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Additional Information

1 **Potential of NIR spectroscopy to predict amygdalin content established by HPLC in**
2 **intact almonds and classification based on almond bitterness**

3

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10

11 **Abbreviated running title:** Amygdalin content and sweet and bitter almonds
12 classification by NIR

13

14 **ABSTRACT**

15 In this study, 360 intact almonds, half sweet and half bitter, were assessed by near-infrared
16 (NIR) spectroscopy to predict amygdalin content (established by high performance liquid
17 chromatography (HPLC)) and by applying partial least squares (PLS) to the spectral data.
18 After optimising amygdalin extraction and chromatographic conditions, the amygdalin
19 contents found by HPLC were not detected or below to 350 mg·kg⁻¹ for sweet almonds,
20 and between 14,700 and 50,400 mg·kg⁻¹ for bitter almonds. The intact almond spectra
21 resulted in good predictions of amygdalin content with R²_p of 0.939 and RMSEP of 0.373.
22 Almonds were correctly classified into sweet and bitter by linear discriminant analysis
23 (LDA), quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA) and PLS-DA, with sensitivity and
24 specificity values higher than 0.94 for evaluation set samples. Based on these results, it

25 can be concluded that NIR spectroscopy is a good non-destructive alternative to be used
26 as an automatic in-line classification system by food industry.

27

28 *Keywords*

29 HPLC

30 NIR spectroscopy

31 Amygdalin content prediction

32 Classification

33 Bitter and sweet almonds

34 Quality control

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37

38 Almonds (*Prunus amygdalus*) are an edible kernel in its natural state and a fruit
39 of high commercial value for the food and cosmetic industries. Two different types can
40 be distinguished depending on kernel bitterness: bitter and sweet almonds (Borrás,
41 Amigo, van den Berg, Boqué, & Busto, 2014). Sweet almonds are widely used as a main
42 ingredient in manufactured food products, while bitter almonds provide the main source
43 of bitter almond oil, used as both flavouring and an ingredient in cosmetics (Salas-
44 Salvadó, Casas-Agustench, & Salas-Huetos, 2011). The bitter almond flavour is a
45 consequence of the presence of cyanogenic glucosides, such as amygdalin and prunasin
46 (Sánchez-Pérez, Jørgensen, Olsen, Dicenta, & Møller, 2008). Amygdalin concentrates in
47 almond kernels, while prunasin is a monoglycoside of roots, leaves and kernel of
48 immature almonds that converts into amygdalin during maturation. The bitter taste occurs
49 due to enzymatic hydrolysis by β -glucosidase that produces benzaldehydes, sugars and
50 hydrogen cyanide to provide a chemical defence barrier against herbivores, insects and
51 pathogens.

52 One complicated aspect for the almond sector is lack of homogeneity of almond
53 batches. For example, many different shape and size varieties are marketed with the same
54 commercial name which cause disorders for the processing industry. Additionally, the
55 presence of bitter almonds in batches and, as a result, in the final food product, can
56 become a public health issue that endangers almond marketing. Hence, it is necessary to
57 develop analytical methodologies capable of discriminating between sweet and bitter
58 almonds. One of the traditionally used methods to determine cyanogenic compounds in
59 almonds is high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Several authors have
60 studied the optimisation of the extraction process and the effect of sample preparation to
61 evaluate amygdalin and prunasin levels in almonds (Arrazola, Grané, Martín, & Dicenta,

62 2013; Bolarinwa, Orfila, & Morgan, 2014; Dicenta et al., 2002; Ferrara, Maggio, &
63 Pizzigallo, 2010; Lee, Zhang, Wood, Rogel Castillo, & Mitchell, 2013; Yıldırım, San,
64 Koyuncu, & Yıldırım, 2010). However, such methodologies are complex, expensive,
65 require highly trained personnel, long sample preparation times and reagent use, and are
66 also destructive, which means that these technologies are not always available to all food
67 industries (Liang, Slaughter, Ortega-Beltran, & Michailides, 2015). Thus simpler, faster
68 and non-destructive techniques are required and near-infrared (NIR) spectroscopy is a
69 good alternative. The potential of this technology has been previously demonstrated to
70 authenticate the geographical origin of pistachio and to recognise samples with a
71 Protected Designation of Origin (Vitale, Bevilacqua, Bucci, Magrì, Magrì, & Marini,
72 2013), to inspect internal damages in almonds (Nakariyakul, 2014), and to detect both
73 fungal infection (*Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus*) in almond kernels (Liang
74 et al., 2015) and hidden damage in raw almonds (Rogel-Castillo, Boulton,
75 Opastpongkarn, Huang, & Mitchell, 2016), among others. Only one published study
76 about the discrimination of sweet and bitter almonds using both NIR and Raman
77 spectroscopy was found in the literature (Borrás et al., 2014), and no work is available
78 about predicting the amygdalin content of both sweet and bitter almonds by rapid and
79 non-destructive techniques.

80 The objective of this study was to investigate the feasibility of NIR spectroscopy,
81 in combination with chemometric methods, to non-destructively predict amygdalin
82 content in intact almonds (established by HPLC). It should be pointed that amygdalin was
83 the only cyanogenic glucoside quantified in this work since prunasin was not present in
84 mature almonds. Moreover, the potential of this technique was also evaluated in the
85 discrimination of sweet from bitter almonds.

86

87 **2. Materials and methods**

88

89 *2.1. Chemicals and samples*

90

91 The following analytical grade reagents were used: amygdalin (BioXtra, $\geq 97.0\%$
92 HPLC, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA), acetonitrile (ACN, HPLC Far
93 UV/Gradient Grade, J.T. Baker, The Netherlands), methanol (MeOH, AGR ACS, ISO,
94 Ph.Eur. Assay $\geq 99.8\%$, Labkem, Barcelona, Spain) and acetone (VWR Prolabo,
95 Fontenay – sous – Bois, France). Deionised water was obtained using an Aquinity
96 deionizer (Membrapure GmbH, Berlin, Germany).

97 The number of almonds employed in this study were 360 (180 sweet and 180 bitter
98 almonds), which were kindly provided by Agricoop (Alicante, Spain). Sweet almonds
99 belonged to six commercial varieties: Planeta (P), Comuna (C), Largueta (L), Rumbeta
100 (R), Marcona (M) and Guara (G). Bitter almonds (A) were a mix of non-specific varieties.
101 The analysed almonds were free of visual damage and were of uniform size and colour.

102

103 *2.2. Instrumentation and experimental conditions*

104

105 *2.2.1. NIR spectroscopy*

106

107 In situ recording of NIR spectra was directly carried out on the intact almond
108 kernel (with skin) at room temperature ($22\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$) in a NIR spectrometer from Avantes BV
109 (The Netherlands), model AVS-DESKTOP-USB2. The NIR spectrometer collected
110 spectra by covering the 888–1,795 nm range, and data were measured every 3.535 nm in
111 the diffuse reflectance mode using a detector model AvaSpec-NIR256-1.7 NIRLine. Two

112 points were acquired per sample on each almond side, and the mean of both spectra was
113 employed for the statistical analysis. All the spectra were acquired using a bi-directional
114 fibre optic reflectance probe, model FCR-7IR200-2-45-ME, whose tip is created at 45° to
115 avoid back-reflection from almond face. The legs of the probe are formed by six fibre
116 cables of 200 µm by connecting one leg with the light source (model AvaLight-HAL-S,
117 formed by a 10-W tungsten halogen) and the other with the spectrometer. The software
118 to perform the spectroscopic measurements was Avasoft version 7.2.

119 The external white reference was a 99% diffuse reflectance standard (WS-2,
120 Avantes BV) which allowed to adjust the integration time to 500 ms for a maximum
121 reflectance value of around 90% of saturation (Lorente, Escandell-Montero, Cubero,
122 Gómez-Sanchis, & Blasco, 2015). The dark spectrum was recorded by completely
123 covering the probe tip and by switching off the light source.

124

125 *2.2.2. Amygdalin extraction and HPLC*

126

127 In order to proceed with amygdalin extraction, almond skins were removed by
128 immersion in hot water for 5 min before drying almonds at room temperature. Then,
129 almonds were crushed in a porcelain mortar. In order to obtain ca. 100% of amygdalin
130 recovery from the samples, different solvents and extraction times were attempted. The
131 best results were obtained when the grounded almond was suspended in 20 mL MeOH,
132 and kept at constant agitation for 24 h using a magnetic stirrer. Finally, the obtained
133 supernatant was filtered through a 0.22 µm PTFE syringe filter. For sweet almonds, the
134 filtered solution was injected directly into the chromatograph, while for bitter almonds
135 this solution was 1:10 (v/v) diluted with MeOH to obtain an amygdalin concentration that
136 fell within the linear range of the calibration curve.

137 Amygdalin determination was performed in a liquid chromatograph from Hitachi
138 Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan) model LaChrom Elite. The chromatograph was composed of an auto-
139 sampler and a UV detector (models L-220 and L-2400, respectively). Amygdalin
140 determination was performed using a 5 μm analytical column, model Liquid Purple C18
141 (250 x 4.6 mm i.d.) from Análisis Vínicos (Tomelloso, Spain). After testing different
142 chromatographic parameters and mobile phase compositions, the best results were
143 obtained with an isocratic elution using a mobile phase that contained water and ACN
144 (80:20 v/v). The other chromatographic conditions were: UV detection, 218 nm; injection
145 volume, 20 μL ; flow rate, 1.0 mL min^{-1} .

146

147 *2.3. Spectral pre-treatment*

148

149 Prior to spectral pre-treatment, all the spectra were analysed by principal
150 component analysis (PCA) to identify and eliminate defective spectral outliers, and to
151 explore the data structure between objects based on Hotelling's T^2 and squared residual
152 statistics (Beghi, Giovenzana, Tugnolo, & Guidetti, 2017). Then, the diffusive reflectance
153 data were transformed into absorption spectra by $\log(I/R)$ transformation in order to
154 linearise the correlation with the analyte concentration (Hernández, Lobo, & González,
155 2006). Moreover, the spectral range was trimmed to a region of 1,000-1,750 nm to reduce
156 spectral noise. In this work, several spectral pre-treatments were simultaneously applied:
157 Savitzky-Golay smoothing using a 3-point gap (Carr, Chubar, & Dumas, 2005), extended
158 multiplicative scatter correction (EMSC) and the second derivate with a 2.3-gap-segment.
159 When used together, the signal-to-noise ratio improved (Gorry, 1990; Savitzky & Golay,
160 1964), the parallel translation of spectra was eliminated (He, Li, & Shao, 2006; Martens,
161 Nielsen, & Engelsen, 2003; Bruun, Søndergaard, & Jacobsen, 2007), and useful

162 information was retrieved (Cortés, Ortiz, Aleixos, Blasco, Cubero, & Talens, 2016;
163 Rodriguez-Saona, Fry, McLaughlin, & Calvey, 2001). The criterion to select among the
164 different pre-treatments was to obtain the best predictive ability, which is the equivalent
165 to the highest robustness of the analytical method in the experimental domain (Xiaobo,
166 Jiewen, Povey, Holmes, & Hanpin, 2010).

167

168 *2.4. Chemometric data processing*

169

170 Spectral data were organised in a matrix, where rows represented the number of
171 samples ($N = 360$, 180 sweet and 180 bitter almonds) and columns denoted variables (X-
172 variables and Y-variables). The X-variables, or predictors, were the spectral signals. The
173 Y-variables, or responses, were the amygdalin percentages determined per sample by
174 HPLC or the dummy variable for the classification models.

175 To develop the prediction and discriminant models, a training set was used that
176 consisted in randomly selecting 80% of samples. Each model was internally validated by
177 the leave-one-out cross-validation technique (Huang, Yu, Xu, & Ying, 2008). An
178 independent evaluation set composed of the remaining 20% of samples was used to
179 evaluate the constructed models (Soares, Gomes, Galvão Filho, Araújo, & Galvão, 2013).

180 Both spectral pre-treatment and multivariate analysis were performed with the
181 statistical software program ‘The Unscrambler X’ (version 10.3, Camo Process SA,
182 Trondheim, Norway).

183

184 *2.4.1. Predicting amygdalin content using PLS*

185

186 PLS was the selected chemometric technique to predict the amygdalin content of
187 both sweet and bitter almonds. For PLS, covariance was maximised between the linear
188 functions of the spectral variations (X-variables) and the corresponding defined value of
189 amygdalin content (Y-variable). PLS model accuracy was judged according to the values
190 of: the root mean square error of calibration, cross-validation and prediction (RMSEC,
191 RMSECV and RMSEP, respectively) and the coefficient of determination for calibration,
192 cross-validation and prediction (R^2_C , R^2_{CV} , R^2_P , respectively), and also by the required
193 number of latent variables (LV).

194

195 *2.4.2. Classifying almonds according to their bitterness*

196

197 Classification of almonds in terms of bitterness (sweet and bitter) was performed
198 by constructing three different discriminant models: LDA, QDA and PLS-DA. These
199 models are supervised algorithms based on the relationship between spectral intensity and
200 sample characteristics; in this case using the spectral variations as X-variables and the
201 two established categories (sweet and bitter) as Y-variables. For PLS-DA, the Y-variable
202 was a discrete numerical value (zero for sweet and one for bitter almonds), while LDA
203 and QDA assumed a categorical value created by assigning different letters to sweet and
204 bitter almonds. Hence, these discriminant analyses sought to correlate the spectral
205 variations with the defined classes in attempt to maximise the covariance between both
206 types of variables.

207 For LDA and QDA, the number of samples in the training set had to be larger than
208 the number of variables included in the model (Kozak & Scaman, 2008; Sádecká,
209 Jakubíková, Májek, & Kleinová, 2016). Thus, variable reduction was necessary. This
210 reduction was achieved using the PCA scores as input data since the linear combinations

211 of the original variables called principal components (PCs) were not correlated
212 (Rodriguez-Campos, Escalona-Buendía, Orozco-Avila, Lugo-Cervantes, & Jaramillo-
213 Flores, 2011). In this study, the first nine PCs were used to supersede the original data
214 (He et al., 2006).

215 The three classification models were then evaluated for sensitivity and specificity,
216 where sensitivity relates to the probability that the sample possessing the desired
217 characteristic gives a positive test result, while the latter is the probability that the sample
218 without the desired characteristic gives a negative test result (Amodio, Ceglie, Chaudhry,
219 Piazzolla, & Colelli, 2017). This also leads to the development of valuable indices, such
220 as the non-error rate (NER) or classification rate, which represents the percentage of the
221 correctly classified samples, and is the average of the sensitivity calculated over the
222 various classes, as indicated in Eq. (1):

$$223 \quad NER = \frac{\sum_{a=1}^A S_n}{n} \quad (1)$$

224 where S_n is the sensitivity for each a class and n is the total number of classes.

225

226 **3. Results and discussion**

227

228 *3.1. Optimising amygdalin extraction*

229

230 To achieve the best extraction conditions to recover amygdalin from almonds, two
231 parameters, extraction solvent and time, were optimised. The best conditions were
232 selected by establishing the recovery percentages, which were estimated by considering
233 the quantity of amygdalin in the almond and the quantity recovered after applying the
234 extraction conditions. All the experiments were repeated 3 times.

235 To perform the experiment, sweet almonds in which amygdalin content was not
236 detected were employed. For each test, 2 mg amygdalin standard was added to 1 g of
237 triturated almond. Initially, three solvents (MeOH, H₂O and MeOH:H₂O 80:20 (v/v))
238 were tested and their extraction efficiency was compared. For this purpose, 20 mL of each
239 solvent were added to the spiked sample to be continuously stirred for 24 h. Recoveries
240 ca. 100% were obtained using MeOH, while the other solvents (H₂O and MeOH:H₂O
241 80:20 (v/v)) only provided recovery values ca. 15 and 2%, respectively. For this reason,
242 MeOH will be next used.

243 After optimizing the extraction solvent, the extraction time was next optimised.
244 For this purpose, times between 15 min and 32 h were assayed. Recovery values were ca.
245 100% only after 24 h of extraction. For this reason, this time was selected for further
246 studies.

247

248 *3.2. Optimizing chromatographic conditions*

249

250 The optimisation of the chromatographic conditions was performed using the 2mg
251 g⁻¹ spiked almond sample to achieve a satisfactory resolution between the amygdalin peak
252 and other matrix peaks that absorb at 218 nm (maximum amygdalin wavelength). Most
253 manuscripts previously reported in literature (Ferrara et al., 2010; Arrazola et al., 2013;
254 Yıldırım et al., 2010; Dicenta et al., 2002) employed mixtures of ACN and H₂O as the
255 mobile phase; then mixtures of ACN and H₂O at different percentages were tested by
256 using two types of elution: isocratic and gradient. In all cases, 20 µL of sample were
257 injected at a 1 mL min⁻¹ flow rate. The best results considering both resolution and
258 analysis time were provided by isocratic elution with 80% H₂O and 20% ACN, which
259 was selected.

260 After selecting the previous conditions, the influence of flow rate on separation
261 performance was evaluated. Flow rates between 0.5 and 1.5 mL min⁻¹ were tested. Using
262 a 0.5 mL min⁻¹, peak width and retention time increased when compared with a flow rate
263 of 1.0 mL min⁻¹. When 1.5 mL min⁻¹ was tested, amygdalin and a matrix peak, which
264 were resolved using lower flow rates, partially overlapped. Therefore, a 1.0 mL min⁻¹
265 flow rate was established as the optimal one.

266 Lastly, different injection volumes were also tested (from 5 to 30 µL). A 20 µL
267 volume was adopted as the best compromise between peak resolution and sensitivity.

268

269 *3.3. HPLC analytical figures of merit and amygdalin determination in almonds*

270

271 The different parameters to evaluate the analytical performance of the HPLC
272 method are shown in Table 1. The method's precision was evaluated by the repeatability
273 values obtained within one day and for three days. As observed, the relative standard
274 deviation (RSD) values for the retention times and peak areas were lower than 0.31 and
275 1.41, respectively.

276 Amygdalin quantification was performed by the external calibration curves of the
277 peak areas. To construct them, six amygdalin standard solutions at different
278 concentrations between the ranges shown in Table 1 were prepared and injected. The
279 concentrations employed for the first calibration curve were 0.1, 1, 5, 10, 25 and 50 mg
280 L⁻¹, while they were 50, 100, 250, 500, 750 and 1000 mg L⁻¹ for the second one. The
281 calibration curve constructed within the 0.1-50 mg L⁻¹ amygdalin range was employed to
282 quantify amygdalin in sweet almonds, whereas the other calibration curve (50-1000 mg
283 L⁻¹) was used to quantify the analyte in bitter almonds after a 1:10 (v/v) sample dilution
284 with MeOH to obtain an amygdalin concentration that fell within the linear range of the

285 second calibration curve. The obtained determination coefficients were higher than
286 0.9996 (see Table 1). The other parameters included in Table 1 were the limit of detection
287 (LOD) and limit of quantification (LOQ) of amygdalin. LODs and LOQs were estimated
288 following the ICH guidelines (1996). As shown in Table 1, the LOD and LOQ values
289 were 0.02 and 0.07 mg L⁻¹, respectively. These values were lower than others found in
290 bibliography (Ferrara et al., 2010; Arrazola et al., 2013; Bolarinwa et al., 2014).
291 Moreover, in order to assure that no matrix effect was observed while quantifying
292 amygdalin in almonds, standard addition calibration curves (taking into account the
293 linearity ranges of Table 1) were also constructed. Both curves provided R² > 0.9995 and
294 similar slopes as the external calibration curves. Therefore, it was concluded that the
295 external calibration curves were correctly used to quantify amygdalin in almonds.

296 The efficiency of amygdalin extraction from almonds was estimated by a recovery
297 study. To carry out this study, sweet almonds in which amygdalin was not detected were
298 spiked with different amygdalin contents that ranged from 0.1 to 60 mg per 1g of almond
299 (see Table 2). All the obtained recovery values were comprised between 98.4% and
300 102.9%, which demonstrated excellent amygdalin extraction efficiency.

301 Next, all the almond samples considered in this study (360 almonds) were injected
302 into the HPLC system. According to the amygdalin content found in these samples, they
303 were classified into two groups: sweet almonds, whose amygdalin content was under the
304 LOD or below 350 mg·kg⁻¹, and bitter almonds, whose content ranged from 14,700 and
305 50,400 mg·kg⁻¹. In sweet almonds, the amygdalin content varied among the different
306 varieties considered in this study: the lowest content was obtained for the Planeta and
307 Comuna varieties, in which the amygdalin content of several almonds was below the
308 LOD. The highest content was found for the Guara variety (350 mg·kg⁻¹). These contents

309 were consistent with the amygdalin contents previously reported in the literature (Lee et
310 al., 2013).

311

312 *3.4. Spectral analysis*

313

314 Fig. 1 shows the raw spectra (Fig. 1a) and the pre-treated mean spectra (Fig. 1b)
315 of sweet and bitter almonds, where the presence of signal peaks at wavelengths of 1125,
316 1195, 1250, 1380, 1440, 1625 and 1730 nm were evidenced. The region at 1,370-1,400
317 nm corresponded to the first vibrational overtones which is associated with the O-H
318 stretching modes of water absorption (Clément, Dorais, & Vernon, 2008; Lestander &
319 Geladi, 2005; Magwaza, Opara, Nieuwoudt, Cronje, Saeys, & Nicolai, 2012). It is known
320 that sugars display bands in the wavelength regions of 1,100-1,600 nm and 1,700-2,300
321 nm (Tewari, & Irudayaraj, 2004); hence, the signal peaks observed within these regions
322 could correspond to the second and first overtones of the C-H stretching associated with
323 sugars (Osborne, Fearn, & Hindle, 1993; Golic, & Walsh, 2006; Walsh, Golic, &
324 Greensill, 2004).

325

326 *3.5. Predicting amygdalin content using PLS*

327

328 In order to predict the amygdalin content of the almond samples, a PLS model
329 was constructed. For the calibration samples, the lowest RMSEC value was 0.28 when
330 seven LV were included in the calibration model, with a R^2_C of 0.967. When the model
331 was validated using the leave-one-out cross-validation technique, the obtained RMSECV
332 was 0.337, with a R^2_{CV} of 0.954. Finally, when PLS model performance was evaluated
333 by evaluation set samples, the RMSEP was 0.373 with a R^2_P of 0.939. The good prediction

334 performance obtained for the evaluation set samples is shown in Fig. 2. Thus, the obtained
335 results demonstrated that the calibration model optimised by the leave-one-out cross-
336 validation was representative, and that the model could accurately predict amygdalin
337 content in different almond lots with unknown content.

338

339 *3.6. Classifying almonds according to their bitterness using LDA, QDA and PLS-DA*

340

341 The possibility of classifying sweet and bitter almonds was evaluated by
342 constructing and comparing three discrimination methods: LDA, QDA and PLS-DA. As
343 previously mentioned, a PCA model was first constructed for LDA and QDA to reduce
344 the variables. The first nine PCs explained 95% of the spectral data. Thus, these PCs were
345 used for LDA and QDA model construction purposes. When the three models were
346 constructed, all the training set samples were correctly classified. The results obtained for
347 the evaluation set samples for all the models are shown in Table 3. As observed in the
348 confusion table, only two samples of each category were not correctly assigned for LDA
349 and QDA, while all the samples were correctly classified for PLS-DA. The same result is
350 observed in Fig. 3. Moreover, the corresponding sensitivity and specificity values for each
351 model are also included in Table 3. The best results were obtained with the PLS-DA
352 model (sensitivity, specificity and NER of 100%), although the results of the LDA and
353 QDA models were also satisfactory (sensitivity, specificity and NER of 94.4%). Thus, it
354 can be concluded that all the discriminant models led to a satisfactory almond
355 classification according to their bitterness.

356

357 **4. Conclusions**

358

359 In this work, the potential of NIR spectroscopy to predict amygdalin content in
360 intact almonds and to classify almonds according to their bitterness was demonstrated.
361 After optimising different experimental parameters and chromatographic conditions, the
362 amygdalin content of 360 almonds was established by HPLC. The amygdalin content of
363 the sweet almonds of different commercial varieties was not detected or below 350
364 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, whereas amygdalin content ranged between 14,700 and 50,400 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ for bitter
365 almonds. Using PLS, the amygdalin content of these samples was satisfactorily predicted
366 with R^2_{P} and with RMSEP of 0.939 and 0.373, respectively. Moreover, both sweet and
367 bitter almonds were correctly classified into these categories by the construction of the
368 LDA, QDA and PLS-DA discriminant models, where the best results were obtained for
369 the PLS-DA model. Thus, it can be concluded that the NIR spectroscopy technique is a
370 very promising non-destructive alternative to discriminate between sweet and bitter
371 almonds, which could be implemented into industry as an automatic in-line classification
372 system to ensure satisfactory almond quality control.

373

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375

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379

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381

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499

500 **Figure captions**

501

502 **Fig. 1.** Spectra of almonds obtained from (a) raw data and (b) pre-treated data.

503

504 **Fig. 2.** Measured versus predicted amygdalin content by PLS in the prediction set.

505

506 **Fig. 3.** Discrimination plots of the (a) LDA, (b) QDA and (c) PLS-DA models constructed
507 to classify the evaluation set almonds according to their bitterness.