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## Controlling Protected Designation of Origin of wine by Raman Spectroscopy

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# 1 **Controlling Wines' Protected Designation of Origin**

## 2 **through Raman Spectroscopy**

3 Luisa Mandrile<sup>a,c</sup>, Giuseppe Zeppa<sup>b</sup>, Andrea Mario Giovannozzi<sup>c</sup> and Andrea Mario Rossi<sup>c</sup>

4 <sup>a</sup> *Department of Drug Science and Technology, Università degli Studi di Torino, Via Giuria 9, 10125, Torino, Italy*

5 *l.mandrile@inrim.it*

6 <sup>b</sup> *Dipartimento di Scienze Agrarie, Forestali e Alimentari (DISAFA) - Microbiologia agraria e Tecnologie alimentari, Largo*

7 *Paolo Braccini 2, 10095 Grugliasco (TO), Italy giuseppe.zeppa@unito.it*

8 <sup>c</sup> *Quality of life Division, Food Metrology program, Istituto Nazionale di Ricerca Metrologica, Strada delle Cacce, 91 10135,*

9 *Torino, Italy [a.rossi@inrim.it](mailto:a.rossi@inrim.it), [a.giovannozzi@inrim.it](mailto:a.giovannozzi@inrim.it)*

10  
11 <sup>\*</sup> *Corresponding author: Andrea Mario Rossi, tel +39 011 3919342; fax +39 011 346384 e-mail [a.rossi@inrim.it](mailto:a.rossi@inrim.it)*

12  
13 **Keywords:** wine, raman spectroscopy, food traceability, chemometrics, fingerprint

### 14 **Abstract**

15 In this paper a Fourier Transform Raman spectroscopy method to authenticate the wine provenience for food  
16 traceability applications was developed. In particular, due to the specific chemical fingerprint of the Raman  
17 spectrum, it was possible to discriminate different wines produced in the Piedmont area (North West Italy) in  
18 accordance with i) grape varieties, ii) production area and iii) ageing time. More than 300 samples from tens of  
19 different producers were analyzed in order to create a consistent training set and a chemometric treatment of raw  
20 spectra was applied. A discriminant analysis method was employed in the classification procedures, providing a  
21 classification capability (percentage of correct answers) of 90% in validation for grape analysis and  
22 geographical area provenance, whereas a classification capability of 84% was obtained for ageing time

23 classification. The present methodology can be successfully applied on raw materials without any preliminary  
24 treatment of the sample, providing a response in a very short time.

25

## 26 **Main text**

### 27 **1. Introduction**

28 In order to preserve the quality of food products coming from particular geographical areas and to protect  
29 consumers against imitations and false information, the European Commission defined, via Regulations  
30 1151/2012, the labels Traditional Specialty Guaranteed (TSG), Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) and  
31 Protected Geographical Indication (PGI) (Regulation (Eu) No 1151/2012 Of The European Parliament And Of  
32 The Council of 21 November 2012 on quality schemes for agricultural products and foodstuffs). Quality labels  
33 play an important role in consumer behavior and give confidence about the origins and the quality of food.  
34 Labels assignment is an important market claim and it represents a valuable weapon to attest and justify the  
35 economic value of alimentary products. Traceability has become a very relevant concept when it is associated to  
36 edible products and it represents an essential tool to enhance traders and consumers' confidence in the safety,  
37 quality, and authenticity of food.

38 Unfortunately, food traceability procedures mainly involve tedious administrative documents, while scientific  
39 methodologies that objectively identify the authenticity of food would be preferable. According to this, scientific  
40 research is now focused on developing analytical methods to authenticate the geographical origin of aliments in  
41 a metrological way (Peres, Barlett, Loiseau and Montet, 2007) with the aim of linking food products with its  
42 distinctive features, such as ingredients, physical properties and production methods. Food traceability analysis  
43 are usually performed by means of several analytical techniques such as mass spectrometry for isotope ratio  
44 determination (Durante, Baschieri, Bertacchini, 2015), DNA based techniques, such as Polymerase Chain  
45 Reaction (PCR) (Pardo, 2014) and Nuclear Magnetic Resonance spectrometry (NMR) (Mazzei, Francesca,  
46 Moschetti, Piccolo, 2010).

47 In the last two decades stable isotope methodologies based on gas chromatography-isotope ratio mass  
48 spectrometry (GC-IRMS) and GC-pyrolysis-IRMS (Fronza, Fuganti, Graselli, Reniero et al 1998; Adam,  
49 Bartels, Christoph, Stempf 1995; Misselhorn, Grafahrend, 1990) were successfully applied in the field of wine  
50 quality control due to the establishment of an official wine database for stable isotope parameters (EU

51 regulations 2670/90, 2347/91 and 2348/91) (Rossmann, 2001). As reported by Breas et al., (Bréas, Reniero,  
52 Serrini, Martin and Rossmann, 1994), a classification of wines from different European countries can be done by  
53 means of  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  analysis of ethanol and  $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$  determination of water, underlining the importance of the  
54 photosynthetic pathway as well as the environmental and climatological conditions of the vineyard. Even if  
55 stable isotope methods provided consistent results which can be used for routine analysis of wines, it is not  
56 always simple to find a physical, chemical, or biochemical explanation for variations of the isotope ratios in  
57 natural substances and to establish a relevant database for statistical evaluation.

58 DNA based technologies were also exploited in this field due to their specificity of analysis because they are  
59 strictly connected to the genotype (the inherited instructions that an organism carries within its genetic code) but  
60 they inevitably miss the stochastic significant epigenetic differences accumulating over time across cells  
61 (Petronis, 2010). Dordevic N et. al (2013) highlighted the need of new methods for a better geographical  
62 discrimination between samples, demonstrating that multivariate methods are superior to univariate approaches.  
63 Interesting alternatives or even complementary methods are represented by the NMR and vibrational  
64 spectroscopy techniques. Godelmann et al. (2013) analyzed about 600 German wines and demonstrated that  
65  $^1\text{H}$ NMR coupled with statistical data treatment can provide individual “fingerprint” of a wine sample, which  
66 includes information about variety, origin, vintage, physiological state, technological treatment, and other. The  
67 data fusion of NMR profiling and stable isotope data for wine analysis was also investigated and reported in  
68 literature with good results (Monakhova et. al. 2014). However, the main drawbacks of all the cited techniques,  
69 i.e. MS, NMR and DNA based techniques, are related to the elevated cost of the instruments, extensive sample  
70 pre-treatments and long time of analysis which often reduce the accuracy and precision of measurements. Since  
71 simple and rapid analytical methods are needed to meet the developing European labeling legislation, vibrational  
72 spectroscopy is emerging as a new powerful tool in authenticating food provenance. Vibrational spectroscopy  
73 techniques usually provide non-destructive analysis of the samples, fast collection times with none or minimal  
74 sample pre-treatments that reduce the total time of analysis and could support the development of reliable control  
75 procedures and screening methods for food traceability. Moreover, new modern and portable instruments with  
76 smart accessories were developed in the last years making these techniques more suitable for *in line* process  
77 monitoring and *in situ* analysis (Gallego, Guesalaga, Bordeu and González, 2011). These methods encompass  
78 absorption spectroscopy in the mid-infrared (MIR) and the near-infrared (NIR) for studying fundamental  
79 molecular vibrations and their harmonics (Bauer et al., 2008; Cozzolino, Damberg, Janik, Cynkar, & Gishen,

2006; Cozzolino, McCarthy, & Bartowsky, 2012, Cozzolino D., 2014), and absorption spectroscopy in the ultra-  
violet and visible (UV-vis) for probing electronic transitions (Acevedo, Jiménez, Maldonado, Domínguez, &  
Narváez, 2007; García-Jares & Médina, 1995; Harbertson & Spayd, 2006; Roig & Thomas, 2003; Urbano,  
Luque de Castro, Pérez, García-Olmo, & Gómez-Nieto, 2006). Besides, Raman spectroscopy, which is based on  
the inelastic scattering of a monochromatic light, provides a characteristic spectroscopic pattern, i.e. “molecular  
fingerprint”, of the analyzed organic compounds based on the vibrational modes of chemical bonds (Li-Chan,  
Griffiths and Chalmers, 2010; Thygesen, Løkke, Micklander and Engelsen, 2003). Moreover, Raman analysis  
can be easily done in aqueous media and through glass containers because both water and glass signals are very  
weak in the Raman spectrum (Schulz and Baranska, 2007; Yang, Irudayaraj 2001) and do not overlap signals of  
macro food components, such as proteins (Li-Cha, Nakai, Hirotsuka, 1994), lipids (Yang, Irudayaraj and  
Paradkar, 2005) and carbohydrates (Mathlouthi, Koenig, 1986), which can be revealed in a sensitive and specific  
way.

Raman spectroscopy has recently demonstrated its value in food traceability for olive oil provenance and  
composition (Bernuy, Meurens, Mignolet and Larondelle, 2008), honey provenance (Özbalcia, Hakkı Boyacıa,  
Topcu, Kadırlar, Tamerc, 2013; Paradkar and Irudayaraj, 2001) and beers authenticity (Downey, 2009). As  
regards alcoholic beverages, Raman spectroscopy was used for the quantification of the alcohol content in  
whisky, vodka and other spirituous beverages (Nordon, Mills, Burn, Cusick and Littlejohn 2005). The feasibility  
of exploiting Raman scattering to analyze white wines was also investigated in the last years (Meneghini et. al.,  
2008). In particular, a very recent work from Coralie et.al (2014) demonstrated that the resonance condition of  
some chemical species present in wine, such as phenolic compounds, hydroxycinnamic acids and sugars, can be  
reached using lasers with different wavelengths in order to detect and analyze these species selectively.

In this work we evaluated the possibility of using Raman spectroscopy coupled with a chemometric data  
treatment to discriminate different wines from Piedmont area (North West Italy) in accordance with grape  
varieties, production area and ageing time. In particular tests were performed on Nebbiolo, Dolcetto and Barbera  
wines that were chosen for their diffusion and their productive/economic relevancy on Italian wine market. The  
purpose of the work is to provide a statistically substantial classification methods based on a set of known  
responses (training set) through the chemometric treatment of data. The work scheme was structured on three  
levels: at first, the classification of wines in accordance with the used grapes; secondly, the classification of

108 wines in accordance with the production area and finally the classification of wines in accordance with ageing  
109 time.

110

## 111 **2. Material and Methods**

### 112 *2.1 Samples*

113 Study was performed on 315 samples of commercial wines obtained from Nebbiolo, Barbera and Dolcetto grape  
114 by different winemakers. For each grape variety, wines of different area and ageing time were used (Table 1).  
115 Among the total sample pool, more than 10 Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) wines were examined. The  
116 number of samples for each PDO wine was different according to winemakers and diffusion and inevitably  
117 limited by the availability of samples. All samples were furnished directly by producers and stored at +4°C until  
118 analysis.

### 119 **Tab.1 – Distribution of wines examined in accordance with grape, PDO and production area**

120

### 121 *2.2 Raman measurements*

122 Raman spectroscopy was performed with a Thermo Scientific NXR FT-Raman Module Nicolet Series™  
123 equipped with an InGaAs detector (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, USA), a CaF<sub>2</sub> beamsplitter and a 1064  
124 nm laser line. Raman spectra were collected using a laser power of 0.9 W in a spectral range from 200 to 4000  
125 cm<sup>-1</sup> with a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup>. 256 scans were collected to obtain S/N ratio higher than 15. Samples were  
126 analyzed in 4 ml glass vials positioned vertically on a powered stage.

### 127 *2.3 Multivariate Analysis.*

128 The raw Raman spectra were subjected to Discriminant Analysis using TQ Analyst™ 8.0 software  
129 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). Spectra were preprocessed using Savitzky-Golay smoothing filter  
130 (Savitzky, Golay, 1964) in order to remove of as much noise as possible without unduly degrading the spectral  
131 information. The spectral range to be analyzed was selected in such a way that the interference of the random  
132 variability of spectra is minimized and it does not provide spurious information to the classification model.  
133 Seven restricted spectral regions around Raman peaks are selected in order to optimize the classification result.

134 The frequency regions of spectra which do not contain any Raman peak (e.g. 800-600 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 2800-1800 cm-  
135 1) were excluded. In this way the worthless information is ignored and the best classes' separation is obtained.  
136 The suitable number of PCs to be considered is chosen as the best compromise between the explained variance  
137 of each PC and the predictive capability of the model: when the cumulative variance reaches the *plateau*, further  
138 components could not provide useful information and they should be excluded, so that variables that just  
139 represent noise are not considered for classification. Otherwise, some variables that explain a little variability  
140 shall not be excluded if they significantly improve the classification capability of the model (% of samples  
141 correctly classified). The presented chemometric models for wine classification were first validated through a  
142 leave-one-out cross-validation procedure during model optimization (mathematical pretreatment choice,  
143 significative PCs selection etc.). Finally, the optimized models were all validated through a cross validation  
144 procedure using exclusions sets made of five samples randomly chosen, the number of exclusion set is  
145 proportional to the total number of calibration samples. After calibration, this classification technique permits to  
146 calculate the unknown's distance to a class center in terms of Mahalanobis distance (Mahalanobis, 1936) and to  
147 assign each unknown samples to the correct class. The basic idea on which Md is based is the fact that it contains  
148 an autoscaling process in itself and it overcomes the assumption of spherical distribution of sample points about  
149 the center of mass; therefore non-spherical distributions can be described as well. In the generalized formula for  
150 Md reported below, the observation are represented by  $x=(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  while  $\mu=(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_n)$  represents  
151 the observations' mean. The apex <sup>T</sup> indicates the transposed matrix ( $x-\mu$ ).  $S^{-1}$  is the inverse of the covariance  
152 matrix of the observations.

$$153 \quad Md(x)=\sqrt{(x-\mu)^T S^{-1} (x-\mu)}$$

154 If an ellipsoidal distribution is considered, then we would expect that the probability of the test point to belong to  
155 the set does not only depend on the distance from the center of mass, but also on the direction. (De  
156 Maesschalck, Jouan-Rimbaud, Massart, 2000).

157 Statistical reliability of results will be widely discussed case per case in order to assess the effective  
158 classification capability of the proposed Raman method, even if an external set to be dedicated to the test set  
159 validation was not available. The work scheme of this study was divided into three consecutive steps: (i)  
160 discrimination according to grape; (ii) discrimination according to production area; (iii) discrimination according  
161 to ageing.

162

### 163 3. Results and Discussion

164 Food systems are dynamic, chemically complex and generally heterogeneous matrices of large numbers of  
165 biological molecules. The chemical specificity, ease of sampling, rapidity of measurements and nondestructive  
166 nature of FT-Raman spectroscopy make it an attractive tool for food analysis. The chemical specificity of the  
167 Raman technique relies on the fact that different molecular bonds or groups of chemical bonds are identified by  
168 characteristic frequency-shifts in the incident light (Fig.1). For this reason, the very first step of compositional  
169 analysis of wine using FT-Raman is the attribution of characteristic frequency shifts observed in spectra to  
170 vibrational modes of molecular bonds (Table 1S in supplementary information).

171 As Fig.1 shows, the large band ascribed to OH stretching at  $3350\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is clearly visible in all the analyzed  
172 spectra. Besides, a minor band related to OH bending at  $1700\text{-}1500\text{ cm}^{-1}$  can be noticed. The group of peaks  
173 between  $3000\text{-}2800\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is due to the symmetric and asymmetric stretching of  $\text{CH}_x$  bonds. Several other  
174 characteristic peaks of ethanol are present at a lower than  $1500\text{ cm}^{-1}$  frequency. They are associated to several  
175 deformation modes of  $\text{CH}_x$  as reported in Tab 1S available in supplementary information. (Mammone, Sharma,  
176 Nicol, 1980). All peaks of wine are slightly shifted in comparison with the pure ethanol peaks; this is due to the  
177 simultaneous presence of different organic species such as glycerol, acetaldehyde, organic acids, and  
178 polyphenols including flavonoids and non-flavonoids. At  $1630\text{ cm}^{-1}$  a low intensity band is present in wine  
179 spectra. This band is characteristic of C=O stretching, a not very active Raman vibration. The C=O peak could  
180 be attributed to several species present in the matrix (e.g. organic acids and flavonoids) whose carbonyl groups  
181 are characterized by slightly different vibration frequencies. Therefore, a quite broad signal is registered in this  
182 region of the spectra.

183 The analyzed samples were chosen with the aim of representing a wide selection of the three selected wines and  
184 they were purchased by tens of different producers. Many samples are requested in order to represent the total  
185 variability of the system and to obtain a representative data set for the multivariate calibration. The Raman  
186 spectra of different wines are very similar to each other as it can be noticed in Fig. 1 where the spectra of  
187 Dolcetto, Barbera and Nebbiolo are compared. This explains why a univariate analysis would not be effective. It  
188 was decided to employ a multivariate approach to have a more complete interpretation of the characteristic  
189 pattern of spectroscopic signals.

190 **Fig. 1**



191 From an oenological point of view the specific features of wines are the result of a synergic effect of several  
192 factors. The wine composition is very complex and the final organoleptic features are produced by the  
193 interaction of many chemicals, such as sugar, alcohol, acids and tannins that provide the bitter taste; for example  
194 the expression *total acidity* refers to the rough, tart and sour attributes of the wine which are evaluated in relation  
195 to how well the acidity balances out the sweetness and bitter components of the wine. During the course of  
196 winemaking and in the finished wines, acetic, butyric, lactic and succinic acid can play significant roles and all  
197 together define the characteristic acidity of the wine (Bellman, Gallander, 1979). In the same way, from a  
198 spectroscopic point of view, the final wine spectrum is the result of a synergic interaction of many factors and no  
199 one of them can be commented singularly. Literature is poor of interpretative analysis regarding Raman spectra  
200 of wine because of the complexity of the issue and only a chemometric analysis permits to extract the more  
201 interesting information and selective parameters to distinguish and attest the authenticity of different wine  
202 products. The chemometric approach used for the classification is a supervised classification method whose task  
203 is grouping a set of objects in such a way that objects in the same group (called a class) are more similar to each  
204 other than those belonging to other classes. In particular, the training data are given in the form of sets of spectra  
205 with their desired partitioning as a supervised method would suggest (Finley and Joachims, 2005). Different  
206 distance functions can be used in order to evaluate the distance between objects of the same class or the  
207 assignment to the correct class for an unknown object. In this case the Mahalanobis distance (Md) is used, as  
208 described in detail in Materials and Methods.

209 Applying this concept to spectral data of wine, several classification models with good classification capability  
210 were obtained, as described in details in the following paragraphs (3.1; 3.2; 3.3).

### 211 *3.1 Discrimination in accordance with grape*

212 At first three classes of grapes (Nebbiolo, Barbera, Dolcetto) were defined. 185 Nebbiolo, 75 Barbera, 45  
213 Dolcetto wine samples were subjected to Raman analysis in order to constitute a substantial training set. The  
214 *eigenanalysis* attested that the selected 305 calibration standards contain sufficient variability for the method  
215 calibration. The spectral range was optimized as reported in Materials and Methods section. The optimized  
216 chemometric model shows a total explained variability of 99.34 % using 20 principal components (PCs); the  
217 number of principal components was optimized by considering the classification capability % ( the number of  
218 correctly classified samples during cross-validation) as a function of the PCs number. In particular, leave-one-

219 out cross validation was reiteratively performed rising the number of considered PCs at each run and the  
220 percentage of correctly classified samples is plotted as a function of PCs number in figure 1S (see supplementary  
221 information), as well as the explained variance corresponding to each PC. The plot reported in figure 1S in  
222 supplementary information, is used to determine the best number of PCs, which corresponds to 20 in this case. In  
223 order to avoid the overfitting of data, the components that do not contribute significantly to cumulative explained  
224 variance and that not provide useful information for classification were excluded because they deal exclusively  
225 with experimental noise.

226 As Figure 2 shows, the best optimized method misclassifies 13.1 % of 305 standards during leave-one-out cross  
227 validation process. The clouds of points representing the three classes are dense, meaning a high homogeneity  
228 within each class. The three clouds are also very close to each other and they partially overlap which is the cause  
229 of a misclassified percentage greater than 10 %. However, it should be taken into account that the disciplinary of  
230 production of some wines allows a small percentage of other wines to be introduced (for example, Barbera wine  
231 can contain up to 15 % of Nebbiolo grape in accordance with its disciplinary); this could likely represent one of  
232 the reasons of the closeness of sample classes which causes the misclassification. A cross validation test was  
233 performed (and repeated 5 times) in order to attest the real capability of the calibrated model to distinguish wines  
234 according to the grape. 100 spectra (1/3 of the number of calibration standards per each class randomly chosen)  
235 were used by groups of five for the cross validation of the model. During this leave-five-out validation  $86 \pm 2$  %  
236 of unknown samples provided a correct answer. Among the misclassified samples, 9 % belong to Barbera class,  
237 2 % belong to Dolcetto class and 3 % belong to Nebbiolo class on average. It shall also be noticed that the  
238 percentage of misclassified samples during leave-five-out cross validation method is comparable with leave-one-  
239 out cross validation results (14 % of misclassified with 20 PCs) reached during model optimization.  
240 Subsequently 10 new Nebbiolo samples were provided and they were used as a little external test set which  
241 provided 90 % of correct answers.

## 242 **Fig. 2**

243 The loadings profiles corresponding to principal component from 1 to 10, which are the most interesting for a  
244 qualitative description, are shown in fig. 3. From a careful analysis of them it is possible to determine which  
245 organoleptic and compositional features are responsible for the classification. However, it must be taken into  
246 account that a synergic cooperation of variables lead to the class separation and none of them can be considered  
247 separately from the others. For example, alcohol content of a wine is a key parameter for its oenological

248 characterization and it also plays an important role in the spectroscopic analysis in order to depict a faithful  
249 portrait of each sample. The ethanol Raman peaks are the most easy to be individuated in a Raman spectrum of  
250 wine and they can be identified in most of the calculated PCs as well. It is possible to affirm that this aspect  
251 plays a crucial role in wine classification. Another important feature that could help in classification is the sugar  
252 content. Since the sugar content of a wine depends on the advancement of the alcoholic fermentation, a founded  
253 hypothesis is the anti-correlation between the sugar and the alcohol content depending variables. PC8 and PC9  
254 reveal that a significant variability of data is recognized during the statistical calculation in the spectral region  
255 around  $3500\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $500\text{ cm}^{-1}$  where the typical carbohydrates peaks can be found. The scores plot built in  
256 accordance with the above mentioned PCs reveals that the carbohydrate content varies from sample to sample  
257 without any correlation with the Dolcetto, Barbera or Nebbiolo belonging class. The difficulty of defining a  
258 coherent variability in this case lies in the fact that all the considered wines are dry wines.

259 Another important parameter in the Raman characterization of a biological matrix is the fluorescence effect. The  
260 colored substances contained in wine, such as anthocyanins and polyphenols in general, are directly related with  
261 the fluorescence effect observed during spectra acquisition. Fluorescence is generally an undesired effect in  
262 Raman analysis because of the risk of covering the interesting signals in the spectrum. It can also influence the  
263 statistical analysis of wine spectra in the classification process. Indeed, the slope of the baseline of PC1, and the  
264 wide band around  $2000$  and  $1200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  of PC6 and PC7 attest that the fluorescence represents a significant  
265 variable for the examined system. This behavior is even more evident by looking at the disposition of data  
266 clouds as a function of PCs influenced by fluorescence, where it can be clearly seen that the fluorescence effect  
267 does not represent a negligible variable. However, the classification of wines is not impaired by the fluorescence  
268 contribution, whose success is witnessed not only by the satisfying modeling of training set but also by the above  
269 mentioned external validation set.

### 270 **Fig. 3**

271 The present data reveal that synergic interaction among variables represents the key to solve an apparently very  
272 complicated problem. Considering variables singularly it would not be possible to describe the huge amount of  
273 data in a significant way, but taking them all together a good separation of the three selected classes is produced.

274 Also dual class models were optimized and it turned out that the most difficult wines to separate are Barbera and  
275 Dolcetto wines whereas Nebbiolo sets oneself up a specific well distinguished class.

276 3.2 Discrimination in accordance with production area

277 After that the capability of Raman spectroscopy to separate wines according to the grape was demonstrated, a  
278 method to attest the geographical provenance of wine within the same grape class was developed. In order to  
279 understand the importance of the geographical area where a wine is produced, it is good to know that it exists in  
280 oenology a technical expression to intend the particular combination of elements such as climate, soil and  
281 regional knowhow of winemaker, which defines the uniqueness and unrepeatability that characterize a labeled  
282 wine, this is the French word *Terroir*.

283 The study was focused on two wines in particular, Dolcetto and Nebbiolo. Within Dolcetto class (i) Dolcetto  
284 d'Alba Doc and (ii) Dolcetto di Dogliani Docg were chosen for experiments. The production area of Dolcetto di  
285 Dogliani is situated in the southernmost part of Piedmont whereas the Dolcetto d'Alba region is situated in a  
286 northern part of Langhe territory as it can be seen in the map inlet of Fig. 4 a. The Dolcetto area is the highest of  
287 the Langhe territory (from 250 to 700 m above sea level) and it is characterized by a fresh climate because of the  
288 proximity to Appennino Ligure and Alpi Marittime mountains chain. This represents the best climate condition  
289 for Dolcetto wine production because it makes the grape maturation process slower. In this geographic area the  
290 soil varies from generous red soil to sandy and dry soil (regione.piemonte.it); the best soil type for the Dolcetto  
291 production is white, deep, clayey and calcareous. Dolcetto di Dogliani and Dolcetto d'Alba wines are produced  
292 according to a strict disciplinary that declares in a very precise way the mandatory geographical area and the  
293 variety of grape permitted. Also, the winemaking procedure and the final organoleptic features are usually  
294 controlled through a qualified panel test. Dolcetto d'Alba and Dolcetto di Dogliani wines have very similar optic  
295 and organoleptic features and even for expert sommelier it could be very difficult to distinguish the geographic  
296 origin of the two at taste. The Raman analysis coupled with chemometric provided a good identification method  
297 for the classification of the samples according to the area of production as shown in the Cooman's plot in Fig. 4  
298 a.

299 For Nebbiolo wine two classes were set as well: (i) Langhe (including Nebbiolo d'Alba, Barolo, Barbaresco); (ii)  
300 Novara&Carema (including Colline Novaresi, Coste della Sesia, Ghemme, Gattinara and Carema). The  
301 geographical areas involved are represented in the Piedmont map in the inlet of Fig 4 b. Nebbiolo wine is an  
302 ancient red mono-vine wine. Its tracks in Piedmont predate the seventeenth century and it has always thrived  
303 here because of its adaptability to cold climates (langhevini.it). It is a noble Italian vine par excellence, from  
304 which derive the majority quality red wines for long ageing in the north-west of Italy. This wine reaches his best

305 after few years from the production because of the territory in which it is produced. The geographic area  
306 designated for the production of Nebbiolo is well specified in its own disciplinary. The soil should be clayey,  
307 calcareous and acidic or a combination of the three; the territory must be hilly (at least 650 m above sea level)  
308 and sunny (regione.piemonte.it). The chemometric analysis of Nebbiolo spectra provided satisfying results for  
309 the classification of Nebbiolo from Langhe and from Novara&Carema territory as it can be noticed observing the  
310 Cooman's plot in Fig. 4b. As commented before, the whole structure of the spectra of different wines is  
311 responsible of the class separation. The number of considered PCs (6 for Dolcetto classification and 14 for  
312 Nebbiolo classification) represents the best compromise between explained variance and classification  
313 capability, as commented in paragraph 3.1 (Fig 1S b, c available in supplementary information). Also in this case  
314 the only way to achieve significant results consists in a multivariate approach. The appreciable classification  
315 capability higher than 90 % are obtained for the two classification models and the low number of misclassified  
316 standards permits to conclude that Raman spectroscopy is able to discriminate wine provenance when a  
317 consistent calibration is previously performed.

#### 318 **Fig. 4**

319 The cross validation test provided satisfying results for both calibrated models. 10 samples were randomly  
320 chosen (about 30 % of the number of calibration samples from each class) and they were used by couples for  
321 validating the Dolcetto model with an error of 8 %, all of the misclassified samples belong to "Dolcetto d'Alba"  
322 class. The leave-five-out cross-validation for Nebbiolo was performed using 65 spectra, five by five randomly  
323 chosen with respect to the total number of calibration samples in each class. In this case, 7 % of them were  
324 misclassified. In particular, 1 of them is from Alba, while 5 are from the northern part of Piedmont  
325 (Novara&Carema class). Validation procedure was repeated 5 times for both DA methods attesting a standard  
326 deviation of classification capability of 1 % and 2 % respectively.

#### 327 *3.3 Discrimination in accordance with age*

328 As a third step, it was investigated the possibility to recognize aged from non-aged oenological products. Many  
329 wines improve in quality during barrel and bottle storage. Such wines eventually reach their best features, and  
330 with further ageing begin to decline. During the ageing period, the acidity decreases, additional clarification and  
331 stabilization occur as well as the precipitation of undesirable substances, and complex compounds affecting  
332 flavor and aroma are formed. Wines are usually aged in wooden barrel made of oak, allowing oxygen to enter

333 and water and alcohol not to escape. Wine simple phenols are further transformed during wine ageing into  
334 complex molecules formed by the condensation of proanthocyanidins and anthocyanins, which explains the  
335 change of color of aged wines. As the wine ages, anthocyanins react with other acids and compounds such as  
336 tannins, pyruvic acid and acetaldehyde which change the color of the wine in "brick red" hues.

337 One of the most interesting comparisons that can be performed considering piedmont's wines concerns Barolo  
338 and Barbaresco wine. They are both produced with Nebbiolo grape and follow a mono-vine strict production  
339 protocol. What makes a Barolo wine different from a Barbaresco wine is essentially the ageing time: Barbaresco  
340 is at least 26 months aged whereas Barolo is at least 38 months aged. In this study 56 samples of Barolo and 24  
341 samples of Barbaresco were analyzed by Raman spectroscopy and the collected data were processed by  
342 discriminant analysis, as previously described. The statistical separation of the two different aged wines  
343 produced positive results by considering 9 PCs, as shown in fig. 5.

#### 344 **Fig. 5**

345 Also in this case a cross validation of the calibrated model was performed. 30 spectra of unknown samples were  
346 subjected to analysis by groups of five. The validation procedure was repeated 5 times and it provided  $84 \pm 4$  %  
347 of correct answer on average. Among the 16 % wrongly classified, 80 % was Barolo and 20 % was Barbaresco.

#### 348 **4. Conclusions**

349 In this paper it was demonstrated that Raman spectroscopy coupled with chemometric analysis can play a  
350 relevant role in the authenticity of wine, providing positive results in the recognition of mono-vine wines in  
351 terms of grape (validation test provided reliability of 93%), geographical provenance (reliability higher than  
352 90%) and ageing time (reliability higher than 80%). One of the biggest advantage of the proposed method is the  
353 direct analysis of wine through the glass container without any pretreatment and purification process. These  
354 advantages, together with the rapidity of data collection, make Raman Spectroscopy particularly interesting for  
355 the prevention of wines fraud and for the control procedures necessary to the assignment of quality labels. The  
356 common drawback of Raman spectroscopy analysis of food matrices, such as the difficult spectra interpretation  
357 are overcome thanks to user-friendly software which allow sophisticated chemometric methods to be elaborated  
358 by treating a large amount of data. The chemometric identification of variability between the different classes  
359 hits the target: wine differentiation in accordance with grape, geographical origin, and ageing time was  
360 successfully performed using a Raman spectrometer. Even if a dedicated test set constituted by external samples  
361 should be subjected to analysis in order to attest classification capability of the proposed method in a real case,

362 this proof of principle aims at demonstrating that a multivariate calibration procedure can provide consistent  
363 classification results when a substantial calibration set is subjected to spectroscopic analysis, even if the matrix is  
364 complex as wine samples are. The more specific and sensible Raman analysis of wine is, the more Raman would  
365 be exploitable for the single wine producer certification. The application of Raman spectroscopy to distinguish a  
366 single wine producer will be the next challenge, with a higher impact in commercial field.

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## 487 FIGURE CAPTIONS

488 **Figure 1**– Dolcetto d’Alba PDO (100% Dolcetto grape) (green spectrum), Barbera d’Alba PDO (minimum 85% Barbera  
489 grape) (red spectrum) and Barolo PDO (100% Nebbiolo grape) (black spectrum).

490 **Figure 2**– Cooman’s plot for Nebbiolo, Barbera, Dolcetto classification model calculated using Discriminant  
491 Analysis.

492 **Figure 3**– Loadings profiles of the first 10 PCs of the Nebbiolo, Barbera, Dolcetto classification model  
493 calculated through discriminant analysis.

494 **Figure 4**– a) Geographical representation of Dolcetto d’Alba and Dolcetto di Dogliani wine production areas.  
495 Cooman’s plot and statistical data of DA calibration. b) Geographical representation of Nebbiolo d’Alba and  
496 Nebbiolo di Novara & Carema wine production areas. Cooman’s plot and statistical data of DA calibration.

497 **Figure 5**– Cooman’s plot of Barolo and Barbaresco classification model and statistical results of calibration.

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