1	Research	Paper

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3	Non-targeted Spatially Offset Raman Spectroscopy-based vanguard analytical
4	method to authenticate spirits: White Tequilas as a case study
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18 *Abstract*

19 Adulteration and counterfeiting are ongoing problems for alcoholic drinks, including beers, 20 wines, and spirits. To fight against them, official analytical methods need to be complemented 21 with faster, trustworthy, non-invasive and *in-situ* ones, which have been named as vanguard 22 methods, to increase the efficiency in the detection probability of truly adulterated alcoholic 23 drinks. The analytical methodology proposed here synergistically combines a novel measurement analytical technique (spatially offset Raman spectroscopy, SORS) with 24 25 chemometrics methods, i.e., principal component analysis (PCA), soft independent modeling 26 of class analogies (SIMCA), partial least squares regression-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA), 27 support vectors machine, (SVM) and quantitative partial least squares regression (PLSR). 28 The applicability of the proposal is tested with Tequila to (i) differentiate among 100% agave 29 and mixed white packaged Tequilas, and (ii) to predict the alcoholic content. SORS spectra of 51 samples were obtained in the 300-2000 cm⁻¹ range, from which classification and 30 regression models were developed. The best classification performances were obtained with 31 32 PLS-DA and SVM with 100% sensitivity, specificity and overall classification rate. PLSR 33 exposed a better trend of the samples than PCA in the exploratory analysis; and yielded 34 predictive models capable of foreseeing alcoholic contents with average errors lower than 4%. These results demonstrate the potential of this fast, *in-situ* analytical approach to be used as a 35 vanguard analytical method to screen adulterated or counterfeited Tequilas and to assess the 36 37 conformity of the alcoholic stated in the label.

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40 Chemometrics; Spirits fraud; Spatially offset Raman spectroscopy; Tequila authentication.

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42 1. Introduction

43 Criminal activity against consumers continues non-stop, in fact European Union Intellectual 44 Property Office (EUIPO) and European Union Agency for Law Enforcement Cooperation 45 (EUROPOL) have indicated in a last report published in March 2022 that the production of illicit food products, especially drinks, is increasingly professional and sophisticated [1]. 46 47 However, in terms of health and food safety, the weightiness of food and drink fraud will depend on the type of fraud. In some cases, the consequences are limited to consumer 48 49 deception, since offenders pass off lower value products as higher value foods or drinks for 50 illicit financial profit. Specifically in drinks the most frequent fraud is that committed in 51 alcoholic beverages, so-called spirits. In fact, in the last two years, adulteration of this type of 52 product has been detected, such as the case of the Whiskey fraud in Spain in 2020 [2] or the adulteration of alcoholic beverages in Santo Domingo in April 2022, which resulted in the 53 54 death of several people [3].

55 There is a battery of recognized and well-described analytical methods for detecting different 56 types of adulteration for each particular alcoholic beverage, most of them based on the identification and quantification of specific chemical markers. Despite traditional analytical 57 58 methods proved to be reliable, accurate and are suitable tools for production control, they 59 often do not comply with the principles of green chemistry, since they involve the use of 60 environmentally unfriendly reagents, are time-consuming and frequently expensive, 61 considering them as rearguard methods [4]. This gives opportunity for the development and 62 application of alternative analytical methods, which are characterized by being miniaturized, 63 transportable, simple, rapid, low-cost and capable of providing overall analytical information 64 that is reliable and representative. The application of these type of alternative analytical 65 methods, which have been named as vanguard methods, increase the efficiency of control laboratories since they make possible the analysis of only suspicious samples by rearguard 66

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67 methods [4]. The term vanguard method does not refer to the fact that the methodology 68 presented in this study is highly recent and innovative, as might be inferred at first. It suggests 69 that such a methodology could be applied as a first analytical approach to quickly process 70 laboratory samples. In this sense, a vanguard method is often a forward screening method that 71 allows the selection of suspect samples that will subsequently be subjected to a full backward 72 analytical method, *i.e.*, a reaguard method.

73 In this sense, the use of non-targeted spectroscopic analytical techniques, such as 74 conventional Raman or medium and near infrared spectroscopies, constitute established 75 methodologies that fit most requirements to get vanguard analytical methods as they require 76 minimum or null sample preparation. Despite of providing unspecific signals (spectroscopic 77 instrumental fingerprints), they became popular to determine the composition/adulteration of 78 food and beverages to ensure the authenticity and traceability [5]. One essential and inherent 79 subsequent step after the application of spectroscopic techniques is the use of multivariate 80 chemical data analysis or chemometrics, which together have created a synergistic and 81 powerful analytical methodology that is regularly applied in the food industry to extract 82 important and non-evident (or hidden) information from the raw spectra by developing mathematical models [6,7,8]. 83

Quite recently, a new and more advanced Raman spectroscopy modality, termed spatially 84 85 offset Raman spectroscopy (SORS), appeared and it shows highly promising capabilities for 86 spirit quality and authenticity control. The fundamentals of SORS are like the conventional 87 Raman spectroscopy, although in SORS the Raman signal is obtained at certain millimeters off the laser spot, making it possible to collect photons emitted from samples contained within 88 89 opaque packaging materials [9]. This means that it is possible to carry out the analysis directly 90 on the product within the container, without the need to alter the original package/sample, 91 making SORS one of the few truly non-invasive analytical techniques. Even though this novel

approach was first developed for the pharmaceutical industry, it expanded rapidly to the food
industry to analyze packaged beverages in a fast and non-destructive manner [9]; for instance:
Vodka, Gin and Whisky through their containers [10]. However, no applications have been
found to authenticate Tequilas.

Tequila is a representative spirit from México that holds an Official Designation of Origin 96 97 (DOT - from the Spanish term 'Denominación de Origen Tequila'), which is regulated by the Mexican Government and the Regulatory Council of Tequila (CRT) through the official 98 99 Mexican standard NOM-006-SCFI-2012 [11]. Tequila can be classified in five classes 100 according to their aging process in oak or holm oak containers: 'Silver or White', 'Aged', 101 'Extra-aged' and 'Ultra-aged' according to whether maturation lasts for <2 months, ≥ 2 102 months, ≥ 2 years or ≥ 3 years, respectively. 'Gold Tequila' corresponds to commercial 103 mixtures of White Tequila with Aged, Extra-aged or Ultra-aged Tequilas [11]. Additionally, 104 two categories of Tequila can be distinguished: (i) 100% agave Tequila if only sugars from 105 the juice of the Agave Tequilana Weber blue variety are used for the fermentation process, 106 and (ii) 'mixed Tequilas' if any combination with other sources of reducing sugars (never 107 more than 49%) are added to the process. The commonest commercial product is white 108 Tequila, so, this paper focused on it.

109 Currently, many adulteration and counterfeiting cases are still reported, not only at Mexico 110 but in other countries. The main adulteration practice is to substitute ethanol with methanol 111 or, less frequently, with propanol, ethylene glycol, aldehydes and others [12]. In 2021, a 112 production of 527 million of liters of Tequila was reported by the CRT whose quality and 113 authenticity were evaluated using representative samples extracted from the distilleries and 114 analyzed independently at the CRT. All the aforementioned classes of Tequila are inspected 115 by the CRT using standardized analytical techniques, such as liquid and gas chromatography or atomic absorption spectroscopy, to adhere to current official analytical methods. Several 116

quality parameters are determined, e.g., furfural, esters, aldehydes, methanol, higher alcohols,
reducing and total sugars. An exemplary routine verification is whether the alcoholic content,
using a digital densimeter method at 20°C, which is established in the Mexican standard
NMX-V-013-NORMEX-2019 [13], is between 35 and 55% (v/v).

121 The studies found in the literature concerning the assessment of tequila authenticity are 122 focused on (i) some chemical markers, (ii) a specific spectral region of interest (ROI), or (iii) 123 Red, Green and Blue (RGB) color coordinates obtained after the Tequila analysis by 124 chromatographic and spectroscopic analytical techniques [14,15,16,17,18,19]. For example, 125 Contreras et al. [20] applied UV-Vis spectroscopy to identify adulterated and fake Tequilas 126 (between white and rested tequila) or Perez-Beltran et al. [21] employed FTIR and data fusion 127 approach for distinguishing between pure and mixed White Tequilas. However, surprisingly 128 no studies have been found where the full RAMAN spectrum is used as an unspecific 129 instrumental fingerprint but characteristic of each tequila together with chemometric tools for 130 tequila authentication.

131 In this regard, the innovation of this work lies in developing a fast and non-invasive vanguard analytical method for the *in-situ* screening quality control of spirits using SORS. Its 132 133 applicability is demonstrated to ensure Tequila from Mexico in the following terms: (i) 134 discriminate White Tequilas (100% agave vs mixed), and to (ii) predict and verify the 135 alcoholic content. For this, SORS spectra were used together chemometric tools to develop 136 suitable classification and quantitation multivariate analytical methods. Classification 137 methods were validated in terms of sensitivity, specificity, precision, negative prediction 138 value, among other 21 classification performance metrics and estimated following the study 139 published by Cuadros-Rodríguez et al. (2016) [22]. In addition, the quantitative method for 140 determining the alcohol content was validated according to the ASTM E2617 standard [23].

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142 2. Materials and methods

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144 2.1. Tequila samples

A total of 51 White Tequila samples were provided by the CRT in México, and analyzed in Spain, as described in the 'spatially offset Raman spectroscopy (SORS) measurements' section. Thirty White Tequilas belonged to the 100% agave White Tequila category (TB from the Spanish term 'Tequila Blanco') and twenty-one to the mixed White Tequilas (TBM from the Spanish term 'Tequila Blanco Mixto'). The alcoholic content of all these samples was determined by the CRT using a digital densimeter at 20°C [**13**].

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152 2.2. Spatially offset Raman spectroscopy (SORS) measurements

Vaya Raman SORS equipment (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) was used. The excitation radiation was 830 nm with a maximum power laser of 450 mW, obtaining Raman spectra in the low frequencies range, from 350 to 2000 cm⁻¹, with 12 to 20 cm⁻¹ spectroscopic resolution. The SORS measurements of the 51 white Tequila samples were performed directly through amber vials lasting 30 s, approximately.

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159 2.3. Similarity analyses

In order to make sure that this methodology can be transferable to any other situation, similarity analyses were performed. SORS measurements were directly performed on four original bottled Tequilas marketed in Spain (2 mixed White Tequilas, 1 mixed Rested Tequila and 1 mixed Tamarind flavored White Tequila). Afterwards, 2 mL of each of them were transferred to amber glass vials, similar to those used to transport the Mexican Tequila samples, and measured. Once both spectra for each sample were acquired, the similarity among them was assessed calculating the corresponding nearness similarity index [24], which 167 is based on the proximity of two vectors in space and is calculated from the standardized168 Euclidean distance, as depicted in Eq. (1).

169 NEAR(X_{SORS}, X_{CRS}) = 1 -
$$\left[\sqrt{\frac{(X_{SORS} - X_{CRS}) \times (X_{SORS} - X_{CRS})^{T}}{(X_{SORS} + X_{CRS}) \times (X_{SORS} + X_{CRS})^{T}}}\right]$$
 (1)

where X_{SORS} and X_{CRS} symbolized both SORS and conventional Raman spectra, respectively,
and the superscript T denotes the transposed matrix [25].

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173 2.4. Multivariate data analyses

SORS raw data were exported from CSV format (comma-separated values) to MATLAB environment (Mathworks, Massachusetts, USA, v. R2013b). The exported spectra contained 1651 variables, each. The training set was constituted by 41 samples (24 of TB type and 17 of TBM type) whilst the external validation set contained 10 different samples (6 TB and 4 TBM). Splitting was performed applying the Kennard-Stone selection method (so-called CADEX algorithm), which was deployed on the TB and TBM classes independently in order to select the samples of the validation set.

181 The multivariate data analyses were carried out using the PLS_Toolbox software (v. 8.6.1, 182 2019, Eigenvector Research In., Manson, WA, USA). The applied chemometric tools were 183 principal component analysis (PCA) and partial least squares regression (PLSR) for exploratory analysis, soft independent modeling of class analogy (SIMCA), partial least 184 185 squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) and support vector machines (SVM) for 186 classification, and PLSR was also used to quantify the alcoholic content of the samples. Mean centering and smoothing were used as pre-processing techniques depending on the 187 188 multivariate method, as described in 'exploratory analyses' and 'classification analyses'. The proper number selection of the PCs and LVs of the models was based on the study of their 189

root mean square error for calibration (RMSEC), or for prediction (RMSEP) and for crossvalidation (RMSECV) plots, and the total explained variance, avoiding overfitting in each
case.

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194 3. Results and discussion

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196 3.1. SORS analyses and characterization

197 When SORS analyses are performed, two measurements are acquired: one at zero offset and another one with a laterally spatial offset of 0.7 mm from the point of incidence of the laser to 198 199 the collection point [9]. This separation favors the photons from the lower layers to be 200 radiated from a spot laterally shifted from the incidence zone while the photons on the upper 201 package are radiated from the same incidence zone [26]. Afterwards, internal pre-processing 202 and normalization are performed by the equipment and a final Raman spectrum is obtained with no contribution of the container. The Raman spectra of the two categories of white 203 204 Tequilas can be observed in Fig. 1.

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The intense peak located at 882 cm⁻¹ and the peak at 1053 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the stretching and deformation modes of the skeletal C-C-O moieties, whilst the peak at 1090 cm⁻¹ is associated to the stretching mode of the C-O bond. The peaks at 1279 cm⁻¹ and 1455 cm⁻¹ are assigned to the deformation wagging mode and to the wagging mode of CH₂, respectively [**15,27**]. Additionally, the two small peaks around 1610 cm⁻¹ and 1728 cm⁻¹ are associated to the cyclic ketone structure, which is the basis of furance compounds in Tequila. Noteworthy,

Fig. 1

those peaks are more intense for the TB category than for the TBM one, as TB proceeds only from fermentable sugars of the Agave Tequilana Weber blue variety (through the Maillard reaction [28] when cooked). On the contrary, TBM might or might not present these spectral Raman peaks because this category of Tequilas can be produced from mixtures of fermentable sugars, so that the production of furanic compounds might not occur [29].

These acquired signals (Raman spectra), which are here used to evaluate the authenticity and quality of White Tequilas, are non-specific instrumental fingerprints and make it necessary the application of multivariate data analyses, as described in the following subsections.

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3.2. SORS and conventional Raman spectra similarity analyses

223 A point-by-point comparison, using the nearness similarity index (NEAR), among the four 224 pairs of spectra (data vectors) corresponding to the Tequila samples marketed in Spain was 225 performed to assess their similarity when the spectroscopic measurements are performed 226 through the original Tequila glass bottle or through amber glass vials (used as reference). The 227 expected NEAR results of the standardized Euclidean distance range from 0 to 1, being 1 the 228 maximum similarity among the spectra. Fig. 2 displays the spectra of the four analyzed 229 samples within their original glass bottles and the spectra of the samples transferred to the 230 vial.

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As it can be observed in Fig. 2, each pair of overlapping spectra are similar at first glance and
this fact is further confirmed when the Nearness similarity index is calculated, obtaining
NEAR values >0.92, which indicates that both spectra are largely similar with almost null

influence of the original glass bottles over the measurements (the remaining ca. 0.08% can be
considered as random noise). According to these results, it is evident that the methodology
presented here has potential application to the *in-situ* quality control and authentication
analysis of Tequila.

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241 3.3. Exploratory analyses

An exploratory analysis was performed to screen the natural grouping of the 51 Tequilas. For this study, the spectral data was previously mean centered. First, a PCA was built considering 5 principal components (PCs) and explaining 75.9% of the cumulative variance, whose main scores plot, is displayed in Fig. 3. Nonetheless, it can be observed that the samples do not follow any specific trend among categories.

Fig. 3

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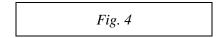
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249 Furthermore, PLSR was used to explore these samples. The model was built with 5 latent 250 variables (LV) explaining 71.1% of the cumulative variance in the X block and 85.8% in the Y block. Fig. 4 shows the LV2 vs LV3 scores plot, where the TB category concentrates 251 252 (although not unequivocally) in the upper-right region of the plot and the TBM category to 253 the left. The different results among PCA and PLSR lies basically in the very nature of the 254 PLS latent variables that capture both variance and correlation [30], yielding best results when 255 PLSR is applied, as it was also found when looking for groups among FTIR fused data of 256 100% agave and mixed White Tequilas [21]. Additionally, there are some samples placed out 257 of the 95% confidence limit that might be considered as outliers (see Figures 3 and 4), however, it was noticed through the normalized (or reduced) Hotelling T^2 -leverages vs. Q 258

residuals plot that those samples had a normal behavior, discarding the existence of outliers.

260 Thus, all samples were included in the following data analyses.

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263 3.4. Classification analyses

The next step after the exploratory analysis was the development of non-targeted multivariate analytical methods to discriminate among TB and TBM. For all classification models, mean centering and smoothing (Savitski-Golay, 15 points for filter width and 1st order polynomial) were used as preprocessing techniques. Smoothing is a low-pass filter that removes highfrequency noise [**30**]. The target class is TB as it is the category with more probability to be adulterated due to its economic profit. The results of the final classification models are discussed next.

• One Class-SIMCA

272 The developed SIMCA models were generated using two strategies: (i) two input-class 273 classification (2iC-SIMCA) models, in which the model is trained using two classes (TB and TBM), and (ii) one input-class classification (1iC-SIMCA) model, in which the 274 275 model is trained only with the 'target class' (TB). Within the 1iC-SIMCA strategy, two 276 options were evaluated: (a) using the aforementioned calibration and validation data sets 277 and (b) augmenting the validation set using all the 21 TBM and the previous 6 TB samples. It was found that the 1iC-SIMCA approach presented the best results using 5 278 279 PCs.

280 The 1iC-SIMCA classification plot (Fig. 5a) depicts the normalized (or reduced) 281 Hotteling's T^2 and Q statistics of the target class, at a 95% confidence level. Samples from the validation set with normalized T^2 and Q values < 1 (left-bottom quadrant) are those considered as the target class (TB), whereas samples with T^2 and Q values > 1 (right-bottom quadrant) are considered as non-TB (or TBM). In this sense, samples TBM13 and TBM102 are misclassified as TB and sample TB70 as TBM, indicating that further confirmatory analyses should be performed. These results are used to create the corresponding validation contingencies of the classification model, as shown in Fig. 5b.

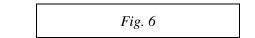
Fig. 5

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291 The PLS-DA model was built using 4 latent variables, which explained 78.3% and 44.1% of the cumulative variance of both X- and Y-variable blocks, respectively. A threshold 292 293 value of 0.5 was established as a decision criterion for the classification of the samples; 294 scores (weights) >0.5 correspond to TB and <0.5 to TBM, as can be observed in the classification plot represented by Fig. 6a. The validation contingencies of the PLS-DA 295 296 classification model are shown in Fig. 6b. Note that all validation samples were correctly classified, even though some samples from the training set were misclassified. This 297 298 demonstrates the powerful generalization capabilities of the PLS-DA model.

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301 • SVM

Support vectors machine (SVM) was performed using the radial basis function (RBF) kernel algorithm with the gamma and cost values studied in the 10⁻⁶-10 and 10⁻³-10² ranges, respectively, and PLS compression with 4 LVs. The classification results for both
the training and validation samples are displayed in Fig. 7a. The results are almost the
same as the PLS-DA ones, suggesting that sample TB70 should undergo further
confirmatory analyses, since it is very close to the threshold value. The SVM validation
contingencies are displayed in Fig. 7b.

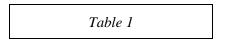
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As a matter of comparison, the classification performance metrics for the classification models were calculated from the results of the validation contingencies (see Table 1) [22], considering TB as the target class. The most popular metrics are discussed here; however, the detailed explanation of each of them is out of the scope of this work and interested readers are kindly forwarded to ref [22] for specific details on this topic.

Fig. 7

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318 In principle, satisfactory classifications lead to classification performance metrics close to 1 319 and bad models to 0. For instance, Table 1 shows that PLS-DA and SVM models have a 320 sensitivity (SENS) = 1, whilst 1iC-SIMCA a and b yields SENS = 0.83, which indicates that 321 PLS-DA and SVM models classify better the TB samples than 1iC-SIMCA. Specificity 322 (SPEC) indicates that the TBM samples are correctly classified, being better for PLS-DA and 323 SVM models with a value = 1 than for 1iC-SIMCA a and b with SPEC = 0.50 and 0.33, respectively. In fact, the 1iC-SIMCA b model, validated with all the TBM samples, provided 324 worse classification results than 1iC-SIMCA a, validated with fewer TBM samples. 325

326 Additionally, the positive predictive value (PPV) (so-called precision) informs on the 327 proportion of agreements in relation to all assigned values of TB class whilst the negative 328 prediction value (NPV) takes into account the ratio between agreements and the total number 329 of TBM samples. For PLS-DA and SVM those metrics were = 1, whereas for the 1iC-SIMCA 330 a and b models PPV were = 0.71 and 0.26, and NPV = 0.67 and 0.88, respectively. The 331 overall classification rate (OCR) was 100%, 100% and 83% for PLS-DA, SVM and 1iC-332 SIMCA, respectively, and the Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) -which might be 333 considered a compendium of the overall classification ability of the models- was 1.0, 1.0 and 334 0.36 for the same classification models.

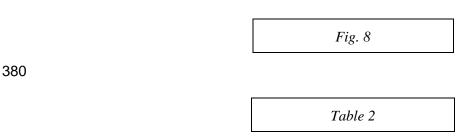
335 When the validation set 'a' is applied on the 1iC-SIMCA model, the validation results are 336 relatively good; however, the results are fictitious as this set does not represent the reality of 337 the sample population. The good results are due to the fact that in the validation set 'a' only 4 338 TBM samples (non-target class) are considered, but when the number of TBM samples is 339 increased (validation set 'b'), the model does not classify well. That is, the model classifies 340 almost all TBM samples as belonging to the TB class, which is related to the results shown in 341 the exploratory analysis and the no clustering tendency of the classes, so it is not possible to 342 establish regions for each of them. Therefore, the SIMCA class modelling method is not 343 suitable for the purpose of this study.

The classification ability of the models obtained in this study (PLS-DA and SVM models) are better than others previously reported for different purposes (despite a direct, straightforward comparison is not possible) applying PCA-linear discriminant analysis (LDA), with an overall classification rate (OCR) of 90.02%, SENS = 0.90 and SPEC = 0.96 [**17**]. Furthermore, in a previous study [**18**] in which nine models were built using mean-centered UV-Vis spectroscopic data to differentiate various classes of Tequila, it was found that nonlinear models behaved better than linear ones (EFFIC > 0.94). 351 In this context, it is worth noting that class modeling methods, such as 1iC-SIMCA, are 352 particularly suitable for real-world authentication problems where the target class is always 353 defined from the authentic or genuine product and is modeled with a large number of samples, since it is less common to find adulterated samples. This approach has a great potential when 354 355 the ideal scenario with sufficient number of authentic samples (target class) are available, 356 being capable to properly identify new samples obtained from non-authentic products and 357 differentiate them from those specimens of genuine ones. However, for this particular study, the available samples to build a more reliable 1iC-SIMCA model were limited, since Tequila 358 359 Blanco 100% agave is only produced in certain regions of México and the accessibility of a 360 variety of samples is rather narrow. A good alternative to address this situation is the use of 361 discriminant methods, such as PLS-DA and SVM, particularly in this study, because it aimed 362 at classifying two mutually excluding classes ('100 agave' and 'mixto') of the same quality sort 363 of tequila ('Tequila Blanco'). In fact, it was evidenced that the validation results of the 1iC-364 SIMCA model depend on the number and type of samples included in the test set, but PLS-365 DA and SVM models provided better ability to correctly classify samples from both classes. 366 However, this discriminant strategy is not free from the drawback of misclassifying new 367 samples coming from non-genuine products with some different composition from those 368 already used in the training step, which is a risk that practitioners must evaluate and take into 369 account when extending the application of the method.

370 3.5. Alcoholic content quantitation

A PLSR-based quantitation analytical method was calibrated to predict the alcoholic content of the Tequila samples. As detailed above, the reference values were obtained by the CRT following the official method. The PLSR model was built using mean centering to preprocess the spectra and including 5 LVs in the model which explained 73.6 and 97.1% of the cumulative variance for the X- and Y-variable blocks, respectively. Fig. 8 compares the PLSR predicted alcoholic contents against the total alcoholic content reported by the CRT. The
evaluation of this model was performed with the quantitation performance metrics, as
observed in Table 2.

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The first quantitation performance metric is the coefficient of determination (\mathbb{R}^2) with a value = 0.971, evidencing a good fitting. The following four metrics are related to different sorts of errors the model might present (root mean square error, mean absolute error, median absolute error and standard error of validation), all of them with values less than 4%; the sixth metric is the standard deviation of validation residuals (SDV = 2.7%), indicating that the agreement of the predictions of the empirical model with the reference values is high, which results in a quite good predictive ability.

Note that PLSR has been previously applied to predict the alcoholic content of different
Tequilas using FTIR, obtaining very good results [19]. Moreover, a vector network analyzer
with an open-ended coaxial probe kit was used for the same purpose [31].

392 PLSR has also been applied to quantitate the furfural, 2-acetylfuran and 5-methylfurfural 393 content in White Tequilas and Mezcals samples with acceptable results [29]. It would have 394 been interesting to compare the results obtained here with those of another report in which 395 SORS was applied to study the adulteration of Vodka, Gin and Whisky with methanol, but 396 prediction of the alcoholic content was not considered [10].

397

398 *4. Conclusions*

399 Economic losses for the industry of alcoholic beverages and societal health problems are two 400 relevant consequences of the adulteration and counterfeiting of commercialized spirits, which 401 have not ceased over the years. To streamline the authentication surveillance of these 402 products, current official rearguard methods need to be complemented with vanguard, faster 403 and reliable *in-situ* screening analytical methods. In this regard, the present study reports for 404 the first time the combination of the SORS analytical technique and chemometrics to 405 discriminate between 100% agave and mixed White Tequilas and to predict their alcoholic 406 content. It should be noted that the potential of the *in-situ* non-invasive SORS measurement 407 implemented here has been verified by means of a similarity analysis. This demonstrated that 408 the spectra obtained after analyzing Tequilas through the original bottle and through amber 409 vials are almost the same, obtaining nearness indexes close to 1. Afterwards, models were 410 developed and assessed with several classification performance metrics, which indicated that 411 satisfactory classifications and predictions were achieved. PLS-DA and SVM presented the 412 best OCR = 100%, evidencing that the combination of SORS and some chemometric methods 413 is able to discern among 100% agave and mixed White Tequilas. Finally, a PLSR quantitation 414 model demonstrated an excellent ability to predict the alcoholic content of the samples.

The approach presented here offers an alternative analytical method for routine authentication tasks undergone by official regulatory bodies. It is reliable and fast for *in-situ* screening purposes and, can complement and accelerate the quality control and authentication processes of commercial spirits, such as Tequila.

419

420 *Conflicts of interest*

421 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

422

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	1iC-SIMCA			
-	а	b	- PLS-DA	SVM
Metrics	Target class (100% agave White Tequila, TB)			
Sensitivity (SENS)	0.83	0.83	1.00	1.00
Specificity (SPEC)	0.50	0.33	1.00	1.00
False positive rate (FPR)	0.50	0.67	0.00	0.00
False negative rate (FNR)	0.17	0.17	0.00	0.00
Positive predictive value (PPV) (precision)	0.71	0.26	1.00	1.00
Negative predictive value (NPV)	0.67	0.88	1.00	1.00
Youden index (YOUD)	0.33	0.17	1.00	1.00
Positive likelihood rate (LR(+))	1.67	1.25	-	_
Negative likelihood rate (LR(-))	0.33	0.50	0.00	0.00
Classification odds ratio (COR)	5.00	2.50	-	_
F-measure (F)	0.77	0.40	1.00	1.00
Discriminant power (DP)	0.39	0.22	-	_
Efficiency (or accuracy) (EFFIC)	0.70	0.44	1.00	1.00
Misclassification rate (MR)	0.30	0.56	0.00	0.00
AUC (correctly classified rate) (CCR)	0.67	0.58	1.00	1.00
Gini coefficient (Gini)	0.33	0.17	1.00	1.00
G-mean (GM)	0.65	0.53	1.00	1.00
Matthews' correlation coefficient (MCC)	0.36	0.15	1.00	1.00
Chance agreement rate (CAR)	0.54	0.39	0.52	0.52
Chance error rate (CER)	0.48	0.35	0.48	0.48
Kappa coefficient (KAPPA)	0.35	0.09	1.00	1.00
PROB (TB/TB)	0.71	0.26	1.00	1.00
PROB (nTB/nTB)	0.67	0.88	1.00	1.00
PROB (TB/nTB)	0.33	0.13	0.00	0.00
PROB (nTB/TB)	0.29	0.74	0.00	0.00

Table 1. Summary of classification performance metrics for 1iC-SIMCA, PLS-DA and SVM models.

The hyphen "-" signifies that the performance feature cannot be determined since it involves a division between zero.

a and b: models validated using 10 (6 TB and 4 TBM) and 27 (6 TB and 21 TBM) samples as external validation sets, respectively.

Metrics	Value (%)	
Coefficient of determination (R ²)	0.971	
Root mean square error (RMSE)	3.32	
Mean absolute error (MAE)	1.82	
Median absolute error (MdAE)	2.61	
Standard error of validation (SEV)	3.14	
Standard deviation of validation residuals (SDV)	2.65	

Table 2. Performance metrics in the quantitation of the alcoholiccontent of the Tequila samples that constitute the validation set.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Raman spectra of a '100% agave' White Tequila sample (TB) and a 'mixed' White Tequila (TBM) one.

Figure 2. Similarity plots of four sample pairs of White Tequila (S1-S4) measured through the original bottle (BS) and amber vial (VS), considered as the reference spectrum.

Figure 3. Exploratory PC1 vs PC2 scores plot from the 51 samples PCA model showing two different categories of White Tequilas. TB: 100% agave White Tequila (n=30) and TBM: mixed White Tequilas (n=21).

Figure 4. Exploratory LV2 vs LV3 scores plot from the 51 samples PLS model showing two different categories of White Tequilas. TB: 100% agave White Tequila (n=30) and TBM: mixed White Tequilas (n=21).

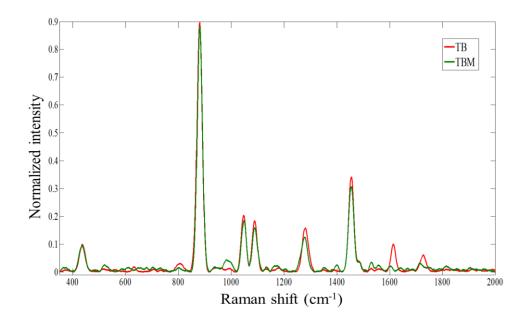
Figure 5. (a) Classification plot (a) and (b) validation contingencies for the one input-class SIMCA classification model. Class 1: target class (TB: '100% agave' Tequila); class 2: non-target class (TBM: 'mixed Tequila') (The magenta-marked samples in figure 5a are the misclassified samples).

Figure 6. (a) Classification plot and (b) validation contingencies for the PLS-DA classification model. Class 1: target class (TB: '100% agave' Tequila); class 2: non-target class (TBM: 'mixed Tequila'). (The dashed line in figure 6a indicates the 0.5 threshold level).

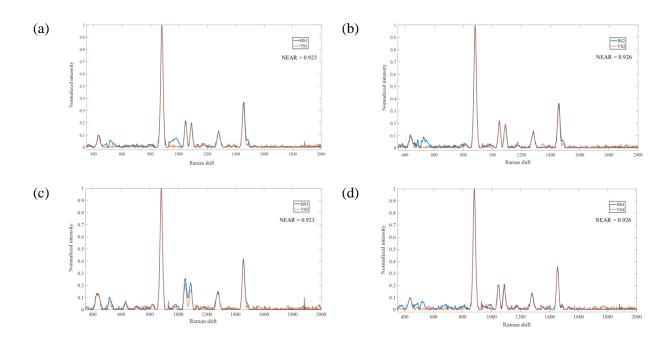
Figure 7. (a) Classification plot and (b) validation contingencies for the SVM classification model. Class 1: target class (TB: '100% agave' Tequila); class 2: non-target class (TBM: 'mixed Tequila'). (The dashed line in figure 7a marks the 0.5 threshold level).

Figure 8. PLSR alcoholic predictions (% v/v) for White Tequila samples. (a) Calibration curve, and (b) alcoholic content plot of the validation set samples. The circles are colored according to the predicted alcoholic content from the vertical color scale. Each sample displays the predicted value against the real value of alcoholic content, which is underlined.

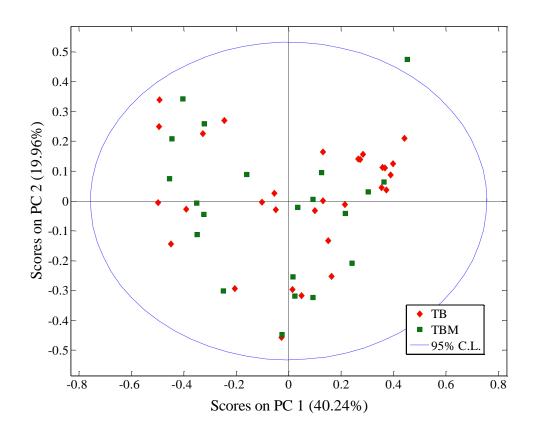
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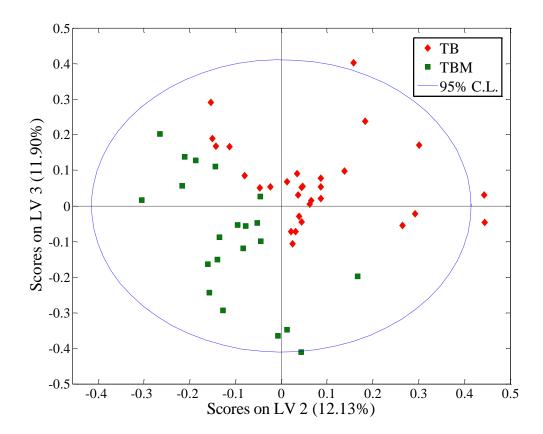


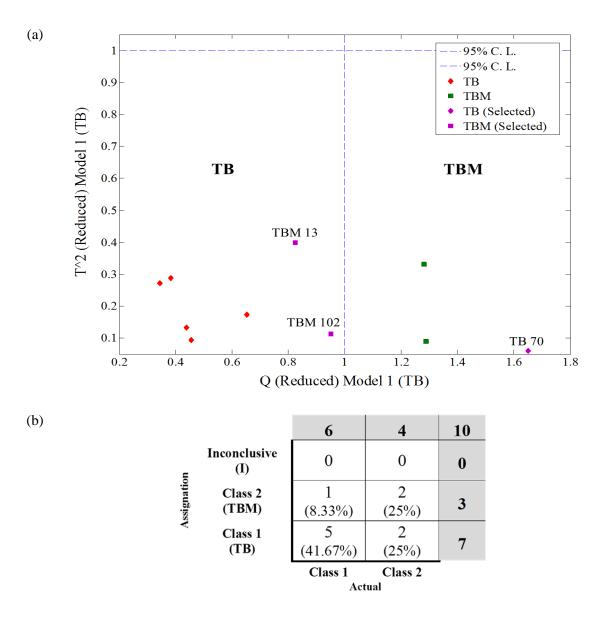
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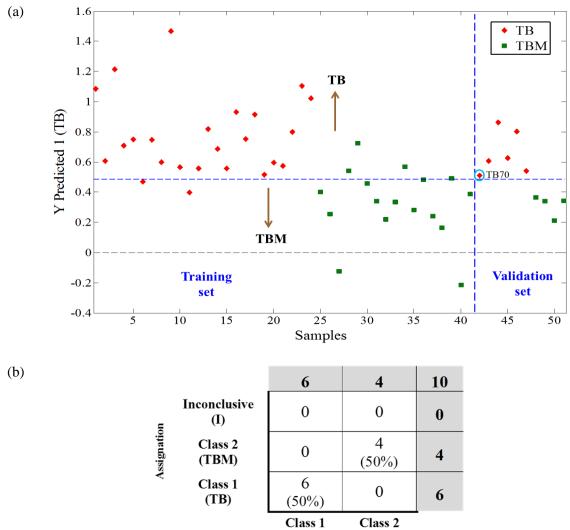
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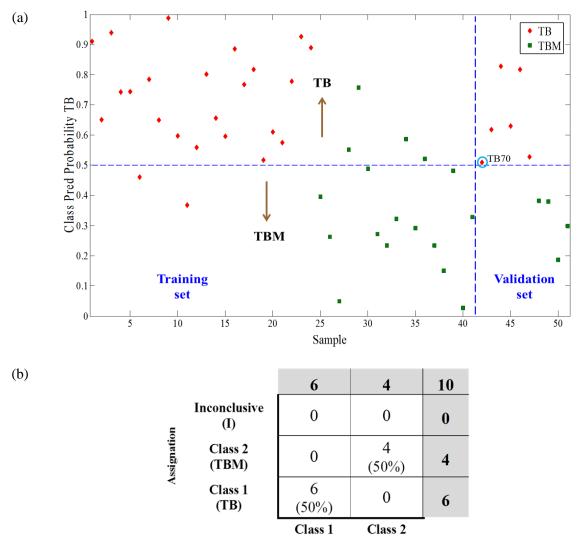
<Figure 6>





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<Figure 7>



Actual

<Figure 8>

