

**CHARACTERIZATION AND AUTHENTICATION OF SPANISH PDO WINE  
VINEGARS USING MULTIDIMENSIONAL FLUORESCENCE AND CHEMOMETRICS**

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**Running Title:** Characterization and authentication of Spanish PDO vinegars by  
fluorescence and chemometrics.

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1 **Abstract**

2 This work assesses the potential of multidimensional fluorescence spectroscopy  
3 combined with chemometrics for characterization and authentication of Spanish  
4 Protected Designation of Origin wine vinegars. Seventy-nine vinegars of different  
5 categories (aged and sweet) belonging to the Spanish PDOs “*Vinagre de Jerez*”,  
6 “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” and “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*”, were analyzed by  
7 excitation-emission fluorescence spectroscopy. A visual assessment of fluorescence  
8 landscapes pointed out different trends with vinegar categories. PARAllel FACtor  
9 analysis (PARAFAC) extracted the potential fluorophores and their values in the PDO  
10 vinegars. This information, coupled with different classification methods (Partial Least  
11 Square Discrimination Analysis “PLS-DA” and Support Vectors Machines “SVM”), was  
12 able to discriminate the wine vinegar category within each PDO, for which SVM models  
13 obtained better results (>92% of classification). In each category, SVM also allows the  
14 differentiation between PDOs. The proposed methodology could be used as an  
15 analysis method for the authentication of Spanish PDO wine vinegars.



## 16 1. Introduction

17 Vinegar is a product used worldwide as a condiment and food preserving agent,  
18 obtained by a double fermentation process (alcoholic and acetic fermentation) of  
19 sugary and starchy substrates (FAO, 1998). Vinegar can be produced by different  
20 methods and raw materials (such as malt, apple, rice, etc.), among which, wine vinegar  
21 is the most commonly produced and consumed vinegar in Mediterranean countries and  
22 Central Europe (Polo & Sanchez-Luengo, 1991).

23 For many years, wine vinegar has been considered as a low-cost secondary  
24 product spontaneously derived from wine production. However, in recent years wine  
25 vinegar has become a valued food product much appreciated in gastronomy. As a  
26 result, the demand for high-quality wine vinegars has significantly increased over the  
27 last years. In this framework, Spain is one of the major producers of high-quality wine  
28 vinegars, including three of the five types of vinegar registered in Europe (Council  
29 Regulation (EC) No 510/2006) with a “Protected Designation of Origin” (PDO): “*Vinagre*  
30 *de Jerez*”, “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” and “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” (Table I  
31 Supplemental Material). The production of these high-quality PDO wine vinegars in  
32 Spain is centered in Andalusia, each of them made from the corresponding protected  
33 wines (*Jerez, Montilla-Moriles and Condado de Huelva*), which provides singular and  
34 specific characteristics to each vinegar. In addition, the production of high-quality  
35 vinegars requires an ageing period in wooden butts. During the period of aging, some  
36 chemical modifications take place providing them with unique organoleptic properties  
37 and higher sensory quality (Morales, Tesfaye, García-Parrilla, Casas, & Troncoso,  
38 2002). According to the sweetness, time and method of ageing (“*criaderas and solera*”  
39 and “*añada*” system), different categories are considered within each Spanish PDO  
40 (Table 1).

41 The longer aging time is directly related to both the higher quality and production  
42 costs of these wine vinegars. This fact increases the final market price and makes the  
43 quality assurance and authentication of the Spanish PDOs wine vinegars an important  
44 issue. For this reason, objective analytical methodologies are required to guarantee the  
45 wine vinegar authenticity and fight against frauds. However, the most common  
46 analytical techniques used for the characterization and authentication of these vinegars  
47 rely on chromatographic methods that are often expensive and time-consuming  
48 (Aceña, Vera, Guasch, Busto, & Mestres, 2011; Cirlini, Caligiani, Palla, & Palla, 2011).  
49 Thus, in recent years there has been a growing interest in developing rapid,

50 inexpensive, non-destructive and direct methodologies based on non-targeted  
51 techniques for food authentication. Fluorescence spectroscopy has been increasingly  
52 applied as a competitive, high sensitivity, fast and non-destructive technique in food  
53 analysis (Karoui & Blecker, 2011). This spectroscopic technique has been more  
54 commonly used in wine (Airado-Rodríguez, Galeano-Díaz, Durán-Merás, & Wold,  
55 2009; Azcarate et al., 2015), but rarely adopted for wine vinegar samples (Callejón et  
56 al., 2012) and hence, there is still scarce information about vinegar fluorescent  
57 components.

58 In this sense, wine vinegar is a very complex multi-component mixture of chemical  
59 compounds due to its traditional making procedure, the raw material used and the  
60 ageing period and method employed. Some of these chemical compounds are  
61 polyphenols, amino acids and vitamins (Airado-Rodríguez, Durán-Merás, Galeano-  
62 Díaz, & Wold, 2011), whose presence is related to the wine chemical basis. To handle  
63 this complexity, fluorescence multidimensional measurements, such as excitation-  
64 emission fluorescence spectroscopy, combined with adequate multi-way methods  
65 (Andersen & Bro, 2003; Sádecká & Tóthová, 2007) have been proven to be useful for  
66 characterization of complex food matrices (Callejón et al., 2012; Christensen, Becker,  
67 & Frederiksen, 2005; Elcoroaristizabal et al., 2016; Lenhardt, Bro, Zeković, Dramićanin,  
68 & Dramićanin, 2015). Measuring the emission spectra at different excitation  
69 wavelengths results into a bi-dimensional Excitation-Emission Matrix (EEM), which  
70 contains unique information of each measured sample. Therefore, a three dimensional  
71 array is obtained when all the samples are gathered together, so requiring an  
72 appropriate data processing for its interpretation.

73 An adequate multiway method, such as PARAllel FACtor Analysis (PARAFAC), can  
74 be used to decompose fluorescence EEMs into different independent groups of  
75 fluorescence components (fluorophores), as well as their relative concentration  
76 (scores) in each sample (Bro, 1997). The information provided by the resolved  
77 fluorophores has been successfully applied in food quality control, since it can reveal  
78 clearer insights into the relationships between the intrinsic food properties and the  
79 quality of the product. For instance, EEM-PARAFAC has been applied for monitoring  
80 the changes occurring during the storage and production of different food samples  
81 (Christensen, Becker, & Frederiksen, 2005; Elcoroaristizabal et al., 2016) and their  
82 characterization (Lenhardt et al., 2015; Tena, Aparicio, & García-González, 2012).  
83 Furthermore, the information obtained after EEM data decomposition by PARAFAC

84 modeling could be coupled with different classification methods in order to characterize  
85 and classify different food products or detect fraudulent samples (Callejón et al., 2012).

86 There are numerous classification algorithms such as Partial Least Square  
87 Discrimination Analysis (PLS-DA), K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), Support Vector  
88 Machines (SVM) and Soft Independent Modelling of Class Analogy (SIMCA) (Cover &  
89 Hart, 1967; Vapnik, 1999; Wold, 1966; Wold, 1976). Among them, Partial Least  
90 Squares-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) and Support Vectors Machines (SVM) are  
91 two of the most common used ones. PLS-DA is a supervised class-modelling method  
92 used for building linear discriminant models (Nocairi, Qannari, Vigneau, & Bertrand,  
93 2005), which has been successfully applied to a wide variety of food matrices for  
94 classification purposes (Azcarate, Cantarelli, Pellerano, Marchevsky, & Camiña, 2013;  
95 Lenhardt et al., 2015; Liu, He, & Wang, 2008). The main advantage of the PLS-DA  
96 approach is the ability of handling highly collinear and noisy data. However, one of the  
97 main issues is that PLS-DA models need a sufficient and balanced amount of samples  
98 for each class; and sometimes it is difficult to acquire sufficient samples of some  
99 classes, due to their cost of production or their non-availability in the market. Moreover,  
100 classes that are not effectively separated linearly are common in food products.  
101 Support Vector Machines (SVM) is an effective non-linear machine learning technique  
102 suitable for both classification and regression analysis (Xu, Zomer, & Brereton, 2006).  
103 In comparison to PLS-DA, the main advantage of SVM is its flexibility in modelling  
104 complex classification problems that are non-linear. A common disadvantage of SVM is  
105 the lack of transparency of the results, since there are no statistics such as scores and  
106 loadings available for easy visualization.

107 Several researchers have tested the SVM's performance in different food  
108 authentication problems obtaining better results than other traditional classification  
109 methods. For instance, Acevedo et al. (2007) (Acevedo, Jiménez, Maldonado,  
110 Domínguez, & Narváez, 2007) observed that SVM performed better than SIMCA, k-  
111 NN, and PLS-DA for discrimination of wines according to their PDO, which also  
112 enabled the selection of the most relevant UV-Vis wavelengths for samples  
113 classification. In the same way Callejón et al. (2012) (Callejón et al., 2012) proved that  
114 SVM in conjunction with excitation-emission fluorescence spectroscopy was a more  
115 adequate methodology than PLS-DA for the classification of sherry vinegars according  
116 to their ageing time. However, the aforementioned study was only focused on the  
117 classification of a limited number of wine vinegar categories (aged vinegars) belonging  
118 to one Spanish PDO ("*Vinagre de Jerez*").

119

120 In this context, the aim of this work was to investigate the feasibility of using  
121 excitation-emission fluorescence spectroscopy combined with several chemometric  
122 techniques for characterization and classification of the three Spanish PDOs wine  
123 vinegars and their commercialized categories. First, EEM data will be analyzed by  
124 PARAFAC in order to characterize spectroscopically and chemically different  
125 commercialized wine vinegar categories (aged and sweet) according to each Spanish  
126 PDO. Then, these results will be used to build reliable classification models able to  
127 differentiate between the wine vinegar categories corresponding to each Spanish PDO,  
128 and each PDO within the same wine vinegar category.

129

## 130 **2. Materials and Methods**

131

### 132 **2.1 Wine vinegar samples**

133 Seventy-nine wine vinegar samples from the three Spanish PDOs coming from  
134 several producers were analyzed in this study (Table 1): 30 “*Vinagre de Jerez*”, 18  
135 “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” and 21 “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” samples.  
136 Among the aged categories, these vinegars are aged by the traditional system called  
137 “*criaderas and solera*”, except for the “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva Añada*” which is  
138 aged by using the static aging system called “*añada*”. Regarding the “*Pedro Ximenez*”  
139 category, it should be highlighted that this sweet category differs from the aged  
140 category not only by the aging time but also by other factors such as their different  
141 production process. Thus, they are produced by the addition of must of raisined “*Pedro*  
142 *Ximenez*” grapes (in the case of “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*”) or the addition of “*Pedro*  
143 *Ximenez*” wine to the vinegar. All the samples were purchased from local wineries  
144 working in compliance with current regulations of each Spanish PDO. The samples  
145 were collected in triplicate and stored in amber vials at room temperature until the  
146 analysis.

147 Within each PDO, a different number of samples were collected for the established  
148 categories (aged and sweet) according to the production/sale rates of each category  
149 during the last years (2014-2015). In these years, the general trend for the three  
150 Spanish PDOs reveals a higher production of the categories with less ageing time due  
151 to market trends. For instance, “*Vinagre de Jerez*” (JCR) represented approximately  
152 60% of total sales in the PDO “*Vinagre de Jerez*”, while sales of “*Vinagre de Jerez*  
153 *Reserva*” (JRE) and “*Vinagre de Jerez Gran Reserva*” (JGR) accounted for 40% and  
154 1% of the total, respectively. Similarly, “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” (CSC)  
155 category had the highest sales growth up 38% of the total. Meanwhile among the aged

156 categories of “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” PDO, the most commercialized vinegar  
157 categories were, in decreasing order: “*Solera*” (CSO), “*Reserva*” (CRE) and “*Añada*”  
158 (CAN). In the same way, “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles Crianza*” (MCR) was the most  
159 commercialized one of the “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” PDO due to the recent  
160 incorporation to the Spanish PDOs.

## 161 **2.2 Fluorescence analysis**

162 Fluorescence measurements were recorded using a Varian Cary-Eclipse  
163 fluorescence spectrophotometer (Varian Iberica, Madrid, Spain), equipped with two  
164 Czerny-Turner monochromators, and a Xenon discharge lamp pulsed at 80 Hz with a  
165 half peak height of  $\sim 2 \mu\text{s}$  (peak power equivalent to 75 kW). A high-performance R298  
166 photomultiplier tube detector was used for collection of the fluorescence spectra. Wine  
167 vinegar samples were directly analysed without sample pre-treatment by pipetting them  
168 into 3.5 mL quartz cuvettes before measurement. Standard quartz cells (Hellma  
169 Analytics, Müllheim, Germany) of 1 cm path length were used to carry out the  
170 measurements in a Peltier thermostatted cuvette holder ( $25.00 \pm 0.05 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ). The  
171 spectrometer was interfaced to a computer with Cary-Eclipse software for spectral  
172 acquisition and exportation.

173 The fluorescence Excitation-Emission Matrices (EEMs) were obtained by varying  
174 the excitation wavelength ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}$ ) ranging between 250 and 700 nm (every 5 nm), and  
175 recording the emission spectra ( $\lambda_{\text{em}}$ ) from 300 to 800 (every 2 nm). For these  
176 measurements, excitation and emission slits were both set at 5 nm, and the scan rate  
177 was fixed to  $1200 \text{ nm min}^{-1}$ . The system was wavelength calibrated every day by  
178 means of the water Raman peak to account for a possible wavelength drift of the  
179 instrument. EEMs were registered by triplicate for each sample and preprocessed in  
180 order to avoid noisy and non-informative areas by selecting shorter spectral ranges ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}}$   
181 from 250 to 680 nm, and  $\lambda_{\text{em}}$  from 310 to 800 nm).

182

## 183 **2.3 Software and data analysis**

184 EEM data analysis was performed by using the PLS\_Toolbox 7.9.5 (Eigenvector  
185 Research Inc., Wenatchee, WA) working under Matlab v.8.5.0 environment (The  
186 Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA). Before the analysis, EEMs data were corrected for –  
187 Rayleigh and Raman scattering (Elcoroaristizabal, Bro, García, & Alonso, 2015) – by  
188 removing and replacing the scattering areas with interpolated values by using the  
189 FLUCUT function included in the PLS\_Toolbox. FLUCUT Removes Rayleigh scattering  
190 (and possibly Raman) by inserting NaN and 0 values in Excitation-Emission Matrices



191 (EEMs) where the Rayleigh bands are. Alternatively, FLUCUT may also be used to  
192 generate weights that can be used for deweighting (instead of eliminating) these  
193 regions.

### 194 2.3.1 Parallel Factor Analysis (PARAFAC)

195 PARAllel FACtor models were performed on the corrected EEM data in order to  
196 extract the relevant information and develop models for: (1) different wine vinegar  
197 categories belonging to the same Spanish PDO, and (2) similar wine vinegar  
198 categories belonging to different Spanish PDOs.

199 Before modelling, the EEM landscapes corresponding to the same Spanish  
200 PDO (1) were rearranged into a three-dimensional structure ( $\mathbf{X}$ ) of size (3 replicated  
201 samples  $\times \lambda_{em} \times \lambda_{ex}$ ): 90  $\times$  246  $\times$  87 for the PDO “*Vinagre de Jerez*”, 54  $\times$  246  $\times$  87 for  
202 the PDO “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*”, and 63  $\times$  246  $\times$  87 for the PDO “*Vinagre de*  
203 *Condado de Huelva*”. In a similar way, the EEM landscapes corresponding to similar  
204 wine vinegar categories but different Spanish PDOs (2) were organized into a three-  
205 way array ( $\mathbf{X}$ ) of size (3 replicated samples  $\times \lambda_{em} \times \lambda_{ex}$ ): 78  $\times$  246  $\times$  87 for “*Crianza*”, 66  
206  $\times$  246  $\times$  87 for “*Reserva*” category, and 27  $\times$  246  $\times$  87 for “*Pedro Ximenez*” categories.  
207 No PARAFAC analysis was carried out for the “*Gran Reserva*” category due to the  
208 limited number of samples.

209 Then, each three-way dataset ( $\mathbf{X}$ ) was decomposed by PARAFAC (Bro, 1998).  
210 The proper number of factors for each model was determined by using the CORE  
211 CONSistency DIAgnostic test (CORCONDIA) (Bro & Kiers, 2003), the percentage of  
212 variance explained by the model and the visual inspection of the recovered spectral  
213 profiles and residuals. Non-negative constraints for all modes (concentrations and both  
214 spectral profiles) were applied to obtain meaningful chemical solutions.

215

### 216 2.3.2 Classification methods

217 Partial Least Squares-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) (Nocairi et al., 2005) and  
218 Support Vectors Machines (SVM) (Vapnik, 1999) algorithms were used to build  
219 classification models for discrimination the wine vinegar category within each Spanish  
220 PDO. On the one hand, PLS-DA is a classification method based on partial least  
221 squares regression (PLS) that transforms the data into a set of linear latent variables  
222 for predicting the dependent or class variable, making models that allow the maximum  
223 separation among classes. The class variable forms a so-called dummy matrix that  
224 indicates whether a sample belongs to a certain class or category. In our study, three

225 different wine vinegar categories were considered in each Spanish PDO, therefore, the  
226 dimensions of each dummy matrix was 3x3.

227 On the other hand, SVM is a relative new chemometric tool based on the statistical  
228 learning theory (SLT). It is a supervised learning method that searches for the optimal  
229 separating hyperplane between the different data classes by maximizing the distance  
230 between the hyperplane and the closest samples of the training set (the support  
231 vectors), keeping the classification error as low as possible (Xu et al., 2006). Only two  
232 parameters need to be tuned in SVM, including C (cost) and the kernel parameter  $\gamma$  in  
233 Gaussian kernel function. C is a tuning parameter, which weights in-sample  
234 classification errors and controls the generalization ability of an SVM. Moreover, within  
235 the different kernel functions, an appropriate  $\gamma$  parameter is related to a stable  
236 generalization performance. Furthermore, this method does not need a large number of  
237 samples to be trained, it is not affected by the presence of outliers and it has been  
238 successfully applied to solve a variety of practical classification problems (Acevedo et  
239 al., 2007; Liu et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2006).

240 As the results obtained in our study for the classification of wine vinegar categories  
241 within each PDO showed that SVM developed better classification models, only  
242 Support Vectors Machines (SVM) was used to build classification models for  
243 distinguishing the Spanish PDOs in each similar wine vinegar category ("*Crianza*",  
244 "*Reserva*" and "*Pedro Ximenez*"). For both approaches, scores of each sample from  
245 PARAFAC models were used, 95% confidence intervals were considered for the  
246 classification models and vinegar samples were randomly divided into two groups.

247 The first group of samples (training set), comprising the 75% of samples, was used  
248 for calibration and internal validation of the models by means of a venetian blinds  
249 cross-validation procedure. For discrimination of the wine vinegar category within each  
250 Spanish PDO, this dataset (samples analysed in triplicate) was formed by 63 ("*Vinagre*  
251 *de Jerez*"), 33 ("*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*"), and 39 ("*Vinagre de Condado de*  
252 *Huelva*") samples. Meanwhile, this dataset consisted of 54 ("*Crianza*"), 48 ("*Reserva*"),  
253 and 18 ("*Pedro Ximenez*") samples, in order to distinguish the Spanish PDO  
254 corresponding to each wine vinegar category.

255 The second group with the remaining samples (test set) was used as external  
256 independent dataset to evaluate the discriminative power of the models (external  
257 validation). This dataset was formed by 25% of the samples, and consisted of (samples  
258 analyzed in triplicate): 21 ("*Vinagre de Jerez*"), 15 ("*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*"), and  
259 18 ("*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*") samples, in order to discriminate the wine

vinegar category within each Spanish PDO. For differentiating the Spanish PDO in each wine vinegar category, this dataset was formed by (samples analyzed in triplicate): 24 (“Crianza”), 18 (“Reserva”), and 9 (“Pedro Ximenez”) samples. Afterwards, the samples belonging to each dataset were randomly selected making sure that in both datasets at least one sample, with the corresponding replicates, of each category/PDO was included. Samples belonging to “Gran Reserva” and “Añada” category in each PDO (JGR, MGR and CAN) with a low number of samples ( $\leq 2$ ) were not used. Further information about the number of samples used in each case for calibration and external validation can be found in Table II (Supplementary Material).

The statistical assessment of the quality of both classification models was carried out by means of the comparison of the sensitivity, specificity and classification error of calibration (CAL), cross-validation (CV) and prediction (PRED) parameters (Margraf, Santos, de Andrade, van Ruth, & Granato, 2016) according to Eqs. (5) and (6):

$$\text{Sensitivity (\%)} = [\text{TP} / (\text{TP} + \text{FN})] * 100\% \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Specificity (\%)} = [\text{TN} / (\text{TN} + \text{FP})] * 100\% \quad (6)$$

whereby TP and TN represent the number of samples correctly classified as their real class (e.g. the number of JCR samples predicted as JCR and the number of MCR samples predicted as MCR samples, respectively). On the other hand, FP and FN represent the number of samples misclassified (e.g. the JCR samples assigned to MCR class and MCR samples assigned to JCR class, respectively).

280

### 281 **3. Results and discussion**

282

#### 283 **3.1 Fluorescence landscapes of the Spanish PDO wine vinegars**

Typical fluorescence landscapes of several samples belonging to the different wine vinegar categories of each Spanish PDO are shown in **Figure 1** (after removing and replacing the first and second order Rayleigh scattering). As it can be observed, the shape of the EEM spectra varies within the same Spanish PDO, which allows us to confirm *a priori* differentiation according to the wine vinegar category (aged or sweet).

A visual assessment of the fluorescence features of the aged categories points out a general tendency for the spectral maxima to be shifted towards longer excitation and emission wavelengths with the aging of the vinegars. Furthermore, similar fluorescence maxima were observed for the different Spanish PDOs wine vinegars according to the aging period. In general, vinegars with a minimum of 6 months of aging (JCR, MCR

294 and CSO) show their maximum peaks at 370/450 nm for both excitation/emission  
295 wavelengths ( $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$ ), whereas the maximum peaks corresponding to the “Reserva”  
296 category (JRE, MRE and CRE) appear at higher wavelengths, around 370-470 nm of  
297  $\lambda_{ex}$  and 470-550 nm of  $\lambda_{em}$ . Finally, the most aged “Gran Reserva” category samples  
298 (JGR, MGR and CAN) show their maxima at 470-500 nm of excitation and 550-600 nm  
299 of emission wavelengths, following the general observed trends. The spectral features  
300 of the wine vinegars without aging period (CSC), which shows maximum peaks at the  
301 shortest wavelengths (around 370/440 nm  $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$ ), also confirm this tendency.  
302 Interestingly, some samples of the “Reserva” category (e.g. “*Vinagre de Montilla-*  
303 *Moriles*” PDO, “Reserva” sample “MRE” in Figure 1) show two different maximum  
304 peaks probably due to the broader aging period, which can vary from 24 to 120 months  
305 (“*Vinagre de Jerez*” PDO and “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” PDO) or even to longer  
306 periods (“*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” PDO) (Table 1). These observed spectral  
307 features are probably related to the different chemical complexity of the aged  
308 categories. In fact, a similar fluorescence trend with the aging of wine samples was  
309 observed by Airado-Rodríguez et.al (2011), whose fluorescence landscapes showed a  
310 tendency to increase the emission at longer wavelengths with the ageing of the wine  
311 samples, due an increase in concentration of fluorescence substances (Airado-  
312 Rodríguez et al., 2011).

313 In contrast, the fluorescence landscapes of the sweet vinegar categories, denoted  
314 as “*Pedro Ximenez*” (JPX and MPX) show a highly intense fluorescent area between  
315 550-570 nm and 600-650 nm of excitation and emission wavelengths, respectively.  
316 Indeed, these sweet vinegars show their excitation and emission maxima even at  
317 longer wavelengths than the ones corresponding to the aged categories. This  
318 phenomenon could be explained by the different production and composition of the  
319 sweet vinegars in comparison with the aged categories. Thus, the sweet vinegars are  
320 produced with the addition of “*Pedro Ximenez*” Sherry wine in the case of “*Vinagre de*  
321 *Jerez*” PDO (containing at least 60 g/L of reducing material from this wine) (Council  
322 Regulation (EC) No 510/2006), or adding must of raisined “*Pedro Ximenez*” grapes  
323 during the maturing process for the “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” PDO (Council  
324 Regulation (EC) No 510/2006). These sweet vinegars have a high carbohydrate  
325 content (glucose and fructose) and other compounds (brown pigments and volatile  
326 compounds) produced by a Maillard reaction of the carbohydrates and free amino  
327 acids (Casale, Sáiz Abajo, González Sáiz, Pizarro, & Forina, 2006), which may be  
328 responsible for the observed fluorescence at longer excitation and emission  
329 wavelengths.

330 From these observations, it is clear that the fluorescence landscapes of these  
331 Spanish PDOs vinegars contain several fluorophores that are highly overlapped in both  
332 excitation and emission spectra. In this sense, further decomposition of EEM spectra  
333 by PARAFAC will help to clarify the potential fluorophores present in each vinegar  
334 category.

### 335 **3.2 Potential fluorophores of the Spanish PDO wine vinegars**

336 Three individual PARAFAC models were built in order to extract the excitation and  
337 emission profiles of the main fluorophores present in the Spanish PDOs vinegars (as  
338 described in section 2.3.1). The optimum number of factors for each PARAFAC model  
339 was selected comparing the quality parameters of the models built for an increasing  
340 number of factors (ranging from one to seven). Specifically, the best PARAFAC models  
341 obtained for each Spanish PDO were 5-factor PARAFAC models for the “*Vinagre de*  
342 *Jerez*” and “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” PDOs, and a 4-factor PARAFAC model for the  
343 “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” PDO. The obtained models were enough robust,  
344 explaining more than 99% of the variance with a core consistency over zero (Table III  
345 Supplementary Material), and represented the underlying chemical spectra of the  
346 fluorophores present in these vinegars. Figure 2 includes the PARAFAC loadings  
347 (excitation and emission spectra) of the extracted factors present in each Spanish PDO  
348 vinegar, whose corresponding fluorescence emission and excitation maxima are listed  
349 in Table IV (Supplementary Material). The fluorescent loading patterns of the modelled  
350 factors can be matched to fluorophores described in the literature (Airado-Rodríguez et  
351 al., 2011; Dufour, Letort, Laguet, Lebecque, & Serra, 2006; Elcoroaristizabal et al.,  
352 2016). However, it is important to note that vinegar contains a wide variety of naturally  
353 occurring fluorescent compounds, being each emission/excitation profiles a sum of  
354 related fluorescent molecules and not only to a single one (Airado-Rodríguez et al.,  
355 2011). The difference in these modelled factors is probably related to the different  
356 chemical composition of these vinegars as a consequence of the different raw  
357 materials (wines) and production and ageing processes for each Spanish PDO. This is  
358 corroborated by the variation in the score values of the fluorophores modelled for each  
359 Spanish PDO according to the vinegar category (Table V Supplementary Material).

360 The first factor (F1, blue line in Figure 2) of the PDO “*Vinagre de Jerez*” has a  
361 maximum excitation centered at 465 nm and a maximum emission around 535 nm.  
362 According to Airado-Rodríguez et al. (2011), this factor could be related to vitamin B2  
363 and its principal forms such as riboflavin, Flavin mononucleotide (FMN), and Flavin  
364 adenine dinucleotide (FAD). In contrast, F1 appears at lower wavelengths, specifically

365 at 375/460 nm and 370/470 nm ( $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$ ), for the “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” and  
366 “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” PDOs, respectively. In these PDOs, and taking into  
367 account these wavelengths, F1 could be due to the presence of coumarins, tannins  
368 and other unknown fluorescent compounds originating from wooden casks (Tóthová &  
369 Sádecká, 2008), as well as phenols and flavonols, usually in abundance in these  
370 vinegars and naturally presented in wines (Airado-Rodríguez et al., 2011; Sádecká &  
371 Tóthová, 2007).

372 The second factor (F2, red line in Figure 2) has a similar profile for the three PDOs  
373 with an excitation and emission maxima between 400-420 nm and 480-505 nm  
374 respectively. 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF), which has been determined in vinegars  
375 as a product being formed during the Maillard reaction (García Parrilla, Heredia, &  
376 Troncoso, 1999), could match with the wavelengths of F2 according to Zhu et al., 2009  
377 (Zhu, Ji, Eum, & Zude, 2009). Furthermore, caramel, which is frequently added to  
378 vinegars as a colorant, showed a maximum excitation/emission wavelength at 390-  
379 410/482-498 nm according to Sádecká et al., 2009 (Sádecká, Tóthová, & Májek, 2009),  
380 and Tóthová et al., 2008 (Tóthová & Sádecká, 2008). Its presence in these vinegars  
381 could be also related to this second factor.

382 The third factor (F3, yellow line in Figure 2) of “*Vinagre de Jerez*” PDO is a peak  
383 centered at 500 nm ( $\lambda_{ex}$ ) and 580 nm ( $\lambda_{em}$ ). This component could be associated to  
384 brown pigments produced by some acetic bacteria strains present in vinegar (Polo &  
385 Sanchez-Luengo, 1991) since they showed similar excitation/emission wavelengths.  
386 However, in “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” PDO, this factor F3 shows excitation and  
387 emission maxima around 470/550 nm, which agrees with the presence of vitamin B2  
388 and its principal forms (Lenhardt et al., 2015). Finally, the third factor of “*Condado de*  
389 *Huelva*” PDO is centered at 300/425 nm ( $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$ ), and these wavelengths could be  
390 associated with the phenolic compounds present in these vinegars (Rodríguez-  
391 Delgado, Malovaná, Pérez, Borges, & García Montelongo, 2001).

392 The fourth factor (F4, purple line in Figure 2) has 340/420 nm and 350/440 nm of  
393 excitation and emission maxima for the “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” and “*Vinagre de*  
394 *Jerez*” PDOs. According to the literature, the excitation/emission wavelengths of this  
395 factor could be related to phenolic compounds, the best known fluorescent molecules  
396 naturally present in wine that differ in accordance to the grape variety and the vinegar  
397 ageing. This group of compounds includes phenolic acids and phenolic aldehydes, as  
398 well as oxidation and Maillard reaction products (present due to browning processes  
399 and oxidative mechanisms taking place during ageing and storage), which have shown

400 maximum excitation/emission wavelengths around 330/420 nm (Airado-Rodríguez et  
401 al., 2011; Azcarate et al., 2015; Callejón et al., 2012; Dufour et al., 2006;  
402 Elcoroaristizabal et al., 2016; Sádecká & Tóthová, 2007). In contrast, in “*Condado de*  
403 *Huelva*” PDO this F4 presents its excitation and emission maxima around 485/560 nm  
404 ( $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$ ), and it could be associated with the aforementioned vitamin B2.

405 Finally, a fifth factor (F5, green line in Figure 2) appears only for the “*Vinagre de*  
406 *Montilla-Moriles*” and “*Vinagre de Jerez*” PDOs, showing excitation and emission  
407 maxima at 530/605 nm and 585/655 nm ( $\lambda_{ex}/\lambda_{em}$ ), respectively. There are not reported  
408 fluorophores matching exactly with this emission/excitation profile. However, it seems  
409 to be related to the special characteristics of the category “*Pedro Ximenez*” for which a  
410 higher mean values of this factor was detected in this category (Table V  
411 Supplementary Material). The absence of this factor in the “*Vinagre Condado de*  
412 *Huelva*” model also confirms this hypothesis since this sweet category is not registered  
413 in this PDO.

414

### 415 **3.3 Vinegar category classification within each Spanish PDO**

416 Two different approaches, Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA)  
417 and Support Vector Machines (SVM), were used for the development of classification  
418 models of Spanish PDO vinegars according to their category. In all cases, the best  
419 PLS-DA models were obtained using two latent variables (LVs). This optimum number  
420 of LVs was chosen based on the Root Mean Square Error of Cross-Validation  
421 (RMSECV), the ROC curves and de variance captured. On the other hand, the optimal  
422 parameters for the optimization of SVM models,  $\log_{10}(C)$  and  $\log_{10}(\gamma)$ , were found to  
423 be 2 and between -2 and -0.5, respectively. The statistical assessment of the  
424 performance of both classification models was carried out by calculating and  
425 comparing different classifiers (described in section 2.3.2) such as sensitivity,  
426 specificity and classification error of calibration (CAL), cross-validation (CV) and  
427 prediction (PRED). These statistical results are shown in Table 2.

428 Regarding the PLS-DA models, high sensitivity and specificity values were  
429 obtained for the sweet category (JPX and MPX) of “*Vinagre de Jerez*” and “*Vinagre de*  
430 *Montilla-Moriles*” PDOs. The classification errors of prediction obtained for these  
431 categories (100% of the samples correctly classified), demonstrated that these  
432 samples can be successfully separated from the rest of classes. This is probably due to  
433 their different chemical and fluorescence spectral features, since this sweet category  
434 emitted at the longest wavelengths (Figure 1). In a similar way, concerning the non-

435 aged category (CSC) of “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” PDO, the different  
436 fluorescence profile observed in the landscapes and the higher mean values of F1 and  
437 F3 with respect to the rest of categories (Table V Supplementary Material), could be  
438 related to the lowest errors of classification obtained for this category (25.0% of the  
439 samples misclassified). However, unsatisfactory results were obtained for the rest of  
440 aged categories within each Spanish PDO: JCR, JRE, MCR, CSO and CRE. The low  
441 sensitivity and specificity values (mainly under 65.0%) and high classification errors  
442 obtained in terms of prediction (between 25.0 and 63.0%), confirm the difficulty in  
443 correctly classifying these aged vinegar categories ( $\geq 6$  and  $\geq 24$  months) by using  
444 linear classification models. This could be related to the similar score values followed  
445 by the modelled factors of these categories within each Spanish PDOs (Table V  
446 Supplementary Material). Among them, the  $\geq 6$  months aged samples (JCR, MCR and  
447 CSO) were the worst classified ones in all the Spanish PDO vinegar models, showing  
448 classification errors until 63.0%. This may be explained due to these wine vinegars are  
449 aged over a wide range of time (from 6 to 24 months). Thus, those samples aged until  
450 24 months are expected to be spectroscopically and chemically quite similar to the  
451 vinegars of the following category ( $\geq 24$  month). Similar results were obtained by  
452 Callejón et al., (2012).

453 In contrast, higher sensitivity and specificity levels were obtained for all Spanish  
454 PDO vinegars using SVM models (Table 2). The optimal parameters for the  
455 optimization of SVM models , $\log_{10}(C)$  and  $\log_{10}(\gamma)$ , were optimized in the traditional  
456 way by using an independent test set (Cristianini & Shawe-Taylor, 2000). Between  
457 92% and 100% of the samples were correctly classified in all categories. Even more, all  
458 samples belonging to the Spanish PDO “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” were perfectly  
459 classified. Further information about the misclassified category samples within each  
460 Spanish PDO is summarized in the confusion matrices shown in Table VI  
461 (Supplementary Material). These results also point out that SVM does not need a large  
462 number of samples to make a good model, as occurs in our study with some  
463 categories, and further, it is not affected by the presence of outliers. These results  
464 demonstrated that this methodology could be successfully used for the authentication  
465 of the vinegar category belonging to each Spanish PDO.

466

467 **3.4 Spanish PDO classification within similar vinegar categories (“*Crianza*”,**  
468 **“*Reserva*” and “*Pedro Ximenez*”)**



469 In this classification task, the objective was to classify the samples by their PDO for  
470 a single category. Three PARAFAC models were built according to the vinegar  
471 categories under study, i.e. “*Crianza*”, “*Reserva*” and “*Pedro Ximenez*”, in order to  
472 discriminate their corresponding Spanish PDO. In a similar way to the previous  
473 sections, the best PARAFAC models obtained for each vinegar category were selected  
474 comparing the quality parameters of the models, which are shown in Table VII  
475 (Supplementary Material). In this case, a 4-factor PARAFAC model was obtained for  
476 “*Crianza*”, while a 5-factor PARAFAC model was built for “*Reserva*”, and a 3-factor  
477 PARAFAC model was constructed for “*Pedro Ximenez*” category. The obtained models  
478 explained more than 97.0% of the variance with a core consistency over zero. The  
479 related PARAFAC loadings (excitation and emission spectra) obtained for the models  
480 corresponding to each vinegar category are illustrated in Figure 3.

481 The maxima wavelengths ( $\lambda_{ex}$  and  $\lambda_{em}$ ) of the different factors obtained for the  
482 “*Crianza*”, “*Reserva*” and “*Pedro Ximenez*” PARAFAC models match with the different  
483 fluorophores described in detail in section 3.2. As shown in **Figure 3**, the “*Crianza*”  
484 category is characterized by factors with excitation and emission ranges between 340-  
485 500 nm and 430-580 nm, respectively. These factors are mainly related to fluorescent  
486 compounds naturally presented in high concentration in wine such as phenols,  
487 flavonols and vitamins as previously described (section 3.2). These compounds have a  
488 higher contribution in this category (Table V Supplementary Material) since the less  
489 aged wine vinegars retain more compounds coming from the raw materials. Regarding  
490 the “*Reserva*” samples, a higher number of factors were required to model this  
491 category, i.e., more fluorescent compounds with a wide range of excitation/emission  
492 spectra were needed to describe its underlying chemical composition. In this case, the  
493 longer aging period undergone by vinegars of the “*Reserva*” category plays a crucial  
494 role in this chemical complexity. There is an enrichment of these vinegars with more  
495 phenolic compounds (released by the wood barrels) and oxidation products (derived  
496 from the development of certain chemical reactions among vinegar components),  
497 whose concentration levels have been proven to increase during the aging process  
498 (Callejón, Morales, Silva Ferreira, & Troncoso, 2008). The wavelengths of the factors  
499 modelled for “*Pedro Ximenez*” category are associated to fluorophores emitting at the  
500 highest excitation and emission wavelengths (upper than 475 and 550 nm,  
501 respectively). However, more information, not available in the literature, is needed to  
502 identify these fluorophores.

503 For all the categories under study, the relative values of these factors (scores) vary  
504 as a function of the Spanish PDO, which highlights that the composition of the vinegar

505 categories depends also on the raw material used (wine) and on the different  
506 production methods to which the vinegars have been subjected in each PDO. Thus,  
507 these particular characteristics reflected by the scores provide the chance to  
508 discriminate the Spanish PDO corresponding to similar wine vinegar categories. In this  
509 case, related to the proven higher ability of prediction previously obtained (Table 2),  
510 only SVM classification models were built. The parameters for the optimization of the  
511 SVM models,  $\log_{10}(C)$  and  $\log_{10}(\gamma)$ , were found to be 2 and between -1 and 0,  
512 respectively. Table 3 summarizes the statistical results (sensitivity, specificity and  
513 errors) of the performance of the SVM models.

514 Regarding the “*Crianza*” category, high sensitivity and specificity values were  
515 obtained for these samples according to their origin (Spanish PDO) with classification  
516 errors of prediction lower than 3.5% (Table 3). These results demonstrate that it is  
517 possible to successfully differentiate the Spanish PDO of “*Crianza*” vinegars according to  
518 their fluorescent composition that is highly related to the raw material (wine) used.  
519 Furthermore, all the samples belonging to the “*Pedro Ximenez*” category were correctly  
520 classified in the “*Vinagre de Jerez*” and “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*” PDOs. The high  
521 levels of sensitivity and specificity and the good classification rates obtained were  
522 explained by the different production process employed by each Spanish PDO.  
523 “*Reserva*” was the worst classified category according to the PDOs, showing sensitivity  
524 and specificity values higher than 70% and predicted errors lower than 15%. In the  
525 case of samples belonging to “*Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles*”, 100% of the “*Reserva*”  
526 vinegars were correctly classified, and only some samples were misclassified between  
527 “*Vinagre de Jerez*” and “*Vinagre de Condado de Huelva*” PDOs (Table VIII  
528 Supplementary Material). These results are considered acceptable considering the  
529 high variability of these samples due to the wide range of ageing periods that are  
530 reflected by their complex chemical composition (Casale et al., 2006; García Parrilla et  
531 al., 1999).

532

#### 533 **4. Conclusions**

534 The analytical methodology proposed in this study, namely fluorescence  
535 excitation–emission spectroscopy coupled to PARAFAC modeling and SVM  
536 classification method, has demonstrated to be able to characterize and classify the  
537 three Spanish PDOs wine vinegars according to their “Protected Denomination of  
538 Origin” as well as their categories (aged and sweet). As a simple preliminary  
539 characterization, a visual assessment of the fluorescence Excitation-Emission Matrices  
540 (EEMs) of the aged categories pointed out similarities in the fluorescence landscapes

541 for the three Spanish PDOs wine vinegars: the spectral maxima were shifted towards  
542 longer wavelengths with the aging of these vinegars. Moreover, the sweet category  
543 “*Pedro Ximenez*” showed its excitation and emission maxima even at longer  
544 wavelengths than the aged categories, probably due to the different production process  
545 to which these vinegars are subjected. PARAFAC was carried out to spectroscopically  
546 and chemically characterize the different wine vinegars. It gave information about the  
547 potential fluorescent compounds present in the wine vinegars as well as their  
548 contribution in each Spanish PDO and category. These dissimilar spectroscopic and  
549 chemical features allowed us their differentiation according to their category and origin  
550 (Spanish PDO) using suitable classification methods. The feasibility of SVM  
551 methodology to classify the different categories of wine vinegars within each PDO was  
552 successfully demonstrated. The built SVM classification models proved a higher ability  
553 of prediction (between 92% and 100% correctly classified samples) than PLS-DA  
554 models, especially for classifying aged vinegar categories with similar spectroscopic  
555 characteristics. Furthermore, SVM models were also able to differentiate the Spanish  
556 PDOs even for similar vinegar categories due to their spectral differences.

557 The advantages of this methodology, e.g. fast, non-destructive and non- sample  
558 preparation, would allow implementing this method as an alternative tool for PDO  
559 regulatory councils and producers to be implemented in routine analysis. It could be  
560 applied for assessing the authenticity of the Spanish PDO and the vinegar category.  
561 Finally, it is expected that further information about the specific ageing periods to which  
562 these vinegars are subjected will improve the performance of some classification  
563 models.

564

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574

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## 719 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

720 **Figure 1.** *Excitation-Emission fluorescence landscapes obtained for different*  
721 *categories of Spanish PDO vinegars. The color scale of fluorescence intensity (in*  
722 *arbitrary units) varies from dark blue (lowest signal intensity) to yellow (highest signal*  
723 *intensity). The acronyms for the different wine vinegar categories are defined in Table 1.*

724

725 **Figure 2.** *Excitation and Emission spectra (PARAFAC loadings) of the main*  
726 *fluorophores present in the vinegars of the three Spanish PDOs.*

727

728 **Figure 3.** *Excitation and Emission spectra (PARAFAC loadings) of the main*  
729 *fluorophores present in different vinegars categories of the Spanish PDOs.*

730



731 **Table 1.** Wine vinegar samples analyzed according to the Spanish PDOs

<b>Protected Designation of Origin (PDO)</b>	<b>Vinegar Category</b>	<b>Category Name</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Aging time (months)</b>	<b>Number of samples*</b>
<b>“Vinagre de Jerez”</b>	Aged	“Vinagre de Jerez”	JCR	≥6	13
		“Reserva”	JRE	≥24	11
		“Gran Reserva”	JGR	≥ 120	2
	Sweet	“Pedro Ximenez”	JPX	-	4
<b>“Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles”</b>	Aged	“Crianza”	MCR	≥6	7
		“Reserva”	MRE	≥24	4
		“Gran Reserva”	MGR	≥120	2
	Sweet	“Pedro Ximenez”	MPX	-	5
<b>“Vinagre de Condado de Huelva”</b>	Non – aged	“Vinagre Condado de Huelva”	CSC	0	6
	Aged	“Viejo Solera”	CSO	≥6	6
		“Viejo Reserva”	CRE	≥24	7
		“Viejo Añada”	CAN	≥36	2

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733 \*Note: each sample- corresponds to different producers

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735 **Table 2.** Sensitivity, specificity and classification errors (%) obtained for SVM and PLS-  
 736 DA classification models corresponding to the vinegar category of each Spanish PDO.

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Spanish PDO	"Vinagre de Jerez"						"Vinagre de Montilla-Moriles"						"Vinagre de Condado de Huelva"								
	SVM			PLS-DA			SVM			PLS-DA			SVM			PLS-DA					
Category	J C R	J R E	J P X	J C R	J R E	J P X	M C R	M R E	M P X	M C R	M R E	M P X	C S C	C S O	C R E	C S C	C S O	C R E			
Sensitivity CAL	92 .9	92 .3	10 0	3 8. 7	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	80 .0	10 0.	10 0.	83 .3	10 0.	10 0.	75 .0	10 0.	10 0.
Sensitivity CV	10 0	10 0	10 0	3 8. 7	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	80 .0	66 .7	10 0	10 0	10 0	10 0	75 .0	10 0	10 0
Sensitivity PRED	92 .9	92 .3	10 0	1 0.	66 .7	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	50 .0	10 0.	10 0.	83 .3	10 0.	10 0.	50 .0	10 0.	10 0.
Specificity CAL	10 0.	94 .4	96 .3	9 0.	32 .5	94 .5	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	83 .3	75 .0	10 0.	10 0.	92 .3	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	33 .3	62 .5	62 .5	
Specificity CV	10 0	10 0	10 0	9 0.	25 .0	94 .5	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	83 .3	62 .5	95 .8	10 0	10 0	10 0	10 0	25 .9	62 .5	62 .5		
Specificity PRED	10 0	94 .4	96 .3	7 5.	18 .2	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	10 0.	91 .7	10 0.	10 0.	0 0	25 .0	25 .0		
Class. Error CAL	0 0	0 0	0 0	3 5. 1	33 .7	2 7	0 0	0 0	0 0	18 .3	12 .5	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	12 .5	33 .3	18 .7	
Class. Error CV	0 0	0 0	0 0	3 5. 1	37 .5	2 7	0 0	0 0	0 0	18 .3	35 .4	2 1	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	12 .5	37 .0	18 .7	
Class. Error PRED	3 5	6 6	1 8	6 2. 5	57 .5	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	25 .0	0 0	0 0	8 3	4 1	0 0	25 .0	50 .0	37 .5	37 .5		

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740 **Table 3.** Sensitivity, specificity and classification errors (%) obtained for Spanish PDO  
 741 classification models in similar wine vinegar categories.

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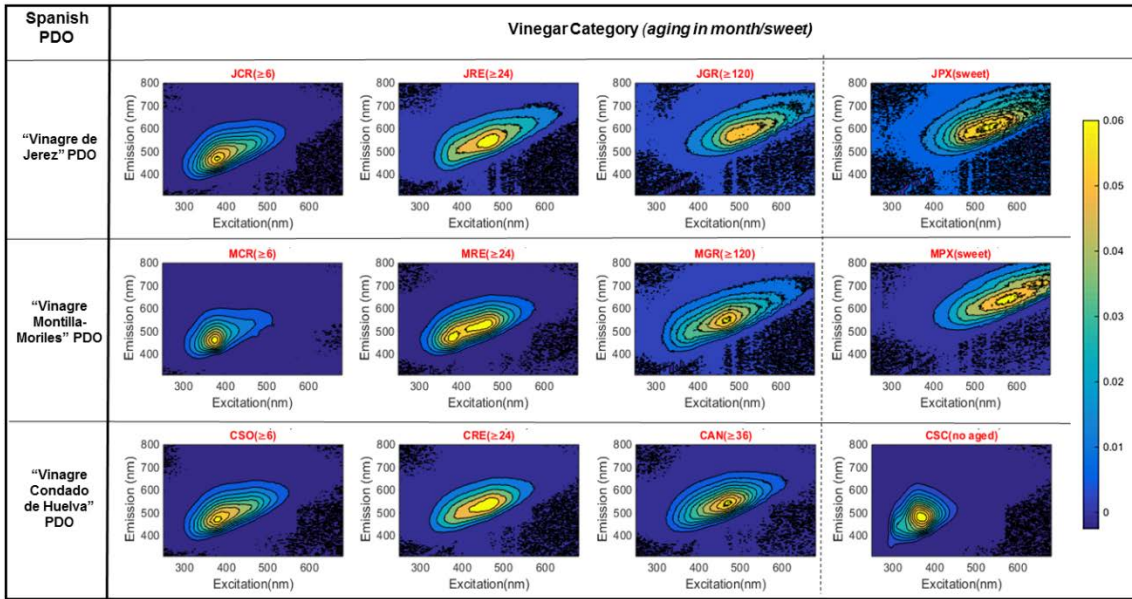
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Category	CR			RE			PX	
Classification model	SVM			SVM			SVM	
Spanish PDO	JCR	MCR	CSO	JRE	MRE	CRE	JPX	MPX
Sensitivity CAL	92.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	71.4	100.0	100.0
Sensitivity CV	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sensitivity PRED	92.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	71.4	100.0	100.0
Specificity CAL	100.0	95.0	100.0	81.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Specificity CV	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Specificity PRED	100.0	95.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.71.4	100.0	100.0
Class. Error CAL	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Class. Error CV	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Class. Error PRED	3.5	2.5	0.0	9.1	0.0	14.3	0.0	0.0



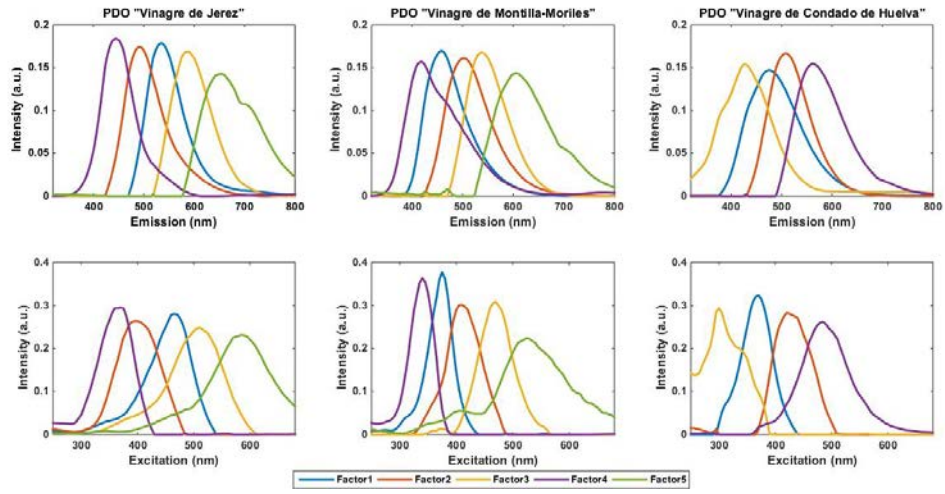
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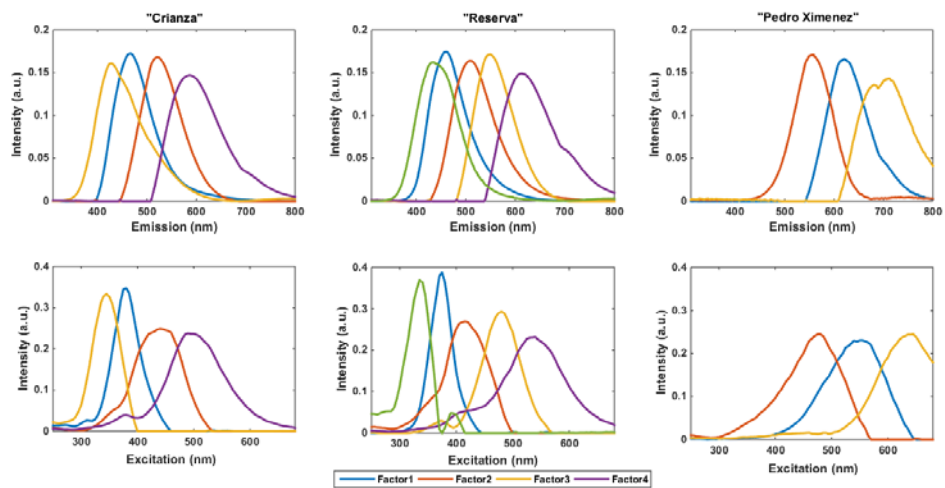
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