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1 **Abstract**

2 The mechanization of farming operation plays an important role in improving the profitability
3 of the agricultural sector by increasing work productivity and reducing production costs.
4 However, the new challenges of agriculture also include the environmental issues. The choice
5 between different alternatives to perform a determined agricultural practice should be based on
6 reliable information, considering technical, economic and environmental aspects. Olive growing
7 represents the most important agricultural production in the Mediterranean Basin and its
8 mechanization, particularly harvesting, could have major impacts on the sustainability of this
9 production. This study aims at assessing various olive-harvesting scenarios, while considering
10 technical, economic and environmental aspects in order to build a beta version of the “olive-
11 harvesting database”. The proposed methodology called “modular approach” could represent a
12 useful tool to apply in unitary process assessment in order to obtain a comprehensive database
13 of the diverse agricultural operations. The methodology was based on Life Cycle Assessment
14 and production cost analysis. Technical performance evaluation showed that the recorded work
15 capacities varied between 5 tons of harvested olives per day when employing mechanical
16 harvest aids and 18 tons per day when employing trunk shakers. The economic evaluation
17 highlighted that the harvesting costs are variable as a function of the given cost type (costs per
18 hour, costs per kg of harvested olives and costs per hectare). The LCA revealed that
19 mechanically aided techniques were the most sustainable ones when the functional unit is
20 considered as one harvesting hour, although this FU is not the most suitable unit for choosing
21 the best environmental solution. The surface and production mass units are more appropriate
22 FUs in comparative studies, although they are strictly linked to the “work capacity”. A
23 significant variation in the environmental performances depended on the FUs and on the
24 average yields when the FU represented one kg of harvested olives.

25 **Keywords:** Mechanical harvesting; olive orchard; work productivity; economic sustainability;
26 life cycle assessment (LCA); environmental impact.

27 **1 Introduction**

28 Growing olives has a productive function that is associated with hydrological and landscape
29 preservation (Loumou & Giourga, 2003), and it represents a key sector for the whole
30 Mediterranean Basin. The Calabria region (Italy) is home to over 183,000 hectares of olive
31 orchards, and it produces approximately 890,000 tons of olive oil (ISTAT, 2016). The co-
32 existence of traditional olive orchards with a very low planting density and intensive new
33 groves consisting of up to 600 plants/ha characterizes this considerable patrimony. The
34 predominance of small and medium-sized enterprises on one hand and farm area fragmentation
35 on the other hand primarily characterize these olive orchards, leading to a low production of
36 extra virgin olive oil. However, the productive system should aim to enhance high-quality
37 products, which may be labelled with the newly obtained Protected Geographical Indication
38 certification, “IGP Olio di Calabria”. In this situation, aided and mechanical harvesting can play
39 an important role in improving olive grove profitability. This agricultural practice constitutes
40 one of the most influential approaches in relation to olive oil production costs (Cicek, 2011),
41 since it absorbs 50% of the product value alone due to the continuous increase in labour costs.
42 This situation is additionally aggravated by the scarcity of labourers (Bentaher et al., 2013). The
43 employment of mechanical harvest aids or mechanical beaters has increased work productivity
44 by 50% compared to manual harvesting using poling sticks; similarly, trunk and canopy shakers
45 have significantly improved the field working capacity of traditional olive orchards (Rallo et
46 al., 2013; Sola-Guirado et al., 2014). Several studies about olive growth have been performed to
47 focus on technical aspects such as machine functioning; e.g., Blanco-Roldán et al. (2009) report
48 the effects of the trunk shaker duration and repetitions on the removal efficacy. Leone et al.

49 (2015) studied the vibration frequency, acceleration and duration when using a trunk shaker.
50 Other studies addressed the rational organization of harvesting sites; Famiani et al. (2014)
51 evaluated the possibility of mechanizing the olive harvest in groves consisting of old and very
52 large trees; Ferguson et al. (2010) investigated the harvest of California table and oil olives. In
53 addition, the aspects related to the effects of the harvest on the olive oil quality were deepened
54 (Dag et al., 2011; Zipori et al., 2014).

55 The mechanization of agricultural production processes should also be validated from an
56 environmental point of view, preferably by considering all the inputs and outputs connected to the
57 implemented technology. A methodology that is well-suited for the evaluation of various
58 technological solutions is the life cycle assessment (LCA) (ISO 14040, 2006). This method allows
59 for the valuation of all the inputs and outputs associated with the life of the product or the process
60 (Guinée, 2002; Horne et al., 2009). Agriculture represents one of most highly polluting economic
61 sectors, producing approximately 10% of European emissions of greenhouse gases (EEA, 2014) and
62 approximately 90% of acidifying pollutant emissions and depleting nearly 34% of freshwater
63 resources (EEA, 2012). In particular, the energy use represents the third-highest carbon dioxide
64 equivalent (CO₂-eq) emission category in agriculture, with a greenhouse gas (GHG) production in
65 CO₂ eq that was equal to 748,853.4 Gg in 2011 (FAOSTAT, 2015a). More specifically, the
66 combustion of gas-diesel oil represents the highest emission source among this impact category,
67 producing 336,519.5 Gg of CO₂ eq (FAOSTAT, 2015b). Olive growth measurements cannot
68 dispense with these types of assessments, and, for this reason, several studies were performed in
69 Italy (Martinez et al., 2014; Notarnicola et al., 2013; Rinaldi et al., 2014; Salomone et al., 2010;
70 Salomone et al., 2015; Salomone & Ioppolo, 2012), Spain (Ramos et al., 2000) and Greece
71 (Tsarouhas et al., 2015). Recently, this methodology has been jointly performed with economic (De
72 Gennaro et al., 2012; De Luca et al., 2017; Mohamad et al., 2014; Notarnicola et al. 2003,

73 Notarnicola et al 2004; Pergola et al., 2013a) and social (De Luca et al., 2018) evaluations often
74 using the same methodological framework as the LCA, to achieve an integrated sustainability
75 assessment. According to Salomone et al. (2015), most of this research has focused on comparative
76 studies of the whole olive cultivation or olive milling processes. Much rarer is the use of a partial
77 analysis to deepen the different ways in which a unitary process can be performed. This kind of
78 deepened study has already been addressed for the biomass harvesting (Mirabella et al., 2014; Proto
79 et al., 2017) and an effort to support the data collection of mechanical operations in agriculture was
80 made by Lovarelli et al. (2016) and Lovarelli and Bacenetti (2017). In particular, olive cultivation
81 represents a production process that is well-suited to mechanical innovation, especially for
82 harvesting, and thus, the use of an LCA modular approach could be useful for the evaluation of
83 different technical solutions (Bacenetti et al., 2015; Buxmann et al., 2009; Cerutti et al., 2014;
84 Jungbluth et al., 2000; Navarro et al., 2017; Rebitzer, 2005).

85 Although harvesting is one of the most time and production-consuming parts of the operation
86 within the whole olive production process, there is a lack of knowledge regarding its environmental
87 impact, and, in particular, a lack of knowledge concerning the different olive harvesting techniques.
88 For this reason, a comparative assessment combined with a technical and economic analysis could
89 be useful for defining the technical efficiency, cost effectiveness and environmental sustainability
90 of the different harvesting solutions.

91 In accounting for the above reported considerations, the aim of this study is twofold as follows: I)
92 to evaluate the technical efficiency of various harvesting scenarios, while also assessing their
93 influence on the resulting oil quality; and II) to define the different environmental and economic
94 performances of the different working scenarios when considering the harvesting module as a
95 stand-alone life cycle to make the obtained results applicable in other contexts.

96 **2. Materials and Methods**

97 In order to reach the above-described objectives different methodological steps were performed.
98 First, technical performances, expressed in terms of work capacity and productivity, of different
99 harvesting scenarios, considering harvesting equipment and site organization, were evaluated.
100 This was a propaedeutical step for the following economic and environmental assessments,
101 performed respectively, using cost production and Life Cycle Assessment methodologies. In
102 order to stress the usefulness of the results, further simulations were achieved by scaling the
103 data in two different dimensions considering two alternative Functional Units (FUs): one ha of
104 harvested area (1 ha) and one kg of harvested product (1 kg).

105 **2.1 Orchard features**

106 Experimental trials have been conducted in *Olea europea* L. cv. Carolea orchards for three
107 years. This variety is the oldest and the most widespread in Calabria, thanks to its adaptability
108 to diverse soil and microclimatic conditions, in addition to the over-all uniformity in the
109 physico-chemical characteristics of the oil it produces.

110 Two types of orchards were considered; the first one included intensive orchards planted with
111 approximately 25-year-old trees (harvesting sites I to IV); however, the second one considered
112 two traditional orchards of over-60-year-old trees (harvesting sites V and VI). These sites are
113 representative of the diverse productive structures found through the Calabrian territory.

114 At each site, harvesting was performed on trees whose dimensional and technical parameters
115 are reported in table 1. The canopy volume was calculated according to the International Olive
116 Council method (2007), and the quantity of olives per tree, the fruit removal force (FRF) and the
117 FRF/FW (fresh weight) ratio are reported in table 2.

118 Table 1: Average tree dimensional parameters at the analysed harvesting sites (means \pm SE)

119 Table 2: Olive trees and fruit characteristics at harvest (means \pm SE)

120 **2.2 *Harvesting scenario organization and equipment***

121 In scenarios I and II, self-propelled trunk shakers with vibrating heads and a multidirectional
122 configuration of eccentric masses turning at 2200 rpm with 200 bar of oil pressure were used. The
123 labourers consisted in six (6) and five (5) operators, respectively, with one running the harvesting
124 machine while the others were charged with net and olive handling (figure 1).

125 Figure 1: A self-propelled trunk shaker used in the harvesting operations

126 In scenario III, a towed radio-controlled shaker with a wrap-around catching frame, a vibrating head
127 of 200 kg and a catching frame diameter of 5.25 m was used (figure 2). Two operators were
128 required, one for driving and controlling the shaker and the other for handling the associated small
129 auxiliary nets.

130 Figure 2: The towed radio-controlled shaker used in scenario III

131 Scenario IV involved a motorized, inverted umbrella harvester with a net that had a 7 m diameter,
132 which was known as an Olivspeed Plus GO model (figure 3). Two operators with mechanical
133 pneumatic combs worked to perform the harvest and olive handling.

134 Figure 3: The Olivspeed used in scenario IV

135 In scenario V, the harvest was performed using a trunk shaker and a self-propelled windrower with
136 a working width of 2 m and a harvester from the ground with a working width of 2.5 m (figure 4),
137 both of which had substitute nets. The harvesting scenario comprised three operators.

138 Figure 4: Olive harvesting from the ground in scenario V

139 All the previous harvesting scenarios were situated on flat terrain, while scenario VI was situated on
140 a sloped ($> 20\%$) and rather inaccessible terrain. Here, the harvest was performed with a small
141 hand-held shaker that was carried by one operator (figure 5), and four other operators were needed

142 for follow-up harvesting with sticks and nets. This type of small shaker is held by a telescopic rod,
143 which is clamped onto the small branches thanks to a U-shaped end connected to an endothermic
144 motor that enables it to generate 2500-3000 strokes per minute.

145 Figure 5: Small hand-held shaker used in scenario VI

146 A synthesis of the harvesting scenario composition in terms of equipment and labour is reported in
147 table 3.

148 Table 3: Synthesis of the harvesting scenario composition

149 **2.3 *Work productivity determination and olive oil analysis***

150 To determine the work productivity of the analyzed scenarios, which were calculated and expressed
151 as the quantity from the harvested plants/h/worker, the working time of each phase was recorded.
152 The work capacity and productivity were calculated according to the methodology proposed by the
153 Commission Internationale de l'Organisation Scientifique du Travail en Agriculture (CIOSTA) as
154 described by Bolli & Scotton (1987). After the harvesting trials, a sample of olives from each
155 scenario was collected and micro-milled to analyze the free acidity, peroxide number and
156 spectrophotometric indices of the resulting oils according to CEE 2568/91 and EU 1348/2013
157 regulations. Moreover, an experienced panel made up of eight judges performed the sensory
158 analysis, according to International Olive Council requirements (IOC, 2015).

159 A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to evaluate the difference between
160 working time productivity and oil quality according to the harvest working scenario organization.
161 Free R software version 3.1.2 (2014-10-31) was used for data processing.

162 2.4 Economic analysis

163 From an economic point of view, the analysis focused on the harvesting cost as expressed in terms
164 of the cost per hour (€ h^{-1}), cost per unit of product (€ kg^{-1} of harvested olives) and average cost per
165 hectare (€ ha^{-1}). The machine hourly cost was determined according to the Miyata (1980) method
166 that accounts for both the machinery operating cost and operator-machine labour cost, as shown in
167 table 4. In the calculation of the machine costs, both the fixed and variable costs were considered.
168 The hourly fixed costs were calculated by dividing the total annual fixed cost (e.g., interest,
169 depreciation, maintenance) by the annual working time, as follows:

$$170 \text{ Hourly fixed costs } (\text{€ h}^{-1}) = \frac{\text{Total Annual Fixed Cost } (\text{€ year}^{-1})}{\text{Annual Working time } (\text{h year}^{-1})}$$

171 To calculate the hourly variable costs, both the fuel and oil consumption and the labour costs were
172 estimated. For each harvesting scenario, the primary technical and economical features of the
173 machines and equipments were recorded during field observations (table 5). In I, II and VI, the
174 costs per hour for the nets was included. The latter cost was calculated by considering both fixed
175 costs (depreciation and interest) and the variable cost (the labour cost for the operators involved in
176 net handling). Then, to estimate the total hourly harvesting cost for the different harvesting systems,
177 the machine and net costs were added.

178 The cost to harvest 1 kg of olives for each analyzed harvesting system was determined by dividing
179 the total hourly cost by the harvesting yield per hour, as follows:

$$180 \text{ Harvesting Cost per kg of olives } (\text{€ kg}^{-1}) = \frac{\text{Total Hourly Cost } (\text{€ h}^{-1})}{\text{Harvesting Yield per hour } (\text{kg h}^{-1})}$$

181 Finally, to calculate the average cost per hectare, the harvest cost per kg was multiplied by the
182 harvested yield per hectare, as follows:

183 $Harvesting\ Cost\ per\ hectare (\text{€ ha}^{-1}) = Harvesting\ Cost\ per\ kg (\text{€ kg}^{-1}) \times harvesting\ yield\ per\ hectare (kg\ ha^{-1})$

184 To calculate each cost item, the following assumptions were adopted:

- 185 - For the nets, both the purchase price of 400 € ha⁻¹ and the economic life of 5 years were
186 considered.
- 187 - The work remuneration was evaluated in terms of opportunity cost, and it was equal to the
188 employment of temporary workers for manual (net handling) and mechanical operations
189 (Stillitano et al., 2016) by adopting the current hourly wage (including social security
190 contributions). In particular, for the mechanical operations, qualified workers were
191 employed by considering a compensation of 8.57 € h⁻¹, while the salary for the other
192 workers was considered to be equal to 7.14 € h⁻¹.
- 193 - The machine salvage value was estimated as the demolition material sale (steel and iron)
194 that was equal to 10% of the initial purchase cost.
- 195 - The interests on capital goods (machines and nets) were calculated by applying an interest
196 rate equal to 2%.
- 197 - An average of 60 working days at 8 hours per day was assumed.

198 Table 4: Calculation of the machine hourly cost (Miyata, 1980 *modified*)

199 Table 5: Primary characteristics of the harvesting machines analyzed in this study

200 **2.5 Environmental analysis**

201 To evaluate the potential environmental impacts of the olive harvesting techniques connected to the
202 six studied systems, the LCA method according to the ISO 14040 series (ISO 14040, 2006a; ISO

203 14044, 2006b) was performed. In particular, in accordance with the ISO framework, the first step of
204 the LCA addressed the definition of the goal and scope.

205 When considering that the harvesting system choice has negligible consequences on the other field
206 operations, to analyze the environmental consequences of the different harvesting solutions deeply,
207 the system boundaries were limited only to this unitary operation by conducting a partial LCA
208 (figure 6).

209 Figure 6: System boundary flow chart.

210 The analyses referred to 1 h of harvesting operations as a functional unit (FU) (table 6). This choice
211 allowed the researchers to make an objective assessment of each individual harvesting scenario. The
212 results could be useful for the scientific community within a “gate to gate” or “cradle to grave”
213 framework of LCA studies on olive oil production. However, to assess the result usefulness, further
214 analyses, were performed using two alternative FUs: the first one consisting in one ha of olive
215 grove (table 7) in order to evaluate the impacts of different harvesting practices in terms of
216 harvested area. This FU is often used for the evaluation of orchard management impacts (Cerutti et
217 al., 2015); while the second FU was represented by 1 kg of harvested olives (table 8), in order to
218 evaluate the impacts related to the unit of the product. This FU is generally used in the product
219 assessment (Cerutti et al., 2015) and it is mandatory for the certification of table olives and olive oil
220 in product category requirements. These two units are more appropriate for use as FUs in
221 comparative studies, even though they are strictly linked to the “work capacity”.

222 In these additional evaluations, the data referred to 1 h of harvesting operations related to the “Work
223 capacity h⁻¹” data and the given average production as reported below.

224 1. Scaling for FU=1 ha of olive grove

$$\left(\frac{Yield \text{ kg ha}^{-1}}{Work \text{ capacity kg h}^{-1}} \right) \times LCI \text{ results for 1 h of olive harvesting}$$

$$\frac{LCI \text{ results for 1 h of olive harvesting}}{Work \text{ capacity kg h}^{-1}}$$

2. Scaling for FU=1 kg of harvested olives

The data were directly collected from the studied harvesting scenarios through a customized questionnaire that was compiled by the authors.

For the machinery (self-propelled trunk shakers, towed radio-controlled shaker, olivspeed and mechanical pneumatic aids, windrower and harvester from the ground, hand-held shaker), shed, equipment (operating organs such as the shaking head, the receiving umbrella, the collecting brush) and net production, data were allocated by considering their use in the harvesting operation instead of the useful life of the given tool. The consumption data (diesel and lubricant) were directly measured through the “tanks topping up” technique. Secondary data (diesel and lubricant production, machine production, maintenance and disposal, fuel combustion emissions, metal emissions from the wear and tear of the machines, etc.) were obtained from the Ecoinvent V. 3.3 database (Weidema et al., 2013).

Table 6: Environmental Life Cycle Inventory - LCI (FU 1 h of olive harvesting)

Table 7: Environmental Life Cycle Inventory - LCI (FU 1 ha)

Table 8: Environmental Life Cycle Inventory - LCI (FU 1 kg of harvested olives)

The environmental inventory data were processed using SimaPro 8.1 software (Goedkoop et al., 2013b), and the ReCiPe method at the midpoint (H) and endpoint (H) levels (Goedkoop et al., 2013a) were chosen to process the results from each analyzed scenario. In particular, the results of the characterization using the midpoint method was only being used for the primary FU (1 h of harvesting operation) to evaluate the impacts of different technical solutions from the point of view of the potential environmental effects. These impacts will also be represented with the endpoint method and compared with supplementary FUs, to underline variations due to different FUs according to the environmental damages caused, while being conscious of the results in terms of uncertainty increases (Goedkoop et al., 2013a).

3. Results and discussions

3.1 *Work productivity assessment*

Table 9 reports the work capacity and productivity, calculated in function of the operative time and expressed in terms of the kg h^{-1} and $\text{kg h}^{-1} \text{ worker}^{-1}$, respectively. Moreover, the harvesting efficiency, as expressed as a percentage, was calculated as the ratio between the mechanically harvested quantity of olives and the whole quantity produced by the tree.

Table 9: Calculated work capacity and productivity

In scenarios I and II, an average production of 20 tons ha^{-1} was attained. The work capacity provided by trunk shakers permits us to state that the whole production per hectare can be harvested in one working day with a very high harvesting efficiency. In employing a trunk shaker, Sola-Guirado *et al.* (2014) obtained a mean harvesting efficiency value of 90.5%, while Famiani et al. (2014) obtained a harvesting yield of greater than 70% for 'Cellina di Nardò', with harvesting working productivities higher than $100 \text{ kg of harvested olives h}^{-1} \text{ worker}^{-1}$ ($=1.6 \text{ trees h}^{-1} \text{ worker}^{-1}$).

266 Michelakis (2002) reports that with this machine, less than 100% of the production is detached,
267 usually from 70% to 90%.

268 The same considerations can be applied to scenario III, in which the recorded production was 10
269 tons ha⁻¹. Di Vaio et al. (2012) used a similar machine to calculate a mechanical harvesting yield of
270 approximately 97%, and, due to the low number of workers and the reduced time of operation, they
271 reached a very high work productivity equal to an average of 342 kg h⁻¹ worker⁻¹ for two cultivars.
272 In harvesting scenario IV, the results showed that almost 5 days were needed to harvest the whole
273 production equal to 3.3 tons ha⁻¹, while in harvesting scenario VI, two days are needed to harvest
274 the whole production per hectare, corresponding to 5.2 tons. Guirado et al. (2014) used hand-held
275 systems and reported a harvesting efficiency of 98%. Famiani et al. (2014) used a beater + nets and
276 a beater + reversed umbrella, finding a very high harvesting yield (> 95%) with both the beater +
277 nets and the beater + reversed umbrella. The calculated working productivity was approximately 1.3
278 trees h⁻¹ worker⁻¹ with the beater + nets; the productivity increased significantly up to
279 approximately 1.7 trees h⁻¹ worker⁻¹ with the beater + reversed umbrella.

280 In harvesting scenario V, the employment of the windrower and the harvester from the ground that
281 substituted for manual harvesting and net handling permits a considerable increase in the working
282 productivity. In fact, two hours are enough to harvest the whole production per hectare, which was
283 equal to 4 tons.

284 The chemical characteristics of olive oils obtained from the studied orchards are reported in table
285 10. The free acidity expressed as the % of oleic acid, the peroxide value (PV), and the UV
286 absorbencies at 232, 266, 270 and 274 nm of all the investigated olive oils fit within the limits
287 established by the International Olive Council for the extra virgin olive oil category, except for the
288 acidity percentage of the oil obtained from orchard VI. The free acidity and the peroxide value were
289 significantly affected ($p < 0.05$) by the harvesting system, probably due to the damages provoked by

290 using sticks for harvesting as well as the harvesting scenario organization, while the other quality
291 indices were not affected. However, it is important to remember that the contact of the olives with
292 the ground that occurs in harvesting scenario V negatively affects the oil quality, particularly from a
293 sensorial point of view. Although, the chemical parameters and the positive attribute (fruity, bitter
294 and hot) median values of the oil obtained from orchard V fit within the limits established by the
295 International Olive Council for the extra virgin olive oil category, the sensorial analysis, performed
296 by a trained panel, downgraded this oil into virgin olive oil category. Indeed, the defect median
297 value was above the limit ($1.9 > md=0$) as shown in table 11. This oil had the so-called “*earthy*
298 *flavor*” negative attribute, which characterizes the “*oil obtained from olives that have been*
299 *collected with earth or mud on them and which have not been washed*” (CEE 2568/91). This
300 finding once more confirms that harvesting scenario V is not suitable for extra virgin olive oil
301 production.

302 Table 10: Chemical characteristics of the analyzed oils

303 Table 11: Results of the sensory analysis on orchard V olive oil

304 **3.2 Economic assessment**

305 In terms of the economic assessment, the different harvesting systems showed variable results
306 depending on the considered cost types (costs per hour per kg of olives harvested and cost per
307 hectare).

308 Figure 7 shows the hourly cost of the different harvest work scenarios analyzed in the study. The
309 results reveal that the V is the harvesting system with the highest cost per hour (72.05 € h^{-1}), due to
310 the higher incidence of variable costs related to the fuel consumption. This system also registers the
311 highest fixed costs, which are approximately equal to 45% of the total hourly cost. This finding is
312 primarily due to the depreciation and maintenance costs incurred for the three harvesting machines

313 (shaker-harvested, windrower machine and harvester from the ground). By contrast, scenario IV
 314 achieves the best performance in terms of hourly cost, at 20.43 € h⁻¹. In this case, the variable costs
 315 should be the most influential variable in relation to labour cost representing the 88% of the total
 316 cost per hour. Figure 7: Harvesting hourly cost.

317 Figure 8 illustrates both the cost per kg of harvested olives and the average cost per hectare as
 318 incurred using the different analyzed harvesting systems. The mechanical harvesting (scenarios I, II,
 319 III and V) and hand-held harvesting techniques (scenarios IV and VI) show the best and the worst
 320 economic performances, respectively. The findings are strictly influenced by the diverse harvesting
 321 techniques in terms of the employed machine/equipment and labourer number on one hand, and
 322 using the obtained yields calculated in function of the operative time and plant productivity in each
 323 studied scenario on the other hand. As also argued by Famiani et al. (2014), the unitary cost of
 324 harvesting olives can differ according to the hourly machine cost and working productivity of the
 325 harvest system. This latter factor depends greatly on the load of the trees and the harvest timing.

326 The greatest levels of harvesting efficiency achieved in the mechanical harvesting scenarios entailed
 327 higher yields, and, therefore, lower costs. In fact, the lowest cost per kg of harvested olives, which
 328 corresponded to 0.022 € kg⁻¹, was achieved in harvesting scenario III, while the highest value was
 329 obtained in scenario IV at 0.24 € kg⁻¹, taking into account hourly harvested yields of 1,234.60 and
 330 85.99 kg h⁻¹ (table 9), respectively. The variable costs contribute to the highest percentage of the
 331 total cost for both systems, which are equal to 88.2% for hand-held harvesting and 50.5% for
 332 mechanical harvesting. In mechanical harvesting, scenarios I and II exhibited the highest work
 333 capacities (2,726.52 and 2,516.81 kg h⁻¹, respectively), and the costs per kg are similar. The highest
 334 contribution of the variable costs for these work scenarios was primarily due to the highest share of
 335 the labour cost, accounting for more than 60% of the total harvesting cost.

336 Concerning the average cost per hectare, the V scenario shows the best economic performances,
337 with 153.25 € ha⁻¹ compared to 783.94 € ha⁻¹ obtained in scenario IV. This wide value range is
338 primarily due to the different amounts of time dedicated to harvesting, which is lower in the V
339 system compared to the IV one.

340 Several researchers observed that high harvest efficiency values can be reached with mechanical
341 harvesting systems in both traditional (Almeida and Peça, 2012; Bernardi et al., 2016; Sola-Guirado
342 et al., 2014) and intensive orchards (Freixa et al., 2011; Ravetti et al., 2014; Stillitano et al., 2017;
343 Vieri and Sarri, 2010). The results obtained from the intensive scenarios, in which the trunk shaker
344 was employed, were compared to those described by Tous et al. (2014) in Portugal and Spain.
345 These countries obtained similar values for the cost per kg of harvested olives of between 0.09 €
346 and 0.16-0.2 € kg⁻¹, but there were higher average costs per hectare with values ranging from 800 €
347 and 1,100 € ha⁻¹.

348 Figure 8: Unit cost per kg of harvested olives and the average cost per hectare.

349 With regard to traditional orchards, scenario V was the situation in which a greater hourly
350 harvesting yield was achieved, presenting 66% and 74% lower impacts than scenario VI in terms of
351 the cost per kg of harvested olives and the average cost per hectare, respectively. However, as
352 discussed by Castillo-Ruiz et al. (2015), even though the quantity of harvested fruit from the ground
353 is much higher, there is a decrease in the quality. Low quality levels for olive oil negatively affect
354 the possibility of accessing the extra virgin olive oil market price, and thus they diminish the
355 economic profitability of these systems.

356 The economic findings show the importance of including harvesting technology to reduce the
357 labour costs. In addition, Vieri and Sarri (2010) have widely debated reducing the harvesting costs
358 in terms of optimizing the cost per hour, per hectare and per unit of product. They observed that

359 increasing the working capacity, maintaining constant production levels and using efficient
360 harvester devices could be some of the most important solutions for improving olive cultivation in
361 terms of economic sustainability, supporting the results obtained in the present study.

362 **3.3 *Environmental assessment***

363 Regarding the environmental results obtained through the implementation of the Modular LCA
364 method, table 12 shows that when the considered FU is 1 h of work, the harvesting solution with the
365 highest impact is scenario V for all the evaluated impact categories. This impact is due to the
366 mechanization intensity, which implies the following: i) high diesel consumption, ii) high incidence
367 of agricultural machinery construction, maintenance and disposal, iii) shed land occupation and iv)
368 emissions into the air, water and soil due to diesel combustion and tire consumption. The overall
369 best scenario is IV, except for the Ozone depletion, Agricultural land occupation, Urban land
370 occupation and Natural land transformation categories, for which the best performances are
371 achieved in scenario VI. These negative results for scenario IV are attributable to the high incidence
372 of agricultural machinery construction and shed land occupation, in particular due to Olivspeed
373 construction and shelter. Both scenarios IV and VI are characterized by hand-held harvesting
374 techniques, which allow for a lower consumption of fuels but a lower work capacity.

375 Table 12: Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) results at the midpoint level (FU 1 h of olive
376 harvesting)

377 Among the fully mechanized harvesting scenarios, scenario III represents the best solution, with
378 particular thanks to the lower diesel consumption and the absence of nets. Scenarios I and II show
379 similar performances, slightly to the detriment of the second one in which the most powerful tractor
380 generates higher impacts.

381 The results were also expressed at the endpoint level using the single score representation to quickly
382 compare the environmental performances per FU and between different FUs, highlighting the high
383 influence of the yields on the environmental sustainability of the productive scenarios.

384 The contribution analysis revealed that fuel production and combustion are the primary contributors
385 to the environmental impacts, excluding scenario VI (figure 9). Fuel contributes an average from
386 75% to 95% to all the impact categories excluding Freshwater eutrophication, Human toxicity and
387 Metal depletion. For the abovementioned impact categories, the dominant contributors are the
388 production and the use of machines, ranging from 45% to 75%. Concerning Agricultural and Urban
389 land occupation, the highest contribution is attributable to the shed, which shares approximately
390 50% of the total impacts. This hotspot reaches the maximum values in scenarios IV and V due to
391 the larger surface occupied by the machines. However, its impacts on Land occupation are
392 negligible from a quantitative point of view.

393 Figure 9: Incidence of environmental impacts per LCI category at the endpoint level (FU 1 h of
394 olive harvesting).

395 In the scenarios in which nets were employed, this finding had a significant environmental
396 impact, ranging from 15% to 25%. This trend is primarily due to the large amount of plastic that
397 was used. In particular, scenario IV, in which a hand-held harvesting system was applied,
398 showed the higher incidence of nets in environmental performance deterioration. However, it
399 must be emphasized that the total environmental impact of this scenario has a value that is
400 much lower than that of any other analyzed mechanical harvesting scenario.

401 Scenario VI displayed a different distribution of impacts, and, therefore, it must be analyzed
402 separately. The fuel production and combustion represent the hotspots for Ozone depletion, Marine
403 eutrophication, Photochemical oxidant formation and Natural land transformation, contributing at

404 least 79%. For the Freshwater eutrophication, Human toxicity and Water depletion categories, the
405 hotspot is represented by the nets, ranging from 65% to 90%. Climate change, Terrestrial
406 acidification, Particulate matter formation, Ionizing radiation and Fossil fuel depletion are equally
407 generated by fuel and nets. For the remaining categories, the impacts can be equally attributed to
408 nets and hand-shaker production, which represent the biggest metal exploiter (87%).

409 Figure 10 shows the results reported in table 12 at the endpoint level. The passing of the level in
410 terms of results expression leads to an increase in their uncertainty; however, the deviations
411 between the examined scenarios are comparable with those present at the midpoint level. In this
412 sense, the graphical presentation of the results at the endpoint level should be a quick way to show
413 the performance of different “modules”.

414 Figure 10: Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) results at the endpoint level (FU 1 h of olive
415 harvesting).

416 When a different FU is used other than 1 h of work, different conclusions can be drawn. In figure
417 11, the results are expressed per ha, and the yield differences described in paragraph 3.1 are
418 considered in accordance with equation 1.

419 The opposite situation is shown in figure 12 in which, in accordance with equation 2, the results are
420 influenced by the work capacity of the analyzed solutions, and the selected FU is 1 kg of harvested
421 olives. In this case, the results are directly influenced by the yield per hectare of olive grove and by
422 the physiological and technological characteristics of the drupes, especially those related to the size
423 of the fruit, the length of the attached peduncles, the ripening degree and the peel strength. The
424 most impactful categories for all the FUs were climate change and fossil fuel depletion,
425 according to Pergola et al. (2013a), who attributed the role of one of the most impactful
426 unitary operations in the olive orchard to the harvesting operation. The same result was

427 obtained by Mohamad et al. (2014), who used inventory data comparable with the LCI results
428 achieved in scenarios I, II and III. Considering the different LCIA methods and the more
429 limited system boundaries for the harvesting operation, the results for the ha-FU can be
430 compared with the aforementioned paper, in which the authors obtained an average single
431 score for the harvesting operation in the productive stage equal to 15.5 pt. However, their
432 system boundaries were limited to fuel and lubricant production and consumption, so it could
433 be assumed that there was an equivalent value of 19.4 pt for scenario I, II and III.

434 Figure 11: Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) results at the endpoint level (FU 1 ha).

435 Figure 12: Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) results at the endpoint level (FU 1 kg of harvested
436 olives).

437 These insights are closely related to the results of the technical trials and therefore cannot be
438 generalized to define a performance ranking.

439 In comparing the endpoint results in terms of modules (1 h of olive harvesting), scenario V is once
440 again the worst one, having an impact of approximately 16.5 times that of the best scenario (IV). By
441 contrast, upon comparing the results per kg of harvested olives, scenario IV is the worst one
442 because of its low work capacity, while the best scenario is I, which had three times better results.
443 In this case, the results are comparable in terms of both functional units, which consider the work
444 capacity and site characteristics. However, these results are not related to any performance index;
445 therefore, the comparison is quite weak.

446 By contrast, the comparison between solution I and II deserves particular attention, given that
447 only two scenarios have fully comparable characteristics. In particular, considering 1 ha and 1
448 kg of harvested olive as FUs, scenario I shows the best performance because the adopted
449 harvesting solution, although characterized by the same productivity as that of scenario II,

450 involves saving diesel and a lower tractor mass. Therefore, from the environmental point of
451 view, solution I is better than solution II.

452 However, it is interesting to underline that the hand-held harvesting techniques (IV and VI)
453 show poor environmental efficiency when considering one kg of harvested olives as the FU,
454 just because of the poor work capacity of these harvesting techniques.

455 **3.4 Overall assessment**

456 The obtained results, considering 1 hour of harvesting operation as a FU, highlight that the
457 scenarios where trunk shakers were employed (I, II and III) were more performant in terms of work
458 capacity, however, they were more impactful from environmental point of view, due to the diesel
459 combustion. This factor, jointly with the labor cost engenders high hourly costs (table 13). These
460 results flip if one kg of harvested olives is considered as the FU for environmental and economic
461 impact assessment, thanks to the high efficiency of environmental and economic resource
462 employment. Scenario V has also high performances in term of work capacity but the high use of
463 fossil fuels makes it the worst scenario for environmental impact. In addition, the rising of sensorial
464 defects leads to discard this scenario. Hand held harvesting scenarios (IV and VI) are advantageous
465 only in sites where mechanization is not possible and scenario VI results better than scenario IV
466 thanks to the higher work capacity. Figure 13 summerizes graphically the obtained results (work
467 capacity results are minimized in order to represent graphically the worst as the higher value). It
468 shows a high heterogeneity of the analyzed scenarios. The scenario III may be considered a good
469 compromise taking into account the different analyzed indicators thanks to its intermediate
470 performances.

471 Table 13: Summary of the performance assessment (FU 1 h of harvesting)

472 Figure 13: Overall performance assessment (FU 1 h of harvesting)

473 **Conclusions**

474 The further spread of modern, dynamic and mechanizable olive cultivation in Calabria is
475 necessary for increasing their productivity and competitiveness. These innovations would
476 hopefully enable a decrease in production costs, particularly those related to harvesting,
477 which are currently very high. The rising requirement to modernize olive cultivation and the
478 olive oil sector, which have assisted in the development of new growing models in recent
479 years (Giametta & Bernardi, 2010; Tous et al., 2014), make it necessary to carefully plan the
480 how to best use machinery to perform diverse agricultural practices, especially harvesting.
481 The advantages in terms of working time and production cost abatement in this study are
482 evident when employing self-propelled trunk shakers in an orchard predisposed to mechanical
483 harvesting and accompanied by the adequate technical preparation of the driving operators.

484 The implementation of the modular LCA method allowed us to define a ready-to-use module
485 for olive harvesting operations, and it is very easy to scale-up to different production
486 contexts. However, to reach this goal, a broader dataset in different orchards with different
487 yields and different conditions is necessary.

488 In addition, from an environmental point of view, the study highlighted that “Climate change”
489 and “Fossil fuel depletion” are among the most impacted categories (Pergola et al., 2013b;
490 Mohamad et al., 2014) in the olive production process. This finding confirms the significant
491 role played by harvesting operations in the environmental sustainability of olive cultivation.
492 The resulting study provides useful information to olive growers who want to deepen their
493 knowledge about the olive harvest since it focuses on the technical, economic and
494 environmental performances of different olive harvesting scenarios. Furthermore, LCA
495 practitioners could use the findings of the modular assessment for studies on olive-growing,

496 customizing the approach to their specific needs as performed in the present study using
497 multiple scaling methods.

498 The determination of the most suitable harvesting system is complex and there is a need for a
499 precise analysis of all the features that characterize the orchard. In light of the results, it is
500 difficult to state a univocal outcome due to the heterogeneity of the studied harvesting sites,
501 which represent a real reflection of olive cultivation in Calabria. Further studies considering
502 ulterior scenarios, and taking into account different orchard conditions and harvest site
503 organizations are needed to confirm and improve the outcomes obtained in this research.

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Table 1: Average tree dimensional parameters at the analyzed harvesting sites (means \pm SE)

Harvesting sites	Planting layout	Age	Stem Ø	Stem height	Canopy Ø	Plant height	Branch number
	(m)	(year)	(cm)	(m)	(m)	(m)	
I	6x4	25	26.35 \pm 0.69	1.31 \pm 0.19	4.58 \pm 0.23	5.65 \pm 0.14	3
II	6x4	25	26.80 \pm 0.83	0.98 \pm 0.41	5.96 \pm 0.89	4.27 \pm 0.76	3
III	6x4	25	22.05 \pm 0.57	0.90 \pm 0.51	4.26 \pm 0.51	4.64 \pm 0.10	3
IV	6x5	25	25.79 \pm 0.28	1.34 \pm 0.16	4.55 \pm 0.23	5.53 \pm 0.12	3
V	12x12	60	69.98 \pm 2.91	1.85 \pm 0.62	7.48 \pm 0.19	6.32 \pm 0.13	3
VI	8x6	60	43.95 \pm 0.91	0.80 \pm 0.8	6.49 \pm 0.31	4.74 \pm 0.41	3

Table 2: Olive trees and fruit characteristics at harvest (means \pm SE)

Harvesting sites	Canopy	Fresh	Fruit removal	FRF/FW	Olive yield
	volume	weight (FW)	force (FRF)		
	(m ³)	(g)	(N)	(N g ⁻¹)	(kg/tree)
I	77.12 \pm 8.84	3.28 \pm 0.03	5.27 \pm 0.47	1.60 \pm 0.32	55.20 \pm 1.86
II	91.98 \pm 3.81	3.57 \pm 0.05	4.23 \pm 0.31	1.18 \pm 0.34	57.50 \pm 1.60
III	53.47 \pm 1.70	1.85 \pm 0.08	2.59 \pm 0.21	1.40 \pm 0.76	26.65 \pm 1.25
IV	70.95 \pm 7.73	2.46 \pm 0.04	4.44 \pm 0.15	1.80 \pm 0.06	15.98 \pm 0.56
V	202.12 \pm 15.5	2.01 \pm 0.08	2.81 \pm 0.17	1.33 \pm 0.06	61.90 \pm 0.87
VI	130.19 \pm 3.57	2.47 \pm 0.07	4.39 \pm 2.13	1.77 \pm 0.07	31.38 \pm 1.34

Table 3: Synthesis of the harvesting scenario composition

Scenario	Employed machine/equipment	Labourer number	Slope
I	Self-propelled trunk shaker + nets	6	flat
II	Self-propelled trunk shaker + nets	5	flat
III	Towed radio-controlled shaker + nets	2	flat
IV	Olivspeed + mechanical pneumatic aids	2	flat
V	Trunk shaker + windrower + harvester from the ground	3	flat
VI	Small hand-held shaker + sticks + nets	5	>20%

Table 4 - Calculation of the machine hourly cost (Miyata, 1980 modified)

COST ITEM	Symbol	Unit	Source
Machinery value	MV	€	Price list
Equipment value	EV	€	Price list
Total value	TV	€	MV + EV
Salvage value	SV	€	% di TV
Power	P	kW	Technical manual
Interest rate	R	%	Market survey
Economic life	EL	years	Technical manual
Average annual machine use	AMU	h year ⁻¹	Field survey
Average daily machine use	DMU	h day ⁻¹	Field survey
Fuel price	FP	€ l ⁻¹	Price list
Oil price	OP	€ kg ⁻¹	Price list
Fuel consumption	FC	l h ⁻¹	Field survey
Oil consumption	OC	kg h ⁻¹	Field survey
Area occupied by the machine	A	m ²	Technical manual
Price per m ²	PA	€ m ²	Local market
Average hourly wage	HW	€ h ⁻¹	Current local salary
Operator-machine	OM	N.	Field survey
Hourly Variable Costs			
Fuel consumption cost	FCC	€ h ⁻¹	FC*FP

Oil consumption cost	OCC	€ h ⁻¹	OC*OP
Operator-machine labour cost	OMC	€ h ⁻¹	HW*OM
Total hourly variable costs	HVC	€ h⁻¹	FCC+OCC+OMC
<i>Annual Fixed Costs</i>			
Interest on capital goods	I	€ year ⁻¹	((MV+SV)/2) * r
Depreciation	DR	€ year ⁻¹	(TV-SV)/EL
Insurance	IR	€ year ⁻¹	Field survey
Maintenance	MR	€ year ⁻¹	Field survey
Space cost	SC	€ year ⁻¹	A * PA * (0.03)
Total annual fixed costs	AFC	€ year⁻¹	I+DR+IR+MR+SC
Total hourly fixed costs	HFC	€ h⁻¹	AFC/AMU
TOTAL HOURLY COST	THC	€ h⁻¹	HFC + HVC

Table 5: Primary characteristics of the harvesting machines analyzed in this study

Scenario	I	II	III	IV		V		VI	
Machinery	Shaker harvester	Shaker harvester	Shaker machine with reversed umbrella	Pneumatic combs	Reversed umbrella	Shaker harvester	Windrower	Harvester from the ground	Hand-held shaker
Purchase price (€)	60,000.00	70,000.00	65,000.00	1,200.00	2,700.00	70,000.00	12,000.00	35,000.00	1,700.00
Power (kW)	72.5	105	58.0	1.45	1.44	105	13.05	43.5	1.45
Economic life (years)	15	15	15	5	10	15	10	15	5
Average annual working time (h year⁻¹)	480	480	480	300	300	480	300	300	300
Fuel consumption	8.2	9.08	5.05	0.58	0.29	8.2	1.3	4.5	0.71

(l h⁻¹)

Oil 0.05 0.05 0.05 0 0 0.05 0 0 0

consumption

(kg h⁻¹)

Table 6 - Environmental Life Cycle Inventory - LCI (FU 1 h of olive harvesting)

Scenario	Agricultural	Agricultural				
	Machinery	Equipment	Diesel	Shed	Lubricant	Net
	kg h ⁻¹	kg h ⁻¹	l h ⁻¹	m ² h ⁻¹	kg h ⁻¹	m ² h ⁻¹
I	3.75E-01	5.00E-02	8.20E+00	9.17E-04	1.25E-03	8.18E+00
II	4.96E-01	5.00E-02	9.08E+00	1.00E-03	1.25E-03	7.55E+00
III	3.90E-01	5.00E-02	5.05E+00	1.25E-03	1.25E-03	-
IV	1.37E-02	-	8.70E-01	1.00E-03	2.50E-03	-
V	1.13E+00	2.35E-01	1.40E+01	2.38E-03	4.33E-03	-
VI	2.37E-03	-	0.71E+00	3.33E-04	1.67E-03	4.05E+00

Table 7 - Environmental Life Cycle Inventory - LCI (FU 1 ha)

Scenario	Agricultural Machinery	Agricultural Equipment	Diesel	Shed	Lubricant	Net
	kg ha ⁻¹	kg ha ⁻¹	l ha ⁻¹	m ² ha ⁻¹	kg ha ⁻¹	m ² ha ⁻¹
I	2.75	0.37	60.15	0.01	0.01	60.00
II	3.94	0.40	72.16	0.01	0.01	60.00
III	3.16	0.40	40.90	0.01	0.01	-
IV	0.53	-	33.39	0.04	0.10	-
V	2.40	0.50	29.78	0.01	0.01	-
VI	0.04	-	10.53	0.00	0.02	60.00

Table 8 - Environmental Life Cycle Inventory - LCI (FU 1 kg of harvested olives)

Scenario	Agricultural	Agricultural	Diesel	Shed	Lubricant	Net
	Machinery	Equipment				
	kg kg ⁻¹	kg kg ⁻¹				
I	1.38E-04	1.83E-05	3.00E-03	3.36E-07	4.58E-07	3.00E-03
II	1.97E-04	1.99E-05	3.62E-03	3.97E-07	4.97E-07	3.00E-03
III	3.16E-04	4.05E-05	4.09E-03	1.01E-06	1.01E-06	-
IV	1.59E-04	-	1.01E-02	1.16E-05	2.91E-05	-
V	6.00E-04	1.25E-04	7.44E-03	1.27E-06	2.30E-06	-
VI	6.75E-06	-	2.02E-03	9.51E-07	4.75E-06	1.15E-02

Table 9: Calculated work capacity and productivity

Scenario	Work capacity	Work productivity	Harvesting efficiency
	[kg h ⁻¹]	[kg h ⁻¹ worker ⁻¹]	%
I	2,726.52 ^d	454.42 ^b	87
II	2,516.81 ^d	503.36 ^{bc}	84
III	1,234.60 ^b	617.30 ^c	90
IV	85.99 ^a	42.99 ^a	63
V	1,880.60 ^c	626.86 ^c	94
VI	350.69 ^a	70.13 ^a	81

Data followed by different letters are significantly different according to Duncan's test ($P < 0.05$)

Table 10: Chemical characteristics of the analyzed oils

[illegible]

Table 11: Results of the sensory analysis on orchard V olive oil

Analysis description	value	rVC %	Limits
Defect median sensorial analysis	1.9	11.3	*md=0
Fruity median sensorial analysis	3.7	6.2	*mf>0
Bitter median sensorial analysis	2.9		* rVC % <20
Hot median sensorial analysis	4.1		

Table 12: Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) results at the midpoint level (FU 1 h of olive harvesting)

Impact Category	Unit	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Climate change	kg CO2 eq	3.36E+01	3.72E+01	2.36E+01	3.18E+00	5.32E+01	5.23E+00
Ozone depletion	kg CFC-11 eq	4.29E-06	4.86E-06	2.82E-06	4.54E-07	7.77E-06	3.99E-07
Terrestrial acidification	kg SO2 eq	2.81E-01	3.10E-01	1.91E-01	2.71E-02	4.38E-01	4.15E-02
Freshwater eutrophication	kg P eq	3.22E-03	3.61E-03	2.95E-03	1.79E-04	5.42E-03	7.25E-04
Marine eutrophication	kg N eq	1.58E-02	1.76E-02	1.03E-02	1.64E-03	2.67E-02	1.73E-03
Human toxicity	kg 1,4-DB eq	4.26E+00	4.79E+00	3.97E+00	2.41E-01	7.78E+00	7.95E-01
Photochemical oxidant formation	kg NMVOC	4.49E-01	5.04E-01	2.92E-01	4.68E-02	7.71E-01	4.72E-02
Particulate matter formation	kg PM10 eq	1.35E-01	1.51E-01	9.01E-02	1.36E-02	2.24E-01	1.68E-02
Terrestrial ecotoxicity	kg 1,4-DB eq	1.67E-03	1.68E-03	1.41E-03	6.18E-05	2.83E-03	1.28E-04
Freshwater ecotoxicity	kg 1,4-DB eq	9.25E-02	1.05E-01	8.47E-02	6.35E-03	1.72E-01	1.86E-02
Marine ecotoxicity	kg 1,4-DB eq	9.75E-02	1.12E-01	8.78E-02	6.96E-03	1.85E-01	1.81E-02
Ionizing radiation	kBq U235 eq	2.03E+00	2.35E+00	1.85E+00	1.28E-01	4.13E+00	3.35E-01
Agricultural land occupation	m2a	7.35E-01	7.88E-01	9.05E-01	5.70E-01	1.54E+00	2.71E-01
Urban land occupation	m2a	2.15E-01	2.33E-01	2.42E-01	1.40E-01	4.36E-01	6.75E-02
Natural land transformation	m2	1.03E-02	1.17E-02	6.86E-03	1.10E-03	1.85E-02	1.03E-03
Water depletion	m3	6.40E-02	7.20E-02	5.26E-02	7.13E-03	1.14E-01	1.17E-02
Metal depletion	kg Fe eq	1.42E+00	1.76E+00	1.42E+00	1.24E-01	4.05E+00	1.59E-01
Fossil fuel depletion	kg oil eq	1.10E+01	1.22E+01	7.75E+00	9.96E-01	1.77E+01	1.60E+00

Table 13: Summary of the performance assessment (FU 1 h of harvesting).

Scenario	Work capacity	Environmental impact	Total Hourly
	kg h ⁻¹	pt h ⁻¹	Cost € h ⁻¹
I	2,726.52	3.60	64.05
II	2,516.81	4.00	59.50
III	1,234.60	2.55	26.87
IV	85.99	0.36	20.43
V	1,880.60	5.89	72.05
VI	350.69	0.53	39.84

Figure 1: A self-propelled trunk shaker used in the harvesting o
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Figure 2: The towed radio-controlled shaker used in scenario III
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Figure 3: The Olivspeed used in scenario IV
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Figure 4: Olive harvesting from the ground in scenario V
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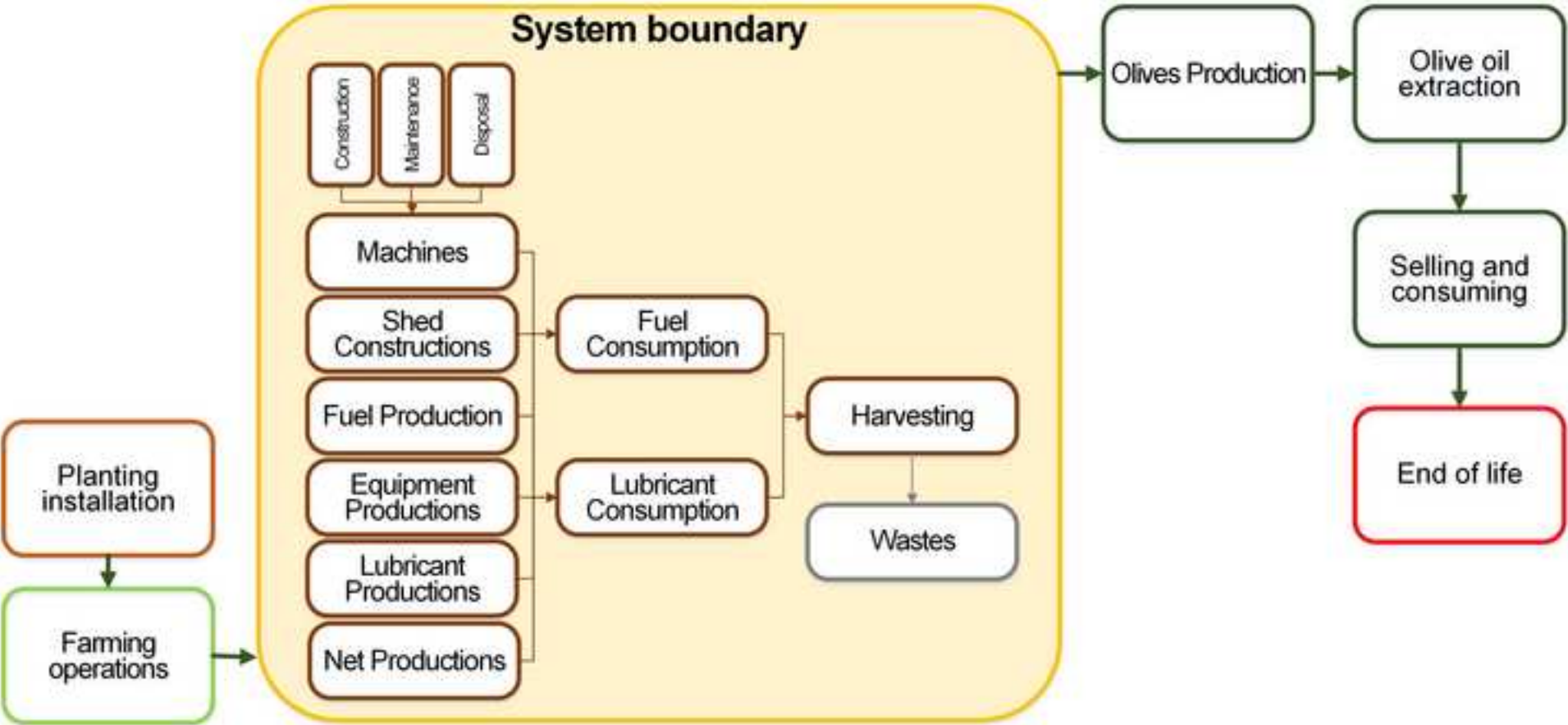
Figure 4: Olive harvesting from the ground in scenario V
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Figure 5: Small hand-held shaker used in scenario VI
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Figure 6: System boundary flow chart.
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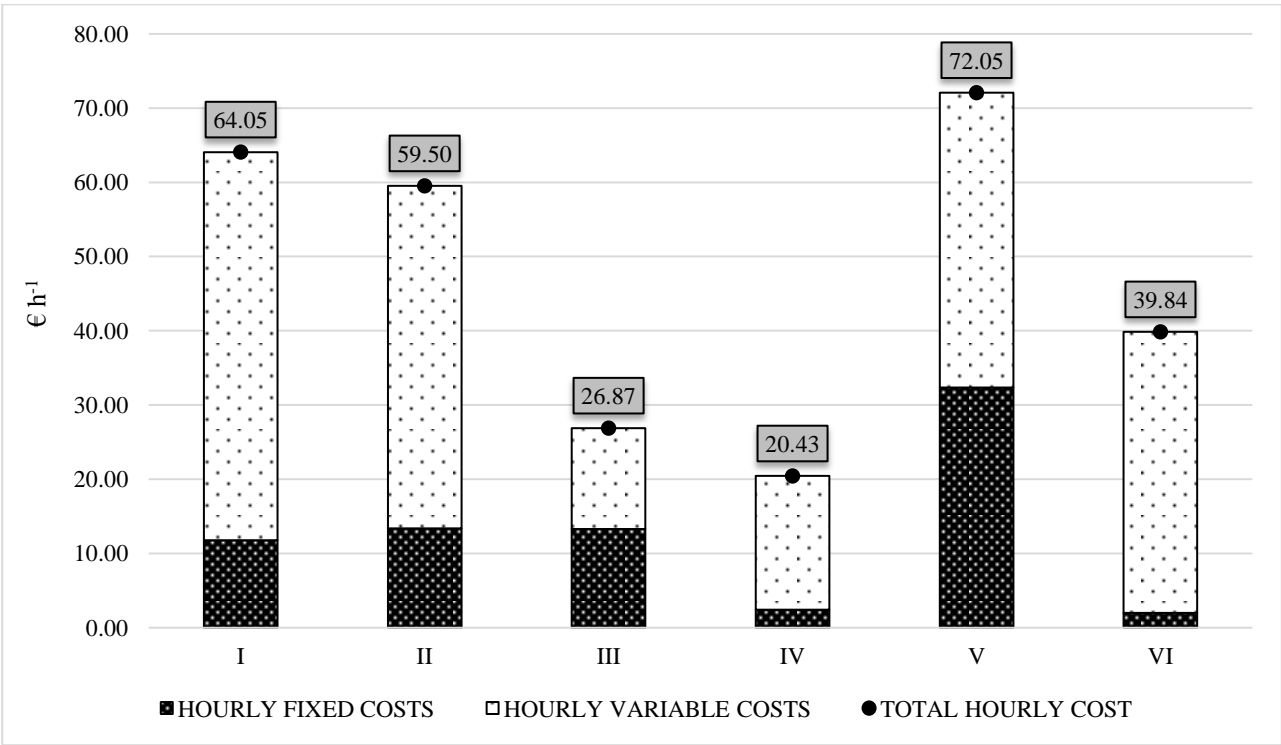


Figure 7: Harvesting hourly cost

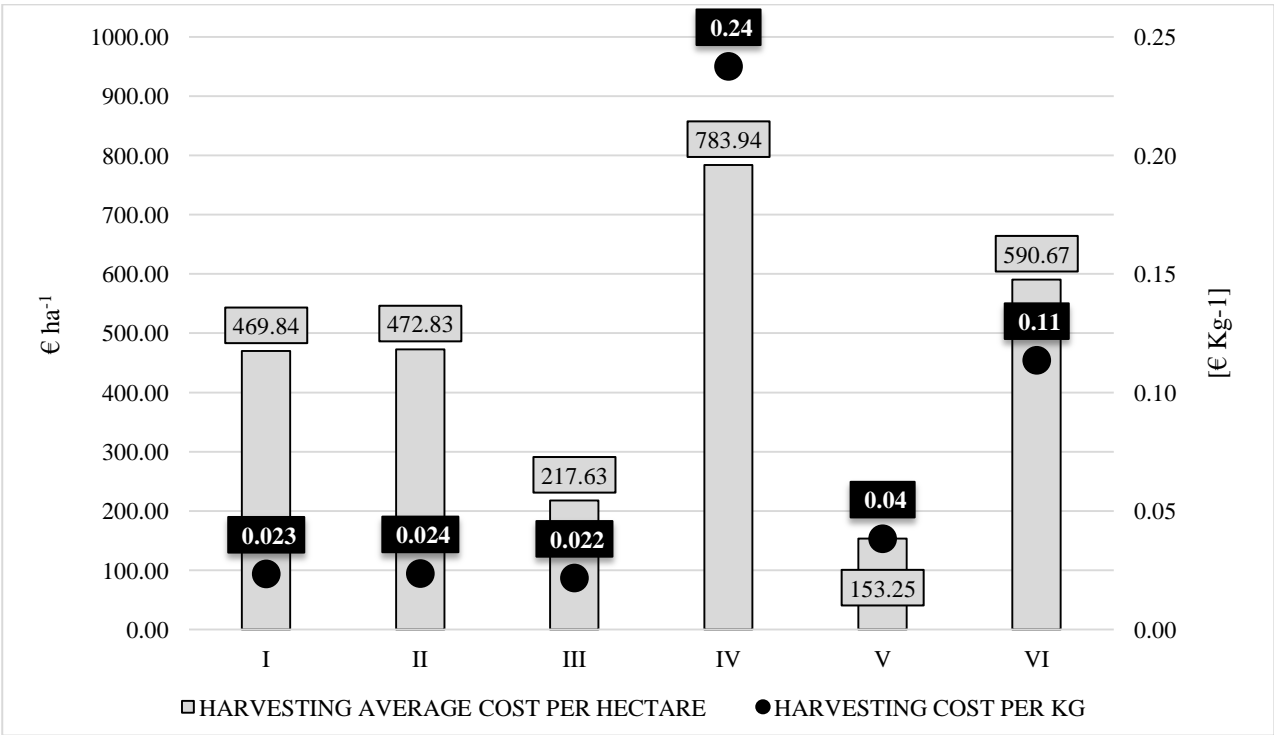


Figure 8: Unit cost per kg of harvested olives and the average cost per hectare

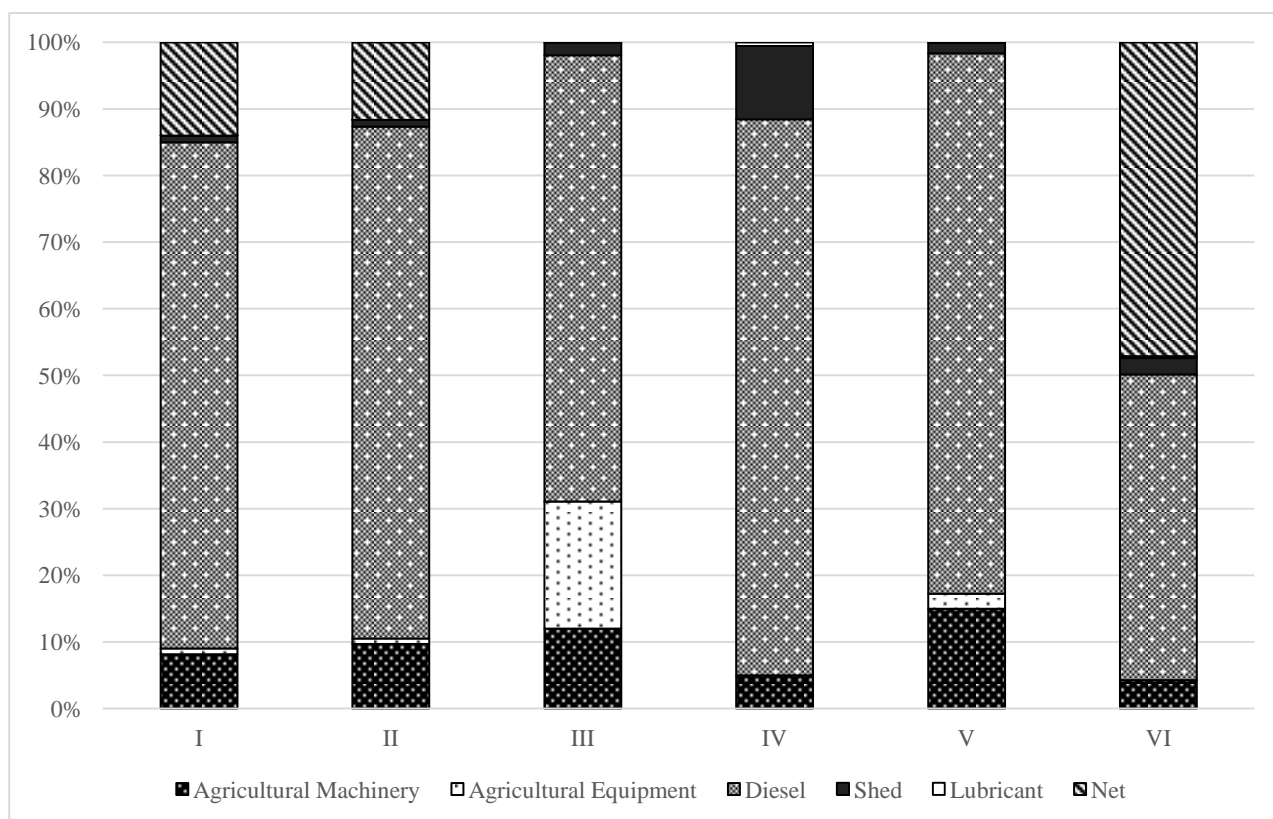


Figure 9: Incidence of environmental impacts per LCI category at the endpoint level (FU 1 h of olive harvesting)

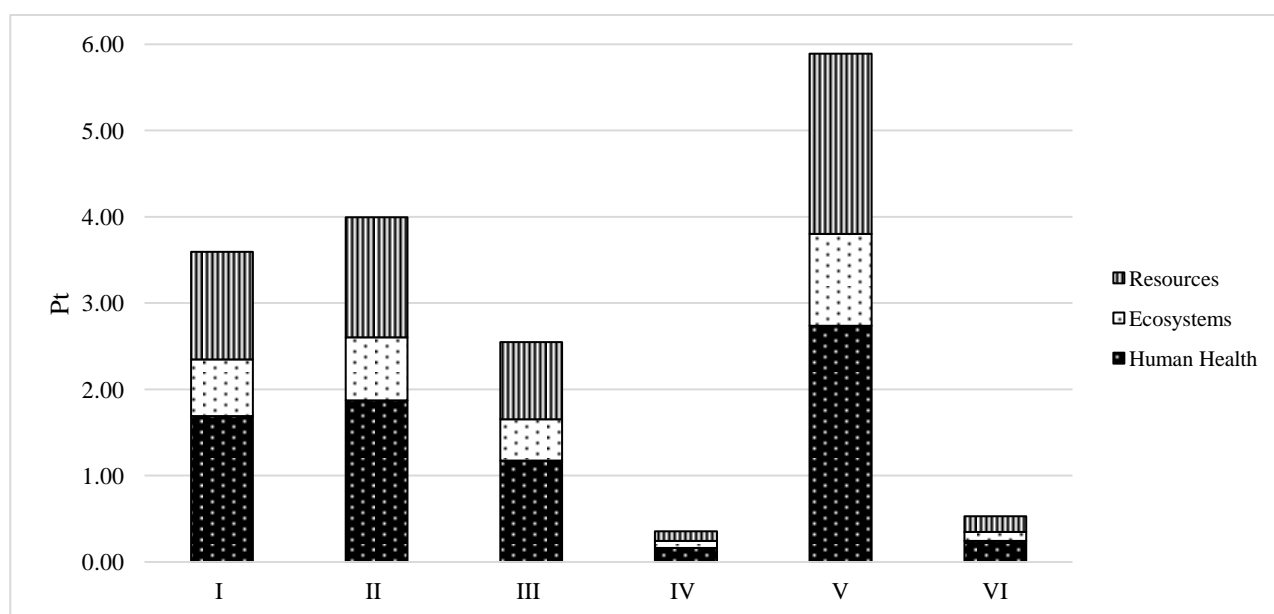


Figure 10: Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) results at the endpoint level (FU 1 h of olive harvesting)

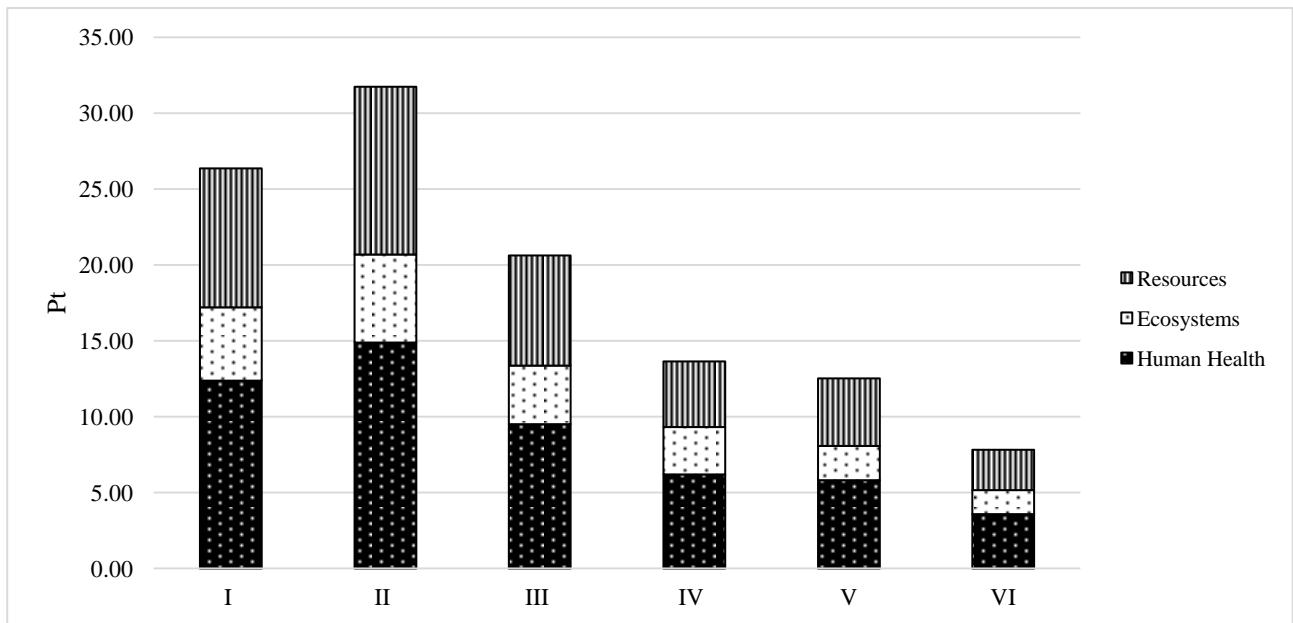


Figure 11: Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) results at the endpoint level (FU 1 ha)

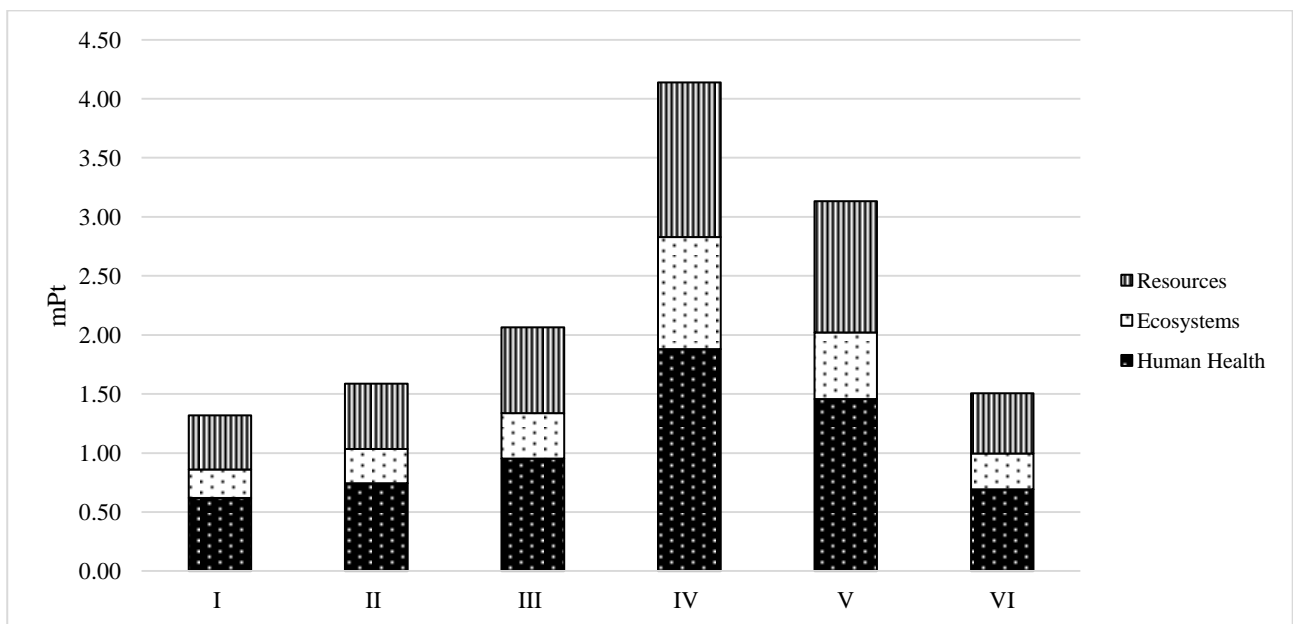


Figure 12: Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) results at the endpoint level (FU 1 kg of harvested olives)

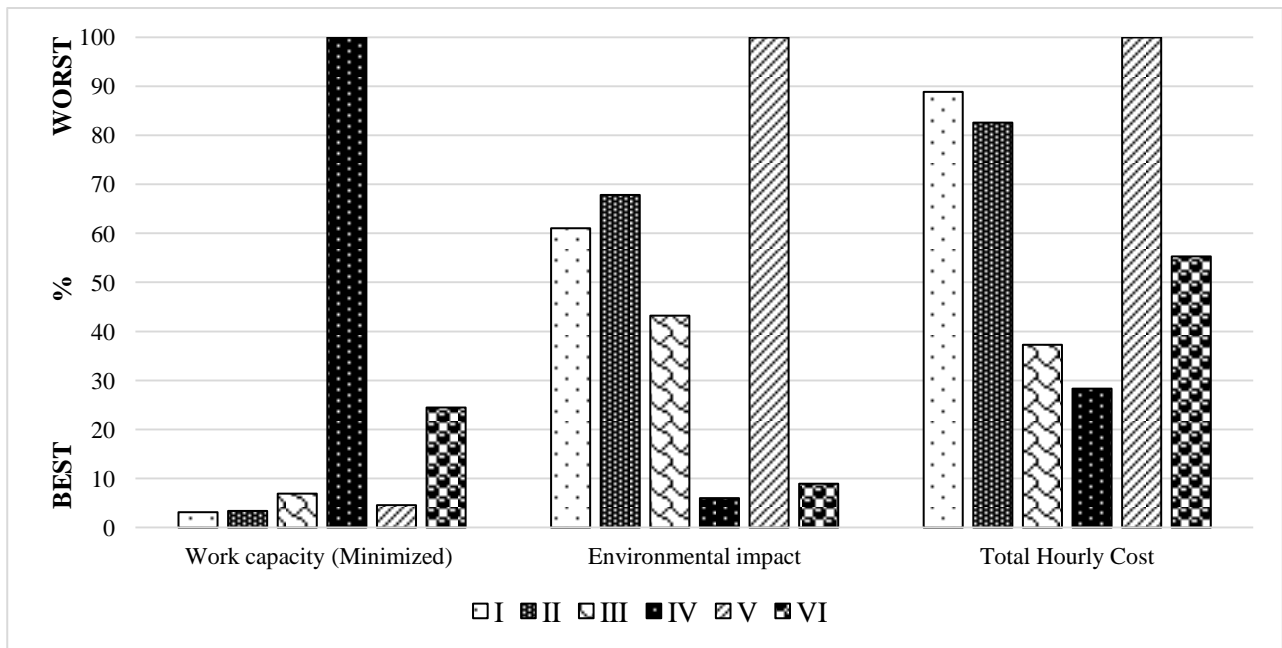


Figure 13: Overall performance assessment (FU 1 h of harvesting)