

Document downloaded from:

<http://hdl.handle.net/10251/182218>

This paper must be cited as:

Petrovic, G.; Aleixandre Tudo, J.; Buica, A. (2020). Viability of IR spectroscopy for the accurate measurement of yeast assimilable nitrogen content of grape juice. *Talanta*. 206:1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2019.120241>



The final publication is available at

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2019.120241>

Copyright Elsevier

Additional Information

1 Viability of IR spectroscopy for the accurate measurement of Yeast Assimilable Nitrogen content of grape
2 juice

3 Gabriella Petrovic^a, Jose-Luis Aleixandre-Tudo^{a,b}, Astrid Buica^{a*}

4 ^aDepartment of Viticulture and Oenology, P/Bag X1 Matieland, Stellenbosch 7600, South Africa

5 ^bInstitute for Grape and Wine Sciences, P/Bag X1 Matieland, Stellenbosch 7600, South Africa

6 *corresponding author: Astrid Buica, email: abuica@sun.ac.za

7 **ABSTRACT:** Up to date, there have been only a few reports on the measurement of YAN and/or its
8 components using IR spectroscopy, suffering from various limitations (number of samples, validation strategies,
9 *etc.*). In this work, three IR spectral instruments measuring in different modes and ranges of the IR spectrum
10 (FT-IR, FT-NIR, and ATR-MIR), were compared and evaluated for their accuracy to measure both total YAN as
11 well as the components, FAN and ammonia, separately, using over 900 grape juice samples from 28 cultivars
12 over three seasons. The global and vintage-based models were evaluated using $R^2_{CAL/VAL}$, RMSEC/P, and
13 $RPD_{CAL/VAL}$. Randomization tests were used for pair-wise comparison of models. FT-IR and FT-NIR instruments
14 gave the best results, while ATR-MIR can be used for screening purposes. Considering the accuracy,
15 robustness, high throughput, and cost-effective nature, the models produced by both FT-IR and FT-NIR
16 spectroscopy can provide winemakers with the opportunity to make timelier and more informed nutrient
17 supplementation decisions, facilitating the achievement of their desired wine style and quality.

18

19 **Keywords:** InfraRed (IR) spectroscopy; Yeast Assimilable Nitrogen (YAN); Grape juice; Chemometrics;
20 Randomization tests; Calibration

21

22 Declarations of interest: none

23 1. Introduction

24 IR spectroscopy provides the possibility of “fingerprinting” samples and, therefore, can provide an in-depth
25 understanding of the chemical properties of various food and beverage products [1]. However, the potential of
26 spectroscopic techniques would not have been realised had it not been for major developments in the field of
27 chemometrics. Chemometric techniques such as partial least squares (PLS) regression and principal component
28 regression (PCR) allow the simultaneous consideration of multiple variables and are also able to handle highly
29 correlated and noisy data, addressing the inherent issues related to dealing with spectroscopic data [2]. This is
30 due to the fact that these techniques extract latent variables from the original spectral data, thereby reducing the
31 number of X-variables (spectral data points) to a set of non-correlated variables. This set of non-correlated

32 variables can then be used to explain the variation in the data [3,4] and subsequently, provide the possibility of
33 building suitable and robust calibration models.

34 Due to the complexity of the winemaking process and the increasing consumer demand for high quality
35 wines, monitoring grape and wine composition has become a necessity [1]. However, timely and cost-effective
36 analysis is not always possible using conventional methods. This is owed to the fact that often these methods
37 cannot be carried out on-site as they require trained personnel and the use of potentially hazardous chemicals
38 [5]. Thus, the possibility of providing simple, rapid and cost-effective methods which are non-destructive and
39 environmentally friendly would be an indispensable asset to the modern wine industry. These properties are all
40 characteristic of IR spectroscopy, and although there has been widespread adoption of this technology in the
41 food industry, the use of IR spectroscopy in the wine industry is still in its infancy [6–8].

42 The possible reasons for this have been highlighted in a recent publication [9], the most pertinent being the
43 lack of understanding of the technology. Robust calibrations should be capable of providing accurate results for
44 samples which are: (i) exposed to different environmental conditions, (ii) from different varieties and (iii) from
45 different vintages [10]. These are essential factors to consider for the successful integration of this technology
46 into the wine industry, especially due to the notoriously complex nature of the grape juice matrix [8]. As a result,
47 obtaining a representative calibration set becomes a particularly challenging task [11]. Furthermore, the bulk of
48 publications currently available on spectroscopic modelling in grape and wine research generally use a limited
49 sample set and thus, chances are that the large degree of the variation naturally present in the population is
50 neglected [9,12] (Damberg et al., 2015; Skoutelas, Ricardo-da-Silva, & Laureano, 2011). Moreover, more often
51 than not, these publications do not test their models using independent validation sets but rather report values
52 for cross-validation which are in most cases, overoptimistic [13,14]. Cross-validation (CV) entails splitting the
53 sample set into a predetermined number of subsets. Calibrations are then obtained by removing a different
54 subset from the calibration data until each subset has been left out once. Thus, CV may lead to overoptimistic
55 results as the samples used to validate the model have also been used to calibrate the model [15].

56 Yeast assimilable nitrogen (YAN) can be defined as nitrogen sources present in the grape juice matrix that
57 can be taken up by yeast during fermentation. These sources include free amino nitrogen (FAN) and ammonia
58 [16]. YAN is an essential component of grape juice as it plays a major role in fermentation efficiency by providing
59 the necessary nutrients required for the growth and proliferation of yeast, thereby reducing the chances of stuck
60 or sluggish fermentations [17]. Furthermore, YAN has been highlighted as a driver of quality by influencing the
61 organoleptic qualities of wine [18]. This is primarily owed to the free amino nitrogen (FAN) portion of YAN, as
62 certain amino acids (branched-chain and aromatic) have been identified as precursor molecules for the
63 production of particular aroma compounds [19]. Thus, it is important to not only measure total YAN before the
64 start of fermentation, but also to have knowledge of its composition. Consequently, this information will ensure

65 more informed decision-making regarding nutrient supplementation strategies and assist in avoiding
66 unnecessary prophylactic nutrient additions.

67 In order to assess whether the models produced in this study are accurate enough for industrial use, it is
68 important to understand the parameters, YAN, FAN and ammonia, in the context of the winemaking environment.
69 Yeast assimilable nitrogen is an essential nutrient required by yeast during fermentation. In the absence of
70 sufficient concentrations, yeast will not be able to produce the required amounts of biomass that is necessary to
71 carry a fermentation through to dryness, and therefore, fermentations may become stuck or sluggish [17,20]. In
72 addition to the large amounts of residual sugar that will be present in the wine, stuck or sluggish fermentations
73 are normally accompanied by the formation of off-flavors, such as H₂S [21]. Furthermore, insufficient
74 concentrations of the FAN component of YAN have been reported to lead to a very neutral wine devoid of
75 desirable fruity and floral aromas. This is because the branched-chain and aromatic amino acids (which form
76 part of the FAN component of YAN) have been identified as the precursor molecules for the formation of these
77 favorable aromas [19,22].

78 The exact amount of YAN, FAN and ammonia which is optimal for the yeast during fermentation is highly
79 strain dependent, however, a 140 mg N/L of total YAN has been benchmarked in literature as the minimum
80 amount required to complete fermentation [23]. The range of YAN, FAN and ammonia concentrations found in
81 various surveys across different wine regions were reviewed in a recent publication [24]. Studies done to
82 investigate the impact of varying concentrations of YAN, FAN and ammonia on the fermentation efficiency and
83 organoleptic qualities of the final wine have found that, at above a certain threshold, the amount of YAN becomes
84 redundant. For example, the production of fruity and floral esters has been observed to plateau when total YAN
85 concentrations reach more than 250-300 mg N/L, and have even been found to decrease when YAN
86 concentrations reach approximately 500 mg N/L [25]. Furthermore, very high total YAN concentrations (>450-
87 500 mg N/L) may result in the production of unwanted compounds such as biogenic amines, carcinogens and
88 protein haze, as well as leading to microbial instability [16]. Therefore, having excessive concentrations of YAN
89 will decrease the quality of the final product.

90 These margins of concern are, however, over approximately a 50 mg N/L (total YAN) range, depending on
91 the nitrogen demand of the particular yeast strain used. Therefore, the use of ATR-MIR may be plausible from
92 a screening point of view but will not allow for precise decision-making regarding nitrogen supplementation. It is
93 important to note that the RMSEP reported is an *average* of the errors and that, in some cases, this error may
94 be a lot larger than the value reported as the RMSEP. Therefore, there is a chance that winemakers may be
95 completely misguided by the prediction value given by ATR-MIR.

96 Up until now, there have been only a few reports on the measurement of YAN and/or its components using
97 IR spectroscopy. The first study attempted to calibrate an FT-NIR instrument for the measurement of FAN using
98 97 settled grape juice samples from various white varieties [26]. They were, however, unsuccessful, obtaining a

99 large standard error of prediction (SEP) of 272.1 mg N/L. Thus, instead, a Soft Independent Modelling of Class
100 Analogy (SIMCA) was used to classify the samples as having either high, medium or low concentrations of FAN.
101 In a comparison done by Damberg *et al.* [27], MIR was shown to outperform NIR for the measurement of YAN,
102 FAN, and ammonia, as higher ratio of standard error of performance to standard deviation (RPD) and lower
103 standard error of cross-validation (SECV) values were observed using MIR. On the other hand, Shah *et al.* [13],
104 investigated the viability of using ATR-MIR to measure various grape juice parameters including YAN, FAN, and
105 ammonia. SEP values of 42.4 mg N/L, 36.7 mg N/L and 17.2 mg N/L were obtained for YAN, FAN, and ammonia,
106 respectively. Furthermore, a RPD of approximately 2 was obtained for each of these parameters, indicating a
107 qualitative rather than quantitative determination of these grape juice parameters. In another study, 71 grape
108 juice samples from the Lisbon region in Portugal were used to build a calibration for YAN using FT-MIR
109 spectroscopy. An R^2 of 0.993, SEP of 5.9 mg N/L and an RPD of 7.8 was obtained [12]. These results may,
110 however, be overoptimistic due to the limited number of samples included in the model in combination with the
111 use of a cross-validation strategy rather than external validation.

112 Thus, IR spectroscopy shows potential for the measurement of YAN concentration and composition.
113 However, for this technology to become a feasible option for industry, a few key issues need to be addressed.
114 These include building calibrations with larger data sets including different varieties, origins, and vintages, as
115 well as independent validation to adequately test the accuracy and robustness of these models. Therefore, the
116 aim of this study is to fully investigate the viability of various infrared spectroscopic instruments for the accurate
117 quantification of YAN, FAN, and ammonia concentrations by incorporating independent and robust validation
118 strategies.

119 **2. Materials and methods**

120 **2.1. Sample collection**

121 A total of 905 grape juice samples were collected over three vintages (2016 – 2018) directly from
122 commercial wineries at a ripeness level suitable for commercial winemaking. Red grape juice samples were
123 collected after crushing and white after settling. An unsupervised strategy was employed [24]. This meant that
124 no specific cultivars or origin was targeted. Consequently, samples were collected from 28 different cultivars, 12
125 white and 16 red. Furthermore, these samples were collected from 14 different grape-growing districts situated
126 in the Western Cape of South Africa, classified according to the demarcation set by the Wine of Origin System
127 of South Africa (SAWIS, 2017). Samples were coded immediately upon collection and stored at -20°C until
128 analysis.

129 **2.2. Analytical methods**

130 **2.2.1. Reference method**

131 The components of YAN: FAN and ammonia, were measured separately by enzymatic assay using the
132 Megazyme™ K-PANOPA (Ireland) for FAN and Enzytec™ Fluid Ammonia (R-Biopharm, Germany) for
133 ammonia. This was performed on the Arena 20XT (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) which provides
134 automated spectrophotometric readings. The individual values for FAN and ammonia were then summed to
135 determine the total amount of YAN available and were expressed as mg N/L.

136 **2.2.2. Infrared spectroscopy scanning**

137 The samples were thawed at room temperature on the day of analysis and were centrifuged at 5000 rpm
138 for 5 min in a 7366 Hermle centrifuge (Wehingen, Germany) prior to analysis. Spectra were collected from three
139 bench-top infrared instruments, namely: a multi-purpose analyser (MPA) FT-NIR instrument (Bruker Optics,
140 Ettlingen, Germany), Alpha-P ATR FT-MIR spectrometer (Bruker Optics, Ettlingen, Germany), and WineScan™
141 FT120 (FOSS Electric, Denmark).

142 FT-NIR spectra (12500-4000 cm^{-1}) were collected by the MPA in transmission mode in a 1 mm cuvette.
143 The absorbance spectrum obtained for each sample was acquired at a resolution of 2 cm^{-1} and at a scanning
144 velocity of 10 kHz, averaged over 32 scans. Air was used as background and an air spectrum was taken
145 periodically during the scanning of the samples and was automatically subtracted from each individual sample
146 spectrum.

147 Spectra in the mid-infrared range (4000-600 cm^{-1}) were collected by the Alpha-P ATR FT-MIR
148 spectrometer. Each sample was scanned at a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} and at a scanning velocity of 7.5 kHz,
149 averaged over 64 scans to give a final reading. Instrumental control of the MPA FT-NIR and the Alpha-P ATR
150 FT-MIR were carried out using OPUS software (OPUS v. 7.0 for Microsoft, Bruker Optics, Ettlingen, Germany).

151 The WineScan™ FT120 measures primarily in the mid-infrared region (4000-929 cm^{-1}), however, a small
152 section of the near-infrared region is also included (5011-4000 cm^{-1}). This instrument recorded spectra at a
153 resolution of 4 cm^{-1} in transmission mode which was then converted into a linearized absorbance spectrum.
154 Each measurement was averaged over 20 readings to give a final measurement. Prior to analysis of the grape
155 juice samples, the background absorbance in the grape juice sample is accounted for using the FOSS Zero
156 Liquid S-6060 (WineScan™ manual).

157 **2.3. Data analysis and strategy**

158 Calibration models and model accuracy were evaluated using OPUS software (OPUS v. 7.2 for Microsoft,
159 Bruker Optics, Ettlingen, Germany). This software correlates the reference values to the spectra through the use
160 of the partial least-squares regression (PLS) algorithm. The accuracy and reliability of the models were assessed

161 based on a set of performance evaluation indices which included the correlation coefficient of calibration and
162 validation (R^2_{CAL} and R^2_{VAL}), the root-mean square error of calibration (RMSEC) and validation (RMSEP) as well
163 as the RPD in calibration and validation (RPD_{CAL} and RPD_{VAL}).

164 The optimum number of latent variables (*i.e.* rank) to avoid overfitting of the model was algorithmically
165 determined [28], Rank was, however, not used as a criteria to compare the reliability of the models in this study.
166 Instead, a provision was made which allowed for a maximum of 20 latent variables to be considered during
167 model optimization. This number was considered to be low enough to avoid overfitting of the models as YAN is
168 a minor component, producing a rather weak signal in a highly complex matrix. Moreover, the chances of
169 overfitting were further decreased by external validation strategies in addition to the large number of samples
170 that were gathered from a variety of different cultivars, vintages and origins – ensuring that both calibration and
171 validation sets would be representative of the population.

172 An untargeted-type strategy, modeling the entire spectral fingerprint followed by variable selection based
173 in the statistical results as opposed to a variable selection based on the chemistry of the targeted compounds,
174 was employed during the modelling process. For each instrument, the spectra from all samples were uploaded
175 to the OPUS software with their corresponding reference values for either YAN, FAN, or ammonia. The sample
176 set was divided into a 66/34 calibration to validation set using the Kennard-Stone algorithm by selecting the
177 “automatic selection of test samples” feature. Thus, an external validation set was used. The models were then
178 let to run using the “general B” option incorporated in the software package. This option automatically divides
179 the spectra into ten sub-regions into an interval PLS strategy. The regions used for the top five models were
180 further investigated for optimization of the calibration model. These regions were then manually selected using
181 the “user defined optimization regions” function which allows a manual selection of ten sub-regions of any size
182 using the “general B” option. Furthermore, pre-processing techniques such as smoothing, standardization,
183 transformation, and normalization were used for model optimization.

184 Once the optimum regions were identified for a specific instrument and sample parameter, a subsequent
185 model was built using these settings, but the sample set was divided into a 50/50 ratio of calibration/test. The
186 models including samples from all the different varieties, origins and vintages will from hereon be referred to as
187 “global models” and differentiated based on their calibration to validation ratio (66/34 or 50/50).

188 During the optimization of each model, outliers were removed and the pre-processing method which
189 resulted in the lowest RMSEP and highest RPD was selected. Outliers were detected by the Mahalanobis
190 distance for each calibration spectrum from which a threshold is calculated. This threshold determines whether
191 the spectra of an unknown sample can be reliably predicted or not.

192 To assess the robustness of the models, it was tested to see whether the YAN, FAN, and ammonia
193 concentrations from samples from a new vintage (2018) could be accurately predicted by a calibration model
194 built based on samples from the previous two vintages (2016 and 2017). In other words, 2016 and 2017 grape

195 juice samples were used as the calibration set to train the model, while 2018 was used as an independent test
196 set. These calibration models included samples from all three vintages, origins, and the respective red or white
197 varieties.

198 RPD values and RMSEC/V are often used to compare the accuracy of calibrations. However, this approach
199 is simply based on a direct comparison between the reported error values and an accurate statistical evaluation
200 of model performance is therefore not provided. A randomization test reported by Olivieri [29] has been proposed
201 to evaluate the statistical significance of the prediction performance of two calibrations. This test may be used
202 to compare the prediction accuracy of two instruments *i.e.* the performance of different spectroscopic
203 instruments. This may also include calibrations based on different infrared regions, measuring principle
204 (transmission or reflectance), or even different sample formats. The differences between the square errors and
205 the mean differences are calculated from a set of predicted samples from two different calibrations. Significant
206 differences between two calibrations are given by p-values < 0.05 as the null hypothesis ($RMSE_1=RMSE_2$) is
207 rejected. The test was evaluated using a MATLAB code (MATLAB R2016b version, Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA)
208 provided elsewhere [29].

209 **3. Results and discussion**

210 **3.1. Tasks and rationale**

211 The rationale of the 66/34 global model was to test the viability and subsequently, the robustness of IR
212 spectroscopy in an industrial context – where samples originate from different varieties, growing regions and
213 vintages. A calibration model is considered robust when the model could accurately predict the tested variable,
214 irrespective of unknown changes occurring in the external environment [10]. Due to the innate complexity of
215 fruits and vegetables, samples belonging to different ‘batches’ (*i.e.* different varieties, origins and vintages) are
216 considered as the most important factor influencing model robustness in the application of IR spectroscopy to
217 agricultural systems [10,30]. This is an important factor to consider in the field of spectroscopy as an inherent
218 feature of this technology is to look at the matrix in its entirety, and subsequently the interactions occurring in
219 the given matrix [2]. Furthermore, robustness was ensured by assessing models with an independent validation
220 set which avoids potentially overoptimistic results that could be obtained by using a cross-validation strategy.

221 A subsequent model was built with the calibration and independent validation set adjusted to a ratio of
222 50/50. This was done to further assess the robustness of the models built by a particular instrument as less
223 samples are included in the training set, as well as increasing the number of independent samples the model is
224 required to predict.

225 Furthermore, due to the number of environmental factors that influence the grapevine during the growing
226 season, a specific vine may result in a substantially different grape juice matrix from one year to the next, known
227 as the vintage effect. Practically speaking, a calibration model would be built using samples from previous

228 vintages and then used to predict the concentration values of samples from a new vintage. Therefore, the next
229 task assigned to each instrument included building a calibration model from two vintages (2016 and 2017) and
230 using it to independently predict the samples from a new vintage (2018). Again, to ensure a realistic situation
231 and increase the robustness, the samples from all the vintages (including both calibration and validation sets)
232 included samples from an array of different cultivars and growing conditions.

233 **3.2. Nitrogen status of samples**

234 The 905 samples had reference concentrations which spanned over a range of 44.88-483.67 mg N/L,
235 29.83-365 mg N/L and 1.16-344.97 mg N/L for YAN, FAN and ammonia, respectively (Supplementary Table 1).
236 These concentrations are comparable to what has previously been published for various YAN surveys in other
237 wine regions of the world [31–33]. Thus, another concern of spectroscopic calibration was addressed by
238 ensuring that a large number of samples were collected over a realistic range of concentration values. This
239 dataset is therefore regarded as representative and thus most likely capable of robust calibration of IR
240 spectroscopic instruments for the accurate prediction of the nitrogen status of the grape juice matrix.

241 The dataset used to test the ability of predicting the nitrogen status of a sample from a new vintage had
242 799 samples included in the calibration set (2016 and 2017) and 106 in the validation set (2018) (Supplementary
243 Table 2).

244 **3.3. Assessment of IR spectroscopy for the purpose of nitrogen status quantification**

245 **3.3.1. Fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy prediction models**

246 Strong water absorption peaks ($1552\text{-}1755\text{ cm}^{-1}$; $3552\text{-}3042\text{ cm}^{-1}$) can be observed in the FT-IR spectra of
247 grape juice. This characteristic of FT-IR spectroscopy has been reported to impede its use in quantification of
248 various compositional parameters in the grape juice matrix [34]. For example, the peak ranging between 1552-
249 1755 cm^{-1} coincides with the absorption of the amino acid side-chains which absorbs between $1480\text{-}1800\text{ cm}^{-1}$
250 [35]. Furthermore, sugar and water absorbing at $3552\text{-}3042\text{ cm}^{-1}$ overlap with the 1° N-H_2 groups present in
251 YAN. Regions related to N absorption features were commonly included in the calibrations (Supplementary
252 Table 3). These regions ($1164\text{-}1601\text{ cm}^{-1}$) are related to primary and secondary amine bending, aromatic amino
253 acids, and oxynitrogen compounds (aliphatic and aromatic nitro compounds and organic nitrates). Other regions
254 were also included that may correspond to absorption features of the other molecular bonds part of the nitrogen
255 containing molecules ($2993\text{-}1786\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $4618\text{-}3977\text{ cm}^{-1}$) [36]. All the models built using FT-IR spectroscopy
256 in transmission mode produced models suitable for quantification as all RPD_{VAL} values were observed to be
257 above 3.

258 Generally, the global models for all the parameters (YAN, FAN, and ammonia) and for both tested ratios
259 (66/34 and 50/50) (Table 1 and 2) were found to perform better than the tasks of predicting the nitrogen status
260 of samples from a new vintage (Table 3). Furthermore, global models employing the 66/34 ratio performed better

261 than the 50/50 ratio. RPD_{VAL} values of the 66/34 approach were all found to be above 4 with a RPD_{VAL} of 5.2
262 obtained for the prediction of total YAN – considered appropriate for quality control purposes [13]. The 66/34
263 ratio was found to have the lowest error in prediction for all parameters tested as a RMSEP of 13.9, 11.8 and
264 5.07 mg N/L was observed for YAN, FAN and ammonia, respectively. The models built based on the 50/50 ratio
265 of calibration/validation were, however, comparable to the models employing the 66/34 ratio as RPD_{VAL} values
266 were also generally observed to be above 4, except for FAN (RPD_{VAL} 3.89). For both ratios, the prediction of
267 FAN was found to be a more difficult task, resulting in a lower RPD_{VAL} compared to YAN and ammonia.
268 Interestingly, although a decrease in the RPD_{VAL} was observed for FAN for the 50/50 ratio compared to the 66/34
269 ratio, a slight improvement in the average prediction accuracy could be observed for the 50/50 global model
270 (Table 1). The rank for the global models (66/34 and 50/50) were observed to range between 16 and 20 (Table
271 1).

272 A SEP of 5.9 mg N/L and an RPD of 7.8 was obtained by Skoutelas *et al.* [12] for the calibration of YAN
273 using FT-IR. The higher RPD and lower error of prediction obtained in this study is most likely due to the model
274 only receiving samples from a single vintage ($n=71$), the removal of a large number of samples considered to
275 be outliers ($n=28/71$), as well as the model not undergoing any external validation.

276 The models built to predict a new vintage also performed accurately, with RPD_{VAL} and rank values of 4.24
277 and 13, 3.84 and 17, and 4.23 and 18 for YAN, FAN and ammonia, respectively (Table 3). The error in prediction
278 obtained by this model (17.6, 11.5 and 7.32 mg N/L, for YAN, FAN and ammonia, respectively) was comparable
279 to what was observed for both global models. Therefore, using FT-IR spectroscopy to predict the nitrogen status
280 of grape juice samples from a new vintage has proven to be a viable possibility. Thus, by testing the robustness
281 of the models by adding samples from a different growing season, this study has managed to successfully
282 address one of the major concerns regarding the application of this technology in agriculture. However, it must
283 be kept in mind that these calibrations still need to be updated and maintained in the future to ensure that the
284 accuracy and robustness is maintained [9].

285 3.3.2. Fourier-transform near-infrared spectroscopy (FT-NIR)

286 The NIR spectra, characterized by the overtones and combination bands caused by the fundamental
287 vibrations occurring in the mid-infrared range, was dominated by the overtones of the O-H stretch (7274-6338
288 cm^{-1}) and a combination band of O-H stretching and bending (5417-4495 cm^{-1}), induced by the presence of
289 water in the grape juice matrix [37]. Despite this, NIR spectroscopy has been reported to be appropriate for
290 quantification purposes as the band shape is often typical of a specific compound or a group of compounds [34].
291 A common region at 4856-4285 cm^{-1} was always used in the models which is related with N-H and C=H
292 stretching modes (4397 cm^{-1}) and proteins (4812 cm^{-1}) (Supplementary Table 3). Additional regions were often
293 included in the models at higher wavelengths generally excluding the water overtones (7274-6338 cm^{-1} and
294 5417-4495 cm^{-1}).

295 As with FT-IR spectroscopy, the 66/34 global model performed the best when looking at both the RPD_{VAL}
296 and RMSEP statistics (Table 1). A better RPD_{VAL} was, however, observed for the prediction of ammonia
297 concentrations of samples from a new vintage (RPD_{VAL} of 3.51 compared to 2.9 for the 66/34 model) although,
298 the difference between the two models in terms of the RMSEP was considered irrelevant (8.47 vs 8.46 mg N/L
299 for the 66/34 and 2016+2017/2018 model, respectively). Furthermore, RPD_{VAL} value for the 66/34 global model
300 to predict total YAN was also close to 5, as was the case for FT-IR spectroscopy. In terms of the other
301 parameters, higher RPD_{VAL} values were obtained for FAN (RPD_{VAL} 3.43 and 3.08) compared to ammonia
302 (RPD_{VAL} 2.9 and 2.72), for both global models (66/34 and 50/50, respectively) for FT-NIR spectroscopy. This is
303 in contrast to what was found for FT-IR, where ammonia was found to be more accurately predicted than FAN.
304 As RPD_{VAL} values for FT-NIR were found to be more than 3 for YAN and FAN for both global model ratios, this
305 method was found to be adequate for accurate quantification of these parameters [10]. Although decreased
306 accuracy was obtained for the quantification of ammonia ($RPD_{VAL} < 3$), these values are still deemed satisfactory
307 ($RPD_{VAL} > 2.5$) [10]. Furthermore, the rank of these models was observed to range between 17-20 (Table 1).

308 The task of predicting a new vintage (Table 3) resulted in higher RPD_{VAL} values than for the 50/50 global
309 models (Table 2). This may be due to the larger number of samples used to train these models in addition to the
310 reduced number of samples tested against these models. Furthermore, this model also outperformed the 50/50
311 global model in terms of the RMSEP for FAN and ammonia, obtaining errors of 13.7 and 8.46 mg N/L,
312 respectively. Rank of these models ranged between 16-20. Interestingly, the prediction of total YAN of a sample
313 from a new vintage using FT-NIR was observed to be (although marginally), better than what was found for FT-
314 IR spectroscopy (Table 3). The results for FT-NIR spectroscopy to predict the FAN and ammonia concentrations
315 of a new vintage were also considered to be adequate for accurate quantification ($RPD_{VAL} > 3$) [10]. Therefore,
316 FT-NIR spectroscopy can be considered a viable technique for the prediction of samples from a new vintage
317 and a feasible option for industrial use.

318 **3.3.3. Attenuated total reflectance mid-infrared spectroscopy**

319 ATR-MIR spectra of the grape juice samples were mainly characterized by a strong sharp peak at 950-
320 1100 cm^{-1} , corresponding to water peaks, whereas peaks occurring between 1480-1800 cm^{-1} are related to C=N,
321 C=C and C=O stretching and N-H bending, corresponding to bonds found in amino acids and their side chains
322 [35]. The carboxylic acid O-H stretch produced peaks between 2800-2970 cm^{-1} , which can be owed to amino
323 acids as well as organic acids present in the grape juice medium and, therefore, could lead to interferences in
324 the spectra, hampering accurate quantification. Furthermore, the presence of sugars can also interfere with
325 accurate quantification due to the sp^3 C-H stretch found in this region as well as the alcohol O-H stretch occurring
326 between 3388-3600 cm^{-1} , coinciding with primary and secondary amino nitrogen groups ($1^\circ N-H$; $2^\circ N-H$). The
327 regions included in the spectra cover 3991-778 cm^{-1} which indicates that almost the totality of the spectra was
328 included throughout the different tested calibrations (Supplementary Table 3). The reported models included

329 nitrogen related regions corresponding to primary, secondary, tertiary, aromatic and/or oxy nitrogen compounds,
330 searching for predictive information during the interval selection optimization process. Additional regions were
331 also sometimes included possibly overlapping with other compounds [38].

332 Overall, ATR-MIR was not found to be suitable for accurate quantification purposes as RPD_{VAL} values were
333 never observed to be more than 2.5 [10], with many found to be less than 2 (Table 1-3). Rank values for ATR-
334 MIR were generally lower than for other spectroscopies, ranging between 11-15. However, following the trend
335 of the abovementioned spectroscopies, both global models were still found to be generally more accurate than
336 what was observed for the other tasks. The highest RPD_{VAL} was obtained for the prediction of YAN in the 50/50
337 global (RPD_{VAL} 2.3), however, a higher RMSEP was obtained for this model (26.9 mg N/L) compared to the
338 66/34 model (24.8 mg N/L; RPD_{VAL} 2.07). Furthermore, as with FT-NIR spectroscopy, higher RPD_{VAL} were
339 obtained for YAN and FAN ($RPD_{VAL} > 2$) compared to ammonia ($RPD_{VAL} < 2$). This trend was not only observed
340 for the global models, but generally throughout the tasks of robustness assigned to the instrument.

341 RPD_{VAL} for the prediction of a new vintage ranged between 1.62 (ammonia) and 2.17 (FAN). Together with
342 the lower RPD_{VAL} , higher errors in prediction (RMSEP) were observed for this task (Table 3) compared to the
343 global models (Table 1 and 4.5) as well as compared to the other spectroscopies for the same task. Again, rank
344 values were observed to be lower than for other spectroscopies, ranging between 7-11.

345 **3.4. Overall trends**

346 **3.4.1. Comparison of the performance of the instruments**

347 Overall, for each instrument, total YAN predictions were observed to be more accurate than measuring the
348 components separately. This was shown through the higher RPD values obtained for YAN than for FAN and
349 ammonia separately, as well as the lower error in prediction (RMSEP) found for YAN compared to the sum of
350 the errors obtained for FAN and ammonia (Tables 1-3). Furthermore, for all tasks (global and vintage models)
351 FT-IR was able to predict total YAN and ammonia more effectively than FAN, whereas FT-NIR and ATR-MIR
352 was able to predict total YAN and FAN more effectively than ammonia.

353 FT-IR (WineScan™ FT120) outperformed both other instruments for the measurement of all three of the
354 investigated parameters, throughout all the given tasks. This is because consistently higher RPD_{VAL} as well as
355 lower RMSEP were observed for this instrument compared to the other spectroscopies. However, the MPA,
356 measuring in the NIR range in transmission mode, also produced models capable of accurate quantification,
357 although the validation statistics were slightly less optimal than what was found for FT-IR. It would, however, be
358 advisable to rather use FT-IR for the quantification of ammonia compared to FT-NIR as FT-IR obtained RPD_{VAL}
359 > 4 compared to < 3 for FT-NIR.

360 ATR-MIR was, however, not comparable to either FT-IR or FT-NIR spectroscopy for any of the parameters
361 or tasks assigned. This is due to the consistently lower RPD_{VAL} and higher RMSEP obtained throughout. Thus,

362 this instrument is only suitable for screening purposes and not for the accurate quantification of any of the
363 parameters tested. It was surprising that the FT-NIR spectral instrument outperformed the ATR FT-MIR
364 instrument as MIR spectra are produced due to the fundamental stretching, bending and rotating vibrations
365 produced by various functional groups present in the sample. On the other hand, spectral signatures in the near
366 infrared region are only due to the complex overtones of these fundamental vibrations. Furthermore, the
367 combination bands, such as those produced by C-O stretch and the N-H band in protein, as well as water, which
368 is a major component of most fruits and vegetables, can result in a highly convoluted NIR spectrum, decreasing
369 the chances of accurate quantification and interpretation [6,10]. However, the regions that were selected for the
370 optimization of the models for the FT-IR models primarily fell within the mid-infrared range (YAN ~4200-1200
371 cm^{-1} ; FAN ~4600-1400 cm^{-1} ; ammonia ~3000-1200 cm^{-1}). Thus, it is hypothesized that the mode that the spectra
372 was collected in (reflectance vs. transmission) also played a major role in the difference in performance obtained
373 between the instruments and thus, transmission mode was found to be more suitable than reflectance for this
374 application. This could be explained by the minimal penetration depth of the evanescent wave in the juice
375 absorbing medium that caused weaker spectral features in the nitrogen absorbing regions and consequently
376 lower prediction accuracies. In other words, pathlength differences between FT-NIR and FT-IR applications
377 (scale in millimetres) and that of the ATR-MIR technique (scale in microns) might explain the results observed.

378 Additionally, to further evaluate model performance, a randomization test was performed. The direct
379 comparison of the statistics (R^2 , RMSE, and RPD) obtained from the process of model optimization do not
380 indicate if the performance of the reported calibration is statistically significant. The test was therefore applied
381 with the objective of evaluating instrument performance. This includes a comparison of different regions within
382 the infrared range as well as two different measuring principles (transmission vs. attenuated total reflectance).
383 A pairwise comparison between instruments was thus performed (Table 4). The randomization test was explored
384 for the global models with 66/34 calibrations/validation ratio. Samples that were used in the calibration set in all
385 three spectroscopic techniques were included.

386 Non-significant differences in the predictions were observed between FT-IR and FT-NIR techniques for the
387 quantification of YAN. On the contrary, when both FT-IR and FT-NIR were compared with ATR-MIR
388 spectroscopy, significant differences were obtained for this parameter. These results are in accordance with the
389 lower prediction performance observed for the latter technique. Interestingly, despite very similar calibrations
390 being reported for FAN analysis for both FT-IR and FT-NIR, significant differences were still obtained. This
391 indicates that FT-IR is providing significantly more accurate predictions when compared to NIR. Both instruments
392 outperformed again ATR-MIR with significant differences being observed for the comparisons. Finally, when
393 predictions for ammonia were evaluated, significant differences were observed for the three pair-wise
394 comparisons. FT-IR was again found to statistically outperform the other two spectroscopy instruments. These
395 results supported the hypothesis raised earlier suggesting that spectral collection mode (transmission or

396 reflectance), followed by the region of choice within the infrared are playing major roles in the ability of the
397 different spectroscopy applications to predict nitrogen components in juice samples.

398 **4. Conclusion**

399 To the authors' knowledge, this is the first study of its kind, incorporating such a large degree of variability
400 for the purpose of quantifying the nitrogen status of the grape juice matrix. This variability is demonstrated by
401 the large number of samples as well as the number of different grape varieties, origins, and vintages incorporated
402 in both the calibration and validation sets. In addition to this, an independent validation set was used. This is a
403 shortcoming highlighted in most other studies in this field which impedes the widespread use of this technology
404 for routine analysis of fruits and vegetables.

405 The results obtained in this study show that it is indeed possible to calibrate IR spectroscopic instruments
406 for the accurate measurement of YAN, FAN, and ammonia concentrations. Transmission FT-IR spectroscopy
407 was, however, observed to show the most promising results; however, FT-NIR spectroscopy also produced
408 models capable of good to excellent quantification, primarily for YAN and FAN. Furthermore, both of these
409 instruments showed sufficient robustness against samples originating from different varieties, growing
410 conditions, and vintages, addressing the concerns of applying this technology to the agricultural industry.
411 Therefore, applying this rapid, cost-effective, and environmentally friendly method in an industrial setup is a
412 plausible option, despite the inherent variability and complexity of the grape juice matrix. Moreover, the possibility
413 of measuring the YAN status of samples from a new vintage are one of the most important findings in this study
414 as it demonstrates the feasibility of this technology in an industrial set-up. This is because calibrations will most
415 likely be based on samples originating from previous vintages and used for analysis of subsequent vintages.

416 In light of this, using FT-IR, or even FT-NIR spectroscopy would be more beneficial than ATR-MIR as there
417 are lower RMSEP and higher RPD_{VAL} values. High RPD values are important as the RPD of a model is an
418 indicator of how reliable the model is *i.e.* it indicates how reliable the RMSEP of the model is. Furthermore, the
419 RMSEP reported for these two instruments are low enough in the context of the YAN status of grape must to
420 allow for optimal and precise nitrogen supplementation.

421

422 **Acknowledgements:** The authors would like to thank Winetech and NRF for financial support.

423 **References**

- 424 [1] M. Gishen, D. Cozzolino, R. Damberg, The Analysis of Grapes, Wine, and Other Alcoholic Beverages by
425 Infrared Spectroscopy, *Handb. Vib. Spectrosc.* (2010). doi:DOI: 10.1002/9780470027325.s8960.
- 426 [2] D. Cozzolino, W.U. Cynkar, S. N, R. G Damberg, P.A. Smith, N. Shah, R.G. Damberg, P.A. Smith, A brief
427 introduction to multivariate methods in grape and wine analysis, *Int. J. Wine Res.* 1 (2009) 123–130.
428 doi:10.2147/IJWR.S4585.
- 429 [3] F. Liu, Y. He, L. Wang, G. Sun, Detection of Organic Acids and pH of Fruit Vinegars Using Near-Infrared

- 430 Spectroscopy and Multivariate Calibration, *Food Bioprocess Technol.* 4 (2011) 1331–1340.
431 doi:10.1007/s11947-009-0240-9.
- 432 [4] S. Wold, M. Sjöström, L. Eriksson, PLS-regression: a basic tool of chemometrics, *Chemom. Intell. Lab.*
433 *Syst.* 58 (2001) 109–130. doi:10.1016/S0169-7439(01)00155-1.
- 434 [5] B.H. Gump, B.W. Zoecklein, K.C. Fugelsang, R.S. Whiton, Comparison of Analytical Methods for Prediction
435 of Prefermentation Nutritional Status of Grape Juice, *Am. J. Enol. Vitic.* 53 (2002) 325–329. doi:
436 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2013.05.009.
- 437 [6] D. Cozzolino, The role of visible and infrared spectroscopy combined with chemometrics to measure
438 phenolic compounds in grape and wine samples, *Molecules.* 20 (2015) 726–737.
439 doi:10.3390/molecules20010726.
- 440 [7] M.J. Martelo-Vidal, M. Vázquez, Evaluation of ultraviolet, visible, and near infrared spectroscopy for the
441 analysis of wine compounds, *Czech J. Food Sci.* 32 (2014) 37–47. doi:10.17221/167/2013-CJFS.
- 442 [8] R. Bauer, H.H. Nieuwoudt, F.F. Bauer, J. Kossmann, K.R. Koch, K.H. Esbensen, FTIR spectroscopy for
443 grape and wine analysis, *Anal. Chem.* 80 (2008) 1371–1379. doi:10.1021/ac086051c.
- 444 [9] R. Damberg, M. Gishen, D. Cozzolino, A Review of the State of the Art, Limitations, and Perspectives of
445 Infrared Spectroscopy for the Analysis of Wine Grapes, Must, and Grapevine Tissue, *Appl. Spectrosc.*
446 *Rev.* 50 (2015) 261–278. doi:10.1080/05704928.2014.966380.
- 447 [10] B.M. Nicolai, K. Beullens, E. Bobelyn, A. Peirs, W. Saeys, K.I. Theron, J. Lammertyn, Nondestructive
448 measurement of fruit and vegetable quality by means of NIR spectroscopy: A review, *Postharvest Biol.*
449 *Technol.* 46 (2007) 99–118. doi:10.1016/j.postharvbio.2007.06.024.
- 450 [11] C.D. Patz, A. Blieke, R. Ristow, H. Dietrich, Application of FT-MIR spectrometry in wine analysis, in: *Anal.*
451 *Chim. Acta*, 2004: pp. 81–89. doi:10.1016/j.aca.2004.02.051.
- 452 [12] D. Skoutelas, J.M. Ricardo-da-Silva, O. Laureano, Validation and comparison of formol and FT-IR methods
453 for assimilable nitrogen in vine grapes, *South African J. Enol. Vitic.* 32 (2011) 262–266. doi:10.21548/32-
454 2-1386
- 455 [13] N. Shah, W. Cynkar, P. Smith, D. Cozzolino, Use of attenuated total reflectance midinfrared for rapid and
456 real-time analysis of compositional parameters in commercial white grape juice, *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 58
457 (2010) 3279–3283. doi:10.1021/jf100420z.
- 458 [14] A. Versari, G.P. Parpinello, A.U. Mattioli, S. Galassi, Determination of grape quality at harvest using Fourier-
459 transform mid-infrared spectroscopy and multivariate analysis, *Am. J. Enol. Vitic.* 59 (2008) 317–322.
- 460 [15] E. Anderssen, K. Dyrstad, F. Westad, H. Martens, Reducing over-optimism in variable selection by cross-
461 model validation, *Chemom. Intell. Lab. Syst.* 84 (2006) 69–74. doi:10.1016/j.chemolab.2006.04.021.
- 462 [16] S.-J. Bell, P.A. Henschke, Implications of nitrogen nutrition for grapes, fermentation and wine, *Aust. J.*
463 *Grape Wine Res.* 11 (2005) 242–295. doi:10.1111/j.1755-0238.2005.tb00028.x.
- 464 [17] P.A. Henschke, V. Jiranek, Yeast: Metabolism of nitrogen compounds. In: *Wine Microbiology and*
465 *Biotechnology*, Res. Gate. (1993) 77–164. doi:10.1089/end.2014.0018.
- 466 [18] A. Kovtun, K. Torn, J. Kotta, Long-term changes in a northern baltic macrophyte community, in: *Est. J.*
467 *Ecol.*, 2009: pp. 270–285. doi:10.3176/eco.2009.4.03.
- 468 [19] A.Y. Smit, The impact of nutrients on aroma and flavour production during wine fermentation, PhD Thesis,
469 Stellenbosch : Stellenbosch University, 2013.
- 470 [20] L. Bisson, Stuck and Sluggish Fermentations, *Am. J. Enol. Vitic.* 50 (1999) 107–119.
- 471 [21] M. Gobbi, F. Comitini, G. D'Ignazi, M. Ciani, Effects of nutrient supplementation on fermentation kinetics,
472 H₂S evolution, and aroma profile in Verdicchio DOC wine production, *Eur. Food Res. Technol.* 236
473 (2013) 145–154. doi:10.1007/s00217-012-1870-0.

- 474 [22] A. Rapp, G. Versini, Influence of Nitrogen Compounds in Grapes on Aroma Compounds in Wine, *Wein-*
475 *Wissens.* 51 (1991). doi:10.1016/S0167-4501(06)80257-8.
- 476 [23] M. Bely, J.M. Sablayrolles, P. Barre, Automatic detection of assimilable nitrogen deficiencies during
477 alcoholic fermentation in oenological conditions, *J. Ferment. Bioeng.* 70 (1990) 246–252.
478 doi:10.1016/0922-338X(90)90057-4.
- 479 [24] G. Petrovic, M. Kidd, A. Buica, A statistical exploration of data to identify the role of cultivar and origin in
480 the concentration and composition of yeast assimilable nitrogen, *Food Chem.* 276 (2019) 528–537.
481 doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.10.063.
- 482 [25] M. Vilanova, M. Ugliano, C. Varela, T. Siebert, I.S. Pretorius, P.A. Henschke, Assimilable nitrogen utilisation
483 and production of volatile and non-volatile compounds in chemically defined medium by *Saccharomyces*
484 *cerevisiae* wine yeasts, *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 77 (2007) 145–157. doi:10.1007/s00253-007-1145-
485 z.
- 486 [26] M. Manley, A. van Zyl, E.E.H. Wolf, The Evaluation of the Applicability of Fourier Transform Near-Infrared
487 (FT-NIR) Spectroscopy in the Measurement of Analytical Parameters in Must and Wine, *South African*
488 *J. Enol. Vitic.* 22 (2001) 93-100. doi:10.21548/22-2-2201.
- 489 [27] R.G. Damberg, B. Kambouris, W.U. Cynkar, L.J. Janik, D. Cozzolino, P.A. Henschke, M. Gishen, A
490 comparison of near infrared and mid-infrared spectroscopy for the analysis of yeast assimilable nitrogen
491 in grape juice., in: *Australian Wine Industry Technical Conference Inc.*, Melbourne, Australia, 2004: pp.
492 334–335.
- 493 [28] J.L. Aleixandre-Tudo, H. Nieuwoudt, J.L. Aleixandre, W. du Toit, Chemometric compositional analysis of
494 phenolic compounds in fermenting samples and wines using different infrared spectroscopy techniques,
495 *Talanta.* 176 (2018) 526–536. doi:10.1016/j.talanta.2017.08.065.
- 496 [29] A.C. Olivieri, Practical guidelines for reporting results in single- and multi-component analytical calibration :
497 A tutorial, *Anal. Chim. Acta.* 868 (2015) 10–22. doi:10.1016/j.aca.2015.01.017.
- 498 [30] Y. Wang, D.J. Veltkamp, B.R. Kowalski, Multivariate instrument standardization, *Anal. Chem.* 63 (1991)
499 2750–2756. doi:10.1021/ac00023a016.
- 500 [31] C.E. Butzke, Survey of Yeast Assimilable Nitrogen Status in Musts from California, Oregon, and
501 Washington, *Am. J. Enol. Vitic.* 49 (1998) 220-224.
- 502 [32] K.M. Hagen, M. Keller, C.G. Edwards, Survey of biotin, pantothenic acid, and assimilable nitrogen in
503 winegrapes from the Pacific Northwest, *Am. J. Enol. Vitic.* 59 (2008) 432–436.
- 504 [33] G. Nicolini, R. Larcher, G. Versini, Status of yeast assimilable nitrogen in Italian grape musts and effects of
505 variety, ripening and vintage, *Vitis - J. Grapevine Res.* 43 (2004) 89–96.
- 506 [34] A. Ricci, G.P. Parpinello, L. Laghi, M. Lambri, A. Versari, Application of infrared spectroscopy to grape and
507 wine analysis, in *Infrared Spectroscopy: Theory, Developments and Applications.* pp. 17-41, Nova
508 Science Publishers, Inc, 2014.
- 509 [35] A. Barth, The infrared absorption of amino acid side chains, *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Biol.* 74 (2000) 141–173.
510 doi:10.1016/S0079-6107(00)00021-3.
- 511 [36] A. Veselá, A.S. Barros, A. Synytsya, I. Delgadillo, J. Čopíková, M.A. Coimbra, Infrared spectroscopy and
512 outer product analysis for quantification of fat, nitrogen, and moisture of cocoa powder, *Anal. Chim. Acta.*
513 601 (2007) 77–86. doi:10.1016/j.aca.2007.08.039.
- 514 [37] H. Büning-Pfaue, Analysis of water in food by near infrared spectroscopy, in: *Food Chem.*, 2003: pp. 107–
515 115. doi:10.1016/S0308-8146(02)00583-6.
- 516 [38] J. Coates, Interpretation of Infrared Spectra, A Practical Approach, in: *Encycl. Anal. Chem.*, 2006.
517 doi:10.1002/9780470027318.a5606.

Table 1. Summary statistics of the global models with calibration/validation ratio of 66/34.

Global Model: Calibration/Validation: 66/34													
		N	Range (mg N/L)	Pre-processing	Rank	R ² _{CAL}	RMSEC	RPD _{CAL}	R ² _{VAL}	RMSEP	RPD _{VAL}	Slope	Bias
FT-IR	YAN	893	53.27-470.5	None	20	94.56	14.5	4.29	96.25	13.9	5.2	0.953	1.56
	FAN	882	32.28-342.9	First Derivative	16	92.67	11.9	3.69	94.03	11.8	4.09	0.906	0.145
	Ammonia	886	6.63-167.1	First Derivative	20	95.79	4.95	4.87	95.32	5.07	4.63	0.953	0.269
FT-NIR	YAN	889	53.27-470.5	None	18	95.06	14	4.5	95.77	14.5	4.87	0.954	0.907
	FAN	887	32.28-342.9	None	18	91.01	12.7	3.33	91.47	14.5	3.43	0.918	-0.755
	Ammonia	887	8.64-127.6	Constant Offset Elimination	20	90.18	7.62	3.19	87.94	8.47	2.9	0.935	-0.984
ATR-MIR	YAN	885	63.08-438.1	None	15	87.19	22.4	2.79	82.22	24.8	2.07	0.831	2.07
	FAN	879	32.28-267.1	Constant Offset Elimination	11	79.41	19	2.2	76.23	22.7	2.05	0.754	-0.325
	Ammonia	871	6.09-127.6	Constant Offset Elimination	14	74.54	10.7	1.98	71.71	13.2	1.88	0.675	0.873

Table 2. Summary statistics of the global models with calibration/validation ratio of 50/50.

Global Model: Calibration/Validation: 50/50													
		N	Range (mg N/L)	Pre-processing	Rank	R ² _{CAL}	RMSEC	RPD _{CAL}	R ² _{VAL}	RMSEP	RPD _{VAL}	Slope	Bias
FT-IR	YAN	886	44.8-469.4	First Derivative	18	94.25	15.6	4.17	94.3	15.4	4.19	0.942	-0.0719
	FAN	883	32.28-342.9	First Derivative	19	94.09	11.6	4.11	93.18	11.5	3.89	0.925	-0.499
	Ammonia	886	1.16-167.1	None	20	95.87	4.84	4.92	94.45	5.77	4.25	0.922	0.119
FT-NIR	YAN	891	53.27-470.5	None	17	95.63	14.1	4.78	94	15.6	4.09	0.948	0.65
	FAN	887	32.28-342.9	None	18	92.96	12.8	3.77	89.15	14.7	3.08	0.942	-2.47
	Ammonia	883	1.16-167.1	None	20	90.23	7.61	3.2	86.43	9.12	2.72	0.849	-0.42
ATR-MIR	YAN	879	53.27-438.1	Constant Offset Elimination	15	87.33	23.5	2.81	81.06	26.9	2.30	0.885	1.5
	FAN	877	32.28-267.1	Constant Offset Elimination	13	84.61	17.8	2.55	75.13	21.1	2.01	0.792	-1.67
	Ammonia	879	6.09-127.6	None	13	75.2	11.8	2.01	66.55	13.1	1.73	0.72	-0.938

Table 3. Summary statistics of the models built to predict the nitrogen status of a new vintage.

Vintage Model: Calibration/Validation: 2016+2017/2018													
		N	Range (mg N/L)	Pre-processing	Rank	R ² _{CAL}	RMSEC	RPD _{CAL}	R ² _{VAL}	RMSEP	RPD _{VAL}	Slope	Bias
FT-IR	YAN	893	59.09-388	MSC	13	91.75	18.5	3.48	94.36	17.6	4.24	0.971	-1.86
	FAN	882	44.31-267.9	None	17	91.74	12.7	3.48	93.11	11.5	3.84	0.904	-1.42
	Ammonia	886	8.68-147.6	MSC	18	93.83	5.77	4.03	94.4	7.32	4.23	0.936	0.249
FT-NIR	YAN	892	59.09-388	None	16	93.8	16	4.02	94.36	17.5	4.26	0.966	-2.75
	FAN	888	44.31-269.3	Constant Offset Elimination	17	89.64	14.3	3.11	91.49	13.7	3.43	0.94	0.268
	Ammonia	882	8.68-135.6	Constant Offset Elimination	20	89.33	7.66	3.06	91.83	8.46	3.51	0.867	0.498
ATR-MIR	YAN	892	59.09-388	SNV	8	70.23	32.9	1.83	75.83	34.1	2.05	0.681	-4.67
	FAN	883	44.31-267.9	Min-Max Normalization	11	75.26	21.2	2.01	77.46	21.3	2.17	0.782	-5.2
	Ammonia	875	8.68-120.2	First Derivative + SNV	7	63.86	13.2	1.66	61.62	16.7	1.62	0.592	-1.22

Table 4. Calibration statistics summary for the three studied spectroscopy techniques and the three nitrogen measurements evaluated. Pairwise comparison of the different spectroscopy techniques included in the study for the three nitrogen parameters evaluated. P-values lower than 0.05 indicate significant differences in the predictions delivered by the two techniques.

	FT-IR		FT-NIR		ATR-MIR		N	FT-IR	FT-IR	FT-NIR
	RMSEC	RPD	RMSEC	RPD	RMSEC	RPD		vs. FT-NIR	vs. ATR-MIR	vs. ATR-MIR
YAN	14.5	4.29	14	4.5	22.4	2.79	415	0.342	<0.001	<0.001
FAN	11.9	3.69	12.7	3.33	19	2.2	566	0.025	<0.001	<0.001
Ammonia	4.95	4.87	7.62	3.19	10.7	1.98	195	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001