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Cocoa smoky off-flavour: A MS-based analytical decision maker for routine controls

(Article begins on next page)

Abstract

 Cocoa smoky off-flavour is generated from an inappropriate artificial drying applied on beans to 12 speeding up the post-harvest process and it can affect the quality of the chocolate. The sensory tests are time-consuming, and at present, a fast analytical method to detect this defect in raw materials is not yet available. This study applies a HS-SPME-MS-enose in combination with chemometrics to obtain diagnostic mass-spectral patterns to detect smoked samples and/or as analytical decision maker. SIMCA models provide the best classification results, compared to PLS- DA, with sensitivities exceeding 90% and a high class specificity range of 89-100% depending on the matrix investigated (beans or liquors). Resulting diagnostic ions were related to phenolic derivatives. The discrimination ability of the method has been confirmed by a quantitative analysis through HS-SPME-GC-MS. HS-SPME-MS-enose turned out to be a fast, cost-effective and 21 objective approach for high throughput analytical screening to discard defective cocoa samples.

 Keywords: cocoa volatiles; smoky off-flavour; phenolic derivatives; HS-SPME-MS-enose; chemometrics; HS-SPME-GC-MS

1. INTRODUCTION

 The quality of food is consumer-oriented and characterised by four closely interrelated dimensions: hedonic profile, healthy characteristics, economic convenience and the production process. Differences in quality assessment may have unfavourable consequences and lead to a product not fulfilling the expectations of consumers. Flavour is a key food quality attribute (e.g. safety and wholesomeness, physical characteristics, colour etc.) in cocoa-derived products. The flavour of chocolate heavily influences the pleasure derived from its consumption and evokes emotions, while also positively influencing the consumer's mood (Macht & Mueller, 2007; Spence, 2017; Wagner, Ahlstrom, Redden, Vickers, & Mann, 2014). The evaluation of flavour and its quality includes an appraisal of cocoa/chocolate intensity, particular flavour notes and the absence of flavour defects. Quality is dependent on how food products are handled at every touch point throughout the cocoa chain. Climate change, together with the global market pressure in response to growing demand (Eghbal, 2018) influence post-harvest processing and therefore affect the final flavour quality of the beans. The smoky off-flavour, in particular, can be generated from the inappropriate or poorly controlled artificial drying of the beans, which is performed to speed up moisture reduction (CABISCO/ECA/FCC, 2015; Perotti *et al.*, 2020; Serra Bonvehí & Ventura Coll, 1998). The smoky off-flavour also strongly affects the quality of finished chocolate (chocolate or confectionary) and cannot be eliminated during processing. This is predominantly a problem for cocoa beans from Cameroon, in West-Africa, where cocoa production originates from several small family farms, which must increasingly combat unfavourable climate change to make a profit (Eghbal, 2018; Statista, 2020; Wessel & Quist- Wessel, 2015). Some phenolic compounds, predominantly derived from lignin degradation by pyrolysis, have been related to the smoky note (Janairo & Amalin, 2018; Serra Bonvehí, 1998; Wang, Chambers, & Kan, 2018; Perotti *et al.*, 2020). Of the volatilesthat make up the smoky note,

 some components, such as guaiacols and methylphenols, have also been found to be cocoa key- aroma compounds, but their presence at high concentrations can negatively affect cocoa's sensory properties (Frauendorfer & Schieberle, 2006). In a previous article Perotti *et al.* (2020) chemically characterised the smoky off-flavour of cocoa beans and liquors using a metabolomic approach and a top-down strategy; HS-SPME was coupled with comprehensive GC equipped with a time of flight mass spectrometer (HS-SPME-GC×GC-TOF-MS) for use as a screening platform to identify informative odorants within a set of samples characterized as smoky and non-smoky by an industrial sensory panel (Perotti *et al.*, 2020). 1D-HS-SPME-GC-MS, which is used in a fully automated set-up coupled to both supervised and unsupervised chemometrics, was then used to monitor targeted discriminating compounds. Targeted smoky volatiles were then quantified using multiple headspace extraction (MHE) in cocoa beans, and a quantitative range of acceptability/rejection for the incoming cocoa beans was defined.

 Despite the good overall performance of HS-SPME-GC-MS, the main drawback for quality control is still the long analysis time, which is unfavourable for high throughput data collection. Fast analytical methods that are based on direct injection and mass spectrometry (MS-based electronic nose or MS-enose) may be a solution for the rapid discrimination of smoky from non- smoky samples (Biasioli, 2016; Biasioli, Yeretzian, Märk, Dewulf, & Van Langenhove, 2011; Deuscher *et al.*, 2019; Liberto *et al.*, 2013; Liberto *et al.*, 2019). Unlike traditional electronic noses that are based on solid-state sensors, an MS-enose uses m/z ratios as chemical sensors and is more robust and reproducible, while also being unaffected by sample moisture (Loutfi, Coradeschi, Mani, Shankar, & Rayappan, 2015). The lack of specificity of an MS-enose, when compared to systems that include chromatographic separation, is compensated by its effectiveness, fast response, non-invasive operations and adequate sensitivity even without 73 sample pre-treatment. On the other hand, the mass spectral fingerprints that are generated have

 to be diagnostic of the sampled volatile fractions, and must provide characterising fragments with abundances suitable to discriminate and modelling the categories of the investigated samples (e.g. smoky *vs* non-smoky).

 This study is therefore a step ahed of the top-down approach previously mentioned (Perotti *et al.*, 2020) to meet industry needs for speeding up analytical controls for primary materials acceptance, for industrial chocolate manufacturing, while supporting rejections with objective measurements and reliable data.

With this contribution, we would verify the following two hypotheses:

82 1. whether the contribute of spectral masses of the smoky volatiles, within a rich complex mass

spectral fingerprint, is sufficiently diagnostic to be able to discriminate samples

84 2. whether this analytical approach, in combination with a discriminant mathematical model,

can be exploited as an analytical decision maker (ADM) in a first screening control.

 This study evaluates whether a HS-SPME-MS-enose is able to discriminate smoky from non- smoky cocoa in a significant set of samples. Our driving hypothesis is that, if diagnostic ions from smoky volatiles are produced at a suitable intensity, the proposed analytical approach may be a suitable ADM for cocoa batches received at the factory.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Samples:

 The sample set included 48 bean samples (n=23 smoky/rejected and n=25 non-smoky) and 176 cocoa liquors (n= 42 smoky/rejected and n= 134 non-smoky) (*Theobroma cacao* L. main crop). Rejected and accepted samples here analysed have been selected based on the sensory tests. All samples were of commercial grade and compliant with the industrial quality control of Soremartec Italia srl (Alba, Italy). Cocoa-bean quality that was in agreement with FCC rules (Federation of Cocoa Commerce) and ISO 2451 was classified "standard beans"(FCC; ISO). Beans and liquors were directly sampled at the processing plants.

2.2 Head Space Solid Phase Micro Extraction sampling:

 Volatiles were sampled using an automatic HS-SPME system installed on an MPS-2 multipurpose sampler controlled by Gerstel Maestro software (Gerstel, Mülheim a/d Ruhr, Germany), which was combined on-line with an Agilent 7890A GC coupled to a 5975B MS detector (Agilent, Little Falls, DE, USA).

 Cocoa samples were ground in liquid nitrogen to give a homogeneous powder and then stored at -80°C until analysis. Cocoa powder (1.00 g) was weighed in headspace glass vials (20 mL), equilibrated for 5 min at 80°C and then sampled using HS-SPME for 10 min at 80 °C at a stirring speed of 350 rpm. Sampling conditions and their optimization for smoky volatiles extraction were in agreement with the experimental results reported in a previous article (Perotti *et al.*, 2020). SPME fiber: Divinylbenzene/Carboxen/Polydimethylsiloxane (DVB/CAR/PDMS) df 50/30 μm - 2 cm length from Merck (Bellefonte, PA, USA). Fibers were conditioned before use as

recommended by the manufacturer. After sampling, the recovered analytes were thermally

115 desorbed, by heating the fibre for 3 min at 250 °C, into the GC injector body from where they

were transferred on-line to the transfer capillary (Cordero *et al.*, 2019; Magnagna *et al.*, 2017,

Magagna *et al.*,2018). All samples were analysed in duplicate.

2.3 MS-enose instrument set-up:

 The GC oven and injector were maintained at 250 °C; injection mode, split; split ratio, 1/10; carrier gas, helium; flow rate, 0.4 mL/min; fibre desorption time and reconditioning, 3 min. The transfer column was uncoated deactivated fused silica tubing (dc = 0.10 mm, length = 6.70 m) from MEGA (Legnano, Italy).

 MSD Conditions: ionisation, EI mode at 70 eV; temperatures: ion source: 230 °C, transfer line: 280°C. Standard tuning was used and the scan range was set at m/z 35−350 with a scanning rate of 1,000 amu/s.

2.4 Data acquisition and elaboration

 Data were acquired and processed using an Agilent MSD Chem Station ver. E.02.01.1177 (Agilent, Little Falls, DE, USA). Raw data were transformed using RapidDataInterpretation software by Gerstel (Gerstel, Mülheim a/d Ruhr, Germany). This is a post-run macro derived from the Gerstel Chemsensor add-on tool, which expands the scope of function of the Agilent ChemStation software. This step allows the 3-dimensional raw data supplied by mass spectrometry (retention time, m/z fragmentation and intensities) to be reduced to 2-dimensional data that can then be properly used by statistical software for further elaboration. Data obtained can be in the form of a *.TIC file and/or a *.DAT file (Mass Spectral Fingerprint). In both cases, sample intensities are summed; with the TIC method, as a function of the scans, and with the DAT method, as a function of the masses. The influence of retention time is removed from the data by summing the intensities of m/z value over the complete time period of the run. The intensities of a sample are

140 added as a function of the masses. The mass axis is very stable when compared to the retention time. The result is a diagram in which an intensity is assigned exactly to each mass (**Figure 1 SM** in supplementary material). When several samples are analysed, *.DAT-file processing collects data of the whole sample set and provides a data matrix in which the rows report the samples and the columns report the intensity assigned to each mass fragment (Heiden *et al.*, 2002). Data matrices of 15,120 data points for beans (48 objects x 315 variables) and 110,880 data points for liquors (352 objects x 315 variables) were collected and elaborated further.

 The *.DAT file was used for data interpretation in this work. Raw data underwent pre-treatment that consisted of noise subtraction and internal normalisation of the signal from each sample versus the most intense ions (m/z 43, basic peak taken as 1); they were subsequently pre-processed.

 Chemometric analyses, Principal component analysis (PCA), SIMCA (Soft-Independent modelling of Class Analogy) and Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) were carried out using Pirouette® (Comprehensive Chemometrics Modelling Software, version 4.5-2014) (Infometrix, Inc. Bothell, WA).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

 The challenge in metabolomic studies is to simultaneously analyse a high number of metabolites that are of very different size, molecular weight, polarity and stability. Cocoa-bean volatiles are the final stage of the expression of changes in the metabolome that is the result of the production chain (Biasoli, 2016; Cevallos-Cevallos, Reyes-De-Corcuera, Etxeberria, Danyluk, & Rodrick, 2009; Ellis, 2019). They are influenced by external factors, e.g. climate and environmental conditions,

 ripening, time of harvest, fermentation and post-harvest processing (and roasting for liquors). The physical and chemical interactions of all the compounds present in the volatile fraction therefore result in the final attributes of the product, which include sensory acceptability, quality, safety and shelf life (Acierno, Yener, Alewijn, Biasioli, & Van Ruth, 2016; Charles *et al.*, 2015; Liberto *et al.*, 2019). The identification of the volatiles and the interactions that are responsible for the characteristics of a food therefore facilitates the improved control and understanding of the food processes and systems that influence final-product characteristics (Gloess *et al.*, 2014; Liberto *et al.*, 2013; Lindinger *et al.*, 2008). However, chromatographic profiling and fingerprinting cannot be performed quickly enough to meet the requirements of a routine control system for the acceptability of incoming raw material at the production plant. This issue can be addressed by the direct injection of the sampled headspace into a mass spectrometer, which is here based on a quadrupole mass analyser (MS-enose).

 As previously reported by Perotti *et al.* (Perotti *et al.*, 2020), in cocoa, smoky volatiles are, in general, present at trace levels, and diagnostic fragments are mandatory if their presence is to 177 be confirmed; possible interference from isobaric ions that derive from components present in higher amounts may hamper the correct discrimination of smoky from non-smoky samples (hypothesis-driven approach). If their differentiation is still possible, other volatiles that are correlated to the smoky components must then be considered (hypothesis-generating approach). This last hypothesis is challenging and would require an in-depth investigation into the relationships between these components/ions, the smoky volatiles and the chemical fragmentation involved.

 An explorative investigation by PCA was first carried out on bean and liquor samples to better understand the real potential, and possible limits, of the informative power of MS-enose fingerprinting in the description of samples, with or without the smoky defect.

3.1 Explorative unsupervised data analysis on beans and liquors

 PCA results show fairly good separation between smoky (in red) and non-smoky (green) bean samples with an explained variance of 63.9% **(Figure 1a)**. This is acceptable discrimination if we consider that the sample set was representative of different harvesting years (2017 and 2018), (evidenced along the first PC1) and of different harvest regions (Cameroon and Ecuador). In this case, the functional variables (harvest year and region) for the samples were kept to verify MS- enose fingerprinting's ability to discriminate the smoky defect even in presence of confounding external factors. The loadings plot (**Figure 1b**) shows several ions that are linked to the smoky characteristic, in particular on PC2, together with the harvest time on the first PC. On the other hand, the PCA on the whole data set of liquors (n=176) shows lower informative potential, in grouping, on the first two PCs, but demonstrates fairly good discrimination between smoky and non-smoky samples when further PCs are considered (**Figure 1c**)**.** A possible explanation is that the roasting and the grinding processes heavily influence the presence of these components, either because of the effect of temperature and pressure or because of the physical changes in 201 the matrix that are caused by the melting of the cocoa butter to give the cocoa pastes. However, 202 the ions that describe the smoky clusters are the same regardless of whether beans or liquors are considered (**Figure 1b and 1d**).

 The clusters shown in PCA suggest that supervised approaches should be adopted to define models for sample classification. In the next sections, two supervised approaches for the classification of bean and liquor samples, PLS-DA and SIMCA, will be considered.

3.2 Supervised data analysis on beans and liquors

 PLS-DA is a discriminant classification that uses regression that is constructed between X, used 209 as the predictor matrix the (m/z) variables, and the response Y, which indicates the category (ki); n this case, *K*=1 for smoky and *K*=2 for non-smoky beans. The discrimination rule is based on the comparison of each row of the predicted matrix *Ŷ* with each pattern response vector. A sample, *i*, is categorised into the class, k , whose pattern is the closest match. The matrix \hat{Y} is treated as the input data set for classification to evaluate the distance between a sample and a class pattern. However, this cannot be done directly because this matrix has a rank of *K–1*, and the 215 corresponding covariance matrix is singular. Matrix \hat{Y} is decomposed using PCA, which reduces its dimension to *K–1*, to resolve this singularly. The scores matrix *T* represents a new data set to which a classification method can be applied.

218 SIMCA is considered soft class modelling because there are no hypotheses for the distribution of 219 variables and their independence because each category model is developed independently and 220 no information from the other categories is used. The mathematical model of each class is based 221 on the principal components of the category, generally obtained as eigenvectors of the 222 correlation coefficient matrix of the category. For a given class, the model dimensions are 223 described either by a line (for one PC), by a plane (for two PCs) or by a hyper-plane (for more 224 than two PCs). The range of scores onto such significant PCs defines the class space. New samples 225 are projected in each PC space, which describes a specific class, and the F-test is used to evaluate 226 the Euclidean distances of the objects from the model.

227 Class modelling differs from discriminant classification mainly because the focus is on a single 228 category; the modelling approach characterises the class of interest against all the others. Class 229 modelling may give a composite answer: 1) compliance with the model for one category only; 2) 230 multiple compliance, with models of several categories; 3) non-classification: a new sample may 231 be rejected by the models of all the categories under study.

3.2.1 Bean classification

 To develop the classification model, the sample set was divided into a training set (n=41) and an external test set (n=24). PLS-DA results are reported in **Figure 2a and b**, which displays the scores and loadings plots of the training-set sample classification. The ion fragments with higher 237 discriminant power for smoky beans are highlighted in yellow. These (m/z)s were found to be characteristic for several phenolic compounds and, in the current mode, they have a role in the description of the smoky-bean flavour. The classification ability for the calibration of the PLS-DA cross-validated model (CV=5) is 95.1%, as can be extrapolated from the confusion matrix in **Figure 3**. Despite the good results on the training set, the model shows a correct prediction classification rate of only 83.3% when applied to the external test set, which was not used to train the model. However, the prediction displays good specificity for both classes and a sensitivity of 80% for the classification of the smoky flavour. This means that the model has quite a good ability to predict class for unknown samples with high specificity for the smoky favour, but a lower specificity for non-smoky favours, which can generate false negatives, i.e. indicating good samples when they are not. This must be taken into consideration as a risk for subsequent processing.

 SIMCA modelling results are displayed in **Figure 4a**, which shows that the two groups are well recognizable. **Figure 4b** shows the class distance between smoky (CS1) and non-smoky (CS2) samples; Cooman's plot displays good separation between classes without overlapping, with the 251 exception of sample "NSBCm2_2" (i.e., non-smoky beans from Cameroon). The variables (i.e., 252 m/z ions) that have little or high importance for any class in the training set are shown in the modelling power in **Figure 4c.** Variables close to 1 have a high impact on the description of the training set. At the same time, it may be useful to know the best variables to classify the samples categories through the discriminant power. In particular, for each variable, it compares the average residual variance of each class fit to all other classes, and the residual variance of all classes fit to themselves, thus providing an indication of how a variable discriminates between a "correct" and "incorrect" classification. variable value close to 0 indicates low discrimination ability, while a value that is much larger than 1 implies high discrimination power. **Figure 4d** shows the ion fragments with the highest discriminant power in the two sample categories. Of 261 the high modelling and discriminant variables, some fragments ((m/z)) that are characteristic of several phenolic compounds have a role in the description of the smoky beans flavour. These compounds have also been identified as being responsible for smoky-hammy notes in other food matrices (Aprotosoaie, Vlad Luca, & Miron, 2016; CABISCO/ECA/FCC, 2015; Petričević, Marušić Radovčić, Lukić, Listeš, & Medić, 2018; Ridgway, Lalljie, & Smith, 2010; Serra Bonvehí & Ventura Coll, 1998). In particular, m/z 107-108-109, 124 and 138 are diagnostic for isomers of methyl phenols (*cresol isomers*) and *guaiacol*, while m/z 125-152-154 are diagnostic for *p-ethyl guaiacol*, *4-methyl-2,6-dimethoxyphenol* and *2,6-dimethoxyphenol*, and m/z 128 for *naphthalene* (Perotti *et al.*, 2020). The smoky-compound-related ions account for 40%, on average, of the whole gas chromatographic profile acquired using 1D-GC-MS.

 Classification ability in calibration, for the SIMCA model, was 100%, as shown in **Figure 3a**. The developed model was applied to the external test set (not used to train the model) and showed global prediction classification with a sensitivity of 91.6% and a specificity of 100%, as shown in **Figure 3b** by the confusion matrix. In addition, the class specificity is excellent and the sensitivity 275 of the model for both classes is above 90%. This means that class modelling is robust, without giving false-positive or false-negative sample classifications, and that only 8.40% of the samples should be investigated further by a sensory panel or by a confirmatory method to verify their acceptability (Perotti *et al.*, 2020).

3.2.2 Liquor classification

 Liquor classification also need to be investigated because primary materials may either be beans or liquors at the cocoa production plant, depending on the country of origin and supplier.

 The liquor sample set was unbalanced as it contained a higher number of the non-smoky category. Both classification approaches, however, showed similar prediction abilities, 92% and 97% for PLS-DA and SIMCA respectively (**Figure 3b** and **Figure 5b** and **5e**). SIMCA training and test-set prediction is depicted in the hyper-plane of the first 3 PCs in **Figure 5a-b**, while PLS-DA prediction on the test set is displayed by the prediction plots of **Figure 5d** and **5e**. In the prediction plot of **Figure 5d**, reference lines (in light green) indicate the decision criterion space for class membership; only samples with Y values greater than 0.5 are called category members. Therefore, the red samples in the plot are all above the membership criterion for CS2, that is, class 2 (i.e., non-smoky liquors), which is on the X axis, while the green samples fall above the decision criterion for class 1 (e.g., smoky liquors), on the Y axis. **Figure 5e** clearly shows the predicted y values and the samples that are classified outside their group in the blue circles. Discriminant variables for SIMCA, as shown in **Figure 5c**, were found to be m/z 152 and 154, which represent *phenethyl alcohol* and *p-ethyl guaiacol* (m/z=152) at 96% and *2,6- dimethoxyphenol* (m/z=154) at 81% on the 1D-GC-MS chromatographic profile. The same variables and m/z 107, 123, 137, 138 are diagnostic for isomers of *phenol*, *methyl phenols* (*cresol isomers*) and *p-ethylguaiacol* **Figure 5f**, whose abundance in the 1D-GC-MS chromatographic pattern of liquors for the above-cited volatiles is 62% **(Figure 2 SM)** (Perotti *et al.*, 2020). The mass spectra of several smoky components present in commercial mass spectral libraries (i.e. Wiley7N and NIST2014) are displayed in **Figure 3 SM** in the supplementary file.

 Despite the unbalanced number of samples in the classes, the two supervised approaches show similar classification/modelling performance. However, SIMCA modelling has higher specificity for both classes and the highest sensitivity for CS1 (i.e. smoky samples). This means that a model for discrimination between smoky and non-smoky liquors is feasible and that it may be exploited as a second filter through the chocolate processing chain, for instance. Discrimination between good and bad beans can be considered the first step for conformity to the qualitative standard in cocoa-bean acceptance, also for economic reasons, while the second filter can be used on liquors to reinforce the reduction of the impact of the off-flavour on the final product, while maintaining its standard quality.

 Samples that are excluded from the model or unclearly classified can be submitted to a confirmatory validated method (Cordero *et al.*, 2019; Perotti *et al.*, 2020).

3.3 Qualitative and quantitative confirmation analytical method

 A confirmatory method that is based on a reference standard material is not feasible due to the lack of a cocoa smoky reference standard. Furthermore, several smoky volatiles are also endogenous components in beans and even more so in liquors. Spiking methods, performed via the addition of standard reference compounds, would falsify the quantitation due to their non- homogeneous distribution in the cocoa (beans and liquors), because of the heterogeneous nature of the solid matrix. Therefore, the sensory-driven screening method applied above has 321 been cross-validated using a confirmatory quali-qualtitativequantitative analysis; multiple headspace extraction (MHS-SPME) combined with 1D-GC-MS (Perotti *et al.*, 2020; Sgorbini *et al.*, 2019). MHS-SPME-1D-GC-MS was validated in terms of its repeatability (intra-day repeatability) and intermediate precision (inter-day repeatability) for beans and liquors. The ISTD-normalised

 analyte area responses of a set of 15 compounds were then processed using one-way ANOVA and Tukeys' comparative analysis on the data acquired from a quality-control smoky sample of both beans and liquors (QCs), on four different days in different weeks, analysed in triplicate. **Table 1** displays the intra-day (repeatability) and inter-day precision for the quantified smoky markers. Precision is expressed as RSD% on analyte normalized area responses. Results indicate good intra/inter-day precision for both beans and liquors. The Limit of Detection (LOD) was determined from the standard calibration curve, as LOD=3*Sa/b, where Sa is the standard deviation of the response and b is the slope of the calibration curve, while the Limit of Quantification LOQ was calculated as 3.3*LOD. The LOD and LOQ of the smoky markers are also reported in **Table 1** together with the odour qualities, odour thresholds, target and qualifier ions that were used for their quantitation and qualification. The accuracy of the screening method was evaluated by cross-comparison with the quantitative results obtained using MHE-SPME-1D- GC-MS. **Figures 4 and 5 SM** display box plots of the quantitative results on non-matched or false positive samples (doubtful) that were obtained by class modelling. The quantitation of the selected markers allows an operative limit, of below 10 ng/g for beans and 100 ng/g for liquors, to be adopted for the acceptance of incoming cocoa samples, **Figure 6 SM** and **Table 1**.

4. CONCLUSION

 The HS-SPME-MS-enose, in combination with chemometric tools, delineate a successful work- flow for the detection of defective "smoky" samples (beans or liquors) and their discrimination from "non-smoky" ones, thus confirming our driving hypothesis. The validation of the models was performed at two levels: via internal validation (cross-validation), using a training set, and via an external validation test set. Diagnostic fragments of phenolic derivatives correlated to these models enable to assess the classification ability of the MS-enose method through a cross verified evaluation of the actual concentration of smoky compounds using MHE-SPME-1D-GC- MS. Despite 1) the compositional complexity of the bean and liquor volatilomes, 2) the low concentration of the smoky targeted markers compared to the major volatiles, and 3) the possible co-contribution of several different analytes to the fragment intensities, the sensitivity of the technique's multi-channel nature is sufficiently diagnostic, making it possible to mathematically model the variation in mass spectral fingerprints using multivariate regression procedures. In particular, the high specificity of the SIMCA models indicates that there is a low probability of false positive/negative classifications, although this occurred to a lesser extent for the smoky class in liquors. These features mean that the MS-enose can be exploited as an analytical decision maker for screening controls of both beans and liquors. Possible unclearly or non-classified samples can be reasonably verified using a conventional analytical confirmation method via the quantitation of the smoky components. Moreover, the analytical system is versatile since it can be used for both a conventional setting for GC-MS and in MS-enose mode and is therefore suitable for a high-throughput, objective and cost-effective quality control.

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Table caption

 Table 1. Average concentrations of targeted smoky markers, respectively for smoky and non- smoky samples, together with their odour quality (The Good Scents Company Information System, 2018), odour threshold (ng/g orthonasal from oily matrix) as reported in the literature (Vichi, Romero, Tous, Tamames, & Buxaderas, 2008); *OT in water (Biotechnology National Center, 2020; Buckpitt, Alan, Kephalopoulos, Stylianos, Koistinen, Kimmo, Kotzias, Dimitrios, Morawska, Lidia and Sagunski, 2010); Target ion (Ti) and qualifiers (Q1-Q2), adopted for their quantitation and identification, intra- inter-day precision, LOD and LOQ.

Figure Captions

 Figure 1. PCA score plots of a) beans and b) liquors and the corresponding loading plots c) and d). Data were logarithmicaly (Log10) transformed and pre-processed by autoscaling. Red spots indicate smoky samples, green spots are non-smoky.

 Figure 2. a) and b) PLS-DA score plot and loading plot of beans using an internal cross-validated method (CV=5), c) classification prediction of the external test set of samples. Data were transformed by autoscaling. Red spots indicate smoky samples, green spots are non-smoky.

 Figure 3. Confusion matrices of bean and liquor classification in calibration (a) and in prediction on the test set (b), respectively for SIMCA and PLS-DA, together with sensitivity, specificity and correct classification rate values. CS1: Class 1, smoky beans, CS2: Class 2, non-smoky beans.

 Figure 4. a) SIMCA beans classification scores plot. Data were transformed using a logarithmic scale and autoscaled. Explained variance on the first 3 PCs: 66.9%. b) Interclass distances between smoky and non-smoky samples, c) variables that impact on the modelling and d) discriminant variables in class classification. Red spots indicate smoky samples, green spots are non-smoky.

 Figure 5. a-c) Liquor modelling using the SIMCA training set, test set and the discriminant variables of the model. d-f) PLS-DA prediction plot, predicted members in the two classes and discriminant variables for the classification. CS1: Class 1 smoky beans, CS2: Class 2 non-smoky beans.

Supplementary material

 Figure 1 SM. Flow-chart from raw-data acquisition to the raw-data matrix for suitable chemometrics. Total ion chromatogram (TIC) of bean-volatile fingerprints represents the 3-D data that is transformed, by the rapid data interpretation software, into 2-D data the Mass spectral fingerprint (*.DAT) and the subsequent data matrix obtained from several mass spectral fingerprints.

 Figure 2 SM. a) Liquor HS-SPME-GC-MS patterns of the TIC (Total ion current), and b) MIC (Mixed Ion Chromatogram: m/z 107, 123, 137, 138, 152, 154) with the recognised volatiles that contained diagnostic ions, set in the MIC.

 Figure 3 SM. Mass-spectra fragments of smoky components from commercial mass spectral libraries (Wiley7N and NIST14)

Figure 4.SM. Box plots of the quantified smoky markers in false positive smoky beans

Figure 5 SM. Box plots of the quantified smoky markers in false positive smoky liquors

 Figure 6 SM. Quantitative rejection ranges of the smoky markers (brown colour) for a) beans and b) liquors

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-

a)

PredCS1@5 PredCS2@5 No match

ActualCS1 19 0 1 ActualCS2 0 20 1 *Sensitivity Specificity* Total CS1 95.0 ¹⁰⁰ 95.1% CS2 95.2 100

Figure 4

 1.5

Figure 5

Cocoa smoky off-flavour: a MS-based analytical decision maker for routine controls

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Figure 1 SM

Figure 2 SM

Figure 3SM

Figure 4 SM

Figure 5 SM

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SMOKY DOUBTFUL NON-SMOKY

SMOKY DOUBTFUL NON-SMOKY

SMOKY DOUBTFUL NON-SMOKY

Liquors' rejection range

Production of Emma

Phenol

PC(reso)

