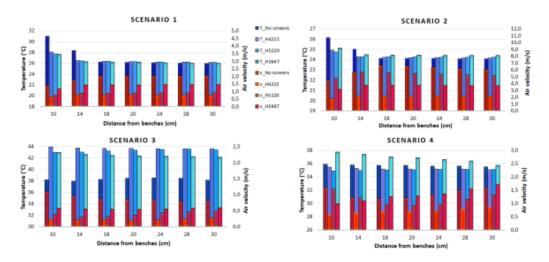


Figure 19: Comparison between the results of averaged temperature and air velocity, at several levels, for all scenarios and combinations.

In the Scenario 1, a considerable temperature reduction is provided by the three screens in the first and in the second section. On the other hand, the air velocity is considerably affected by the screens presence. In this scenario, the H3647 screen demonstrates the best mitigation effects on the temperature, maintaining a good ventilation, i.e. a good air velocity, in the cultivation area. Similar results can be noticed for the Scenario 2, where the H3647 screen shows good performances. However, in this scenario, the best temperature reduction with highest level of ventilation is usually provided by the H5220 screen. On the contrary, in case of strong incident solar radiation and wind blowing with low velocity from a critical direction, i.e NW, (scenario 3), all the screens demonstrates to be ineffective on the temperature while worsening the air flow distribution. Finally, in Scenario 4, the H4215 and H5220 are able to provide a good improvement of the temperature values. On the contrary, in this scenario, the H3647 screen has globally a negative performance. In this last case, the best performance is to attribute to the H4215 screen. Considering the results as a whole, the screen H4215 and H5220 demonstrated similar effects on the indoor environment for three cases out of four, despite their significant differences in texture and physical properties. Concluding, the shading devices with a with visible porosity in the texture and characterized by good radiative performances represent the best shading solution for the analysed case study. A screen with low permeability like the H5220 gives better performances if used in situations where the wind does not hit the wall directly. On the other hand, in situations where the wind hits the walls directly, screens with higher permeability like the H4215 give better performances.

550 4. Conclusions

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The shading devices are one of the most used solution, in protected crop 551 structures, to mitigate the effects of solar radiation, especially in the sunny 552 days during the hot season in Mediterranean area. They are usually placed internally, over the cultivation area, in order to positively affect the incident 554 radiation and to create better conditions for the crop growth. In fact, the 555 presence of shading devices can significantly modify the indoor environmental 556 conditions. However, they affect not only the solar radiation but also the air 557 flow distribution, because they can considerably reduce the indoor air velocity, 558 especially if they have a low porosity texture. In this paper, the combinations 559 of the reduction of the solar radiation with the modification of the flow velocity given by three different shading screens have been analysed. Different 561 outdoor environmental conditions have been considered, in order to consider 562 combinations of low solar radiation and different wind velocity and directions. 563 The choice of a specific shading device is very important because it allows to 564 create more suitable conditions for the crop cultivation. The same considera-565 tions can be performed on the air flow distribution. The indoor temperature 566 distribution has been obtained for different scenarios, in term of maximum 567 temperature achieved together with a low variability above the crops. The 568 performances of each screen have been compared and correlated with the envi-569 ronmental conditions. The results show that screens with low permeability like 570 the H5220 and the H4215 give optimal temperature mitigation together with 571 a uniform temperature distribution above the crops. However, screens with 572 higher permeability give better performances in situations where the wind hits 573 the walls directly. The best choice, for the case considered in this paper, is the H4215, i.e. a screen with a permeability equal to 0.58 m^{-1} . This means that 575 the choice of the best screen must be done considering also the most frequent 576 conditions in terms of wind directions with respect to orientation and position 577 of the windows in the greenhouse. 578

579 Appendix

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The method of solving the 3D trilateration problem used in this work, i.e. how to find the position in the space of a target point knowing its distance from four known points, is now enunciated. To find the intersection point of the four spheres it is necessary to solve a system of four equations with four unknowns. To simplify the computational procedure, making it usable even in poor computers or micro-controllers, it will be solved a system of three equations in three unknowns, taking into account only three of the four spheres,

obtaining in this way two possible solutions. Applying this procedure to the four possible combinations of three of the four spheres, a unique solution will be obtained.

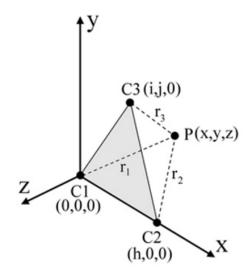


Figure 20: Three spheres centers (C_1, C_2, C_3) and target point (P).

In the equations 11a,11b and 11c the coordinates (x, y, z) describe the unknown position of the microphone P (target); the coordinates (x_1, y_1, z_1) , (x_2, y_2, z_2) and (x_3, y_3, z_3) describe the known positions of the centers of the three spheres C_1 , C_2 and C_3 considered for the calculations; the radii r_1 , r_2 and r_3 are the known distances (radii of the spheres C_1 , C_2 and C_3) between the target position P and the centers of the mentioned spheres.

The system is described by the equations:

$$(x - x_1)^2 + (y - y_1)^2 + (z - z_1)^2 = r_1^2$$
(15a)

$$(x - x2)2 + (y - y2)2 + (z - z2)2 = r22$$
 (15b)

$$(x - x3)2 + (y - y3)2 + (z - z3)2 = r32$$
 (15c)

A new coordinate system is now defined, as shown in Figure 20, used temporarily to solve the system of equations in 15a15b15c. The origin of the new system, at coordinates (0,0,0), is placed at the center of sphere C_1 ; the center of sphere C_2 is placed at (h,0,0); the center of sphere C_3 is placed at (i,j,0). The centers of the spheres are therefore all on the same plane xy.

The vectors that define the base of the new coordinate system are:

$$\hat{e}_x = \frac{\bar{p}_2 - \bar{p}_1}{||\bar{p}_2 - \bar{p}_1||} \tag{16a}$$

$$\hat{e}_y = \frac{(\bar{p}_3 - \bar{p}_1) - \hat{e}_x \cdot (\hat{e}_x \cdot (\bar{p}_3 - \bar{p}_1))}{||(\bar{p}_3 - \bar{p}_1) - \hat{e}_x \cdot (\hat{e}_x \cdot (\bar{p}_3 - \bar{p}_1))||}$$
(16b)

$$\hat{e}_z = \hat{e}_x \times \hat{e}_y \tag{16c}$$

The centers of the three spheres C_1 , C_2 and C_3 are defined, in the new coordinate system, as:

 $C_1: \bar{p_1} = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$

 $C_2: \bar{p_2} = (x_2, y_2, z_2) = \bar{p_1} + \hat{e}_x h$

 $C_3: \bar{p_1} = (x_3, y_3, z_3) = \bar{p_1} + \hat{e}_x i + \hat{e}_y j$

being:
$$h = \hat{e}_x \cdot (\bar{p}_2 - \bar{p}_1), i = \hat{e}_x \cdot (\bar{p}_3 - \bar{p}_1), j = \hat{e}_y \cdot (\bar{p}_3 - \bar{p}_1).$$

The equations 16a 16b 16c in the new coordinate system are:

$$(X_n)^2 + (Y_n)^2 + (Z_n)^2 = r_1^2 (17a)$$

$$(X_n - h)^2 + (Y_n)^2 + (Z_n)^2 = r_2^2$$
(17b)

$$(X_n - i)^2 + (Y_n - j)^2 + (Z_n)^2 = r_3^2$$
(17c)

In the equations 17a, 17b and 17c, the variables x, y and z are renamed as X_n, Y_n and Z_n to avoid confusion with the original coordinate system. The two solutions of Eq. 17a, 17b and 17c are therefore:

$$X_n = \frac{r_1^2 - r_2^2 + h^2}{2h} \tag{18a}$$

$$Y_n = \frac{r_1^2 - r_3^2 + i^2 + j^2 - 2iX_n}{2j}$$
 (18b)

$$Z_n = \pm \sqrt{r_1^2 - X_n^2 - Y_n^2} \tag{18c}$$

The two solutions, rewritten in the original coordinate system, are:

$$Solution1: \bar{p_a} = \bar{p_1} + \hat{e}_x X_n + \hat{e}_y Y_n + \hat{e}_z Z_n \tag{19}$$

Solution 2:
$$\bar{p}_b = \bar{p}_1 + \hat{e}_x X_n + \hat{e}_y Y_n - \hat{e}_z Z_n$$
 (20)

The two solutions found are symmetrical to the plane on which the centers of the three spheres are located. In GitHub, a C++ public domain code for the resolution according to the described method can be found. It remains to be determined which of the two solutions found is the real one. The described procedure is repeated to cover all possible combinations of intersections of four spheres, taken three at a time. The number of required combinations is (n =

4, k = 3:

$$\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{4!}{3!(4-3)!} = 4 \tag{21}$$

By renaming S_1, S_2, S_3 and S_4 the four spheres, the possible combinations are: (S_1, S_2, S_3) , (S_1, S_2, S_4) , (S_1, S_3, S_4) and (S_2, S_3, S_4) . By solving the problem four times, considering the above mentioned combinations of spheres, four pairs of solutions are obtained. In each pair only one exact solution exists, so by examining all four pairs of solutions, the real solution will be the one that appears in all the four cases.

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