

# Quantifying the impact of crop protection practices on pesticide use in wine-growing systems

Florine Mailly, Laure Hossard, Jean Marc Barbier, Marie Thiollet-Scholtus,

Christian Gary

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Corresponding Author: Dr. Laure Hossard, Ph.D

Corresponding Author's Institution: INRA

First Author: Florine MAILLY, M.D.

Order of Authors: Florine MAILLY, M.D.; Laure Hossard, PhD; Jean-Marc Barbier, PhD; Marie Thiollet-Scholtus, PhD; Christian Gary, PhD, DSc

#### 1 Abstract

2 Reducing pesticide use is a major challenge in agriculture, and farmers are 3 encouraged to develop integrated practices. The aim of this study was to describe, 4 analyse and assess the current contribution of various options to pest, disease and weed management on the reduction of fungicides, herbicides and insecticides by 5 6 quantifying both their use and their effect on pesticide use intensity, within the 7 context of different wine-growing regions. We conducted a statistical analysis of 8 pesticide use and crop management over two seasons (2006 and 2010) for 11 French 9 wine-growing regions (10,000 data). We used the Treatment Frequency Index (TFI) 10 indicator to characterise the intensity of pesticide use. We analysed three crop 11 management options: timing of first fungicide spray, type of soil cover cropping, and 12 type of weed control. For each management option, we compared alternative or low-13 input practices to normal chemical-based practices, e.g., mechanical weed control 14 (alternative option) vs. herbicide (normal chemical option). To strengthen the results, 15 two quantitative variables completed the analysis: fungicide mean spraved dose in the 16 field and number of fungicides sprayed in the field. Results showed that each 17 alternative or low input practice had an impact on TFI, but that this impact differed between wine-growing regions and between the management options under 18 19 consideration. Regarding fungicides, our results showed that late timing of first 20 fungicide spray (compared to regional reference) contributed to a reduction up to 50% 21 of the part of the TFI due to fungicides, as compared to fields spraved at median or 22 early timing. Regarding herbicides, results of low-input/alternative practices were 23 more homogeneous in terms of their relative impact on TFI reduction. The differences 24 in use and impact of crop protection practices were more important between regions 25 than between the two studied years. Our results may help policy makers to target 26 methods for decreasing pesticide use, based on particularities of wine-growing

regions and locally realistic practices. 

- Keywords: Treatment Frequency Index; fungicides; herbicides; assessment; Vitis vinifera L. 32

#### 33 1 Introduction

34 The reduction of pesticide use in agriculture is a major environmental and societal issue. Debates on pesticide use emerged at the end of the 1950s with the worldwide 35 36 development of chemical-based intensive agriculture. Since then, an increasing 37 number of studies have reported evidence of the negative impacts of pesticides on human health (Alavanja et al., 1996; EFSA, 2013), air (Bidleman and Leone, 2004; 38 39 Gil and Sinfort, 2005), soil (Arias-Estévez et al.; 2008; Riah et al., 2014), water 40 quality (Gregoire et al., 2010; Vereecken, 2005), and on non-targeted organisms 41 (Beketov et al., 2013). These risks have slowly been taken into account in public policies aimed at reducing pesticide use (e.g., in European countries, Barzman and 42 43 Dachbrodt-Saaydeh, 2011).

44 In Europe, public incentives encourage farmers to reduce their pesticide use, 45 promoting in particular the development of integrated pest management (IPM) 46 (Lefebvre et al., 2014). IPM includes all practices based on the use of preventive 47 methods, decision-making systems and non-chemical pest control to minimise pesticide use (Boller et al., 2004). Yet it remains only moderately developed in 48 49 European intensive agriculture, except in orchard and greenhouse production 50 (Lefebvre et al., 2014). Furthermore, for a given crop production, the adoption rate of 51 IPM varies widely among countries (e.g. for strawberry production in Moser et al., 52 2008). Among the numerous causes of low adoption of IPM, one is often named: the 53 need of extra workload and extra costs for monitoring (Beckmann and Wesseler, 54 2003). IPM practices are still little used also because of their irregular effectiveness. 55 Indeed, it depends on the crop, the target pest, and on local factors (e.g., weather 56 conditions).

57 Grapevine is mostly affected by fungi, with fungicides representing on that crop about 58 80% of the total pesticide use in France (Mézière et al., 2009). One could expect to

59 focus only on fungicides to tackle the problem with certainty and to cause an 60 important reduction of overall pesticide use. However, the other categories of 61 pesticides are of equal concern. In grapevine, herbicides represent a minor proportion 62 of overall pesticides, but their spraying on the soil directly contributes to the pollution 63 of surface and ground water in concentrations that may be high during rain events (Louchart et al., 2001) and deleterious for human health and the environment 64 65 (CGDD/SOeS, 2014). Solutions for pesticide reduction use thus would need to be 66 found for each category of pesticide. These solutions are based on a change in 67 cropping practices, which will depend on the pesticide target (weeds, fungi, insects). 68 To decrease pesticide use, crop protection practices can be categorized as alternative 69 (i.e., replacing the use of a pesticide by a non-chemical practice, Petit et al., 2015) or 70 low-input (i.e, reducing the applied dose and/or the frequency of pesticide 71 application).

72 To cope with fungal diseases without the application of pesticides, farmers have access to almost no alternative practices. The only practice that may cope with the use 73 74 of fungicide is the plantation of resistant cultivars. However such resistance can be 75 partial and target-specific (e.g., Wan et al., 2007), and resistant cultivars can display 76 lower wine quality (e.g., Ferreira et al., 2004), while cultivar cannot be changed during the lifetime of the vineyard (i.e., at least 20 years). Most practices aimed at 77 78 reducing fungicide use (i.e., low-input) are based on Decision Support Systems (DSS) 79 (Bernard et al., 2010). The implementation of DSS makes it possible to act on (i) the 80 start and end dates for pesticide sprays during the vine-growing season, (ii) the frequency of sprays in between and (iii) the spray volume and sprayed dose according 81 82 to density of vegetation. Regarding herbicides, some alternative practices to chemical 83 weeding have been developed such as its replacement by mechanical weeding or the 84 use of cover crops (Debaeke et al., 2009). Similarly, alternative practices exist to

minimise insecticide use, with the development of biocontrol products (e.g.,
pheromone-based products to prevent the proliferation of *Eudemis* grape moth larvae)
(Mézière et al., 2009).

Grapevine is grown in a wide range of pedoclimatic areas. In France, grapevine is found from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic and in more continental climates. Winegrowing conditions are strongly embedded in regional features (historical background, production rules, ecological conditions etc.), so one hypothesis is to expect alternative pesticide practices to replace current pesticide practices to differ among wine-growing regions.

94 The effects of low-input and alternative practices to chemical control are mainly 95 assessed at the field and farm level, often through a cost-effectiveness approach 96 (Aven and Kørte, 2003; Hailu et al., 2005) or in terms of the overall impact of the 97 implementation of an IPM package on pesticide reduction in farms (Fernandez-98 Comejo, 1998). But assessment of their use and impacts remains scarce at the regional 99 and national scales. As far as we know, no study has ever assessed the individual 100 impact of the practices constituting these packages at the scale of wine-growing 101 regions.

102 Based on the analysis of a French national database for the 2006 and 2010 seasons, 103 this study aims to describe and analyse the current patterns in pesticide use and 104 cropping practices for different French wine-growing regions. This study assesses the 105 contribution of 'normal' chemical practices, and alternative/low-input practices to 106 fungicide and herbicide use by quantifying both the use of these management options, 107 and the associated pesticide use intensity. Insecticide use is described in this study, 108 but the impact of cropping practices on its use is not included here, as the relevant 109 information was not sufficiently accurate in the studied database.

#### 111 2 Material and method

# 112 2.1 Presentation of the French database on crop protection practices in 113 viticulture

We used a database built by the French Ministry of Agriculture's Statistics and Prospective Service (SSP). This database is designed to survey and monitor cropping practices within the country. In viticulture, the surveys were conducted in the main French wine-growing regions for the 2006 and 2010 cropping seasons during the spring of 2007 and 2011, respectively. Vineyards with limited or dispersed areas were not surveyed.

The survey design followed a stratified random sampling of vineyard fields with two strata for each year: county (NUTS3) and wine designation (Protected Designation of Origin, Protected Geographical Indication, table wine, brandy). The samples differed in 2006 and 2010, but both were representative of French vineyards in terms of their surface area and cropping practices.

The surveys focused on practices over the full annual crop cycle, starting after the harvest of the preceding year and ending at harvest of the considered year (2006 or 2010). Information was gathered at the field scale on varieties, soil cover and weeding management, fertilisation, crop protection and harvest (Agreste, 2013; Agreste, 2006). Regarding crop protection practices, information on products, application time, number of sprays and sprayed doses were included.

131

#### 132 **2.2 Presentation of the studied wine-growing regions and years**

Our analysis focused on 11 wine-growing regions surveyed in 2006 and 2010 (Figure 1), with 5,192 and 4,968 fields surveyed respectively. We removed 24 individuals in 2006 and 20 individuals in 2010 due to missing data, which represents less than 0.1% of the total data. In the database, the surface of each field was weighted by the SSP

137 for the sample to be representative of the overall wine-growing surface area for each considered year. Sampling was performed within a population stratified according to 138 the vineyard region and the type of wine (Designation of Origin -AOP-, Protected 139 Geographical Indication -IGP-, and table wine), defining sub-samples. For each sub-140 141 sample, the weight of each field was equal to the ratio between its surface and the 142 probability of this field to be sampled (according to its surface). This weighting 143 procedure is performed in order not to penalize small fields, and accordingly favour 144 big fields. We thus used these weighted data for our analysis; by doing so, the data 145 analysed represented 83% of the French vineyard area in 2006 and 2010.

146 Pest and disease attacks and pesticide use are closely linked with climatic conditions. 147 especially rainfall (mm) and temperature (Celsius degrees). Mildew and powdery 148 mildew are cryptogamic diseases so their development depends upon humidity and, as 149 a consequence, rainfall during the vine-growing season. In particular, an increase of 150 total rainfall or of number of rainy days favours the occurrence of these diseases. Pest pressure and climatic conditions were extracted from Meteo France's annual 151 152 syntheses (http://www.meteofrance.com/climat/france) and from vearly regional 153 reports (Grosman, 2010; Grosman et al., 2006). According to these syntheses, 2010 154 was wetter than 2006. Both years were intermediate in terms of rainfall conditions, compared to the climate records for the period 1971-2000. Focusing on the vine-155 growing season (from April 1<sup>st</sup> to September 30<sup>th</sup>), number of rainy days (Figure 1A) 156 157 and total rainfall (Figure 1B) varied widely between wine growing regions in 2006 158 and in 2010. 2006 was more contrasted than 2010 in terms of number of rainy days 159 but not in terms of total rainfall. Burgundy and Beaujolais regions get slightly higher 160 amounts of total rainfall in 2010 than in 2006 while western regions get less rainfall in 161 2010. The average mean temperature during this period tended to be a little colder in 162 2010 compared to 2006 (Figure 1C), but both years were intermediate in terms of air temperature conditions, compared to climate records for the period 1971-2000.

164 # Figure 1 approximately here #

The year 2006 was characterised by a cold and dry winter, which induced late 165 166 disbudding, counteracted by a spring and summer with higher than average (1971-167 2000) mean monthly temperatures. Summer rainfalls were slightly above the seasonal 168 average in northern wine-growing regions (from Charente to Alsace), while the south 169 of France, especially Provence, experienced below seasonal average rainfalls. Downy 170 mildew (Plasmopara viticola) had an impact mainly in Bordeaux vineyards, and was 171 almost absent in Mediterranean regions (Provence, Languedoc and Eastern Pyrenees). 172 Powdery mildew (Uncinula necator) pressure was medium compared to the 10 173 previous years but varied among regions, having the most impact in Charente and 174 Languedoc vinevards, locally affecting the grape harvest.

175 The year 2010 was the coolest year in the period 1991 to 2010 (0.3°C below the 176 average annual temperature), which induced late disbudding and late ripening in all regions (a delay of 10-15 days in Mediterranean regions and up to 15-20 days in 177 178 northern wine-growing regions). Downy mildew had a greater impact in 179 Mediterranean regions than it did in northern and Atlantic ones; it was unusually 180 scarce in Champagne. The year 2010 was an average year compared to the 10 181 previous years for powdery mildew pressure, slightly lower than in 2006, with this 182 fungus having its greatest impact in Mediterranean regions. Both years had relatively 183 low insect pressure.

184

#### 185 **2.3** Pesticide use and crop protection management options

#### 186 2.3.1 Characterisation of pesticide use: total and partial TFIs

187 The Treatment Frequency Index (TFI) indicator was used to characterise the intensity

188 of pesticide use at field level, calculated as follows (Eq. (1)).

$$TFI = \sum_{P} ((Sp\_Dose_{P}/Rec\_Dose_{P}) \times (Sp\_Area_{P}/Tot\_Area_{P}))$$

189 Eq. (1): TFI indicator calculation (based on OECD, 2001; Pingault et al., 2009) where 190 P is the pesticide product sprayed, Sp  $Dose_P$  is the sprayed dose of product P. 191 Rec  $dose_P$  is the recommended dose per hectare, Sp Area<sub>P</sub> is the surface area on 192 which the pesticide product was sprayed, and *Tot* Area<sub>P</sub> is the total surface area of the 193 sprayed field. Recommended doses were retrieved from the national e-phy database 194 (French Ministry of Agriculture Agribusiness and Fisheries, 2015). In the surveys, the 195 pests or diseases targeted by farmers during each pesticide spraying were not 196 identified. Then, when a commercial pesticide product was intended to control several 197 pests or diseases, we used as the recommended dose the smallest approved dose for 198 grapevine (which could lead to an overestimation of TFI).

In this study, we distinguished three partial TFIs, corresponding to: (1) herbicide products only (TFI<sub>h</sub>), (2) insecticide and acaricide products only (TFI<sub>i</sub>), and (3) fungicide products only (TFI<sub>f</sub>). We also considered total TFI (TFI<sub>tot</sub>), which corresponds to the sum of the three previous described TFI. Hereafter, insecticides and acaricides are both named 'insecticides'.

#### 204 2.3.2 Crop protection and soil management options

Four variables were built to characterise crop protection and soil management optionsfor each field surveyed in 2006 and 2010.

#### 207 2.3.2.1 Fungi-control management options

According to Equation (1), reducing fungicide use results from decreasing (1) the sprayed doses, and/or (2) the number of fungicides sprayed during the vine-growing season, the latter being achieved by increasing the delay between sprays (i.e., decreasing fungicide sprays frequency) or shortening the duration of fungicide spraying (delaying the date of first spray, or stopping fungicide spraying as soon as 213 possible).

As a preliminary analysis, we used two quantitative variables to explore variation of TFI<sub>f</sub>: total number of fungicides spray in the field ("*total\_fungi*" variable) and mean fungicide sprayed dose in the field ("*mean\_dose*" variable). *Mean\_dose* was estimated as the ratio of TFI<sub>f</sub> divided by the total number of fungicides sprayed on the field throughout the cropping season.

219 Another variable was built to analyse timing of first fungicide spray ("first fungi" 220 variable) (Table 1), whose delay (with respect to local 'normal/usual' timing) may be 221 associated with lower pesticide spray. The timing of the last fungicide spray was not 222 considered here since it varied widely according to the date of grape harvest (and so 223 depended on wine-growing regions and grape varieties) and to the pest pressure due to a pathogen, whose attacks occur at the end of berries' ripening and greatly vary 224 225 between wine-growing regions. In the database, pesticide spray dates were available only in a fortnightly format (i.e., two modalities for each month: the 1<sup>st</sup>-14<sup>th</sup> or the 226 15<sup>th</sup>-31<sup>th</sup> of each month). The timing of first fungicide spray ranged from the second 227 228 fortnight of February to the first fortnight of August. First fungi variable was classified in three modalities: early, regular or late. Timing was considered as 229 "regular" if equal to the median fortnight, "early" or "late" if occurring respectively 230 before or after the median fortnight. The median fortnight for the timing of first 231 fungicide spray was the fortnight 1st-15th May for all wine-growing regions in 2006 232 and 2010; except Alsace where it was 16<sup>th</sup>-31<sup>st</sup> May in 2006 and 2010. In order to be 233 able to compare regions, we used fortnight 1<sup>st</sup>-15<sup>th</sup> May to build the timing modalities 234 235 for all regions.

236

#### 237 2.3.2.2 Soil management options

238 Two variables were built to characterize the soil management options (Table 1). The

239 weed control practices ("weed control" variable) could be chemical weeding only, 240 mechanical weeding only or mixed weeding i.e. a combination of chemical and 241 mechanical weeding over time and/or space. A temporal combination is a succession 242 of mechanical and chemical operations through time; a spatial combination is a 243 different type of soil management between alleyways and vine rows. The type of soil 244 cover cropping ("soil cover" variable) could be permanent, temporary or bare soil. 245 Permanent modality was assigned if farmer kept permanent grass cover (either natural 246 vegetation or sown species) for at least two years in alleyways. Temporary grass cover corresponded to natural vegetation controlled by the farmer during the winter 247 248 and destroyed at the beginning of spring. If the field was not considered as having 249 permanent nor temporary grass cover, it was assigned as being *bare soil*.

250 # Table 1 approximately here #

#### 251 2.4 Statistical analyses

The effect of a given variable on the associated partial TFI was tested for each winegrowing region and each year by performing non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis rank tests Each modality with less than five individuals (which represented up to 2.4% of the extrapolated surface area) for a given year and region was not considered for the analysis. The significance of Kruskal-Wallis tests was corrected using the Holm correction *post hoc* test, which is more powerful than the Bonferroni method commonly used (Aickin and Gensler, 1996).

259 Statistical analyses were achieved using the R software version 2.15.3 (R Core Team,

260 2013) and the R packages Survey (Lumley, 2012, 2004) and Plyr (Wickham, 2011).

261 Maps were created with the R packages *GISTools* (Brunsdon and Chen, 2014), *maps* 

262 (Becker et al., 2013) and *rgdal* (Bivand et al., 2014). Spider charts were performed

263 with the R package *plotrix* (Lemon, 2006), and boxplots with the R package *ggplot2* 

264 (Wickham, 2009, 2015).

#### 266 **3 Results**

267 **3.1** Total pesticide use at regional scale

The regional average of TFI<sub>tot</sub> varied between 7 and 22 in 2006 and between 9 and 18 268 269 in 2010 (Figure 2A), with national averages of 12.9 and 13.0 in 2006 and 2010, 270 respectively. Large variations in TFI<sub>tot</sub> were observed within wine-growing regions 271 for the two years studied. The ranking of wine-growing regions was similar between 272 the two years, the lowest average TFI<sub>tot</sub> being observed in Provence and the highest 273 one in Champagne. The average TFI<sub>tot</sub> was lower in 2010 than in 2006 in six wine-274 growing regions by 0.4 to 3.4, and higher in the other five wine-growing regions by 275 0.1 to 2.4.

- 276 # Figure 2 approximately here #
- 277

#### 278 **3.2** Impact of fungi–control management options on fungicide use intensity

279 Fungicides (TFI<sub>f</sub>) were the pesticide sprayed with the largest quantities in all wine-280 growing regions (Figure 2B). Fungicides corresponded to 60%-89% and 69%-92% of TFI<sub>tot</sub> in 2006 and 2010, respectively. Champagne was the wine-growing region with 281 282 the highest average TFI<sub>f</sub> value in both years. In Champagne, the lower average TFI<sub>f</sub> in 283 2010 compared to 2006 related to better climatic conditions and lower pest pressure in 284 2010. In contrast, TFI<sub>f</sub> was higher in 2010 than in 2006 in Provence and Beaujolais, 285 partially due to worse climatic and pest pressure conditions in 2010 than in 2006 286 (Figures 1 A and B).

287 *Total\_fungi* variable was strongly linked to  $TFI_f$  since it is directly involved in the 288 construction of  $TFI_f$ . The total number of fungicides sprayed varied broadly between

wine-growing regions, in a similar way as TFI<sub>f</sub> but with higher variations (Figure 3).

290 # Figure 3 approximately here #

At the national scale, fungicides were sprayed on average at  $0.9 \pm 0.2$  times the recommended dose. About 75% of the wine-growing surface area had a fungicide mean sprayed dose lower than the recommended dose (TFI<sub>f</sub> < 1). However, Beaujolais, Burgundy and Champagne stood out with regional medians slightly above 1 (Figure 4).

297 # Figure 4 approximately here #

298 The timing of first fungicide spray was fairly homogeneous between wine-growing 299 regions for both years. At the national scale, more than half of the surface area was on 300 regular timing; and a quarter as early timing, based on regional references, and for the 301 two years (Figure 5A, Appendix A). Late timing led to a significant reduction in the 302 TFI<sub>f</sub> at the national scale, down to  $7.5 \pm 3.8$  in 2006 and  $9.2 \pm 3.5$  in 2010 (Table 2), 303 which was significantly lower (by 16% to 30% depending on years) compared to 304 regular or early timing. On the contrary, TFIf associated to early and regular timing 305 were not statistically different at the national scale.

306 At the regional scale, most of the vineyards received their first fungicide at *regular* 307 period in 2006 and 2010 (Figure 5A, Appendix A). The later the first fungicide was sprayed, the lower the TFI<sub>f</sub> was, whatever the region and year (Table 2). TFI<sub>f</sub> was 308 309 always significantly lower for *late* timing compared to *early*, with a decrease ranging 310 between 16% and 50% (Burgundy in 2006 and Centre in 2010, respectively). TFI<sub>f</sub> 311 reduction comparing late to regular timing ranged from 11% to 39% for both years. 312 *Regular* timing tended to reduce TFI<sub>f</sub> when compared to *early*, but the reduction was 313 significant for only half of the region-year couples, and was always lower than 20%.

314 # Table 2 approximately here #

#### 315 **3.3** Impacts of soil management options on herbicide use intensity

316 Herbicides (TFI<sub>h</sub>) accounted for 6.5 to 11.5% and 3.7 to 10.8% of TFI<sub>tot</sub> according to 317 the wine-growing regions in 2006 and 2010, respectively (Figure 2C). Herbicides were, on average, less used in drier regions (Eastern Pyrenees, Languedoc, Provenceand Alsace).

*Mixed weed\_control* was the leading practice for the two years, representing 70.6% and 65.9% of the national surface area in 2006 and 2010, respectively. *Mechanical weed\_control*, thus without herbicide, represented 10% of the national surface area in 2006, but tripled in 2010 (Figure 5B, Appendix A). At the national scale, the TFI<sub>h</sub> value associated with *mixed weed\_control* (1.0±0.7 in 2006 and 0.7±0.6 in 2010) was significantly lower than for *chemical weed\_control* (1.6±0.9 in 2006 and 1.6±0.8 in 2010 (Table 3).

327 Four wine-growing regions used only chemicals for *weed control* in 2006 on the very 328 large majority of the surveyed fields (Beaujolais, Champagne, Centre and Loire Valley), with the Centre and Loire Valley shifting part of their surface area to mixed 329 330 weed control in 2010 compared to 2006 (20 and 25% respectively). The surface area 331 managed with mechanical weed control was very diverse between wine-growing 332 region, ranging from 3% to 21% in 2006 and from 6% to 36% in 2010. The average TFI<sub>h</sub> values associated with the *chemical* or *mixed weed control* varied greatly 333 between wine-growing regions. Indeed, TFI<sub>h</sub> ranged from 0.9±0.6 to 2.0±0.9 for 334 335 chemical in both years and from 0.5±0.5 to 1.4±0.8 for mixed weed control, in both 336 years. Variations of TFI<sub>h</sub> values within wine-growing regions were also broad 337 (standard deviations up to 68% of TFI<sub>h</sub>). Areas under *mixed weed control* practices 338 received from 6% less to half less pesticides than areas under *chemical weed control* 339 (Burgundy in 2006 and Languedoc in 2010, respectively, Table 3).

Regarding soil\_cover cropping, *permanent soil\_cover* represented about one-third of the national surface area in both years. *Bare soil* represented 40% and 51% in 2006 and 2010, respectively, while the *temporary soil\_cover* surface area was 23% in 2006 and 12% in 2010. TFI<sub>h</sub> values tended to be lower in this order: *permanent< temporary* 

 $344 \quad < bare soil.$ 

The use of soil cover practices differed between regions. Permanent soil cover was 345 346 prevalent in Alsace, Bordeaux and Charente for the two years (Figure 5B, Appendix 347 A). Bare soil was the most common option in the Eastern Pyrenees, Champagne, 348 Beaujolais, Languedoc and Provence in 2006 and 2010, and in Centre and Burgundy 349 in 2010 only. Temporary soil cover management was the least common (except for 350 Burgundy in 2006), and decreased in all wine-growing regions (except in Alsace and 351 Eastern Pyrenees, involving a small surface area) between 2006 and 2010, while the 352 surface area with bare soil increased. Fields with permanent soil cover, as compared 353 to *bare soil*, had a significantly lower TFI<sub>h</sub> value (between -16% and -56 % of TFI<sub>h</sub> in 354 2006, in Languedoc and Centre, respectively, Table 3). TFI<sub>h</sub> values were also 355 significantly lower under *temporary soil cover* management as compared to *bare soil* 356 management in most wine-growing regions and years, except in Charente and 357 Bordeaux in 2006.

358 # Table 3 approximately here #

359 **3.4 Insecticide use intensity** 

Insecticides (TFI<sub>i</sub>) accounted, depending on the wine-growing region, from 4% to 361 30% and from 3% to 26% of TFI<sub>tot</sub> in 2006 and 2010, respectively (Figure 2D). 362 Charentes, Languedoc and Eastern Pyrenees were the wine-growing regions with the 363 most intensive insecticide spray, while Burgundy and Provence used less insecticide 364 spray (average TFI<sub>i</sub> value lower than 0.7 in both years).

365

#### 366 4 Discussion

#### 367 4.1 Impact of crop protection management options on pesticide use reduction

368 In our study, we explored four pathways for pesticide use reduction in wine growing 369 systems. Our results showed that each alternative practice had an impact on TFI, but

that this impact differed between wine-growing regions and between the management
options under consideration. We discuss below the impact and use of alternative
practices, by pesticide category.

#### 373 4.1.1 Fungicides

374 Our results showed that TFI<sub>f</sub> was strongly linked with the total number of fungicides sprayed. Timing of first fungicide spray was the only management option analysed to 375 376 act on a reduction of number of fungicides spraved. Postponing the first fungicide 377 spray was proved to significantly reduce fungicide use, up to 50 % of TFI<sub>f</sub>, as compared to fields sprayed at median or early timing. These results are consistent 378 379 with the observations made when the Mildium® DSS method was implemented in 380 experimental fields (Delière et al., 2015). Mildium® gives indications to spray (at 381 recommended doses) in relation with climatic conditions and some sensitive 382 phenological stages of the vines (i.e. flowering) combined with a predictive model of 383 mildew attacks. It has been shown that the implementation of this type of DSS could lead to a 50% reduction in fungicide spray, with a low impact on yield in average pest 384 385 pressure years (Delière et al., 2015). Nevertheless, it could be argued the Mildium® 386 DSS shall be valid at field scale, but cannot be applied at the farm level with the same 387 accuracy, as was the case in experimental fields. Research is in progress concerning 388 the way to apply Mildium® at the farm level (Delière et al., 2015) but the results are 389 not yet sufficiently established for guiding farmers towards this lever.

The variable *mean\_dose* in our study provided another insight on farmers pesticides use, as it suggested the occurrence of both overdosing and underdosing fungicides practices. It is important to note that recommended dose is set at national level for each pesticide type of use, and rules are uneven between countries (Codis et al., 2012). While in Germany or Switzerland for example, recommended dose is adjusted depending on density of vegetation, in France the recommended dose is set

396 independently of such considerations. Overdosing could be an artefact of TFI<sub>f</sub> 397 calculation, due to a possible underestimation of recommended doses used in our 398 study. Yet, overdosing practices have been observed by Aubert et Enjolras (2014); 399 and they analysed the determinants of such behaviours in viticulture. On the other 400 hand, under-dosing of fungicide has recently been promoted and advised to farmers in 401 many wine-growing regions in Europe, including France, with the use of a DSS 402 computer model (Davy et al., 2010; Gil et al., 2011; IFV, 2015). The DSS tool 403 Optidose® helps farmers estimate the most adapted dose to spray on each application for powdery and downy mildew, taking into account the vine phenological stage, leaf 404 405 area of the vine to be treated, disease pressure and field sensitivity. In experimental 406 situations, this DSS tool can lead to a drop of 40-50 % of fungicide use over the entire crop season compared to the farmers' usual spraying practices for these two main 407 408 diseases (Davy et al., 2010). On the contrary, other scientific studies warn against 409 possible resistance phenomena, which could be favoured by under dosing (e.g., 410 Gressel 2011).

411 Our results allow us to classify the wine-growing regions in three categories, strongly 412 related with climatic conditions. In the wine-growing regions with high TFI<sub>f</sub> values 413 (Champagne, Burgundy and Beaujolais), both mean pesticide sprayed doses and total number of fungicides were high, while the timing of first spray was relatively 414 415 homogeneous. These regions were also those with wetter climatic conditions during 416 the vine-growing season (number of rainy days, total rainfall). The other regions used 417 with different intensities the three levers (i.e., timing of first fungicide spray, reduced dose and reduced number of spray events). The Mediterranean regions, as well as 418 419 Alsace, Centre and Loire Valley were the regions with the lowest median number of 420 fungicides sprayed (this contributed to their low average TFI<sub>f</sub> value); and correspond to regions with drier climate (in particular, less rainfall). Regions under Atlantic 421

422 climate (Charente and Bordeaux ) can be grouped as intermediate category, both in 423 terms of rainfall conditions, and use of fungi control management options. However, 424 if climate, and essentially rainfall, can explain different regional profiles in terms of 425 fungicide spray, the results obtained in Alsace (humid climate and low TFI<sub>f</sub>) 426 demonstrate that other reasons should be considered, as for instance the varieties, 427 targeted yields, planting density and inter-row width, slopes etc. Unfortunately, our 428 database did not offer the possibility of investigating such questions.

#### 429 **4.1.2** Herbicides

In contrast to fungicides, herbicides can be excluded or strongly reduced in vineyards,
as effective alternative strategies already exist. Herbicides can be replaced by *mechanical weed\_control* or by *permanent* or *tempory soil\_cover*.

Our results showed that the use of *permanent* or *tempory soil cover* and *mechanical* 433 434 weed control led to a decrease of 50% and more in TFI<sub>h</sub>. Chemical weed control 435 only was commonly used in regions with wet climate conditions, such as Champagne and Beaujolais, whereas it was scarce in Mediterranean areas (Languedoc and 436 437 Provence). However, this climatic characteristic cannot explain all the differences as 438 some wine-growing regions with similar climate conditions to Champagne and 439 Beaujolais made larger uses of *mechanical* and *mixed weed control* (typically 440 Burgundy and Alsace). At this point it is necessary to stress the influence of the field 441 slope and the plantation structure: it is much more challenging to use *mechanical* 442 weed control in vineyards with steep slopes and in higher density plantations with 443 narrow alleyways (i.e. 90% of Beaujolais vineyards are planted with more than 8,500 vines per hectare, while 85% of Languedoc's vineyards are planted with less than 444 445 4,500 vines per hectare (source: SSP database).

446 Regarding *soil\_cover* cropping, the Mediterranean wine-growing regions tended to
447 present mostly *bare soils*, in order to avoid water and nitrogen competition with

weeds in arid conditions (Celette and Gary, 2013). *Permanent* or *tempory soil\_cover*was also very little implemented in Champagne, for example, while widely spread in
Alsace: the plantation structure (density and inter-row width) as well as yield
objectives higher in Champagne may explain these differences.

452

#### 453 **4.2** Variability of practices within time and space

454 In this study, we analysed normal, alternative and low-input practices. Other practices 455 can indirectly contribute to decrease pesticide spray. For example, techniques of 456 canopy management (cluster thinning, pruning, shoot trimming, etc.) are often applied 457 to control grape yield and quality. They can also contribute to prevent damage from 458 fungi attacks (i.e., (i) the effect of cluster thinning on botrytis, e.g., Spring & Viret, 2009: (ii) the effect of grapevine training systems on powdery mildew, e.g., Zahavi et 459 460 al., 2001). However, as the primary objective associated to these practices for farmers 461 is not necessarily preventing pests and diseases, these techniques are not automatically associated with fungicide spray reduction. For example, repeated shoot 462 463 trimming may represent more a reaction to rapid vegetative growth, which favours fungi attacks (Valdés-Gómez et al., 2011, 2008) than an explicit lever to reduce 464 465 pesticide spray.

466 For fungicides, we noticed very small differences between 2006 and 2010 in terms of 467 the relative proportions of the practices under study (and this for each growing 468 region). Pesticides spray differed more between regions than between years. 469 Similarly, the impacts of the studied crop protection practices tended to be quite similar in both years for each region. Considering the similarity of these two years in 470 471 terms of climate and pest and disease pressure, one may conclude that there was no 472 evolution in the studied farmers' practices related to fungicide and insecticide spray 473 between these two years.

474 In the case of herbicides, more substantial changes were detected between 2006 and 475 2010 (more mechanical weed control). This evolution was certainly due to public 476 policies (incentives) aiming at tackling the problem of water catchments being mainly 477 contaminated by herbicides (Biarnès et al. 2012). To explain the prominence of 478 regional variability, it is necessary to recall that wine production is strongly embedded 479 in regional features. This is not only due to particular ecological conditions, but also to long historical backgrounds, know-how, statements of regional identity and 480 481 peculiar rules (technical norms for grape and wine production in 'Protected 482 Designation of Origin'); all of this being shaped in the concept of 'terroir' (van 483 Leeuwen and Seguin, 2006). In each wine-growing region, a very large diversity of 484 'terroirs' exist and this could explain the great variability of the crop protection 485 practices observed (Goulet and Morlat, 2011).

#### 486 4.3 Potential limitations

487 The first limitation to our results concerns the exclusion of alternative practices regarding insecticide control, due to the inaccurate information on the use of 488 489 alternative biocontrol products in the studied database. However, the use of 490 insecticide can also be omitted in case of low insect pressure, leading to vines 491 suffering little damage. Moreover, the wine-growing regions considered in this study were not submitted to similar insect pressure, which may even largely vary inside a 492 493 wine-growing region. Farmers face two main pests: grape berry moths and 494 leafhoppers, the latter being the vector of the phytoplasma agent of grapevine 495 'flavescence dorée'. Treatments against leafhoppers may be compulsory by law in areas where grapevines are affected by the disease (as is the case in Languedoc, 496 497 Provence, Eastern Pyrenees and Charente). For each pest, two or three successive 498 sprays may be necessary to cope with the problem and, as a consequence, regions or 499 sub-regions where both pests are present may yield a TFI<sub>i</sub> value of 4 to 6 (and 0 in

500 regions where no insects are detected at all, i.e., in Alsace). Even if, in general, 501 farmers try to use multi-purpose insecticides to control both insects simultaneously, this uneven insect pressure could explain the large differences in TFI<sub>i</sub> between wine-502 503 growing regions as found in this study. Therefore, developing alternatives to 504 insecticides is important for some areas of wine-growing regions, especially as broad-505 spectrum insecticides are very harmful for the environment. In our study we could not 506 investigate uses and effects of biocontrol pesticides products (notably we could not 507 look at pheromone-based products), and further studies with a proper database are 508 needed because these alternatives seem to be promising to further reduce insecticide 509 uses (e.g., Oliva et al., 1999; Trimble et al., 2003).

510 The second main limitation also concerns the type of data provided in the studied 511 database, which includes only the description of individual cropping practices for two 512 discontinuous years. No information on the global strategy of the farmer was 513 available, so we had to define classes of practices, thus hypothesizing low-input practices with regards to their regional context (e.g., for fungicide), without being able 514 515 to link it to the use of a Decision Support System, or to a real choice of the farmer for 516 practices leading to a lower use of pesticides. Such information would be difficult and 517 time-consuming to gather, given the very large number of field surveyed. However, 518 our results showed that the use of such practices actually lead to a lower intensity of 519 pesticide use, and call for a more comprehensive large-scale assessment of farmers' 520 strategy regarding crop protection practices.

521 **5 Conclusion** 

We used simple statistical analyses to explore a large national dataset. Our results suggest that the relative use and impact of each analysed practice tended to differ more between wine-growing regions than between years. Although further analysis would be necessary to explore the determinants of these variations with a sample of

this dataset, our results already showed that the use of effective methods to decrease pesticide use differed among wine-growing regions. Such results could be used to adapt national policies targeting the reduction of pesticide spray to local specificities,

529 in order to promote methods that are both locally effective and realistic.

530

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540

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Figure 1. Location of the 11 wine-growing regions studied and number of rainy days (A), amount of rainfall (mm) (B) and average mean temperature (celsius degrees) (C) during the growing

period (from April 1st to September 30th) in 2006 and 2010. Data extracted from the INRA Climatik platform.



Figure 2. Boxplots of  $TFI_{tot}$  (A),  $TFI_{f}$  (B),  $TFI_{h}$  (C), and  $TFI_{i}$  (D) in 2006 (grey box) and 2010 (white box) in the 11 studied French wine-growing regions. Outliers are not represented. Whiskers display the 5th and 95th percentiles, horizontal bars indicate first quartile, median and third quartile.



Figure 3. Boxplot of total number of fungicides sprayed in 2006 (grey box) and 2010 (white box) in the 11 studied French wine-growing regions. Outliers are not represented. Whiskers display the 5th and 95th percentile, horizontal bars indicate first quartile, median and third quartile.



Figure 4. Boxplot of fungicide mean sprayed doses in 2006 (grey box) and 2010 (white box) in the 11 studied French wine-growing regions and at national scale. Outliers are not represented. Whiskers display the 5th and 95th percentiles, horizontal bars indicate first quartile, median and third quartile. *Mean\_dose* was estimated as the ratio of TFI<sub>f</sub> divided by the total number of fungicides sprayed on the field throughout the cropping season.



#### Figure 5 Click here to download Figure: fig.5\_LH3.doc

Figure 5. Proportion of use of the practices related to fungicides (A) and herbicides (B and C) management in the 11 wine-growing regions in 2006 and 2010 (see Appendix 1 for the numbers of data cases). Data are expressed as a fraction of the total regional area cultivated with grapevine (see Table 1 for variable definition).



% total regional area

B. Type of soil cover cropping



% total regional area





Table 1. Characteristics of the variables potentially impacting pesticide use

Type of pesticide	Variable name	Variable description	Modality	Modalities description		
Fungicides			early	Early timing of first fungicide spray (i.e., before the regional median fortnight)		
	first_fungi	timing of first fungicide spray	regular	Regular timing of first fungicide spray (i.e., at the regional median fortnight)		
			late	Late timing of first fungicide spray (i.e., after the regional median fortnight)		
	mean_dose	mean fungicide spray dose	quantitative variable (unitless: relatively to recommended dose)			
	total_fungi	Total number of fungicides spray in the field	quantitative variable (number)			
Herbicides			chemical	Chemical weeding only (alleyways and/or vine rows)		
	weed control	type of weed control	mechanical	Tillage only (alleyways and/or vine rows)		
	weed_control		mixed	Chemical weeding associated with tillage in time or space (alleyways and/or vine rows)		
		type of soil cover cropping	permanent	Soil of the vineyard covered by native or sowed grass during all the year		
	soil_cover		temporary	Soil of the vineyard covered by native or sowed grass during part of the year only		
			bare soil	Bare soil		

Wine-growing region	Year	Early	Regular	Late	<i>Regular</i> versus <i>early</i> pvalue	<i>Late</i> versus <i>early</i> pvalue	<i>Late</i> versus <i>regular</i> pvalue	
National	2006	$10.6 \pm 4.5$	$10.6 \pm 4.4$	$7.5 \pm 3.8$	NS	***	***	
	2010	$11.3 \pm 4.1$	$11.0 \pm 3.8$	$9.2 \pm 3.5$	NS	***	***	
Alsace	2006	$9.67\pm2.9$	$9.69\pm2.3$	$7.72 \pm 2.1$	NS	***	***	
	2010	$9.36\pm2.7$	$9.86\pm2.7$	$8.64\pm2.5$	NS	**	NS	
Beaujolais	2006	$13.8 \pm 2.7$	$13.6 \pm 2.6$	$11.8 \pm 2.5$	NS	**	***	
	2010	$16.7 \pm 3.0$	$14.7 \pm 3.1$	$13.2\pm1.9$	**	***	***	
Bordeaux	2006	$14.4 \pm 3.8$	$12.5 \pm 2.9$	$10.6 \pm 3.4$	***	***	***	
	2010	$14.1 \pm 3.9$	$11.8\pm2.9$	$8.0\pm3.3$	***	***	***	
Burgundy	2006	$15.1 \pm 3.5$	$14.8\pm3.2$	$12.7 \pm 3.1$	NS	***	***	
	2010	$16.3 \pm 2.9$	$14.7\pm3.3$	$13.1\pm3.2$	***	***	***	
Centre	2006	$9.7 \pm 3.7$	$8.0 \pm 3.0$	$4.9\pm2.5$	*	***	***	
	2010	$10.9\pm4.1$	$10.9\pm3.7$	$9.1 \pm 3.7$	NS	*	**	
Champagne	2006	$20.8\pm3.6$	$19.3\pm3.5$	$17.2\pm5.0$	**	**	***	
	2010	$18.3 \pm 3.0$	$16.9\pm3.0$	$14.0\pm2.6$	**	***	***	
Charentes	2006	$13.1 \pm 3.3$	$12.3\pm2.8$	$9.3\pm3.5$	**	***	***	
	2010	$13.5 \pm 2.7$	$12.7\pm2.6$	$10.2\pm3.3$	*	***	***	
Eastern Pyrenees	2006	$6.0 \pm 2.6$	$6.1 \pm 2.2$	$4.8\pm2.9$	NS	*	**	
	2010	$6.7 \pm 3.3$	$6.2 \pm 2.3$	$5.8 \pm 1.8$	NS	NS	NS	
Languedoc	2006	$8.8 \pm 2.7$	$8.2\pm2.9$	$6.5\pm2.6$	NS	***	***	
	2010	$10.0 \pm 3.0$	$9.3\pm2.8$	$7.7 \pm 2.3$	*	***	***	
Loire Valley	2006	$10.1 \pm 2.9$	$9.9\pm2.8$	$8.3\pm3.2$	NS	*	*	
	2010	$9.4 \pm 2.3$	$9.2\pm2.3$	$8.9\pm2.1$	NS	NS	NS	
Provence	2006	$7.0 \pm 3.7$	$6.5\pm2.9$	$5.1 \pm 2.4$	NS	***	***	
	2010	$9.9 \pm 3.4$	$8.2 \pm 3.1$	$7.1 \pm 2.3$	***	***	***	

Table 2. Values of  $TFI_f$  (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation) related to the timing of first fungicide spray in 2006 and 2010 by wine-growing region.

\*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01 and \*\*\* p<0.001. NS: non-significant difference.

	Year	Soil cover						Weeding			
Wine-growing region		bare soil	permanent	temporary	<i>permanent</i> versus <i>temporary</i> p.value	<i>permanent</i> versus <i>bare soil</i> p.value	<i>temporary</i> versus <i>bare soil</i> p.value	chemical	mecanical	mixed	<i>mixed</i> versus <i>chemical</i> p.value
National	2006	$1.1 \pm 1.0$	$1.0 \pm 0.7$	$1.2 \pm 1.0$	**	NS	***	$1.6 \pm 0.9$	$0.0 \pm 0.1$	$1.0 \pm 0.7$	***
	2010	$1.0 \pm 0.9$	$0.7 \pm 0.6$	$0.6 \pm 0.7$	***	NS	***	$1.6 \pm 0.8$	$0.0 \pm 0.1$	$0.7 \pm 0.6$	***
Alsace	2006	$1.3 \pm 1.0$	$0.8 \pm 0.6$	$0.7 \pm 0.9$	NS	NS	NS	$1.5 \pm 0.8$	0	$1.0 \pm 0.5$	***
	2010	$0.2 \pm 0.4$	$0.4 \pm 0.4$	$0.0 \pm 0.1$	NS	NS	NS	-	0	$0.5 \pm 0.4$	-
Beaujolais	2006	$1.7 \pm 0.8$	$1.2 \pm 0.8$	$1.3 \pm 0.9$	NS	***	*	$1.7 \pm 0.8$	$0.0 \pm 0.1$	$1.3 \pm 0.7$	***
5	2010	$1.7 \pm 0.8$	$1.2 \pm 0.8$	$0.6 \pm 0.9$	*	***	**	$1.8 \pm 0.7$	0	$1.3 \pm 0.7$	***
Bordeaux	2006	$0.8 \pm 1.2$	$1.2 \pm 0.8$	$1.4 \pm 1.2$	NS	***	**	$1.8 \pm 1.0$	$0.0 \pm 0.1$	$1.3 \pm 0.8$	***
	2010	$1.1 \pm 1.1$	$0.7 \pm 0.6$	$0.5 \pm 0.5$	NS	NS	NS	$1.7 \pm 0.9$	$0.1 \pm 0.2$	$0.8 \pm 0.6$	***
Burgundy	2006	$1.3 \pm 0.9$	$0.9 \pm 0.7$	$1.1 \pm 0.9$	NS	***	*	$1.5 \pm 0.7$	0	$1.4 \pm 0.8$	NS
<b>C</b> <i>i</i>	2010	$1.0 \pm 1.0$	$0.8 \pm 0.7$	$0.6 \pm 0.8$	NS	NS	*	$1.5 \pm 0.8$	0	$1.2 \pm 0.8$	**
Centre	2006	$1.1 \pm 0.9$	$0.5 \pm 0.4$	$0.9 \pm 0.8$	NS	***	NS	$1.2 \pm 0.8$	0	$0.8 \pm 0.4$	***
	2010	$1.4 \pm 1.1$	$0.7 \pm 0.6$	$0.5 \pm 0.8$	NS	***	**	$2.0 \pm 0.9$	0	$0.8 \pm 0.5$	***
Champagne	2006	$1.6 \pm 0.8$	$0.8 \pm 0.7$	$1.3 \pm 0.7$	***	***	*	$1.6 \pm 0.8$	0	$1.2 \pm 0.7$	***
	2010	$1.4 \pm 0.8$	$0.8 \pm 0.8$	$1.0 \pm 0.8$	NS	***	**	$1.5 \pm 0.7$	$0.0 \pm 0.1$	$1.2 \pm 0.7$	***
Charentes	2006	$1.3 \pm 0.8$	$1.0 \pm 0.5$	$1.6 \pm 1.0$	***	NS	NS	$1.9 \pm 0.9$	0	$1.1 \pm 0.6$	***
	2010	$1.2 \pm 0.8$	$0.7 \pm 0.6$	$0.6 \pm 0.5$	NS	***	***	$1.6 \pm 0.8$	$0.0 \pm 0.0$	$0.8 \pm 0.6$	***
Eastern Pyrenees	2006	$0.9 \pm 0.8$	$0.7 \pm 0.7$	-	-	-	-	$1.2 \pm 0.7$	0	$1.0 \pm 0.8$	NS
·	2010	$0.6 \pm 0.6$	$0.5 \pm 0.9$	$0.1 \pm 0.1$	NS	NS	***	$1.3 \pm 0.6$	0	$0.6 \pm 0.6$	***
Languedoc	2006	$0.9 \pm 0.8$	$0.8 \pm 0.6$	$1.2 \pm 1.0$	***	NS	***	$1.5 \pm 1.0$	$0.0 \pm 0.2$	$0.9 \pm 0.7$	***
-	2010	$0.7 \pm 0.8$	$0.5 \pm 0.5$	$0.6 \pm 0.7$	NS	NS	NS	$1.7 \pm 0.9$	$0.0 \pm 0.1$	$0.6 \pm 0.6$	***
Loire Valley	2006	$1.7 \pm 0.8$	$1.0 \pm 0.6$	$1.7 \pm 0.8$	***	***	NS	$1.7 \pm 0.8$	0	$1.2 \pm 0.7$	***
-	2010	$1.7 \pm 0.9$	$0.9 \pm 0.5$	$1.1 \pm 0.7$	NS	***	***	$1.7 \pm 0.8$	0	$1.0 \pm 0.6$	***

NS

NS

 $0.2 \pm 0.3$ 

NS

NS

NS

NS

 $0.9 \pm 0.6$ 

 $0.9 \pm 0.7$ 

 $0.0 \pm 0.0$   $0.8 \pm 0.5$ 

 $0.5 \pm 0.5$ 

0

NS

NS

Table 3. Values of.  $TFI_h$  (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation) related to soil cover cropping and weed management practices in 2006 and 2010 by wine-growing region.

Provence

"-" less than 5 individuals were in this modality \*P<0.05,\*\*P<0.01 and \*\*\* P<0.001. NS: non-significant difference.

2006  $0.6 \pm 0.6$   $0.6 \pm 0.5$   $0.6 \pm 0.5$ 

2010  $0.3 \pm 0.5$   $0.4 \pm 0.4$ 

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