

1 Monitoring wine fermentation deviations using an ATR-
2 MIR spectrometer and MSPC charts

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16

1. Introduction

17 The main biochemical change during wine alcoholic fermentation is the transformation of sugars from
18 grape must into ethanol by the action of yeasts. In order to obtain high quality wines a close monitoring
19 of this process is of utmost importance [1]. In the wine cellar, simple measurements such as density, pH
20 and temperature are the main quality control parameters, which are usually measured once or twice a day
21 to ensure a correct progression of the process and to avoid stuck and sluggish fermentations or
22 contamination-related processes, which may lead to low quality wines [2]. If unexpected deviations
23 occur, more exhaustive off-line laboratory analyses are needed, which involve delayed results that may
24 not allow readjusting the process when it could still be solvable. Process Analytical Technologies (PAT)
25 are based on the idea that quality of a product should be evaluated throughout the manufacturing process,
26 by performing real-time measurements during processing instead of carrying out quality control
27 measurements in the final product. PAT methodologies ensure that if a product operates under Normal
28 Operation Conditions (NOC) it will probably meet the final quality requirements at the end of the
29 process. PAT guidelines are founded on process understanding together with the fact that modern process
30 analyzers can provide non-destructive measurements containing information related to biological,
31 physical, and chemical attributes of the materials being processed [3]. Despite being developed for the
32 pharmaceutical manufacturing, PAT have been gaining ground in the food and beverages industries [4].
33 In particular, when dealing with wine alcoholic fermentation monitoring and process control, the
34 implementation of fast analytical tools, such as vibrational spectroscopy, has gained popularity over the
35 last decades. Vibrational spectroscopy falls into the PAT guidelines as it allows getting real-time
36 information of the process and taking corrective measures, if necessary, before obtaining the final product
37 [5]. Among the different vibrational spectroscopy options, attenuated total reflectance mid-infrared
38 spectroscopy (ATR-MIR) is a very valuable PAT tool for food and beverages analysis, as it is a fast and
39 easy-to-use technique, which requires little or no sample pre-treatment [6].

40 To obtain the useful process information, the use of vibrational spectroscopy involves the acquisition of
41 multivariate data and so it implies the application of multivariate statistical process control (MSPC)
42 techniques. Among the different MSPC charts, the ones based on Principal Components Analysis (PCA)
43 to monitor fed-batch processes are simple to represent and easy to interpret [7]. However, fed-batch
44 processes naturally present several features, which make the modelling of NOC (Normal Operation
45 Conditions) batches a difficult task (e.g. time-varying dynamics and uneven batch length), and different

46 approaches can be adopted depending on the type of process followed and the type of faults sought [8]. In
47 batch processing, data can be represented as a three-way matrix of dimensions $I \times J \times K$ (where I is the
48 number of samples, J refer to number of variables and K is the number of time points of each batch). A
49 decomposition into a two-way matrix of dimensions $IJ \times K$ or $I \times JK$ can be applied to build multivariate
50 PCA models. The basis of MSPC is very similar to the traditional univariate SPC methods, where the
51 confidence limits are built based on data obtained only from NOC batches. To study the evolution of new
52 batches, the statistical information from the PCA model is used. Particularly, Q residuals and Hotelling's
53 T^2 values (calculated under normal distribution assumptions) are the most used statistical measures to
54 detect irregular batches. Q residuals represent the squared perpendicular distance of a sample at a specific
55 time point from the reduced space defined by the PCA model. They become greater when a batch
56 deviates over time from NOC batches. Then, the irregular batch, when projected, lies outside the model,
57 perpendicular to the NOC PCA space. In turn, Hotelling's T^2 values provide information of how far a
58 batch is from the centre of the NOC reduced space. In this case, an abnormal batch would be positioned
59 further away from the centre of the model as the deviation becomes more evident [9].

60 The combination of vibrational spectroscopy and MSPC tools to detect deviations during fed-batch
61 processes in the food and beverages industries has already been considered, confirming the growing
62 interest to integrate fast analytical tools and MSPC techniques into the process control line. Using FT-
63 NIR, disturbances during the coffee roasting process were detected outside the limits of both T^2 and Q
64 residual charts before the end of the process [10]. Similarly, faulty batches during the renneting process of
65 milk were detected in the Q residuals chart [11]. Also, Q charts were used to detect off-specification
66 coffee beans during storage in different packaging conditions using Raman spectroscopy [12]. However,
67 information is very limited on the use of spectroscopic data and MSPC charts for on-line monitoring of
68 fermentation processes in the agro-food sector to provide early indications of process deviations [13,14].

69 It has already been shown that ATR-MIR is suitable for real-time bioprocess monitoring [15] and
70 particularly for monitoring industrial alcoholic fermentation processes [16,17]. In the winemaking
71 industry, alcoholic fermentation monitoring using ATR-MIR has been widely studied and a review on the
72 usefulness of this technique for process control can be found elsewhere [18]. Furthermore, it has been
73 reported that ATR-MIR can detect deviations from NOC, including sluggish fermentations and
74 microbiological spoilage [19,20], suggesting that this tool could be used for process control. The

75 implementation of real-time monitoring in the cellar, together with MSPC charts, could be more efficient
76 than performing off-line laboratory analyses, which provide delayed results and may not allow taking
77 corrective measures when a deviation could still be solvable. Yet, the potential of MSPC charts in this
78 field has not yet been fully investigated [21].

79 The aim of this study was to develop MSPC control charts as a tool for spoilage detection in the wine
80 alcoholic fermentation process. This spoilage was promoted by inducing an additional malolactic
81 fermentation (MLF) in some wine fermentations to evaluate the capability of the MSPC charts to detect
82 this deviation from the normal process.

83

84 **2. Materials and methods**

85 2.1 Samples

86 The grape must employed to perform the small-scale fermentations (microvinifications) was obtained by
87 the adequate dilution of a concentrated white grape must from Mostos Españoles S.A. (Ciudad Real,
88 Spain). The diluted sugar (glucose and fructose) concentrations were $200 \pm 10 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, in order to
89 reproduce natural variability in samples. In addition, yeast assimilable nitrogen was adjusted by
90 supplementation with 0.30 g L^{-1} of ENOVIT® (SPINDAL S.A.R.L Gretz Armainvilliers, France) and
91 0.30 g L^{-1} of Actimaxbio* (Agrovin, Ciudad Real, Spain).

92 Microvinifications were conducted in 500 mL conical flasks by adding 350 mL of diluted must. Each
93 flask was inoculated with the commercial dry yeast strain *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* “E491” (Vitilevure
94 Albaflor, YSEO, Danstar Ferment A.G., Denmark), to reach a final concentration of $3 \cdot 10^6 \text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$. In
95 total, 25 NOC microvinifications were carried out in 4 different experiments throughout the year. To
96 emulate the variability due to a real grape ripening process, each one of the four microvinification
97 experiments used a must with a slightly different sugar concentration. Simultaneously to the NOC
98 experiments, 8 additional microvinifications were intentionally contaminated with a freeze-dried blend of
99 Lactic Acid Bacteria (*Lactobacillus plantarum* and *Oenococcus oeni*) in two different concentrations, $4 \times$
100 $2.5 \cdot 10^6$ and $4 \times 4 \cdot 10^6 \text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$, to promote malolactic fermentation at different time points of the
101 alcoholic fermentation. Samples were coded as MLF1 and MLF2, respectively. Rehydration of the
102 microorganisms before co-inoculation was done following the suppliers' indications.

103 All the microvinifications were kept under constant temperature of 18 °C until the end of the
104 fermentations. Both alcoholic and malolactic fermentations were controlled by routine analysis twice a
105 day until the end of both fermentations in order to ensure the normal progress of both processes (we
106 considered that alcoholic fermentation ended when density was under 0.995 g L⁻¹ and malolactic
107 fermentation ended when L-malic acid concentration was under 0.06 g L⁻¹). Alcoholic fermentations were
108 controlled with density measurements with a portable densimeter (Densito2Go, Mettler Toledo, United
109 States). Regarding to the malolactic fermentations, these were controlled by determining the L-malic acid
110 concentration using a Y15 Analyser (Biosystems, Barcelona, Spain). pH was also continuously measured
111 in both fermentations using a portable pH-meter with a 201 T portable electrode (7+ series portable pH-
112 meter, XS Instruments, Italy). All the analyses were performed right after sample collection.

113 2.2 ATR-MIR analysis

114 After homogenization, 1,5 mL were collected at least once a day and centrifuged at 10000 rpm for 10
115 minutes, to avoid the scattering effect produced by the microorganisms present in the sample. The pellet
116 was discarded, and the supernatant was kept in 1.5 mL eppendorfs for further analysis. Infrared
117 measurements were performed with a portable 4100 ExoScan FTIR instrument (Agilent, California,
118 USA), equipped with an interchangeable spherical ATR sampling interface, consisting on a diamond
119 crystal window. Spectra were collected using our previously optimized methodology [14] over the range
120 4000 to 650 cm⁻¹ (resolution 8 cm⁻¹; 32 scans; triplicate per sample; air-background before sample). A
121 drop of the sample was placed on top of the crystal and the spectrum was recorded immediately
122 afterwards. Spectra were obtained using Microlab PC software (Agilent, California, USA) and data was
123 saved as *.spc* files. The mean of the triplicates was used in subsequent data analysis.

124 2.3 Multivariate statistical process control

125 The spectral region selected to proceed with the study was from 1309 to 1082 cm⁻¹, which according to
126 our previous studies is the region related to the malolactic fermentation [20]. The collected data consisted
127 of a three-way matrix containing the absorbance values at different wavenumbers (J=62), for NOC and
128 MLF samples (I=33) and at different sampling times (K) depending on the batch. Sampling times ranged
129 from 0 to 210 hours, when the completion of both alcoholic and malolactic fermentations was achieved.
130 Then, a time-wise unfolding of the three-way array was performed, resulting in a matrix with dimension

131 IKxJ. After that, different pre-processing strategies were tested and optimized, including first and second
132 derivatives, Savitzky-Golay smoothing and Standard Normal Variate (SNV). After spectral pre-
133 processing, data were mean-centered.

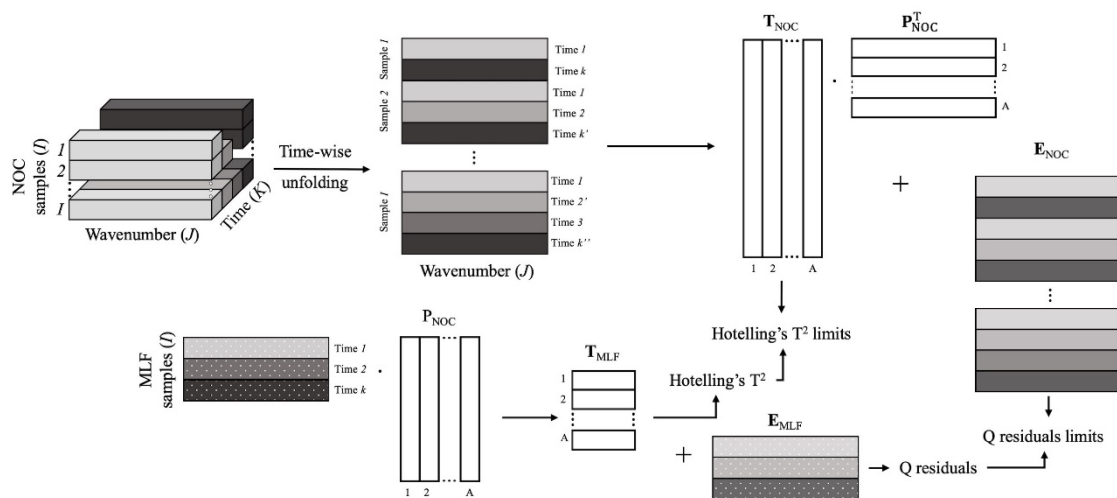
134 First, a preliminary PCA model was built using only the data from the first experiment, in order to
135 qualitatively visualize the main changes in the spectra and to detect trends in sample types (NOC and
136 MLF). This model allowed to explore the variability of batches from the same experiment and the
137 variability associated to the malolactic fermentation.

138 Next, three different strategies were applied with the unfolded, two-dimensional (IKxJ) matrix. In the first
139 one, only NOC batches from a sole experiment were used to build a NOC PCA model (matrix of 340
140 rows – samples x time, and 62 columns - wavelengths). In the second strategy, NOC batches from the
141 other experiments were added to build a new NOC PCA model including the variability among
142 experiments. Thus, the 10 NOC samples from the previous model were used, but the matrix was
143 augmented using 15 more NOC samples from the others three different experiments. The final NOC
144 matrix consisted of 771 rows (NOC samples coming from the 4 experiments x time) and 62 columns
145 (wavelengths). In both approaches, samples from all the sampling times were used. Finally, in the third
146 strategy, eight-hour models (interval PCA models) were developed using all the NOC data. A scheme of
147 the procedure followed for all models is shown in Figure 1.

148 In the three strategies, MLF samples (272 rows – samples x time, x 62 columns - wavelengths) were
149 projected in the different NOC PCA models by calculating their scores in the NOC reduced space and
150 using the loadings obtained from each model. The capability of the PCA models to detect a deviation
151 during the process using the defined reduced space and the statistical performance of the MLF samples
152 were evaluated. All models were validated by applying the Kennard-Stone algorithm [22] using half of
153 the NOC samples in the calibration set to ensure that the whole NOC variability is represented.

154 For each one of three models, T^2 and Q control charts were built. A 95% Hotelling's T^2 confidence limit
155 was calculated using the NOC calibration samples, and then NOC samples from the validation set and all
156 MLF samples were plotted in the Hotelling's T^2 control charts, representing T^2 values vs time. Similarly,
157 a 95% confidence limit was calculated for the Q residuals using the NOC calibration samples, and then

158 NOC samples from the validation set and MLF samples were projected in the Q control charts,
 159 representing in this case Q values vs time.



160

161 **Figure 1.** Scheme of the procedure applied to build the IKxJ PCA models for NOC samples and the
 162 projection of MLF samples.

163

164 All multivariate data analyses were performed using the PLS Toolbox v8.7 (Eigenvector Research Inc.,
 165 Earglerock, USA) with MATLAB R2015b (The MathWorks, Natick, USA).

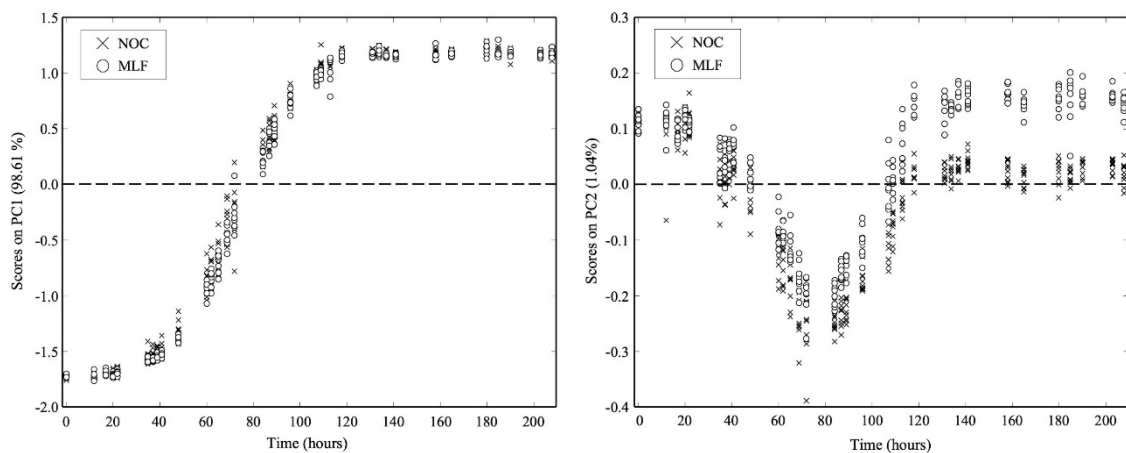
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167 3. Results and discussion

168 3.1. Evolution of alcoholic and malolactic fermentations

169 As previously reported [23,24], the regions that show the greatest variability during alcoholic
 170 fermentation in the mid-infrared region are between 950 and 1500 cm^{-1} , due to sugars, acids, proteins and
 171 ethanol bonds absorption. In this region, the greatest variability associated to the biochemical
 172 transformation of sugars into ethanol and carbon dioxide is observed between 950 and 1100 cm^{-1} .
 173 However, when using the region from 950 to 1500 cm^{-1} , it was not possible to distinguish between NOC
 174 and MLF because spectral changes due to malolactic fermentation in this region were hidden by spectral
 175 changes corresponding to the main process (alcoholic fermentation) (data not shown). For this reason, to
 176 focus on the malolactic fermentation process, we used the region between 1309 to 1082 cm^{-1} , which
 177 maximised the differences between alcoholic and malolactic fermentations.

178 The optimized pre-processing used was first derivative (1st order polynomial) with Savitzky-Golay
 179 smoothing through 15 points, SNV and mean-center. A preliminary PCA model was built only using
 180 samples from a single experiment (consisting on 10 NOC and 8 MLF batches), attempting to screen
 181 different behaviours between NOC and MLF samples. The number of principal components used for this
 182 purpose was optimized to 2 PCs, to well-define alcoholic fermentation and avoid overfitted models. As it
 183 can be observed in Figure 2, the first principal component (98.61% explained variance) follows the trend
 184 of alcoholic fermentation kinetics, as shown in our previous work [20]. From the second principal
 185 component (accounting for only a 1.04% of the total variability), a difference can be observed between
 186 NOC and MLF samples from hours 60-80 until the end of the process. It must be taken into account that
 187 the greatest variability in the spectra is due to the alcoholic fermentation, as it involves the transformation
 188 of sugars into ethanol from an initial concentration of 200 g L⁻¹. On the other hand, at the beginning of
 189 malolactic fermentation, malic acid concentration is only around 2 g L⁻¹ and the variability in the signal is
 190 much lower. Moreover, even though the second bioprocess does not interfere in the first bioprocess,
 191 sugars' and acids' bonds absorb in the same regions of the spectra, which makes it hard to detect MLF
 192 deviations. Figure 2 shows that differences between NOC and MLF start to be noticeable 80 hours after
 193 the beginning of the process, and a separation trend can be appreciated between 40 and 80 hours.



194
 195 **Figure 2.** Scores for PC1 (left) and PC2 (right) for a single batch fermentation.
 196

197 3.2 MSPC charts for monitoring fermentations

198 3.2.1 Single experiment strategy

199 The MSPC charts used in this strategy are based on the Q and T² statistics. NOC samples used to build
 200 the PCA in section 3.1 were also used to build a single experiment NOC PCA model (matrix 340x62).

201 The scores of this model were used to calculate the T² 95% confidence limit, and the residual matrix of

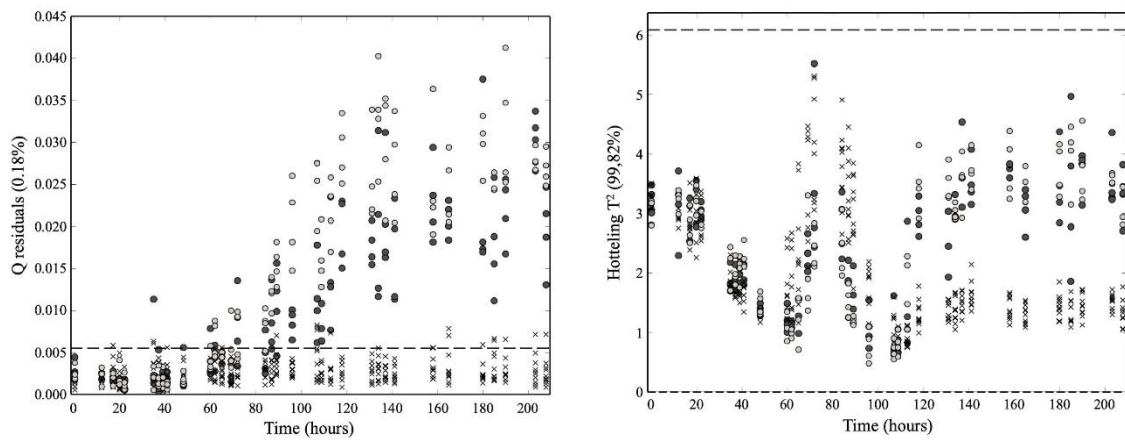
202 this model was used to calculate the Q-residuals 95% confidence limit. Q and T² vs time control charts
203 are shown in Figure 3 for the 10 NOC and the 8 MLF batches (4 MLF1 and 4 MLF2). In both charts,
204 NOC samples lie below the 95% confidence limit during the main course of the alcoholic fermentations.
205 In contrast, MLF samples in the Q control chart show a significant difference from NOC samples from 80
206 hours onwards, as it was already observed in the PCA scores plot (Figure 2, section 3.1). On the other
207 hand, all MLF samples lie below the confidence limits in the T² chart. Nevertheless, MLF samples exhibit
208 a trend of higher T² values with respect to NOC samples from hour 110. These higher values could be
209 explained because malolactic fermentation at this time is almost finished, and the distance to the centre of
210 the model increases but not significantly, from a statistical point of view.

211 The fact that MLF samples are distinguishable from NOC samples in the Q chart but not in the T² chart is
212 a reasonable result because the enormous variability in the spectra due to alcoholic fermentation
213 (especially between hours 70 and 90 when tumultuous fermentation takes place (in figure 2, from hour 40
214 to 120, when sugar consumption is at its fastest rate) hampers the possibility to establish a confidence
215 limit to differentiate the samples. It is important to remark that, despite the fact that a different trend
216 between MLF and NOC samples can be seen after >100h, all samples fall under the confidence limit
217 because of the mentioned variability among samples between hours 70 and 90h. Furthermore, malolactic
218 fermentation evolution in the spectrum is jumbled with alcoholic fermentation, explaining the difficulty in
219 finding the differentiation.

220 This methodology was validated by applying the Kennard-Stone algorithm. NOC samples were split
221 using 50% of them to build the model (calibration set) and the remaining 50% for validation. Q values
222 from the validation NOC samples were under the new Q residual confidence limit. Similarly, MLF
223 samples showed a similar behaviour as in the model built with all NOC samples.

224 This time-wise unfolding approach is proposed as an alternative to *IxJK* batch-wise unfolding [8], where
225 the exact same number of sampling times is required in order to project new suspected samples. We
226 previously reported the use of a time-wise approach to detect sluggish alcoholic fermentations [14]. Here,
227 any spectrum from a MLF batch can be projected onto model, and the model is able to determine if the
228 sample is under or above the confidence limit, with no need to neither follow its complete alcoholic
229 fermentation, nor to have the same exact amount of sampling points during the process. To confirm this
230 idea, MLF samples from a single time point (hour 119), which were above the Q confidence limit, were

231 projected solely and, as samples are independent of the time, they were placed above the Q confident
232 limit.

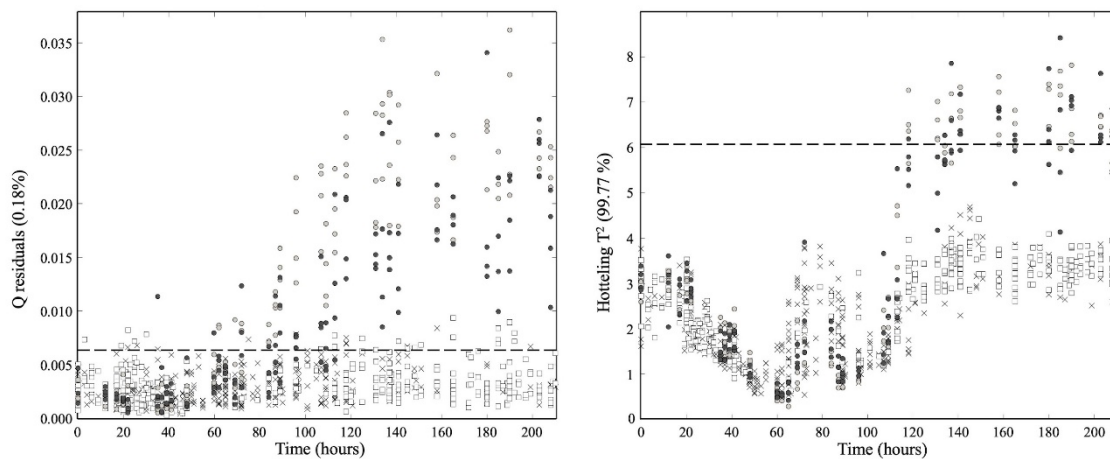


233
234 **Figure 3.** Q and T2 charts for a single experiment. Symbols: (x) NOC, (●) MLF1 (○) MLF2.

235

236 3.2.2 Multiple experiment strategy

237 To confirm the hypothesis that it is not necessary to have the same sampling times and number of
238 sampling points, three different experiments consisting of 15 additional NOC batches were added to the
239 model. In every experiment, sampling was performed at similar, but not exactly, the same time points.
240 This methodology perfectly agrees with the typical control timing in a winery, where the fermentation
241 control is performed usually once or twice a day and not in each fermentation tank at the same time. In
242 this case, as different NOC batches with different initial sugar concentrations (which implies different
243 sugar consumption rates) were used (matrix dimensions of 771x62), the model was validated following
244 the same procedure as in the single experiment model, assuring that NOC samples from all the
245 experiments were included in both sets. As it can be observed in Figure 4, NOC validation samples are
246 generally under the 95% confidence limit in both Q and T control charts, assuring the validation of the
247 model. In this model the trend observed in the Q control chart for the MLF samples is similar as in the
248 previous PCA model when using a single experiment (section 3.2), with a separation from hour 80
249 onwards. For the T² control chart, despite exhibiting the same trend observed in the model from section
250 3.2, MLF samples are now statistically different from hour 120 until the end of the process. This may be
251 explained because as more NOC samples are included in the NOC model, alcoholic fermentation
252 variability is better described, and the model is able to detect the differences among NOC samples and
253 MLF, which can now be statistically differentiated after hour 120.



255

256 **Figure 4.** Q and T² charts for all the experiments. (x) Calibration NOC samples, (□) validation NOC samples,

257 ● MLF1 (○ MLF2.

258

259 As in the single experiment model, samples are independent of the sampling time and the full trajectory
 260 of the batch is not needed. Any single MLF spectrum can be projected into the model and this will be able
 261 to determine if the sample is statistically different in both Q and T² control charts. In other words, MLF
 262 samples will appear in the same position in the Q and T² charts as it happened when all the MLF samples
 263 were projected, regardless of the sampling times available.

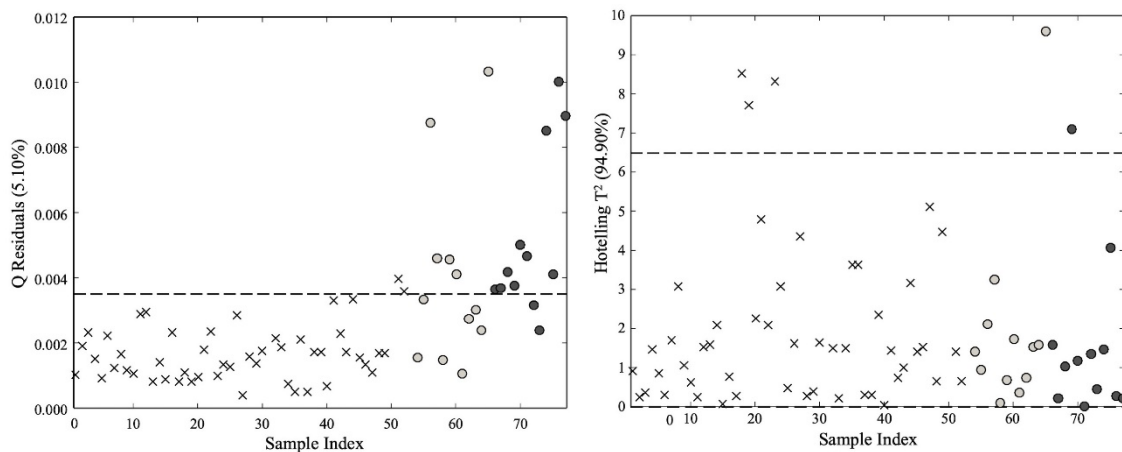
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3.2.3 Interval models' strategy

265 As it could be inferred from the T² control chart in Figure 4, during tumultuous fermentation (in figure 2,
 266 from hour 40 to 120), higher T² values are observed. It would then be useful to build specific models for
 267 certain time intervals, as more accurate confidence limits could be established, especially for Hotelling's
 268 T². An 8-hour time interval was defined, because this period of time would be sufficient to take corrective
 269 measures in a winery and also, the changes in the matrix during this period would not affect the final
 270 product quality.

271 In this approach, all NOC and MLF matrix (771x61) was divided into 8-hour time-intervals, and PCA
 272 models were built for each interval until the separation of MLF samples. Matrixes of different sizes were
 273 used depending on the number of samples available at each time-interval. With the T² control charts, no
 274 statistical separation was achieved, showing that T² statistics does not represent a useful way to detect
 275 deviations. The model built with the time interval between 65 and 72 hours (Figure 5) shows a MLF

276 separation trend. This time interval model could be useful as an alert indicator before all MLF batches are
 277 completely separated, to foresee a spoilage at early stages of the malolactic fermentation. In this case, the
 278 Q values of MLF1 samples are slightly smaller than the ones of MLF2, as MLF2 samples have a higher
 279 concentration of LAB (higher L-malic acid consumption rate). The complete statistical separation in the
 280 Q chart was obtained in the model between 81 and 88 hours. Models were also built for subsequent time
 281 intervals, in order to assure that the separation is consistent until the end of the malolactic fermentation.
 282 Our results show that a malolactic fermentation detection threshold can be established as an indicator that
 283 a deviation is arising at the 65-72h interval, when 40-50% of this bioprocess has taken place. At this
 284 point, additional measures should be taken to readjust the principal process (alcoholic fermentation) and
 285 to avoid having a worse situation which could lead to wines with organoleptic defects or even worse, the
 286 loss of a whole vintage.



287
 288 **Figure 5.** Time interval 65-72 hours. (X) NOC samples, (O) MLF1, (●) MLF2.

289

290 **4. Conclusions**

291 In the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that Q residuals and Hotelling's T^2 control charts are
 292 used for the detection of an unwanted malolactic fermentation during alcoholic fermentation in wine
 293 based on ATR-MIR spectroscopic data. It was demonstrated that a specific signal pretreatment (e.g. batch
 294 alignment) is not required since typical year-to-year variability is considered in the global model. Also,
 295 using specific interval models improves the performance of the statistical detection of malolactic
 296 fermentation in the Q residual control chart. In conclusion, the different approaches here presented have

297 the potential to be used in the oenological field, as an early detection of fermentation problems based on
298 MSPC charts,

299

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