

1 Highlights

2 **???Grape Quality and its Link to Regional Differences in the Aus-**  
3 **tralian Winegrowing Industry**

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## 29 **2. Methods**

### 30 *2.1. Data*

31 The Australian wine industry is divided into 65 regions, known as a Geo-  
32 graphical Indicator Regions (GI Region). Each GI Region is used to describe  
33 different unique localised traits of vineyards across Australia; with each hav-  
34 ing its own mixture of climatic and geophysical properties (Halliday, 2009;  
35 Oliver et al., 2013; SOAR et al., 2008). Each region is explicitly defined  
36 under the Wine Australia Corporation Act of 1980 (Attorney-General’s De-  
37 partment, 2010). The climatic properties of a GI Region are summarised by  
38 Sustainable Winegrowing Australia (2021), where regions of similar climates  
39 are amalgamated together into superset regions. The climatic regions were  
40 utilised to illustrate similar trends and explain differences between sets of  
41 regions. The data used in this analysis comes from Sustainable Winegrowing  
42 Australia and covers the period 2015 to 2022. The dataset contained 3342  
43 samples across 52 GI Regions and 1072 individual vineyards.

### 44 *2.2. XGBoosted Trees*

45 XGBoosted (eXtreme Gradient Boosting) trees were created using the  
46 XGBoost library (Chen and Guestrin, 2016) in the Python Programming  
47 language (G. van Rossum, 1995). They were chosen for this analysis as they  
48 provide a both high predictive performance and ability to effectively capture  
49 complex relationships. A separate XGBoosted tree was used to predict each  
50 variable. As variables were both continuous, binary and multiclass, separate  
51 functions were created to handle the three types of variables.

52 With judicious choices for  $\Omega$ , we may express a variety of tasks, such as re-  
 53 gression, classification, and ranking. The task of training the model amounts  
 54 to finding the best parameters that best fit the training data and labels  
 55 . In order to train the model, we need to define the objective function to  
 56 measure how well the model fit the training data.

57 A salient characteristic of objective functions is that they consist of two  
 58 parts: training loss and regularization term:  $obj(\theta) = L(\theta) + \Omega(\theta)$

59 where  $L$  is the training loss function, and  $\Omega$  is the regularization term.  
 60 The training loss measures how predictive our model is with respect to the  
 61 training data. A common choice of  $L$  is the mean squared error, which is  
 62 given by

$$63 \quad L(\theta) = \sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

64 Another commonly used loss function is logistic loss, to be used for logistic  
 65 regression:

66 The regularization term is what people usually forget to add. The regu-  
 67 larization term controls the complexity of the model, which helps us to avoid  
 68 overfitting. This sounds a bit abstract, so let us consider the following prob-  
 69 lem in the following picture. You are asked to fit visually a step function  
 70 given the input data points on the upper left corner of the image. Which  
 71 solution among the three do you think is the best fit?

$$\hat{y}_i = \phi(x_i) = \sum_{k=1}^K f_K(x_i), f_K \in \mathcal{F}$$

72 XGBoosted Regression trees were used to predict continuous variables.  
 73 With data being split into 80% training data and 20% testing data.

74 XGBoosted classification trees were used to classify the binary and mul-

75 ticlass variables. Data was split into 80% training, 10% testing and 10%  
76 validation data.

77 The modelled relationships are able to be scrutinised by using techniques  
78 such as feature importance analysis. The use of the XGBoost library also in-  
79 corporates regularisation techniques built into the software to mitigate over-  
80 fitting and enhance model generalisation. The further use of cross validated  
81 grid search functions allowed for the selection of better performing hyper-  
82 parameters when selecting the final model.

### 83 *2.3. Classification Trees*

84 Classification Trees were developed to discern the different practices within  
85 regions and climates, comparing these relationships to those linked to grape  
86 quality. This was done using the rparts and caret packages (Kuhn, 2008;  
87 Terry Therneau and Beth Atkinson, 2022) in the R statistical programming  
88 language (R Core Team, 2021).

89 Three classifications were undertaken for region, climate and grape quality.  
90 Climate was further classified into two subcategories of rainfall and tempera-  
91 ture, resulting in a total of 5 classification trees being created. Classification  
92 trees were validated using K-fold cross validation. Each model was validated  
93 using 10 folds, utilising a random selection of different samples ten separate  
94 times to validate each of the classification trees. A summary confusion ma-  
95 trix was then constructed to show the class bias and overall accuracy of each  
96 tree.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Model 1 GI Regions

The first Model was used to classify GI regions and resulted in an accuracy of 36.48% across 52 classes. The most prominent features used to classify regions were the types of water resources available (see Figure 1). Two regions, the Riverland and Coonawarra, were the most accurate classes being 92.74% and 96.97% respectively. These regions differ greatly in practice and geophysical properties, with the Riverland being a dry warm inland region and Coonawarra being a cooler, wet coastal region. However, they are both similar in operational scales, with vineyards being relatively large compared with other regions. The differences in resources and practices between these regions are also significant, such as the Riverland utilising the river Murray as a water source. Many of the regions had significantly lower reporting rates, resulting much poorer classification performance. The regions with the most samples performed the best (see Table 1). Notably bordering regions were routinely grouped together and misclassified as the same region, for example the two closest regions to Coonawarra, Padthaway and Wrattenbulley, were misclassified as Coonawarra even though they had 147 and 137 samples respectively. The same case was found for the Murray Darling, with 143 samples, it was misclassified as the Riverland. These misclassifications are likely due to the incredibly similar regional properties and close proximity these regions have with one another. Other misclassifications were most likely due to lower reporting rates with many regions being under represented.

Table 1: Classification accuracy of the most prominent GI Regions.

	Accuracy	Predicted	Actual
<b>Adelaide Hills</b>	30.45%	95	312
<b>Barossa Valley</b>	51.00%	205	402
<b>Coonawarra</b>	96.97%	192	198
<b>Langhorne Creek</b>	22.84%	53	232
<b>Margaret River</b>	78.82%	201	255
<b>McLaren Vale</b>	52.89%	128	242
<b>Riverland</b>	92.74%	345	

### 120 3.2. Climate

121     Classifying the SWA climatic categorisation of the given regions had bet-  
122     ter performance than the GI Regions, with 41.66% being classified correctly.  
123     These categories were divided into 12 climatic classifications with 3 and 4  
124     separate subsets for rainfall and temperature respectively. The decision tree  
125     behaved similarly and over classified climates with higher response rates. The  
126     results posed an interesting similarity with grape quality classifier, being in-  
127     fluenced predominantly by water and area. The use of fungicide to separate  
128     regions that were 'Very dry' and 'Damp' can be considered as indicative  
129     of the different practices required due to climatic pressure; fungicides being  
130     more prominent in cooler regions with greater rainfall due to the higher risk  
131     of disease pressure (Reynolds, 2010). This could also potentially explain the

132 use of contractor tractor use to discern differences in grape quality, where the  
133 lack of contractor use to prevent disease could have led to lowered quality of  
134 grapes.

### 135 *3.2.1. Rainfall*

136 The rainfall decision tree showed a greater use of fungicides sprays to  
137 discern between damp and very Dry as shown in Figure 4; with the accuracy  
138 improving to 62% but was unable to effectively discern between dry and very  
139 dry regions (see Table 3).

### 140 *3.2.2. Temperature*

141 The classification of GI Regions by their temperatures (see Figure 5)  
142 showed similarities to the other trees, with a heavy reliance on the types  
143 of water resources used as dominant predictors. The use of contractors was  
144 again used to differentiate between warm and cool regions, likely being due  
145 to disease pressure. The temperature classification tree was only a minor  
146 improvement over the regional classification tree, with an accuracy of 49.26%  
147 as shown in the confusion matrix (see Table 4).

### 148 *3.3. Model 3 Grape Quality*

149 The classification of grape quality through its grade had an accuracy of  
150 55.72% across 5 separate grades. There was a notable issue with the classi-  
151 fication of B grade grapes when compared to A and C (see Table 2). The  
152 classification tree itself shows similarities to that of classifying regions in  
153 Model 1, with the type of water resource used being a prominent determiner.  
154 Although not surprising the number of contractor tractor passes is new de-  
155 ciding factor due disease and pests reducing the potential quality of a crop.



156 The prevalence of contractor use is greater in regions such as the Barossa  
157 Valley and the McLaren Vale, this could be due to the difference in opera-  
158 tional scales, with larger sites being more likely to have ownership of their  
159 own equipment for weeding and spraying due to the cost benefit.

#### 160 4. Discussion

161 The difference between grape quality is most notable between warm in-  
162 land regions and coastal regions such as the Riverland and Coonawarra,  
163 respectively. Grape quality is only described by a singular variable within  
164 this study, however in reality it is driven by market demand and subject to  
165 complex forces such as international market pressure, fire, pests and disease  
166 (Wine Australia, 2019, 2020, 2021, 2022; Winemakers' Federation of Aus-  
167 tralia, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018) The decision trees were able to offer some  
168 insights into the factors that influence grape quality and regional contrasts  
169 that contribute to different qualities. The most prominent being what readily  
170 available resources of each region were, particular the types of water available.  
171 Heavy water consumption is often linked to the mass production of grapes,  
172 where lower quality grapes are targeted in a quantity over quality strategy.  
173 These types of business decisions are unfortunately obfuscated by lack of in-  
174 depth data regarding vineyard business plans. Notably the literature shows  
175 that there are many complex decisions to be made on the ground depending  
176 on many compounding factors that influence both quality and yield (Abad  
177 et al., 2021; Cortez et al., 2009; Hall et al., 2011; I. Goodwin, et al., 2009;  
178 Kasimati et al., 2022; Oliver et al., 2013; Srivastava and Sadistap, 2018)  
179 . There are also further differences when comparing winegrowers to other

180 agricultural industries as they are vertically integrated within the wine in-  
181 dustry, tying them to secondary and tertiary industries, such as wine pro-  
182 duction, packaging, transport and sales. This results in unique issues, where  
183 on-the-ground choices are influenced by other wine industry’s decisions, such  
184 as the use of sustainable practices in vineyards to sell in overseas markets;  
185 notably these interactions are further complicated by some winegrowers be-  
186 ing totally integrated into wine companies, while others are not (Knight et  
187 al., 2019). It is incredibly difficult to attribute external business decisions to  
188 produced grape quality but it is important to acknowledge that some growers  
189 are contracted to produce grapes of a particular grade; it is difficult to know  
190 whether another consumer may have graded the grape quality differently  
191 paying more or less for the same grapes given the opportunity to purchase  
192 them. It is difficult to untangle the contributing factors to the success of  
193 winegrowers and the quality of grapes produced without further specifics of  
194 choices made through out a season (Leilei He et al., 2022).

## 195 **5. Conclusion**

196 The type and availability of water resources were a major contributing  
197 factor when classifying grape quality and region. This was seen in the two  
198 most accurately classified regions, Coonawarra and the Riverland, with the  
199 Riverland predominantly utilising river water. Furthermore, the study high-  
200 lighted the influence of water use, fungicide application, and contractor use in  
201 differentiating grape quality, climate and region respectively. These models  
202 provide insight into the complex dynamics between regional characteristics,  
203 sustainable practices, and grape quality in the Australian winegrowing indus-

try. It is important to acknowledge that grape quality is subject to external influences such as market demands and prior established business arrangements. Further in-depth data and understanding are necessary to fully grasp the nuances of decision-making and the interplay of factors impacting grape quality.

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