First steps in the grape mechanization process in Brazil: quantitative features

Abstract: Grape harvest is still fully manual in the majority of farms in Brazil (above 99%), yet the structure of the fields and the vine trellis are already prepared for being mechanized in a 24% of the cases. Besides, only the large-size farms are prepared for performing a detailed analysis of working capacity, product quality and losses; data of great value when trying to quantitatively address the incorporation of machinery. The fact that grape harvest in South America (and South Africa) be complementary in season compared to Europe, or North America, makes this potential market of Brazil an interesting option for European manufacturers. In this work, we have supervised a whole grape harvest season, in a 552ha farm, where both, mechanical (trailed) and manual harvest, are performed. Harvest performance is assessed by means of digital field notebooks and using georeferenced data (DGPS). A large variety of incidences have been found for the mechanized procedure due mainly to a deficient maintenance of the equipment, being reflected in a clearly reduction of the work capacity. Also in this study an analysis of juice losses due to mechanized harvest is performed. The quantitative features are defined and have been compared to evaluate the difference among both procedures, together with a technical discussion in the prospective of the grape (harvest) mechanization in the near future in Brazil.

Keywords: Farm management system, must, viticulture in Brazil, grape harvest, lost grape.

1. Introduction

Grape harvest mechanization started in California in 1960’s by designing trellis that would allow the mechanized process. It continued in Europe, mainly in France, in the 1970’s fostered by the petrol crisis. Ever since, France reflects a large manufacturing expertise in the subject: Braud (first commercialized model in 1975, currently CNH), Gregoire (first model in 1978) and Pellenc (at the beginning of the 90s). In general terms, an hour of mechanized work equals to the labour of a team of 10 people on a full-dedicated day (8h) (Barreiro, 2009).

In Spain it is by 1990 that grape mechanization starts due to the need of adapting the vine into the new trellis system (Barreiro, 2009). The latest data available (December 2014) indicate that there are 1980 harvesters in Spain (MAGRAMA, 2014), being an order of magnitude lower than France.

The vast majority of marketed grape harvesters work on the basis of horizontal vibration and are classified into: trailed, self-propelled and multi-purpose machines. Trailed harvesters represent the lowest cost of acquisition and maintenance, requiring a tractor PTO power above 56kW, while self-propelled machines (offered in a range of 75-100kW), have an acquisition cost substantially higher than trailed ones (more than double). Self-propelled machines are ideal for contractors while trailed are preferred by individual farmers.

Since south-America (South hemisphere) has a complementary harvest season compared to Europe (North hemisphere), international transport of harvesters has become a new active business, which allows duplicating the available working time (from about 500h to nearly 1000h per year). Chile is the main depositary of this interchange due to cultural similarities (language among all), and several Spanish contractors are placing a significant effort offering grape harvesters all along the year.

In 2015, Brazil reported 79,094 ha for wine growing (Figura.1), distributed in 9 states with an overall production of 1,5Mt; 50 % for table grapes consumption, and the rest for processing wine, juice and derivatives.*

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The surface planted with vineyards in Brazil (Figure 1) has shown a steady increase from 1995 to 2009, and a plain situation until 2013, while decreasing from 2013 until 2015. In 2015 an overall reduction of 1.83% has been found, affecting most of the nine producing states; only two showed a small increase in surface, while the rest had a reduction between 0.1% to 12.79%. This reduction may be due to weather issues, poor hand availability and high valuation on the land.

In 2015, 1.5 Mt of grapes were produced in Brazil (Figure 2), which represents an increase of 4.41% compared to 2014. Production decreased in 2015 in Bahia (0.13%), São Paulo (3.22%) and Paraná (1.12%). These states represent 22% of national production (Mello, 2016).

Figure 2. Grape production in Brazil.

The production of grapes for wine, juice and derivatives was 781kt in 2015, accounting for 52.12% of national production. The remaining production (47.88%) was destined for fresh consumption, table grapes.

Figure 3. Media production of grapes per ha in Brazil.

It is estimated that among the total area of vineyard in Brazil, a 24% is conducted in trellis system. Trellis system has shown an increase tendency due to the lower cost of implementation and its suitability for mechanization. Still, in 2015 only three grape harvesters were available in Brazil: 2 trailed machines and one self-propelled device.

Recently, precision agriculture techniques have been adopted by few winegrowers in Brazil by considering the correlation between the soil and the production and quality of the grapes. On the other hand, researchers as Sarri et al (2016), go beyond this precision agriculture concept, analysing parameters related with the vegetative vigour by the use of specific technology (infrared sensors, ultrasound; georeference, etc.)

There are a limited number of scientific papers related to the evaluation of grape harvester performance. Pezzi & Caprara, (2009) presented a study on the transmission of vibrations in vines of the variety Lambrusco Grasparossa collected with a Braud VL6060. They performed an analysis of losses (unharvested berries, must release and must retain in vegetation, or expelled by the cleaning system) as a matter of the setting parameters of the harvester (vibration frequencies of 380 to 460 min\(^{-1}\)). The main results indicate that the transmission of vibration to the plant only reaches 100% for the higher frequencies (460 min\(^{-1}\)); the losses of berries on the ground are not influenced by the frequency of vibration but by the characteristics of the constitution of the machine and the vineyard. A higher frequency of vibration decreases the number of uncollected berries while increasing the liberated must and losses, as well as the number of detached leaves. Therefore better regulation is one in which both aspects are minimized, in this study corresponded to 440 min\(^{-1}\). The authors warn that losses due to uncollected fruit easily visualized, and tend to favour the use of excessive frequency since the must losses are not obvious.

In 2011, Caprara and Pezzi performed a similar analysis comparing two Gregoire grape harvesters: trailed versus self-propelled. According to this study there is a significant reduction of unharvested berries, and berries in the ground in the self-propelled (1.06% and
2.7%) compared to the trailed machine (1.7% and 3.9%), that is to say a 33% reduction is obtained in self-propelled compared to trailed machines, with similar must release values (26.5% in self-propelled compared to 28.2% in trailed machines). In spite of previous results, defoliation index was lower for trailed than for self-propelled (17.8% compared to 20.8%). These authors also performed vibration analysis with both types of machines with results pointing to a lower energy requirement for detachment in self-propelled compared to trailed machines, probably due to a lower transversal component (of little detaching effect).

Nowadays there is a growing interest in carrying out selective harvesting (Bramley, 2005a, and 2009b). In the case of side discharge harvesters (no hoper), the unloading conveyor has a bidirectional movement that sends the grapes towards two different trailers depending on the quality (Baguena et al, 2011). In the case of rear discharge (hoper), the there is a patent (Berthet et al., 2010) by CNH that redirects the flow to either hoper (left or right depending on the quality). Baguena (2011) provides a large review of precision viticulture evolution. The incorporation speed of such innovations may be much faster than the previous ones since they do not require further adaption of the vines.

The objective of this work was to evaluate the possibility of implementing mechanized operations in Brazilian vineyards, identifying the agricultural units that own grape harvesters and evaluating their field capacity, yield, grape production and grape losses. Moreover, some field manual data were analysed, obtained from the field notebooks, as structure and cultivated varieties; area of cultivation; losses; and the way of harvesting used (manual or mechanical).

2. Materials and Methods

In Brazil, agricultural machinery is exempted from licensing for circulation (Brasil, 2015), then from a study carried out by Costa Neto (2014), contacted the owner of the only grape harvester in Brazil until then, to carry out this work. Thus, the methodology adopted consisted in: a field performance assessment by the installation of a centralized DGPS antenna on the machine; an evaluation of the field notebooks data and; an estimation of grape and must losses.

2.1 Field performance assessment with GPS

For the evaluation of the performance of the grape harvester (Pellenc model 3052/Smart ystème), operating with frequency of the shaker from 500 beats min⁻¹ and amplitude 850mm, a DGPS antenna (Garmin modelo H-17) was installed and configured at 1 Hz. Data were recorded during a single day of harvest in a property located in Santana do Livramento municipality in the state of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, Latitude: 30°47'00''S e Longitude: 55°22'09''W, in an area of 4.5 ha (Alma3 and Alma4), cultivation density 2.777 plt.ha⁻¹ (3.0m x 1.2m), estimated yield 11.100 kg.ha⁻¹ corresponding to Alicante Bouchet.

The tractor trailing the harvester was Massey Ferguson model 291 with a nominal power of 72.2 kW. NMEA codes were recorded by means of free-code software (Visual GPS Application®). Later, the data were processed in Matlab® with dedicated routines for extracting: Time, Latitude, Longitude, XUTM, YUTM, speed and altitude, using ‘GPGGA’; ‘GPVTG’ messages. Data were organized as exemplified in Table 1. The methodology used for the processing was similar to that used in Baguena et al. (2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>XUTM</th>
<th>YUTM</th>
<th>Speed (km h⁻¹)</th>
<th>Altitude(m)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>153928</td>
<td>-30.785705</td>
<td>55.36845</td>
<td>343885</td>
<td>-3406990.91</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>213.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>153929</td>
<td>-30.78570833</td>
<td>55.368445</td>
<td>343884.5</td>
<td>-3406991.286</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>213.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>153930</td>
<td>-30.78571</td>
<td>55.3684383</td>
<td>343883.9</td>
<td>-3406991.48</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>213.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The routines developed considering the Bodria et al (2006) formulas allowed the identification of crop rows, headlines, and stops, in other words, the determination of the total working and effective time was made possible for the first time in Brazil; evitable dead time is computed as stops inside rows. The main parameters and formulas used are explained below:

In-row Time (In_row), in seconds (s), is duration while the machine was inside the row.

Evitable Dead Time (TME), in seconds (s), is the identification and sum of the times in which the machine stops inside the row.

Accessory Time (TA), in seconds (s), is the sum of all the unavoidable times spent on the evaluated portion, such as: manoeuvring on the headland, unloading and fuel replenishment.

Effective Time (TE), in seconds (s), it is considered operating time, when the machine is not stopped inside the row.

\[
TE = \text{In\_row} - \text{TME}
\]

Effective Capacity (WC_e), in hours per hectare (h/ha) was calculated by:

\[
WC_e (\text{h/ha}) = \frac{1}{Te}
\]

Theoretical capacity (WC_t) was calculated using the following formula:

\[
WC_t (\text{ha/h}) = b \times v \times 10^{-1}
\]

b – distance between lines (m)

v – theoretical forward speed (km h\(^{-1}\))

Actual field efficiency (Act_FE):

\[
Act_FE = \frac{\sum (TE)}{\sum (TME+TA+TE)} \times 100
\]

Actual work capacity (WC_a):

\[
WC_a = \frac{WC_t \times Act_FE}{100}
\]

Optimal field efficiency (Opt_FE):

\[
Opt_FE = \frac{\sum (TE)}{\sum (TA+TE)} \times 100
\]

2.2 Field Notebook

Field Notebook has been organized with respect to the following items: plot, variety, surface, plant density, production, harvest losses (grapes on ground), mold losses and type of harvest (manual or mechanized).

From this information it is possible to extract a series of data, as follows, such as the use of the machine and its performance against manual harvesting.

2.3 Loss Grapes and Must Release

Besides, an additional determination of grape losses was performed whenever mechanized harvesting took place. It was defined an area of 18m\(^2\) centred in the production line before harvest, where grapes on the soil were removed (not performed in the standard notebook data) shows sampling rectangle, in this case with 6.0m x 3.0m. After harvesting, grapes on the soil were counted and weighed.

To evaluate the occurrence of mold, a number of plants growing in the contiguous line (not yet harvested), was evaluated. The number and weight of rotten grapes was then evaluated. Therefore, grape loss evaluation consisted of in two parameters (losses in the soil and rotten grapes). Evaluation was performed by three replicates per plot.

As a qualitative test, water sensitive papers were used for evaluating must release during the harvest, since beaters remove the fruits from the wood, which is markedly different from manual harvest. The papers were arranged as shown in Figure 4, two being positioned on the ground away from 60-80cm stem on the planting row; stem with a height of 40cm; two in the production string; and two more in the canopy area, height 1.30-1.50m, as exemplified in Figure 5.

![Figure 4 Positioning the hydro sensitive](image-url)
papers.

After the mechanical harvest, the papers were immediately collected and catalogued for further image acquisition and analysis by MatLab®, which allowed the determination of the percentage surface in blue (reacting to moisture) in a similar way as in Salem et al. 2014:

\[ 2B - R - G > 15 \]  

(7)

B- blue channel; R red channel; G- Green channel, and the constant -15.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Field performance assessment with GPS

Table 2 shows the time records (s) and work speeds (km h\(^{-1}\)) in each crop row for Alma 3 plot, according to DGPS: in-row duration (In-Row, s), evitable Deadtime (TME, s), accessory time (TA, s) and effective work (TE, s). According to time records the theoretical work capacity in Alma 3 (WC\(_t\)) was 0.695ha/h, the optimal field efficiency (Opt_FE) was 90.6%, while actual field efficiency (act_FE) was 39.7%. On the other hand, average work speed was rather low (2.32 km h\(^{-1}\)) with coefficients of variation nearly always above 20%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-Row</th>
<th>TME</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>TE</th>
<th>Speed</th>
<th>CV speed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>491</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>442</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>708</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>446</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>610</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>512</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>693</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>896</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>528</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>883</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>952</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>579</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>838</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6 shows the work pattern in Alma 3 plot according to GPS records. Duration of every TME in a row is identified by a corresponding stop duration colour. The large spread in TME corresponds to several needs: adapting the work speed with the conveyor speed (synchronization did not work) –few-seconds-, removing leaves whenever system was blocked –tenths of seconds-, and replacing the conveyor into the carrier platform –above 40 s-. All of this clearly indicates the lack of proper maintenance of the machine.
Figure 6 Work pattern in Alma 3 field according to GPS records and histogram of in-row TME.

Table 3 shows the time records (s) and work speeds (km h⁻¹) per crop row in Alma 4 plot according to DGPS: in-row duration (In-Row, s), evitable dead time (TME, s), accessory time (headlines and downloads, TA, s) and effective work (TE, s). As before, TME is identified as time with null speed inside the row and it is labelled as evitable since this fact is totally anormal. According to time records the theoretical work capacity in Alma 3 (Table 4) (WCₜ) was 0.738 ha/h, the optimal field efficiency (miss regarding the TME) was 56.8%, while actual field efficiency (act-FE) was 22.6%, that is to say considering the evitable dead time (TME). On the other hand, average work speed was rather low (2.46 km h⁻¹ on average) with coefficients of variation in above 20% (very high).

Table 3. Time records (s) and work speeds (km h⁻¹) per crop row in Alma 4 according to DGPS: in-row duration (In-Row, s), evitable dead time (TME, s), accessory time (TA, s), effective work (TE, s), speed (km h⁻¹) and coefficient of variation in speed (%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-Row</th>
<th>TME</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>TE</th>
<th>Speed</th>
<th>CV speed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>352</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>596</td>
<td>346</td>
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<td>250</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>577</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>524</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>466</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>357</td>
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<td>126</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>476</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>488</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>434</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>321</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.61</td>
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<tr>
<td>412</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>366</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>331</td>
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<td>23.4</td>
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<td>406</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>327</td>
<td>308</td>
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<td>2.69</td>
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<tr>
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<td>16.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>400</td>
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<td>84</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>573</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 compares the machine performance in both fields Alma 3 and Alma 4. In both cases the speed was similar (2.32 and 2.46 km h⁻¹). The actual field efficiency (Act_FE) was
extremely poor in both cases (39.7% and 22.6%). In case of Alma 4 many of the TME occurred at the headlines and so it has not been possible to isolate them from the accessory time (TA), drastically reducing the optimal field efficiency (Opt-FE) (from 90.6% in Alma 3 to 56.8%). Theoretical machine performance (WC_t, ha/h) in Alma 3 and Alma 4 were 0.695 and 0.738 respectively. Field efficiency, computed as described in material and methods, indicates a very poor field performance due to the existence of very long dead time (93.1% and 77.7% out of whole ineffective time).

Table 4. Machine performance and field efficiency in both fields: Alma 3 and Alma 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Speed (km h⁻¹)</th>
<th>au (m)</th>
<th>Sum (TME)</th>
<th>Sum (TA)</th>
<th>Sum (TE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alma 3</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4685</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>3314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alma 4</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5894</td>
<td>1685</td>
<td>2218</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WC_t (ha/h)</th>
<th>WC_e(ha/h)</th>
<th>WC_a(ha/h)</th>
<th>Opt_FE (%)</th>
<th>Act_FE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alma 3</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td>0.629</td>
<td>0.276</td>
<td>90.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alma 4</td>
<td>0.738</td>
<td>0.419</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7 shows the work pattern in Alma 4 field according to GPS records. Duration of every TME in a row is identified by corresponding stop duration colour, not being represented the TME occurred at the headlines. As before, the large spread in TME corresponds to several needs: adapting the work speed with the conveyor speed (synchronization did not work) –few-seconds–, removing leaves whenever system was blocked –tenths of seconds–, and replacing the conveyor into the carrier platform –above 40 s–. As before, of this clearly indicates the lack of proper maintenance of the machine.

Another interesting feature from DGPS is the possibility of addressing the work sequence, and thus the steering radius selected by the operator. In Alma 3 the typical steering diameter was 4 rows (ranging from 1 to 6). In Alma 4 the steering diameter was equally distributed between 4 and 5 rows (ranging from 1 to 8).

Figure 7 Work pattern in Alma 4 field according to GPS records and histogram of in-row TME.

3.2 Digital Field Notebooks Outcomes

Figure 8 presents the amount of vine varieties grown in the farm under study (552ha, 160 fields), all in trellis, that is to say harvest mechanization is feasible for the whole farm. According to the field notebook, 28 varieties were grown in 2015 which is a huge variety compared to standard production in Europe (approximately 20 varieties per farm). Among the varieties in use, the most relevant
ones (as a matter of ha) gather 40% of red grapes: *Cabernet Sauvignon* (20%), *Tannat* (11%), *Merlot* (9%) and *Moscato* (4%); 20% of white grapes: *Riesling Italico* (8%) and *Sauvignon Blanc* (6%), *Chardonnay* (4%); and 10% of surface without indication of variety in the notebook; the remaining 30% corresponds to varieties with field area below 3%.

The field (115 plots) are harvested manually at current stage, while a 27.7% (44 plots) are harvested with mechanical harvesters, among them the main mechanized varieties are: *cabernet sauvignon* (14/32 plots), *riesling italico* (6/12 plots), *merlot* (5/15 plots), *tannat* (4/18 plots), *pinot noir* (3/5 plots).

Figure 9 shows the results of ANOVA regarding field production (yield) per variety. In ten cases there is no variability since a single field grows the corresponding variety. For the rest, we appreciate production rates for a single variety that range from 4 to 11 t/ha (*Semillon blanc*) will others are less variable (3 to 7 t/ha). It should also be highlighted that outlier fields (red crosses) appear for varieties (cabernet sauvignon and chardonnay). In the case of cabernet sauvignon there are 2 plots that had nearly no production at all, while in the case of chardonnay we find a field which doubles the production of the rest of fields.

Figure 10 shows a scatter plot of field production (t/ha) and grape losses (%) for the 160 plots harvested in 2015 as referred by the field notebook. Mechanized harvest is shown as squares (44) while manual harvested fields (116) are shown as filled circles. Most of fields show losses below 2% (152/160), corresponding all of them to manually harvested fields.
Figure 10 Scatter plot of field production (t/ha) and grape losses (%)

The Figure 11 shows the amounts of grape harvest losses during three different portions of the variety Alicante Bouchet.

![Figure 11](image)

Figure 11 Third party versus property assessment

The first column refers to the losses of grapes by the author after the mechanical harvesting. The other two columns were extracted from the notebook, in which records all uncollected grapes, already on the ground, after harvest not being cleaned the soil previously as in the case of the authors measurements.

Thus, a loss grape percentage of 1.24% was obtained for the author while by the notebook it was obtained a percentages of 2 and 6%.

The value found (119.7kg/ha) only reference to losses in mechanical harvesting of grapes in the soil is below the values found by Caprara and Pezzi (2009, 2011).

The high quality of the notebook data constitutes a major tool for the design of a mechanization strategy which will be further discussed.

3.3 Must Release

Five analyses were performed at the following times: 09:00h; 10:30h; 11:30h, 12:30h and 13:00h. The results are shown in Table 5. It can be seen that, in general, paper reaction decreased with time, due to the presence of early moisture in the morning; relative humidity in the zone decays over 40% from 8:00h to 12:00h, while thermal amplitude exceeds 12°C. The areas with highest paper reaction were "C" with an average of 77.7% followed by "D-F" (average of 44%), and "A-B" (41%), and finally "E-E1" (34.5%).

These values are higher than those disclosed by Barreiro et al. (2016b), with values in the order of 22% and 34% for a similar "D-F" and "C" position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>A-B (%)</th>
<th>C (%)</th>
<th>D-F (%)</th>
<th>E-E1 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>09:00</td>
<td>98.85</td>
<td>N/C</td>
<td>12.81</td>
<td>98.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:30</td>
<td>42.57</td>
<td>96.95</td>
<td>97.18</td>
<td>68.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:30</td>
<td>9.49</td>
<td>77.81</td>
<td>44.88</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:30</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>48.23</td>
<td>47.18</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:30</td>
<td>50.55</td>
<td>87.91</td>
<td>17.85</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figures 12 and 13 are the sets of papers-water collected 09:00h and 13:30h. It can be visually perceived the difference in coverage between the two samples (98.85% and 50.55%). However, it has to be emphasized that some of the reaction of the water sensitive papers, could be due to the movement of the branches and leaves system sack (exhaust) of grape harvester and not to the direct impact of must drops. Still, it is noticed that the stem region, as well as the area corresponding to the first wire (location of bunches of grapes) are the ones that stood out by coverage.

Figure 12 Sets of papers-water collected 09:00h

Figure 13 Sets of papers-water collected 13:00h

5. Conclusions

Grape mechanization in Brazil is just about to start with few machines while 24% of the surface is already prepared for it. The non-existence of commercial services in Brazil makes extremely difficult the maintenance of the machines in a proper status as verified in this study, and thus it is not easy to foresee the speed of mechanization in the following years.

The technical staffs of the farms use digital field notebooks in which detailed information per plot is included: production, type of harvest, grape losses and mold effects. The analysis of notebook data (160 plot, 552 ha) has shown that in all plots mechanically harvested (44) there was no significant increase in losses compared to manual harvesting (around 2%).

The analysis of grape harvesters requires the definition of a new concept (must release) that has never been used in manual harvesting. Must release may be important since fruits are detached from the wood which constitutes a totally new approach compared to manual harvesting, in an effect that will for sure be variety dependant. In this study a large variability in must release is found using water sensitive paper. Interestingly, this method also allows addressing water deposition in the early hours of the day since there is thermal amplitude of 12°C and air RH ranging from 22% to 90% in 4 hours.

In this study only 2 plots (4.5 ha) have been analysed with DGPS, as a first approximation for upcoming years. Machine performance was very poor due to evitable dead times. The trailed machine was not in proper status. As a consequence three types of dead times occurred inside the crop row: adapting the work speed with the conveyor speed (synchronization did not work) –few-seconds-, removing leaves whenever system was blocked –tenths of seconds-, and replacing the conveyor into the carrier platform –above 40 s-. Theoretical field efficiency could reach 89% which means that with proper maintenance mechanization could be properly attained. However, actual field efficiency ranged from 22.6% to 39.7% due to in-row stops. Theoretical machine performance (ha/h) was also low compared to previous studies, as due to the low ground speed (below 2.5km h⁻¹).

As a general remark, there is a need of an engineering profile to support farmers in this mechanization process with institutional (public or private) support and local technical consultancy from grape harvest manufacturers.

Works similar to this will be carried out with the other existing machines, which will allow the monitoring of the evolution of the mechanization of viticulture in Brazil, an area of importance for the agricultural engineering of that country.
5. Acknowledgements
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