

1 **Emerging approach for analytical characterization and geographical**  
2 **classification of Moroccan and French honeys by means of a voltammetric**  
3 **electronic tongue**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Moroccan and French honeys from different geographical areas were classified and  
20 characterized by applying a voltammetric electronic tongue (VE-tongue) coupled to analytical  
21 methods. The studied parameters include color intensity, free lactic and total acidity,  
22 proteins, phenols, hydroxymethylfurfural content (HMF), sucrose, reducing and total sugars.  
23 The geographical classification of different honeys was developed through three-pattern  
24 recognition techniques: principal component analysis (PCA), support vector machines  
25 (SVMs) and hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA). Honey characterization was achieved by  
26 partial least squares modeling (PLS). All the PLS models developed were able to accurately  
27 estimate the correct values of the parameters analyzed using as input the voltammetric  
28 experimental data (i.e.  $r > 0.9$ ). This confirms the potential ability of the VE-tongue for  
29 performing a rapid characterization of honeys via PLS in which an uncomplicated, cost-  
30 effective sample preparation process that does not require the use of additional chemicals is  
31 implemented.

32 **Keywords**

33 Analytical methods, Voltammetric electronic tongue, Chemometrics, PLS models,  
34 Classification, Food control.

## 35           **1. Introduction**

36           Honey is a natural and pure substance, produced by *Apis mellifera* bees from the  
37 nectar of plants, which the bees collect, transform and leave in honeycombs to ripen and  
38 mature (Codex Alimentarius commission, 2001). In the long human tradition, honey has been  
39 used not only as a nutrient but also as a therapeutic product, depending on the presence of  
40 various antioxidant components, like polyphenols, amino and organic acids, enzymes and  
41 proteins (Oryan, Alemzadeh, & Moshiri, 2016). This composition is highly dependent on the  
42 floral source, the geographical region of production and with external factors, such as  
43 environmental conditions, processing and storage methods (Alzahrani et al., 2012); therefore,  
44 the geographical origin play an important role in quality control, which requires monitoring.

45           In some traditional approaches, the geographical origin of honey was discriminated  
46 based on microscopic examination of its pollen (melissopalynology analysis), as pollen in  
47 honey reflects the vegetation type where the nectar has been collected by the bees (Corvucci,  
48 Nobili, Melucci, & Grillenzoni, 2015). However, in the case of the geographical proximity of  
49 the samples, discrimination becomes more difficult (Bogdanov & Martin, 2002a); hence the  
50 use of alternative analytical studies for the same purpose.

51           Several analytical methods were found in literature for the geographical discrimination  
52 of honeys, such as mid-infrared spectroscopy (Ruoff et al., 2006), near-infrared spectroscopy  
53 (Woodcock, Downey, Kelly, & O'Donnell, 2007), FT-Raman spectroscopy (Corvucci, Nobili,  
54 Melucci, & Grillenzoni, 2015), gas chromatography-mass spectroscopy (Karabagias, Badeka,  
55 Kontakos, Karabournioti, & Kontominas, 2014), nuclear magnetic resonance (Zheng, Zhao,  
56 Wu, Dong, & Feng, 2016), isotope ratio mass spectrometry (Dinca, Ionete, Popescu, Costinel,  
57 & Radu, 2015), ultra-performance liquid chromatography (Jandrić, Frew, Fernandez-Cedi, &  
58 Cannavan, 2015) and fluorescence spectroscopy (Lenhardt, Bro, Zeković, Dramićanin, &  
59 Dramićanin, 2015). Recently, various studies have dealt the physical properties and chemical

60 composition of honey from different countries (de Sousa et al., 2016; Roshan et al., 2016;  
61 Soleyman et al., 2016; Mignani et al., 2016).

62 Generally, all these methods give good discrimination capabilities, accuracy and  
63 reliability, but they are bulky, expensive and time-consuming for sample preparation and  
64 measurement processes, making them inappropriate for in situ monitoring. In order to  
65 overcome these drawbacks, alternative simpler methodologies have been introduced; one of  
66 the most important in this field is the electronic tongue as an effective and practical tool in  
67 food quality control. Unlike in standard analytical methods, the initial electronic tongues  
68 qualitatively analyzed and classified fingerprints of the food products, without quantifying  
69 their compounds. However, more recently the application of such devices in the rapid,  
70 quantitative determination of food constituents is receiving increasing attention (Peres et al.,  
71 2011; Nuñez, Cetó, Pividori, Zanoni, & Del Valle, 2013; Tahri et al., 2015; De Sá, Cipri,  
72 González-Calabuig, Stradiotto, & del Valle, 2016). Several sensing approaches can be used in  
73 electronic tongues, including electrochemical methods (e.g., potentiometry or voltammetry),  
74 optical methods, mass change-sensing techniques based on some principles like quartz crystal  
75 microbalances and surface acoustic wave devices (Ha et al., 2015). Voltammetry is often  
76 preferred as this technique offers various advantages such as versatility, good sensitivity,  
77 simplicity, robustness and good signal to noise ratio (Winqvist, 2008).

78 Some research groups have dealt with the use of electronic tongues for the qualitative  
79 analysis of honeys, in particular to discriminate them according to their botanical origin,  
80 allowing different monofloral and/or polyfloral samples to be distinguished. (Escriche, Kadar,  
81 Domenech, & Gil-Sánchez, 2012; Tiwari, Tudu, Bandyopadhyay, & Chatterjee, 2013). In  
82 some cases the discrimination according to their different geographical origins has been  
83 addressed too (Wei & Wang, 2014; Bougrini et al., 2016). Recently, a commercial  
84 potentiometric electronic tongue (PE-tongue) was applied for botanical classification and

85 physicochemical characterization of honey samples, by taking as parameters: electrical  
86 conductivity, acidity, water content, invert sugar and total sugar (Major et al., 2011). Another  
87 PE-tongue with a matrix of five electrodes (Ag, Ni, Co, Cu and Au) was used to differentiate  
88 and only predict the total antioxidant capacity of honey samples (Juan-Borrás, Soto, Gil-  
89 Sánchez, Pascual-Maté, & Escriche, 2016).

90 The present work is substantial advancement of our previous study on the use of  
91 voltammetric electronic tongue (VE-tongue) system in the detection of adulteration in honeys  
92 combined with their geographical and botanical origin classification (Bougrini et al., 2016).  
93 Herein, we aimed further to examine the use of this system in the analytical characterization  
94 of honey samples, by setting up a reliable, rapid and simple technique, allowing a correlation  
95 between the results given by the VE-tongue based on cyclic voltammetry and those resulting  
96 from analytical approaches. The interest of using such an approach is that a single  
97 measurement with the VE-tongue could be used to obtain quantitative information about key  
98 constituents and characteristics of honeys, avoiding the different sample preparation  
99 procedures associated to multiple standard analytical methods and, significantly shortening  
100 analysis time and cost. The markers used were color intensity ( $ABS_{450}$ ), the titratable acidity,  
101 namely free, lactonic and total acidity, proteins, phenols, hydroxymethylfurfural content,  
102 sucrose as well as reducing and total sugars. The interpretation of complex datasets produced  
103 by the VE-tongue signals is performed by using multivariate statistics including principal  
104 component analysis (PCA), support vector machines (SVMs), hierarchical cluster analysis  
105 (HCA) and partial least squares (PLS). As far as the authors know, this is the first time that a  
106 VE- tongue has been used to characterize honeys according to various analytical properties;  
107 this could be an alternative to the classic analytical methods used so far.

## 108 2. Experimental

### 109 2.1 Chemicals and reagents

110 Folin-Ciocalteu reagent was purchased from Solvachim, Morocco. Sodium carbonate,  
111 sodium hydroxide, sodium chloride, copper (II) sulfate, potassium sodium tartrate were  
112 purchased from Acros organics, Morocco. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was purchased from  
113 Polysciences, Inc. USA. Gallic acid (GAE), 3,5-dinitrosalicylic acid (DNSA), glucose,  
114 potassium ferrocyanide, zinc acetate and sodium bisulphite were from Sigma-Aldrich, St.  
115 Louis USA. Methanol and hydrochloric acid were purchased from VWR BDH Prolabo,  
116 France.

## 117 **2.2 Honey samples**

118 For this study, 14 polyfloral honeys from the 2016 spring harvest were produced by  
119 local beekeepers settled in different geographical areas of Morocco and France (Fig. 1).  
120 Honey samples were collected and provided by “Secrets d’Apiculteur” and “Apia”  
121 cooperatives based in France and Morocco respectively. All samples were produced by *Apis*  
122 *mellifera* bees, unpasteurized and obtained by centrifugation. All samples were from a matrix  
123 of acacia, thyme, eucalyptus and chestnut plants in order to fix the variable of the floral origin  
124 and to study just the influence of the geographical origin. Samples were stored at room  
125 temperature in the darkness until processing. Analyses were performed **less than 6 months**  
126 after harvesting.

## 127 **2.3 Analytical characterization**

### 128 **2.3.1 Color intensity: ABS<sub>450</sub>**

129 The color intensity of honey samples was described by (Beretta, Granata, Ferrero,  
130 Orioli, & Facino, 2005). Partly it reflects the content of pigments with antioxidant properties  
131 (flavonoids, carotenoids, etc.). Briefly, the honey samples were diluted to 50 % (w/v) in  
132 distilled water, heated to 50 °C to dissolve sugar crystals, and filtered through a 0.45 µm  
133 filter. The absorbance was determined at 450 nm and 720 nm by *ANACHEM instruments*

134 UV220 spectrophotometer and the difference in absorbance was expressed as mAU by  
135 applying the equation (1):

$$136 \text{ ABS}_{450} = (\text{Abs}_{450} - \text{Abs}_{720}) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

137 Where:

138 Abs<sub>450</sub>: absorbance at 450 nm;

139 Abs<sub>720</sub>: absorbance at 720 nm.

### 140 **2.3.2 pH, free, lactic and total acidity**

141 The pH was measured using *Milwaukee pH51* pH meter for a 10 % (w/v) solution of  
142 honey prepared in distilled water. Free, total and lactic acidity were determined by a  
143 titrimetric method (Bogdanov, Martin, & Lullmann, 2002b): 10 g of each honey samples (W)  
144 were dissolved in 75 mL of CO<sub>2</sub>-free water. The solutions were titrated with 0.05 N NaOH  
145 until pH 8.3 (V) under magnetic stirring. Immediately, 10 mL of 0.05 N NaOH was added and  
146 without delay back titrated with 0.05 N HCl to pH 8.30 (V'). The results were expressed as  
147 milliequivalents of sodium hydroxide required to neutralize 1 kg of honey (meq/kg) by  
148 applying the following equations (AOAC, 2002):

$$149 \text{ - Free acidity} = \frac{V \times 50 \times 1000}{W} \quad (2)$$

$$150 \text{ - Lactic acidity} = \frac{(10 - V') \times 50 \times 1000}{W} \quad (3)$$

$$151 \text{ - Total acidity} = \text{free acidity} + \text{lactic acidity} \quad (4)$$

152 Where:

153 W: weight of honey samples;

154 V: added volume of NaOH;

155 V': added volume of HCl.

### 156 **2.3.3 Total protein content**

157 The determination of protein content in honey was performed by the Lowry's assay.  
158 Briefly, honey samples (0.1 g) were dissolved in 100  $\mu$ L of NaOH (2 N) solution and  
159 hydrolyzed at 100  $^{\circ}$ C for 10 min in a boiling water bath. The protein extracts were then added  
160 to 1 mL freshly mixed complex-forming reagent [20 mL of 2 % (w/v) sodium carbonate in  
161 distilled water + 0.2 mL of 2 % (w/v) sodium-potassium tartrate in distilled water + 0.2 mL of  
162 1 % (w/v) copper sulfate in distilled water] and immediately mixed. After 10 min, 100  $\mu$ L of  
163 Folin-Ciocalteu phenol reagent was added and the samples were thoroughly mixed, then the  
164 absorbance of the developed blue color, which depends partly on the tyrosine and tryptophan  
165 content was measured at 550 nm. The protein content was determined by comparing to the  
166 standard curve of BSA (0-2000  $\mu$ g/mL) (Lowry et al., 1951).

#### 167 **2.3.4 Total phenolic content**

168 The total phenolic content was established by the Folin-Ciocalteu method as described  
169 in (Saxena, Gautam, & Sharma, 2010). A volume of 2.4 mL of each honey solution (1.25  
170 mg/mL) was mixed with 150  $\mu$ L of 0.2 N Folin-Ciocalteu reagent. The solutions were  
171 thoroughly stirred and incubated for 2 min at ambient temperature. The reaction mixtures  
172 were then incubated with 450  $\mu$ L of sodium carbonate solution (0.2 g/mL) for 2 h at ambient  
173 temperature, and the absorbances were measured at 765 nm. A standard curve was prepared  
174 using gallic acid (0-400 mg/L). Three replicates were performed and expressed as mg of gallic  
175 acid equivalents (mg GAE)/100 g of honey.

#### 176 **2.3.5 Hydroxymethylfurfural content (HMF)**

177 HMF measurement was made in order to evaluate the quality of fresh honey.  
178 Generally, this compound was formed during acid-catalyzed dehydration of hexoses and its  
179 content increases during heat conditioning used to prevent crystallization or fermentation  
180 (Tosi, Ciappini, Re, & Lucero, 2002). The HMF content of different honey samples was

181 established using the method described by White ([White Jr, 1957](#)). For that, 0.5 mL of Carrez  
182 solution I (15 g potassium ferrocyanide in 100 mL of water) was added to 5 g of each honey  
183 sample and the volume was completed to 25 mL with distilled water. The mixture was added  
184 to 0.5 mL of Carrez solution II (30 g zinc acetate in 100 mL of water) and then completed to  
185 50 mL with distilled water. The solutions were then filtered through 0.45 µm membrane  
186 filter, and 5 mL of water was added to each remaining filtrate. After this, the solutions were  
187 vortexed and the absorbance was read at 284 nm, and 336 nm against a blank aliquot treated  
188 with 0.2 % sodium bisulphite, which remove the carbonyl bond in HMF. The HMF content  
189 was calculated using the following formula:

$$190 \text{ HMF (mg/kg honey)} = (A_{284} - A_{336}) \times 149.7 \quad (5)$$

191 Where

192  $A_{284}$ : absorbance at 284 nm;

193  $A_{336}$ : absorbance at 336 nm;

194 149.7: a factor corresponding to the molecular weight of HMF and the mass of the sample.

### 195 **2.3.6 Reducing and total sugars**

196 The amount of reducing sugars was determined as already described in ([Saxena et al.,](#)  
197 [2010](#)) by using 3,5-dinitrosalicylic acid (DNSA). The honey solutions (0.1 g/mL) were  
198 diluted 100 times with distilled water. 1 mL aliquot of these solutions was mixed with 1 mL  
199 of DNSA and incubated in boiling water bath during 10 min. After cooling in room  
200 temperature, the solutions were mixed with 7.5 mL of distilled water and then the  
201 absorbance was read at 540 nm. A calibration curve was obtained by using the standard  
202 solutions of glucose. The determination of total sugar was performed by the inversion of  
203 sucrose to a reducing sugar and measuring its concentration as previously discussed. Briefly,  
204 the honey solutions (0.1 g/mL) were diluted 33 times with distilled water and an aliquot of 1

205 mL was mixed with concentrated hydrochloric acid to achieve a final concentration of 2 N.  
206 Afterward, the mixture was incubated at 68 °C during 8 min in order to complete the reaction  
207 of sucrose inversion to a reducing sugar. After cooling, the acidic solution was neutralized by  
208 addition of sodium hydroxide, and then the total volume was adjusted to 2 mL with distilled  
209 water. Then, 0.5 mL aliquot was taken from the mixture in order to determine the total sugar  
210 amount as described above. Measurements were carried out in triplicate. The concentration of  
211 sucrose in honey samples was calculated using the equation:

$$212 \text{ Sucrose (\%)} = (\text{total sugar} - \text{total reducing sugar}) \times 0.95 \quad (6)$$

213 A higher sucrose content found in a given honey sample can be associated to overfeeding of  
214 honeybees with sucrose syrup, adulteration, or an early harvest of honey, wherein sucrose has  
215 not been totally converted into glucose and fructose.

#### 216 **2.4 VE-tongue analysis**

217 In order to accomplish the classification and characterization of honey samples, a VE-  
218 tongue was employed as already described in our previous work ([Bougrini et al., 2016](#)). The  
219 measurements of cyclic voltammetry were performed in a standard three-electrode  
220 electrochemical system and in triplicate. The electrode matrix was connected via a relay box  
221 to a portable potentiostat (*PalmSens BV*, the Netherlands). A *PSTrace 3.0* software was used  
222 to connect the VE-tongue to a measuring computer. The software automatically collects and  
223 stores the outputs of the sensors.

#### 224 **2.5 Feature Extraction**

225 Three representative features from the cyclic voltammograms of each sensor were  
226 extracted:

- 227 -  $\Delta I = I_{\max} - I_{\min}$ , the current change as the difference between the cathodic and anodic  
228 values of the current ;

- 229 -  $S_{ox}$ : the maximum slope of the current curve in the oxidation shape;  
230 -  $S_{rd}$ : the maximum slope of the current curve in the reduction shape.

231 Each voltammetric measurement was described by 21 variables, as there were 7 working  
232 electrodes inside the array.

## 233 **2.6 Data analysis and chemometric procedures**

234 The data were analyzed by *Matlab R2010a* software according to the relevant  
235 programs. Principal components analysis (PCA), hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA), support  
236 vector machines (SVM), and partial least squares (PLS) were used for multivariate statistical  
237 modeling of the input data.

238 Principal component analysis (PCA) was mainly used to achieve a reduction of dimension,  
239 i.e., to fit a K-dimensional subspace to the original p-variate ( $p > K$ ) objects and permit a  
240 primary evaluation of the between-category similarity. However, in hierarchical cluster  
241 analysis (HCA), the squared Euclidian distance and coefficient of similarity were used to  
242 group the cases in clusters in terms of their nearness or similarity by using Ward's clustering  
243 method. Support vector machines (SVM) was also applied in order to classify different honey  
244 samples, by using an algorithm from the machine learning community. This algorithm was  
245 developed by (Vapnik, 1998), it determines the hyperplane able to separate two classes and  
246 maximizes the distance between the decision plane and the closest samples of the training set,  
247 which are called support vectors (SVs). Furthermore, a PLS-toolbox was used to model the  
248 relationship between the array of dependent variables Y (voltammetric measurements) and the  
249 array of independent variables X (analytical measurements). The aim of PLS is to find the  
250 components of the matrix of input (X) that describe, as much as possible, relevant variations  
251 in the input variables and at the same time provide the highest correlation with the objectives  
252 (Y), giving minor weight to the variations that are irrelevant or relate to noise.

### 253 3. Results and discussion

#### 254 3.1 Analytical characterization

255 The results of honey characterization based on their analytical parameters are  
256 presented in Table 1. The color intensity  $ABS_{450}$  is presumed to be associated to pigments  
257 (carotenoids, flavonoids etc.), which are also known to have antioxidant properties (Alzahrani  
258 et al., 2012). The  $ABS_{450}$  values for the samples ranged from  $103 \pm 3$  mAU to  $879 \pm 2$  mAU  
259 for H-M and H-S respectively, which explain their light and dark color respectively.

260 Respecting to pH values, all the analyzed honey samples were found to be acidic in character,  
261 with a pH value ranged from 3.4 to 4.9. It has been shown that the pH values of honeys during  
262 extraction and storage have a considerable importance, since acidity can influence its stability,  
263 texture, and shelf life (Terrab, Recamales, Hernanz, & Heredia, 2004). The free acidity of all  
264 honey samples ranged from  $4 \pm 2$  meq/kg to  $27 \pm 1$  meq/kg, thus all honey samples fell within  
265 the permitted range of no more than 50 meq/kg of honey proposed by (Codex Alimentarius  
266 commission, 2001). The presence of free acids in honey can be explained by the fermentation  
267 of sugars by yeasts, during which, glucose and fructose are converted into carbon dioxide and  
268 alcohol. In the presence of oxygen, the resulting compounds are hydrolyzed to acetic acid  
269 contributing then to the level of free acidity in honey. In addition, the lactone contents ranged  
270 from  $10 \pm 2$  meq/kg to  $43 \pm 2$  meq/kg. This variation in acidity among different honey  
271 samples can be attributed to the variation in these constituents according to the season of  
272 extraction. A simple comparison between lactonic and total acidity revealed that the honey  
273 sample with the higher lactone content (H-T) had also the higher total acidity. These  
274 observations clearly support the view that lactonic acidity is among the main contributors to  
275 the total acidity in honey.

276 Moreover, in this study the protein content ranged from  $516 \pm 33$   $\mu$ g/g to  $2596 \pm 33$   $\mu$ g/g for  
277 H-O and H-G respectively, which was determined using the BSA as standard ( $R^2 = 0.993$ ).

278 The honey proteins are mainly in the form of enzymes, which were introduced by bees or in  
279 some case can be derived from the nectar. Glucose oxidase and catalase were the most  
280 important of them, which regulate the production of hydrogen peroxide  $H_2O_2$  that is one of  
281 the anti-bacterial factor in honey.

282 The total phenolic content was determined by a standard curve of gallic acid ( $R^2 = 0.992$ ). For  
283 the honey samples, phenolic content was found to lie in a range between  $29 \pm 1$  mg GAE/100  
284 g of honey and  $70 \pm 1$  mg GAE/100 g of honey related to H-T and H-L samples, which  
285 explain respectively, the lower and the higher antioxidant activity.

286 The presence of HMF, an indicator of the thermal treatment of honey samples, was tested as  
287 already described. The HMF content of the fourteen honey samples was found to be in the  
288 range of 0.1 mg/kg to 12 mg/kg for H-Py and H-Ch respectively, which is lower than the  
289 internationally recommended limit of 80 mg/kg ([Codex Alimentarius commission, 2001](#)).

290 This indicates that the studied honeys have not undergone heat treatment during their  
291 processing. Further, the reducing and total sugars in honey samples ranged from 34.0 % to 67  
292 % and from 35 % to 72 % respectively. Sucrose levels for every sample were below 5 %,  
293 which is the maximum limit prescribed by *Codex Alimentarius*. These results confirm that  
294 reducing sugars are the major part of sugars present in honey samples.

## 295 **2.1 VE-tongue response**

296 A series of tests on the fourteen Moroccan and French honeys were carried out using  
297 the seven working electrodes. Fig. S1 (Supplementary material), shows the typical evolution  
298 of the signals generated by the silver electrode. Clear response variability was observed in the  
299 voltammograms of the electronic tongue due to the differences in the concentration of the  
300 electrochemically active compounds of honeys from different geographical origins

301 The principal component analysis (PCA) which is an unsupervised method was  
302 established using 14 samples to determine the capability of the electronic tongue to  
303 distinguish between different types of honey from different geographical areas, taking as  
304 variable the variation in current  $\Delta I$ , and the oxidation slope  $S_{ox}$  of different voltammograms.  
305 Fig. 2 shows a PCA score plot of the measurements performed by the electronic tongue, in  
306 which the first three principal components explain nearly 77 % of the total variance. As  
307 observed, it is possible to discriminate clearly among the different honey types. The scores  
308 plot reveals a separation among all honey samples, which can be attributed to the differences  
309 in the chemical composition of honeys according to their geographical origin. According to  
310 our previous work (Bougrini et al., 2016) this VE-tongue is able to discriminate the subtle  
311 differences in honeys from different geographical areas, regardless the floral origin of honey.

312 SVMs, which is as supervised classification method, was used to develop the classifier  
313 model. Due to the small number samples available, a leave-one out cross-validation procedure  
314 was carried out to estimate the true success rate in classification. This assumes that, with the  
315 given “n” measurements, the model was formed n times using “n-1” forming vectors. The  
316 efficiency of the obtained model was estimated as the medium efficiency over n tests. The  
317 confusion matrix shown in Table S1 (Supplementary material) includes information about the  
318 actual and predicted classes realized by the SVMs method. It can be observed that every  
319 Moroccan and French honeys was correctly identified, leading to a 100 % success rate in the  
320 classification of their geographical origin.

321 In order to confirm the outcome obtained, an HCA method was applied. The  
322 dendrogram obtained is shown in Fig. 3. It is important to underline that the branch length in  
323 the dendrogram is related to the distances between the various clusters and hence, is a  
324 measure of their similarity. In the present study, sample similarities were calculated on the  
325 basis of the Euclidean distance and Ward method. Therefore, two similar clusters are

326 represented by two connected small branches, and so, have a high similarity index. As shown  
327 in Fig. 4, each sample of same grade level was closely clustered but fully distinct from each  
328 other in the dendrogram, with no misclassifications. Employing a similarity index of  
329 approximately 6, fourteen clusters can be visualized. This separation is in good agreement  
330 with the PCA results, in which all honey samples are totally distinguished according to their  
331 geographical origin.

## 332 **2.1 PLS analysis**

333 In order to examine if the measurements taken with the electronic tongue could be  
334 useful to predict the biochemical and physicochemical parameters, a PLS analysis were  
335 carried out. The PLS models were created with the values of analyzed parameters and the  
336 voltammetric experimental data obtained from the seven electrodes. Fig. 4 shows the PLS  
337 graphs in which measured vs. predicted values of all the analyzed parameters (color intensity,  
338 free, lactonic and total acidity, proteins, phenols, HMF, sucrose, reducing and total sugars) are  
339 shown by fitting the experimental points to a linear model with three latent variables. Because  
340 of the small number of honey samples available, it was not practical to divide them into  
341 calibration and validation sets (i.e. to implement a fold validation). Consequently, leave one  
342 out cross validations were used for checking models' performance.

343 A good correlation was observed for most of the analyzed parameters, the best results  
344 being for sucrose content with a correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) of 0.999, then lactonic acidity  
345 (0.998), phenols (0.997), HMF content (0.996), total acidity (0.991), reducing sugars (0.988),  
346 color intensity (0.983), total sugars (0.982), proteins (0.969). The weaker correlation was  
347 observed for the prediction of free acidity (0.906). Therefore, the predicted values obtained  
348 using PLS technique, by correlating the features extracted from the VE-tongue responses and  
349 the findings of the different parameters estimated via standard analytical methods, showed, in  
350 overall, a good correlation among them. These results indicated that this new approach could

351 be successfully applied as an alternative to standard analytical methods, for several essential  
352 parameters quantification in honey samples.

353 The normalized root-mean-square error (NRMSE) of prediction was calculated for  
354 each studied parameters. As shown in Table 2, the VE-tongue system was able to predict all  
355 the analyzed parameters with errors that ranged between 0.015 and 0.184. The prediction  
356 capacity of the model obtained was also evaluated with the ratio of performance to deviation  
357 (RPD), which is the ratio of the standard error in prediction to the standard deviation of the  
358 samples. When the RPD value is higher than 2.5 the model has a good ability of prediction  
359 (Mouazen & Al-Walaan, 2014). The resulted models for measured parameters have RPD  
360 values above this threshold, except for the free acidity (RPD = 2.306), which explain its  
361 instability over time.

### 362 **3. Conclusion**

363 In conclusion, chemometric analysis demonstrated that the VE-tongue system,  
364 presented by seven metal electrodes, is capable of differentiating between the fourteen types  
365 of Moroccan and French honeys according to their geographical origins. In fact, PCA results  
366 explained 76.6 % of the total variance, while SVMs and HCA represented 100 % of success  
367 rate. Furthermore, a notable correlation was found between the VE-tongue response and  
368 analytical parameters with a correlation coefficient ranging between 0.999 and 0.906 for  
369 sucrose and free acids respectively. This finding confirmed that the system based on metallic  
370 voltammetric electrodes could be useful as a replacement tool to the traditional analytical  
371 methods employed to this regard. However, the results obtained up to here are adequately  
372 encouraging as a starting point for the development of new electronic tongue systems for  
373 application in the quality control of honey, as well as exhibiting a low cost, continuous usage  
374 and low execution time.

### 375 **Conflict of interest**

376 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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**Figure captions:**

**Fig. 1** Location map of the fourteen honey samples.

**Fig. 2** PCA plot analysis for geographical honey classification by using the VE-tongue system.

**Fig. 3** Tree diagram from cluster analysis in Euclidian distance for fourteen kinds of honeys.

**Fig. 4** Predicted versus measured values of (a): protein, (b): color intensity, (c): phenol, (d): lactic acid, (e): total acidity, (f): free acidity, (g): HMF, (h): reducing sugars, (i): total sugars and (j): sucrose contents given by PLS models with three latent variables.

# Figures

Fig. 1

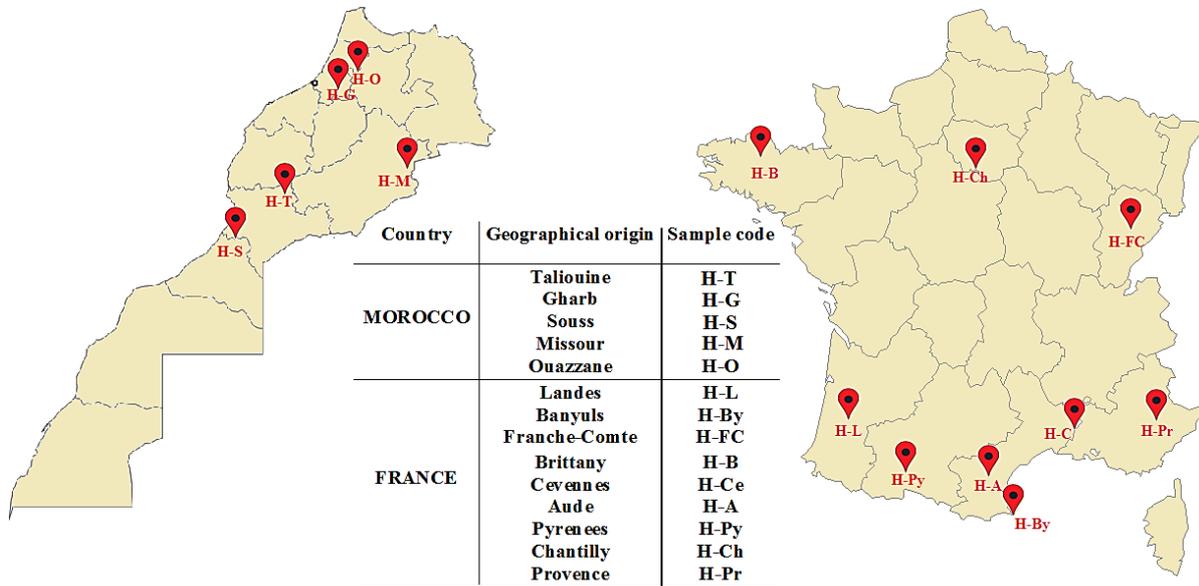
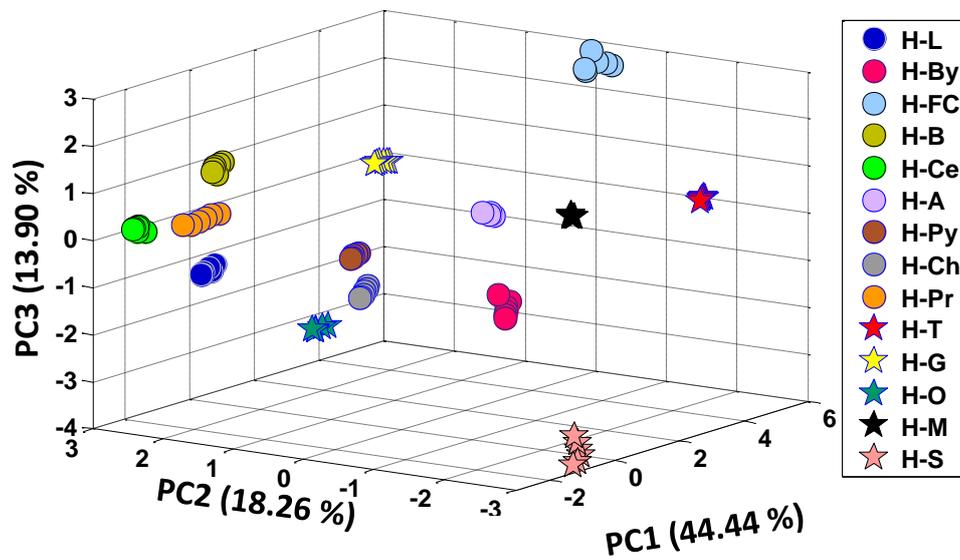


Fig. 2



**Fig. 3**

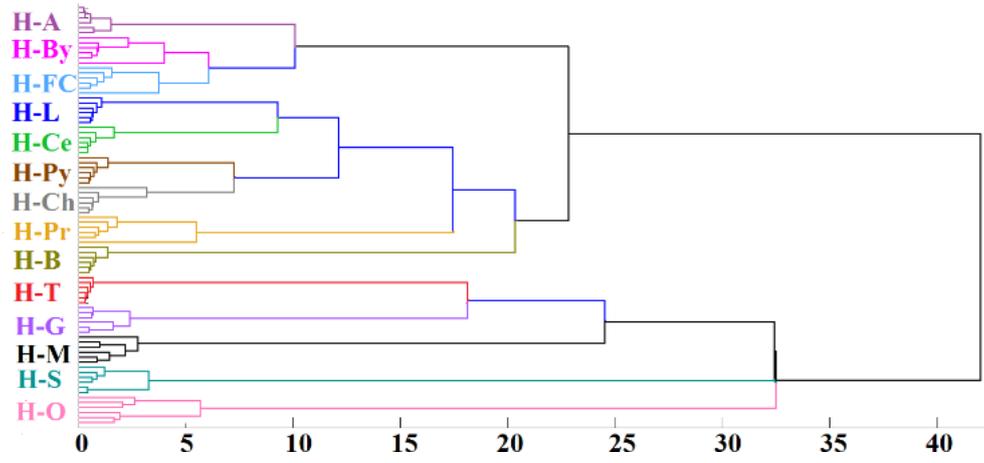
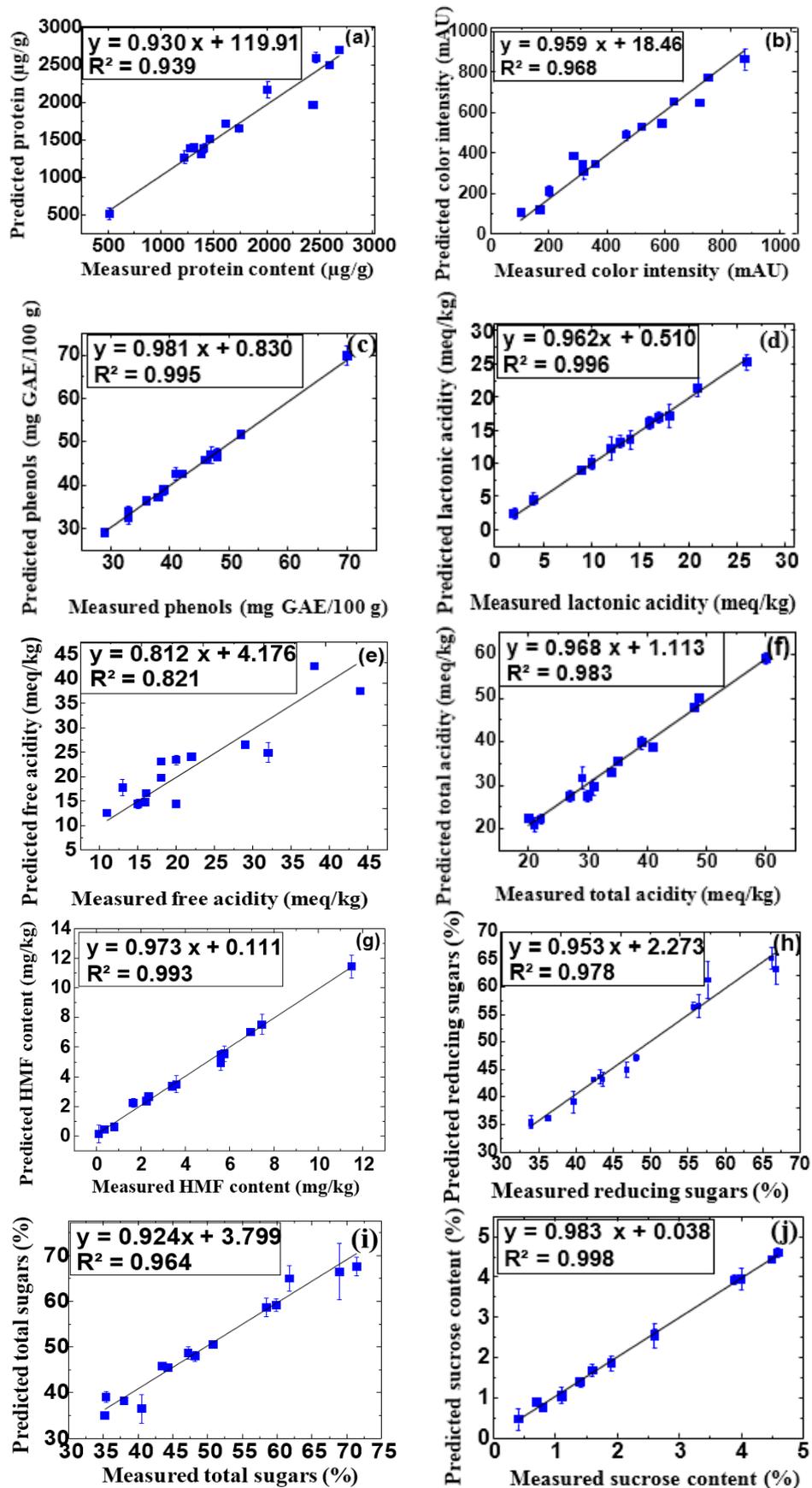


Fig. 4



**Tables:**

**Table 1** Comparative analytical parameters of analyzed honeys

Sample code	ABS <sub>450</sub> (mAU)	pH	Free acidity (meq/kg)	Lactonic acidity (meq/kg)	Total acidity (meq/kg)	Proteins (µg/g)	Phenols (mg GAE/100 g)	HMF (mg/kg)	Reducing sugars (%)	Total sugars (%)	Sucrose (%)
H-L	362 ± 2.2	4.4	11 ± 0.9	10 ± 1.4	41 ± 1.2	1409 ± 49.9	70 ± 0.6	6.9 ± 0.2	55.7 ± 0.8	59.9 ± 0.4	4.0 ± 0.2
H-By	200 ± 2.6	4.1	7 ± 0.9	15 ± 0.9	22 ± 1.6	2209 ± 82.2	48 ± 0.6	5.6 ± 0.5	66.8 ± 1.1	71.5 ± 0.4	4.5 ± 0.4
H-FC	320 ± 4.1	4.0	9 ± 0.9	21 ± 0.9	31 ± 0.9	2436 ± 32.7	41 ± 0.8	1.6 ± 0.2	57.7 ± 0.6	61.8 ± 0.2	3.9 ± 0.2
H-B	522 ± 3.9	3.8	18 ± 1.2	17 ± 0.4	36 ± 1.6	1743 ± 18.9	33 ± 0.8	0.8 ± 0.3	43.3 ± 1.1	48.2 ± 0.7	4.6 ± 0.2
H-Ce	285 ± 2.2	4.7	15 ± 0.9	16 ± 0.3	30 ± 1.1	1463 ± 49.9	52 ± 1.0	3.4 ± 0.1	46.8 ± 1.5	47.2 ± 0.2	0.4 ± 0.7
H-A	316 ± 1.4	3.8	27 ± 0.9	14 ± 0.8	21 ± 2.1	2463 ± 82.2	33 ± 1.0	2.2 ± 0.6	34.0 ± 1.1	35.4 ± 0.3	1.4 ± 0.4
H-Py	753 ± 1.3	4.7	12 ± 1.6	28 ± 1.7	40 ± 3.1	1316 ± 32.7	46 ± 0.8	0.1 ± 0.1	34.0 ± 0.8	35.2 ± 0.5	1.1 ± 0.2
H-Ch	724 ± 5.9	4.2	13 ± 0.9	20 ± 0.9	34 ± 1.6	1276 ± 32.7	48 ± 2.2	11.5 ± 0.4	43.6 ± 0.9	44.3 ± 0.3	0.7 ± 0.3
H-Pr	592 ± 1.3	4.8	10 ± 0.8	24 ± 3.3	34 ± 2.4	1383 ± 37.7	36 ± 0.5	3.6 ± 0.3	39.7 ± 0.6	40.5 ± 0.4	0.8 ± 0.1
H-T	634 ± 1.3	3.4	17 ± 0.9	43 ± 1.9	59 ± 2.5	1609 ± 18.9	29 ± 0.6	0.3 ± 0.5	36.3 ± 0.7	38.0 ± 0.8	1.6 ± 0.1
H-G	169 ± 1.7	3.8	4 ± 1.6	18 ± 1.6	22 ± 2.8	2596 ± 32.7	42 ± 1.7	2.3 ± 0.6	42.4 ± 0.6	43.5 ± 0.7	1.1 ± 0.1
H-S	879 ± 1.3	3.7	17 ± 0.9	33 ± 0.1	49 ± 1.0	1223 ± 37.7	39 ± 0.8	5.6 ± 0.3	48.1 ± 0.9	50.8 ± 0.3	2.6 ± 0.3
H-M	103 ± 2.6	4.9	5 ± 0.5	16 ± 0.0	21 ± 0.5	1143 ± 18.9	38 ± 0.8	5.7 ± 0.5	66.2 ± 1.0	69.0 ± 0.3	2.6 ± 0.4
H-O	469 ± 0.0	3.6	10 ± 0.5	39 ± 1.9	50 ± 2.4	516 ± 32.7	47 ± 0.8	7.4 ± 0.1	56.4 ± 1.4	58.5 ± 0.6	1.9 ± 0.4

**Table 2** PLS model performance for the measured parameters

<b>Parameters</b>	<b>r*</b>	<b>NRMSE**</b>	<b>RPD***</b>
Sucrose	0.999	0.015	2.797
Lactonic acidity	0.998	0.089	5.130
Phenols	0.997	0.031	7.658
HMF	0.996	0.125	6.070
Total acidity	0.991	0.057	5.584
Reducing sugars	0.988	0.048	4.592
Color intensity	0.983	0.103	4.949
Total sugars	0.982	0.063	3.637
Proteins	0.969	0.093	3.791
Free acidity	0.906	0.184	2.306

**r\***: coefficient of correlation; **NRMSE\*\***: normalized root mean square error; **RPD\*\*\***: ratio of performance to deviation.