



## SEXTO CONGRESO INTERNACIONAL SOBRE VITICULTURA DE MONTAÑA Y EN FUERTE PENDIENTE

## SIXTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON MOUNTAIN AND STEEP SLOPE VITICULTURE

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**“Viticultura heroica: de la uva al vino a través de recorridos de sostenibilidad y calidad”**

**“Heroic viticulture: from grape to wine through sustainability and quality”**

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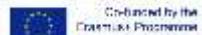
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### **SESIÓN I**

### **SESSION I**

**Mecanización y viticultura de precisión en los viñedos en fuerte pendiente**

**Mechanization and precision viticulture for steep slope vineyard**

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## Steep slope viticulture in germany – dealing with present and future challenges

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### ABSTRACT

For many reasons the future viability of steep slope viticulture is under threat, with changing climatic conditions and a high a ratio of costs to revenue some of the most immediate concerns.

Within a range of research topics, steep slope viticulture is still a major focus at the University of Geisenheim. We will discuss various aspects of consumer's recognition, viticultural constraints in terms of climatic adaptations (water requirements, training system or fruit composition) as well as innovations in mechanisation in the context of future challenges of steep slope viticulture.

Regarding viticultural topics the presentation will focus on novel management practices/technologies which help to improve fruit quality. Where applicable mechanisation of viticultural practices will help to improve on efficacy reducing labour input. During the last couple of years, technical innovations were implemented and improved becoming more environmental friendly. Furthermore, and throughout altering the microclimate canopy management practices will impact on fruit quality and finally on wine style. Protecting the cultural landscape in many steep slope regions will also be of importance attracting tourists which play an important role in the reputation, success and sustainability within these regions.

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## Surveying the development of the steep-slope, terraced and mountainous viticultural landscape by using unmanned aerial vehicles: a costs & benefits analysis

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We will present a reliable and low-expensive method to survey drywalls – the landscape marker of Val di Cembra (IT) – by using Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) in order to quantitatively monitor the evolution of the underlying territory. For Val di Cembra, it is a matter of fact that the global warming, which makes better the grapes from the vineyards located at higher altitudes, in conjunction with the globalist wine market that pushes down the price of wines irrespective of their value, drive the choice of the vine growers to reshape large portion of traditional viticultural landscape removing the drywalls in order to benefit from lower operating costs thanks to mechanization. The key point is that the evolution of the landscape proceeds at an unprecedented speed, much faster than the studies describing the terraced vineyards landscape. The GIS softwares, that automatically detect the drywalls from the Digital Surface Models, terrifically speed up the landscape survey, but these methods rely on data acquisition campaigns which, due to their cost, are conducted only on a large spatiotemporal scale. Indeed, the regional or national data acquisition campaigns are repeated every five or ten years and can not intercept the evolution of the landscape over shorter periods. To tackle this gap, the use of drones seemed to us a viable idea as this tool has been successfully used in the topographic survey: with the appropriate measures during the planning and flight execution phase it is possible to effectively detect the quantitative characteristics (height and development linear) and qualitative (typology) of the (dry)walls and at low costs.

**Keywords:** landscape, drones, landscape markers, drywalls

### Introduction

Steep slope and terraced viticultural territories suffers from an huge increase in vineyard management costs due to the impractical or impossible mechanization, landscape fragmentation, difficult access to the vineyards with additional costs to maintain a widespread system of access roads. These all are limiting factors that reduce the profit margins for the vine growers and consequently the risk of abandonment drastically increases (Zotttele and Delay, 2015).

On the other hand, the global warming makes the vineyards at high-altitude (and often terraced) attractive for the vine growers because it is easier to attain those quality standards for the grapes that are increasingly difficult to reach at lower altitudes. In addition, new territories at even higher altitudes will become suitable for vine growing (Caffarra and Eccel, 2011, Delay et al., 2015).

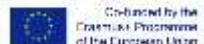
Moreover, it is proven that the landscape plays a role in the perception of the quality of the wines and some steep slope and terraced viticultural landscapes are well-known worldwide and the landscape is used to promote both wine, tourism, handicraft with a terrific widening-effect on all the economic sectors (Tempesta et al., 2010, Fedato et al. 2017).

So, some vine growers remould the territory in order to maximize the individual's economic benefit replacing the traditional terraced landscape, perceived as a limiting factor, with extensive plots suitable for mechanization. In fact, the landscape has always been an evolving process based on the tirelessly choices of the actors playing on the territory: the removal of the elements that makes a landscape unique impacts on what we already have defined as the landscape capital - the *landscapital* - which could (and sometimes is already used to) increase the value of all the local products (Zotttele and Delay, 2017).

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Therefore, knowing how a landscape evolves, by surveying its identifiable elements, is a key-factor to understand whether, and how, the landscapital is perceived and exploited. For Val di Cembra, the principal landscape marker is the ensemble of the dry wall supporting the terraced vineyards.

The quicker is the evolution of the landscape the more frequent the surveys should be done but until recently, the prohibitive costs of a landscape characterization based on quantitative criteria (height and linear development of supporting walls) and quality (type of construction: dry stone walls, concrete walls, exposed stone façade) made really expensive to draft a study for a large terraced landscape. Furthermore, one of the limiting factors was to operate safely in an environment difficult to reach. Different and promising methods, based on GIS analyses were proposed and successfully implemented to automatically detect the supporting walls of the terraces (Delay and Zottele, 2012, Cosner and Tecilla, 2015).

These methods rely on the availability of the Digital Surface Model (DSM) and Digital Terrain Model (DTM) at high resolution (50 cm/px) and in the case of the cited works these GIS dataset came from airborne surveys with Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR). Due to their cost in both economic and organizational terms of operations, these publicly funded surveys were conducted only on a large scale (regional or national), and temporal (five-year or ten-year). In practice, the landscape changes take place much faster and there is a progressive obliteration of large portions of the traditional landscape with a consequent modification of the distribution of the landscapital in the space. Moreover, the aforementioned methods can provide a precise estimate of the quantitative characteristics of retaining walls, but do not provide the constructive characteristics that are a fundamental indicator of the *typicality* of the terraced vineyard landscape.

From these premises we have devised a method, based on the use of Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs), to obtain an high-resolution model of the terraced vineyards to describe the retaining walls in both quantitative and qualitative at the same time. The method must be economic, safe and designed to be potentially flexible and adaptable to other types of landscape markers.

## Materials and Methods



*The terraced vineyard chosen for the experimentation. to be noticed, that the retaining walls are hardly distinguishable due to the foliage.*

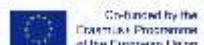
We selected a study area (located in the Giovo, IT) with an already recognized landscape: the terraced vineyards present an average slope of more than 50%, the simultaneous presence of the three types of retaining walls (dry stone walls, cement and exposed stone façade) and the presence of the two types of vine trellis (the traditional pergola the recently introduced guyot). So, the CERVIM's criteria for the heroic viticulture are fully met.

This survey has been realized in accordance with the Italian regulations about Remotely Piloted Aerial Vehicles (RPAV) as defined by the "Ente Nazionale Aeronautica Civile" (ENAC, 2017).

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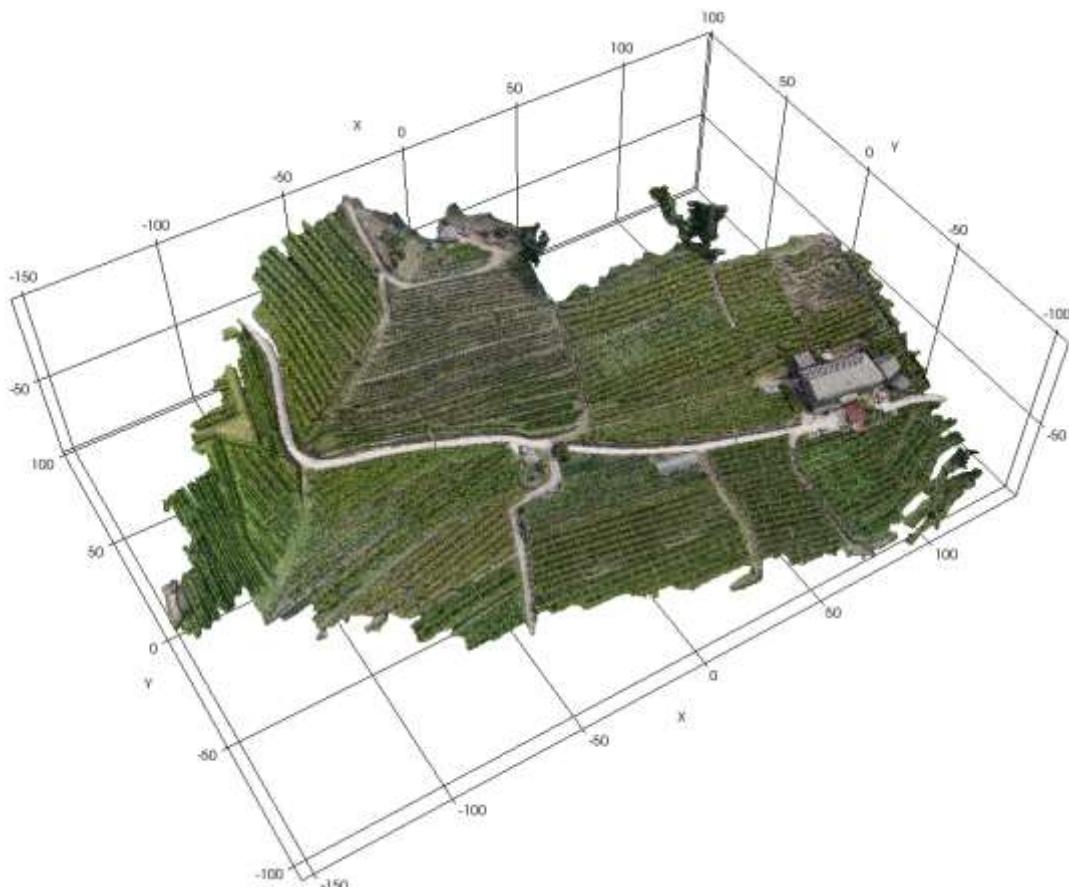
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We used a “Very Light Drone” with an operating take-off mass less than 4 kg and fully complying with the provisions regarding procedures in air navigation and airspace, namely “Specialised Operations”. We worked in a “non-critical” situation, without overflying congested area, gathering of persons, urban areas or critical infrastructures; outside from both any Aerodrome Traffic Zones (ATZs) and Controlled Traffic Region (CTRs); and in a strict “Visual Line of Sight” modality (VLOS). This kind of operations are realized at distances, both horizontal and vertical, in which the remote pilot maintains a continuous visual contact with the aerial vehicle, without the aid of tools to enhance the view, so to be able to directly control it: the aim is to fly without losing the control of the aircraft and avoiding collisions. VLOS operations are permitted only in daylight, up to maximum height of 150 m above the ground level, within maximum horizontal distance of 500 m, and shall be carried out safely, without causing any damages to third parts. Although we were operating in a “non critical” and VLOS situation we intentionally improved the safety level of the operations from the malfunctioning of the UAV defining a “buffer area” of at least 150 m from the main roads, and at least 50 m from persons that were not under the direct control of the operator of the RPAV.

The operation took place at September, 15<sup>th</sup> under clear-sky conditions and after having warned each owner and signaled the presence of the flying drone above the flight area with signs and signal strips placed across the country roads.



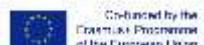
*The densified and textured mesh of the study area. Coordinates are relative. This model has been used to measure and classify the different typologies of supporting walls.*

Due to the terrain elevation difference, the Ground Sampling Distance (GSD), the distance between two consecutive centers measured on the ground, is not guaranteed to be the similar in the overlapping images taken by the UAV. Because the GSD is inversely proportional to the final resolution (the detail that allows us to make measurements on the map and to interpret the types of wall) and the GSD is related to the flight height, we adjusted the altitude of the flight dynamically to fix the GSD as constant as possible.

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The flight took place in late summer, just after the harvest so the canopy was fully developed: this fact prevented the pilot from actually seeing the retaining walls from the starting point of the flight.

A set of 216 overlapping images were acquired and the entire dataset has been processed with the Pix4D Mapper Pro software (Pix4d, Lausanne, Switzerland) and the free and open source softwares Cloud Compare and Paraview (Ahrens et al, 2005)

## Results and Discussion



The final mesh allowed to classify and measure the types of retaining wall. From left to right: drywall, exposed stone façade, reinforced concrete wall.

The whole set has been acquired with an average GSD of 1.36 cm covering an area of 0.039 km<sup>2</sup> (~ 4 ha) in 9 minutes. The processing of the whole dataset produced 81.4 M densified points (with an average density of 3312.79 points/m<sup>3</sup>) and generating a textured mesh of 1.84 M cells. Subsequently the software derived both a georeferenced orthomosaic and a DSM with 2 cm/px resolution.

We used the combination of these data to measure the height and the linear development of the retaining walls: a total length of ~ 1 km of walls with a height range from 0.5 m to more than 4 m. A first validation of the measures gave promising results with an error less than 2% on both length and height.

Moreover, by coupling the visual analysis of the orthomosaic with the mesh, it is possible to measure the surface of the vineyards with the two trellis methods used to train the grapevines: the traditional *pergola* with the recent *guyot*.

From the datasets obtained it is possible to measure the length, slope and type of paving of the roads accessing the vineyards (including the stairs inserted into the retaining walls). These data are of fundamental importance to describe the “predisposition to abandonment” of the vineyards on steep slopes (Zottele and Delay, 2015).

So, the UAV has proved to be a reliable and low-cost tool for acquiring a massive amount of data that can be used to proficiently describe the details of the landscape markers. It has to be taken into account that the price of the professional drones drops from year to year, and the *prosumer* drones like the one we could use for our survey are even more cheaper. Despite this, they mount an high resolution, stabilized cameras that it is sufficient for the level of detail necessary for this study.

As this tool proved to be really fast, to estimate the total costs of the survey (from the flight to the complete description of landscape markers) we considered: the time needed to prepare the mission to be subject to the national regulation; an average battery life of 20 minutes; three batteries per mission; a trained pilot with the skills necessary to analyze the acquired images. An estimated and reasonable cost, at the time of writing, should be 60 €/ha. However, we underline that the real saving for this kind of survey is the easiness and safeness of the operations compared to a traditional survey as we do not even have to enter the vineyards.

On the other hand, the level of detail required to the images to allow the classifications of the walls has led to the creation of very detailed DSM that includes the canopy. So, it is impossible to apply the previously cited methods of automatic detection to our data. Then, we consider desirable to repeat the acquisition of the images in periods with no leaf coverage and to develop a procedure for an effective smoothing of the DSM, so to benefit from the automation of the wall detection and with a further reduction of the overall costs.

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Finally, it is necessary to underline that the operations with UAVs must comply with national regulations that are heterogeneous inside and outside Europe. Even more: the regulation can change every a few years. Anyway, the main objective is to perform flight operations in conditions of maximum safety for the operators and simultaneously avoiding damage to third parties.

To conclude, we developed a novel, flexible, fast and low cost method to collect data in order to quantify the *landscapital*: the method is easily adaptable to survey the landscape markers whatever they are. Knowing how the landscapital evolves in space and time is a key step in order to finally find shared and sustainable policies aiming at preserving it, using it as added value to the local wine productions and guaranteeing the viability of the all economic system thus avoiding the abandonment.

### Acknowledgments

This study has been supported by the “Tavolo per lo sviluppo della formazione aeronautica in Trentino”. Since 2016, October 6<sup>th</sup>, 2016, Fondazione Mach is an active member of a larger network of competencies in the aeronautical field with the aim of promote initiatives in the aviation and aeronautics sectors and in closely related fields such as agriculture, meteorology and environmental monitoring in order to create and develop the aeronautical training sector in the Trentino area. Currently the “Tavolo” involves the Autonomous Province of Trento, the University of Trento, Trentino Sviluppo, Fondazione Mach, the upper secondary school Istituto Tecnico Martino Martini, the Caproni Airport, Italfly Academy, MuSe, Bruno Kessler Foundation and the Civil Defence. This network will promote the aeronautical skills and competencies starting from the scholastic level, to university and research institutes, up to the business sectors with the birth of new companies and the attraction of foreign stakeholders.

The authors thanks Alessio Bonfante and Lorenzo Gislomberti for sharing with us their skills in the image acquisition and their processing.

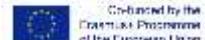
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## Earliness and intensity of defoliation under the mild climate of Switzerland: a complete study on five cultivars over seven years

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### Abstract

The objective of this work was to investigate the effects of earliness and intensity of defoliation on five *Vitis vinifera* cvs. – Pinot noir, Gamay, Merlot, Chasselas and Doral – under the mild-climate conditions of Switzerland. Between 2010 and 2016, intensive defoliation (removal of 6 basal leaves + 6 lateral shoots per shoot) was completed at three developmental stages of grapevine, i.e., pre-flowering, late flowering and bunch closure. Chasselas experiment also had a moderate pre-flowering defoliated treatment (removal of 3 basal leaves). In addition to the vintage effect, pre-flowering defoliation had tremendous consequences on the vine agronomic performance, mainly to the detriment of berry set: the yield was highly affected by the pre-flowering defoliation (approximately -30 % in comparison with no defoliation). The intensity of defoliation allowed the modulation of the impact on the yield. It also had a positive impact against millerandage, sunburn symptoms and Botrytis development. Berry skin thickness doubled and polyphenol concentration increased significantly. Due to pre-flowering defoliation, red wines were often preferred for their colour and structure in mouth. Meanwhile, this practice had negligible impact on white wine composition. In any case, pre-flowering defoliation did not have any negative impact on the wine parameters. In the context of this study, pre-flowering defoliation seems to be an interesting technique to reduce vigour and control high production potential. It also represents a prophylactic solution to reduce both chemical entrants and cluster-thinning costs.

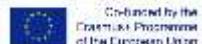
### 1 Introduction

Grapevine defoliation in the cluster zone is usually realized between berry set and bunch closure to create an unfavourable microclimate for cryptogamic diseases, such as *Botrytis cinerea* and powdery mildew (Zoecklein et al. 1992; Percival et al. 1994; Sternad Lemut et al. 2015). When completed after berry set, defoliation does not affect fruit set and yield (Feng et al. 2015; Nicolosi et al. 2012; Tardaguila et al. 2008). However, grape growers are now interested in pre-flowering defoliation: this practice strongly affects berry set and berry number per bunch (Gómez et al. 2012; Kotseridis et al. 2012; Poni and Bernizzoni 2010; Sabbatini and Howell 2010). As a consequence, it limits the yield (Poni et al. 2006; Palliotti et al. 2012; Basile et al. 2015) and induces tremendous modifications in berry structure, i.e. skin thickness and skin-to-pulp ratio, and in berry composition (total soluble solids, acidity, and polyphenols) (Palliotti et al. 2012; Šuklje et al. 2014; Komm et Moyer 2015; Verdenal et al. 2017). Inducing strong competition for assimilates between vegetative and reproductive organs, pre-flowering defoliation also presents some risks: the major part of photosynthetically active foliage is removed at a time of high C and N requirements by the inflorescences, forcing the vine to further dig into its reserves in its wood and roots (Verdenal et al. 2017). Consequently, during the year following defoliation, a lower vigour was noted in some situations (Palliotti et al. 2012), as well as a lower bud fruitfulness (Risco et al. 2014; Uriarte et al. 2012). In other situations, no carryover effects could be observed because the vines had sufficient reserves (Acimovic et al. 2016).

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Pre-flowering defoliation can drastically affect the must composition; the concentration of total soluble solids in the must usually increases in comparison to a non-defoliated control treatment, while acidity is decreased in some situations (Bravetti et al. 2012; Diago et al. 2010; Palliotti et al. 2012; Risco et al. 2014). Moreover, the accumulation of phenolic compounds increases (Palliotti et al. 2012; Sternad Lemut et al. 2013; Talaverano et al. 2016), enhancing colour intensity and stability in red wines. Finally, the concentration of volatile compounds increases, possibly enhancing wine aroma quality (Vilanova et al. 2012). However, the quantitative and qualitative parameters of the must and wine are not always affected in a significant manner (Moreno et al. 2015; Sivilotti et al. 2016; Talaverano et al. 2016).

Pre-flowering defoliation is a promising technique under the temperate conditions of Switzerland (Verdenal et al. 2017). However, its impact on yield and grape composition seems to be unpredictable as a function of numerous biotic and abiotic factors, e.g., type of cultivar, climatic conditions, and period and intensity of defoliation (Kotseridis et al. 2012; Hed et al. 2015). Considering the heterogeneity of the aforementioned results and the risk of excessive yield loss resulting from this practice, the present work was required to investigate the effects of pre-flowering defoliation on a selection of five local Swiss cv. under local Swiss conditions, in comparison to alternative defoliation timing and intensity, with particular attention paid to its effects on yield reduction and must composition.

## 2 Material and methods

### 2.1 Vineyard site and experimental design

Five experiments were conducted between 2010 and 2016 in three experimental vineyards of Agroscope on five field-grown *Vitis vinifera* L. cv (Table 1). The vines were grafted onto rootstock 3309C, planted at a density of 5880 vines/ha (except for Merlot at 5200 vine/ha) and pruned using a single-Guyot training system (except for Pinot noir with Cordon Royat). The canopy was trimmed to 110 cm in height. The lateral shoots were removed from the fruiting zone during the berry-set stage (BBCH 71) as a normal practice in the region. The experiment was structured as a randomized block design, including four blocks with four treatments of at least 10 vines each (A, B, C, D); a fifth treatment (E) was applied on Chasselas only. Treatments consisted at removing leaves from the fruiting zone as described in table 2.

**Table 1.** Description of the five experiments

Cultivar	Vineyard	Trial period	Plantation date
Chasselas	Pully	2011-16	2007
Doral	Changins	2011-15	2003
Pinot noir	Pully	2010-15	1991
Gamay	Changins	2010-16	2007
Merlot	Gudo	2011-16	2006

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**Table 2.** Description of the different treatments.

Variante	Defoliation timing	Defoliation intensity
A	Control non defoliated	-
B	Pre-flowering (BBCH 57)	Intensive, 6 leaves
C	Late Flowering (BBCH 67-69)	Intensive, 6 leaves
D	Bunch closure (BBCH 77)	Intensive, 6 leaves
E	Pre-flowering (BBCH 57)	Moderate, 3 leaves

## 2.2 Field measurement

All measurements were realized per repetition. The phenological stages flowering and veraison were dated. The bud fruitfulness was estimated (average number of clusters per shoot). The potential yield ( $\text{Yield}_{\text{estim}}$ ) was estimated in July (before bunch closure) from a sample of 50 berries and 10 bunches per replicate using the following formula:

$$\text{Yield}_{\text{estim}} = \frac{\frac{\text{cluster wt}_{\text{July}} * \text{berry wt}_{\text{harv}}}{\text{berry wt}_{\text{July}}} * \text{cluster nb}_{\text{vine}}}{\text{plantation density} * 1000}$$

Berry  $\text{wt}_{\text{July}}$  and bunch  $\text{wt}_{\text{July}}$  are the average berry and bunch weights in July (stage BBCH 75-77), respectively, and berry  $\text{wt}_{\text{harv}}$  is the average berry weight at harvest for each cultivar since 2005. Cluster  $\text{nb}_{\text{vine}}$  is the cluster number per vine.

The chlorophyll index (N-tester, Yara, France), which permitted the monitoring of the chlorophyll concentration throughout the season, was measured once a month in the medial zone of the canopy. The light-exposed leaf area ( $\text{m}^2/\text{m}^2$  of soil) was determined using Carbonneau's method (1995). The vigour of the vines was assessed during winter by weighing 10 one-meter long pruned canes and was expressed in grams per meter ( $\text{g}/\text{m}$ ). A leaf diagnosis was carried out at veraison on 25 leaves (limb + petiole) per treatment from the medial part of the canopy and analysed at the registered laboratory Sol-Conseil (Gland, CH) in order to assess the N, P, K, Ca and Mg contents. When symptoms of millerandage, sunburn, or an attack by *Botrytis cinerea* occurred, it was quantified per replicate by the percentage of symptoms per cluster on 25 clusters. In 2013 and 2015, cluster samples were collected before harvest to evaluate berry skin thickness in the treatments A, B and D of Pinot noir and Chasselas. Three berries from three clusters per treatment were prepared according to Roland and Vian (1991). Semi-thin sections were observed using a light microscope (Leica DMLB, Leika Microsystems, Heerbrugg, Switzerland): four sites per berry were randomly measured from the upper epidermis to the limit between the hypodermis (tangential cell layer) and mesocarp (pulp cells).

At harvest, grape extract analyses were performed on Pinot noir, as detailed in Verdenal et al. (2017), at the Agroscope laboratory to determine the following parameters: total polyphenolic content, glutathione, total free anthocyanins and anthocyanin profile. Standard must analyses were also performed using an infrared spectrophotometer (FOSS Winescan™): berry weight, titratable acidity (TA eq. tartaric acid), tartaric and malic acids, total soluble solids (TSS), pH and yeast available nitrogen (YAN). Finally, approximately 60 kg of grapes from each treatment were harvested and vinified separately at the Agroscope winery, as detailed in Verdenal et al. (2017). Finished wines were analysed using an infrared spectrophotometer (FOSS WineScanTM) for the following parameters: alcohol, dry weight, pH, volatile acid, titratable acidity, tartaric, malic and lactic acids, glycerol, and free and combined  $\text{SO}_2$ . Wine sensory analysis was realized by the Agroscope tasting panel.

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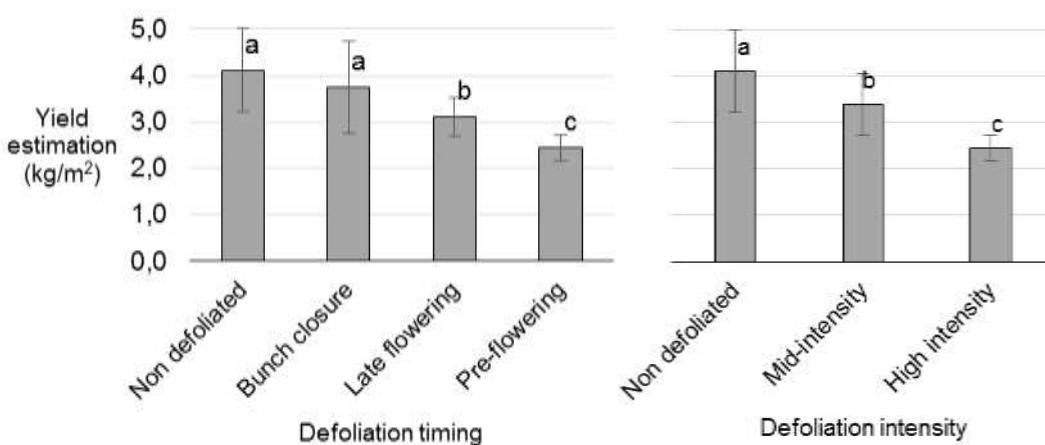


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The data description and the significance of the differences between treatments, sites and vintages were statistically evaluated using analysis of variance (ANOVA, p values < 0.05), multiple comparison Newman-Keuls test and principle component analysis (PCA) realised with ©XLSTAT 2015.1.02.



**Figure 1.** Impact of defoliation timing and intensity on yield potential of Chasselas (Pully), estimated before bunch thinning. 2013–2016 averages  $\pm$  SD. Treatments with different letters are significantly different (Newman-Keuls test,  $P<0.05$ ).

### 3 Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Yield parameters

For all cultivars, pre-flowering defoliation had a significant impact on berry-set rate. In the example of Chasselas, treatment B presented different cluster structures in comparison to those of the other treatments (A, C, D, and E): clusters were globally smaller (-30 % wt.) and had fewer berries (-36 %), although their berries were always smaller (depending on the cultivar). As a consequence, the average 2013–2016 yield potential estimation showed a 40 % loss under the pre-flowering treatment (B) in comparison to that under the control treatment (A), a 24 % loss under the late-flowering treatment (C) and no significant loss under the bunch-closure treatment (D) (Figure 1). The mid-intensity treatment (E) modulated the impact of pre-flowering defoliation with only an 18 % loss.

#### 3.2 Plant behaviour and carryover effects

Phenology was affected by the defoliation period in all cultivars. In the example of Pinot noir, pre-flowering treatment (B) consistently showed earliness: at flowering stage,  $72 \pm 8$  % of flowering was completed against an average of  $57 \pm 13$  % in the three others treatments (A, C, D). This tendency was confirmed at veraison stage; the two latest defoliation treatments (C) and (D) showed a delay (-9 % on average) in comparison to the pre-flowering and control treatments (B) and (A).

Carryover effects could be observed only in Chasselas trial: in that case, intensive pre-flowering defoliation (B) induced a slightly lower bud fruitfulness (-0.1 bunch/shoot in comparison to that of the other treatments). Despite the variability between vintages, defoliated treatments (B, C and D) also had a lower trimming weight (an average of  $571 \pm 205$  g versus  $682 \pm 236$  g under the non-defoliated treatment A). Mid-intensity defoliation (E) modulated the impact on the trimming weight ( $613 \pm 214$  g). Moreover, both the high-intensity and earliness of defoliation (B) induced lighter pruning weights during the winter ( $54 \pm 7$  g/m under treatment B versus  $64 \pm 7$  g/m under treatment A). However, vine sustainability was not affected.

High millerandage rates were recorded in 2010 and 2013: both years, the earlier the defoliation, the lower the millerandage rate, while no differences were noticed between the control and the bunch-closure treatments (A and D) (Figure 2).

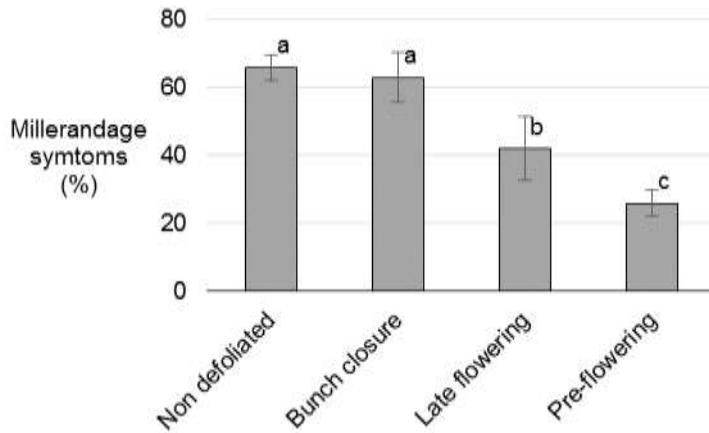
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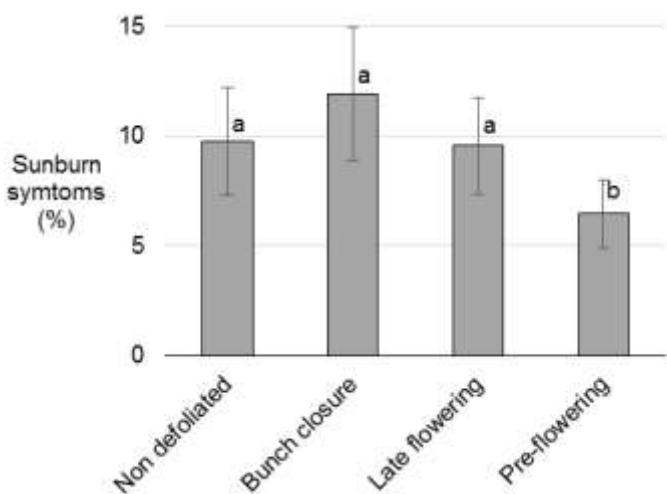


**Figure 2.** Impact of the defoliation period on the development of millerandage symptoms on Pinot noir (Pully). 2013 data  $\pm$  SD. Treatments with different letters are significantly different (Newman-Keuls test,  $P$  value  $< 0.05$ ).

Higher rates of sunburn symptoms appeared on the grapes in 2012, 2014 and 2016: each year, significantly less symptoms could be observed in the pre-flowering treatment B (Figure 3).

The 2013 bunch rot attack on Chasselas confirmed the defoliation efficiency against *Botrytis cinerea* (Figure 4): the control treatment (A) had an 11 % loss due to grey mould, while the three defoliated treatments had a loss of less than 4 % loss. This resistance was clearly related to defoliation intensity, which reduces humidity and creates an unfavourable microclimate for fungus inoculation.

Defoliation treatments significantly affected berry skin thickness ( $P$  value  $< 0.0001$ ), while the vintage effect was negligible. In the case of Pinot noir, berries in the control treatment (A) presented thinner skins (two-year average,  $110 \pm 8 \mu\text{m}$ ), followed by the bunch-closure treatment (D) ( $149 \pm 13 \mu\text{m}$ ) and then the pre-flowering treatment (B) ( $219 \pm 17 \mu\text{m}$ ) (Figure 5). These results had consequences on grape extract chemical composition as presented below.



**Figure 3.** Impact of the defoliation period on the sunburn symptoms on Gamay (Changins). Average 2012, 2014 and 2016  $\pm$  SD. Treatments with different letters are significantly different (Newman-Keuls test,  $P$  value  $< 0.05$ ).

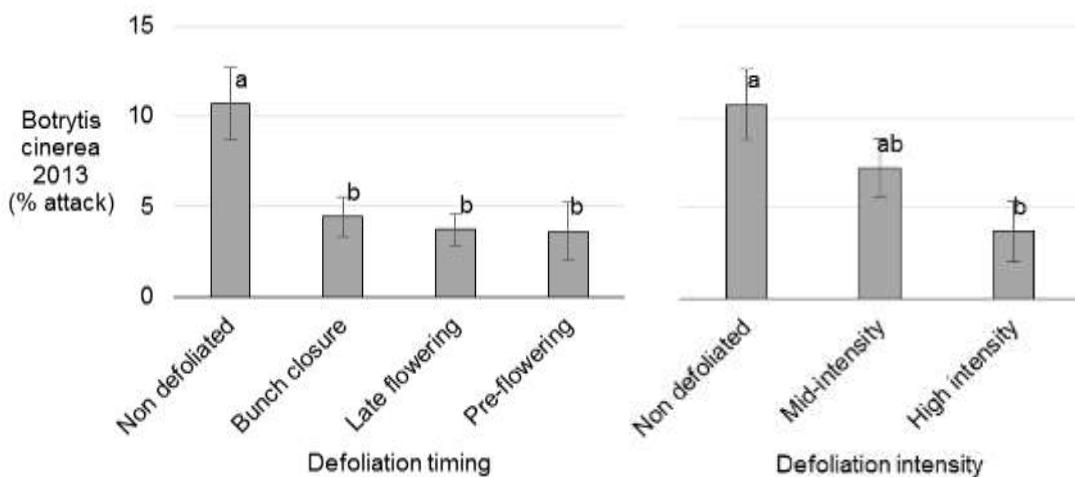
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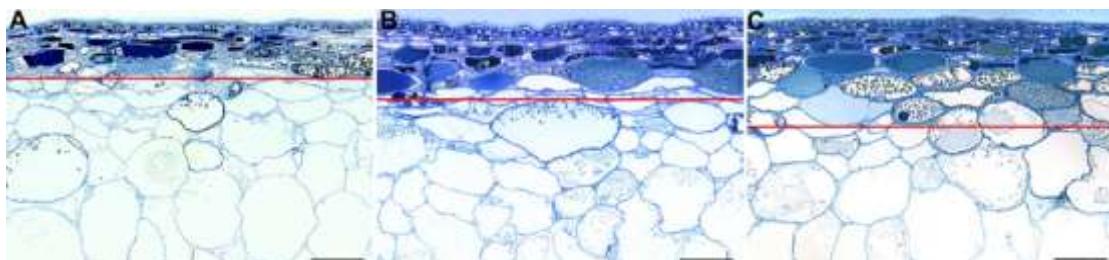
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**Figure 4.** Impact of defoliation timing and intensity on Botrytis attack on the clusters of Chasselas (Pully). 2013 averages  $\pm$  SD. Treatments with different letters are significantly different (Newman-Keuls test,  $P < 0.05$ ).

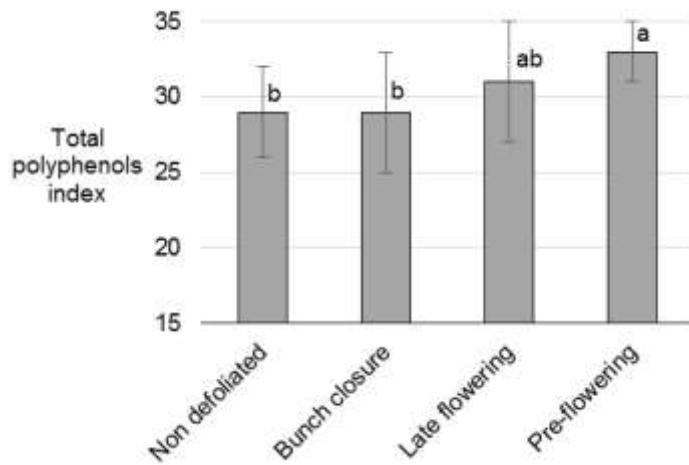


**Figure 5.** Semi-thin sections of berry epidermal cells showing the effects of two defoliation stages on berry skin thickness on Pinot noir at harvest 2013. A: non-defoliated control (treatment A); B: bunch-closure defoliation (treatment D); C: pre-flowering defoliation (treatment B). Scale bars represent 100  $\mu$ m.

### 3.3 Must composition and wine tasting

Concerning the white cultivars (Chasselas and Doral), inconsistent and negligible differences could be observed in terms of must composition. In the white wines, the differences were insignificant and no wine was preferred to the others. Gamay musts and wines did not present any significant difference. On the other hand, the red cultivars Pinot noir and Merlot, the musts from the non-defoliated control were frequently more acidic. Total polyphenols (Folin index), particularly anthocyanins, were more concentrated in the wines from pre-flowering treatments (Figure 6), giving more appreciated wines in the end in terms of color intensity, fruity, mouth feeling and overall hedonistic appreciation (Table 3).

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**Figure 6.** Impact of defoliation timing on the polyphenol concentration in the wines of Pinot noir (Pully). 2013-2015 averages  $\pm$  SD. Treatments with different letters are significantly different (Newman-Keuls test,  $P<0.05$ ).

**Table 3.** Main distinctive criteria from wine sensory analysis of Pinot noir (Pully). Quotes between 1 and 7; 6-year average. Numbers in the same column with different letters are significantly different (Newman-Keuls test,  $P<0.05$ ).

	Color intensity	Tanins structure	Hedonistic impression
Non defoliated	4.1 c	3.1 b	4.0 b
Bunch closure	4.2 bc	3.1 b	4.2 ab
Late flowering	4.3 ab	3.4 a	4.2 ab
Pre-flowering	4.4 a	3.4 a	4.3 a

#### 4 Discussion

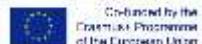
Besides the cultivar effect, the variability of the climate modulates the floral initiation (year n-1) and the rate of berry set (year n), which both determine the initial yield potential. Intensive pre-flowering defoliation usually led to an approximately 30 % yield loss in comparison to the non-defoliated control, whichever cultivar and independently from the initial yield potential. In other words, the yield loss was proportional to the potential of production. The intensity of pre-flowering defoliation allowed for the modulation of its impact and can prevent an excessive yield loss. These results are possibly related to the competition between the growing canopy and the inflorescences for assimilates during the early season. As a consequence, this practice should not be recommended on too young or not enough vigorous vines.

Pre-floral defoliation reduced acidity and increased polyphenolic concentration in red wines, as mentioned in the literature (Šuklje et al. 2014; Komm et al. 2015). However, concerning white cultivars, their berry skin contain no anthocyanins, and there is usually no skin maceration during the winemaking. These two points greatly reduce the role of pre-flowering defoliation on wine quality, as there is no oenological interest in terms of polyphenol accumulation and colour intensity in white wine, in contrast to red wine. As a confirmation in the present trial, no difference was observed between the wines, neither for Doral nor for Chasselas.

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## 5 Conclusion

Despite the variability of its impact – mainly due to the climate unpredictability and the cultivar – pre-flowering defoliation resulted in tremendous effects on vine physiology. It represents an interesting sustainable practice to control yield and enhance resistance to pathogens under the temperate climate of Switzerland. It also had a positive impact on the sensory profile of the red wines (higher colour intensity, lower acidity). The intensity of pre-flowering defoliation is a good leverage to prevent an excessive yield loss. However, this practice also presents a part of risks, as it can affect vine vigour and thus can potentially reduce vine sustainability under restrictive conditions. However, pre-flowering defoliation never had a negative impact on the must and wine composition in the context of these experiments.

## Acknowledgement

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## Robotic path planning and localization systems considering steep slope vineyard constraints

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### Abstract

To reach the full potential of precision viticulture, in steep slope vineyard, is required higher levels of automatization in four main tasks: monitoring, spraying, pruning and harvesting. However, this viticulture exposes the robots/mechanization to harsh atmospheric conditions, lack of space to maneuver, and to impediments of communications due to natural obstacles (i.e. GNSS/GPS satellites can be hidden and therefore GNSS/GPS signal isn't always available), which are limiting the appearance of cost effective smart machinery and robots. Through ROMOVI and AgRob V16 projects, we have developed two key enabling robotics technologies: a modular vision perception system that can help localize the robot/machinery without GNSS signals; and a path planning system that is aware of robot center of mass and soil compaction

**Keywords:** Agricultural Robots, Localization, Navigation, 3D vineyard perception

### 1. Introduction

The world's population will reach 9 billion people by 2050 and total worldwide food production must double. In general, the total arable land is reaching its limit. The process of ever-increasing production and productivity, agriculture now consumes roughly 50% of the land in the U.S., 10% of the total energy budget, and 70-80% of available fresh water, while depositing 20 million tons of fertilizer and pesticides. In Europe these numbers are not too much different, according to Eurostat. To continue that pace of productivity gains, robotics will need to play an ever-increasing role in precision field crop agriculture.



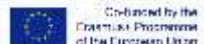
Figure 1 – Common approaches for vineyard spraying

The cultivation of the vine and olive groves in mountain areas or steep slopes presents some challenges for mechanization, such as difficult orographic conditions, extreme fragmentation of the vineyards, difficult climate conditions, large biodiversity and traditional production systems. The most common approaches for fertilizers and pesticides application (Fig. 1) are not efficient, loss of 80% may be reached by these approaches causing high levels of environmental impacts and increase vineyards treatments costs. To increase the spraying action efficiency, the application of phytopharmaceutical products should be done at the right dose/quantity in the right place at the right time. Here appears the concept of precise spraying (PS), based on the Variable-Rate Application concept. There are a variety of variable-rate application (VRA) technologies - for a precise application of phytopharmaceutical products - that can be used with or without a GPS system. The two basic technologies for VRA are: map-based and sensor-based. Associating VRA in robotic platforms will enable to reach an efficient and precision viticulture.

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To reach the full potential of precision viticulture, in steep slope vineyard, is required higher levels of automatization in spraying, but also in other three main tasks: monitoring, pruning and harvesting. However,



*Figure 2 - AgRob V16 robotic platform.*

this viticulture exposes the robots/mechanization to harsh atmospheric conditions, lack of space to maneuver, and to impediments of communications due to natural obstacles (i.e. GNSS/GPS satellites can be hidden and therefore GNSS/GPS signal isn't always available), which are limiting the appearance of cost effective smart machinery and robots.

Through ROMOVI and AgRob V16 projects (Fig. 2), we have developed two key enabling robotics technologies: a modular vision perception system that can help localize the robot/machinery without GNSS signals (Mendes, 2018); and a path planning system that is aware of robot center of mass and soil compaction (Santos, 2017) (Santos, 2018). In addiction two solutions were studied to auxiliary localization based on beacons with bluetooth (Reis, 2018) and ultra-wideband time-of-flight (Pozyx) (Conceição, 2017).

## 2. Related Work

Mobile robot's navigation considers a set of tasks: perception, localization, mapping, path planning and movement control. Our work focuses on localization and path planning, being that both of these tasks are connected to mapping, since an accurate localization is required to construct a robust map, and a robust map may be required to execute a path planning task.

Localization problems are common and widely explored in autonomous navigation, mainly in indoor environment where SLAM (Simultaneous Localization and Mapping) has several approaches (Montemerlo, 2002): Extended Kalman Filter is the most popular method used in SLAM (Bailey, 2006) having several variants like Unscented Kalman Filter (UKF) SLAM, EKF-based FastSLAM and UKF-based FastSLAM (Kurt-Yavuz, 2012). Agricultural scenarios are less structured and more dynamic and the field sensors are exposed to harsh conditions, so the traditional SLAM methods are not adequate to make a robust representation of the environment. The challenge increases in steep slope vineyards, due to its harsh conditions and lack of GPS signal. Features in the environment (Key-Points) can be used to estimate visual odometry (Faessler, 2015) (Kostavelis, 2015), and to construct a 3D map. In a vineyard there are some

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natural features like masts and trunks that can be used as image-key-points, but we need a reliable vineyard natural features detection system to obtain an accurate and robust robot localization (Mendes, 2018).

Path planning has the goal of finding a path between two specific points, avoiding obstacles and optimizing parameters such as distance, time and energy.

There are three main concepts in Path Planning: Potential field planners, tree based planners (RRT - Rapidly exploring random tree) and grid map based planners.

In a potential field planner, the robot behaves like a particle in a potential field, where obstacles represent repulsive potentials and the destiny is seen as an attraction potential. The possibility of having repulsive potentials bigger than the attraction potential may impossibility the robot to reach its goal (Mihail, 2009).

RRT planners explore the path in a random way taking into account the robot dynamics but they don't always find the best path and generates paths with too many direction changes (Xinyu, 2006).

Grid map based planner use a grid map to obtain information about the obstacles. These maps divide the environment map in cells, each cell containing information about its availability, so the path planner algorithm will search the best path by restricting the movement to the free cells. A-star ( $A^*$ ) and Dijkstra are two algorithms that resort to grid maps to find the best path.  $A^*$  is an optimal algorithm, that is, always finds the best path between two points. (Fernandes, 2015) was presented an  $A^*$  algorithm that limits the robot movement to its orientation, generating only paths that are feasible for the robot. Since this work presents an approach that takes into account the orientation of the robot, an important parameter to assure the robot safety in highly inclined zones, we will extend this algorithm in order to include the center of mass and information about the terrain altitude, inclination and soil compaction (Santos, 2018).

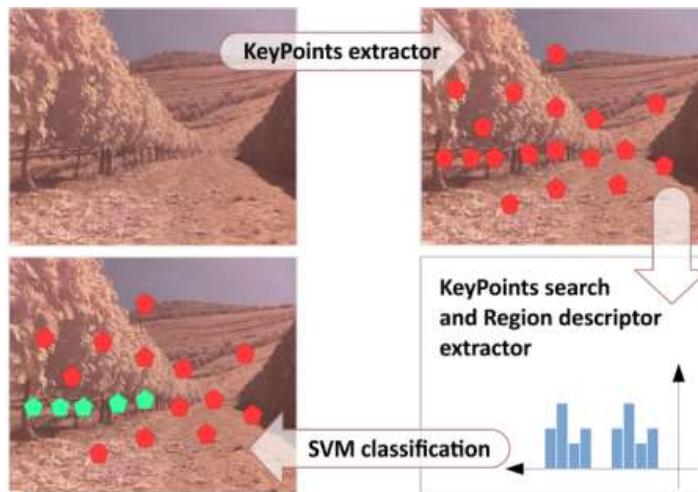


Figure 3 - Information flow and main components of ViTruDe.

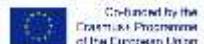
### 3. AgRob approach for localization and path planning

For robot localization, without GNSS signals, natural landmarks (for example vine trunks and masts) based localization system was proposed. VineSLAM, a hybrid SLAM, considers low cost landmarks to increase the robot localization accuracy, robustness and redundancy on steep slope vineyards (Santos, 2016). In VineSLAM, the modular vision perception system considers two key image processing techniques: image patch descriptors (ViTruDe - Vineyards Trunks and Masts Detector) and machine learning (support vector machine). The vision approach, ViTruDe, allows to detect the trunks and masts of a vineyard in order to auxiliary the localization system. The main components of ViTruDe are illustrated in Fig. 3: *keypoints extraction*, *region descriptor extraction* in the *keypoints* and *SVM* (Support Vector Machine) classification. In VineSLAM, the visual landmarks are complemented with artificial landmarks for example agricultural wireless based sensors and artificial beacons. The artificial beacons are based on ultra-wideband time-of-

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flight technology and allow to estimate in real time the distance between the receiver (installed on the robot) and several artificial beacons installed on the vineyards. These ranges measures are fused in a EKF (Extended Kalman Filter) to improve the robot localization accuracy (Reis, 2018) (Conceição, 2017). With VineSLAM is possible to locate the robot and built digital maps that can be used for posterior localization and robot navigation.

AgrobPP is the path planning system aware of robot center of mass for application on steep slope vineyards (Santos, 2017) (Santos, 2018). AgRobPP is based on the A\* approach, where the formalism is extended to consider the Digital Elevation Maps (DEM) and to include the mechanical constraints of the robot during the path planning. In addition, AgrobPP modifies the A\* heuristics in order to assure the generated path doesn't repeat itself constantly, reducing the soil compaction caused by successive passages of the robot in the same site (Santos, 2018). AgrobPP needs an accurate map to represent the environment and safely navigate. To include the soil compaction awareness, the algorithm resorts to a compaction map created during the robot navigation. As long as the passage numbers in the same place increase the values stored in the map grow. This compaction map is used as an input for the A\* algorithm that according to the information that it provides, will generate a path different than the previous paths, which will help to reduce the soil compaction problem and at the same time avoid dangers paths (Santos, 2018).

#### 4. Results

Using the platform AgRob V16, (Fig. 2) and considering the AgrobPP and VineSLAM approaches was possible to obtained the 3D map (Fig. 4) from real steep slope vineyard (Quinta do Seixo – Sogrape Vinhos - Portugal), used to extract a DEM and obtain information about the terrain inclination. These digital maps can in the future be integrated on agronomic decision support systems.

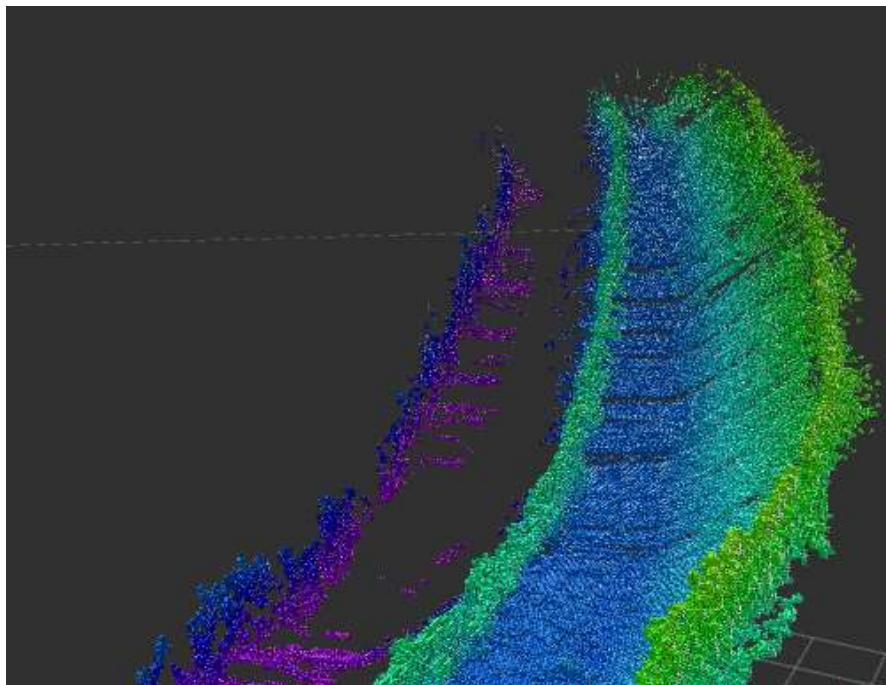
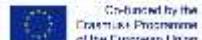


Figure 4 - 3D mapping of steep slope vineyard using the AgRob V16

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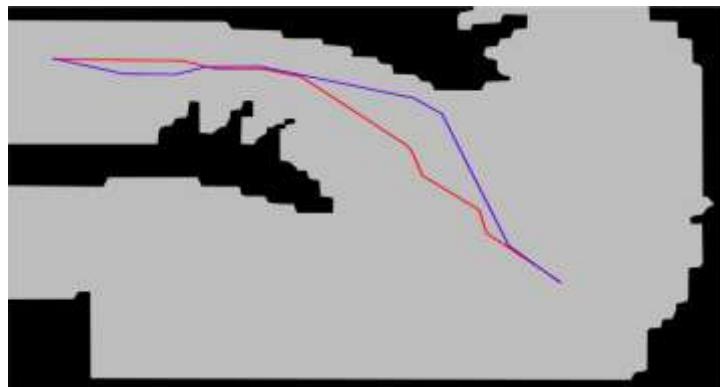


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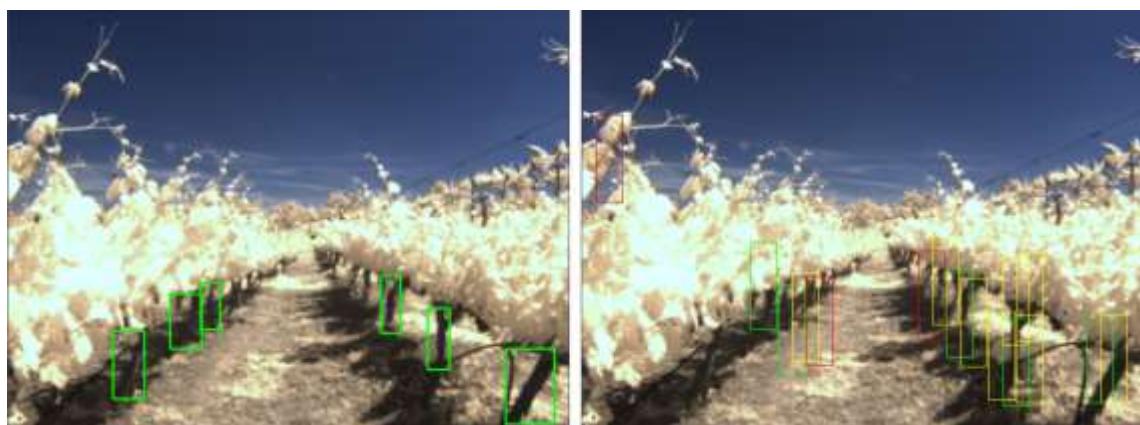
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With these digital maps, the path planning system (AgrobPP) is able to plan safety trajectories for the AgRob V16 robot in steep slope vineyards, by considering the robot center of mass and the DEM. Fig. 5 shows the result AgrobPP planning a safety trajectory in the same steep slope vineyard (Quinta do Seixo – Sogrape



*Figure 5 -In Red – The standard A\* (not safety trajectory); Blue - AgrobPP with center of mass and orientation (safety trajectory).*

Vinhos - Portugal), by considering the maximum robot posture constraints and the terrain slopes, it's visible that the generated path (blue) is not the shortest, but the safest for the robot. Fig. 6 presents the trunks/masts detected by ViTruDe where in the left image we have the real representation of the trunks/masts (ground truth), and in the right image we have the ViTruDe detection where green and yellow are valid representation and red are false positives. The modular vision perception system is able to detect vine trucks with high levels of accuracy, but it takes approximately 10 minutes to process each image frame. To overcome the real-time constraints for the vision perception, system is being explored dedicated processing image hardware. ViTruDe will allow on the future to localize more precisely the robot but also to monitor and treat each vine plant independently.



*Figure 6 - Ground truth (left) and ViTruDe detection (Right).*

## 5. Conclusion:

The proposed methods for path planning and localization were developed considering the steep slope vineyard constraints such the lack of GPS signal and the dangerous inclined terrains.

For path planning the proposed A\* algorithm (AgroPP) restricts the navigation to the robot's center of mass and orientation, that combined with the vineyard DEM produces good results in the generation of a feasible and safe path for the robotic platform, and enable the deployment of agricultural robots in steep slope vineyards. For future work, on the path planning it's necessary to improve the compaction soil estimation

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model in order to get the minimal path deviation allied to the minimum soil compaction, and improve the algorithm in terms of memory to make it possible to navigate in big dimensions vineyards without any memory constraints.

ViTruDe was tested with datasets of random snapshots images giving an accuracy higher than 95%, once the training data and test data were obtained with the same method. Accuracy value reduced to a minimum of 27% for tests with an annotated rosbag file containing the exact localization of the trunks/masts. The main challenge, as future work for ViTruDe approach, is to speed up the processing time since as it was already mentioned, it takes about 10 min to process each image frame. It is pretended in the future to implement ViTruDe in dedicated hardware system (i.e. GPU and FPGA) to reach a real-time system.

### Acknowledgment

This work is financed by the ERDF – European Regional Development Fund through the Operational Programme for Competitiveness and Internationalisation - COMPETE 2020 Programme within project “POCI-01-0145-FEDER-006961”, and by National Funds through the FCT – Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia (Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology) as part of project UID/EEA/50014/2013. ROMOVI is co-funded by the European Commission in the scope of program Portugal 2020 under grant agreement 17945 (ROMOVI), for cooperative Research and Development.

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## Tests using drones for phytosanitary measures in the vineyards

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### ABSTRACT

The subject of the presentation is represented by the tests carried out by the Fojanini Foundation for the execution of treatments in difficult terraced wine-growing areas (Valtellina) by means of drones. Given the existing legislation on the subject, the tests were carried out with products registered as foliar fertilizers.

With the test it was decided to test the performance of drones in terms of leaf coverage capacity, water volumes, working heights, execution times, running costs, drift. All this in order to be able to evaluate if the drone can be an alternative to the use of traditional systems for the execution of treatments in terraced mountain areas, where the problem is the execution with lance by hand or with atomizer on the shoulder (with high exposure of the operator and considerable use of hours).

The first collected data are very interesting and indicate that it is a viable path, also because technological evolution allows rapid developments in the sector. We hope that, at the same time, there will be an evolution of the Legislation, which allows to use these systems that are much less impacting than the use of traditional airplanes and allow a reduction of volumes of water and using labor, guaranteeing, from the first data collected, a good efficacy.

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## Application of Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) and Structure-from-Motion (SfM) photogrammetry for the monitoring of vineyard terraced landscapes

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### 1. Abstract

In Mediterranean areas, vineyard terraces are one of the most characteristic anthropogenic landscapes. Since ancient times, steep and sometimes inhospitable hillslopes were transformed into terraces in order to facilitate cultivation and to control water flows, and subsequent soil erosion. The economic, environmental and cultural value of vineyard terraces are increasingly recognised, for instance by UNESCO. However, an increasing number of terrace systems are showing evidence of degradation, e.g. surface erosion, landslides or dry-stone walls collapse. Driving factors are a harshening climate, unsuitable designs or expansions, and the lack of maintenance due to land abandonment. High-resolution topography data is crucial in the mapping of terraces and any related instability. UAV-borne data provides a low-cost alternative to more expensive remote sensing techniques, and combined with Structure-from-Motion photogrammetry delivers data with centimetric accuracy. In this paper, a UAV survey was carried out in Valcamonica terraced vineyards (Italy), which are currently being restored after abandonment. Three scenarios of drainage networks with varying design and costs and were evaluated for their potential to mitigate runoff-induced soil erosion, based on the geomorphologic index Relative Path Impact Index (RPII; Tarolli et al. 2013). The study confirms the suitable accuracy of UAV data required for terrain analysis of steep-slope vineyard terraces, and allows preliminary suitability analysis of maintenance designs.

**Keywords:** vineyard terraces; land degradation; UAV; photogrammetry; drainage network

### 2. Introduction

Mediterranean vineyard terraces carry strong historical, cultural and economic value; however, they are increasingly confronted with a wide set of challenges. Degradation of the terrace systems (e.g. wall collapse, landslide, or shallow erosion) can result from growing climate aggressiveness (IPCC 2014), land abandonment or unsuitable design and expansion (García-Ruiz & Lana-Renault 2011; Tarolli et al. 2014), and machinery or rural traffic (Tarolli et al. 2013; Arnáez et al. 2015).

Modern developments in low-cost observation techniques such as through Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs, Giordan et al. 2018) can play an important role in monitoring terrace damages, recognising critical landscape features, and designing and planning maintenance solutions. In this study, UAV imagery was used to generate the terrain model of a degraded vineyard using modern photogrammetry techniques. Subsequently, drainage networks were designed and evaluated for their capability of mitigating critical runoff accumulation, using a geomorphological index by Tarolli et al. (2013).

The terraced vineyard analysed in this study is located in the Valcamonica valley in Lombardy, northern Italy. A large-scale abandonment of viticulture in the 1950s resulted in degradation of the terrace systems and spread of natural vegetation (Bonardi & Varotto 2016). Currently, the vineyards in the study area are being restored, although terrace instability is still evident. The drainage functioning of the terraces and related roads should therefore be improved, particularly considering the severe increase of precipitation expected for this zone (Gao et al. 2006).

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### 3. Methods

A micro-UAV by *Mesodrone* was used to take ~700 aerial pictures of the study area (>75 % overlap on 60 m altitude). Using Structure-from-Motion (SfM) photogrammetric techniques, the 2D images were translated into a 3D model of the area validated by GPS ground measurements. The resulting Digital Elevation Model (DEM) could be used to digitally compute overland flow and analyse critical runoff accumulation using the Relative Path Impact Index (RPII). The RPII is a geomorphologic index developed by Tarolli et al. (2013) to identify areas of runoff accumulation resulting from anthropogenic structures such as roads or terraces. High RPII values ( $> \sigma_{RPII}$ ) have been shown to correlate to soil erosion, terrace collapses, and landslides observed in the field (see e.g. Tarolli et al. 2015). For every raster cell, the actual contributing area  $A_r$  (no. of upstream cells) is confronted with the contributing area after terrain smoothing  $A_{sm}$ , following:

$$RPII = \ln \left( \frac{A_r - A_{sm}}{A_{sm}} \right)$$

Different drainage scenarios were designed with variable placements (at terrace wall feet and/or on roads), different dimensions and implementation costs. The networks were virtually implemented into the DEM by digital terrain carving, after which the RPII was used to evaluate their effectiveness.

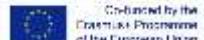
### 4. Major findings

Two fragments of the study area are displayed in Figure 1. Water flow accumulation due to roads and terraces can be clearly recognised (reddish colours), while high RPII values are also found at the collapsed dry-stone wall observed in the field (Fig.1a). Fragment (a) is located on a relatively mild slope with established grape cultivation. The virtual drainage system successfully intercepts the potential runoff accumulation upstream (north) of the terrace collapse. Fragment (b) is located at the downstream part of the hillslope, showing clear examples of preferential runoff pathways with high accumulation potential (high RPII values), e.g. along access paths to the terraces. The importance of proper *in-situ* runoff control is further emphasised by the presence of a built-up zone further southwards (outside the study area), also considering the bare soil of the newly constructed terraces in this zone. In the analysis of the drainage design, the importance of road drainage (short contour steps and roadside collection) is evident from the new RPII values. Still, spilling at ditch endings or local minima can be found throughout both fragments, emphasising the need for field inspection at these critical points during the planning phase. methodology of low-cost monitoring as presented here is useful for recognising existing critical zones in the vineyard terrace. Preliminary evaluation of the drainage designs can then greatly enhance the efficiency of time- and cost-extensive field visits. Scenario analysis adds insights in the cost-benefit analysis during the planning phase of an intervention, through a confrontation of the estimated impacts and costs. These exploratory methods are particularly supportive for the restoration of medium-sized terrace systems, even when investment potential is limited due to the socio-economic conditions.

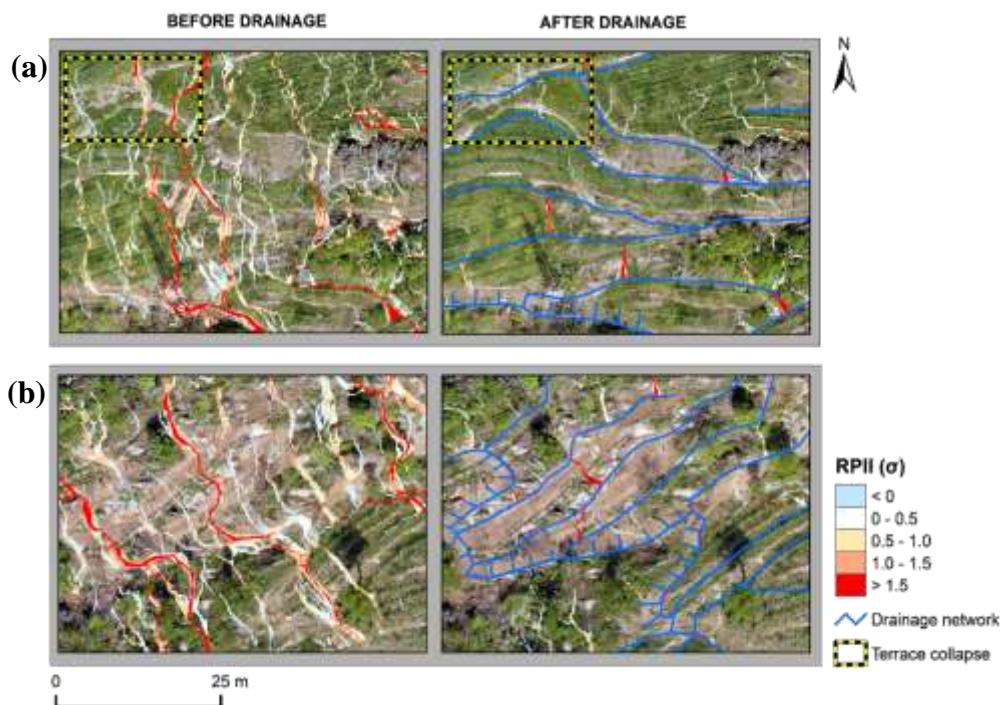
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*Fig.1 – Two fragments of the Valcamonica study area with RPII values before and after implementation of the drainage network. Fragment (a) contains an example of terrace failure observed in the field and shows the mitigating effect by the designed terrace drainage, while fragment (b) shows some examples of runoff accumulation by roads and the impact of road*

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## SEXTO CONGRESO INTERNACIONAL SOBRE VITICULTURA DE MONTAÑA Y EN FUERTE PENDIENTE

SIXTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON MOUNTAIN  
AND STEEP SLOPE VITICULTURE

**SESIÓN II**

**SESSION II**

**Paisaje de los viñedos, ejemplos de viticulturas heroicas:  
elementos de sostenibilidad e identidad cultural**

*Examples of heroic viticulture and their sustainability and  
identitary landscape elements*

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## Contribution of the biodiversity to the eco-winetourism of the heroic vineyards: assets and prospects

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### Summary

The wine tourism takes a share growing in the valorization of the wine territories. Parallel to the cultural attraction for the vine, the wine and tasting, emerge the concept “of eco-winetourisme” which associates in particular, in connection with sustainable development, the landscapes, the biodiversity, as well as the éco-design of the cellars. Thus the valorization of the local biodiversity is also integrated in a approach of eco-winetourisme and often takes part in the valorization of the local landscape. It is also a factor which takes part in the image and the added-value of the wines of these areas. This set of themes is important for the wine growers who are sensitive to the glance that the company carries on their trade, even for local acceptance their activities and projects that they wish to implement. The terroirs of the “heroic” vineyards very often associate historical know-how supports of patrimonial specificities but also of specific ecological values of the terraces or islands.

In a prospective vision, it is probable that the climate changes and the biodiversity is major stakes of the vineyard territories during next decades. The heroic vineyards, often knew to preserve the traditional modes of production, in particular associated with the presence with low walls, slope, natural zones, with the traditional agroforestry, the image of the shrubby vines, married to trees which serve tutors to them, such as “Piantata Emiliana” of Tuscany which existed as of antiquity. These vineyards comprise many assets, which it is advisable to preserve and develop in the communication but also within the framework of the economic tools which can be set up to ensure the perenniability of these fragile territories

### 1 Introduction

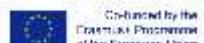
The winetourism takes a share growing in the valorization of the wine territories. It is also a factor which takes part in the image and the added-value of the wines of these areas. Parallel to the cultural attraction for the vine, the wine and tasting, “winetourism” are often justified by an ecological approach of the cellars and terroirs. Thus emerges the concept “of eco-winetourism” which associates in particular, in connection with sustainable development, the landscapes, the biodiversity, as well as the ecodesign of the cellars. The wine grower, beyond the development of the wines, is integrated more and more in the wine strategy, the promotion of the terroirs, the design and the installation of the cellars. In its mission of ambassador of eco-winetourisme, it must take care to implement the environmental bases of a sustainable viticulture and an enology concept, defined by a resolution of OIV (CST 01-2008) *“Global strategy on the scale of the grape production and processing systems, incorporating at the same time the economic sustainability of structures and territories, producing quality products, considering requirements of precision in sustainable viticulture, risks to the environment, products safety and consumer health and valuing of heritage, historical, cultural, ecological and landscape aspects.”*

This set of themes is important for the wine growers who are sensitive to the glance that the company carries on their trade, even for the acceptance of their activities and the projects that they wish to implement. In certain cases, the valorization of their products passes by the maintenance of essential structures of a landscape as visual expression of a link to the terroir (for products AOC for example) such as it is defined by the OIV (Viti 333/2010): *Vitivinicultural “terroir” is a concept which refers to an area in which collective knowledge of the interactions between the identifiable physical and biological environment and applied*

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vitivinicultural practices develops, providing distinctive characteristics for the products originating from this area. "Terroir" includes specific soil, topography, climate, landscape characteristics and biodiversity features. In parallel the wine growers may find it beneficial to offer a landscape of quality, emblematic support of the tourist activity of their area, vector of image of their trade and their products. In connection with the value symbolic system, emotional, emotional of the terroir, S. MICHEL specifies that "*We are what we eat. The ignorance of what we have in our plate or our glass led to a loss of identity, but fortunately the terroir restores the link between the consumer and food. The values symbolic systems of food are those of the terroir but attention, any contamination of the terroir; that it is physical, chemical, biological or visual, contaminates the product in the spirit of the customer*". This reflection stresses that the terroir, and in its prolongation the cellar, are assets, supports of valorization, but the reverse a denaturation of the landscapes, or an approach little developing of the cellar, can degrade the perception of the terroir and indirectly the image of the wine".

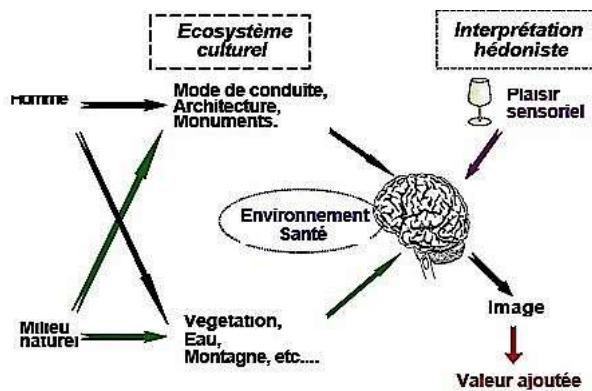


Figure 1: Component of the image of a wine

(Source: J. Rochard, *Traité de Viticulture et d'oenologie durables*, Editions Avenir oenologie, 2005)

## 2 Landscape Contribution of the terraces

Viticulture, as agriculture integrated the contributions of modernity in the control of its technical routes. At the end of the 19th century, the phylloxera crisis parallel to the development of the animal haulage, deeply modified the management of the wine terroirs. Sometimes gradually, the introduction of the tractors and enjambeurs, imposed by the requirements of productivity, could lead to a vulgarizing, even a degradation of the landscapes.

Several phenomena intervened:

- Simplification of the landscape by enlarging of the pieces (regrouping)
- Reorganization of the slopes
- Elimination of the landscape unit components (isolated or aligned trees, hedges, slope, thicket) or architectural; (cross, huts of vines etc).

The reorganization of compartmental wine is a choice which engages the wine grower in a long-term project.

The vineyards planted on strong slopes exposed to the south and southeast receive strongest radiations and are most favorable to the maturation of the vine. This microclimatic characteristic, as well as the access to grounds less expensive than those of the plains, historically directed the vine grower towards the zones of slopes to produce wines of quality. To be able to work the ground, it was necessary to prevent the streaming, to break the slope in order to break the race of water and to retain a rare earth and fugitive. Behind dry a stone wall carefully chosen, the stones are used for the drainage. The whole retains a thick layer of ground.

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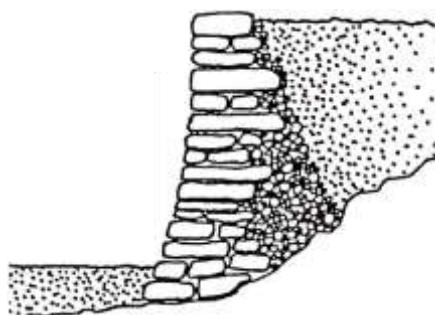


Figure 2: Structure of a terrace

This know-how to make historical testifies to the pragmatic intelligence and the tenacity of our ancestors vine growers. C. Rossi and H. Filipetti underline thus that: “*much more than that of the houses themselves, the construction of the low walls and the terraces mobilized considerable forces and implemented volumes of stones which one has sorrow to imagine. Because at the same time as it épierrait its fields to be able to plow, the peasant furnished the circumference with it to mount the walls which would protect the access from them, thus drawing a grid serréde paths encircled of mineral fences, [...] with, to supplement the whole, a network of staircases and steps to cut you the breath. [...] A true monument with the tenacity of the men to survive, their ingenuity, their misery also*”.

As R. Ambroise underlines it “*the landscapes of terraces represent the diagram more succeeded of nature worked by the man. Formed by a multiplicity of oppositions, they resound of all their harmonics, to take again a musical comparison, and each one of us can find, in their extreme complexity, the space which answers an aspiration according to its own history, of its culture, its mood at the moment which passes*”.



Figure 3: The vineyard of Banyuls in Roussillon is established on very strong slopes. The vines there are arranged in terraces and are intersected with a system canal intended to effectively evacuate water at the time of the strong rains.

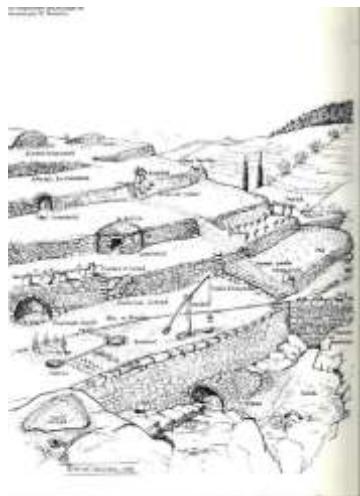
Most these landscapes of heroic terroirs would deserve a universal patrimonial recognition proposed by J.F. White: “*The terraces can be regarded as a revealing element of the evolution of a country civilization and thus constitute one of the most significant examples of the European alive cultural landscapes*”.

But the terraces in the manufacturing costs are higher than one the full in addition hypermodernity associated with the mechanization of the post-war period with decriminalized these rather difficult territories is difficult with the machines. By way of an example, concerning the area of Valteline in Italy, D. Iorusso specifies that “*the great period of deflection of the landscape in terraces begins after the second World wars. Because of the industrial boom related to the rebuilding, much of the wine growers of Valteline their vineyards leave*

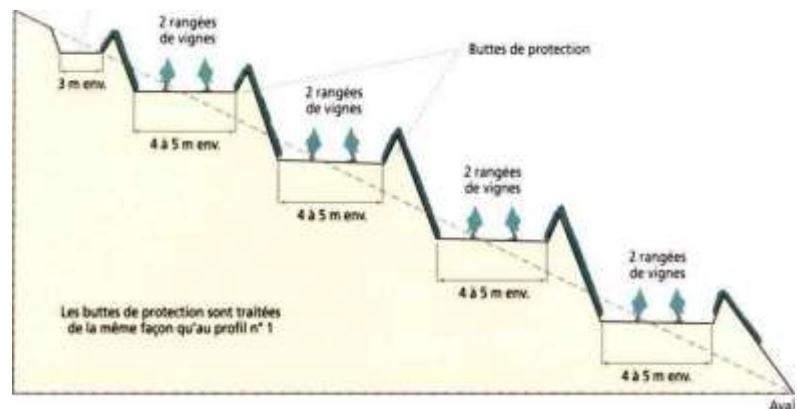
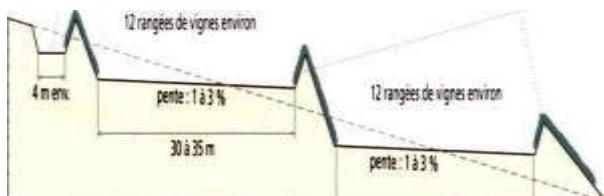
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definitively to settle in the cities of the plain of Pô, or to work in the new factories created at the bottom of the valley. Certain vineyards are then converted into different cultures, while many terraces are given up and left in waste land, even retimbered. The first general census of agriculture, in 1961, still announces the presence of 3000 hectares grounds planted in vines; nevertheless, thirty years after, at the time of the fourth census, there remain only 1700 ha about it. The decline continues in the following decades: the surfaces planted in vines reach about 1100 ha in 2000 and are reduced to 1000 ha in 2010".

According to the local context, the restoration of dry stone low walls, the creation of benches, the management of the slopes, the isolated tree installation of or hedges can be integrated in creation project or of reorganization of the vineyards. In parallel, an esthetic dimension, must supplement the functional approach of hydraulic works (collecting, paths, basins...).



*Figure 4: the components of the landscapes of terraces M. ROUVIERE  
(Source: paysage de terrasse , EDISUD, 1993)*



*Figure 5: cross of a broad "bench".*

*Figure 6: cross of a narrow "bench".*

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The installation of the slopes in terraces was an ancestral base of the fight against erosion. In spite of the constraints and the maintenance costs of the walls of support, it is sometimes necessary to privilege them in the situations of strong slope (beyond 15%). The broad terraces (20 to 50 meters) impose a thorough rehandling of the slope, which facilitates mechanization. It however presents the disadvantage of the high cost and the risks of landscape depreciation. The narrow terraces (1.80 to 2.30 m) are integrated more easily in the landscape. According to the cases, they make it possible to establish 1 or 2 rows per platform. Installation by stone low wall constitutes a noble but expensive choice.

### 3 Biodiversity of the heroic vineyards

The dry stone walls, which constitute invaluable biotopes, form many cavities being used as refuge with fauna and the local flora. These many niches accommodate a large biodiversity. Besides certain species play the significant role of auxiliary of culture, supporting the protection or the pollination of the cultivated plant species. The GRABS of the canton of Saint-Gall in Switzerland specifies thus that “*with their many cracks and the capacitance of those to preserve freshness and to store the heat of the sun in a hostile environment, the wall of dry stones offers list and food to several plants and animals: algae, lichens and foams, plants of wall like the joubarbe, the street of the walls, the officinal cétérach and the cymbalaire of the walls, towards, snails, spiders, millepede, insects, amphibians, reptiles and birds, hedgehogs and martens. Living beings with the most varied requirements can feel on their premises in a dry stone wall. This biodiversity is due to the various microclimates which appear during the year inside and with the facings of the wall, unequally exposed to the bad weather according to the orientation. As well during the winters glacials as with the heat wave, the slots, cracks and holes of the walls becomes districts of important rest. At the raised places, the walls are used of reference mark with the hunters or perches with the sparrows. They support moreover the diffusion and the grid of the flora and fauna in what they constitute of good points of passage between the areas and the ecosystems*”.

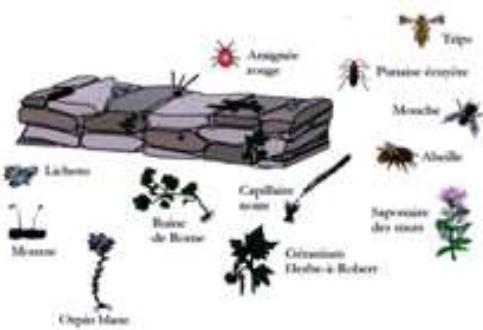


Figure 7: Ecological role of a low wall established according to the “Guide illustré de l’écologie” B. Fischesser, M.F. Dupuis-touch

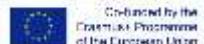
The European program Biodivine [www.biodivine.eu](http://www.biodivine.eu) made it possible to establish the bases of a functional vision but also naturalists of the biodiversity in the various European terroirs and in particular in the heroic vineyard of Douro, partner of the project.

Project LIFE AGROLIFE led to Cyprus, financed by the European Commission, aims in particular the valorization and the conservation of the biodiversity in the traditional vineyards of Laneia and Kapileio. This Mediterranean island works out celebrates its sweet wine Commandaria resulting from the local varieties mavro and xynisteri. Dry stone walls were created or restored to limit erosion and to be used of refuge for the invertebrates and reptiles. Edges of traditional hedges were restored around the vineyards to preserve important species of local fauna. Stackings of rocks were created to be used as habitat with important species of reptiles and insects.

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Figure 8: Projet LIFE, Agrolife in Cyprus. <http://agrolife.eu>



Figure 9: Guide agroecology in viticulture IFV/INAO  
[http://www.vignevin.com/fileadmin/users/ifv/2015\\_New\\_Site/AE4\\_Territoire/Fichiers/GuideAgroEcologie\\_web.pdf](http://www.vignevin.com/fileadmin/users/ifv/2015_New_Site/AE4_Territoire/Fichiers/GuideAgroEcologie_web.pdf)

In France, a bearing project on the agroecologia developed by the IFV and the INAO in order to integrate elements of the biodiversity in the specifications of the protected designation of origin and protected. The tool of orientation, is the work tools which make it possible to locate or to determine the total agroecologic approach and agroenvironnemental measures already taken in account or to consider by the wine grower, the grouping of wine growers or the ODG with 3 orientations:

+Checking of regulatory conformity+Orientation towards measurements agroenvironnementales-types INAO (transposable in the specifications of the ODG in simplified procedure

+General orientation on the 5 agroecologic sets of themes

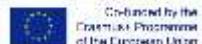
The guide specifies in particular that "*landscape installations favorable to the biodiversity must be interconnected in space according to a strategy thought of the landscape scale. While trying to establish the link between semi-natural spaces already present, they must be directed near the most unfavourable spaces with the biodiversity in order to constitute zones refuges which provide food shelters and resources to fauna. For that, spaces interparcellaires, must thus be maintained and reinforced if possible. This aspect also relates to the terraces and feast, which represent excellent supports of biodiversity in the vineyards of strong slope*".

In parallel educational tools, propose the reading landscape and the visualization of the ecological agro orientations and measurements agroenvironnementales by set of themes, regulatory penny in link with the specifications, on a landscape-type.

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#### 4. Conclusion

The strictly economic function of a territory is to produce a good which is developed by its marketing. Thus, the grapes are transformed into wine whose sale conditions the financial balance of an exploitation. But the integration of durability and the inheritance in the economy also associates the territorial, social and environmental effects of this production characterized by the concept of externality. The negative externalities can possibly lead to costs for the citizens or the territorial collectivities (required for example to treat the water polluted by the pesticides to make it drinkable). Contrary, according to the situations, the vineyards can comprise positive effects on the territories (limitation of the fires, maintenance of a rural life) and sometimes gravitational with respect to tourism (landscape, historical heritage, etc) not remunerated by the selling price, except possibly for a benefit "image" and a dynamics of direct sales.

In the mediterranean areas which will be affected probably more and more by fires in link with climate warming the vineyards can limit the impact of forest fires and undergrowth., As Mr. CONSTANS underlines it "*After the catastrophic fire of 1986, one rediscovers the firewall role of the vines and one sets up a policy of revival of the vine, in particular by creating new vines traced with the bulldozer like cuts DFCI4, the application interface of the cultivated zones and the zones of forest or maquis. Indeed the challenge is considerable; on the one hand the security of the people and the goods is concerned, on the other hand the tourist development, which is then the great priority of the economic actors, can make good household neither with this kind of risk, nor with afflicting the landscapes according to the fire*".



*Figure 10: Paysage of Bridged C Pargo west of the Portuguese island of Madeira. In 2012, a good part of the west of the island, with many pieces of vines, underwent a fire very devastating.*

The vineyards of strong slope which contribute to the patrimonial wealth of certain wine-producing areas whose manufacturing costs are high, can be abandoned without a political volunteer of the regional institutions or main roads associated with economic tools. This approach often justifies an aid policy for these "heroic" vineyards with strong financial asset and ecological if it is not wanted that they disappear forever.

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## Los paisajes de la vid en Gran Canaria: la supervivencia de un cultivo histórico.

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### 1. Introducción

Las principales regiones y paisajes vitivinícolas del mundo se localizan entre los paralelos 30° y 50° en ambos hemisferios, y entre las isotermas anuales de 10°C y 20°C. Las Islas Canarias son una excepción, pues su geolocalización (zona subtropical) y los factores que influyen en su clima (corriente fría de Canarias, vientos alisios y relieve muy abrupto) las convierte en el archipiélago afortunado que describiera en el siglo I a.C. Sertorio. A su condición externa respecto a la zona de máxima aptitud para la viticultura, se le suman toda una serie de características que permiten identificar a todo el archipiélago como lugar en donde se practica la viticultura heroica (CERVIM). Éstas son: altitud media superior a los 500 metros, pendiente superior al 30% o viñedos en terrazas, ser pequeñas islas, cepas viejas o con variedades autóctonas, muy difícil mecanización, viñedos de pequeño tamaño y ubicadas en zonas geográficas con paisajes de elevada belleza y vocación turística.

Después de la conquista de Canarias en 1496, la vid comienza a formar parte del paisaje de las islas. Primero lo hace como un elemento paisajístico en policultivo; consecuencia del aporte cultural de los colonos (el vino era un producto que estaba presente tanto en la dieta mediterránea como en el rito cristiano). Y, con el paso del tiempo va conformando unidades paisajísticas culturales con características formales propias y desarrollando sus propias reglas de construcción paisajística. Dichas reglas se basan: por un lado, en el entendimiento y comprensión de las condiciones físicas de las islas por parte de los nuevos colonos quienes adaptan sus prácticas agrícolas a las mismas, y por el otro, en la adaptación de las cepas traídas desde el continente al nuevo ambiente y la aparición de nuevas variedades de uva. Consecuencia directa de todo ello, es que en Canarias existe un patrimonio varietal muy significativo, con un total de 300 variedades de uva cultivadas de manera tradicional, de las que 21 son exclusivas a nivel mundial y, están en peligro de extinción (Zerolo *et al.*, 2006). Otro valor añadido que presenta la viticultura canaria es que ha sido un territorio libre de filoxera, por lo que aún se pueden plantar de forma directa o, a pie franco. Por lo expuesto, la vid en Canarias añade al conjunto del archipiélago un valor científico agrícola poco explotado y ensayado; el de la práctica pre-filoxérica en Europa. A todo ello se le suma el gran atractivo y potencial desarrollo tanto a nivel agrario como turístico.

La particularidad geográfica de cada isla, los condicionantes históricos junto a las circunstancias políticas, sociales y económicas han derivado a que actualmente existan en Canarias 11 Denominaciones de Origen: una por cada isla (excepto Fuerteventura, que no tiene), 5 en Tenerife y la adhesión, desde 2011, de los Vinos de Calidad Islas Canarias con un carácter más regional, aglutinando al conjunto insular.

El paisaje de la vid en Gran Canaria es un ejemplo de viticultura heroica, además de por todo lo expuesto, por ser la expresión de supervivencia frente a la sucesión de ciclos agrícolas, al cambio de modelo económico (de agrario a urbano/turístico) y, como consecuencia de esto último, a la presión urbanística del medio rural. Conserva buena parte de su herencia histórica (conocimientos, trabajo manual, sistema de plantación directa: *pie franco*, su rica diversidad varietal y parte de su territorio original) y resiste colonizando nuevos territorios y mejorando el sistema de conducción. El variado patrimonio vitícola y las prácticas agrícolas adaptadas a las variadas condiciones ambientales generan una isla con una gran diversidad de paisajes de la vid.

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## 2. Objetivos y metodología

El objetivo general de este trabajo es reconocer y poner en valor el paisaje de la vitivinicultura actual en la isla de Gran Canaria. Los objetivos específicos son: el análisis de su evolución histórica y la identificación y clasificación de los paisajes de la vid en la actualidad.

Se aborda a partir de un trabajo multidisciplinar en el que concurren la visión arquitectónica, geográfica e histórica para realizar el diagnóstico completo de un tipo de paisaje cultural-agrícola con tan variado significado identitario, tanto entre islas y como en áreas vitivinícolas de una misma isla. Se manejan fuentes de información y técnicas de análisis diversas. Para el análisis de la evolución histórica se consultan archivos, bibliografía, fotografías antiguas y cartografía. La caracterización de las áreas vitivinícolas se realiza a través de los Informes de Datos de las Denominaciones de Vinos del Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación (2000-2016) y la estadística agraria del ISTAC (2007-2016). Durante el desarrollo del trabajo se ha podido corroborar la dificultad de conocer con seguridad los datos de las superficies destinadas a viñedos de Canarias. Por este motivo se ha procedido a la consulta de diferentes fuentes de información con la complicación añadida de utilizar fuentes con diferentes unidades temporales (cosechas o años civiles), la adscripción de parte de la superficie de este cultivo a una Denominación de Origen o censos realizados con metodologías y/o fines diversos.

El análisis de la distribución actual del viñedo en Gran Canaria (2012-2013) se realiza a partir del mapa de cultivos del SIGPAC, desde el visor del Ministerio de Agricultura y Pesca, Alimentación y Medio Ambiente, del que se extrae la capa de viñedos. El análisis de la distribución espacial se realiza según municipios y cuencas hidrográficas. Para conocer las características topogeológicas de los viñedos se cruza dicha capa con un modelo digital del terreno y con el mapa geológico. Del primer cruce se extraen la altitud media, la pendiente y la orientación para cada polígono y, del segundo la litología. Por su parte, el trabajo de campo se ha abordado como una primera ronda de reconocimiento y de campaña fotográfica de las principales áreas vitivinícolas de Gran Canaria.

El estudio del espacio vitivinícola del Monte Lentiscal se realiza a partir de la consulta de fuentes bibliográficas, textos legales, documentos de carácter normativo, patrimonial y medioambiental tanto relacionados con el concepto de Paisaje Cultural como con el ámbito geográfico estudiado. Además se le añade el trabajo de campo pertinente para el reconocimiento *in situ* del área expuesta. La información y los datos manejados en este documento tienen su fundamento y desarrollo en la tesis doctoral que uno de los participantes está realizando actualmente y lleva por título: *La construcción del paisaje vitivinícola de Canarias: el caso del Monte Lentiscal*, perteneciente al Programa Interuniversitario de Doctorado Islas Atlánticas: Patrimonio, Historia y Marco Jurídico. La primera fase de esta tesis y de la información que aquí se expone por primera vez ha sido posible gracias a la beca INOVA apoyada por la Fundación Universitaria de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria y el Ayto. de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria.

## 3. Resultados

### 3.1. El paisaje actual de la vid en Canarias

A partir de los datos observados y trabajados (tabla 1) la Denominación de Origen Lanzarote es la que más superficie de viñedos presenta. No por ello significa que sea la Denominación canaria de vinos que más produce, ni en kilos de uva, ni en hectolitros de vinos. Su consumo de suelo dedicado a la vid es consecuencia directa de la construcción cultural y social de su paisaje de viñedos. El sistema de plantación en hoyos para buscar la tierra fértil bajo el manto de piroclastos (arena para los naturales de Lanzarote) y la construcción del soco: muro de piedra volcánica para la protección de los vientos dominantes, tiene como consecuencia un alto consumo de superficie y una baja densidad de plantación (400 plantas /ha.) y, por ello, de producción.

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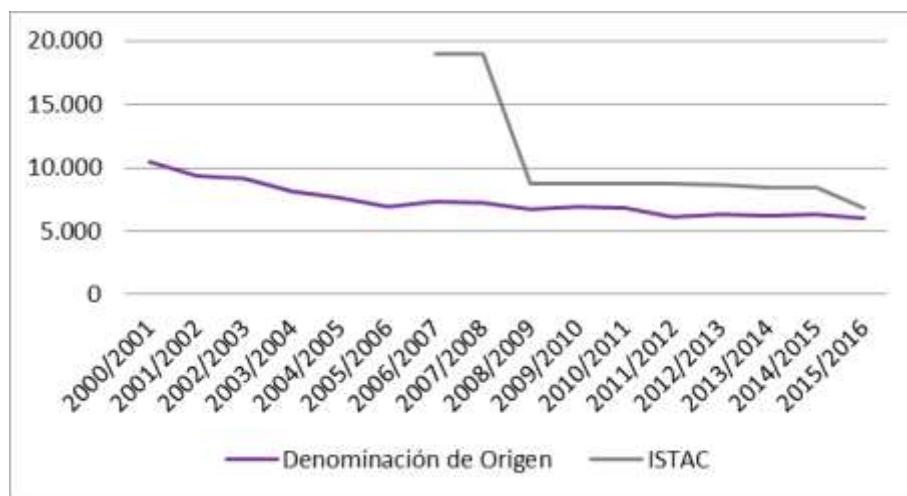
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Denominación de Origen	Abona	Tacoronte-Acentejo	Valle de Güímar	Valle de la Orotava	Ycoden-Daute-Isora	El Hierro	Lanzarote	La Palma	Gran Canaria	La Gomera	Islas Canarias
2000/2001	2.200	1.724	760	673	1.450	273	2.290	1.044			
2001/2002	1.567	1.727	721	679	1.200	273	2.210	962			
2002/2003	1.563	1.723	720	623	1.200	195	2.208	924			
2003/2004	1.427	1.693	708	625	445	180	2.172	860			
2004/2005	1.157	1.661	633	679	376	194	2.126	848			
2005/2006	1.163	1.672	852	642	352	204	2.050	817			
2006/2007	1.135	1.561	641	622	335	207	1.998	802			
2007/2008	1.123	1.552	640	616	311	201	1.998	768			
2008/2009	1.092	1.494	570	620	306	192	1.987	118	229	118	
2009/2010	1.060	1.184	570	632	264	192	1.963	736	233	121	
2010/2011	1.032	1.139	264	632	250	192	1.958	732	238	122	
2011/2012	995	1.146	274	475	236	191	1.834	640	238	125	
2012/2013	962	1.128	275	356	220	196	1.848	625	240	125	317
2013/2014	945	1.109	270	358	204	121	1.837	615	241	120	355
2014/2015	950	1.030	271	351	186	124	1.837	609	245	121	564
2015/2016	903	1.016	156	336	168	123	1.847	595	239	122	529

**Tabla 1. Superficie de viñedos en Canarias según Denominación de Origen y año de cosecha (ha.).** Elaboración propia. Fuente: Informe de Datos de las Denominaciones de Vinos (2000-2016). Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación.

Es notable el descenso continuado que experimenta la superficie de viñedo en las D.O. de Canarias a excepción de las de Gran Canaria, La Gomera y los Vinos de Calidad Islas Canarias. (grafico 1) Desde su introducción han ido aumentando ligeramente su superficie. Cabe señalar, como dato relevante que, a pesar de la introducción oficial de las Denominaciones de Origen mencionadas, las cifras en el 2016 no se acercan a las superficies que tan solo cuatro islas: Tenerife, Lanzarote, La Palma y el Hierro aportaban al conjunto de viñedos insular en el primer lustro de este siglo. El abandono general del medio rural y su actividad agrícola, la problemática del relevo generacional y las dificultades añadidas de la orografía de nuestro territorio complica el desarrollo del paisaje de viñedos y amenazan la práctica vitícola.



**Gráfico 1: Evolución de las superficies de viñedos adscritas a las Denominaciones de Origen de Vinos de Canarias y las registradas en la Comunidad Autónoma (ha.).** Elaboración propia. Fuente: Informe de Datos de las Denominaciones de Vinos. Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación. Consejería de Agricultura, Ganadería, Pesca y Aguas. Gobierno de Canarias. Instituto Canario de Estadística (ISTAC).

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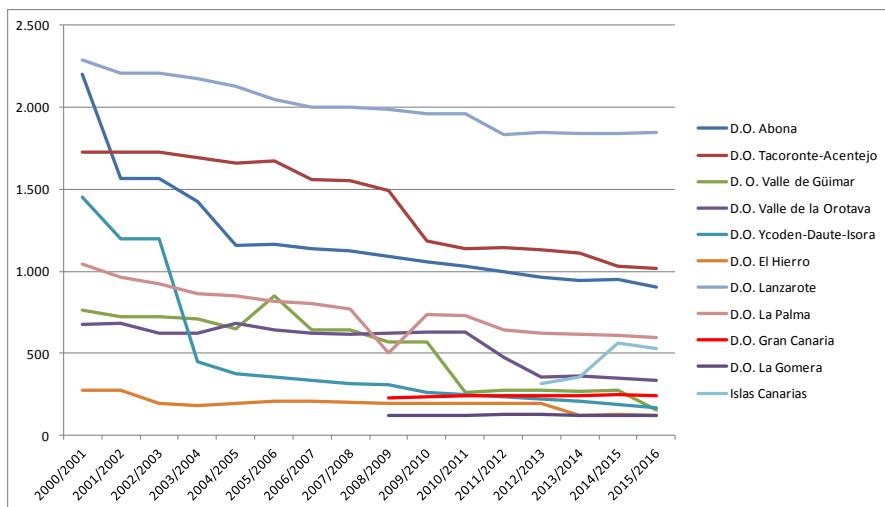
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Según los datos de las distintas fuentes consultadas y la comparativa realizada entre las once Denominaciones de Origen (gráfico 2), el panorama vitícola canario queda de la siguiente manera: la isla con mayor superficie de viñedos y con mayor número de denominaciones de origen es Tenerife ( $> 3.000$  has.), diferenciando así sus comarcas vitivinícolas. Hasta el 2008 sólo esta isla contaba con una superficie superior a las once mil hectáreas de vid. Le sigue Lanzarote, con más de 2.000 has., y La Palma con algo más de 1.000 hectáreas de superficies censadas actualmente. En cuarta y quinta posición en cuanto a superficie vitícola, se encuentran Gran Canaria y El Hierro respectivamente, alternándose posiciones con más de doscientas hectáreas de viñedos. Con casi 176 hectáreas de suelo dedicado al viñedo le sigue La Gomera y con una superficie vitícola de algo más de 10 hectáreas también Fuerteventura presenta superficie vitícola aunque con cifras anecdóticas pero no por ello menos interesantes de observación y estudio.



**Gráfico 2: Evolución de las superficies de viñedos por Denominación de Origen de Vinos de Canarias por campañas (ha.).**  
Elaboración propia. Fuente: Informe de Datos de las Denominaciones de Vinos.

En el caso de Gran Canaria su D.O. abarca la totalidad de la isla resultado de la unificación en el 2006 de dos denominaciones de Origen precedentes: La D.O. Monte Lentiscal constituida en 1999: zona vitivinícola con características naturales y formales únicas y de especial interés por mantener un patrimonio vitivinícola excepcional y la mayor superficie conjunta de viñedos de la isla; y una segunda D. O. que concentraba al resto de bodegueros y viticultores de la isla que databa del año 2000. De hecho, actualmente en las etiquetas de las botellas de las D.O. Gran Canaria se distingue los vinos producidos y cosechados en esta comarca. La D.O. Gran Canaria desde su aparición en los datos emitidos por las Denominaciones de Origen de Vinos para el Ministerio ocupa el séptimo puesto, de Canarias, en cuanto a hectáreas cultivadas de viñedos.

### 3.2. Evolución histórica del paisaje de la vid en Gran Canaria

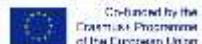
Para narrar la historia del cultivo y tradición de la vid en la isla de Gran Canaria debemos remontarnos al año 1478 momento en el que se produce su conquista por parte de los castellanos por deseo expreso de los Reyes Católicos. Los nuevos colonos y las autoridades castellanas tuvieron inquietud por promocionar e imponer su cultivo con el ánimo de reproducir el paisaje agrario de sus lugares de origen, conservar la tradición bíblica y mediterránea del cultivo de la vid y aprovechar un cultivo de alto rendimiento para aquella época, convirtiendo incluso las cuevas en bodegas para su almacenaje.

El cultivo de la vid muy pronto se extendió por doquier destacando determinadas zonas de donde se extraía la mayor parte de la producción. Las grandes áreas productoras de vino fueron las de Telde, Guía-Gáldar y las márgenes del barranco de Guiniguada hasta Santa Brígida (Tafira, La Calzada, El Dragonal, Satautejo, La Angostura, La Vega), y de forma menos densa hacia el interior, hasta San Mateo. A éstas había que unir los barrancos de Agaete, Tenoya, Azuaje y Cardones, además de Arucas. De forma marginal nos encontramos viñas también en Teror, Agüimes y Tirajana (Camacho y Pérez Galdós, 1966; Santana Pérez, 2004).

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Entre ellas, la jurisdicción que contaban con la mayor extensión de viñas y producción de vino era Telde (Santana Pérez, 2004). En el siglo XVI, el cultivo dominante en la isla, era la caña de azúcar. No existía entonces monocultivo de la vid, sino como acompañante de cereales, frutales y hortalizas pero al final de esta centuria, coincidiendo con su crisis, se empieza a imponer la vid como cultivo dominante.

En un principio las primeras vides se plantaron en terrenos próximos a la costa pero conforme pasó el tiempo fueron encontrando su nicho ideal próxima a las zonas de medianías. El área de mayor producción se extendía desde Montaña Las Palmas al Pico Bandama. La mayor parte de los suelos donde se cultivaban y se siguen cultivando viñas, eran ricos en lapilli (picón). Las viñas podían ser tanto a pie como enlatadas aunque predominan las segundas y tanto de secano como de regadío. Conforme se extendía su cultivo por la isla, surgen nuevos núcleos de población y topónimos asociados al mundo del vino (La Viña, Los Parrales, La Bodeguilla, El Lagarillo, El Parral, Los Majuelos, etc.).

El siglo XVII, el vino grancanario, entra en el circuito comercial desarrollado hacia América, Europa y África, lo que permitió consolidar las zonas vitivinícolas y ampliar las variedades de uva para multiplicar la oferta (Bethencourt Massieu, 1965; Lobo Cabrera, 1992, 1993 y 2008). Las principales variedades que se comercializaban eran la malvasía, que se exportaba hacia Europa y el vidueño que se llevaba a África y América, combinándose a veces ambas en las parcelas dedicadas a ello<sup>1</sup>. A partir de la segunda mitad del siglo XVIII se hace frecuente el albillo y no fueron desconocidos el rescolor, el listón o listán y el torrontés.

Entre el siglo XVII y el XVIII la cosecha oscilaría, al alza, entre las 2.000 y las 5.000 pipas de vino<sup>2</sup>. (Tous Melián, 1997). Las pipas de vinos son un recipiente fabricado con tabletas de roble o castaño que se usaba para la exportación del vino con unas dimensiones concretas. Servía, además, para medir la capacidad de este líquido en las regiones de Yacía, Aranda del Duero y Canarias. Se corresponde con casi 549 litros de vinos y actualmente se encuentra en desuso. A principio del siglo XIX ya alcanzaba las 7.000 pipas anuales<sup>3</sup>. A esto hay que sumar una nada despreciable producción de aguardiente que vio crecer su producción, junto a la de vinagre y pasas, a partir de la segunda mitad del siglo XVII y sobre todo en el XVIII.

En documentos relativos a la propiedad de las tierras encontramos datos que nos ayudan a componer el paisaje de viñedos histórico en Gran Canaria y temporalizar y justificar su cultivo. Destacar como una componente más del paisaje, el tamaño de las propiedades de vides. Este variaba y de este modo podemos encontrar a grandes propiedades así como medianas y pequeñas propiedades. Parte de estas tierras estaban sujetas a vínculo, es decir, se tenía la obligatoriedad de plantar nuevas viñas, conservar las ya existentes, el modo de descepar las parras viejas, prohibición de arrendamiento de viñas, etc<sup>4</sup>. La mayor parte de los contratos de arrendamiento se hacían en régimen de medianería; está relación de producción llegó a determinar el sistema agrario en la isla hasta el siglo XIX, muy ligada al cultivo de la vid; “se dan a medias poniendo el dueño las tierras y el medianero los costos de las labores” (Hernández Rodríguez, 1983:398). El proceso de concentración y división de tierras dedicadas a viñas fue continuo y coetáneo.

De estos documentos se extrae que todavía en la segunda mitad del siglo XVIII se seguían plantando viñas, junto con papas y millo (Suárez Grimón, 1987). Algunas de estas nuevas viñas se plantaban en torno al Monte Lentiscal como ocurre con la concesión de data de unas 17 fanegadas a D. Juan de la Barreda, regidor perpetuo de Gran Canaria para plantarla de viña<sup>5</sup>.

A pesar de la recuperación económica, y del cultivo de la vid a finales del siglo XVIII y principios del siglo XIX, coincidiendo con el ambiente bélico europeo, ésta fue un espejismo. El aumento de los precios en los mercados exteriores en este periodo, junto con una mayor demanda interna por el aumento poblacional fue la causa de esta bonanza. Sin embargo, tras 1814 se entra de nuevo en crisis, que es paralela a la recuperación de la producción agrícola europea, una mayor competencia tanto de los caldos nacionales como internacionales y por tanto, una gran reducción de su demanda. A mediados del siglo XIX la crisis del vino era ya total. La entrada de las enfermedades de la vid tales como el oidio en 1852 y el mildiu en 1878, supusieron para Canarias el punto final de la economía vitivinícola y el dominio extensivo de la vid. Para el caso de Gran Canaria este hecho relegó, el cultivo de la vid a la zona del Monte Lentiscal, convirtiendo a

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esta zona en la más extensa dedicada al cultivo del viñedo en ese entonces y hasta la actualidad. El vino como producto era destinado para el consumo local. Según los informes de los ayuntamientos, a mediados de esta centuria las vides que sobrevivían eran muy pocas. Los municipios con mayor producción eran los de Agaete, Guía, Firgas, San Lorenzo, Santa Brígida, Telde, Valsequillo, San Bartolomé de Tirajana y Las Palmas, siendo en su mayoría de regadío, a veces concentrada en las orillas de parcelas con cultivos como el millo y de papas. Destacaba todavía el paisaje de viñas en el Monte de Lentiscal (Domingo Mújica, et al., 2005).

### 3.3. *El paisaje actual de la vid en Gran Canaria*

El vino en Gran Canaria, es el segundo producto de transformación ligado al sector agrario. Junto a la miel, ambos productos representan cada uno el 14% del tejido agroindustrial de Gran Canaria. Son las queserías grancanarias las que con un 49% ocupa el primer puesto con relación a este tipo de industria. (Cabildo de Gran Canaria, 2016)

Pese a lo señalado en el párrafo anterior, el viñedo en Gran Canaria ocupa una extensión de 227,6 ha. (SIGPAC, 2012-2013), lo que representa tan solo el 5% de la superficie insular. Los municipios con más superficie de vid plantada son los que conforman la cuenca del Guiniguada: Santa Brígida (50,5 ha.), Vega de San Mateo (35,0 ha.) y Las Palmas de G.C. (30,0 ha.). Les siguen por orden de importancia San Bartolomé de Tirajana (25,2 ha.), Telde (21,1 ha.) y Tejeda (12,4 ha.) (tabla 2).

GRAN CANARIA	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Agaete	3,0	3,0	3,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0
Aquíimes	9,0	9,0	10,0	9,0	9,0	9,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0
Artenara	7,0	7,0	7,0	7,0	7,0	7,0	4,7	4,7	5,2	5,2
Arucas	1,0	1,0	1,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,4	3,4
Firgas	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,7	0,0	0,0	0,0
Gáldar	4,0	4,0	6,0	5,0	4,0	3,0	5,4	3,0	3,0	3,0
Ingenio	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	0,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0
Mogán	8,0	6,0	6,0	6,0	6,0	6,0	1,5	1,5	1,5	1,5
Moya	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	3,8	1,0	1,0	1,0
Las Palmas de Gran Canaria	87,0	87,0	60,0	60,0	60,0	60,0	30,0	30,0	30,0	30,0
San Bartolomé de Tirajana	22,0	22,0	22,0	22,0	22,0	22,0	25,2	25,2	25,2	25,2
La Aldea de San Nicolás	2,0	0,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0
Santa Brígida	119,0	119,0	70,0	70,0	70,0	70,0	50,5	50,5	50,5	50,5
Santa Lucía de Tirajana	2,0	2,0	6,0	6,0	6,0	6,0	6,1	6,0	6,0	6,0
Santa María de Guía de G.C.	5,0	5,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	2,0	0,6	1,0	1,0	1,0
Tejeda	16,0	16,0	14,0	14,0	14,0	14,0	12,4	12,4	12,4	12,4
Telde	27,0	27,0	23,0	23,0	23,0	23,0	21,1	21,1	21,1	21,1
Teror	8,0	8,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0	4,0
Valsequillo de Gran Canaria	5,0	5,0	9,0	9,0	9,0	9,0	6,9	6,9	6,9	6,9
Vallesesco	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,9	0,0	0,0	0,0
Vega de San Mateo	72,0	72,0	50,0	50,0	50,0	50,0	35,0	35,0	35,0	35,0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>401,0</b>	<b>397,0</b>	<b>301,0</b>	<b>302,0</b>	<b>298,0</b>	<b>299,0</b>	<b>224,8</b>	<b>218,3</b>	<b>219,2</b>	<b>219,2</b>

**Tabla 2: Superficie municipal de viñedos de Gran Canaria (ha.) en Gran Canaria. Elaboración propia. Fuente: Consejería de Agricultura, Ganadería, Pesca y Aguas del gobierno de Canarias (ISTAC).**

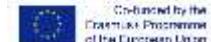
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Dicho cultivo es predominante en el noreste insular, concretamente entre las cuencas del Barranco Guiniguada y del Barranco de Telde, en donde se encuentra el 65% de la superficie del viñedo de la isla. Dicho sector recibe la denominación de Neocanaria y Alisiocanaria por tratarse del sector más joven (volcanismo reciente) y de máxima exposición a los alisios, vientos regulares, de componente noreste que transportan masas de aire frescas y húmedas hasta la isla. Le siguen en importancia, sumando el 23% de la superficie del viñedo insular, tres cuencas hidrográficas situadas en la vertiente opuesta de la isla (cuencas de La Aldea, Tirajana y Maspalomas), donde las condiciones ambientales, en ese otro sector, son menos propicias para el cultivo de la vid, pues el clima es más cálido y seco (Xerocanaria), la litología es más antigua (Paleocanaria) y, el relieve mucho más abrupto (pendientes más acusadas y barrancos más encajados que en el norte).

A la amplia distribución espacial de la viña en ésta isla se suma la diversidad de condiciones ambientales en las que se cultiva. Desde el punto de vista litológico buena parte de la vid (alrededor del 39,4% de su superficie) se cultiva sobre materiales volcánicos recientes (lavas basálticas, depósitos y conos piroclásticos). Éstos predominan en la Neocanaria (desde el Barranco de Agaete hasta el de Tirajana), por lo que los suelos derivados poseen ese carácter mineral y una porosidad que tanto favorece al cultivo de la uva. Pero también existen viñedos sobre materiales más masivos y antiguos como tobas ignimbriticas y coladas traquiroliíticas (23% de la superficie de viñedos insular), presentes en el macizo antiguo de Gran Canaria (Paleocanaria) y en depósitos sedimentarios (13,7%).

La altitud la media del viñedo en Gran Canaria es de 597,15 m. existe casi la misma superficie dedicada a la viña por encima y por debajo de la cota 500 m. de altitud, siendo el umbral a partir del cual pasa a considerarse agricultura de montaña (tabla 2). Se cultiva vid en todos los geoambientes altitudinales y existe un número significativo de casos en los que se cultiva en cotas superiores a los 1.300 metros de altitud y siendo la cota máxima, 1.567,7 metros.

La pendiente media de las vertientes sobre las que se cultiva la vid es del 26% (14° aproximadamente) y el 28% de la superficie dedicada a la vid se asienta sobre vertientes que superan el valor el 30% (16°) umbral por encima del cual se considera la viticultura como una práctica heroica (CERVIM).

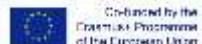
Estas superficies están cultivadas en pendientes medias del 26% (14° aproximadamente), con valores extremos del 108,3% (47,3° aprox.), por lo que se combina la plantación siempre directa de la cepa (pie franco) con el abancalamiento y/o sin ningún sistema de sujeción de la pendiente natural en donde la propia vid desempeña la función medioambiental de evitar la erosión del terreno.

Por último, aunque las parcelas dedicadas a la vid se encuentran en todas las orientaciones, existe un ligero predominio de las que lo hacen hacia el Este. El 45% de la superficie dedicada a la vid en orientaciones del Este-Sureste (90° - 180°) y el 30% lo hace en el segundo cuadrante (180° - 270°).

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Altitud	Nº casos	%	ha.	%
> 500m.	748	54	102,2	45
< 500 m.	626	46	124,6	55
	<b>1.374</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>226,8</b>	<b>100,00</b>
Pendiente	Nº casos	%	ha.	%
> 30%	478	34,8	63,4	28
< 30%	896	65,2	163,5	72
	<b>1.374</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>226,8</b>	<b>100</b>
Orientación	Nº casos	%	ha.	%
0° - 90°	455	33,24	68,0	30
90° - 180°	486	35,50	101,7	45
180° - 270°	252	18,41	36,0	16
270° - 360°	176	12,86	21,0	9
	<b>1.369</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>226,8</b>	<b>100</b>

**Tabla 3. Características topográficas de la superficie de la vid en G.C.** Elaboración propia. Fuente: Modelo Digital de Elevaciones (GRAFCAN) y Mapa de cultivos de SIGPAC (Ministerio de Agricultura y Pesca, Alimentación y Medio Ambiente).

En base a lo expuesto en párrafos anteriores, se ha hecho una primera identificación de 5 grandes áreas vitivinícolas de Gran Canaria que atiende principalmente a la superficie cultivada y a las condiciones litológicas. Estas son: 1<sup>a</sup>) Entre las cuencas de los barrancos Guiniguada-Telde, donde se concentra el 65% de la superficie de la vid, sobre materiales volcánicos recientes, ubicados fundamentalmente en medianías; 2<sup>a</sup>) grandes cuencas de la Paleocanaria (La Aldea, Tirajana y Maspalomas) donde se encuentra el 17,4% de la superficie de la vid sobre materiales volcánicos muy antiguos y depósitos sedimentarios coluviales, ubicadas próximas a sus cabeceras; 3<sup>a</sup>) los tres valles (Agaete, Tenoya y Guayadeque), donde se encuentra el 11,5% de la superficie de la vid; 4<sup>a</sup>) Resto de barrancos del Norte, del Sureste y Suroeste, con escasa superficie agrícola dedicada a la vid (6,9%) y la 5<sup>a</sup>) Espacio sin viñas, que comprende los barrancos de Tasarte y Tasartico y las intercuencas del arco suroccidental de G.C.

#### 3.4. El Monte Lentiscal: Un paisaje cultural vitivinícola singular.

Para proceder a la identificación del interés cultural de El Monte Lentiscal y su puesta en valor hemos trabajado con la definición de paisaje, de naturaleza legal, del Plan Nacional de Paisaje Cultural (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, 2012). De este modo se justifica, desde el punto de vista patrimonial, el proceso de atropelamiento de un medio natural que tiene como resultado un territorio soporte de la identidad de una comunidad. En el siguiente resumen recogemos el proceso que ha dado como resultado la comarca vitivinícola de El Monte Lentiscal y señalamos los valores intrínsecos y patrimoniales que posee. Esta comarca vitivinícola tiene su origen natural siendo un denso bosque de especies termófilas que experimenta, desde los primeros momentos tras la conquista de la isla, un intenso proceso de atropelamiento y transformación. El tiempo y las circunstancias políticas, sociales y económicas permitieron la incorporación de la práctica vitivinícola a finales del XVIII que ha dado forma al actual paisaje. Se distinguen cuatro grandes etapas en la conformación del paisaje actual:

**1<sup>a</sup>. Etapa: El estado natural del bosque termófilo (anterior al Siglo XV).** Periodo donde el medio natural domina este entorno y es utilizado como fuente de recurso natural por los núcleos pre-hipánicos que habitaban en las áreas próximas al bosque. De este periodo se hereda la importancia geológica, los reductos de bosque termófilo en concreto los bosquetes monoespecíficos de lentiscos asociados con acebuches y su

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ecología: una serie de flora y avifauna muy concretas. La protección medioambiental como Espacio Natural Protegido en la categoría de Paisaje Protegido viene determinada por la importancia geológica: Monumento Natural de Pico y Caldera de Bandama, además, de ser Punto de Interés Geológico Nacional, área de Sensibilidad Ecológica con la mayor reserva acebuchal-lentiscal de toda Canarias (Fernández Palacios, et al., 2016), la existencia de la especie única en el mundo de la *Parolinia glabiuscula* conocida como Dama de Bandama (Montelongo, et al., 2003) y por último los nueve yacimientos arqueológicos que forman parte del Patrimonio Histórico son los elementos tangibles que proceden de esta etapa.

**2ª. Etapa: retroceso del bosque termófilo e introducción de los primeros viñedos (desde finales del XV hasta mediados del XVIII)** Como consecuencia del proceso inmediato a la conquista de Gran Canaria, concluida en 1483 y del propio sistema colonial de organización, el Monte Lentiscal pasa a ser propiedad real y de aprovechamiento comunal. Como propiedad de los monarcas no podía ser ni enajenada ni roturada. El bosque de lentiscos y acebuches se convierte en el principal recurso para el abastecimiento de los nuevos núcleos poblacionales. Su madera se usaba para la construcción de barcos, casas y aperos de labranzas. También servía como fuente de energía en los hornos de pan del *Real de Las Palmas* y Telde y en las industrias azucarera y locera ubicadas en su entorno más inmediato. El ciclo económico del azúcar (desde el siglo XV hasta mediados del siglo XVI) es sustituido paulatinamente por el del vino y sus derivados y muy pronto los cañaverales de las zonas más próximas al bosque fueron sustituidos por viñedos. El bosque, en el XVI,I presentaba un lamentable estado, pues parte de su superficie se destinaba al uso pastoril y pequeñas superficies de terrenos usurpados se roturaban para el uso agrícola. De éste periodo destaca la primera zona cultivada de viña plantada en pleno corazón del bosque en las propias faldas y fondo de la Caldera de Bandama, para la elaboración de vino y su exportación. Fue por iniciativa de un belga, *Daniel Van Damme*, cuya acción emprendedora marcó el destino de este entorno, que desde ese entonces toma como topónimo su propio apellido, *Van Damme*, cuya transcripción deriva en el *Bandama* actual. Dicho dato se suma a las huellas intangibles del territorio analizado y llega hasta nuestros días.

**3ª. Etapa: consolidación del paisaje vitivinícola del Monte Lentiscal (desde mediados del siglo XVIII a mediados del siglo XX)** La intensa explotación del bosque de lentiscos pone fin a su existencia como tal (Santana Santana, 1992) y como propiedad de realengo a principio del siglo XIX. (Suárez Grimón, 1987). La venta en *datas y suertes* del monte propiedad real tiene lugar en tres periodos temporales que van desde finales del siglo XVIII hasta los inicios del siglo XIX. (Hansen Machín, 1995) Desde ese entonces se convierte en un paisaje de dominante agrícola. El Monte Lentiscal es un espacio dedicado mayoritariamente al cultivo de la vid, con una vegetación natural escasa pero con presencia de plantas y especies exóticas. Las haciendas vitivinícolas surgen como una tipología representativa de la arquitectura del vino, son las unidades físicas que dividen y dan forma a este paisaje. Las haciendas vitivinícolas están constituidas por su correspondiente parcela dedicada al viñedo en donde existen unas construcciones con una jerarquía arquitectónica según usos y funciones, siendo cada una de ellas igual de importante para el concepto de unidad productiva vinculada al mundo agrario. Para el caso de las haciendas del Monte Lentiscal, contienen edificaciones específicas relacionadas con la actividad vitivinícola –cultivo de la vid y elaboración de vinos-. Este tipo de división territorial y de construcciones son determinantes para entender la estructura de la propiedad actual. Estas construcciones responden a lo que en arquitectura se refiere al *hecho arquitectónico* (Fusco, R.), es decir, responden a un contexto geográfico, histórico, social y económico muy concreto y por tanto, las haciendas vitivinícolas del Monte Lentiscal constituyen un valor patrimonial relevante.

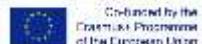
En este periodo destaca las primeras infraestructuras turísticas. La imagen exportada de El Monte Lentiscal por los científicos durante el siglo XVIII y XIX posiciona a este entorno como uno de los primeros destinos turísticos de interior de Canarias, impulsados por los ingleses. (Santana Santana, A. y Rodríguez Socorro, M. P., 2006)

**4ª. Etapa: la sostenibilidad ambiental y el desarrollismo urbanístico. (desde mediados del siglo XX a la actualidad)** El declive del interés turístico en el contexto estudiado, con el traslado del foco turístico al sur de la isla y la aparición del turismo de masas, es otro de los hitos con consecuencias directas para este entorno.

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El tejido agrario del viñedo comienza a ser reemplazado indiscriminadamente por tejido residencial, producto de nuevos intereses en este espacio. La preocupación del medioambiente como calidad de vida genera los inicios de los aspectos normativos y reguladores actuales. Los diferentes trabajos, estudios e investigaciones que empiezan a revalorizar este entorno se producen en las últimas décadas de este siglo. Aparece la primera asociación de viticultores y la primera Denominación de Origen de vinos que hacen referencia a este espacio geográfico como comarca vitivinícola. Las nuevas competencias de las instituciones públicas y leyes en materia patrimonial, de gestión urbanística y medioambiental en Canarias también juegan un papel importante en este periodo y para este entorno con la aparición de las primeras declaraciones, estudios y protecciones en estos ámbitos.

#### 4. Conclusiones

La viticultura practicada en Canarias y, más concretamente, en la isla de Gran Canaria, cumple por lo ya expuesto con la condición de heroica. A pesar de la notable y constante reducción de superficie de viñedos en el Archipiélago, Gran Canaria junto a La Gomera son las islas cuyo paisaje vitícola aumenta con un ritmo lento. El cultivo de la viña en Gran Canaria se encuentra fragmentado y genera un paisaje de viñedos discontinuo repartido por toda la Isla en contraste con las grandes extensiones del paisaje de viñedos propias de medios continentales. Resultado de la necesidad de buscar mejoras en la producción y facilidades a las complicaciones orográficas se ha incorporado sistemas de plantación en espaldertas que conviven con sistemas tradicionales. Como parte del desarrollo natural que experimenta los paisajes estos varían y evolucionan para garantizar su supervivencia. De este modo nos encontramos dentro de una misma parcela ambos sistemas combinados: viñas rastreiras, en mesas altas (parral) y en vaso para las cepas más antiguas y las conducciones más modernas en espaldadera para las nuevas plantaciones. Generándose así una nueva visión paisajística. Esta fragmentación y dispersión del viñedo ha sido una de las razones por la que se ha permitido conservar un patrimonio varietal variado y único (21 variedades autóctonas) en peligro de extinción hasta que se tomen medidas a tal respecto.

Desde la introducción del cultivo de la vid en Gran Canaria por los colonos y, dadas sus buenas condiciones ambientales (sustratos litoedáficos, condiciones climáticas, orografía...) se ha mantenido hasta la actualidad, en sus dos facetas: como policultivo en huertas (junto a cereales y papas), y en la zona del Monte Lentiscal, como un mosaico de parcelas vitivinícolas que alternan con crecimientos urbanos. Éste último sector ha quedado como testigo del período histórico donde la vid dominaba sustancialmente el paisaje.

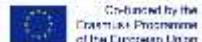
En Gran Canaria su cultivo apenas representa un 5% de su superficie, a pesar de que es el vino el segundo de los productos agroindustriales más importantes de la isla, tras el queso. Muchos de estos espacios actuales coinciden con su localización original e histórica pero también se han incorporado nuevos espacios. La diversidad de condiciones ambientales en las que se cultiva la vid, casi sin límites litológicos y topográficos (altitud, orientación y pendientes) determina que una diversidad uvas, de prácticas agronómicas y por todo ello, de paisajes, que merecen ser estudiados en profundidad y considerados en los planes sectoriales de paisaje, agronómicos. La plantación en pie franco es otra de las razones por la que variedades de cepas tan antiguas no hayan desaparecido.

El Monte Lentiscal es una comarca vitivinícola que hereda el cultivo de la vid cuando deja de ser motor económico en el Siglo XIX. Desde ese entonces se ha convertido en una zona vitivinícola por excelencia de Canarias aglutinando un importante patrimonio cultural y arquitectónico relacionado con el vino donde las haciendas vitivinícolas juegan un papel importante en la construcción de este paisaje. Además se le suma su importancia natural con formaciones volcánicas únicas y una flora y fauna excepcionales. Todo ello son los principales argumentos para su pertenencia a la Red de Espacios Naturales de Canarias. Tras un largo proceso de protección, su instrumento de planeamiento de carácter normativo, de gestión para su protección, conservación y de uso para garantizar un desarrollo sostenible fue aprobado en el 2009 y quedó fuera del ordenamiento jurídico en el 2013. Actualmente es un espacio cuyo futuro es incierto si no sabemos incorporar la identidad local vinculada al paisaje del viñedo y replantear la importancia turística que tuvo este espacio al principio del Siglo XX. Debemos incorporar conceptos e instrumentos actuales sobre el paisaje para saber plantear escenarios futuros sobre este entorno y que garantice su conservación y permita un desarrollo adecuado a los diferentes valores que posee.

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<sup>1</sup> Archivo Histórico Provincial de Las Palmas (A.H.P.L.P.), CARVAJAL QUINTANA, Diego, leg. 2.360, año 1645, Gran Canaria, fol. 175 r. En febrero de 1645, Antón González Vallullo, trabajador, vecino de Guía, se obligó a dar al alférez Marcos de San Juan, vecino de Guía, 4 botas de a 11 barriles de mosto por el tiempo de la vendimia de ese año, de la viña de Domingo Rodríguez, las 2 de vidueño y las 2 de malvasía.

<sup>2</sup>A.H.P.L.P., Audiencia, Libro 27, tomo I, fols. 124 v.-126. Libros de Gobierno (1603-1821).

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<sup>4</sup>A.H.P.L.P., FRANQUIS DE ORTEGA, Ventura, Telde, leg. 2.638, año 1768, fols. 159 r.-161 v. En abril de 1768, D. Luis Romero Jarraquemada, vecino de Telde y capitán de artillería declaró que había fundado un vínculo sobre un huerto, plantado de parras en El Cercadillo, que había heredado de su abuelo el capitán D. Luis Romero Jarraquemada, así como sobre el beneficio y plantío de parral en unas tierras en El Tabaibal y en un beneficio y plantío de tierras en el Valle.

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## Estimating erosion control performance of soil management practices in Douro viticulture

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### Abstract

Conventional soil management (sm) in Douro viticulture, Portugal, comprise several weed control tillage operations along the crop cycle. Alternative sm practices reduce or exclude tillage, keeping ground cover for large part of the wetter seasons. Aiming at comparing the relative performance in erosion control of alternative sm practices, this study used long term records from a Douro vineyard as vine and ground vegetation evolution, crop management operations and detailed rainfall data. The USLE C factor was calculated combining vine row cover and inter-row ground cover effects in the typical vine cycle. With rainfall erosivity temporal distribution, erosion control by ground vegetation management options, representing different sm practices, was assessed for conventional and alternative (imposing different ground vegetation density, removal date and residues level after weed control). Results compare relative soil protection performance of alternative sm practices with conventional sm. Leaving residues over ground after weed control works better (54% increase in erosion control for 80% residue cover), than delaying weed control date (37% increase for a delay to mid-July), while increasing sown ground vegetation density is not so effective (17% increase for 80% cover). The methodological approach and results of this study are expected to contribute to better adjust sm practices for erosion control in Douro viticulture.

**Keywords:** Soil management, Erosion control, Universal Soil Loss Equation, Vineyards, Douro Region.

### Introduction

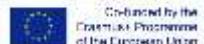
Douro viticulture, Portugal, is an exemplary case of ancestral concern with soil protection, a scarce resource in quality and suitability in this Region (Figueiredo, 2015). The topography with very steep slopes, the dominance of schist-derived soils with fine earth high erodibility, the climatic regime with increasing aridity towards east, all together determine a very severe potential erosion risk. This is, however, mitigated by the high soil stoniness and heavily reduced by traditional soil conservation structures, such as walled terraces, which justified the UNESCO's World Heritage status granted to this humanized landscape (Figueiredo, 1989; Figueiredo, 2015).

Conventional soil management (SM) in Douro viticulture comprises tillage operations for weed control throughout the crop cycle (Magalhães, 2008). Alternative SM practices aim to reduce or exclude tillage, keeping the soil covered by herbaceous vegetation, adventitious or sown, for most of the year, with positive effects, among others, on reducing erosion, and on improving nutrient and water cycles (Morlat and Jacquet, 2003; Celette et al., 2005; Vrsic et al., 2011). Its ongoing implementation is still limited in the Region (Martins et al., 2014; Martins, 2015). The adoption of alternative SM practices is particularly necessary in vineyards planted against the contour, “vinha ao alto” (Figure 1), a system installed in the Region from the 1970s onwards, currently not allowed in new plantations above 40% slope gradient (Bianchi-de-Agguiar, Bianchi-de-Aguiar, 2002, Portugal, 2003, Figueiredo, 2015). Despite the long-term records from erosion plots at Quinta de Santa Bárbara, Pinhão, have demonstrated a low impact of this system in the Douro, due to the high stony soils, “vinha ao alto” is, however, the one with the highest potential risk of water erosion as compared to the other vine planting systems in the Region (Figueiredo, 2001, Figueiredo, 2015).

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The study compares the relative performance in erosion control of alternative SM practices, simulated with Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE) C factor, supported by long term erosion plot records that were taken as representative of the Conventional SM in “vinha ao alto” in the Douro Region.

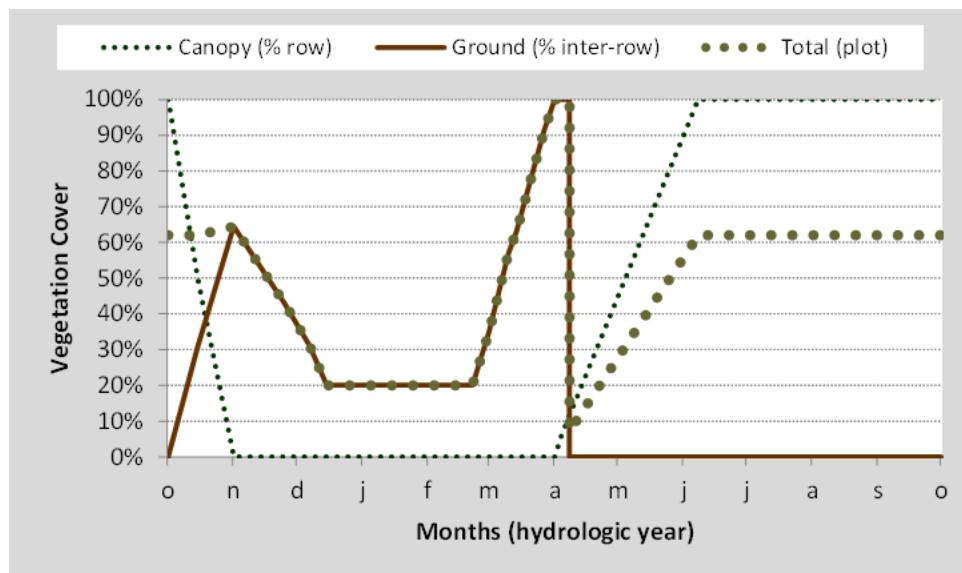


*Figure 1 – Vineyards planted against the contour (“vinha ao alto”) in Douro Region, at the end of June: left – no inter-row cover; right – dense residue cover in inter-row.*

## Materials and Methods

The base data for this exercise included the Quinta de Santa Bárbara, Pinhão, Douro ( $41^{\circ}10'N$ ,  $7^{\circ}33'W$  and 130m elevation) 10-year records of 5 erosion plots (5.2m width, 32.1m long, 45% slope), set to evaluate the erosive response of “vinha ao alto” with 3 planting densities (ca. 3600, 4800 and 6000 vine plants  $ha^{-1}$ ) (Figueiredo , 2001).

In addition to soil and runoff water losses, records include information on vegetation (residues, weeds and vines) and crop management (traditional tillage operations as described by Magalhães, 2008). Their interpretation, together with field assessments, allowed to establish the normal pattern of temporal variations in plots vegetation cover (Figure 2).



*Figure 2 – Typical variation throughout the hydrologic year of plot cover by vegetation componentes in Douro Region vineyards (“vinha ao alto”), based on 10-year records at Quinta de Santa Bárbara (from Figueiredo, 2001).*

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Continuous rainfall data records (pluviograph) allowed calculation of EI30 erosivity index (Wischmeier and Smith, 1978). The cumulative yearly curves of EI30 were computed on a weekly base for the 10-year series. Hence, average, 10% and 90% percentile curves of cumulative erosivity were obtained (Figure 3).

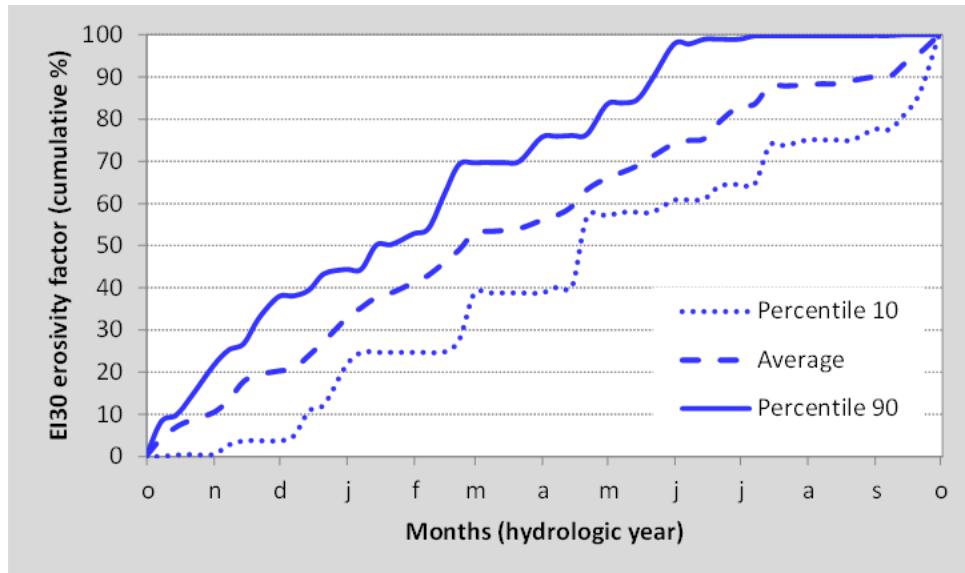


Figure 3 – Percent cumulative rainfall erosivity along the hydrologic year: average, low erosivity (percentile 10) and high erosivity years (percentile 90), based on 10-year records at Quinta de Santa Bárbara (from Figueiredo, 2001).

Taking as reference of “vinha ao alto” in Douro viticulture the Quinta de Santa Bárbara conditions, the USLE C factor was applied (Wischmeier and Smith, 1978), combining the effects of vine row cover and of inter-row cover by herbaceous vegetation and residues, along the typical crop cycle, and considering the temporal distribution of rainfall erosivity:

$$C_i = CC_i SC_i = (1 - FC_i e^{-0.34H_i}) e^{-3.5RC_i} \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

$$C_{\text{year}} = \sum R_i C_i \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

C – Crop Factor; CC – canopy effect (vine plants, maximum cover is 62% of plot area); SC - soil cover effect (residues and weeds); FC – canopy cover; H – canopy height; RC – residue or weed cover; R - proportion of annual erosivity (percentile 90 curve in this case); i – crop period or calculation interval in the year (week in this case); FC, RC and R, [0-1]; H, m.

The  $C_{\text{year}}$  indirectly estimates the performance of SM practices in erosion control, either for conventional (represented by the reference conditions of Quinta de Santa Bárbara) or for alternative simulated SM practices. Performance was actually assessed by  $(1 - C)$ , and the relative performance of the alternatives by:

$$\text{C factor: } C_{\text{relative}} = C_{\text{alternative}} / C_{\text{conventional}} - 1 \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

$$\text{Performance: } (1 - C)_{\text{relative}} = (1 - C)_{\text{alternative}} / (1 - C)_{\text{conventional}} - 1 \quad (\text{eq. 4})$$

Alternative SM practices were simulated and the respective  $C_{\text{year}}$  calculated, in each case keeping all other parameters as for the reference condition (conventional) and changing the pertinent ones as follows:

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(i) Density of herbaceous vegetation cover in the inter-row (adventitious or sown) generating maximum winter cover at 50% for dense cover and 80% for very dense cover (conventional, 20% cover).

(ii) Weed control dates in spring by herbaceous vegetation removal in the inter-row, with progressive delay in the operation: conventional – at vines vegetative start (early to mid-April), 1 month (early to mid-May), 2 months – at maximum vine vegetative development (early to mid-June).

(iii) Residue cover left in the inter-row after spring weed control made at vine vegetative start: conventional – full removal, low cover – 20%, very high cover – 80%.

## Results and Discussion

It is estimated that conventional SM in “vinha ao alto”, under conditions considered to be representative of Douro viticulture, have average performance in erosion control of 58%, meaning average soil loss equivalent to 42% of that in bare soil. The critical period of soil exposure is spring, after weed control and before the driest season, although in Winter months soil protection is also lower than the average (Figure 4). This low average performance confirms that vineyards are not generally a protective crop, ranking among the largest soil loss records in Europe (Cerdan et al., 2006). On the other hand, the erosive events of higher magnitude in 10 years of records in Quinta de Santa Bárbara occurred in late spring and early summer, confirming this period as critical (Figueiredo, 2001).

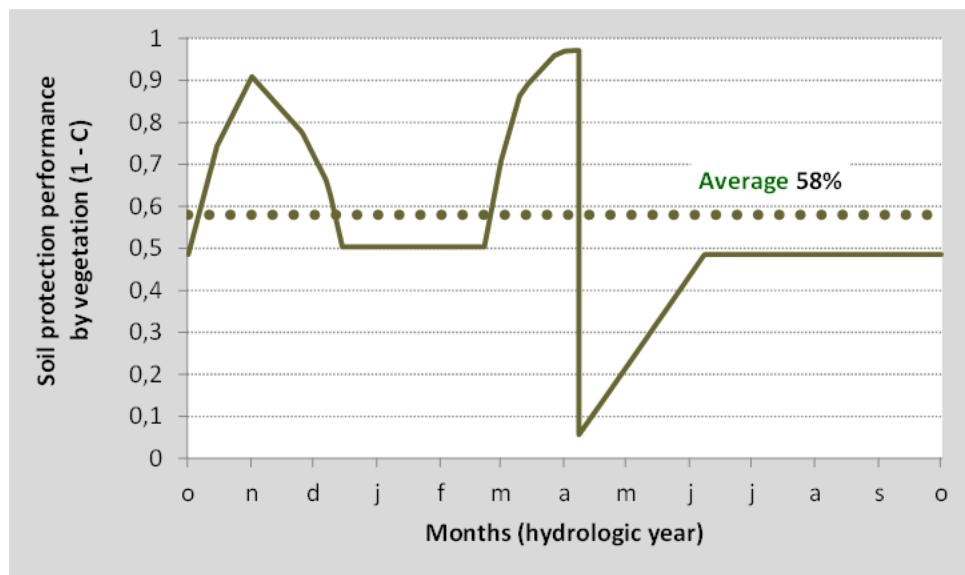


Figure 4 – Typical variations along the hydrologic year of the performance in erosion control of a “vinha ao alto” vineyard plot under conventional soil management.

Alternative SM practices focused on increasing winter cover by herbaceous vegetation (adventitious or sown) determine a decline in vineyards’ average annual C factor. Conversely, there is an increase in soil protection performance of 13% and 17% for, respectively, 50% and 80% cover, when compared with conventional SM (20% winter cover) (Figure 5).

Keeping herbaceous cover on the ground as long as possible, delaying weed control intervention in the spring may be an alternative SM strategy. This was simulated and results show that it works better than increasing weed coverage in winter. In fact, average annual performance increased 37% for a 2 months delay and 22% for a month delay, as compared to the conventional practice (Figure 5).

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The maintenance of residues over the ground after weed control in spring, meaning minimal incorporation in the soil, simulated at 20% and 80% residue cover, leads to soil protection performance increase of 37% and 54%, respectively, as compared to the conventional, in which the full incorporation of residues by spring tillage is assumed (Figure 5).

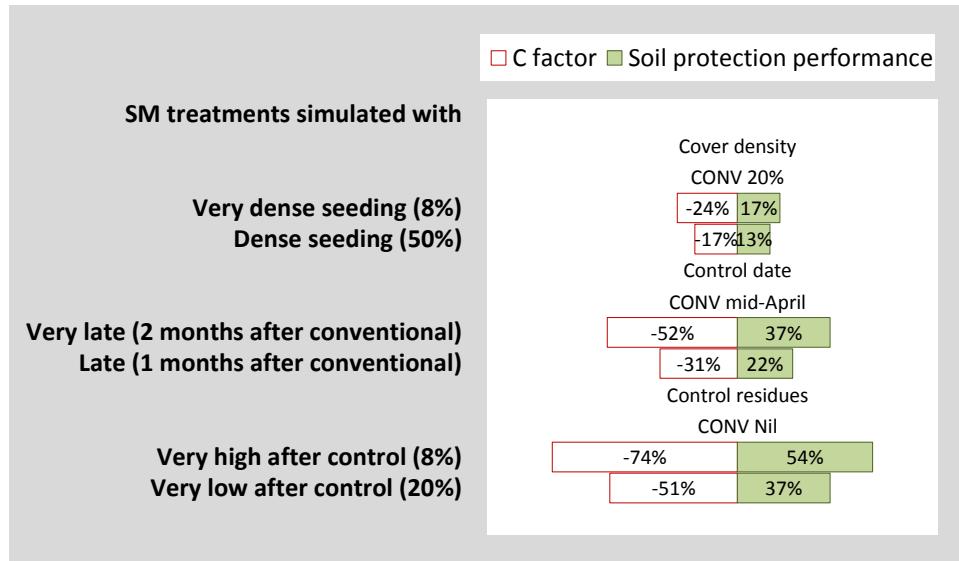


Figure 5 – Relative C factor and relative soil protection performance of alternative SM practices as compared to conventional (CONV): simulations with different inter-row herbaceous cover density in winter, spring weed control dates, residue cover left over the ground after spring weed control.

From the simulated alternatives, the strategy of keeping residues on the soil surface after spring weed control is the most performing, even when the mass of residues is limited. This is a practice consistent with no-tillage and herbicide application or clipping herbaceous vegetation in the inter-row area (Vrsic et al., 2011; Martins et al., 2014; Martins, 2015). Delaying spring weed control has meaningful results when it extends to 2 months, but it entails increased risks of resource competition (water and nutrients) between herbaceous vegetation and crop and of release in soil of viable seeds of weed species more difficult to control afterwards (Celetteet al., 2005; Martins et al., 2014; Martins, 2015). Focused on the critical spring period, these alternative SM strategies are more performing than those focused on autumn-winter regulation of herbaceous vegetation cover. This are actually less critical seasons as indicated by the Quinta de Santa Bárbara 10-year records: less than 20% of the total soil loss recorded occurred in these seasons (Figueiredo, 2001; Figueiredo, 2015).

## Conclusion

The results allow to conclude that:

- The performance of conventional SM practices in the “vinha ao alto” vineyard plantation system in the Douro Region is limited and points out the need to implement alternative SM practices based on more performing management of herbaceous vegetation cover in the vines inter-row;
  - Alternative SM practices focused on the control of herbaceous vegetation in the spring period are more performing than those focused on the fall-winter period;
  - The maintenance of residues on the soil surface after spring weed control proved to be the most performing option among the simulated ones and it is fully feasible in a no-tillage farm context.
- It is expected that the methodological approach and the results of this study may contribute to fine-tune erosion control practices in Douro viticulture.

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## What is sustainability? A economical consideration based on different examples

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### Sustainability:

This word was first in 1915 in the German spelling book "Duden".

"Ecological principle, according to which no more may be consumed, than each regrow, regenerate, in the future can be provided again"

"We need an economically viable and ecologically sustainable agriculture!" Federal Agriculture Minister Christian Schmidt said this year at the start of the International Green Week in Berlin.

But we need not only sustainability for the nature, we need sustainability for the wineries also.

In order to be able to withstand the economic demands in our time, winemakers in the steep slopes are particularly challenged. Rationalization measures, savings and mechanization are hardly possible in order to reduce the cost pressure and keep up with the competition.

Is it the only way to produce uncompromisingly good quality wines that taste and arouse emotions! Is this the only way we can ultimately achieve the proceeds that are needed to maintain viticulture in the steep slopes?

Is it this enough to reduce the costs?

Stuttgart - The almost exclusive location in Stuttgart "Mönchhalde" - under real estate agents, the areas are still considered as a 1B location -. The winery cultivates about eleven hectares of red wine and six hectares of white wine. The historic inner city vineyards have long been considered a cultural asset with a special flair.

Viticulture belongs to Stuttgart like Bosch, Porsche and Daimler. The warm climate in the basin and the high sunshine on the slopes create ideal conditions in the city center of Stuttgart, since the 11th Century is grown there. Cultivation, expansion and sale of the wines is managed by the state capital on its own.

But: "Urban winery is anything but profitable"

### Other efforts are necessary

The terraced steep slopes on Neckar and Enz are the picturesque figureheads of Württemberger viticulture. However, their management is associated with extremely high costs, so that the profitability of the 500 acres of terraced steep slopes is usually not given. The members of the three cooperatives Lauffener Weingärtner, Besigheim Felsengartenkellerei and Rosswag-Mühlhausen cooperative winery cultivate the lion's share of the terraced steep slopes with around 300 hectares.

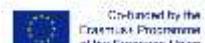
Now they have teamed up and founded the new cooperative Weinbergwerk. The vineyard focuses exclusively on the production of premium wine from terraced steep slopes. The higher prices are intended to generate a yield that adequately compensates for the laborious work in the terraced steep

Another example: For about two years, the "Consortium Montis Casei" has been building high-quality wine in the steep slopes on the Neckar. Initiator Herbert Müller presented now in Mundelsheim the first results.

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It's an experiment that Dr. Herbert Müller and his eight friends and acquaintances started about two years ago. The "Consortium Montis Casei", the Käsberg consortium, wants to prove that in the steep slopes above Mundelsheim and Hessigheim, high-quality wines from international grape varieties can be produced - wines for which you can demand appropriate prices and therefore make it possible in the long run, to manage the steep slopes profitably.

The terrace vineyards of the central Neckar valley, which are so typical of the landscape, are endangered. The tendency to stop cultivating wine there could be exacerbated if new EU legislation enters into force next year and if farmers can shift their planting rights to the plains.

The consortium works together with regional wineries to grow and develop the wines, such as the wineries Faschian and Eisele from Hessigheim, the Württembergische Hofkammer, which planted the Syrah grape in the Käsberg, and the Lauffener Weingärtnern. If the success in marketing these wines, which currently cost between 14 and 18 euros (exception with eight euros is the Trollinger), sees the entrepreneur, who lives in the middle Neckar Valley for 20 years, a good way to preserve the steep slopes. He received support from District Administrator Dr. Rainer Haas. "We still have a lot of potential, which is not exhausted in every effort," said Haas at the presentation of the wines.

Some time ago, it would have been almost a mean expedition to cross the rock massif of the "Calmont" from Bremm to Eller (or vice versa). Sheer insurmountable rocky heads, slate slopes, blackberry bushes and other thorny plants would have made it difficult to get ahead. Everything is different now.

After completion of the hiking path through the two communities of Eller and Bremm, as well as safeguarding of particularly difficult passages with galvanized ladders, handrails, tines and steps, walking through the Calmont is no longer a problem. Sturdy footwear, a head for heights and a normal physical condition are enough to venture into the mountain. The changeable path is occasionally sweaty and, as one can imagine, by no means comparable to the strolling paths of the Bertricher Kurpark. But you will be compensated richly by a magnificent panorama.

**Key words:** Sustainability, rationalization, terraced steep slopes, higher price, economically sustainable

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## Sustainability and Landscape Importance in vine growing: Evidence from a Survey of the Conegliano Valdobbiadene Prosecco Wineries

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### Abstract

The adoption of sustainable farming techniques in vine growing and wine making and the beauty of the rural landscape are key factors for the success and development of Conegliano Valdobbiadene Prosecco DOCG area, where heroic viticulture plays an important role. This paper offers an overview of both the producers' attitude and the undertaken actions in this field, thanks to a survey based on 161 personal interviews in the sparkling wine bottling plants, relying upon an *ad hoc* questionnaire.

Results show wine or noteworthy shares of wineries that have undertaken interventions aimed at the conservation and recovery of environmental landscape heritage assets, in particular waterways, buildings and new plantations of trees and hedges. Likewise, they considerably have invested in renewable energy resources, which satisfy a sizable amount of the electricity needed in the production process. In the vineyard some practices such as the adoption of integrated pest management, the re-use of wine making by-products for fertilization, the use of pruning waste to increase the soil organic matter and the adoption of wooden posts in new vineyards are widespread. Commitment to sustainability in the cellar regards especially in the use of the cellar-water for fertilizing purposes followed by the development of eco-sustainable packaging. In addition, several types of eco-certifications accompany all these actions. The consideration of the landscape as a key factor in the area and sparkling wine's enhancement relate to 86% of the wineries, while 88% of them support the application for including the hilly area within the UNESCO World Heritage. In this contest, heroic viticulture seems to be closely linked to sustainability and landscape practices, given that wineries with the highest rates show a significant higher involvement in many of these actions.

The final picture is a production system widely focused in achieving sustainability targets and aware of the role the UNESCO recognition will bring to the development of both the wineries and the local socio-economic system.

### 1. Introduction.

The study we present originates from two simple evidences relating to the production area of the Conegliano Valdobbiadene Prosecco (CVP) DOCG<sup>1</sup>, namely the Prosecco historical heartland. First, a remarkable area roughly around 1.500 hectares within the CVP DOCG District boundaries can fit the steepness requirement for being considered a land where heroic viticulture takes place. Second, a relevant number of wineries belonging to the District is aware of the commitment towards a sustainable development, despite their small average size (Boatto, Dal Bianco, & Barisan, 2014). How both the evidences are matching together is the question our research tries to deal with.

These wine producers have decided to accept the challenge of competitiveness in terms of innovation for the environment in recent years. In order to support the efforts in this direction, the Tutelary Consortium has developed and disseminated a virtuous system of Advanced Integrated Pest Management (Vineyard Protocol) and has promoted a study on plant biodiversity in the hills and on interactions between biodiversity and the vineyard-based rural system. The adoption of sustainable techniques applied to the vineyards affect animal and plant populations of neighbouring meadows and forests, functioning as real ecosystem services, which help to mitigate the impact of natural phenomena on global scale, such as climate change or natural disasters (e.g. torrential rains, etc.).

<sup>1</sup> DOCG is the acronym for Denominazione di Origine Controllata e Garantita, i.e. Controlled and Guaranteed Designation of Origin.

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With reference to the issue of sustainability, a survey was conducted to detect the degree of involvement of the various sparkling wine enterprises in the adoption of sustainable production techniques, considering both environmental and landscape elements. The effects of the sustainable practices we have investigated involve many aspects, from the improvement of the relationship with local communities up to their contribution to the mitigation of climate change effects and the development of wine tourism thanks to the maintenance and improvement of landscape. Moreover, we point our focus on wineries producing the Rive CVP, whose vineyard are “heroically” managed more than the others are (Galletto, Barisan & Boatto, 2017), in order to verify if they are more sustainability/landscape-oriented.

This task is also pursued by other heroic viticultural areas and internationally renowned wine regions similar to the CVP DOCG District, which have paid increasing attention to landscape sustainability at several levels, from the vineyard to the vinery, to the market and beyond them (Gabzdyllova, Raffensperger, & Castka, 2009; International Organisation of Vine and Wine, 2011; Lubell, Hillis, & Hoffman, 2011).

## 2. Methodology and data collection

The analysis was carried out in 2016 on a survey sample accounting for 70% of the total Sparkling CVP DOCG supply and 74% of Rive DOCG bottled sales, and representing 89% of total sparkling wine companies.

From a structure production point of view, data were collected from small and medium-size wineries to the big and very-large companies. The stratification in business clusters has been drawn on the basis of the total number of bottles sold annually (standard = 0.75 L). Hence, the dataset was divided into four business size: i) small units (less than 150,000 bottles sold), ii) medium-sized ones (150,000-500,000), iii) large companies (500,001-1,000,000), iv) very large companies (more than 1,000,000)<sup>2</sup>.

Our investigation on CVP producers' attitude towards sustainability and landscape preservation and the actions they have thereafter undertaken is based on 161 personal interviews performed at each winery, by means of an *ad hoc* questionnaire. More in detail, the questionnaire has considered the theoretical framework referred to the overlap and linkage between 'environmental sustainability and the socio-economic sustainability' (Bonn & Fisher, 2011; Daly, 2014). In order to develop elements of environmental sustainability referred to Prosecco DOCG wineries' planning practice a conceptual approach was applied. Along vine and wine supply chains, CVP producers' behaviours aiming at landscape preservation were analysed considering both environmentally sustainable practices and perceived success of selected issues linked to socio-economic and environmental sustainability policies. First, the environmentally sustainable practices have taken into account some of the mostly relevant issues related to heroic viticulture: quality product practices linked to grapes and wines production, landscape practices linked to landscape quality; biodiversity and practices linked to vineyard production; sustainable recycling practices linked to vineyard production and soil fertility and winery sustainability practices linked to wine production. Second, the perceptions of the landscape and UNESCO's application importance, the sustainability and the carbon footprint certifications relevancies attached by the winery producers are considered as proxies of nature value, in terms of inheritance for posterity, when market development was surveyed (Antrop, 2000; Rolston, 1994).

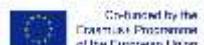
Our investigation was undertaken in two steps. First, we evaluated the winery sample as a whole by a general descriptive analysis of the variables; then we split the sample into two sub-samples: the first including wineries producing the Rive CVP sparkling wine, and the second containing all the other companies, which did not produce it. This allowed us to test for each variables whether CVP producers practicing the heroic viticulture were significantly more involved toward sustainability and landscape preservation than the other CVP producers. According to the type of the variable, t-test for differences between means or Pearson chi-squared test for contingency tables were applied to our sub-samples.

<sup>2</sup> The CVP bottling structure relies on two fully integrated supply chains: where the same business unit (i.e. wine growers and cooperatives) realizes all three production phases (from grapes growing to wine bottling), and two non-integrated production chains, where the three production phases are not fully integrated (i.e. transformers bottlers and plain bottlers) (Pomarici, Barisan, Boatto, & Galletto, 2016).

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### 3. Research findings

#### 3.1. Involvement in sustainability practices: the whole sample

The Vineyard Protocol defined by the Tutelary Consortium of the CVP DOCG, which is the sparkling wine District tool for promoting the Advanced Integrated Pest Management, accounts for 84% of Prosecco DOCG's wine production. However some companies are involved on other sustainable certified practices: a not negligible group follows the principles of Integrated Pest Management (13%); a fairly less number follows the biodynamic organic production paradigms and sustainability protocols (3%) (Bernabéu, Brugarolas, Martínez- Carrasco, & Díaz, 2008; Boatto et al., 2014). Moreover, we have detected a significant commitment in adopting eco-certifications (12% of the wineries). About 3% of the companies have adopted environmental management standards that conform to ISO 14001, which confirms to be as the most widespread environmental certified standard. However, other sustainable standards relating to the environment are spreading over the territory, such as the Biodiversity friend (Carbon Footprint for Greenhouse Gas Reduction), ISO 50001 (Energy Management System), EMAS (Eco-Management and Audit Scheme), EPD-EPD (Environmental Product Declaration), ISO 14040 (Product Life Cycle Assessment), Water Footprint (WF) and other ecological certifications. Moreover, one must also consider the quality certifications ISO 9000 (Quality Management System), which reached 13% of the total both towards the standards of food safety and quality processes and the products recognized by international agro-foods standards like BRC (British Retail Consortium) and IFS (International Food Standards), respectively equal to 9% and 10% of sparkling wine companies. Finally, 5% of the DOCG wineries uses other certifications to ensure customers foods security and quality standards (Forbes, Cohen, Cullen, Wratten, & Fountain, 2009; Point, Tyedmers, & Naugler, 2012).

The majority of sparkling companies with DOCG vineyards (82) were committed to viticultural heritage preservation and environmental and landscape heritage recovery in 2016. In particular, interventions on soil and hydraulic-agricultural organizational systems were the most undertaken (69 units). These results were accompanied by interventions on architectural heritage aiming at the preservation and the restoration of traditional vernacular architecture (36% of wineries in 2016 – Chart 1).

In the context of vineyard arrangements, special relevance was devoted to the wine growers' vine-posts choices, which affect both vineyard aesthetics and their economical duration. Results have showed preferred options for wooden posts and corten posts. However, as regard to the wooden posts, 67% winery representatives have stated a positive feedback, with a degree of appreciation between successful and very successful, while pre-stressed concrete posts showed significantly lower uses (47%).

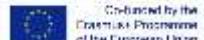
With regard to ecosystems and biodiversity characteristics, of particular interest is the planting of new formations of trees and shrubby essences (close to the vineyards) in order to enrich landscape and ecosystem biodiversity. Among these goals, around 20% of vine growers were involved in planting new hedgerows (hornbeam, dogwood, hazel, elderberry, etc.), aiming at improving the landscape protection levels without harming the useful fauna.

More and more companies have been involved in vineyards recycling methods achieving approximately 81% of the sparkling companies with DOCG vineyards (equal to 108 in 2016 – Chart 2). Among these, 73% reuse by-products of winemaking (stalks, marc, lees, etc.), with the goal of improving soil fertility, thus contributing to the maintenance of its peculiar structure. About pruning residues, they are mainly composted in the vineyard (66% of cases). In addition, vines shoots are also used for energy purposes in 12% of cases.

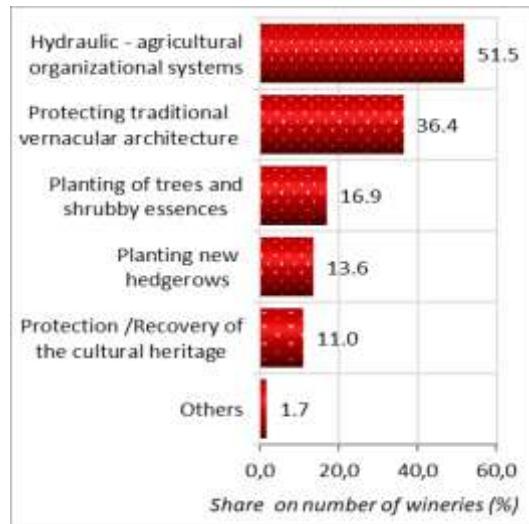
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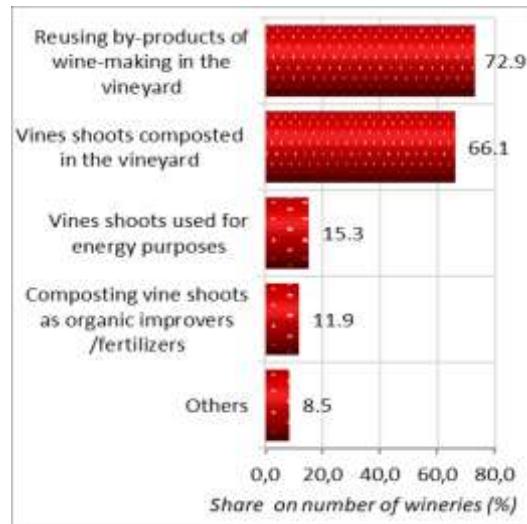
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**Chart 1 – Conegliano Valdobbiadene Prosecco DOCG: practices on vineyards linked to landscape sustainability and biodiversity, 2016.**



**Chart 2 – Conegliano Valdobbiadene Prosecco DOCG: practices on vineyards linked to the sustainable production and soil fertility, 2016.**

Coming to renewable energies, there was a strong growth of investments in 2016, encompassing 84 wineries. Most of the investments rely on their contribution to the contrast of global warming, by the installation of photovoltaic systems, in 75 wineries. In addition, new biomass power plants (e.g. using vine shoots, etc.) are quite important too. Investments in other renewable energy sources (including for example those in hydroelectric power, solar heating, etc.) have prevented companies pouring into the atmosphere a few thousand tons of carbon dioxide, by generating about 25% of the electricity needed in the production process (Fetzer Vineyards, 2016).

With reference to the sustainability of the wine-making process, more and more businesses stated to be engaged on this front, reaching 130 companies (equal to 72% of the total). Commitments on innovative solutions aimed at the development of a sustainable packaging involved 44 DOCG companies (equal to 24% of DOCG wine production). In particular, by weighting DOCG production in the bottle, the main outcomes are the following:

- 73% of the wine is packed with lightweight glass and/or recycled glass, etc.;
- 36% of wineries have used closure with capsules with water-based paints and others sustainable solutions;
- 22% of companies use tiny labels produced using FSC paper and others green solutions;
- 48% have adopted biodegradable and/or lighter and/or less bulky packaging, etc. (Delmas, Doctori-Blass, & Shuster, 2008).

Like other heroic viticulture areas, the beautiful scenery of the CVP DOCG represents relevant heritage values, which play a key role as driver in the development of local viticulture. Indeed, compared to other Italian and international wine-growing areas, hogbacks are culturally distinctive elements of CVP DOCG viticulture, which historically has shaped the CVP hills, determining additional cultural, social and economic core values for the landscape. Therefore, being a distinguishing feature of the area, its sustainable and qualitative development represents a strategic issue in wine marketing and tourism. In this perspective, territorial promotion bodies, both public and private are aiming at promoting and safeguarding the CVP landscape. Institutional attention to the theme of landscape is widely accepted by companies: indeed, our survey showed that 97% of winery producers, with judgement ranging from successful (83%) to very successful (14%), have confirmed that landscape is a key factor in enhancing CVP's cultural heritage and in sustaining Prosecco DOCG production (Chart 3). Similarly, CVP application as UNESCO World Heritage site is considered very successful by Prosecco DOCG producers as highlighted by the high degree of consensus (around 88% of wineries), with a judgement ranging from successful to very successful.

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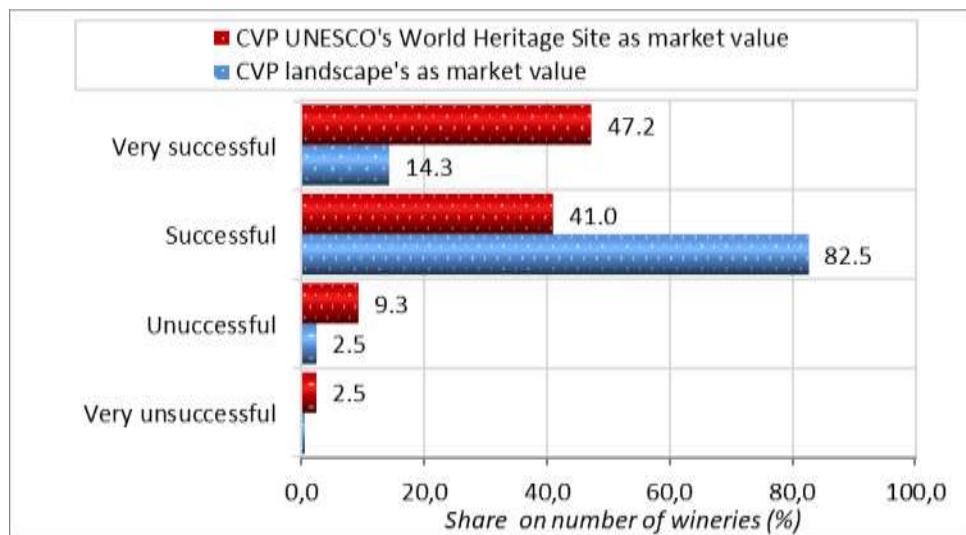


Chart 3 – Conegliano Valdobbiadene Prosecco DOCG: perceived success of selected landscape sustainability policies, 2016.

### 3.2 Wineries' involvement in sustainability: the heroic viticulture sub-sample

According to our tests of hypothesis described in the methodology, tables 1 and 2 illustrate the results of the comparison between Rive and No-Rive producers for the main variables investigated in the survey. More specifically, though the Rive group's shares for process certification practices are higher for all the kind of programs, they do not appear significantly different from those of the other group. Only the frequency of the environmental certification program exhibits a somewhat significant value for the Rive wineries. This fact seems not too surprising, considering that pressure for adopting IPM is widespread among all the wineries belonging to the District of the CVP DOCG. For landscape practices, we detect significant or very significant differences for the number of interventions on both vineyard organizational system and local vernacular architecture, namely for interventions than more than others are quite important from a wine tourism point of view, to which the Rive producers are rather sensitive (Galletto, Barisan, Rossetto, & Boatto, 2017). Likewise, they markedly emerge for biodiversity and practices linked to vineyard production and landscape quality and particularly for activities that deserve a specific planting effort, while no significant difference with regard to the woodland hectares, although they appear on average 72% higher than those of the No-Rive producers. Indeed, this surface is more related to the *de facto* conditions of the farm's lots rather than to the vine grower's decisions of planting it with trees.

While no particular difference between the two groups concerns the recycling of raw materials linked to vineyard production and soil fertility the heroic producers dominate for the adoption of sustainable practices in wine making, and particularly for using larger shares both of light bottle and eco-friendly packaging. This implies a bigger attention also to the CFP of their wines once they leave the winery.

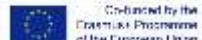
Perceived success of some socio-economic and environmental sustainability policies show a diversified outcome. While the opinion on sustainability certification is well evaluated in both the groups, the effect of CFP certification seems more – though not significantly – appreciated by “heroic producers”. However, their expectations of success on the market are noticeably higher in comparison with those of the No-Rive producers for both landscape conservation and the UNESCO World Heritage application.

In general, previous outcomes indicate that the Rive heroic producers' involvement in sustainability is equal or larger than that of other CVP DOCG producers, broadly confirming our work hypothesis.

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#### 4. Conclusions

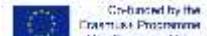
At the end of our analysis, let us draw the following final comments:

- CVP DOCG wineries are in general quite involved in pursuing sustainability of their productive process in a broad sense, which include also landscape conservation and improvement. In particular, they focus on key sustainability drivers along CVP supply chain, from grape production to winemaking process and beyond, as even demonstrated by perceived importance devoted to preservation and valuing of CVP cultural and District assets. This fact confirms previous research results on CVP wine District sustainability (Barisan, Boatto, Pomarici, & Vecchio, 2016).
- In particular, companies' landscape management play a key role on many territorial elements: from the preservation of viticultural and cultural heritage to achieving authenticity of wines, to the relationship with local communities up to contributing to the mitigation of climate change effects
- Heroic viticulture implies more attention and more involvement in sustainability and landscape issues, as the wineries producing the Rive sparkling wine demonstrate. Hence, our survey supports a vision where heroic viticulture practices could be considered a kind of win-win strategy, given the nature of its landscape joined with human capital (Beckmann, Hielscher, & Pies, 2014; Galletto, Pomarici, Boatto, & Barisan, 2016), that combines levels of environmental sustainability and product performance (Galletto, Barisan, & Boatto, 2017; MacMillan & McGrath, 1997), while playing down the incompatibilities between goals.
- The relationship between CVP heroic viticulture and UNESCO recognition is of importance within the frame of the so-called "nature value", where landscape sustainability represents a legacy for posterity (Antrop, 2000; Pereira Roders & van Oers, 2011; Rolston, 1994). Therefore, although the success of the UNESCO World Heritage application for the hills of CVP DOCG may represent an element of major importance for the development of all the enterprises in the District, it would be particularly relevant to those who "cultivate the vines heroically".
- The Tutelary Consortium can have a crucial role in communicating the additional values of the "Rive" brand as market advantage of the local heroic viticulture, wherever UNESCO recognition could have positive side-effects even for the CVP DOCG as a whole.

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*Tab. 1 - Differences in vineyard and wineries sustainable practices: comparing Conegliano Valdobbiadene Prosecco DOCG's companies with (1) and without (2) wines from heroic viticulture, 2016.*

	Rive DOCG (1) (mean)	Sparkling DOCG (2) (mean)	Difference (mean) p-value	t-test
<b>Quality product practices linked to grapes and wines production:</b>				
“Protocollo Viticolo” - Advanced IPM program (% of own DOCG production)	74.87	71.76	3.109	0.399
Certified Sustainable Winegrowing program (% of own DOCG production)	5.410	2.582	2.828	0.736
Integrated Pest Management program - IPM (% of own DOCG production)	14.59	10.90	3.688	0.615
Environmental Certification programs (number)	0.333	0.057	0.276*	1.824
<b>Landscape practices linked to landscape quality:</b>				
Interventions on vineyard organizational system (number)	0.590	0.311	0.278***	3.084
Interventions on local vernacular architecture (number)	0.436	0.213	0.223**	2.513
On-site interventions protecting cultural heritage (number)	0.103	0.074	0.029	0.527
Permanent grassing over linked to soil cultivation (% of Prosecco DOCG area)	47.88	56.15	-8.263	-0.981
Wooden posts (% of Prosecco DOCG area under vines)	3.128	3.008	0.120	0.315
Pre-stressed concrete posts (% of Prosecco DOCG area)	1.795	2.008	-0.213	-0.770
<b>Biodiversity and practices linked to vineyard production and landscape quality:</b>				
Wood (hectares)	2.847	1.653	1.194	0.985
Planting of hedgerows and afforestation (number of interventions)	0.256	0.049	0.207***	2.819
Planting of new tree groups (number of interventions)	0.256	0.082	0.174**	2.323
<b>Sustainable recycling practices linked to vineyard production and soil fertility:</b>				
Recycling grape marc for energy purposes (% of Prosecco DOCG area)	40.08	53.24	-13.16	-1.472
Composting pieces of vine shoot (% of Prosecco DOCG area)	2.051	7.131	-5.080*	-1.926
Recycling pieces of vine shoots for energy purposes (% of Prosecco DOCG area)	11.28	6.861	4.421	0.877
<b>Winery sustainability practices linked to wine production:</b>				
Use of renewable energy sources (yes-no question)	0.462	0.426	0.035	0.382
Eco-friendly bottles (% of production bottled)	43.97	13.03	30.94***	3.808
Eco-friendly capsule (% of production bottled)	10.26	8.361	1.896	0.365
Eco-friendly labels (% of production bottled)	17.69	6.639	11.05*	1.716
Eco-friendly packaging (% of production bottled)	28.46	12.16	16.31**	2.123
Observations		161		

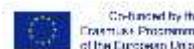
Level of significance: \* p<0.10, \*\* p<0.05, \*\*\* p<0.01.

Source: data processing CIRVE, Conegliano, 2018.

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Tab. 2 - Perceived success of some socio - economic and environmental sustainability policies: comparing Conegliano Valdobbiadene Prosecco DOCG's companies with (1) and without (2) wines from heroic viticulture (percentage of sparkling wine companies for each category of success and test  $\chi^2$ ), 2016.

	Very unsuccessful		Somewhat unsuccessful		Successful		Very successful		Pearson's chi-squared p-value
	Rive DOCG (1)	Sparkling DOCG (2)	Rive DOCG (1)	Sparkling DOCG (2)	Rive DOCG (1)	Sparkling DOCG (2)	Rive DOCG (1)	Sparkling DOCG (2)	
<b>Prosecco DOCG landscape conservation</b>	2.6	0.0	0.0	2.5	12.8	29.5	84.6	68.0	8.447**
<b>UNESCO World Heritage application</b>	0.0	3.3	5.1	10.7	28.2	45.1	66.7	41.0	8.431**
<b>Sustainability certification</b>	0.0	1.6	15.5	17.2	69.2	63.9	15.4	17.2	0.884
<b>Carbon Footprint certification</b>	0.0	3.3	25.6	38.5	71.8	52.5	2.6	5.7	5.197
Observations	161								

Level of significance: \* p<0.10, \*\* p<0.05, \*\*\* p<0.01.

Source: data processing CIRVE, Conegliano, 2018.

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## Evaluation of vulnerability to cavitation in grapevine to support strategies for climate change adaptation

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**Keywords:** *Vitis vinifera* L., cavitation, climate change.

### Introduction

Climate models project a temperature rise and precipitation decrease in Portugal, with negative impacts on grapevine growth and development. Therefore, reduced soil water availability and increased leaf transpiration can enhance xylem cavitation, reducing hydraulic conductivity and productivity.

### Methods

We studied the susceptibility to cavitation of ‘Touriga-Franca’ and ‘Touriga-Nacional’ grapevine varieties grafted onto 110 Richter and 1103 Paulsen rootstocks and planted in the Douro Demarcated Region. Vulnerability curves were generated using the air injection technique, by measuring the percent loss of hydraulic conductivity at successively more negative xylem water potentials.

### Results and Conclusions

Regardless of the rootstock, ‘Touriga-Franca’ showed a higher resistance to cavitation than ‘Touriga-Nacional’, while both varieties had greater susceptibility when grafted onto 110 R. Furthermore, morphological and physiological studies are being carried out, pursuing a better understanding of the susceptibility to cavitation of different variety/rootstock combinations, in order to outline viticulture adaptation strategies for facing climate change.

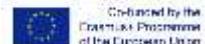
### Acknowledgements:

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## Rationalization of working time and economy of steep slope vineyard management: long term monitoring in the Candia area (Tuscany, Italy)

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### Abstract

The Territory of the Candia (Tuscany, Italy) is characterized by hills with high slope and low stability.

Over time the work of man has contributed to building a unique landscape with terraced vineyards, difficult to mechanize for the small size. In these conditions the management costs are becoming particularly high, with the risk of a progressive abandonment of the vineyards and the consequent increase in landslides and erosion already present in the abandoned areas.

For a period of 23 years (from 1995 to 2017) all working times were recorded for the different cultivation operations and various alternatives were periodically introduced in order to reduce time and cost, with particular attention to overall sustainability.

The introduction of connected terraces with mini tractors and other mechanical tools, combined with various operational choices in soil and vines management, has led in recent years to substantial reductions in working time, from over 800 hours/ha to about 400, equal to 50% compared to initial period.

The recent diffusion of precision agriculture technologies, and in particular of the forecast models of diseases and remote piloted aerial systems, opens up new opportunities not only for monitoring the vegetative state of plants, but also for the management of some cultivation interventions, including in particular those related to the pest management, while at the same time reducing environmental impact.

### Introduction

The Apuan hills lie in the province of Massa Carrara, in the northerly part of Tuscany (Italy). The territory of the DOC "Candia dei colli Apuani" consists of a series of hills with high slope (up to 45%) and low stability, and is characterized by the so-called "heroic" viticulture (Storchi, 1994; Lorieri, 2008).

The total area of production is nearly 1.500 ha, but only 400 ha are currently planted to vines and forests occupy the largest part of the remaining territory.

The grapevine, upon these steep terraced slopes, has always been cultivated with high working costs. In fact, the narrowness of the terraces and the steepness of the slopes preclude the use of standard machines.

Over time the man's work has contributed to the building of a unique landscape, characterized by numerous terraced vineyards, that at the same resulting difficult to mechanize for the small size of the terraces. In these conditions the management costs are becoming particularly high (up to 10 times higher than normal low hill vineyards), with the risk of a progressive abandonment of the vineyards and the consequent increase in landslides and erosion issues already present in the abandoned areas.

Terraces are today increasingly vulnerable systems and the slope instability is very common in steep terrains cultivated with vineyards.

The abandonment processes, linked in large part to the difficulties of cultivation, often faced with a high average age of farmers and low remuneration, are causing serious problems. Among the emerging issues there is the gradual depletion of professional resources and skills which are not limited just to agriculture but involve the ability to control, conserve and improve these notoriously difficult areas.

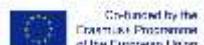
On the one hand there is the abandonment of cultivable areas which is followed by the settling uncontrolled forest, with negative effects on the traditional landscape, on the other the absence of maintenance of the terracing compromises the entire stability of the slope, which becomes a danger to public safety.

Since the 1998 with the project Candia which investigated on the mechanization problems of terraced and strong declivity zones to the more recently crossboards Mars+ the MARS+ project starting from an analysis

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of the evident challenges in these steep slopes territories where viticulture and olive growing are widely diffused has set out a framework to transfer technological innovation in order to facilitate the process of mechanization and more generally to increase the enterprise' innovation level in these marginal areas (Tirò et al., 2013). Steep slope viticulture is endangered in his existence due to high management costs. In order to improve the chances of mechanisation in steep slope sites we investigated the critically and opportunities of cross-terraced viticulture.

## Methods

The survey was conducted at the Scurtarola farm (lat. 44°05'12", long. 10°10'85") that consists of 5 Hectares, entirely terraced, with up to 80% slopes, that often suffer from landslides (Fig. 1).

The territory is characterized by a high slope and reduced depth of the cultivable layer and the soil has a high content of sand, equal to 63%.

The vineyards were cultivated with the cv "Vermentino bianco" and the vines were trained to vertical trellis, on terraces. These were positioned perpendicular to the slope lines with a variable inter row distance ranging from 0,8 to a maximum 2 m, and an height 0.5 to 0.8 m among the terraces, which were linked each others.

From 1994 until 1997 Scurtarola Farm, Florence University and Regional Agricultural Development Agency of Tuscany started the project of the new technological solutions for mechanization and management of vineyards (Chiostri e Vieri, 1997). Thus the possible introduction of mechanization had the aim of greatly increasing the work capacity and quality so as to optimise all operations. Other objective which was by no means less important, was to use small, inexpensive machines (Giovannetti et al., 1997). The idea was about building a machine that could work in the terraces without deeply changing their structure. Thus the project included the creation of a new kind of path that connects the different floors of all the terraces and to remove steps (Giovannetti et al., 1998).



Fig. 1 - The territory of the DOC "Candia dei Colli Apuani".

After a trial period Scurtarola started to change the structure of its terraces, modifying also all management costs. In particular, since 2002, changes have been introduced to most part the terraces creating connections between the different floors. In order to understand critically and opportunities of cross-terraced viticulture

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for a period of 23 years (from 1995 to 2017) all working times were annually recorded for the different cultivation operations and various alternatives were periodically introduced in order to reduce time and cost, with particular attention to overall sustainability.

## Results and Conclusions

The object of the study were the terraced landscapes that characterize the landscape of “Candia dei Colli Apuani”. These landscapes have historically been linked to the cultivation of vines but today they are affected by all the problems that threaten their maintenance in the near future.

The study aimed to preserve this typical landscape.

Historically, the vineyards of Candia are extremely fragmented among many owners and the only passage between a terrace and the other takes place through steps carved into the ground between neighboring vineyards. The cultivation operations were therefore carried out largely by hand or where possible with the help of small motorized vehicles.

Until 1985 the grass was cut with a scythe by hands and soil was prepared by a spade. Because of this handwork there were request a lot of working-hours, more specifically Scurtarola spent up to 1500 hours/ha. Since 1986 they started mowing with the help of small shoulder mower reducing the total hour of work per ha to 1300. In 1994 Scurtarola stopped the soil tillage, reducing again the hours of work, arriving to a total of 1000 hours per ha. The innovations introduced are shown in tab. 1. In particular, since 1997, soil processing has been replaced by the weed control with herbicide under row and natural grass cover of the inter-row. The greatest innovation, however, occurred in 2002-2003 with the realization of the connected that allowed the passage of small machines operating between one row and another. For this reason, in this years the costs have increased, and then dropped considerably to half.

Tab. 1 – Main innovations introduced in the management of vineyards.

Year	Innovation
1997	Herbicide under row, natural grass cover inter-row
2002-2007	Connected terraces and mechanization
2011	Decision Support System for pest management
2013	Starting trial period spur pruning
2015	Extension of spur pruning all over the terraces

The changes introduced starting from 2002 with the new connected-level units have allowed to increase the mechanization of some cultivation operations, through the use of machines (Figg. 2-3).

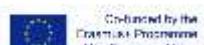
The introduction of connected terraces with mini-tractors and other mechanical tools, combined with various operational choices in soil and vines management, has led in recent years to substantial reductions in working time, from over 800 hours/ha to about 400, equal to 50% compared to initial period (Fig. 4 and Tab. 2).

Further reductions in working hours were more recently obtained by changing the pruning system and using the Decision Support System to reduce the number of treatments for pest management, maintaining a suitable health status of the plants. The amount of work, the strain and the cost of work are the essential problems in steep vineyards. To lower the cost by mechanization is the most important aims we have to go for. This implies that production activities in combination with land conservation, may be sustainable if organization systems (starting from the plants layout design) and implements which will compensate for the shorter time available, the more limited manual skill and the lack of physical training will be taken at large scales. Only with appropriate technology level it will be possible to improve the field capacity, which is an imperative condition in order to perform timely working stages from both professional and to part-time workers (the main representative Candia's farmer) with the necessary speed for example to take action against parasites. Terraced landscapes are a very important legacy of the past, an expression of the know-how of a community, such as that of Candia, which has made entire production and unique slopes of their kind. This cultural and productive heritage is also endowed with a strong communicative, historical and social value (Lombardo et al., 2018).

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*Fig. 2 - Manual transport of grapes to harvest, with high operating times.*



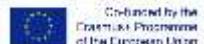
*Fig. 3 – The construction of connected terraces has allowed a considerable reduction in working time, with the possibility of considerably increasing mechanization.*

New digital and technological perspectives are developing to overcome the structural difficulties of these heroically vineyards. The recent diffusion of precision agriculture technologies, and in particular of the decision support systems for the forecast models of diseases, and remote piloted aerial systems, opens up new opportunities not only for monitoring the vegetative state of plants, but also for the management of some cultivation interventions, including in particular those related to phytosanitary defense, while at the same time reducing environmental impact.

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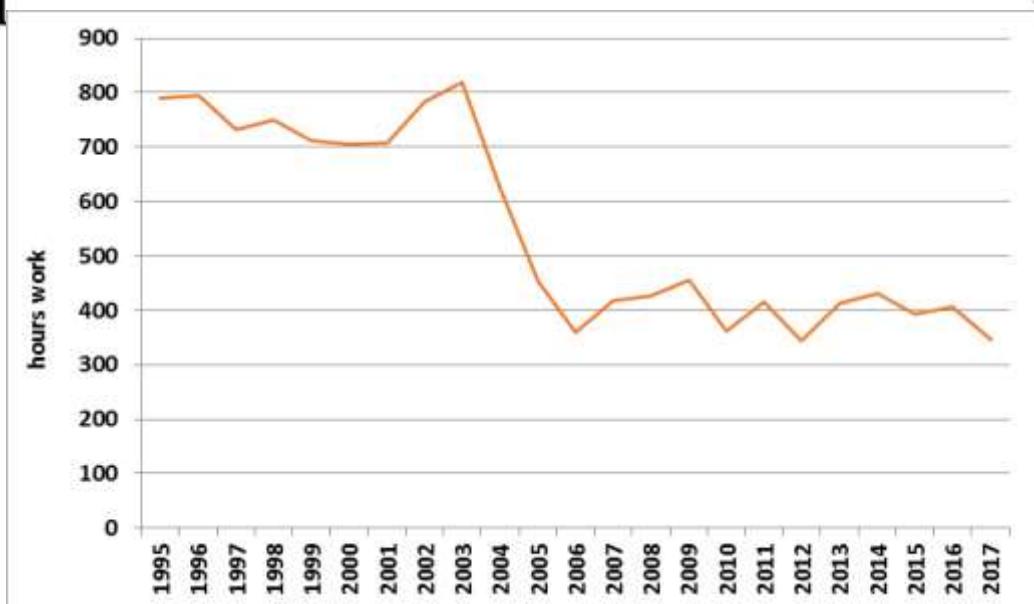


Fig. 4: Total hours of work for ha of vineyard, in each year.

Tab. 2: Detail of working hours/ha, divided by the main vineyard cultivation operations.

Year	soil management	summer pruning	winter pruning	terrace management	pest management	harvest	general works	Total hours of work
1995	179	120	121	110	109	106	45	790
1996	170	125	84	80	148	143	45	795
1997	197	86	113	78	84	129	45	732
1998	168	96	100	106	119	114	45	749
1999	170	83	99	78	99	137	45	711
2000	165	118	99	70	90	118	45	705
2001	158	124	82	110	72	116	45	708
2002	145	121	90	174	118	90	45	784
2003	146	120	102	250	84	77	40	820
2004	111	75	88	169	80	71	35	628
2005	136	81	75	10	58	59	35	454
2006	107	37	60	10	50	70	25	359
2007	170	36	57	12	57	63	25	419
2008	146	68	55	17	54	62	25	427
2009	109	56	79	31	101	55	25	455
2010	110	44	66	9	52	58	25	363
2011	127	55	50	26	76	57	25	416
2012	115	39	51	25	48	60	25	343
2013	143	63	52	23	40	68	25	414
2014	138	65	55	54	32	62	25	430
2015	142	57	49	22	28	69	25	393
2016	146	45	45	51	29	66	25	407
2017	138	47	40	14	23	59	25	346

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## SEXTO CONGRESO INTERNACIONAL SOBRE VITICULTURA DE MONTAÑA Y EN FUERTE PENDIENTE

SIXTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON MOUNTAIN  
AND STEEP SLOPE VITICULTURE

### SESIÓN III

### SESSION III

**La enología en la valorización de las viticulturas heroicas**

*Oenology practices for heroic viticulture valorisation*

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## Comparison between the oenological performance of two ‘Vitis vinifera’ grape varieties in distinct harsh sites: Is wine caste preponderant for stress resistance?

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Global warming may influence vineyard locations, due to the impacts of summer stress in several grape varieties. Therefore, several mitigation measures, to maintain the viability of vine in the historical producer countries, have been presently assessed, such as the usage of distinct varieties and kaolin foliar application. In this sense, two grapevine varieties ‘Touriga Nacional’ and ‘Touriga Franca’ were evaluated in distinct wine-growing regions (*Douro* and *Alentejo*), the first site at a steep slope, and the second in flat land, with the effects of kaolin application being also evaluated. Several berry qualitative attributes (total acidity, pH, tartaric acid and malic acids, and Brix°) were monitored, during the ripening process, to evaluate the performance of these varieties.

The major differences were observed for the organic acids, which follow different trends in the distinct grape varieties, and between both sites. Site and maturation stage represented the factors accounting for most of the significant differences observed between parameters, while those observed for kaolin application, tentatively occurred due to the interaction of this variable with one of these factors. Concerning Brix°, this parameter has been observed to be correlated with malic acid, and to depend on site and variety, while the interaction between site and kaolin treatment does have a significant effect.

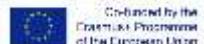
‘Touriga Franca’ displayed a stable performance, independently from the distinct factors, while for ‘Touriga Nacional’ a greater impact due to the kaolin application has been observed.

This work was funded by the R&D project INNOVINE&WINE – Vineyard and Wine Innovation Platform, NORTE-01-0145-FEDER-000038, co-funded by FEDER (Fundo Europeu de Desenvolvimento Regional) through the programme NORTE 2020 (Programa Operacional Regional do Norte 2014/2020).

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## Effect of early defoliation at flowering in cv. 'Folgasão' b (*Vitis Vinifera L.*) In Madeira island

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The 'Folgasão' grape variety (sin. 'Terrantez'), cultivated in Madeira Island, is a white and noble variety used in the production of Madeira Wine, creating high quality single-variety wines. 'Folgasão', due to its intrinsic characteristics and edaphoclimatic of the island, is very susceptible to powdery mildew and grey rot, making its cultivation extremely difficult.

In this work, we aimed to study the effects of early defoliation at flowering (EDF), and to verify the effects on yield and quality of grapes, of this grape variety, grafted in 99R, compared with a modality with classic defoliation, at veraison (DV), and a modality without any defoliation, as a comparison factor, representing the control (C). The three modalities, each one with 10 vines, were randomized applied in four blocks, in a total number of 120 vines.

It was verified through the obtained results, that the yield hasn't been affected by the treatments and no differences with statistical significance, had been found. However, at the level of the porosity of the canopy, the modality early defoliation, conducted to a more aerated canopy. In fact, early defoliation (EDF) promoted a lower compactness of the bunches and also a better microclimate of the canopy, and consequently, a reduction in the incidence of powdery mildew and grey rot.

With regard to musts quality, this study showed a very low tendency to higher sugar content in the defoliated modalities, but a lower total acidity, what can be disadvantageous, in the production of Madeira Wine.

It was concluded that the modality of early defoliation at flowering (EDF), in cv. 'Folgasão', conducted to better grapes quality, without significant reducing of yield. It also presented the advantage of reducing the necessity of phytosanitary treatments, thus appearing as an alternative to anti-rot and anti-powdery mildium phytosanitary treatments.

**Key-words:** *Vitis vinifera L.*, 'Folgasão', defoliation, yield, quality.

### 1. Introduction

The introduction of grapevines in the archipelago of Madeira dates from the first quarter of the 15<sup>th</sup> century, when the Portuguese settlement started. Since then the name of the island and of the wine were associated. The Madeira Demarcated Region (MDR), comprises Madeira and Porto Santo Islands, and grapevines represents approximately 500 ha. The white grape variety 'Folgasão' (sin. 'Terrantez'), is spite of representing only 0.4% of this area, about 2 ha, (IVBAM, 2017), gives origin to the finest, richest and rarest Madeira fortified wines that are awarded frequently in numerous national and international events.

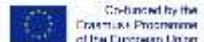
In spite of the excellent quality and appreciation of the wines produced with this grape variety, the very low yield, due to the cultural and agronomic difficulties ('Folgasão' is very susceptible to powdery mildew and gray rot), and also the challenges of orography and climate of the region, with mild temperatures and high relative humidity, makes difficult the cultivation and are constraints to the expansion of the variety. That way, all the contributions to improve the knowledge of this variety in order to increase the production and quality and to facilitate the work of the grape growers are always an added value.

Considering the effects of the microclimate, principally at bunches level, regarding the composition and quality of the wine, the study of "canopy management", especially defoliation, is according Carboneau, (2009), of particular importance. Having in mind the orographic characteristics of Madeira, and that mechanization is rarely possible, the importance of studies in which the strategy intends the application of "manual practices" gain greater importance.

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## 2. Materials and methods

In this work, we aimed to study the effects of two different modalities of defoliation, on yield and quality of grapes, of 'Folgasão', planted in 2005 and grafted in 99R.

The study was carried out in the parcel number 6 of "Experimental Field of Vineyards", attached to the Instituto do Vinho, do Bordado e do Artesanato da Madeira, I.P.-RAM (IVBAM, I.P.-RAM), located in the village of Estreito da Calheta, Calheta County, southwest of Madeira Island ( $32^{\circ} 44'05.34''N$   $17^{\circ}11'13.28''W$ ). This parcel is a clonal experimentation field of the 'Folgasão', with clones M3/10 and M3/4 (non-certified) and has a total area of 1.065m<sup>2</sup>. The planting compass used is 1.85 x 1.20 m, with a planting density of 2.574 plants/ha. The trellis consisted in a vertical shoot positioned, pruned Royat unilateral cordon, 23.8 buds/ vine. The rows of vines orientation are east – west.

The experimental design involved three different treatments: 1) "Control" (C), non-defoliated; 2) "Early Defoliation at Flowering" (EDF) – severe defoliation with hand removal of the first 7-8 basal, at the beginning of flowering, with removal of laterals located below the octave node; 3) "Defoliation at veraison" (DV), "classical defoliation", with removal of 3-5 leafs in order to increase the exposure of grapes, carried out at the end of veraison / beginning of maturation. Treatments were distributed in four randomized blocks, being each modality applied in one row. The number of experimental unities were 12, applied in 12 rows (4 blocks x 3 treatments), each one with 10 vines, and a total number of 120 vines.

The basal inflorescence of a shoot of a representative vine per experimental unity was marked and the number of flowers counted at stage H (Flowers separated) of Baggolini. Later, after fruit and before harvest, the number of berries of the same bunch were counted, and the rate of fruit set calculated.

The total leaf area per vine was assessed according the non-destructive methodology proposed by Lopes & Pinto, (2005), at three stages: the first before the application of EDF, the second immediately after EDF, in order to estimate the percentage of surface removed. The third measurement was made during the maturation period, after DV.

The Exposed Leaf Surface was determined at veraison using the method proposed by Smart & Robinson (1991). At the same time was performed the "Point Quadrat" as proposed by the same authors. In terms of evaluation of the phytosanitary status, the incidence of rot in the marked basal clusters, one per vine, were assessed at harvest, as indicated by Machado (2011), and the incidence of powdery mildew, adapting to this disease the same procedure, after the pea-sized, at the berry touch stage. The compactness of the bunch, was evaluated at harvest, following OIV Code No. 204, being at the same time registered the length of the bunch (cm), weight of bunch (g), number of berries, weight of berries (g), volume of berries (ml) and weight of rachis (g).

Evolution of maturation was carried on along the maturation period and at harvest, on September 4<sup>th</sup>, the components of yield (bunches and yield per vine), were recorded and a sample of grapes of each modality was collected to determine the parameters of grape composition (probable alcohol, titratable acidity and pH) following the procedures of OIV (1990).

For the statistical treatment of the data, was used the statistical software "IBM SPSS Statistics" Vers. 22. For all data were analyzed, with a confidence interval of 0.05 and their normality was studied. If the data presented a normal distribution, the conditions necessary to be applied to the parametric analysis "One-way ANOVA" - Test F were evaluated, that in case of significant differences, the Tukey HSD test was used. If parametric analysis could not be used, the non-parametric analysis of independent samples using the Kruskal-Wallis test was used.

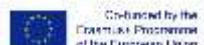
## 3. Results and discussion

The total leaf area, that at May 6<sup>th</sup> (stage H of Baggolini) was of 3.5 m<sup>2</sup> in C, 4.8 m<sup>2</sup> in DV and 5.3 m<sup>2</sup> in EDF, (Table 1) suffered a reduction of 36%, for 3.4 m<sup>2</sup> with the realization of the early defoliation EDF. However, at maturation, essentially due to the compensation occurred with the increasing of the lateral area, the total leaf area was similar in the treatments, showing even a tendency for higher values in the modality severely defoliated EDF. These results are concordant with the presented by Queiroz *et al.* (2015), or Intrieri *et al.* (2008).

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Table 1. Effect of defoliation on the leaf area ( $m^2$ ) / vine. C – Control; DV – Defoliation at Veraison; EDF – Early Defoliation at Flowering - cv. ‘Folgasão’, 2017.

Treatment	Leaf area before and after defoliation ( $m^2$ ) (May 6 <sup>th</sup> )				Leaf area at middle of maturation ( $m^2$ ) (August 12 <sup>th</sup> )				
	Principal leaf area/ vine		Laterals leaf area/ vine		Total leaf area / vine		Principal leaf area/ vine	Laterals leaf area/ vine	Total leaf area / vine
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After			
C	3.1	3.1	0.4 a	0.4 a	3.5	3.5	4.3	3.7	8.0
DV	3.4	3.4	1.4 b	1.4 b	4.8	4.8	4.3	3.4	7.7
EDF	4.0	2.6	1.3 ab	0.8 ab	5.3	3.4	3.6	4.7	8.3
Sig. (I)	n.s	n.s	*	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

(1) Sig. - Level of significance by the F test; n.s. - not significant at the 0.05 level; \* - significant at 0.05 level. Means within columns designated by different letters are significantly different at  $p < 0.05$  (Tukey HSD test).

In terms of yield components, the percentage of budburst were of 107.8%, and no differences between modalities were found. The fertility was similar in all the treatments, with a potential fertility (number of bunches/shoot), very low, of only 0.46, what indicates the low yield potential of the grape variety ‘Folgasão’. The number of flowers per inflorescence was similar in all the modalities, as expected, but the number of berries per bunch is lower in the modality EDF, due to a more reduced percentage of fruit-set (Table2). However, the differences between modalities had not been statistically significant, as referred in a similar trial by Queiroz *et al.* (2015). Regarding the others yield factors, it is verified that the number of bunches per vine were not affected, as projected, but bunch weight was slightly reduced in the modality EDF compared with C and DV. The values for yield followed a similar tendency to the bunch weight, registering no differences between modalities.

Table 2. Yield components. C – Control; DV – Defoliation at Veraison; EDF – Early Defoliation at Flowering - cv. ‘Folgasão’, 2017.

Treatment	Flowers / Bunch	Berries/ Bunch	% Fruit-set	Bunches/vine	Bunch weight (g)	Yield/vine (Kg)
C	289.8	124.5	0.43	11.45	72.7	0.897
DV	226.5	115.8	0.51	12.05	78.5	0.930
EDF	219.8	83.5	0.38	12.05	69.8	0.877
Sig. (I)	n.s	n.s	n.s	n.s	n.s	n.s

(1) Sig. - Level of significance by the F test; n.s. - not significant at the 0.05 level;

The quality parameters, presented in table 3, shows that no differences between modalities were detected on probable alcohol content, or pH, as verified by Queiroz *et al.* (2015), Lopes *et. al.* (2014), Silva *et al.* (2014), but in contradiction with those of Intrieri *et al.* (2008) and Poni *et al.* (2006).

Table 3. Quality parameters. C – Control; DV – Defoliation at Veraison; EDF – Early Defoliation at Flowering - cv. ‘Folgasão’, 2017.

Treatment	Probable alcohol (%v/v)	Titratable acidity (g. tar. Aci./L)	pH
C	12.5	7.54 a	3.28
DV	13.1	7.32 a	3.31
EDF	12.7	6.37 b	3.30
Sig. (I)	n.s	*	n.s.

(1) Sig. - Level of significance by the F test; n.s. - not significant at the 0.05 level; \* - significant at 0.05 level. Means within columns designated by different letters are significantly different at  $p < 0.05$  (Tukey HSD test).

In terms of titratable acidity, an important factor for the aging of fortified wines of ‘Folgasão’, EDF, presented a lower value, what is contrary to the results found by Poni *et al.* (2006).

Referring the canopy density, assessed by the “Point Quadrat” method, the data presented in table 4 shows that the leaf layer number (LLN) is significantly lower in the modalities with leaf removal, principally in PATROCINIOS



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EDF. In effect the C modality presents a high value of LLN, and, consequently, the number of exposed bunches and the number of gaps is also much lower than in EDF, indicating a poor microclimate at the bunches level for that modality.

*Table 4. Canopy density assessment (Leaf Layer Number (LLN), % Exposed bunches, % of Gaps) and Bunch compactness, Rot incidence and Powdery mildew incidence. C – Control; DV – Defoliation at Veraison; EDF – Early Defoliation at Flowering - cv. 'Folgasão', 2017.*

Treatment	LLN	% Exposed bunches	% of Gaps	Bunch compactness (OIV 204)	Rot incidence (%)	Powdery mildew incidence (%)
C	3.4 a	23.5 a	1.6 a	7.30 a	1.49 a	0,4 ab
DV	2.0 b	26.8 a	2.6 ab	6.50 b	0.79 b	0,5 b
EDF	0.9 c	66.0 b	4.5 b	5.85 c	0.28 c	0,1 a
Sig. (I)	*	*	*	*	**	*

(1) Sig. - Level of significance by the F test; \*, \*\* - significant at the 0.05 and 0.01 level respectively; Means within columns designated by different letters are significantly different at  $p < 0.05\%$  (Tukey HSD test).

These poor microclimate, and the effect of EDF in reducing the bunch compactness had a significant impact in rot incidence results that are similar to the presented by Intrieri *et al.* (2008), Diago *et al.* (2009), Lopes *et al.* (2014) and Queiroz *et al.* (2015), and also in powdery mildew incidence.

#### 4. Conclusion

The objective of this work was to evaluate the effect of early defoliation on flowering in the 'Folgasão' variety on Madeira Island, on the components of yield and grape quality. The conclusions that can be drawn from the obtained results are:

- At the level of the leaf area, it was verified that the grapevines with treatment of EDF, responded positively to the defoliation at an early stage, balancing the photosynthetic capacity by producing more secondary leafs than the control treatment. That way, the photosynthetic capacity of the plant at veraison had already been restored;
- At the level of porosity of the canopy, we can conclude that the treatment EDF, produced a much better canopy microclimate, with a leaf layer number and of interior leafs, lower than the other treatments under study, thus benefiting in a reduced incidence of powdery mildew and rot, not only improving the quality of the grapes, but also reducing the need for phytosanitary treatments against those diseases;
- It was verified that at the level of the compactness of the bunches, the modality of EDF, presented a bunch less compact than the other modalities under study, having benefits of less hypothesis of occurrence of rot;
- At the production level, the three modalities were similar to each other;
- Considering that the type of wine for which 'Folgasão' is mostly vinified, where the acidity is highly valued for the quality, the lower acidity, even if with a small decrease, is a factor that can be detrimental in terms of quality.

In summary, the modality in study of EDF for the 'Folgasão' grape variety, showed an important effect and can be an important canopy management practice, in order to improve grapes health and reduce the pesticides application, principally in a region like Madeira Island, where rot and powdery mildew are aggressive diseases.

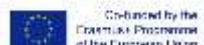
#### Acknowledgments

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## Estudio de los principales parámetros de maduración en vides de Tenerife

### Study of the main grape ripening measurements in Tenerife vines

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**Key words:** Tenerife vines, grape cultivar, ripening measurements.

#### 1. Introducción

La maduración de la uva se define como el periodo correspondiente al desarrollo del fruto, estimándose habitualmente la duración de dicho proceso entre 35 y 55 días en función de la variedad, el clima, las características del suelo y las técnicas de cultivo empleadas. Establecer la vendimia en función de la maduración de la uva es indispensable para obtener vinos de calidad. Por ello poseer índices y parámetros que permitan conocer el avance de este proceso natural es fundamental. No obstante la maduración de las bayas depende de varios factores, encontrándose entre ellos las cuestiones más intrínsecas y relacionadas con la naturaleza de la vid tales como la variedad, clon o portainjerto empleado así como los factores más exógenos o dependientes de influencias externas como la poda, el clima o la orientación entre otros. Por consiguiente las propiedades físico-químicas de los vinos resultantes se encuentran condicionadas por un gran número de factores de diferente peso específico. La presente comunicación expone los resultados de un estudio sobre la variación de los principales parámetros implicados en la maduración de la vid en diversas fincas de Tenerife durante los últimos cinco años; proporcionando una herramienta útil para conocer el potencial enológico de las variedades tradicionales de la Isla. Tenerife cuenta con unas características atípicas que han posibilitado una gran riqueza varietal, pues la gran mayoría de las vides fueron introducidas antes de que la filoxera arrasara los viñedos europeos y aún hoy se cultivan en gran proporción a pie franco, conservando por tanto un elevado grado de pureza.

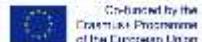
En el sur de Europa la maduración comienza generalmente a mediados de verano y finaliza a principios del otoño. El proceso de maduración comienza cuando finaliza el crecimiento de los pámpanos. Es en ese momento cuando el metabolismo de la vid inicia el proceso por el cual migran los azúcares hacia los órganos que hacen a la vez de almacén de reservas, esto es, los racimos y sarmientos. De esta manera la glucosa y la fructosa se van acumulando progresivamente en las bayas. Mientras que las primeras uvas, todavía verdes, contienen sobre todo glucosa, al final del envero el contenido en fructosa aumenta llegando a superar, en algunas variedades, al contenido de glucosa. Durante el crecimiento vegetativo las bayas verdes contienen multitud de ácidos orgánicos cuya concentración disminuye a medida que avanza la maduración. Conforme aumenta la temperatura en la época estival el calor produce una degradación respiratoria que se nutre de los diferentes ácidos de la planta. Por consiguiente cuanto más calor, más degradación y más pérdida de ácido málico y tartárico se produce. De esta manera el ácido málico de la baya se transforma progresivamente en azúcares. Al igual que en el caso de los azúcares, la cantidad final de acidez en las uvas varía en función de la interacción entre la variedad y el porta injerto, así como las características del medio. En general se considera que los veranos poco soleados, más propios de países del norte de Europa, favorecen una mayor acidez que los veranos secos y calurosos. Los coeficientes de maduración que relacionan la acidez y la concentración en azúcares son de los más usados para determinar el momento óptimo de maduración y el inicio de la vendimia.

Con respecto a los efectos de la maduración en el color de las uvas estas pasan progresivamente de tonalidades verdosas debidas a la gran cantidad de clorofila al color típico de cada una de las variedades, esto es, tonos amarillentos si la variedad es blanca y rojizos o morados si se trata de varietales tintos. Esto se debe a que a lo largo de todo este periodo la uva aumenta progresivamente su concentración en sustancias polifenólicas, sobre todo en taninos y antocianos, situándose la mayor parte de sustancias coloreadas en el hollejo de la vid. Además durante la maduración se forman la mayor parte de las sustancias aromáticas y

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gustativas que serán perceptibles posteriormente en el vino junto con los compuestos procedentes de la fermentación. Para una correcta maduración se considera importante que la diferencia de temperaturas entre el día y la noche sea amplia, es decir, días soleados pero no excesivamente calurosos y noches frescas (Robinson, 2015).

Los parámetros relacionados con la calidad de la uva permiten evaluar el potencial de vinificación de una variedad según su emplazamiento. La aptitud enológica se puede abordar mediante el análisis de diversos parámetros físicoquímicos obtenidos por muestreo como el peso del fruto, su pH, acidez total, grado alcohólico probable o contenido en azúcar, índice de polifenoles totales (IPT), taninos, parámetros de color, contenido en los principales ácidos orgánicos y madurez fenólica. La variedad utilizada, así como el estado de maduración de la uva, condicionan enormemente la calidad del producto final e incluso el tipo de vino que se puede elaborar. Por ello, se considera muy importante el conocimiento de los principales indicadores de maduración que, junto con la observación de los caracteres de maduración externos, y los índices de maduración físicoquímicos y fisiológicos, permiten predecir la fecha óptima de vendimia y la valoración enotécnica de las variedades (Hidalgo, 2002).

## 2. Materiales y métodos

Con el objetivo de observar experimentalmente las diferencias madurativas en las vides presentes en la isla de Tenerife se seleccionaron 15 variedades tradicionales para su estudio, todas ellas admitidas en las distintas Denominaciones de Origen de la Isla. Las variedades estudiadas se distribuyeron en nueve blancas (Albillo Criollo, Diego, Gual, Listán Blanco, Malvasía Volcánica, Marmajuelo, Verdello y Verijadiego) y siete tintas (Baboso Negro, Bastardo Negro, Castellana, Listán Prieto, Negramoll y Tintilla).

El análisis de las uvas comenzó a partir del enero con una periodicidad semanal en función de la evolución de la acidez y el grado de alcohol probable, finalizando en el momento óptimo de vendimia. Por consiguiente el estudio abarca los meses de junio, julio, agosto y septiembre de cada año dependiendo de la cota a la que se sitúa el cultivo y de la vertiente. De esta forma las primeras uvas analizadas provienen de las zonas de costa o cota baja de la vertiente sur, mientras que las últimas las pertenecen a las zonas de medianías altas de la vertiente norte.

Las muestras provinieron de tres cotas o emplazamientos distintos por cada una de las variedades en estudio y se realizaron dos repeticiones de cada muestreo, si bien la totalidad de las variedades no están representadas en todas las cotas porque no es posible encontrar material vegetal en dichos emplazamientos. En general las cotas se distribuyeron de la siguiente manera:

- Cota 1: hasta 400 metros sobre el nivel del mar.
- Cota 2: Desde los 400 metros hasta los 800 metros sobre el nivel del mar.
- Cota 3: Por encima de los 800 metros sobre el nivel del mar.

En función de la disponibilidad de muestras se realizaron los siguientes análisis para todas las variedades: rendimiento en términos de peso baya, grado alcohólico probable, pH, acidez total, ácido tartárico, ácido l-málico, índice de Baraglia, índice de Cillis y relación entre el ácido tartárico y el ácido l-málico. En las variedades tintas además se realizó una estimación de la madurez fenólica mediante la caracterización del Índice de Polifenoles Totales (IPT), el contenido en antocianos, potencial máximo de antocianos, extractabilidad de los antocianos, madurez de las semillas, taninos de los hollejos, taninos de las semillas, relación Orujo/Mosto así como el índice de Goded.

Los parámetros analizados se obtuvieron siguiendo los métodos de referencia de la Organización Internacional de la Viña y el Vino cuando se encontraban disponibles (OIV, 2015) mientras que los índices de maduración considerados se definen a continuación:

- Índice de Baragila: Este índice de madurez tecnológica corresponde con el porcentaje en ácido tartárico que contiene la uva con respecto a la acidez total.

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$$\text{Índice Baragila o Scuppli} = \frac{\text{Ac.tartárico (g/l)} \times 100}{\text{Acidez total} \left( \frac{\text{g}}{\text{l}} / \text{ac.tartárico} \right)}$$

Ecuación 1. Índice de Baragila o de Scuppli

- Índice de Cillis: Este índice de madurez tecnológica se basa en que la relación azúcares/acidez constituye la manera más sencilla, práctica y significativa de expresar el estado de madurez de la uva, aún cuando la acumulación de azúcares y la combustión de los ácidos orgánicos son fenómenos independientes que no obedecen a los mismos factores. Se corresponde con la relación azúcar/acidez y su valor en momentos de madurez industrial se sitúa entre 3 y 5.

$$\text{Índice Cilliso Odifredi} = \frac{\text{Azúcares (g/100cc mosto)}}{\text{Acidez total} \left( \frac{\text{g}}{\text{l}} / \text{ac.tartárico} \right)}$$

Ecuación 2. Índice de Cillis o de Odifredi

- Índice de Goded: En la misma línea que el índice de Cillis la madurez tecnológica se define como la relación entre azúcares y ácidos pero esta vez basándose en la medida de la densidad.

$$\text{Índice Goded} = \frac{\text{Densidad}}{\text{Acidez total} \left( \frac{\text{g}}{\text{l}} / \text{ac.tartárico} \right)}$$

Ecuación 3. Índice de Goded

### 3. Resultados y Discusión

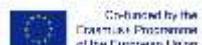
La gran cantidad de resultados obtenidos imposibilita su presentación detallada en el breve espacio de la presente comunicación, si bien se muestran a continuación una serie gráficas correspondientes a la cosecha 2012 que permiten analizar el comportamiento a grandes rasgos de los parámetros estudiados así como consideraciones de interés sobre los resultados de las variedades seleccionadas.

El estudio revela el elevado peso medio de la uva Diego (hasta 4,5 g/baya) así como su tardía maduración en contraposición a la también tardía uva Verdello pero con bajo peso medio de baya (~0,6g/baya). En la misma línea las variedades Castellana, Malvasía y Bastardo presentan rendimientos de peso baya relativamente bajos. El peso baya medio de todas las vides de la familia Listán (Blanco, Negro y Prieto) así como de la Negramoll es relativamente elevado, motivo por el cual probablemente sean las más cultivadas. La Tintilla presenta una muy rápida evolución, dando lugar a un elevado grado alcohólico probable, por lo que puede ser de utilidad para elaboraciones de vinos dulces o licorosos. La variación global del pH desde el envero hasta el considerado como final de la maduración se sitúa en torno a +0,6 unidades. La Listán Blanco destaca por su poca acidez inicial, mientras que la variedad Marmajuelo evoluciona rápidamente al partir de acideces iniciales muy elevadas (hasta 17 g/l de tartárico).

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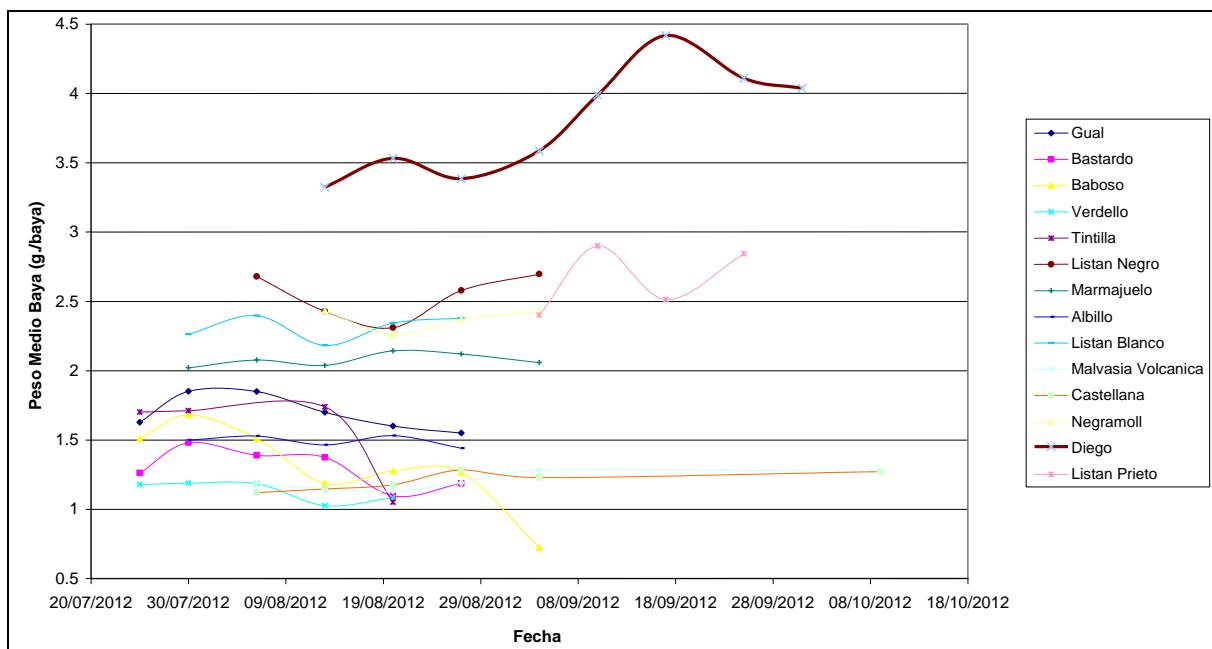


Figura 1. Variación del peso medio de la baya en la finca de Araya por variedades

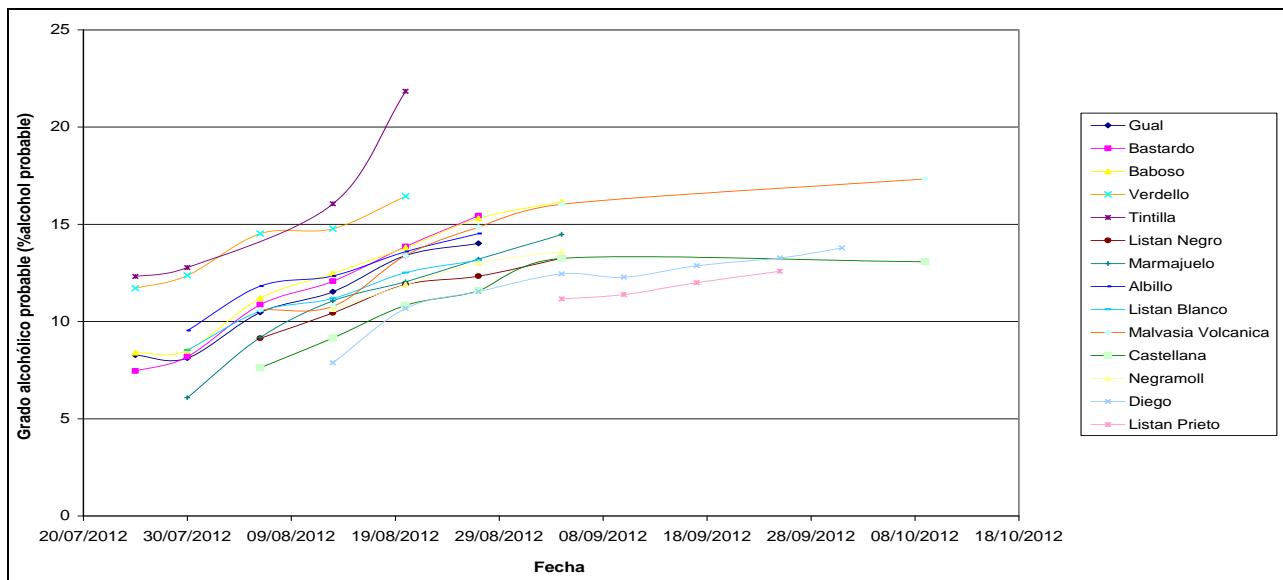


Figura 2. Variación del grado alcohólico probable en la finca de Araya por variedades

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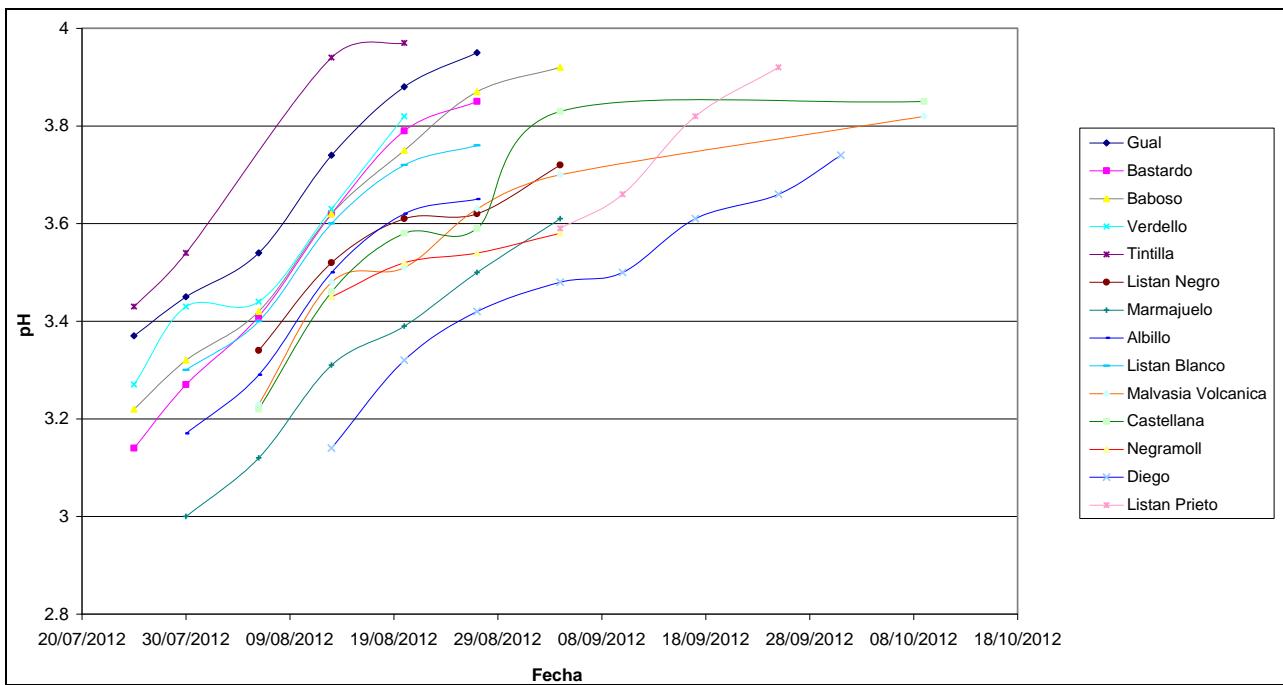


Figura 3. Variación del pH en la finca de Araya por variedades

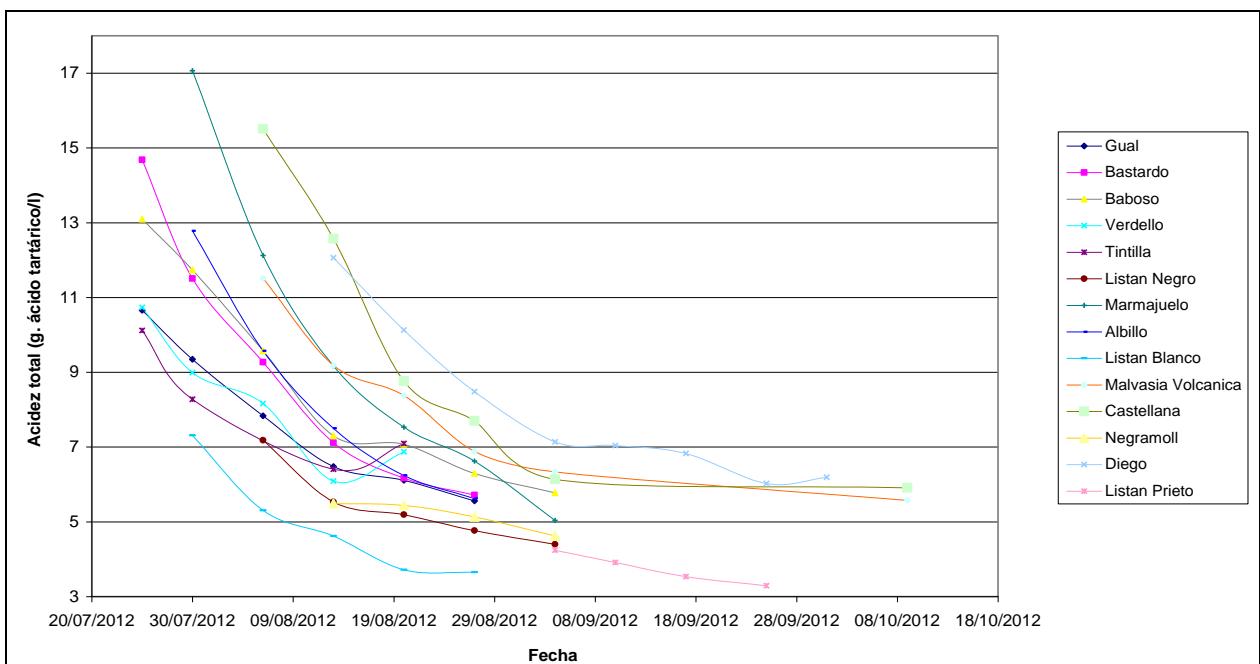


Figura 4. Variación de la acidez total en la finca de Araya por variedades

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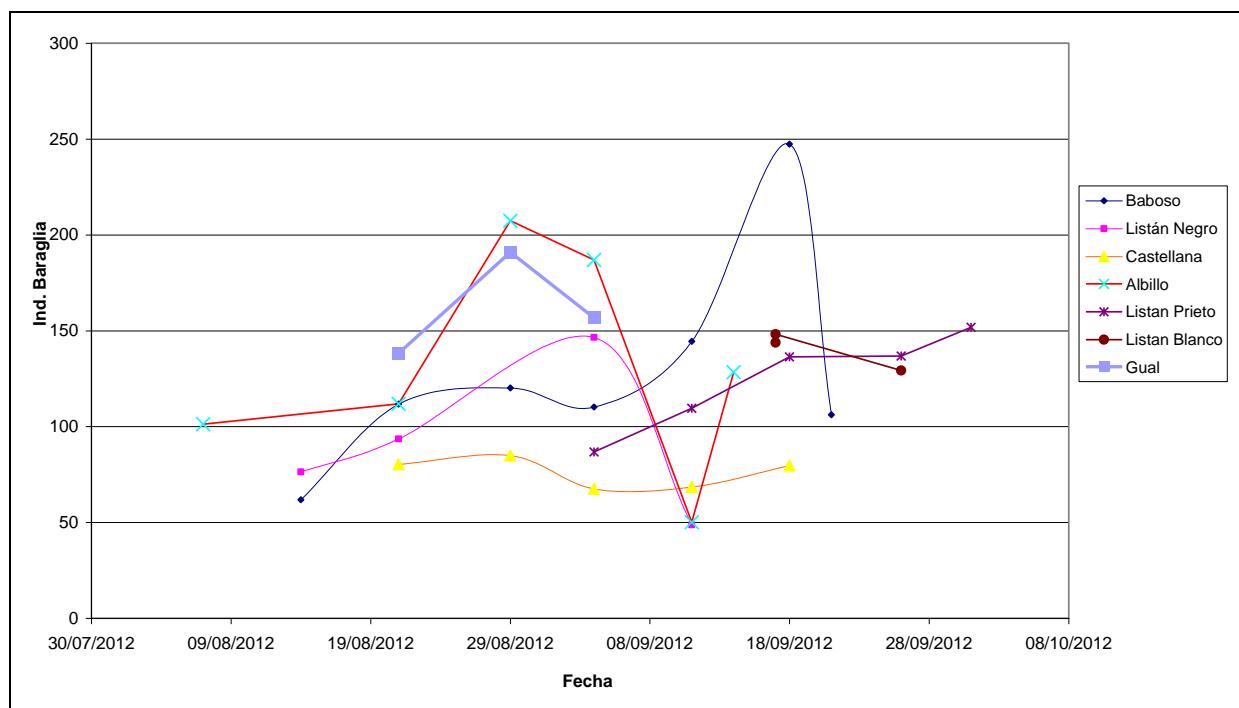


Figura 5. Variación del Índice de Baragila en la finca de Vilaflor por variedades

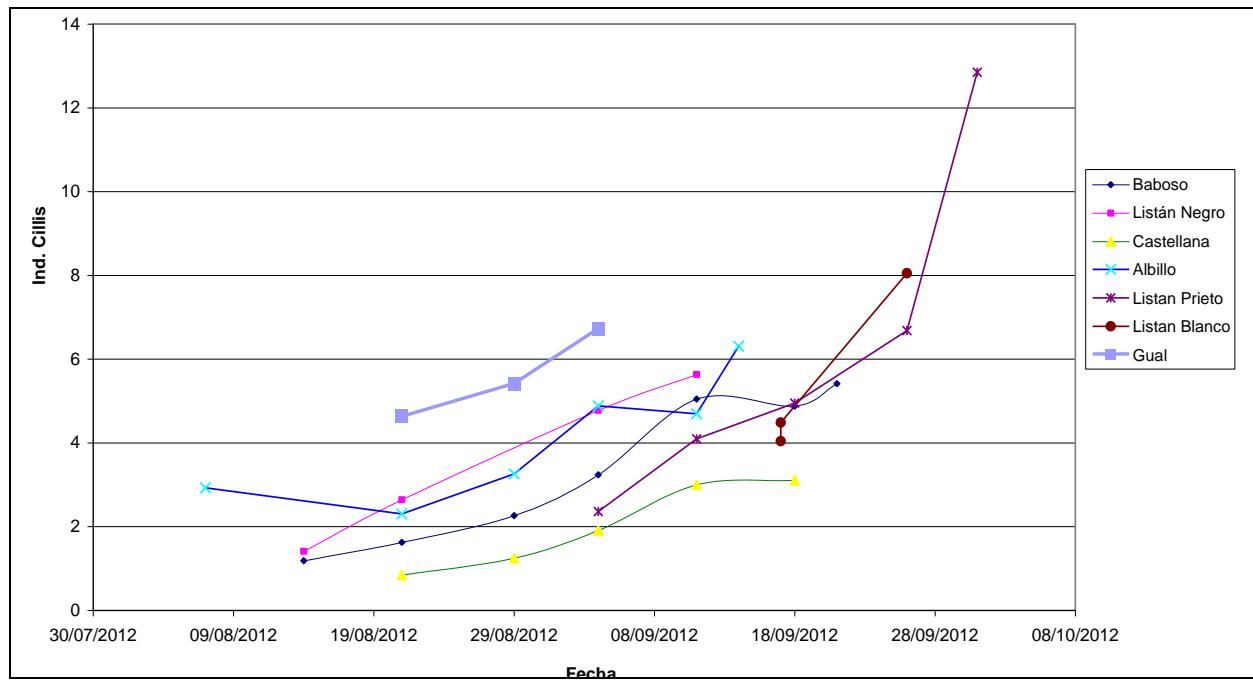


Figura 6. Variación del Índice de Cillis en la finca de Vilaflor por variedades

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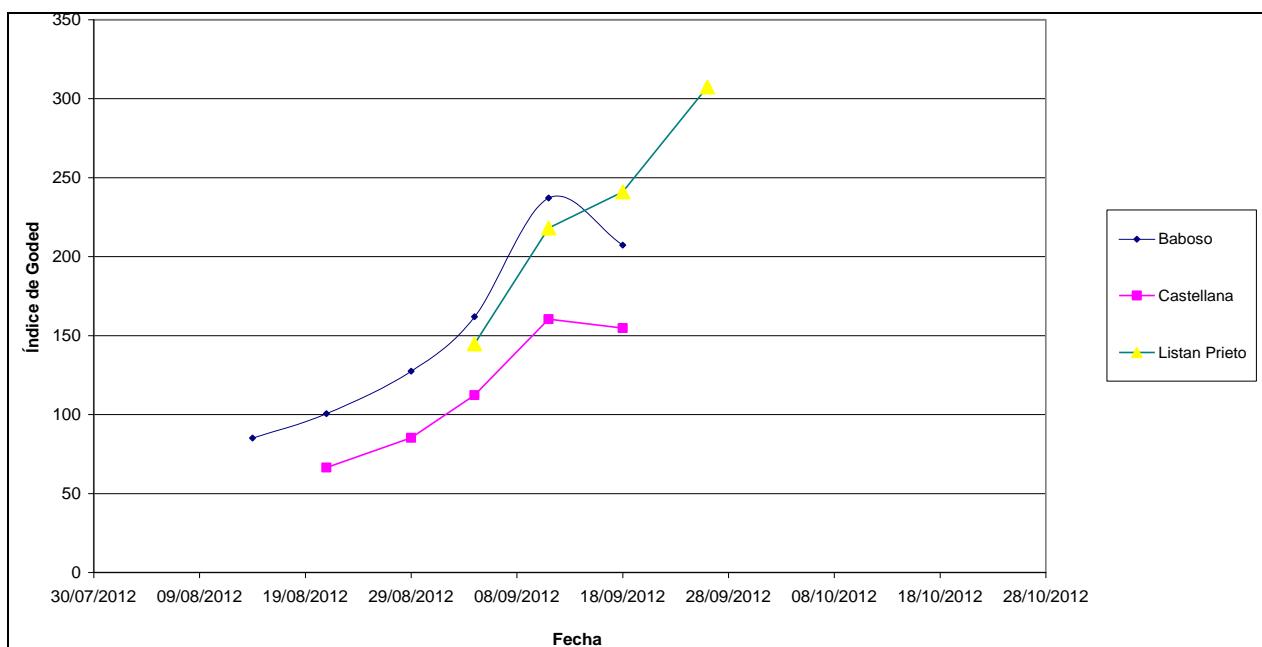


Figura 7. Variación del índice de Goded en la finca de Vilaflor por variedades

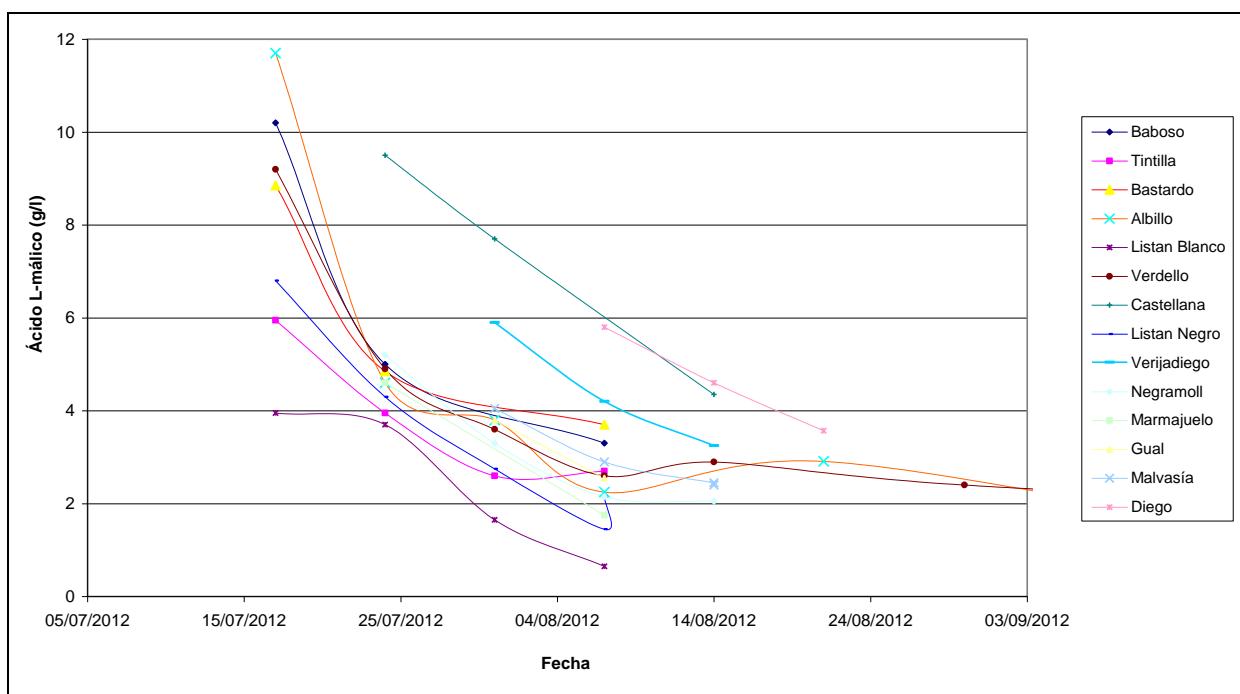


Figura 8. Variación del ácido l-málico en la finca de Valle Guerra por variedades

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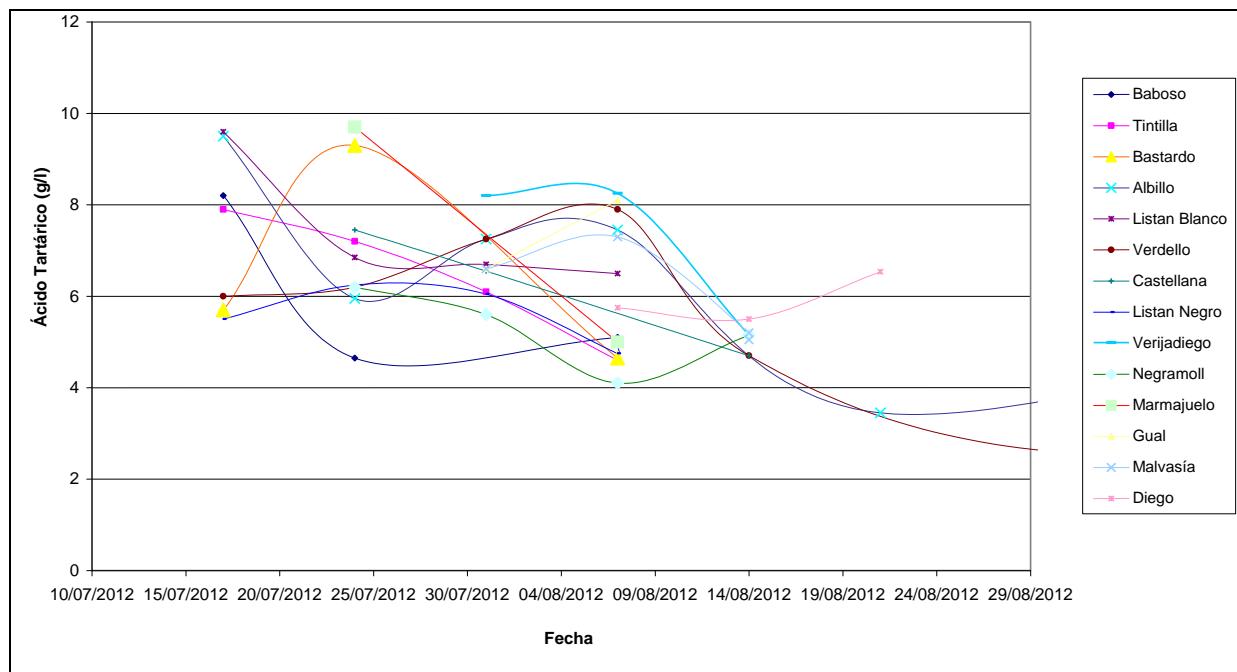


Figura 9. Variación del ácido tartárico en la finca de Valle Guerra por variedades

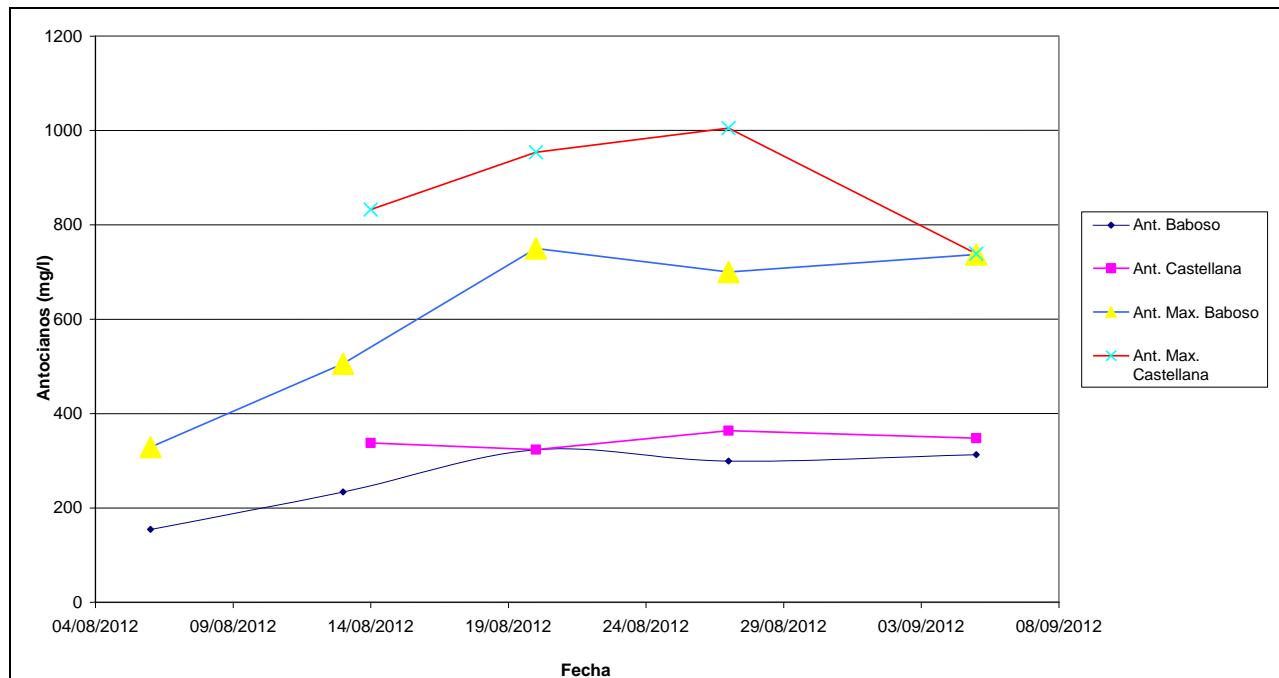
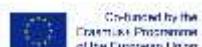


Figura 10. Variación del contenido en antocianos presentes y potenciales por variedades en la finca La Mosca

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Según nuestros resultados el índice de Baragila se revela poco clarificador para conocer el estado de maduración, pues a pesar de presentar un aumento progresivo a medida que avanza el proceso madurativo refleja altibajos. No obstante el índice de Cillis sí resulta útil para seguir la madurez tecnológica, pues presente una tendencia clara situándose entre los valores de 3 a 5 y siguiendo una tendencia progresiva ascendente. Dichos índices tienen comportamientos similares para todas las variedades y emplazamientos.

En el caso particular de la variedad Listán Blanco se observa la importancia relativa en su acidez del ácido tartárico, mientras que en la Castellana la importancia del ácido tartárico expresado como porcentaje de la acidez total es sensiblemente menor. En cualquier caso la variación en la concentración de ambos ácidos conforme avanza la maduración de la uva tiene tendencia negativa al ir disminuyendo su contenido, si bien la evolución no es estrictamente lineal pues depende en gran medida de las condiciones climáticas. La Malvasía se caracteriza por presentar una de las mayores cantidades de ácido tartárico (~8 g/l), mientras que la importancia de este ácido en Castellana y Listán Prieto es menor (~3-5 g/l). Por otro lado la variedad Castellana contiene mucho mállico y poco tartárico, mientras que en el caso de la Malvasía la distribución es la inversa. En este sentido es posible encontrar variaciones de hasta 7 g/l de tartárico para el mismo momento de toma de muestra en idéntico emplazamiento geográfico según la variedad considerada.

La relación tartárico/L-málico óptima suele establecerse en torno a 1, los resultados de nuestro estudio indican una gran variabilidad, sobre todo en los cultivares de la familia Listán debido a sus bajos contenidos en mállico. Por ello dicha relación de madurez no puede aplicarse. Por otra parte el índice de Goded sí resulta aplicable en las variedades y condiciones de Tenerife, pues aumenta progresivamente durante la maduración, siendo sensiblemente mayor para la Listán Prieto. En este sentido el índice de Goded permite un adecuado seguimiento del proceso madurativo en contraposición con el de Baragila.

Respecto al contenido antociánico se observa una ligera tendencia en aumento conforme avanza la maduración, siendo la variedad Baboso y Tintilla las que mayor concentración final presentan. La Baboso llega a valores finales del entorno de 500 mg/l por 200 mg/l de la Listán Prieto. En este sentido resulta relevante que la variedad Baboso alcance en algunos emplazamientos los 1000 mg/l de antocianos máximos, un valor muy elevado propio de variedades internacionales tipo Merlot. Con carácter habitual el contenido máximo en antocianos para todas las variedades suele doblar el de los antocianos extraíbles.

El estudio de la madurez de las pepitas revela su aumento con el avance de la maduración y una gran progresión en el caso de la Listán Prieto. El seguimiento de los taninos procedentes de los hollejos también revela su aumento conforme avanza el proceso madurativo y se observa que el contenido en la Baboso supera ampliamente al de Listán Prieto.

Por consiguiente la madurez fenólica de la Listán Prieto se revela atípica con exceso de taninos de semilla en relación a los procedentes del hollejo. Por todo ello la variedad Baboso resulta más apta para obtener polifenoles de calidad desde la uva en los emplazamientos y condiciones analizadas en el presente estudio. Con respecto a la influencia de las cotas se observa que la maduración se inicia antes en las zonas de menor altitud y con carácter general el peso medio de la baya en dichos emplazamientos es mayor, mientras que las zonas de maduración más tardías se encuentran en la vertiente norte y cotas más altas.

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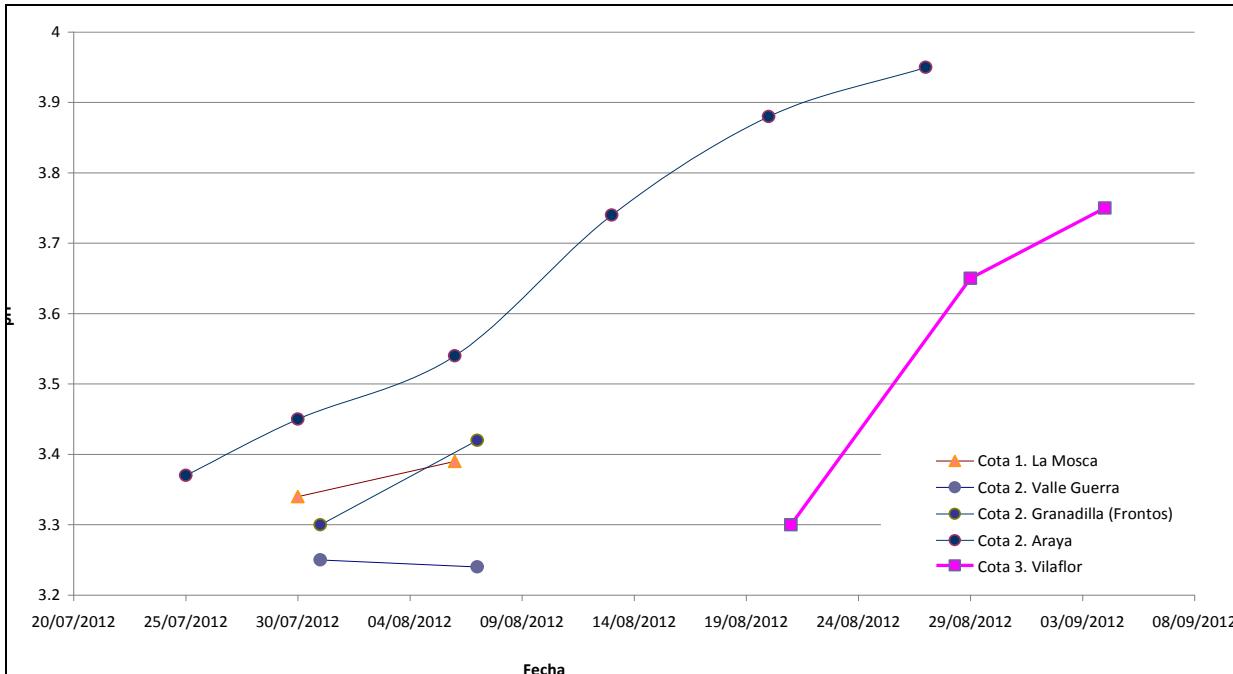


Figura 10. Variación del pH durante la maduración de la variedad Gual en diferentes emplazamientos

#### 4. Conclusiones

Existen diferencias significativas en la maduración de las variedades de vid tradicionales según su emplazamiento y condiciones climatológicas. En cualquier caso todas las variedades consideradas han resultado aptas para una vinificación posterior de calidad. En general se observa que el índice de Cillis y la relación ácido tartárico/L-málico son funciones válidas como marcadores de maduración, sin embargo el uso del índice de Baraglia no ha resultado idóneo al obtenerse un parámetro muy inestable durante la maduración.

La disminución de la acidez total conforme avanza la maduración, al igual que el descenso por separado del contenido en ácido l-málico y ácido tartárico, puede utilizarse como marcador útil del proceso madurativo. No obstante se han apreciado diferencias en el comportamiento de ambos ácidos según la cota. Mientras el contenido en ácido l-málico disminuye para una misma variedad conforme aumenta la cota, en el caso de la concentración de ácido tartárico se observa el fenómeno contrario, esto es, aumenta su valor conforme la cota es superior. Este comportamiento va en línea con buenas maduraciones en cotas altas donde la amplitud térmica entre el día y la noche sea mayor pero sin excesivos golpes de calor. Por ello la relación ácido tartárico/ ácido l-málico es mayor cuanto mayor es la cota, resultando un índice poco significativo en aquellas variedades que presentan de forma natural bajos valores de ácido l-málico, como la familia de uvas conocidas en las Islas Canarias bajo el nombre genérico de Listán.

Dado que la mayor parte de las variedades proporcionan rendimientos mayores en volumen en cotas bajas que en zonas altas el índice de Cillis óptimo para seguir la maduración difiere según el área geográfica considerada, situándose en cotas bajas cerca de 3 y en cotas altas entre 5-6.

Con respecto al comportamiento varietal se ha observado que tanto la variedad Baboso Negro como la Castellana poseen un alto potencial de antocianos pero su extractibilidad no suele ser buena, de manera que la madurez fenólica no se alcanza a la misma vez que la físico química. Por otro lado la variedad tinta más extendida, esto es, la Listán Negro, posee un relativo bajo contenido en antocianos.

La variedad Baboso Negro tiende a desarrollar pHs muy elevados desde la propia uva, aunque por su gran cantidad en IPT tiene potencial para crianza y puede utilizarse para mezclas o coupages si el vino se encuentra adecuadamente protegido. Por otro lado la variedad Tintilla madura muy rápido, proporcionando

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altos grados alcohólicos probables y buen contenido en color, por lo que el seguimiento del proceso de maduración en esta variedad es aún más crítico que en el resto.

La variedad Listán Prieto demuestra características que complican su uso para vinificación monovarietal debido a su alto contenido en taninos de semilla, su maduración tardía y la relativa poca presencia de antocianos, por lo que su uso puede ser recomendable en combinación con otras variedades. Además debido a su maduración tardía necesita desarrollar un mayor índice de Cillis que el resto de variedades en estudio para obtener un resultado equilibrado.

Con respecto a las variedades blancas se ha observado que la variedad Diego es la que demuestra mayor rendimiento (4 g. baya) aunque madura algo más tarde que el resto de variedades pero posee una relación equilibrada tartárico/l-málico (1-1.5). La uva blanca más extendida en la isla de Tenerife, esto es, la Listán Blanco, desarrolla durante su maduración muy poca acidez, lo cual podría compensarse en vinificaciones con mezcla de otras variedades, como por ejemplo Marmajuelo o Verdello que se caracterizan por lo contrario. Además en la variedad Listán Blanco la relación tartárico/l málico no puede aplicarse como marcador de maduración debido a su bajo contenido en ácido l-málico. Las variedades Malvasía y Verdello presentan poco rendimiento en lo que a tamaño de baya respecta, pero es posible alcanzar vinificaciones de elevados grados alcohólicos compensados con una acidez fresca a partir de ellas.

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## Efectos del diferente nivel de prensado en las propiedades fisicoquímicas del mosto

### Effects of different pressing levels in the physicochemical properties of the must

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**Key words:** must, pressing levels, chemical properties.

#### 1. Introducción

La composición físico química de la uva y por tanto de los vinos resultantes depende de numerosos factores, encontrándose entre ellos desde las cuestiones más intrínsecas y relacionadas con la naturaleza de la vid tales como la variedad, clon o portainjerto empleado hasta los factores más exógenos o dependientes de influencias externas como la poda, el clima, la orientación o las condiciones de maduración entre otros. Por consiguiente las propiedades físico-químicas de los mostos resultantes también se encuentran condicionadas por un gran número de factores de diferente peso específico. La presente comunicación se circunscribe al análisis de los efectos de diversos niveles de prensado en el mosto teniendo en cuenta la distribución de compuestos en las uvas de partida, en aras de relacionar dicho proceso indispensable en bodega con algunas de las características presentes en los mostos y vinos posteriores. Por todo ello no resulta recomendable generalizar mediante extrapolaciones simplificadas, carentes de las debidas cautelas, las observaciones detalladas en el presente manuscrito, pues la mayor o menor concentración de sustancias no se limita exclusivamente al nivel de prensado. De igual manera existen diferencias significativas en la composición del prensado realizado a racimos completos (*whole clusters bunchs*) respecto a prensados de uvas separadas previamente (*destemmed*), pues en estos últimos las diferentes fracciones o cortes en función de la presión y composición son más difíciles de establecer al extraerse más homogéneamente la mayor parte de los compuestos presentes.

Según se desprende de la Figura 1 la concentración de las diferentes sustancias presentes en las bayas difiere en gran medida según la parte de éstas que se considere. De esta manera mientras los hollejos o pieles se caracterizan por una gran concentración en compuestos fenólicos responsables tanto del color (antocianos) como de la astringencia (taninos) así como de precursores aromáticos, la pulpa es fundamentalmente rica en azúcares y otros compuestos solubles en agua, tales como ácidos orgánicos y vitaminas. De manera similar a los hollejos el material vegetal de semillas y raspones también es rico de compuestos tánicos, si bien su inclusión en el mosto no suele realizarse pues potencia sensaciones de verdor y astringencia. Por ello en un prensado suave la pulpa de la uva sería la parte más afectada, extrayéndose en mayor medida los azúcares y los ácidos orgánicos pero menos compuestos polifenólicos. Análogamente un prensado severo permite extraer mayor cantidad de compuestos fenólicos y amargos pero con menor acidez y contenido en azúcar.

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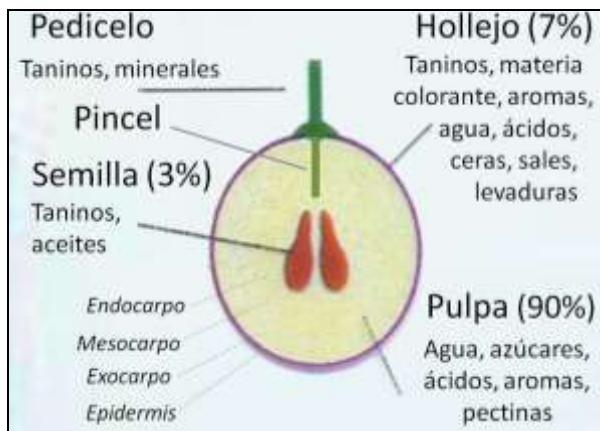


Figura 1. Distribución de compuestos en la uva

Por otro lado también es necesario destacar que la composición de las uvas no sólo se distribuye en grandes zonas tales como raspones, piel, pulpa y semilla yendo desde el exterior al interior del fruto, sino que también dentro de cada una de esas zonas existen diferentes concentraciones según se consideren secciones más próximas al exterior o interior de la baya, tales como epidermis, exocarpo, mesocarpo y endocarpo. Análogamente existen diferencias significativas entre diversas zonas de la piel según la exposición a agentes externos, como la influencia de la radiación solar, el viento, procesos de botritis o incluso de sustancias externas añadidas al viñedo para su tratamiento entre otros muchos factores. De esta manera la concentración de los diversos compuestos en la uva no puede considerarse en ningún modo homogénea, sino por el contrario debe entenderse como un gradiente de concentraciones dentro de cada una de las zonas, esto es, tanto en los raspones, como en el hollejo, la pulpa y las semillas.

El prensado de la uva se conoce desde la antigüedad, de hecho los restos de prensas arcaicas son algunas de las evidencias más claras relativas a la presencia de la vinicultura en el Antiguo Egipto. Cato, en el s.II a.C proporciona la primera descripción escrita de una sala de prensado que se conserva (Rossiter, 1981). Hoy en día las prensas suelen clasificarse en dos grandes clases en función del eje sobre el que ejerza presión, esto es, en verticales u horizontales (Figura 2). Las prensas de eje vertical suelen considerarse como más antiguas al seguir el esquema tradicional de una cesta sobre un eje en este sentido, si bien pueden encontrarse actualmente en uso en zonas tan prestigiosas como Champagne, Borgoña, Sauternes y en algunas regiones de Italia pues permiten trabajar con bajos rendimientos y tratan las uvas de manera delicada, aunque su proceso de lavado puede ser en algunas ocasiones más engoroso. Las prensas continuas a su vez cuentan con numerosos subtipos, como de carga, de membrana, neumáticas o continuas entre otras (Robinson, 2015).

Un adecuado proceso de prensado es fundamental para la correcta elaboración de cualquier tipo de vino, desde tranquilos a espumosos pasando por elaboraciones especiales. Esta fase cobra especial importancia en las regiones de viticultura heroica, donde habitualmente se trabaja con volúmenes menores y las uvas suelen encontrarse en diversas fases de maduración dadas las diferencias en altitud y/o orientación entre parcelas e incluso dentro del mismo viñedo. El prensado debe realizarse de manera progresiva mediante un adecuado gradiente de presión y tiempo. De esta manera tras cada ciclo de prensado es recomendable volver a la posición inicial lentamente antes de aumentarla de nuevo para separar adecuadamente el inicio del prensado del cuerpo o corazón, así como de la cola o última prensa. El nivel de presión aplicable depende en gran medida del tipo de prensa y del parecer de los elaboradores, si bien se consideran prensados suaves o leves aquellos entre 200 y 500 g/cm<sup>2</sup>, entre 500 y 1000 g/cm<sup>2</sup> suelen considerarse medios y a partir de 1 Kg/cm<sup>2</sup> se suelen clasificar como prensados severos. En el caso de los vinos blancos y rosados el prensado suele realizarse previamente a la fermentación, aunque hay excepciones como los vinos naranjas o aquellos macerados con las pieles, mientras que en los vinos tintos el prensado suele ser posterior a la fermentación, si bien para el presente estudio se han considerado aquellos en los que ha tenido lugar una maceración en frío y prensado en mosto.

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Teniendo en cuenta las consideraciones anteriormente expuestas es evidente que un mayor o menor nivel de prensado en bodega conllevará indudablemente que los diversos analitos presentes se encuentren concentrados en mayor o menor medida en los mostos resultantes. El objetivo de la presente comunicación es establecer la concentración de qué compuestos se ve más afectada por el diferente nivel de prensado en bodega así como cuantificar la práctica de separar el vino prensa en la isla de Tenerife con respecto a los primeros vinos o lágrimas.



*Figura 2. Tipos de prensa usadas en enología según sentido del eje*

## 2. Materiales y métodos

Con el objetivo de observar experimentalmente la potencial existencia de diferencias significativas en la composición fisicoquímica de los mostos según el nivel de prensado se analizaron estadísticamente los resultados del archivo histórico de muestras analizadas por el Laboratorio Insular de Vinos de Tenerife. En concreto se revisaron los datos desde la cosecha 2010 hasta 2017, esto es, datos correspondientes a 8 vendimias diferentes, que se corresponden con más de 4000 muestras de mostos cuyas principales características estadísticas se detallan en la Figura 3.

Una vez identificadas todas las muestras de mostos correspondientes a dicho periodo se realizó una búsqueda detallada orientada a separar los usuarios que especificaron alguna cuestión relativa a la existencia de prensado en el momento de solicitar los análisis. En este sentido es necesario destacar que la presión ejercida en el prensado para las diferentes muestras es desconocida, pues sólo ha sido posible diferenciar los datos según procedieran del primer mosto (flor o yema) o del procedente de prensadas. Igualmente sólo se han podido identificar aquellos mostos definidos como prensa por los propios elaboradores en el momento de la solicitud de análisis. Para clasificar las muestras como procedentes de prensadas se han seguido los siguientes criterios:

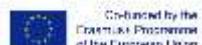
1. Que el solicitante definiera alguna de sus muestras con referencias como Prensa, P, o similar.
2. Que ese mismo solicitante hubiera entregado durante la misma jornada otra muestra con características similares a la considerada a priori como prensa y que además dicha muestra contara con una identificación suficientemente clara tipo mosto lágrima, flor, 1<sup>a</sup> o análogos.
3. Que coincidiera exactamente el tipo de vino, la zona de producción y la variedad de uva declarada en las parejas de mostos identificadas.
4. Que los volúmenes declarados por el solicitante para ambas muestras se adecuaran a una relación lógica entre los litros de lágrima y los litros de prensado. De este modo se consideró que el volumen declarado para la muestra de mosto prensa debía ser inferior al 25% del volumen declarado para la muestra de mosto considerada primera calidad, pues en caso contrario el origen del mosto prensa pudiera no estar directamente relacionado con la muestra de mosto considerada como lágrima.

Aplicando dichos criterios la cantidad de muestras disponibles para su estudio disminuyó sensiblemente. De las 4026 muestras de mosto con las que se contaba inicialmente se identificaron 406 correspondientes a

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prensados y a su mosto inicial. La distribución final de los mostos considerados para este estudio fueron 238 blancos (58,6%), 138 tintos (34%) y 30 rosados (7,4%). Es necesario destacar que sólo se han considerado en este estudio aquellas muestras identificadas claramente por los elaboradores como prensa en el momento de su análisis, por lo que la presencia real de muestras procedentes de prensado pudiera ser mayor.

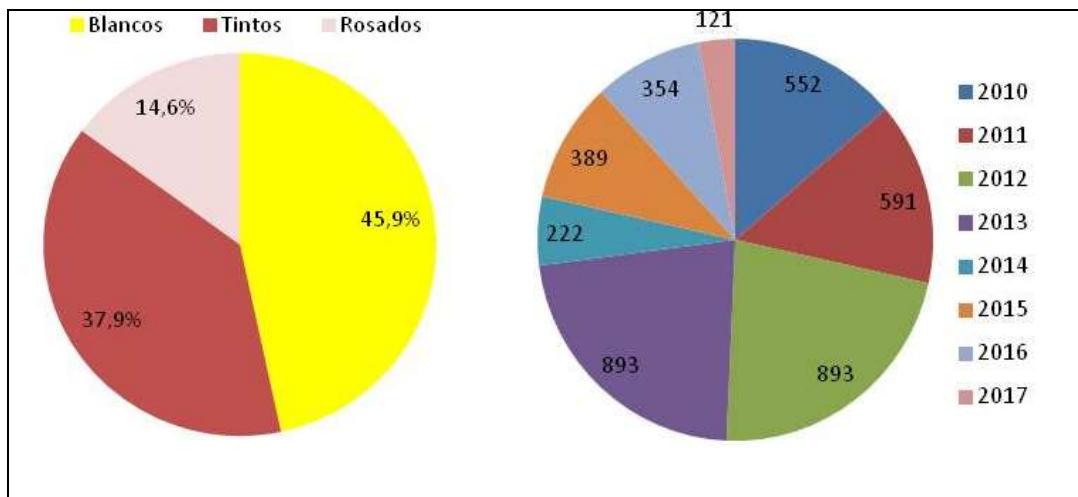


Figura 3. Características de los mostos revisados para el estudio procedentes de las últimas 8 cosechas

Los parámetros físico químicos evaluados para todos los casos siguieron lo establecido por los métodos de referencia de la OIV (OIV, 2015). En el caso de los mostos blancos se evaluaron las diferencias entre el mosto prensa y el inicial en el resultado de pH, acidez total, masa volúmica o densidad, grado alcohólico probable y contenido en ácido l-málico. En el caso de los mostos rosados se evaluaron las diferencias en los mismos parámetros a excepción del ácido l-málico pero se añadieron al estudio las diferencias en Intensidad Colorante, Índice de Polifenoles Totales (IPT) y contenido en taninos. En los mostos tintos no sólo se evaluaron todas las determinaciones anteriores si no también el contenido en glucosa más fructosa y los perfiles de color, mediante la densidad óptica a 420 nm, 520 nm, 620 nm, la tonalidad, y parámetros CieLab ( $L^*$ ,  $a^*$ ,  $b^*$ ,  $h_{ab}$ ,  $S^*$ ,  $C^*$ ).

### 3. Resultados

Los resultados se muestran en las Tablas siguientes en función del tipo de mosto analizado. Se detallan tanto los valores medios de las muestras consideradas (vinos lágrima y prensa indistintamente) como la diferencia entre el valor inicial del mosto considerado flor o lágrima y el mosto identificado como prensa.

Tabla 1. Resultados experimentales para los mostos blancos ( $n=238$ ) expresados como  $X \pm \sigma$  (Min-Max )

Parámetro	Resultados globales de la población considerada	Diferencia Lágrima - Prensa
Grado alcohólico probable	$11,49 \pm 2,03$ (8,45 – 14,78)	$0,47 \pm 0,42$ (0,00 – 2,30)
Masa volúmica (g/ml)	$1,0843 \pm 0,0198$ (1,0654 – 1,1041)	$0,0031 \pm 0,0027$ (0,0001 – 0,0163)
pH	$3,60 \pm 0,24$ (3,07 – 4,32)	$-0,22 \pm 0,012$ (-0,71 – 0,00)
Acidez Total (g. tartárico/l)	$3,72 \pm 1,02$ (1,61 - 6,71)	$0,65 \pm 0,53$ (0,01 – 2,19)
Ácido l-málico (g/l).	$1,97 \pm 0,74$ (0,87 – 3,48)	$-0,86 \pm 1,17$ (-2,60 – -0,10)

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Tabla 2. Resultados experimentales para los mostos rosados (n=30) expresados como  $X \pm \sigma$  (Min-Max)

Parámetro	Resultados globales de la población considerada	Diferencia Lágrima – Prensa
Grado alcohólico probable	$12,34 \pm 1,02$ (9,82 – 14,09)	$0,41 \pm 0,32$ (0,07 – 1,00)
Masa volúmica (g/ml)	$1,0873 \pm 0,0070$ (1,0765 – 1,0993)	$0,0028 \pm 0,0022$ (0,0001 – 0,0072)
pH	$3,74 \pm 0,23$ (3,34 – 4,27)	$-0,14 \pm 0,13$ (-0,39 – -0,02)
Acidez Total (g. tartarico/l)	$3,55 \pm 0,85$ (2,14 – 5,70)	$0,53 \pm 0,41$ (0,03 – 1,27)
Indice de Polifenoles Totales (IPT)	$11,93 \pm 1,37$ (9,82 – 13,89)	$-1,93 \pm 0,65$ (-2,52 – -0,19)
Taninos de Masquelier (g/L)	$0,84 \pm 0,10$ (0,66 – 1,01)	$-0,14 \pm 0,08$ (-0,25 – -0,08)
Intensidad de Color (U.A.)	$0,53 \pm 0,14$ (0,29 – 0,79)	$-0,07 \pm 0,06$ (-0,13 – -0,01)

Tabla 3. Resultados experimentales para los mostos tintos (n=138) expresados como  $X \pm \sigma$  (Min-Max)

Parámetro	Resultados globales de la población considerada	Diferencia Lágrima – Prensa
Grado alcohólico probable	$12,22 \pm 1,39$ (9,49 – 14,92)	$0,56 \pm 0,52$ (0 – 3,11)
Masa volúmica (g/ml)	$1,0859 \pm 0,0038$ (1,0454 – 1,1053)	$0,0038 \pm 0,0038$ (0,0001 – 0,0197)
Glucosa+fructosa (g/l)	$197,10 \pm 24,62$ (143 – 240)	$26,17 \pm 19,72$ (4,52 – 55,42)
pH	$3,70 \pm 0,19$ (3,31 – 4,26)	$-0,10 \pm 0,07$ (-0,33 – -0,01)
Acidez Total (g. tartarico/l)	$3,46 \pm 0,89$ (1,96 – 6,54)	$0,41 \pm 0,39$ (0,01 – 1,84)
Ácido l-málico (g/l).	$1,45 \pm 0,59$ (0,97 – 3,16)	$-0,30 \pm 0,32$ (-1,33 – -0,08)
Indice de Polifenoles Totales (IPT)	$13,83 \pm 8,51$ (9,00 – 35,80)	$-1,13 \pm 0,98$ (-2,87 – -0,17)
Taninos de Masquelier (g/L)	$0,94 \pm 0,55$ (0,63 – 2,51)	$-0,13 \pm 0,22$ (-0,88 – -0,02)
Densidad Óptica a 420 nm, A <sub>420</sub> (U.A.)	$0,54 \pm 0,33$ (0,33 – 2,09)	$-0,11 \pm 0,06$ (-0,20 – -0,01)
Densidad Óptica a 520 nm, A <sub>520</sub> (U.A.)	$0,53 \pm 1,02$ (0,17 – 5,45)	$-0,07 \pm 0,04$ (-0,13 – -0,01)
Densidad Óptica a 620 nm A <sub>620</sub> (U.A.)	$0,08 \pm 0,09$ (0,04 – 0,55)	$-0,02 \pm 0,01$ (-0,04 – 0,00)

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Intensidad de color, A <sub>420</sub> + A <sub>520</sub> + A <sub>620</sub> (U.A.)	1,16 ± 1,44 (0,54 – 8,10)	-0,20 ± 0,11 (-0,38 – -0,02)
Tonalidad (A <sub>420</sub> /A <sub>520</sub> )	1,66 ± 0,32 (1,16 – 2,52)	-0,16 ± 0,14 (-0,47 – -0,03)
Luminosidad, L* (U.C.)	81,71 ± 3,96 (72,97 – 85,59)	3,44 ± 3,04 (0,28 – 7,13)
Coordinada a*, eje verde/rojo (U.C.)	15,22 ± 4,79 (11,30 – 23,97)	-2,88 ± 2,44 (-5,77 – -0,30)
Coordinada b*, eje azul/amarillo (U.C.)	19,85 ± 2,61 (16,09 – 23,64)	-2,79 ± 2,46 (-6,40 – -0,89)
Coordinada h <sub>ab</sub> (U.C.)	53,10 ± 8,44 (40,65 – 62,36)	-4,31 ± 2,66 (-8,14 – -2,07)
Coordinada S* (U.C.)	0,31 ± 0,07 (0,23 – 0,46)	-0,06 ± 0,05 (-0,13 – -0,02)
Coordinada C*(U.C.)	25,27 ± 3,93 (20,04 – 33,67)	-3,89 ± 2,76 (-7,2 – -1,56)

La interpretación de color en general reveló que los mostos prensa a la vista del ojo humano mantienen la misma interpretación de color que la establecida para los mostos iniciales, si bien en un 20% de las muestras sí se produce un cambio en el color asignado, de tal modo que los mostos prensa pasaron a un nivel inferior en lo que a interpretación de color se refiere. En este sentido determinados mostos originalmente de color “rosa salmón” pasaron a interpretarse como “salmón” en el prensado, de manera similar otras muestras consideradas como “rosa grosella” en el mosto lágrima pasaron a interpretarse como “rosa salmón” en el mosto procedente de prensado. Los mostos más oxidados, esto es, color “piel de cebolla” mantuvieron sin embargo dicha tonalidad tanto en los prensados como en los mostos lágrima.

#### 4. Discusión

En primer lugar resulta llamativo que sólo un 5% de las muestras de mosto analizadas pudieran ser identificadas como prensado. Aunque la cantidad de mosto prensa elaborado individualmente en la isla de Tenerife probablemente sea mayor, pues los usuarios no necesariamente han de identificarlo como tal en el momento de solicitar el análisis. No obstante un 5% es un porcentaje especialmente bajo teniendo en cuenta que la Isla no cuenta con instalaciones auxiliares como alcoholeras o destilerías para aprovechar al máximo los restos de hollejos. Esto podría indicar que en la mayor parte de los casos los elaboradores añaden los mostos procedentes del prensado al mosto inicial, incrementando así el volumen final y homogeneizando desde el principio las partidas de vino que serán elaboradas a partir de estos. Aunque la adición del mosto prensa al de primera calidad desde el principio pueda tener sentido al permitir homogeneizar las propiedades de todos los vinos de la bodega, supone una evidente pérdida de mosto con características útiles para el enólogo, pues el prensado posee diferencias significativas de carácter tanto positivo como negativo con respecto al flor o no prensado, permitiendo realizar mezclas posteriores especialmente dirigidas a cambiar determinadas propiedades físicoquímicas del vino. Igualmente la introducción desde el principio del mosto prensa al tanque global no permite adiciones específicas dirigidas a mejorar atributos específicos de calidad, sino que condiciona desde el inicio al vino resultante ya sea para mejorarlo o empeorarlo.

Los resultados obtenidos revelan que la localización de los compuestos en la uva expuesta en la Figura 1 se relaciona en gran medida con su mayor o menor extracción en el prensado posterior. El mosto yema presenta diferencias significativas por su mayor contenido en los compuestos más presentes en la pulpa de la uva, esto es, azúcares y acidez total, la cual fundamentalmente se relaciona con el mayor contenido en ácido tartárico. Según queda de manifiesto en las Tablas 1, 2 y 3 el mosto prensa presenta de media alrededor de 0,5% de

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alcohol potencial menos que el mosto inicial. El grado de prensado es un factor muy importante en la mayor o menor diferencia de esta propiedad, pues se han observado desde mostos cuyo contenido en azúcar es muy similar hasta diferencias de 3% en alcohol potencial. La diferente concentración de azúcares también se expresa en la menor densidad del mosto prensa (Tablas 1-3) así como en su menor contenido en glucosa + fructosa (Tabla 3).

Por otro lado conforme aumenta el grado de prensado los mostos resultantes se concentran en los compuestos más presentes en la piel, esto es, en compuestos polifenólicos así como aumentan su pH y disminuyen su acidez, probablemente debido a la mayor extracción del potasio presente en los hollejos. La diferencia en polifenoles queda patente en un aumento del Índice de Polifenoles Totales (IPT) de alrededor de 1,5 unidades de absorbancia y de 0,15 g/L de taninos, si bien la diferencia probablemente sea mayor cuando se realice el estudio en vinos en lugar de en mostos cuya maceración con los hollejos en presencia de alcohol aumente la extractabilidad de dichos compuestos. Las diferencias en el pH son más acusadas en los mostos blancos, habiéndose obtenido un valor medio de pH 0,2 unidades mayor en los mostos prensa que en los considerados iniciales. Esta diferencia de pH no sólo puede relacionarse con el contenido en potasio, sino que también tiene implicaciones posteriormente en la actividad del sulfuroso así como en la protección natural del vino y su expresión de color.

El contenido en ácido l-málico se revela mayor en los mostos prensados como media en 0,5 g/l, lo cual a primera vista no parece resultar coherente con su menor acidez total, esto lleva a considerar que probablemente los mostos procedentes de prensado a pesar de su mayor contenido en ácido l-málico tengan un contenido sensiblemente inferior al mosto inicial en ácido tartárico, pues dicho ácido es el más importante en concentración en las uvas. Análogamente las sustancias presentes en la piel por tratamientos de contacto no eliminadas previamente mediante lavado, práctica poco frecuente, se extraen en mayor medida en los prensados severos pudiendo aportar olores atípicos. Entre las potenciales medidas dirigidas a disminuir la presencia de dichos aromas en mostos prensados puede mencionarse el minimizar el tiempo de contacto con las láis para estas elaboraciones.

Con respecto a los parámetros de color detallados para los mostos tintos en la Tabla 3 se observa que la mayor extracción de compuestos fenólicos en el mosto prensa deriva en una mayor intensidad de color de alrededor de 0,2 unidades de absorbancia, si bien en todas las mediciones individuales de densidades ópticas también se aprecian diferencias significativas. En este sentido las características colorimétricas del mosto prensa evidencian una mayor capa entendida como una menor luminosidad (diferencia de 3,4 unidades Cielab para el parámetro L\*), así como una mayor intensidad del color rojo (diferencia de 2,9 unidades Cielab para el parámetro a\*) y amarillo (diferencia de 2,8 unidades Cielab para el parámetro b\*). En línea con dichas diferencias de color los mostos tintos procedentes de prensado desarrollan colores con mayor saturación (S\*) y cromacidad (C\*). Por otro parte la diferencia en los parámetros relativos a la tonalidad ( $h_{ab}$  y tono) demuestra que a pesar de su mayor cromacidad los mostos prensa se encuentran más oxidados que los iniciales, esto es, aunque su intensidad de color es mayor, son más sensibles a la oxidación. Esta característica resulta muy interesante, pues el mayor contenido de compuestos polifenólicos muy antioxidantes y su mayor color podría a priori entenderse como una mayor estabilidad del mosto frente a la oxidación, pero en realidad los productos procedentes de prensado son más sensibles a la oxidación, y por tanto de manera individual presentarán una menor capacidad de envejecimiento.

Por consiguiente entender las diferencias significativas en la composición de los mostos prensados o no permite mejorar sensiblemente las características de las mezclas resultantes. La adición sin contemplaciones de la totalidad del mosto prensa al inicial puede conllevar efectos negativos como un aumento de pH, sensación de verdor por el ácido l-málico y mayor sensibilidad oxidativa, esto es, una peor estabilidad y una menor capacidad de envejecimiento. No obstante su mezcla controlada en determinadas ocasiones puede proporcionar mayor redondez y estructura al vino resultante, pues su mayor contenido en polifenoles y materia colorante puede tener también efectos altamente positivos.

La mezcla controlada del vino procedente del mosto prensa puede ser útil especialmente en los casos en que las vinificaciones iniciales carezcan de suficientes taninos. En este sentido la adición de taninos procedentes del mosto prensa no sólo permite estabilizar el color mediante su combinación con los antocianos, sino que también puede influir en gran medida en la complejidad y sabor del vino resultante. No hay que olvidar que

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los taninos son los compuestos fenólicos que más afectan a la estructura del vino y a su potencial de envejecimiento. Estas sustancias a menudo se asocian con amargura y astringencia pero su procedencia es muy variada. Los hollejos y la pulpa contienen unos pocos taninos, mientras que las semillas y los tallos contienen la mayor parte de los taninos pudiendo proporcionar sabores excesivamente amargos así como sensaciones demasiado astringentes. La amargura y la astringencia provenientes principalmente de la concentración de taninos se complementan con la acidez del vino, ya que los taninos y la acidez trabajan en direcciones opuestas cuando se trata de caracteres sensoriales. En este sentido un vino de baja acidez puede soportar una mayor concentración de tanino y a la inversa, esto es, un vino de alta acidez junto con una alta concentración de tanino sería demasiado astringente y duro, por lo que es ideal que las mezclas se realicen de manera razonada.

## 5. Conclusiones

Se observan diferencias significativas en la composición físico-química de los mostos según el grado de prensado empleado, siendo en cualquier caso todos ellos aptos para una vinificación posterior. Dichas características singulares justifican la recomendación de realizar elaboraciones independientes según el prensado como estrategia de calidad diferenciada por parte de los productores de vino.

Al igual que se ha detectado entre los usuarios del laboratorio una diferenciación cada vez mayor del vino de parcela así como de los mostos provenientes de zonas o variedades específicas, la diferenciación del prensado según el grado de extracción puede ser una herramienta útil para mejorar las elaboraciones.

El hecho de incluir el vino procedente de mosto prensa a la mezcla final y qué cantidad añadir depende en gran medida del estilo del vino y de las condiciones específicas de cada vendimia.

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## SEXTO CONGRESO INTERNACIONAL SOBRE VITICULTURA DE MONTAÑA Y EN FUERTE PENDIENTE

SIXTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON MOUNTAIN  
AND STEEP SLOPE VITICULTURE

**SESIÓN IV**

SESSION IV

**El valor de la biodiversidad en el vino obtenido de viticulturas heroicas**

*The biodiversity value of wine in the heroic viticulture*

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## Integrated production as a key factor of sustainability of heroic viticulture in Switzerland

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### Abstract

Swiss viticulture covers 15'000 hectares under alpine climatic conditions. Grapevine can only be planted according to restricted areas along lakesides facing south or in few valleys' side with favourable microclimate. It is characterised by very steep vineyards, small plots (national average < 1 ha per grower), intensive labour (400-1000 h/ha/year) with high production costs and difficult mechanisation. A very large number of grape varieties are planted depending on the climate and historical background. In the Valais (Rhône river valley) for example, over 40 varieties are planted on 5'000 ha of vines cultivated by approx. 20'000 growers.

Integrated production (IP) for a sustainable viticulture has been developed since the seventies respecting regional particularities. For example, grass-covered vineyards can easily be achieved in areas with sufficient rainfalls (Eastern and South parts: 1400 to 1800 mm rain per year), but not in drier areas (Valais: <600 mm rain per year). 1993 the head-organisation Vitiswiss was created to cover the interests of the six regional associations. Vitiswiss is composed of a committee of viticulturists from each canton and a technical commission of scientists. The technical commission is responsible for the regular upgrade of the requirements, based on new research results. This guarantees a dynamic system and a regular transfer of new technologies to practice. Swiss IP started with the improvement of pest management by the biocontrol of spider mites (*Panonychus ulmi* and *Tetranychus urticae*) with predator mites (*Typhlodromus pyri* and *Amblyseius andersoni*) and the control of grape berry moths (*Lobesia botrana* and *Eupoecilia ambiguella*) by mating disruption, soil management, planting material, sprayer calibration, biodiversity, water and cover crop management and continuous education. As result, no acaricides and very few insecticides are used. Forecasting systems, available on the internet ([www.agrometeo.ch](http://www.agrometeo.ch)), represent the major progress for the control of downy and powdery mildew in accordance with their epidemiology, as well as breeding resistant cultivars. Today, over 85% of the grape growing area is cultivated according to IP, as recognition of sustainability, respect of the environment and guarantee for high quality wines and Divico (registered for AOC-Wine in 2013), a multi-resistant red cultivar is planted on 22 ha.

**Key words:** grapevine, integrated production, integrated pest management, Swiss viticulture, Vitiswiss, Vinatura, sustainability, high-quality wine

### Introduction

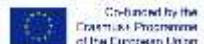
Switzerland is a small country of 41'000 km<sup>2</sup> in central Europe. The landscape is mostly hills and mountains, with a central plateau and large lakes. Agriculture covers approximately 37% of the surface (24% arable land, 13% grassland); 25% of the country's land is unproductive, covered with permanent snow, rocks, lakes, and glaciers. Politically, Switzerland is a federal democracy composed of 26 cantons acting as independent states and representing four national languages (German, French, Italian, and Romansch).

Thanks to ecologically aware pioneer wine farmers and scientists concerned about the environment and the reduction of inputs in viticulture, the concept of integrated production was created in the seventies. The Federal

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Research Station Agroscope played a key role in the development of the general concept and methods, including economic and ecological aspects, sustainability and durability, all according to the general definition of IP by the International Organization for Biological Control (IOBC). Due to regional differences, the IP principles had to be adapted to each particular viticulture region. Grass-covered vineyards are easier to maintain areas with regular rainfalls (e.g., Eastern Switzerland, with  $\pm$  1'400 mm rain per year), than in dry areas (e.g., Valais, with  $\pm$  550 mm rain per year). In 1993, Vitiswiss, the head office representing the interests of six regional associations, was created. It is composed of a committee of viticulturists from different regions, a technical commission of scientists from Agroscope and the cantonal extension services. The technical commission annually updates the general guidelines, based on new research and field experiments.

This paper presents viticulture in Switzerland, specifically, the achieved benefits of integrated production of grapevines. The general reduction of chemical applications is discussed based on long-term field experiments and in the perspective of a low input sustainable and ecological viticulture.

## Materials and methods

### Weather station network

The setup of a national network of weather data at the microclimatic level started in 2000. A total of 152 weather stations (Campbell CR10X, Campbell CR 1000, Lufft HP-100, Lufft Opus) are present all over the country. All data for temperature ( $^{\circ}$ C), relative humidity (%), leaf wetness duration (h) and rainfall (mm) from field measurements of the weather stations are centralized at Agroscope and used in different forecasting models. Measurements were taken every ten minutes and data were sent via GSM two times a day (4-6 a.m., 4-6 p.m.).

### Forecast of downy mildew *VitiMeteo-Plasmopara*

The model Vitimeteo (Bleyer et al., 2008a, 2009; Viret et al., 2005) simulates the main developmental steps of the epidemiology of *Plasmopara viticola* (Bleyer et al., 2008b; Viret et al., 2007). All parameters included in the model can be adjusted according to experimental values obtained previously from experts. The results are presented as summarized tables and graphs for each region, with the possibility to access detailed tables containing all data from the first of January. The predicted downy mildew risk for the next five days appears grayish on the tables, based on five day weather forecasts from Meteoblue (Basel, Switzerland) for temperature, rain and relative humidity.

### Forecast of powdery mildew *VitiMeteo-oidium*

Powdery mildew infection risk is calculated using the model Oidiag (Kast and Bleyer, 2010) and indicated as an index considering the ontogenetic resistance of grapes after bloom (Gadoury et al., 2003).

### Field experiments

Field experiments were conducted on standard vineyards of 6500 to 7000 plants per ha (1.8-2.2 x 0.8 m) at different places in the French part of Switzerland and in the experimental plots of Agroscope in Changins (VD), Leytron (VS) and Wädenswil (ZH). Sensitive varieties such as cv. Chasselas, Müller-Thurgau, and Pinot noir were used. The control strategy against downy mildew was to wait for the first primary infection calculated by Vitimeteo and to place a contact fungicide (active ingredient was folpet) at 80-90% of the incubation time or a penetrating fungicide a few days after the beginning of the first secondary infection (Viret et al., 2001). Spray intervals were determined by Vitimeteo, considering the duration of efficacy at 10 days for contact fungicides and 12 days for penetrating and systemic active ingredients. In all plots, an unsprayed portion of at least 200 m<sup>2</sup> was used to analyze the epidemic of downy and powdery mildews. Regular scoring of the diseases in the control plots were performed by counting four replicates of 100 leaves and 50 bunches, compared with the sprayed plots after Vitimeteo. The diseased leaf surface was visually estimated (0, 1=0-2.5%, 2=2.5-10%, 3=10-25%, 4=25-50%, 5=>50%) to calculate disease frequency and severity. Experiments were specifically designed to evaluate the efficacy of spraying schedules used by the growers with different active ingredients conventionally dosed, compared to the adapted dosage according to Siegfried et al. (2007). The fungicides used were contact active ingredients (folpet, sulfur, copper), penetrating a.i. (strobilurines, cymoxanil, triazols, amide carbamates), or systemic a.i. (Al-fosetyl, propiconazole).

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phenylamides) applied at the recommended concentration, adapted to the leaf area (Siegfried et al., 2007) or to the growth stage (Viret and Siegfried, 2009).

#### Breeding resistant grapevine cultivars

Since 1996 the breeding program of Agroscope has been entirely dedicated to resistance against major fungal diseases, including downy, powdery mildews and Botrytis, by conventional crossing of *Vitis vinifera* with resistant cultivars. After castration of the mother vine flowers and artificial fecundation with a brush using pollen collected from the partner vines, bunches were covered with a paper bag to prevent external fecundation. The berries obtained were then harvested, and the seeds extracted (to be potted the next spring). The thousands of seedlings obtained were first selected after artificial inoculation of downy mildew, and the surviving ones were characterized by their phytoalexins profiles (Gindro et al., 2006). At least ten years of field experiments under different climatic conditions in the vineyards of Agroscope and wine-making with strict evaluation protocols completed the selection process. The last five to eight years of experiments were on a farm under average conditions with interested viticulturists.

## Results and discussion

### Swiss viticulture

The viticulture area of Switzerland covers 14'780 hectares but has a clearly higher economic value (approx. 600 millions of SFr.) than the 145'000 ha of cereals (approx. 450 millions of SFr.), generating more value and are not constrained by global price politics and trading, which is why wine makers generally sell their final product. Vines are cultivated under cool and alpine conditions. The restricted surface is due to the climatic conditions and high elevation of the land, compared to other European viticulture areas. The central plateau is located at 450 – 550 m a.s, and the highest point in the Alps is over 4'600 m. Grapevines can only be planted according to a restricted vineyard cadaster, in favorable conditions, mostly along the lake side facing south or in well-exposed valleys, such as the Rhine and Rhône river valleys.

Swiss viticulture is characterized by steep to very steep slopes, small plots (national average <1 ha per grower), intensive hand labor and difficult mechanization inducing high production costs compared to international standards (Table 1). The largest viticulture area is located in western Switzerland, the French part, with over 11'000 ha. In the German part (east), 3'000 ha are used to grow grapevines, and 1'000 ha in the Italian part, south of the Alps. Up to 200 grape varieties are planted (OFAG, 2012) depending on the climatic conditions and on the historical background of the various regions. However, this diversity decreases drastically when considering varieties planted over a surface of 100 ha (Figure 1).

Approximately 33'000 farmers are producing grapes, but only approximately 6'000 companies are making wine; the difference is attributed to part-time growers. This particular structure is well illustrated in the Rhône river valley (Valais), where 5'000 ha of vines (33% of the national area) are traditionally cultivated by approx. 20'000 growers. The mean size plot is approximately 440 m<sup>2</sup>; a farmer runs an average of 3'800 m<sup>2</sup> of vine, and 3.8% of the growers own more than one ha of vine.

In 2012, total wine consumption was 2.6 million hectoliters for a population of approx. 8 million. Even with reduced inland production, the Swiss wine market is weak and tends to decline, due to competition with foreign wines. This decline is due to the high production costs of Swiss wines under fragmented structures and no more protection for inland production at the borders. To succeed, growers have to produce unique wines. This is partly achieved with the local historical varieties grown in Valais, as Arvine, Amigne, Païen, Rèze, Humagne blanche, Humagne rouge or Cornalin, and with new breedings as Gamaret, Garanoir, Mara, Carminoir, Galotta, Diolinoir and Divico (Dupraz and Spring, 2010). The international cultivated varieties are not always suitable to the local alpine climatic conditions of Switzerland, justifying the importance of an ongoing national breeding program that includes continuous adaptation to climate change scenarios.

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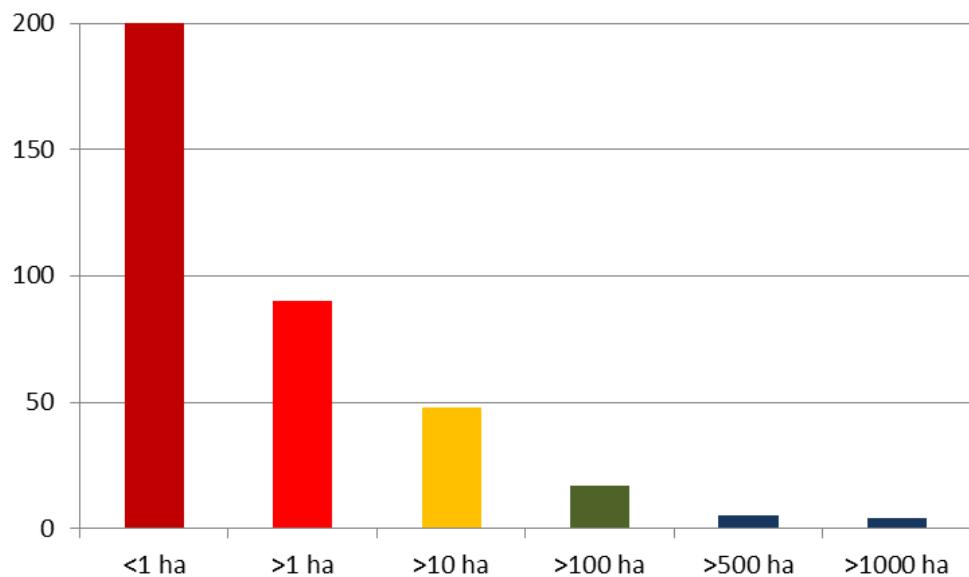


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**Table 1.** Production costs in hours per ha per year for grapevine management in Switzerland depending on the pruning and trellising system and level of mechanization, in comparison to the worldwide wine industry. The data represent long-term average values of production cost analyses made by the Swiss extension service, Agridea (2012). The international data are estimated.

\*Gobelet: in Switzerland, ancient common spur pruned bush system with a wooden stick to fix the canes vertically.

Pruning, trellising system	Hours / ha	SFr. / ha / year
Gobelet* not mechanized	1180	>50'000.-
Narrow rows (1 m), weak mechanization	840	>40'000.-
Terraces weak mechanization	690	>37'000.-
Terraces high mechanization	639	>34'000.-
Trellised vine, flat area highly mechanized	434	>30'000.-
International highly mechanized e.g., California, Australia, etc.	100-200	5000 – 10'000.-



**Figure 1.** Number of grape varieties cultivated in Switzerland according to the respective cumulative surface. In total, up to 200 varieties are planted, but only 17 cover more than 100 ha and 4 more than 1000 ha (Pinot noir > Chasselas > Gamay > Merlot).

### Integrated production

Integrated production started in Switzerland in the seventies, and with the creation of Vitiswiss in 1993, the principles were officialized and well recognized by the farmers. The major benefits were the improvement of pest management by the bio-control of spider mites (*Panonychus ulmi* and *Tetranychus urticae*) with predatory mites (*Typhlodromus pyri* and *Amblyseius andersoni*) and the control of grape berry moths (*Lobesia botrana* and *Eupoecilia ambiguella*) by mating disruption. The number of farmers involved increased, and the IP-concept encompasses all production steps, from soil management to planting material, sprayer calibration, biodiversity, water and cover crop management, as well as education and wine making. Today, no acaricides and very few insecticides are used and the predators are protected by applying neutral fungicides. Forecasting

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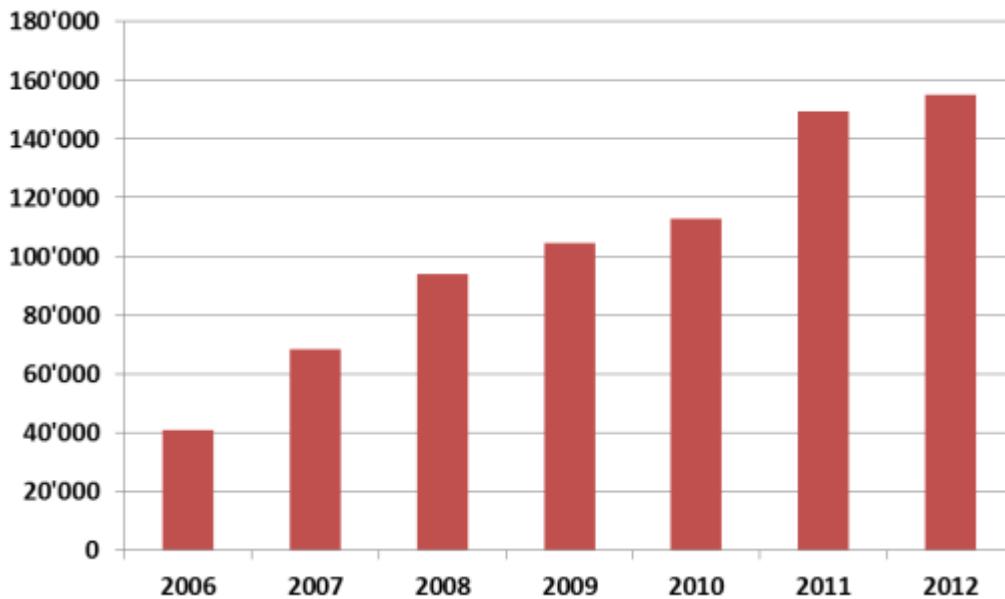
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systems, available on the internet ([www.agrometeo.ch](http://www.agrometeo.ch)), represent major progress for the control of fungal diseases (such as mildew or black rot). All the current information related to climatic conditions is freely available on the Internet for the farmers, based on over 150 weather stations all over the country.

Following the basic technical rules of Vitiswiss entitles farmers to financial support by the State government, the Vitiswiss certificate and the Vinatura label when complementary efforts specific to each growing area are achieved. Today, over 85% of the grape growing area is cultivated according to IP, as recognition of sustainability, respect to the environment and a guarantee for high-quality wines, and 3% of the area is organically grown with some increase related to political pressure and expectation of consumers.

### **Low input viticulture**

One of the most important political and societal issues in viticulture in the near future is to reduce applications of plant protection products, a perspective that depends on the varieties and their evolution. However, more than 95% of varieties planted worldwide are highly sensitive to the main fungal diseases, a fact that will not change in the next few decades. For *V. vinifera* varieties, fungicides have to be applied at the correct time, in accordance with the epidemiological development of the pathogens, at the right and precise dosage and with a calibrated sprayer adapted to the leaf canopy. Any alternatives to organic fungicides as elicitors, antagonists or plant extracts need to be sprayed on the leaves and bunches and will have the same challenges of correct timing, dosage and application precision to prevent negative side effects. To identify the right time for spraying, the model needs an accurate prediction of infection and simulation of the epidemiological development of the fungi. In this instance, Swiss farmers are highly satisfied with the internet platform Agrometeo, as shown by the increased number of users and requests (Figure 2) following the development of downy mildew. Between 2006 and 2009, the mean yearly increase of requests on the Internet platform reached 31.4%. The model Vitimeteo-Plasmopara is progressively gaining more users and its application in over 150'000 ha of grapevine in central Europe confirms its interest at the international level.



**Figure 2.** Total number of annual requests in the Internet platform [www.agrometeo.ch](http://www.agrometeo.ch) from 2006 to 2012, including disease forecast, weather data and calculation of leaf area-adapted dosage of plant protection products.

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### Leaf area-adapted dosage of plant protection products

Leaf area-adapted dosage of fungicides as described by Siegfried et al. (2008) lead to a clear reduction of the amount of active ingredient, in particular from bud burst until flowering. This approach allows a reduction of the amount of fungicides against both downy and powdery mildews of 15 to 26% compared with the linear growth stage-adapted dosage (Table 2). Yearly variations depend on the climatic conditions and on the spraying schedule, especially before and during bloom. In the years with very high downy mildew pressure (2006, 07, 08), both dosages present diseased leaves and bunches, but no significant differences could be found in relation with the dose rate. In these years, no economic losses were found, except in the unsprayed control. The adaptation of the dosage to the canopy size is easy to use and calculate on the Internet module Agrometeo. It can only be confidently performed in trellised vineyards with properly calibrated spraying equipment well adapted to the leaf canopy.

**Table 2.** Reduction of application through leaf adapted dosage of fungicides in a same plot from 2005 to 2011 (Perroy, La Côte, VD, cv. Chasselas) using spraying schedules and commercial fungicides chosen by the grower, compared to the standard dosage adapted to the growth stage currently used for registration in Switzerland. Data represent the cumulated amount of fungicides over a year in kg/ha against downy and powdery mildews and the cumulative costs in SFrs/ha.

	Number of sprays	Standard (kg/ha)	Adapted (kg/ha)	Reduction (%)	Costs standard (SFrs/ha)	Costs adapted (SFrs/ha)	Reduction (%)
2005	7	20.54	17.45	15.0	398	365	8.3
2006	8	18.16	16.66	8.3	609	566	7.1
2007	9	37.02	28.87	22.0	649	560	13.7
2008	10	42.49	31.35	26.2	1381	927	32.9
2009	8	35.03	24.86	29.0	708	544	23.2
2010	9	38.48	30.59	20.5	707	640	9.5
2011	10	52.4	40.95	21.9	741	655	11.6
Average	8.7	34.9	27.2	20.4	741.9	608	15.2

### Breeding resistant cultivars

The most interesting alternative in reducing pesticides is the breeding and planting of resistant varieties. Since the eighties, Agroscope has been cross-breeding *V. vinifera* cultivars aiming to obtain more resistant varieties against gray mold (*Botrytis cinerea*). Different Botrytis resistant varieties are already planted in Switzerland, such as Gamaret (Gamay x Reichensteiner), Galotta (Gamay x Ancellotta) and Carminoir (Pinot noir x Cabernet Sauvignon). In 1996, the breeding program was oriented towards varieties resistant to downy mildew, powdery mildew and Botrytis using different backcrosses of resistant varieties with Gamaret. The first variety has been recently classified under the name Divico (Gamaret x Bronner), resistant to downy mildew and gray mold and weakly susceptible to powdery mildew (Spring et al. 2013). The success of this breeding research can be measured by the planted surface of those varieties, which has increased continuously. Gamaret is the most widely planted variety in Switzerland for the last six years, reaching fourth place in terms of surface area of the red varieties, after Pinot noir, Gamay, and Merlot.

Table 3 summarizes the different approaches in reducing applications for more sustainable and ecological vineyard management. Precise data in comparison to the use of pesticides before the generalization of integrated production in the nineties are missing. The estimations made here are based on current practices, compared with a total number of sprays of approximately 12 in central Europe under high disease pressure (8 to 9 fungicides and 3 to 4 insecticides and/or acaricides). The major progress can be seen by modelling disease pressure for a more accurate application of fungicides against downy and powdery mildews, leading to a reduction of 1 to 4 sprays, depending on the climatic conditions and varietal sensitivity. From the entomological point of view,

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biological solutions involving mating disruption or the use of *Bacillus thuringiensis*-based preparations against grape berry moths, as well as by the protection and development of positive conditions for predatory mites against spider mites, allowed avoidance of any synthetic preparation. At the same time, the current practices of organic viticulture consist of applying spraying schedules mainly of sulfur, copper and plant extracts or antagonists and are more intensive in frequency, leading to questionable ecological balances when spraying is performed by tractor.

The most important reduction of fungicide application is the occurrence of resistant or more tolerant varieties against the major fungal diseases, allowing a drastic reduction of fungicides depending on disease pressure and level of resistance. Managing minimal spraying schedules on such varieties by following the epidemics on reliable forecasting systems is a key factor to prevent the adaptation of the pathogens to the resistant genes, even if the defense mechanisms are polygenic.

**Table 3.** Impact (relative and in number of sprays from a maximum of 12, 8-9 fungicides and 3-4 insecticides and/or acaricides under severe disease pressure) of the different strategies to reduce applications to viticulture in Switzerland. For integrated production, estimation was compared to the uses before the Vitiswiss guidelines of 1993.

Strategies	Impact (%)	Reduced number of sprays (N=12)
Integrated production (Vitiswiss guidelines)	15-30%	2-4
Biological control of grape berry moths and spider mites	15-30%	2-4
Fungal disease forecast Agrometeo*	8-30%	1-4
Crop adapted dosage *	15-30%	0
Planting resistant cultivars	80-100%	9 to 12

\*Average data from field experiments in different areas over the last ten years.

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## Vinos tintos varietales canarios: Relación entre parámetros sensoriales y analíticos

### Single-cultivar red wines from Canary Islands: Relationships between sensory and analytical parameters

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**Key words:** Red wine, sensory analysis, single-cultivar, Canary Islands.

#### 1. Introducción

Los parámetros sensoriales que caracterizan al vino son aquellas propiedades que pueden detectarse a través de los sentidos. Estas propiedades son captadas en forma de estímulos por nuestros receptores sensoriales que los envían al cerebro para su interpretación, generando lo que se conoce como sensaciones. En el proceso de obtener percepciones sensoriales de un vino intervienen el sentido de la vista (color, tono, transparencia, turbidez, presencia de precipitados, etc.), el olfato (olor, aromas, etc.), el gusto (principalmente sabores) y las sensaciones táctiles (astringencia, densidad, burbujeo, textura, estructura, longitud, persistencia, etc.).

La evaluación sensorial del vino se considera una herramienta extremadamente útil debido a su gran complejidad físico-química. Conocer el comportamiento sensorial del vino permite entre otras cuestiones prever el grado de aceptación, establecer criterios objetivos de calidad, desarrollar nuevos productos que se ajusten al mercado o comparar entre pares o competidores. En este sentido la privilegiada situación geográfica de Canarias y sus especiales condiciones climáticas han permitido elaborar tradicionalmente una gran variedad de productos agroalimentarios singulares. En el caso del vino dicha tradición y tipicidad cobra especial relevancia dada la gran cantidad de tipos de vino y variedades de uva presentes en las Islas. La riqueza varietal de vid en Canarias se debe a que sus mesoclimas posibilitan el desarrollo de un número elevado de variedades tanto autóctonas como foráneas. Además la ausencia de filoxera y el aislamiento insular han conservado con alta pureza las características propias de cada una de las cepas.

El cultivo de la vid llega a Canarias en el s.XV, plantando el portugués Fernando de Castro la primera viña en Tenerife en 1497. El vino de Canarias alcanza prestigio durante el s.XVI al exportarse cantidad de Malvasías a Jerez e Inglaterra (López et al., 1993). Debido a la rivalidad entre las dos grandes potencias del s.XVIII la corona inglesa restringió el comercio de este producto potenciando los vinos de Portugal. Como respuesta en Canarias se comienzan a producir “falsos Madeiras” para exportarlos como tales a Inglaterra y sus colonias americanas. Este hecho conllevaría la introducción en el archipiélago de vides tintas alrededor de 1750, pues eran necesarias para elaborar este tipo de vinos (Macías, 1998).

La mayor parte de los estudios dedicados a la evaluación sensorial de los vinos de Canarias tratan la componente volátil, esto es, el aroma. Pocas investigaciones se centran en la importancia desde la perspectiva sensorial de los componentes no volátiles, responsables del sabor, la estructura, las sensaciones táctiles de textura y astringencia que pueden dar lugar a propiedades más complejas como el flavor. En este sentido la presente comunicación se centra en evaluar las relaciones entre el análisis sensorial de vinos tintos producidos en Canarias y su composición fisicoquímica no aromática. La investigación se ha centrado en considerar vinos monovarietales con el fin de relacionar las características sensoriales y de composición con la variedad de uva empleada.

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Dada la cantidad de vinos producidos en las Islas Canarias con numerosas denominaciones de origen y cada uno de ellos con elaboraciones particulares propias de las técnicas de bodega, este estudio debe considerarse como un primer paso hacia la obtención más general de relaciones sensoriales y de composición en vinos canarios. Por todo ello no resulta recomendable generalizar mediante extrapolaciones simplificadas las observaciones detalladas en el presente manuscrito, pues la relación entre propiedades sensoriales y concentración de sustancias no puede considerarse exclusivamente relacionado con la variedad de vid empleada en la elaboración.

## 2. Materiales y métodos

Para el presente estudio se han considerado 65 muestras etiquetadas como monovarietales procedentes de denominaciones de origen de las Islas Canarias y elaboradas a partir de variedades autorizadas, si bien la Malvasía Rosada, Moscatel Negro, Tempranillo, Cabernet Sauvignon y Pinot Noir no están presentes debido a la dificultad de encontrar éstas elaboraciones en el archipiélago en forma de vinificaciones monovarietales. Por tanto las muestras evaluadas contemplan las variedades Listán Negro, Negramoll, Tintilla, Castellana, Baboso, Vijariego, Listán Prieto, Merlot, Syrah y Ruby Cabernet en número suficiente para su caracterización, siendo todas ellas en principio representativas de las diferentes tipologías y elaboraciones tintas.

En todos los casos las botellas analizadas corresponden a vinos tintos comerciales elaborados con uvas de las Islas Canarias adquiridas en establecimientos especializados. La selección se basa en la variedad de vid empleada, la representatividad de su elaboración, la proximidad de la añada y su origen geográfico. Estos criterios conllevan que la distribución muestral resulte altamente significativa en relación a la producción real de vino en las Islas pero no se han podido considerar todas las variedades de vid empleadas para vinificación en las Islas. Todos los vinos han sido elaborados dentro de Denominaciones de Origen. La información aportada en la etiqueta por las bodegas sobre la naturaleza monovarietal se contrastó con los Consejos Reguladores; pues a nivel legal se permite la mención monovarietal conteniendo al menos el 85% de la variedad declarada. De esta forma fue posible establecer el porcentaje real de la variedad mayoritaria y el grado de presencia de otras variedades no mencionadas directamente en el etiquetado. En los casos que el Consejo Regulador informara de porcentajes reales menores al 95% la muestra pasó a considerarse como mezcla en nuestro estudio.

El análisis físicoquímico llevado a cabo para caracterizar los vinos se basó en los estándares metrológicos de la OIV (OIV, 2015) incluyendo las determinaciones de masa volúmica (densidad), pH, acidez total, anhídrido sulfuroso libre y total, grado alcohólico, glucosa+fructosa, nitrógeno amoniacal, turbidez, características cromáticas, perfil de ácidos (acético, l-málico, láctico, tartárico, glucónico y cítrico) y perfil metálico (K, Na, Mn, Fe, Cu, Mg, Co).

El panel de cata contaba con diez jueces profesionales del sector enológico de experiencia contrastada en comités de evaluación organoléptica, siendo 8 hombres y 2 mujeres. Las catas se desarrollaron en tandas ciegas de aproximadamente ocho muestras más una sesión de entrenamiento para familiarizarse con la evaluación a realizar. Las sesiones se orientaron a establecer una descripción visual y sensorial lo más completa posible de los vinos evaluando matiz violeta, intensidad cromática, estado oxidativo, acidez, astringencia, calor, tipos de notas y calidad global. Las evaluaciones se realizaron de manera individual en formularios de elaboración propia basados en la ficha de cata INDO pero utilizando para la evaluación escalas no estructuradas de 5 cm. De esta forma también se cuantificaron numerosas características sensoriales habituales en paneles de cata. Aproximadamente 30 ml de cada vino fueron evaluados en catavinos normalizados identificados mediante códigos de 3 dígitos al azar y en orden diferente por cada uno de los miembros del panel durante cada una de las sesiones.

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Figura 1. Evaluación de los atributos de color en cata

### 3. Resultados

La evaluación de las características organolépticas para la totalidad de las muestras del estudio se resume en la Tabla 1. Se observa gran heterogeneidad en algunos atributos relacionados con el color como el matiz violeta y la intensidad colorante pero también en otras percepciones como la sensación de calor o las notas vegetales. La presencia de diferentes variedades es el principal motivo de dicha variabilidad, pues la desviación de los resultados cuando sólo se consideran las variedades de forma independiente es mucho menor.

Por otro lado la Tabla 2 muestra los resultados medios y la desviación estándar de los atributos evaluados por variedad de vid empleada en la elaboración. Se observa que el matiz violeta quizás sea el parámetro cuya desviación es mayor para todas las variedades, evidenciando la complejidad de su evaluación en el caso de vinos jóvenes como los presentes en el estudio. Los resultados de la ficha de cata permiten además obtener diagramas descriptivos sobre la sensación organoléptica media de cada una de las variedades, reflejándose dichos perfiles en la Figura 2. Para más detalles acerca de la ficha de cata empleada y las relaciones analíticas consideradas véase Heras-Roger, 2015.

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Tabla 1. Resultados experimentales obtenidos en cata para toda la población considerada (n=65)

Atributo (escala 0-5)	X ± σ	Rango (Min-Max)
Acidez	2.58 ± 0.55	1.10 - 3.50
Oxidación / Evolución	1.40 ± 0.76	0.00 - 3.00
Matiz Violeta	2.23 ± 1.48	0.00 - 5.00
Astringencia	2.26 ± 0.63	0.75 - 3.60
Intensidad de Color	3.04 ± 0.90	1.30 - 4.80
Calor	2.56 ± 0.63	1.12 - 3.83
Mineralidad	1.79 ± 0.71	0.62 - 3.33
Notas Florales	1.65 ± 0.77	0.25 - 3.67
Notas Vegetales	1.84 ± 0.72	0.00 - 4.00
Notas Frutales	2.10 ± 0.79	0.25 - 3.67
Notas Balsámicas	1.38 ± 0.66	0.40 - 3.30
Notas Especiadas	1.68 ± 0.73	0.30 - 3.30
Notas Animales	0.75 ± 0.63	0.00 - 2.30
Calidad de Conjunto	2.08 ± 0.71	0.5 - 3.40

Tabla 2. Algunas puntuaciones de cata especificando las diferencias significativas por variedad

	B	C	LN	LP	M	N	R	S	T	V	Mz.
Intensidad de color	3.50 <sup>bc</sup> (0.91)	4.00 <sup>c</sup> (0.67)	2.72 <sup>bc</sup> (0.77)	3.19 <sup>bc</sup> (0.61)	3.37 <sup>bc</sup> (0.48)	3.35 <sup>bc</sup> (0.87)	3.33 <sup>bc</sup> (0.95)	4.08 <sup>c</sup> (0.57)	2.73 <sup>bc</sup> (1.51)	2.45 <sup>ab</sup> (0.24)	1.30 <sup>a</sup> (1.42)
Matiz violeta	2.83 <sup>ab</sup> <sup>c</sup> (1.60)	3.00 <sup>abc</sup> (1.95)	1.76 <sup>abc</sup> (1.27)	2.51 <sup>abc</sup> (1.87)	2.50 <sup>abc</sup> (1.36)	0.93 <sup>a</sup> (1.45)	1.33 <sup>ab</sup> (1.78)	3.43 <sup>bc</sup> (1.66)	1.87 <sup>ab</sup> <sup>c</sup> (2.17)	1.59 <sup>ab</sup> (1.21)	1.05 <sup>a</sup> (1.40)
Nota mineral	1.57 <sup>ab</sup> (0.46)	1.40ab (0.78)	1.67 <sup>ab</sup> (0.71)	2.07 <sup>abc</sup> (0.54)	1.75 <sup>abc</sup> (0.98)	2.67 <sup>bc</sup> (0.78)	3.00 <sup>c</sup> (0.85)	2.38 <sup>bc</sup> (1.09)	2.20 <sup>bc</sup> (1.13)	1.76 <sup>abc</sup> (0.61)	1.30 <sup>a</sup> (0.79)
Acidez	2.65 <sup>b</sup> (0.51)	2.40 <sup>b</sup> (0.75)	2.46 <sup>b</sup> (0.61)	2.76 <sup>b</sup> (0.43)	2.62 <sup>b</sup> (0.65)	2.58 <sup>b</sup> (0.85)	2.67 <sup>b</sup> (0.72)	2.95 <sup>b</sup> (0.40)	2.60 <sup>b</sup> (0.56)	2.62 <sup>b</sup> (0.54)	1.12 <sup>a</sup> (0.41)
Calor	2.63 <sup>b</sup> (0.42)	2.20 <sup>ab</sup> (0.71)	2.33 <sup>b</sup> (0.69)	2.82 <sup>b</sup> (0.28)	2.00 <sup>ab</sup> (0.79)	2.33 <sup>b</sup> (0.92)	2.81 <sup>b</sup> (0.86)	2.89 <sup>b</sup> (0.70)	2.93 <sup>b</sup> (0.38)	2.99 <sup>b</sup> (0.81)	1.25 <sup>a</sup> (0.52)
Astringencia	2.74 <sup>b</sup> (0.48)	1.80 <sup>b</sup> (0.52)	1.96 <sup>b</sup> (0.55)	2.76 <sup>b</sup> (0.81)	2.12 <sup>b</sup> (0.88)	1.67 <sup>ab</sup> (0.94)	2.00 <sup>b</sup> (0.98)	2.59 <sup>b</sup> (0.73)	2.03 <sup>b</sup> (0.52)	2.61 <sup>b</sup> (0.71)	1.10 <sup>a</sup> (0.95)
Calidad global	2.25 <sup>bc</sup> <sup>d</sup> (0.69)	1.60 <sup>b</sup> (0.84)	1.89 <sup>ab</sup> (0.68)	1.97 <sup>bc</sup> (0.69)	2.88 <sup>cd</sup> (0.79)	2.13 <sup>bcd</sup> (0.86)	2.33 <sup>bc</sup> <sup>d</sup> (0.90)	2.61 <sup>bcd</sup> <sup>d</sup> (0.53)	2.17 <sup>bc</sup> <sup>d</sup> (0.24)	2.21 <sup>bcd</sup> (0.81)	1.50 <sup>a</sup> (0.45)

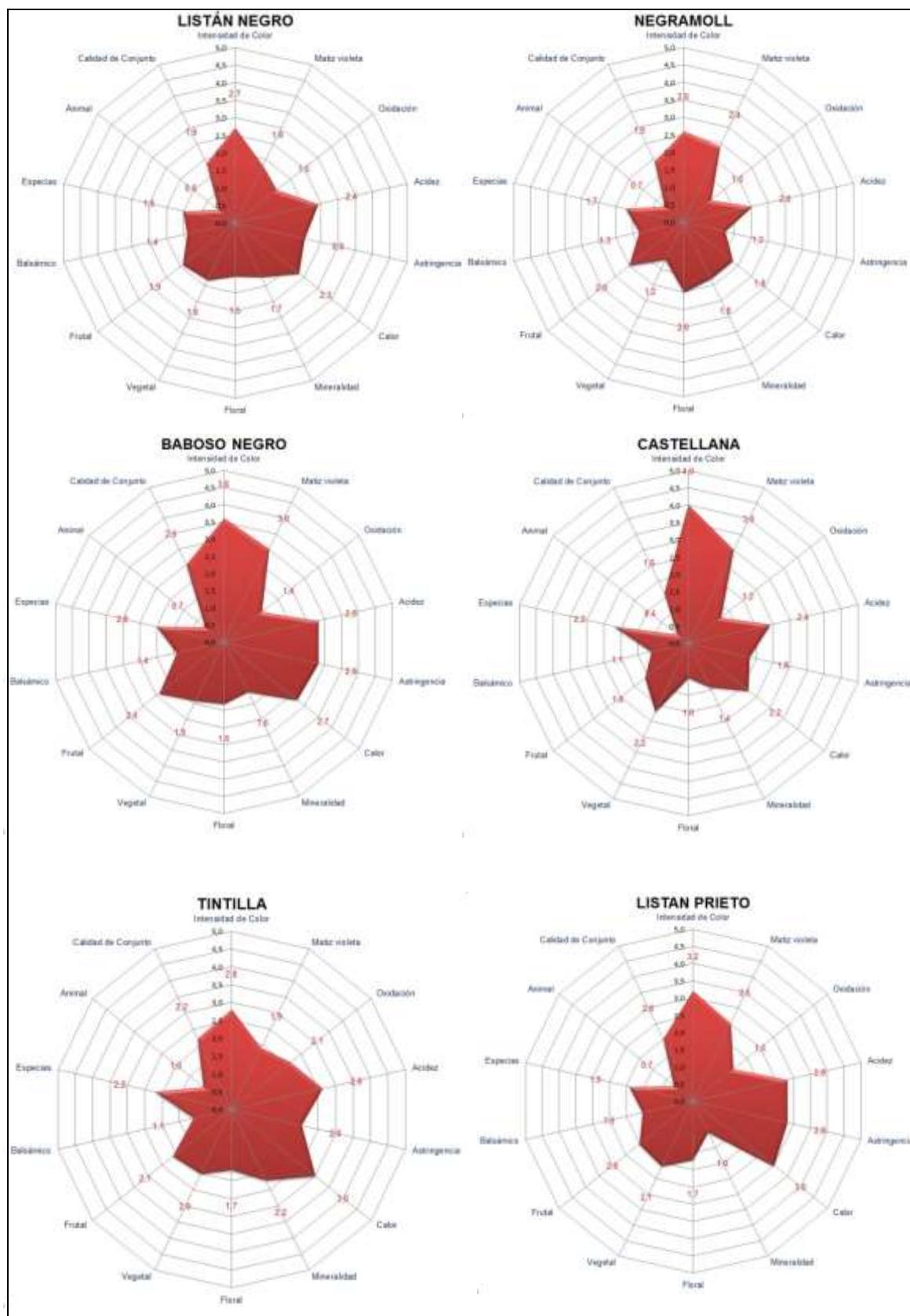
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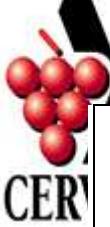
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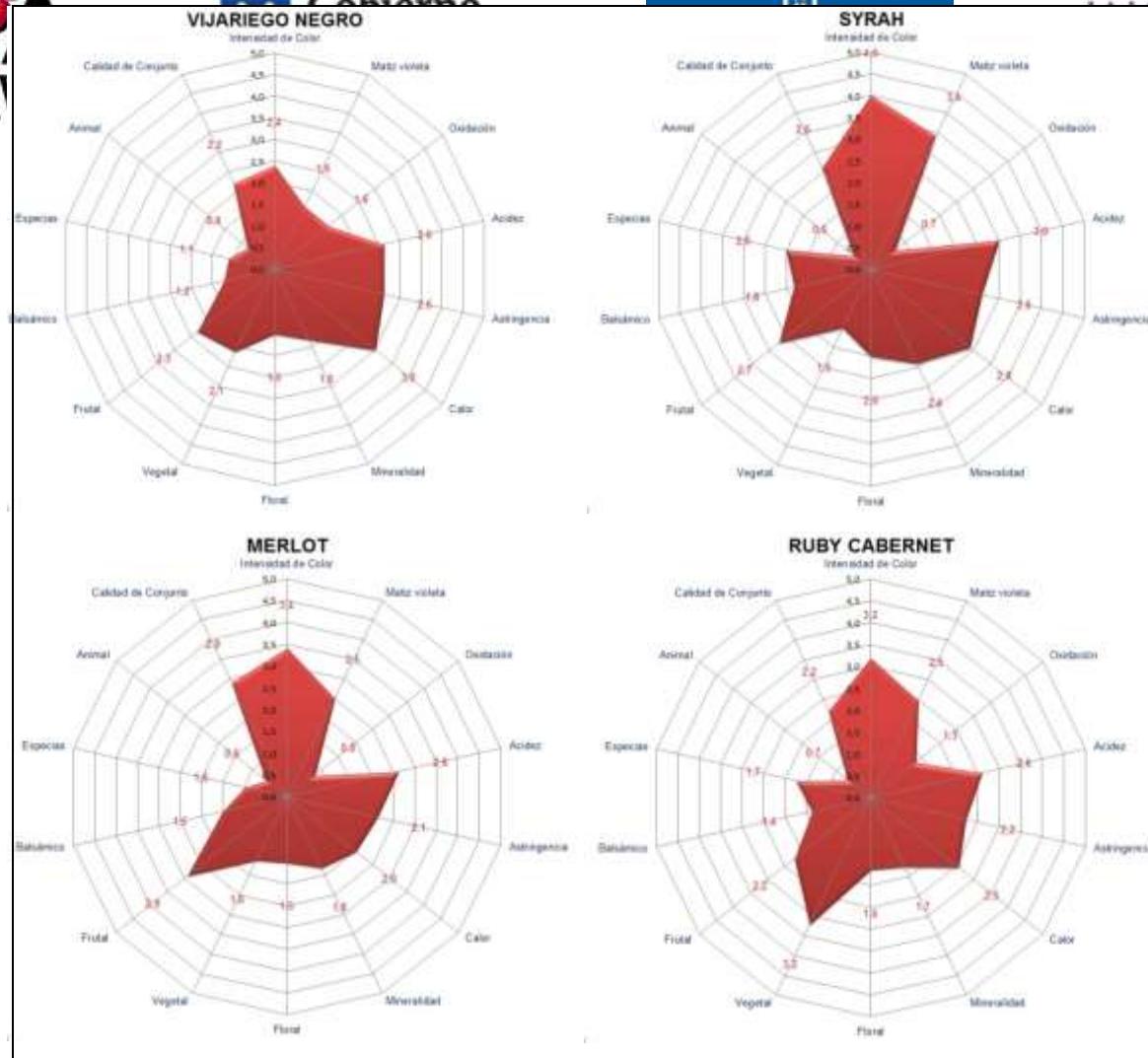


Figura 2. Evaluación organoléptica por variedades

En general las tendencias de color apreciadas por los catadores concuerdan con los resultados analíticos obtenidos. Según los resultados emitidos por el panel los vinos elaborados a partir de la variedad Syrah tienden a presentar mayor color en relación a elaboraciones realizadas con otros varietales. Dicha caracterización colorimétrica de los vinos elaborados a partir de Shiraz coincide con los resultados más elevados de Intensidad Colorante en el laboratorio.

En el extremo contrario se encuentran los vinos de Negramoll, que según los jueces del panel se caracterizan por bajos matices violáceos. En la misma línea dicha variedad destaca en el laboratorio analíticamente por sus mayores valores de tonalidad, lo que conlleva una mayor evolución oxidativa de las características cromáticas, disminuyendo el citado matiz violeta.

Los panelistas puntúan los vinos multivarietales con acideces bajas, observándose también dicho fenómeno en los datos analíticos. Análogamente los catadores describen la Vijariego como una variedad de calor notable, diferenciándose en el laboratorio por su alto contenido en alcohol así como glicerina. En general los catadores consideran los vinos de Syrah como los más equilibrados mientras que Listán Prieto se caracteriza por transmitir sensaciones aristadas dado su particular carácter astringente.

Además de obtenerse los citados perfiles por variedades también se obtuvieron una serie de descriptores visuales sobre el color que a juicio de los panelistas desarrollaba cada uno de los vinos. Los resultados se resumen en la Figura 3 por variedades.

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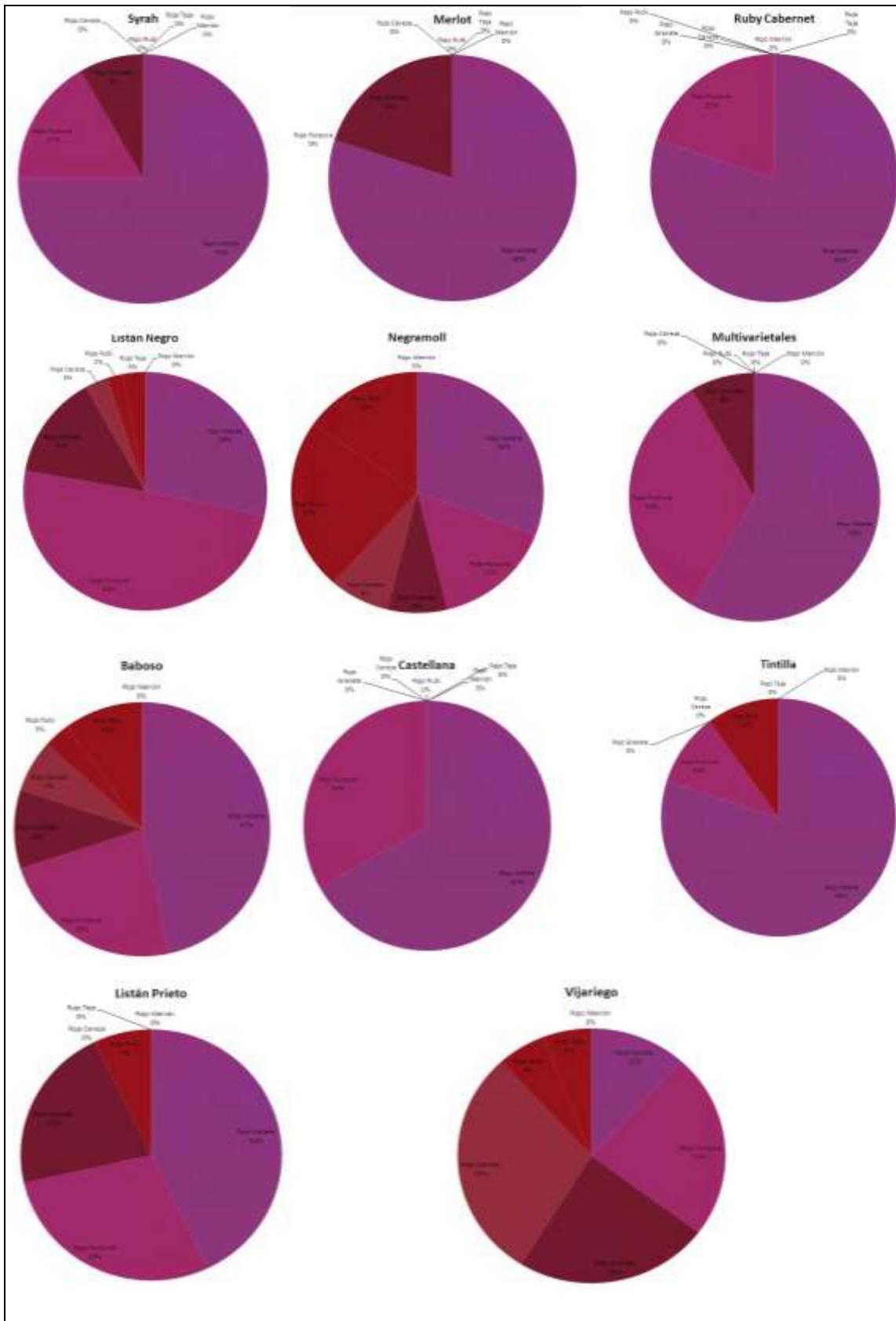


Figura 3. Distribución de descriptores visuales de los catadores por variedad

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#### 4. Discusión

Como queda de manifiesto en la Figura 3 los principales descriptores para los vinos tintos canarios son rojo violeta y rojo púrpura, presentando cada una de las variedades una diferente distribución. En general las variedades foráneas introducidas por su color y estructura presentan en mayor porcentaje del descriptor rojo violeta. Además de las foráneas las variedades con tonos menos evolucionados son Baboso, Tintilla y Castellana, predominando en ellas el matiz rojo violeta. Cabe destacar la mejora en los descriptores visuales de las mezclas respecto a los monovarietales de origen empleados, así como la tendencia a proporcionar tonos evolucionados de la Negramoll y la Vijariego Negro.

Dado que en este trabajo no se realiza la caracterización de los compuestos responsables del aroma no es posible profundizar en los atributos aromáticos descritos por los catadores, si bien se observa que los vinos elaborados con Syrah y Merlot presentan notas frutales mayores que el resto de elaboraciones, mientras que el rasgo típico de aromas a pimiento (pirazinas) de la familia de los Cabernet, presente en nuestro estudio a través de la Ruby Cabernet, queda patente por su mayor puntuación en notas vegetales. Las variedades tradicionales destacan por sus atributos especiados, sobre todo Tintilla y Castellana.

Las elaboraciones realizadas con Syrah destacan por la intensidad de su color y baja luminosidad, seguida de Tintilla cuyos valores sobresalen con respecto al resto. Dentro de las variedades tradicionales también destaca Baboso Negro y Castellana. En el extremo opuesto se encuentran las elaboraciones de Negramoll, pues muestran menor intensidad de color y mayor luminosidad, mientras que la variedad Vijariego desarrolla los mayores valores medios de  $a^*$ ,  $b^*$ , hab,  $C^*$  y  $L^*$ , por lo que sus vinos tienden a desarrollar tonos más oxidados. Aunque los vinos elaborados con Castellana presentan excelentes parámetros de color a juicio de los panelistas y sus variables analíticas; dicha variedad no resulta especialmente apreciada por los panelistas en su valoración en calidad general, probablemente debido a su elevado pH y contenido en ácido láctico.

La evaluación de los datos permite correlacionar los parámetros evaluados por el panel y por los ensayos de laboratorio. De esta manera se aprecian relaciones de nivel 0.01 entre sensaciones organolépticas como la cuantificación del matiz violeta por parte los catadores y la tonalidad analítica por espectrofotometría ( $r=-0.870$ ). También se relaciona la intensidad del color evaluada por los panelistas y la suma de las absorbancias ( $r=0.728$ ) o la percepción de astringencia y el contenido global en polifenoles ( $r=0.543$ ).

Del mismo modo es posible relacionar diversas percepciones organolépticas como la astringencia y el amargor ( $r=0.604$ ) o el amargor y la acidez ( $r=0.610$ ). Con un nivel de significación algo menor (0.05) se relaciona la estimación del atributo de oxidación/evolución con el contenido de ácido acético cuantificado en el laboratorio ( $r=0.307$ ), y la sensación de calor estimada por los panelistas con el grado alcohólico ( $r=0.358$ ). La mineralidad no se correlacionó con ninguno de los parámetros de composición del vino.

#### 5. Conclusiones

En general se observa que aunque existe una gran heterogeneidad en la producción de vinos tintos en las Islas Canarias el uso de panelistas profesionales entrenados permite obtener información sobre los matices sensoriales comparables a los resultados analíticos, sobre todo en lo relativo al color. En este sentido determinadas sensaciones como la acidez o el calor pueden resultar incluso marcadores varietales parciales.

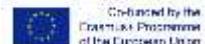
Aunque el estudio se ha basado en monovarietales, la inclusión de muestras consideradas por la legislación dentro de dicha categoría pero consideradas mezclas en nuestra investigación ha revelado que los descriptores visuales de dichas mezclas son más equilibrados que los de los monovarietales de origen.

El análisis sensorial considera a la variedad Shiraz como la más valorada por su color y equilibrio, si bien además de las variedades internacionales la tradicional Tintilla también destacó por su estructura. El equilibrio entre los factores de acidez, astringencia y ausencia de oxidación reveló que Shiraz, Merlot y Baboso serían las variedades con una mayor capacidad de envejecimiento, mientras que Negramoll y Verijadiego mostraban un comportamiento oxidativo. En términos de color las variedades tradicionales Tintilla, Castellana y Baboso son muy valoradas, si bien los elevados pH, así como contenido en potasio y ácido láctico de la Castellana parecen penalizar su valoración global en fase de cata. La variedad Listán Prieto destaca por su fuerte astringencia, que se correlaciona con su elevado contenido tánico.

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## Evaluation of Table and Wine Grape Cultivars in Wyoming for the Development of Value-added Products

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### Introduction

Grape is an important fruit crop valued for fresh fruit and processed products that make a significant contribution to the economy of the United States. Grape and wine production in the United States has been traditionally dominated by *Vitis vinifera* cultivars. The development of new cold-hardy grape hybrids has resulted in a rapid expansion in grape production in the mid-western and mountain west regions of the United States. Area under grape production in Wyoming is rapidly increasing as producers seek alternate crops to diversify farm operations. Low winter temperatures, late spring frosts and a short growing season limit the cultivation of traditional grape cultivars in WY. Grape production in Wyoming occurs at elevations ranging from 1,200 to 1,800 m above mean sea level. Grape production statewide is characterized by a short growing season and wide fluctuations in weather patterns including temperature and rainfall during the production season. Favorable weather conditions during the growing season can ensure vigorous, disease-free vine growth and high-quality fruit production if suitable cultivars for the state can be identified. It is therefore critical to evaluate the performance of cold-hardy grapevine cultivars for identifying early, short-season, high quality cultivars that exhibit good cold-hardiness. The goal of the grape research program at the University of Wyoming are to evaluate table, wine and juice grape cultivars for cold hardiness, yield and fruit quality under short growing seasons.

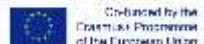
### Materials and methods

A grapevine cultivar evaluation trial was established in 2013 at the Sheridan R&E center. The center is at an elevation of 3,750 feet with a growing season of 120-130 days. A germplasm comprising of 30 cultivars was established in a greenhouse at the Sheridan R&E center. One year old vines were planted in May 2013. A five feet tall high wire cordon trellis system was constructed using wooden posts (8 feet tall) at 20 feet distance within rows and two wires at 3 and 5 feet (12.5 gauge aluminum wire). End posts were securely anchored in the ground using 40 inch earth anchors. Wire tension on rows was adjusted using a wire vise tensioning tool. Vines were planted at 10 feet X 5 feet spacing in 30 cm deep holes that were filled with compost and supplemented with 50 g 19:6:12 slow release fertilizer. Grapevines were trained to a high wire cordon and irrigated using drip irrigation. Grapevines were spur pruned in the second week of May by retaining two spurs. Any vines exhibiting dead cordons were retrained. Data on bud break, number of inflorescences per vine, yield per vine, number of clusters, cluster weights, individual berry weights and TSS were recorded. Grapevines were harvested between August 30 and September 13.

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## Results and Discussion

A significant amount of bird damage was observed in Marquette, Osceola Muscat and St. Croix. Harvesting was carried out early to avoid complete depredation of fruit from birds. Frontenac, Frontenac Gris and Osceola Muscat were the highest yielding cultivars (Table 1). Total soluble solid values ranged from 13 – 23%. Most *Vitis labrusca* hybrids such as ‘Elvira’, ‘Concord’, ‘Ives’ and ‘Fredonia’ are extremely late maturing and ripening for the Sheridan area and not suitable for production due to the risk of crop being lost to an early fall freeze. We continue to screen additional cultivars for their suitability under short growing seasons. The study should provide information to growers and homeowners on grape cultivars that can be successfully grown for fresh fruit and wine production in Wyoming.

## Acknowledgements

The study was supported by the Wyoming Department of Agriculture-Specialty crops block grant project.

*Table 1. Evaluation of table and wine grape cultivars at the Sheridan R&E center*

Cultivar	Yield per vine (lb)	No. of clusters	Cluster weight (lb)	Berry weight (g)	TSS
Brianna	8.36	34	0.37	1.92	20.6
Elvira	2.8	27.3	0.110	1.7	16
Edelweiss	8.2	43	0.393	1.9	16.4
Frontenac	9.31	59.3	0.3	0.97	20.3
Frontenac Gris	9.1	58	0.25	1.09	20.5
Foch	4.78	26.6	0.25	1.1	20
Osceola Muscat	9.3	45.5	0.15	1.37	23.38
Swenson White	2.8	16	0.175	1.6	13.42
Swenson Red	3.2	24.6	0.13	1.42	18.23
St. Croix	3.1	32.5	0.1	1.15	20.0

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## Geodiversity and biodiversity of the Ligurian terraced vineyards (NW-Italy)

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### Abstract

Ligurian Region has a great geological, geomorphological, pedological, and climatic diversity which together determine a large variety of ecological conditions and consequently different types of vegetation (1). Therefore, there is a mosaic of natural landscapes (with different levels of biodiversity) to which the anthropic landscapes are directly linked. The interaction between the natural and cultural components not only generates different landscapes, but also influence the conditions of cultivation and the characteristics of agricultural products. In particular, each wine grape variety (and each wine) has its own natural and cultural landscape (2, 3). In this work, we applied a multidisciplinary approach which involved the investigation of the geological, geomorphological, geochemical, mineralogical, ecological and vegetational features of selected DOC vineyards occurring in the Ligurian terraced landscape. The analytical protocol included routine pedological and minero-petrographical investigations as well as geochemical analyses by means of Field Portable X-ray Fluorescence Spectrometer (FP-EDXRF). Geomorphological evaluation as well as analysis of structural condition of the terraced vineyard were also performed. The study of vegetation has been carried out following the phytosociological method of the Zurich-Montpellier Sigmist School. The results of this research evidenced that phenotypic differences can be observed in the same vineyard and even in a same cultivar (same genotypes) as a response to local variation of the geo-pedological and ecological features.

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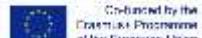
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## **El paisaje vitícola como origen de biodiversidad en las Islas Canarias y sinónimo de identidad.**

### **The vineyard landscape like origin of biodiversity in the Canary Islands and synonymous of identity.**

**Inmaculada Rodríguez Torres.**

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#### **Resumen**

Cualquier profesional de la vitivinicultura que se haya formado y trabajado en la Europa continental, se considerará capaz de resolver cuantos problemas se le planteen en dicho campo en cualquier parte del continente. Pero la viticultura de las Islas Canarias se escribe aparte; es aquel lugar donde prácticamente nada de lo aprendido tiene validez en esta tierra de clima tan cambiante y orografía volcánica. Estamos hablando del viñedo más meridional de Europa.

Los sistemas de conducción, la poda, las fechas de brotación, de maduración, ausencia de parada de crecimiento en muchos casos..., todo ello son consecuencia de unas condiciones climáticas y orográficas distintas a la de la mayoría del resto de las regiones españolas. En definitiva, podemos considerar a la viticultura de las islas, como propia de una zona subtropical en convivencia con las tradiciones de los distintos pobladores que fueron dejando su impronta a lo largo de la historia, y de lo que la orografía montañosa y de fuertes pendientes le permite trabajar al viticultor.

Canarias es un archipiélago de grandes contrastes, donde en cada isla se combinan numerosos mesoclimas. Las islas con relieve presentan una orografía y unas condiciones climáticas distintas a las islas con menos altura. En las islas de más altura se aprecian diferencias muy marcadas entre las vertientes norte y sur. Los vientos alisios son un gran condicionante en el clima canario. Todo esto configura una amalgama de mesoclimas que influyen claramente en la manifestación del cultivo del viñedo.

A esta riqueza paisajística, que brevemente se acaba de describir, se suma la enorme riqueza varietal que se encuentra presente en el cultivo del viñedo canario. Si se consideran ambos conceptos, se concluye que se plantea la necesidad del conocimiento en profundidad de todo lo que rodea al cultivo de la vid, con independencia de la zona donde se cultive, de la variedad empleada y del sistema de conducción empleado.

Hablar de Biodiversidad en Canarias es una cuestión nada fácil, que implica múltiples facetas del término.

Los primeros responsables de la biodiversidad en Canarias fueron los primeros pobladores que poco a poco y en distintas oleadas fueron trasladando, desde sus zonas de origen, sus costumbres, sus variedades, sus formas de trabajar el terreno y las plantas de un cultivo hasta entonces desconocido en las islas: la vid.

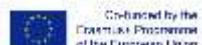
La mayor parte de las variedades que hoy se encuentran en las islas tienen un origen territorial común: el oeste de la Península Ibérica. En su mayoría, andaluces, portugueses y gallegos, fueron los primeros que se asentaron en Canarias. Sin embargo, aunque muchas de las variedades que se cultivan en las islas también aparezcan en otras zonas españolas o portuguesas, no significa que la plaga de la filoxera acabara con parte de las segundas y que aún se encuentre en las primeras. Esto convierte a Canarias en un refugio de variedades antiguas a proteger, en muchos casos, se podría decir, que en grave peligro de extinción.

La situación de las islas, la influencia particular del clima, el origen volcánico son también grandes contribuyentes a una biodiversidad única en Canarias.

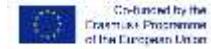
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A pesar de que las islas Canarias comparten su **origen volcánico**, cada una de ellas presenta distinta orografía que influye directamente en la climatología a la que se ve sometida cada isla.

Ese origen volcánico es el principal modelador del terreno isleño y máximo responsable del paisaje vitícola canario. Los volcanes han ido modelando de forma brusca la orografía de las islas, tapizando de nuevos suelos los antiguos cultivos. Esto ha influido claramente en las variedades con las que se tuvo que reponer el nuevo viñedo, perdiendo en algunos casos las primitivas. También ha modificado los sistemas de conducción y de sujeción al terreno. Pero principalmente, y más en las laderas con más pendiente, ha dificultado el acceso a las fincas y el manejo integral del cultivo. Es decir, a la fuerte pendiente que caracteriza a las Islas Canarias hay que añadirle las peculiaridades de un tapiz de lava. Un suelo de lava es difícil de transitar para el viticultor que en su día a día va a visitar y a trabajar su viñedo. Cada una de las labores cotidianas se hacen pesadas de realizar: podar, azufrar, colocar horquetas, podar en verde, y el resto de labores. Pero la labor más difícil de realizar es la vendimia. Si resulta complicado el tránsito a pie por un viñedo de lava, un vehículo no puede acceder a la misma. Sólo podrá transitar por los caminos pertinentes. El viticultor tendrá que sacar a mano una a una las cajas con la uva hasta llevarlas a su vehículo, que posiblemente tampoco sea de grandes dimensiones, y le suponga la realización de numerosos viajes hasta llevar toda su cosecha a la bodega.

Esta **pendiente** es quizás el elemento a tener más en cuenta a la hora de dibujar la viticultura canaria. No se puede cultivar de la misma forma un viñedo prácticamente sin pendiente, como sucede en La Geria (Lanzarote), o uno donde las pendientes pueden superar el 40%, como sucede en Taganana (Tenerife), aunque en ambas la mecanización del viñedo es prácticamente imposible. Además, los distintos sistemas de conducción se adaptan a la pendiente y calidad del suelo. Así en suelos muy ricos, se pueden encontrar marcos de plantación estrechos, con sistemas de conducción en espalderas o en cordones; mientras que en suelos menos ricos los marcos de plantación son más estrechos, los sistemas de conducción son en vaso, en formaciones rastreras, o en conos o zanjas.

Además, en Canarias no se le puede echar toda la culpa de su biodiversidad paisajística a las grandes pendientes que han formado las distintas erupciones de sus múltiples volcanes. Hay otros factores que han influido directamente en ello, puesto que si no fuera así, todas las islas montañosas y todas las zonas montañosas de una misma isla compartirían modelo paisajístico, y no es así. **El clima** es otro de los causantes de las distintas formas de cultivo de la vid en las islas.

No se puede decir de Canarias que se encuentre bajo la influencia de un único clima, responsable de las características climáticas de todas las islas. Si bien, en las islas se debe hablar de mesoclimas, es decir, el clima limitado a una pequeña región concreta. Son muchos los factores que pueden intervenir en las características climáticas de una zona de cualquiera de las islas que componen el Archipiélago Canario: la presencia de vientos alisios, la aparición de una tormenta tropical, la formación de calima, de vientos del norte... Todos ellos serán los responsables de las temperaturas y humedades propias de una región en un momento determinado.

Los vientos alisios son el fenómeno climático más característico y que más influye en el clima canario. Se trata de vientos secos del noreste que al pasar por el Atlántico se cargan de humedad, formando y arrastrando nubes a su paso; nubes que se detienen cuando se encuentran con cumbres que le impiden el paso, formando la conocida panza de burro en las vertientes norte de las islas de mayor relieve, puesto que se sitúan entre los 600 y los 1500 metros de altura, dejando claramente dos zonas de influencia. La región que se encuentra dentro de la nube presentará escasa iluminación y elevadísima humedad relativa fundamentalmente a causa de la lluvia horizontal originada por el agua retenida en las nubes. La región por debajo de los 600 metros no se encuentra dentro de la nube, pero sí sufre su efecto, puesto que se encuentra de forma inmediatamente por encima de ella, esto provoca una humedad relativa también alta, pero sin precipitaciones en forma de lluvia, y una iluminación más bien escasa. En ambas zonas la incidencia de enfermedades criptogámicas, como el oídio o el mildiu, es muy elevada. Sin embargo, por encima de la zona de influencia de los alisios el clima es más seco y de temperaturas más extremas que en zonas más bajas. Ni las islas de escaso relieve, ni las

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vertientes sur de las islas más altas se encuentran sometidas de forma tan marcada a la acción de los vientos alisios.

La altura es otro factor condicionante del clima, y por lo tanto, del paisaje vitícola de Canarias. En las islas de escasa altura, como son La Gomera, El Hierro, Lanzarote y Fuerteventura la oscilación térmica es menor de unas zonas a otras. Sin embargo esto no sucede en las islas de mayor orografía: La Palma, Gran Canaria y fundamentalmente Tenerife, donde además de encontrar grandes alturas, éstas se alcanzan en muy poco recorrido, por lo que la pendiente es muy acusada.

**Tenerife** es una isla con una clara influencia volcánica. El Teide, con 3718 metros de altura es el pico más alto, no solo de Canarias, sino de toda España. Este volcán ha configurado el paisaje, la forma de cultivo, la adaptación de las variedades, la vendimia y todas las labores culturales asociadas a la viña.

Se dice que el viñedo más alto de Europa está en Vilaflor de Chasna a casi los 2000 msnm, aunque también hay otros municipios que compiten con él por esta situación, como le sucede a Granadilla de Abona. Muchas de las zonas vitícolas de Vilaflor, a pesar de encontrarse a gran altura, son superficies planas donde el sistema de conducción que prima es el vaso. Esta poda, poco común en Tenerife, es más habitual encontrarla en zonas del centro peninsular, como sucede en La Mancha. Y es que en Vilaflor, el clima es más continental que atlántico, con marcadas diferencias térmicas entre el día y la noche, entre invierno y verano, donde la mínima puede bajar de 0°C y la máxima superar los 35°C. Este régimen de temperaturas permite la obtención de vinos de calidad, puesto que la vid consigue completar correctamente y acorde con el calendario cronológico, tanto los estados fenológicos como el ciclo vegetativo, tal como una brotación uniforme y en un corto período de tiempo, o un reposo vegetativo marcado y bien definido.



Fotografía nº 1. Paisaje de Vilaflor (Tenerife).



Fotografía nº 2. Zona alta de Granadilla de Abona (Tenerife)

Otro de los municipios que comparte altura con Vilaflor es Granadilla de Abona, que aunque el centro de la población se sitúa a 640 msnm, su término municipal llega hasta los 2715 msnm. Algunas de las partes más altas de Granadilla, poco válidas para otros cultivos por la pobreza de sus suelos y por su difícil acceso, están destinadas al cultivo de la vid.

Estas zonas constituyen claramente una viticultura heroica. En la mayoría de los casos, el acceso a la finca por caminos estrechos y no asfaltados, no se puede hacer con un vehículo normal, sino en uno especial con tracción a las cuatro ruedas, y por supuesto es impensable el acceso a los camiones, con mayor capacidad de cabida de uva. Como es lógico, tampoco es posible la entrada a la explotación de tractores para la realización de cualquier tipo de labor

agrícola mecanizada (prepoda, vendimia, labrado del suelo, aplicación de productos fitosanitarios, etc.). El viticultor puede dedicar una hora de recorrido en un vehículo adecuado para trasladarse desde una carretera asfaltada hasta su explotación, el con fin de realizar cada una de las labores vitícolas. Esta situación se hace más extrema en el momento de la vendimia, cuando la uva debe ser transportada de forma cuidadosa, si se pretende que llegue en el mejor estado posible. Además, cada remolque de estos vehículos sólo permite una carga de hasta alrededor de 700 kg.

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Todas estas circunstancias se traducen no sólo en una viticultura más laboriosa y de dedicación en cuanto a número de horas y en cuanto a coste económico, que sólo puede ser rentable cuando el que trabaja la viña es el propio viticultor.



Fotografía nº 3. Zona alta de Güímar (Tenerife)  
Las plantas se encuentran tapizando la superficie del terreno sin un marco de plantación definido, con un sistema de conducción muy singular. Se trata de parrales bajos, que en los meses de mayor desarrollo vegetativo, cuando los pámpanos y racimos tienden a caer por su peso (poco antes del inicio del envero), son sujetados por horquetas que los levantan del suelo y se recoge después de la vendimia. En estas zonas altas, la variedad que más se cultiva es el Listán Blanco de Canarias.

Además de las zonas altas de Vilaflor o Granadilla hay otras distribuidas por la isla de Tenerife que presentan una problemática similar, con fincas en altura y difícil acceso, como sucede en las partes más altas de Güímar, las Dehesas y los Pelados. Parte de este paisaje vitícola se debe a las erupciones volcánicas acaecidas entre 1704 y 1705 en el volcán de Siete Fuentes, Fasnia y Arafo, que dejó impresas lenguas de lava por toda la ladera hasta casi llegar al mar.

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Fotografía nº 4. Cordón trenzado del Valle de la Orotava (Tenerife)

plantas pueden llegar a alcanzar hasta los 15 m de longitud, ladera abajo. Se sujetan mediante horquillas que también permiten mover el conjunto trenzado para conseguir, en ocasiones, otro cultivo simultaneo. Todas las labores se realizan de forma manual, y además este tipo de sistema de conducción requiere un mayor número de horas de trabajos manuales que cualquier otro. Aunque el viñedo de esta zona de Tenerife no se sitúa a gran altura, pues sólo llega hasta cerca de los 800 msnm; es su terreno con fuertes pendientes quien marca la singularidad de esta región.

En ocasiones, pero más habitual hace años, el espacio del suelo entre plantas donde había viña en sistemas de cordón, se compartía con otro cultivo, tal como las papas o el maíz. En la actualidad esta práctica está en desuso. Se cree que este singular sistema de conducción procede de los colonos portugueses que llegaron a las islas, pero no hay datos escritos de esta afirmación.

El macizo de Anaga supone por sí solo un entorno único, donde la supervivencia de la viña va unida al empeño del viticultor. Se trata de una región al noreste de la isla de Tenerife, con el mar como telón de fondo, Taganana, donde las fuertes pendientes, a veces convierten en prácticamente



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Fotografía nº 5. Macizo de Anaga (Tenerife)

impracticable el terreno, donde el transporte de la uva antiguamente se realizaba en barca, por el mar, o con pequeñas jaulas a modo de ascensores. En la actualidad, una red de senderos facilita el trabajo del hombre. Sin embargo, las acusadas pendientes, hacen impensable la mecanización del viñedo, ni su transporte en coche desde la explotación hasta el lagar, generalmente comunal para varios propietarios. Las fincas son pequeños terrenos abancalados, donde cada terraza, para sortear la orografía y la pendiente del terreno formado por barrancos, puede llegar a tener una única planta.

Pero Tenerife no es la única isla del archipiélago que presenta una viticultura de montaña con fuertes pendientes.

De forma general, se puede decir que aunque el resto de las islas tienen una altura inferior a Tenerife, en la mayoría de ellas, predomina un carácter montañoso, de origen volcánico y con una pendiente muy marcada que comparte dificultades con el modelo de viticultura de montaña de Tenerife, aunque cada una muestre sus peculiaridades respecto a forma de cultivo y sistemas de conducción.

En este trabajo no se puede presentar con el máximo detalle en cada una de ellas, pero sí se puede dar unas pinceladas de las viticulturas más singulares.

**La isla de La Palma** es otra isla en la que conviven numerosos volcanes que, a lo largo de la historia, han ido dibujando el perfil orográfico de la isla. La mayor parte del viñedo se sitúa en las laderas de las montañas creadas por los volcanes, donde la dificultad de acceso es una constante. El cultivo, en la mayoría de los casos, se disemina en pequeñas parcelas, unas veces situadas entre bancales y otras tapizando las laderas, que hacen imposible la mecanización del cultivo. Aunque puede llegar hasta la costa, la vid también se eleva a las partes más altas de la isla, próximas a los 2000 msnm. En algunas zonas de la isla, el sistema de conducción tradicional es el parral bajo en terrazas (más propio de la zona norte), que protege a la planta del contacto directo con el suelo; o en conducción rastrera, propia de la zona de Fuencaliente, que tapiza las laderas volcánicas, formadas por el picón; o también en conducciones rastreras, pero como sucede en el caso de la zona de La Breña en los terrenos empedrados, que aunque no alcanzan elevadas alturas, la pendiente y la orografía del terreno hacen heroico su cultivo.



Fotografía nº 6. Isla de La Palma

**En Gran Canaria** destacan los viñedos de la zona de la Caldera de Bandama y del Monte Lentiscal, donde se alternan viñedos en pequeños y trabajosos bancales con espalderas y viñas viejas que sortejan el desnivel, con plantaciones en hileras sorteando las curvas de nivel, que pueden llegar hasta casi los 1400 msnm.

El suelo de esta isla no es tan marcadamente volcánico como sucede en Tenerife, La Palma o Lanzarote. Estos viñedos presentan una problemática similar a los del resto del archipiélago que están plantados en zonas de elevada pendiente.

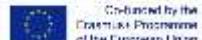


Fotografía nº 7. Isla de Gran Canaria

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Fotografía nº 8. Sistema rastrero en la isla de El Hierro.

El perfil de la isla de **El Hierro** es una montaña central que divide la isla en dos zonas. Como en el resto de islas, la orografía y las pequeñas parcelas son los ejes principales para modelar la viticultura isleña. Próximo al municipio de Frontera el viñedo parece que resbala por la ladera, con parcelas pequeñas y plantas podadas en vasos altos sujetos por horquetas. Cuando estas fincas llegan a la parte más baja, pero también con pendiente, éstas se van abancalando.

En la parte de El Pinar, también en ladera, la vid más antigua se mezcla con la más reciente, sujetada en espalderas. En algunas zonas, y para proteger las plantas del viento, se construye una especie de zocos o paredes de piedra paralelas al cultivo. Generalmente la vid se deja crecer en conducciones prácticamente rastreiras, de acuerdo con la dirección del viento.

La isla de **La Gomera** es la más próxima a Tenerife. Es una isla pequeña, prácticamente redonda, en cuyo centro se encuentra el Parque Nacional de Garajonay, con una altura máxima de 1.487 msnm. Prácticamente toda la isla presenta pronunciadas pendientes donde no sólo el cultivo de la vid, sino de cualquier otra especie, se hace muy complicado.

Los barrancos originados a partir de la constante erosión del agua hacen de líneas divisorias entre unos gajos y otros en los que se encuentra dividida la isla formando prominentes acantilados. De forma general, la única forma posible de cultivo en pendientes tan escarpadas es la formación de pequeños bancales de viñedo, conducidos en formas tradicionales, pero también en espaldera en las nuevas plantaciones. En algunos lugares de la isla aún permanece una especie de jaulas que ascienden y descienden por los acantilados por medio de una polea con el fin de facilitar el trabajo al viticultor a la hora de llevar la uva hasta el lagar. Se puede observar cómo cada vez hay más terrazas abandonadas, principalmente las de peor acceso.

En **Lanzarote**, las erupciones del Timanfaya entre 1730 y 1736 marcaron un hito histórico en la viticultura majorera. Aunque hubiera constancia del cultivo de la vid previo a la erupción, ésta, desde septiembre de 1730, afectó a numerosísimos municipios de la isla, calculando que afectó a una cuarta parte de su superficie.

Los científicos han estimado que el volumen de lava pudo alcanzar 1 km<sup>3</sup>, y que modificó por completo la antigua morfología de la isla. Aunque ha habido erupciones posteriores como la de los volcanes Tao, Nuevo del Fuego y Tinaguaton (en 1824), éstas no fueron tan devastadoras para su morfología.

Una vez finalizadas las erupciones del Timanfaya, comenzó a diseñarse un nuevo paisaje vitícola, que es el que pervive hasta nuestros días. Lo más representativo de esta nueva viticultura es la zona de La Geria, que rodea al Parque Nacional de Timanfaya, donde las vides son plantadas en la parte baja de conos volcánicos de picón (lapilli), donde la raíz de la planta profundiza hasta llegar a la parte más productiva del suelo. En una zona donde la pluviometría ronda los 200 mm al año, el picón sirve como reservorio del agua procedente de la humedad relativa ambiental que se eleva por las noches. Las labores culturales que se efectúan en este viñedo

son obligatoriamente manuales y muy costosas; en primer lugar, debido al elevado marco de plantación, que puede distanciar plantas unos 15 metros. Además surge la dificultad de caminar por el picón y acceder a la parte baja del gorro, que es donde se encuentra la planta, para realizar las labores habituales del viñedo.



Fotografía nº 10. Viñedo en La Geria (Lanzarote)

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Finalmente, aunque su terreno sea prácticamente llano como consecuencia de una erosión continuada, merece una mención la isla de **Fuerteventura**. Es la isla más antigua del archipiélago, también de origen volcánico, y con una altura máxima de 807 msnm.

Las pocas plantas de vid que se encuentran en la isla, generalmente se encuentran diseminadas dentro de huertos y otros terrenos compartidos con otros cultivos. Sus conducciones suelen ser en vaso conducidos rastreramente y protegidos del fuerte viento por muros de piedra o en espaldera en las plantaciones más modernas.



Fotografía nº 11. Isla de Fuerteventura

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## Vides resistentes cultivadas en el Trentino prealpino. Primeros resultados del proyecto VEViR

### Resistant vines cultivated in the Trentino pre-Alps. VEViR project first results

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#### Resumen

La disponibilidad de vides resistentes es de particular importancia para la viticultura en áreas montañosas, con pendientes peligrosas y zonas antropizadas y sensibles. El proyecto VEViR (RDP 2014-2020, Provincia de Trento) prevé la plantación de algunas de estas variedades en 3 parcelas (entre 200 y 450 m sobre el nivel del mar), el seguimiento de su fenología, de los principales parámetros de vegetación y producción, su sensibilidad a las principales criptogamas y algunas características enológicas.

Este trabajo incluye datos agronómicos sobre las variedades blancas Aromera, Bronner, Helios, Johanniter, Muscaris, Solaris, Souvignier Gris, además de la supuesta variedad resistente Res29 y las tintas Baron, Cabernet Cantor, Cabernet Carbon, Cabernet Cortis, Cabino, Monarch, Prior y Regent.

Con respecto a los aspectos enológicos, se ha prestado atención al ácido shikímico en vinos de variedades blancas, por el papel de esta molécula como marcador varietal y el posible impacto en la trazabilidad de los IGP para los cuales se han autorizado recientemente algunas variedades resistentes. En este sentido, la presencia de Solaris dentro de los límites de la ley en vinos de Pinot Gris no parece impedir la trazabilidad de esto último; de manera similar el Muscaris en el Yellow Muscat.

En los vinos tintos, nos centramos en las antocianinas diglucósidas. Con la exclusión de una, todas las variedades presentaron una suma de antocianinas diglucósidas entre 270 y 900 mg/L, expresadas como malvidina monoglucósida. Estos niveles deben ser monitorados constantemente debido a los límites legales aún existentes.

**Palabras clave:** variedades resistentes, uva blanca, uva tinta, ácido shikímico, antocianinas diglucósidas

#### Abstract

The availability of resistant grapevine varieties is of particular importance for viticulture in mountainous areas, with dangerous slopes and anthropized and sensitive areas. The VEViR project (RDP 2014-2020, Province of Trento) foresees the planting of some of these varieties in 3 plots (between 200 and 450 m above sea level), the monitoring of their phenology, the main parameters of vegetation and production, their sensitivity to the main cryptogams and some oenological characteristics.

This work includes agronomic data on the white varieties Aromera, Bronner, Helios, Johanniter, Muscaris, Solaris, Souvignier Gris, Res29 and the reds Baron, Cabernet Cantor, Cabernet Carbon, Cabernet Cortis, Cabino, Monarch, Prior and Regent.

As regards the oenological aspects of the white varieties, attention has been given to shikimic acid in wine, due to the role of this molecule as a variety marker and the possible impact on the traceability of PGIs for which some resistant varieties have recently been authorized. In this sense, the presence of Solaris within the limits of the law in Pinot Gris wines does not seem to impede the traceability of the latter; similarly the Muscaris in the Yellow Muscat.

In red wines, we focussed on the anthocyanins diglucosides. With the exclusion of one, all varieties presented a sum of anthocyanins diglucosides between 270 and 900 mg / L, expressed as malvidin monoglucoside. These levels must be constantly monitored due to the legal limits still in place.

**Key words :** resistant varieties, white grapes, red grapes, shikimic acid, anthocyanins diglucosides.

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## 1. Introducción

La viticultura europea ocupa solo una pequeña parte del área agrícola total del continente, alrededor del 3.3%, pero es responsable del 60-65% de los pesticidas utilizados. Desde la conciencia de esta situación, algunos productores, no sólo orgánicos o biodinámicos, están centrando su atención en las llamadas variedades resistentes o al menos tolerantes a las principales adversidades fúngicas de la vid, principalmente oidio y mildiu. La producción y la resistencia de estas variedades, obtenidas después de largos patrones de hibridación, han sido bien estudiados en diferentes contextos ambientales por sus criadores, especialmente en el mundo alemán y francés

([www.vivc.de](http://www.vivc.de); [www.innovitis.eu/tl\\_files/InnoVitis/pdf/Datenblaetter%20italienisch/Aromera.pdf](http://www.innovitis.eu/tl_files/InnoVitis/pdf/Datenblaetter%20italienisch/Aromera.pdf); [www.wbi-bw.de/pb/Lde\\_DE/Startseite/Fachinfo/Pilzwiderstandsaehige+Keltertraubensorten?QUERYSTRING=PIWI](http://www.wbi-bw.de/pb/Lde_DE/Startseite/Fachinfo/Pilzwiderstandsaehige+Keltertraubensorten?QUERYSTRING=PIWI)).

Por el contrario, las características enológicas - aunque con algunas excepciones (Liu *et al.* 2015) - no se han estudiado tan extensivamente.

En este trabajo - esperando una serie más relevante de datos de varios años antes de poder comentar sobre una base estadística - presentamos las primeras observaciones de campo y bodega relacionadas con las performances de algunas variedades blancas y tintas cultivadas en área prealpina incluidas en el marco del proyecto VEVIR (RDP 2014-2020), financiado por la Provincia Autónoma de Trento (Italia).

## 2. Materiales y métodos

Las variedades de uva estudiadas (Blancas: Aromera, Bronner, Helios, Johanniter, Muscaris, Res29, Solaris y Souvignier Gris. Tintas: Baron, Cabernet Cantor, Cabernet Carbon, Cabernet Cortis, Cabino, Monarch, Prior y Regent) están presentes en tres parcelas (Navicello y San Michele, sistema de cultivo pergola, ≈ 200 m sobre el nivel del mar; Telve, guyot, ≈ 450 m) plantadas en diferentes años. Los datos actualmente a disposición hacen referencia a la fenología, a parámetros agronómicos, a variables de producción medidas a madurez tecnológica, a características de "resistencia" (en una escala de 1 = muy bajo a 10 = muy alto) y a algunas características de interés enológico peculiar: ácido shikímico y antocianinas diglucósidas.

Todas las actividades, tanto de cultivo de uva como de vinificación a escala semi industrial, y de análisis químico se llevaron a cabo en las instalaciones o bajo la dirección de la Fundación Edmund Mach en San Michele all'Adige (TN).

El ácido shikímico se analizó en HPLC de acuerdo con el método oficial (OIV-MA-AS313-17: R2004) en los vinos de 7 variedades resistentes blancas (Aromera, Bronner, Helios, Johanniter, Muscaris, Solaris, Souvignier Gris) recogidas, donde disponible en Trentino en las cosechas entre 2014 y 2016, en diferentes viñedos entre 180 y casi 900 m sobre el nivel del mar. Se proporciona información más detallada en Román *et al.* (2018). Las uvas blancas fueron procesadas utilizando una técnica estandarizada que preveía: despalillado, prensado (3.5 bar), SO<sub>2</sub> (35 mg/L), clarificación estática (10°C x 24h), inoculación (EC-1118, 20 g/hL), fermentación (18-20°C), decantación, sulfitación, almacenamiento a 4°C hasta el análisis, 2 meses después.

Las antocianinas se analizaron para HPLC modificando adecuadamente (Barp *et al.* 2017) el método propuesto por Castia *et al.* (1992) para obtener la cuantificación de las mono- y di-glucósidas (no esterificadas, acetiladas y p-cumaradas) en una única carrera cromatográfica.

## 3. Resultados y discusión

### Fenología

Las fases fenológicas han sido monitorizadas en el viñedo de Navicello (Rovereto) durante las estaciones vegetativas que van del 2015 al 2017, según la definición propuesta por Bloesch & Viret (2008): apertura yemas (BBCH 09), 3 hojas desplegadas (BBCH 13), plena floración (BBCH 65), además de la maduración (BBCH 89), que por razones comparativas ha sido definida como el momento en el que se alcanzan los 18° brix. La anticipación o retraso en días de las fases fenológicas ha sido comparadas entre las diferentes variedades resistentes respecto a una variedad internacional de referencia (Chardonnay) cultivada en el mismo viñedo. La diferencia media observada luego de 3 añadas se reasume en la tabla 1.

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*Tabla 1. Diferencia (media±desviación estándard) en días de las fases fenológicas de las variedades blancas y tintas respecto a la variedad de referencia (Chardonnay).*

Color Baya	Variedad	Apertura yemas	3 hojas desplegadas	Plena floración	Madurez
Blanca	Aromera	8,0 ± 6,9	10 ± 6,9	4,7 ± 2,9	2,7 ± 4,0
	Bronner	3,5 ± 0,7	5,7 ± 1,2	-1,3 ± 1,2	-3,7 ± 0,6
	Helios	6,0 ± 2,8	8,0 ± 1,7	-0,3 ± 2,9	0,0 ± 5,2
	Johanniter	6,0 ± 2,8	2,7 ± 2,9	0,3 ± 4,0	-7,0 ± 3,5
	Muscaris	2,5 ± 2,1	1,0 ± 3,5	-1,3 ± 2,9	-16,0 ± 5,2
	Res29	8,0 ± 5,7	6,7 ± 9,7	6,7 ± 2,9	5,0 ± 8,7
	Solaris	6,0 ± 2,8	3,0 ± 3,5	-4,0 ± 3,5	-16,7 ± 0,6
	Souvignier Gris	2,5 ± 2,1	1,7 ± 1,2	0,7 ± 1,2	-11,0 ± 3,5
Tinta	Baron	13,5 ± 3,5	9,0 ± 5,2	0,7 ± 6,4	-10,0 ± 4,2
	C. Cantor	2,5 ± 2,1	3,0 ± 3,5	-3,3 ± 2,9	-18,0 ± 1,7
	C.Carbon	7,0 ± 1,4	8,0 ± 3,5	4,7 ± 2,9	-1,0 ± 1,7
	C.Cortis	7,0 ± 1,4	7,3 ± 2,3	-0,3 ± 2,9	-19,3 ± 1,2
	Cabino	-3,7 ± 1,2	-3,3 ± 0,6	-3,3 ± 4,6	1,7 ± 2,3
	Monarch	7,5 ± 0,7	8,7 ± 2,9	1,3 ± 5,8	14,3 ± 1,5
	Prior	-1,0 ± 1,7	-1,7 ± 0,6	-6,3 ± 8,1	5,7 ± 8,1
	Regent	9,5 ± 2,1	8,0 ± 3,5	0,3 ± 4,0	-4,7 ± 1,2

A partir de estos datos, se puede ver como el retraso en las fases iniciales (BBCH 09 e BBCH 13) es general en todas las variedades excepto en Prior y Cabino. Los datos recogidos en maduración permiten observar la anticipación generalizada respecto a Chardonnay, evidenciando una tendencia de la duración del ciclo de producción (diferencia en días entre la fecha de apertura yemas y de maduración) más corta de las variedades resistentes, ya sean blancas (-11±7 d), que tintas (-10±13 d). Solo Cabino, Monarch y Prior presentan un ciclo mas largo.

#### *Parámetros agronómicos y análisis de las uvas en vendimia*

En este apartado, se presentan los resultados de las observaciones realizadas en el viñedo de Navicello en ámbito agronómico -producción por cepa (PMC), peso del racimo (PMG), fertilidad real (FER) y peso de poda (PML)- y los datos compositivos de las uvas en el momento de la vendimia -Brix, pH, acidez total (AT), ácido málico (MAL), ácido tartárico (H2T), potasio (K) y nitrógeno fácilmente asimilable (FAN)- relativos a los años 2015, 2016 y 2017 (tabla 2 y 3). Las observaciones relativas al viñedo de Telve, no son reportadas en cuanto la mayor parte de las variedades han sufrido un ataque severo de *black rot* (*Guignardia bidwellii*) en los años 2016 y 2017.

#### *Características de "resistencia"*

La evaluación de las características de resistencia han presentado una tolerancia al mildiu y al oidio muy buena en la mayor parte de las variedades bajo examen plantadas en el viñedo de San Michele all'Adige. Entre las variedades blancas, Helios y Souvignier Gris han demostrado una elevada tolerancia a ambas enfermedades, ligeramente inferior observada en Johanniter para el mildiu, ya sea en hoja que en racimo. Solaris y Bronner se han mostrado tolerantes al oidio respectivamente en hoja y racimo. Entre las variedades tintas, la tolerancia es generalmente medio-alta para el mildiu (ligeramente inferior para el racimo de Regent) mientras que la situación en lo que respecta al oidio es muy variable, destacándose entre todas la variedad Prior ya sea en hoja que en racimo (figura 1).

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Tabla 2. Parámetros agronómicos medios y respectiva desviación estándard (DS) de producción por cepa (PMC), peso del racimo (PMG), fertilidad real (FER) y peso de poda (PML) observados en el viñedo de Navicello (Rovereto) relativo a los años 2015-2017. Letras diferentes indican valores estadísticamente diferenciados (Anova Main Effects; Unequal N HSD test; fuentes de variación: variedad y año;  $p < 0,05$ ).

Parámetro	Aromera (n=42)			Bronner (n=42)			Helios (n=25)			Johanniter (n=28)			Muscaris (n=42)			Res29 (n=42)			Solaris (n=42)			Souv. Gris (n=42)		
	Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS	
PMC	1,32	0,84	efg	2,35	0,88	ab	0,47	0,60	gh	2,14	1,12	abcd	1,63	1,04	def	1,79	0,78	bcd	2,28	1,31	abc	2,08	0,62	abcd
PMG	0,07	0,02	cef	0,12	0,03	b	0,04	0,02	f	0,11	0,04	bcd	0,09	0,02	cde	0,12	0,03	ab	0,09	0,03	bcde	0,12	0,04	b
FER	1,59	0,51	efg	2,30	0,43	a	1,10	0,69	g	1,89	0,99	abcde	1,51	0,67	efg	1,60	0,66	efg	2,00	0,60	abcd	1,72	0,64	cdef
PML	0,41	0,18	bcd	0,30	0,14	d	0,11	0,16	e	0,40	0,15	bcd	0,47	0,22	bc	0,53	0,27	ab	0,48	0,26	abc	0,39	0,22	cdef

Parámetro	Baron (n=42)			Cabino (n=42)			C. Cantor (n=42)			C. Carbon (n=42)			C. Cortis (n=42)			Monarch (n=42)			Prior (n=42)			Regent (n=28)		
	Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS	
PMC	0,64	0,31	gh	0,50	0,39	h	1,53	0,85	cdef	1,52	0,63	def	1,98	1,52	abcde	2,18	1,11	a	0,90	1,00	fgh	1,05	0,49	fgh
PMG	0,03	0,01	f	0,05	0,04	f	0,10	0,05	bcde	0,11	0,09	bd	0,10	0,09	bcde	0,14	0,06	a	0,09	0,06	bcde	0,06	0,02	ef
FER	1,64	0,41	defg	1,78	1,02	bcde	1,55	0,64	defg	1,49	0,55	efg	2,14	0,66	ab	1,86	0,42	abcde	1,02	0,71	fg	2,11	0,82	abc
PML	0,39	0,10	bcd	0,15	0,08	e	0,36	0,36	bcd	0,42	0,27	bcd	0,34	0,26	cd	0,38	0,25	de	0,10	0,13	e	0,64	0,25	a

Tabla 3. Datos compositivos (media±desviación estándar; n=3) de las uvas a madurez del viñedo de Navicello (Rovereto; 2015-2016-2017) para °Brix, pH, acidez total (AT), ácido málico (MAL), ácido tartárico (H2T), potasio (K) y nitrógeno fácilmente asimilable (FAN). Letras diferentes indican valores estadísticamente diferenciados (Anova Main Effects; test LSD di Fischer; test; fuentes de variación: variedad y año;  $p < 0,05$ ).

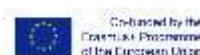
Parámetro	Aromera			Bronner			Helios			Johanniter			Muscaris			Res29			Solaris			Souv. Gris		
	Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS	
°BX	21,50	1,00	bcd	20,29	0,47	d	21,26	0,48	cd	20,23	0,85	d	23,88	0,93	a	21,38	1,94	bcd	23,50	1,65	ab	21,14	1,34	cd
pH	3,29	0,09	bcd	3,19	0,10	def	3,24	0,13	cde	3,34	0,12	abc	3,36	0,19	abc	3,20	0,09	def	3,19	0,10	def	3,17	0,15	def
AT	5,8	1,1	b	7,0	1,8	ab	5,8	1,6	b	6,3	0,3	ab	6,3	2,3	ab	6,2	1,2	ab	7,3	1,9	ab	7,5	1,4	a
H2T	7,39	1,20	abcd	7,34	1,65	abcd	7,29	0,64	bcd	7,17	0,24	bcd	7,7	0,8	abc	6,9	0,8	cd	8,6	0,9	a	8,1	1,0	abc
MAL	1,90	0,79	de	2,78	0,27	bc	1,96	0,74	cde	2,83	0,06	bc	2,6	1,5	bcd	2,4	0,4	bcd	2,3	1,3	bcd	2,7	0,4	bcd
K	1,82	0,19	abcd	1,61	0,06	defg	1,64	0,15	cdef	1,80	0,22	abcd	1,86	0,09	abc	1,58	0,03	efg	1,64	0,08	cdefg	1,61	0,22	defg
FAN	48	35	cde	60	17	cde	59	12	cde	136	29	ab	94	33	abcd	30	26	e	121	60	ab	58	26	cde

Parámetro	Baron			Cabino			C. Cantor			C. Carbon			C. Cortis			Monarch			Prior			Regent		
	Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS		Media	DS	
°BX	21,79	0,10	abcd	21,11	2,75	cd	22,72	0,71	abc	22,14	0,67	abcd	21,88	1,20	abcd	17,98	0,91	c	20,79	0,20	cd	21,27	1,45	cd
pH	3,28	0,04	bcd	3,44	0,16	a	3,14	0,13	ef	3,23	0,08	cde	3,08	0,21	f	3,19	0,06	def	3,28	0,11	bcd	3,38	0,06	ab
AT	6,7	0,4	ab	6,5	1,1	ab	6,5	1,7	ab	6,7	1,2	ab	7,2	2,7	ab	6,5	1,7	ab	6,1	1,1	ab	6,0	0,8	b
H2T	7,8	1,4	abc	6,4	1,5	d	8,0	1,4	abc	8,0	1,2	abc	8,3	3,0	ab	7,8	1,5	abc	7,4	0,5	abcd	7,0	0,6	cd
MAL	2,7	0,3	bcd	3,9	0,3	a	1,8	0,7	e	2,1	0,3	bcd	1,9	0,8	de	2,3	0,8	bcd	2,3	0,3	bcd	3,0	0,2	b
K	1,78	0,12	abcdef	2,02	0,34	a	1,56	0,08	fg	1,78	0,21	bcd	1,41	0,08	g	1,56	0,10	fg	1,80	0,14	abcd	1,93	0,09	ab
FAN	145	42	a	103	50	abc	80	7	bcd	42	37	de	86	26	abcd	63	16	cde	36	32	e	143	54	a

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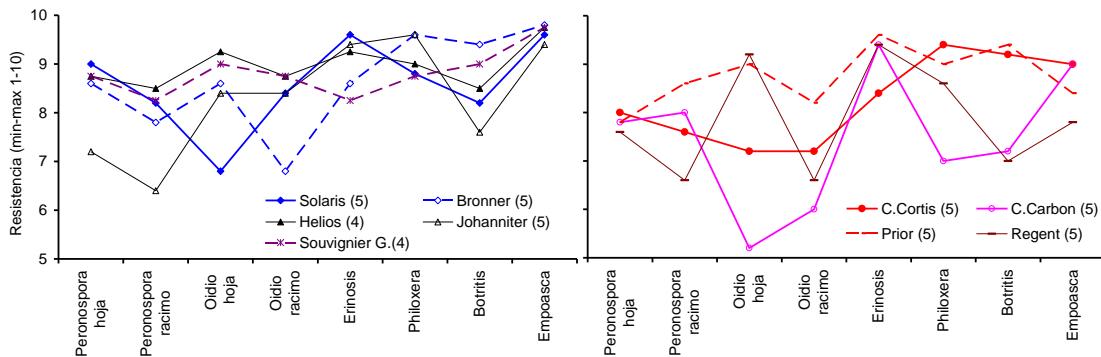


Figura 1. Perfil promedio (número de años entre paréntesis) de resistencia a las diferentes patologías medidas en la misma parcela para las variedades resistentes blancas (izquierda) y tintas (derecha).

#### Aspectos tecnológicos de los blancos resistentes

En cuanto al ácido shikímico en los vinos de las variedades resistentes blancas cosechadas en madurez tecnológica, su importancia está en la posibilidad de ser utilizado como marcador de correspondencia varietal (Symonds y Cantagrel 1982; Etievant *et al.* 1989; Holbach *et al.* 2001), como sucede, por ejemplo, entre los vinos Pinot Gris y Chardonnay, respectivamente con una concentración menor y mayor (Pisoni 2001; Versini *et al.* 2003).

La distribución no normal y equilibrada de las muestras a lo largo de los años y las parcelas hace necesario comentar los datos del ácido shikímico con cautela. En la figura 2, datos de la literatura han sido complementados con nuestras observaciones más recientes (Román *et al.* 2018), y relacionados con vinos blancos monovarietales de *vinifera* tradicional. Sin embargo, con respecto a los vinos de las variedades resistentes, Solaris y Muscaris - en los que la representatividad de la muestra fue mayor en términos de número, distribución entre los años y ubicación de las parcelas disponibles - parecen caracterizarse por un contenido limitado de ácido shikímico, teniendo en cuenta que también en el caso de la vinificación en tinto (Román *et al.* 2018), este ácido no excedió los 15 mg/L. Por otro lado, Johanniter parece estar caracterizado por un valor de concentración medio-alto.

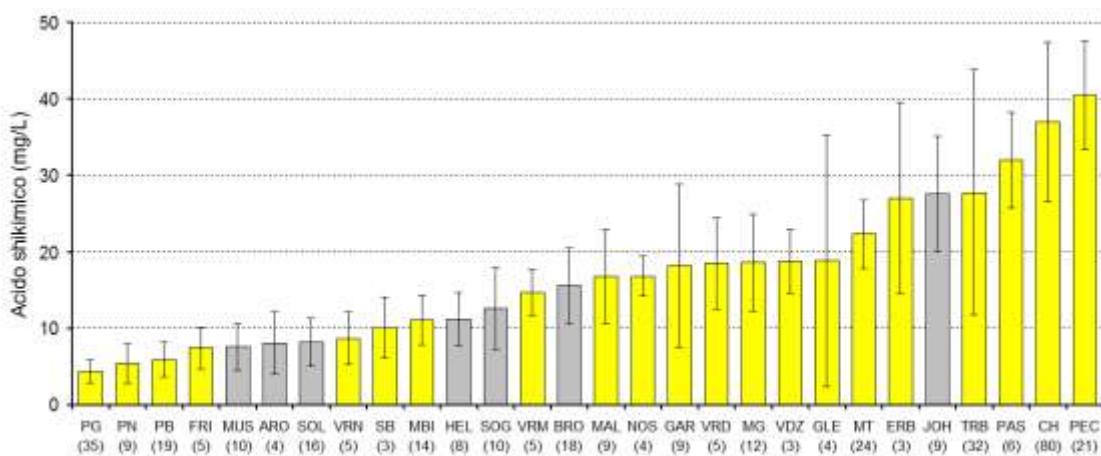


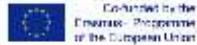
Figura 2. Concentración media y desviación estándar del ácido shikímico en vinos blancos genuinos de variedades tradicionales (amarillo) y resistentes (gris) según lo informado en la literatura (Versini *et al.* 2003; Carinci 2014; Román *et al.* 2018). Entre paréntesis, el número de muestreo.

(Leyenda, de izquierda a derecha: PG = Pinot Gris, PN = Pinot Noir, PB = Pinot Blanc, FRI = Friulano, MUS = Muscaris, ARO = Aromera, SOL = Solaris, VRN = Vernaccia, SB = Sauvignon Blanc, MBI = Manzoni Bianco, HEL = Helios, SOG = Souvignier Gris, VRM = Vermentino, BRO = Bronner, MAL = Malvasia bianca del Lazio, NOS = Nosiola, GAR = Garganega, VRD = Verdicchio, MG = Moscato Giallo, VDZ = Verduzzo, GLE = Glera, MT = Müller Thurgau, ERB = Erbaluce, JOH = Johanniter, TRB = Trebbiani, PAS = Passerina, CH = Chardonnay, PEC = Pecorino).

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### Aspectos tecnológicos de los tintos resistentes

Observaciones previas ya han señalado que Cabernet Cantor podría tener algunas características útiles para el cultivo en zonas montañosas alpinas y prealpinas, por ejemplo: (a) facilidad para proporcionar un contenido de alcohol potencial adecuado; (b) contenido de tanino extremadamente alto, caracterizado por fracciones de alto peso molecular, localizadas principalmente en las pieles y extraídas rápidamente (Nicolini *et al.* 2017a).

Con respecto a la composición antociánica de los vinos de las variedades resistentes tintas nos limitaremos aquí a discutir la suma de las formas monoglucósidas y diglucósidas. Algunos ejemplos de curvas de extracción antociánica durante la maceración fermentativa en tinto ya han sido informados por Nicolini *et al.* (2017b). Sobre la base de los valores normalizados en comparación con el máximo alcanzado en la maceración por cada clase de antocianinas, esos autores han observado cómo las formas de diglucósidos parecen extraerse antes que los monoglucósidos, pero, en particular, permanecen en el vino en concentraciones más altas, lo que proporciona una prueba más de la estabilidad de estas moléculas (Zhao *et al.* 2013).

En la figura 3 se muestra la suma de las antocianinas mono y diglucósidas medidas - después de una fermentación en tinto de 7 días y fermentación maloláctica - en 8 vinos monovarietales de vides resistentes cosechadas en madurez tecnológica. Con la excepción de una variedad, las diglucósidas claramente prevalecen sobre las mono. De esto se sigue que, para garantizar el cumplimiento de los límites legales definidos por la OIV (15 mg/L de malvidina-3,5-diglucósida), debemos prestar la máxima atención al uso, también en forma de cortes limitados, de vinos de variedades resistentes en los que tales antocianinas están presentes. Sin embargo, algunas variedades resistentes o híbridos pueden no contener antocianinas diglucósidas, como en el caso del Cabino en la figura 3 o del portainjerto bien conocido 41B (Ruocco *et al.* 2017). Se observa que, por motivos gráficos, los datos se expresaron, también para las formas diglucósidas, como malvidin-3-monoglucósida y que, por lo tanto, los valores de concentración que se muestran en la figura serían más altos si se expresan en mg/L de 3,5-diglucósida.

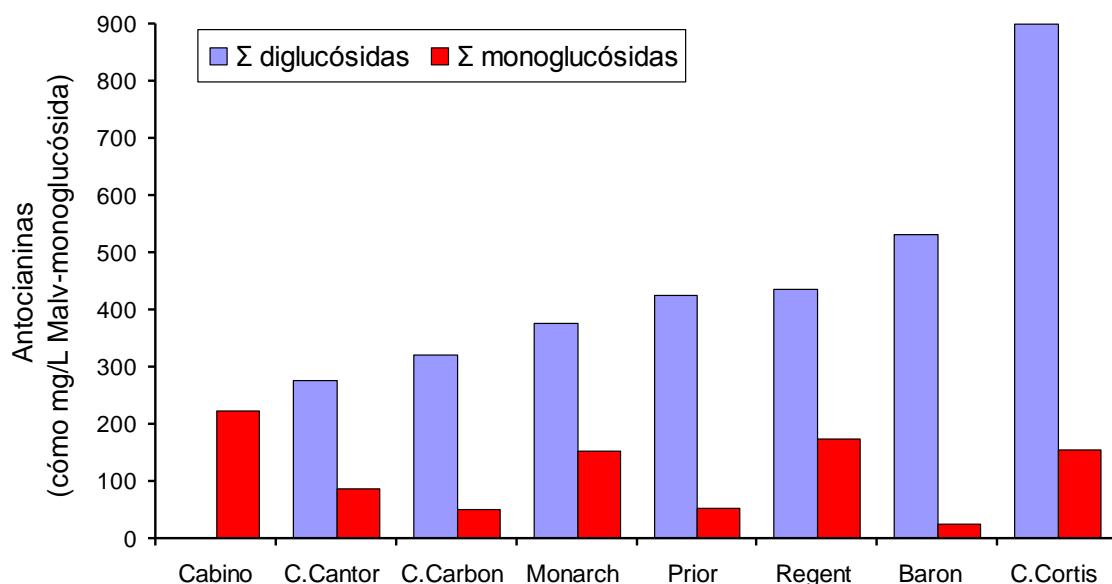
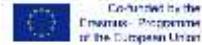


Figura 3. Contenido antociánico en 8 vinos monovarietales de la misma cosecha obtenidos de variedades resistentes.

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#### 4. Conclusiones

El presente trabajo tuvo como objetivo difundir algunas observaciones iniciales sobre las llamadas variedades resistentes blancas y tintas que, en las laderas alpinas y prealpinas, están atrayendo un cierto interés tanto de los productores como de los consumidores; esto, no solo en relación a la hipotética reducción en el número de tratamientos fitosanitarios, sino también a la consecuente reducción de los riesgos relacionados con la seguridad en el manejo de parcelas fuertemente inclinadas. Juicios finales sobre las performances de estas variedades en términos de producción, características composicionales básicas, resistencia a diversas patologías, etc. parecen prematuros como resultado del número aún limitado de años de observación. Sin embargo, algunos aspectos de composición interesantes se pueden enfocar ahora mismo. El ciclo de producción, tendencialmente más corto, se traduce en general en un buen nivel de madurez de las uvas. Esto junto con la buena tolerancia encontrada hacia ataques de mildiu y oidio, hacen que estas variedades sean adaptables para la producción en situaciones de mayor pendiente y altitud, ya sea por las condiciones climáticas limitantes que por el mayor peligro inherente al laboreo en zonas con pendientes elevadas. Queda aún por verificar la susceptibilidad de estas variedades a ataques de *Guignardia bidwellii*.

La concentración de ácido shikímico ha demostrado que para algunas variedades su uso puede ser prefigurado en cortes sin comprometer la posibilidad de explotar este ácido como marcador varietal.

La posible presencia de concentraciones significativas de antocianinas diglucósidas requiere atención sobre el uso de estas uvas resistentes en los cortes, en relación con los límites de tales moléculas definidos legalmente. También es previsible que los mecanismos de copigmentación y autoasociación puedan impactar en el tipo y la estabilidad del color de una manera más relevante y menos predecible con respecto a la situación actual ya conocida por los enólogos.

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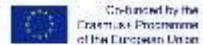
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