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Country of origin label monitoring of musky and common octopuses (*Eledone* spp. and *Octopus vulgaris*) by means of a portable near-infrared spectroscopic device

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1 **Country of origin label monitoring of musky and common octopuses**
2 **(*Eledone spp.* and *Octopus vulgaris*) by means of a portable near-**
3 **infrared spectroscopic device**

4

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Codice campo modificato

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 ~~The recognized economic and nutritional value of cephalopods has recently led to a widespread~~
26 ~~capture fishery and distribution worldwide, thus increasing the possibility of fraudulent substitution~~
27 ~~of the products and posing into question the truthfulness of the geographic indications reported on~~
28 ~~the label.~~ Modern analytical techniques using miniaturized and portable near infrared (NIR)
29 spectroscopy instruments are particularly suited for assessing the authenticity of fishery products
30 since meeting the requirements of rapidity, eco-friendliness, cost-effectiveness, and easiness of
31 application. The objective of the present study was to verify the suitability of use of a portable and
32 ultra-compact NIR spectrometer combined with machine learning to characterize the geographic
33 origin of two ~~widely consumed~~ octopus species. Replicate NIR spectra ~~in the (908.1–1676.2 nm) NIR~~
34 ~~region~~ of 118 musky and 29 common octopus specimens (*Eledone* spp. and *Octopus vulgaris*) from
35 Portuguese Atlantic or Spanish Mediterranean fishing areas were recorded, pre-processed and
36 elaborated via the following classification algorithms: orthogonal partial least square discriminant
37 analysis (OPLS-DA), logistic regression (LR), random forest (RF), support vector machine (SVM),
38 and multilayer perceptron-artificial neural network (MLP-ANN). When 7-fold cross validation was
39 performed on 75% of data, the results showed that linear tools (OPLS-DA and LR) were the most
40 powerful and stable techniques in recognizing the origin of both octopus species, ~~with (mean~~
41 ~~sensitivity, specificity, accuracy, and precision values above 98%) and the lowest associated standard~~
42 ~~deviations.~~ During the external validation phase ~~(using 25% of the remaining spectral data)~~ OPLS-
43 DA, SVM, and MLP-ANN performed better for common octopuses ~~(with no classification errors),~~
44 while LR and MLP-ANN for musky octopuses ~~(with only 2 and 3 Mediterranean samples~~
45 ~~misclassified, respectively).~~ The achieved outcomes suggest the combination of portable NIR
46 spectroscopy and machine learning as a promising plan of action to be adopted for the creation of
47 an integrated analytical platform with capabilities for automated data recording, processing, and
48 reporting, which may be helpful for on-site and in-line monitoring of fishery products.

49 **Abbreviations**

50 first derivative, 1stDer; second derivative, 2ndDer; area under the receiver operating characteristic
51 curves, AUROC; logistic regression, LR; multilayer perceptron artificial neural network, MLP-ANN;
52 multiplicative scatter correction, MSC; near infrared, NIR; orthogonal partial least square-
53 discriminant analysis, OPLS-DA; principal component analysis, PCA; principal component, PC;
54 radial basis function, RBF; random forest, RF; root mean square error from cross-validation,
55 RMSECV; standard normal variate, SNV; support vector machine, SVM;

56

57 **Keywords:** rapid methods; machine learning; chemometrics; food authenticity; geographical origin;
58 cephalopods.

59 1. Introduction

60 Cephalopod mollusk species belonging to the Octopodidae and Eledonidae families (collectively
61 known as octopuses) represent an important fishery resource, with high economic, social, cultural,
62 and nutritional values, especially for Asiatic and Mediterranean countries. Common octopus
63 (*Octopus vulgaris*) and horned and musky octopus (*Eledone spp.*) are the main octopus species
64 produced and exploited for human consumption by Mediterranean and Central Eastern Atlantic
65 countries. According to the most recent data, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece, and France together
66 account for 7% and 95% of world and European production, respectively (European Market
67 Observatory for Fisheries and Aquaculture Products (EUMOFA), 2020), being characterized by
68 large- as well as small-scale artisanal octopus fisheries which are of extreme importance for local
69 economy (Pita et al., 2021). Notwithstanding this, octopus catches by European Union countries have
70 steadily declined over the past decade as a combined result of the effects of overfishing practices,
71 new fisheries management policies focusing on sustainable practices, and climate change (Tinacci et
72 al., 2020). On the other hand, to compensate the increased demand, large volumes of frozen octopus
73 are now imported from third countries (Morocco and Mauritania mainly) (EUMOFA, 2020) and
74 retailed by the local markets predominantly as thawed products. This market configuration increases
75 the chances of species and fisheries suffering unfair competition, as well as illegal, unreported, and
76 unregulated fishing activities being pursued, thus bringing about commercial frauds regarding the
77 falsification of the geographic origin and traceability problems which, in turn, have important
78 economic and sustainability repercussions (Fox et al., 2018). Indeed, fraudulent mislabeling of
79 cephalopods and cephalopod-based products, occurring at any level of the supply chain, was reported
80 more than two and three times frequently compared to that of crustaceans and fish (Guardone et al.,
81 2017). Despite being economically motivated, mislabelling concerning the geographic origin of
82 cephalopods may represent a safety risk for consumers due to the potential exposure to different
83 contaminants and pollutants. Indeed, cephalopods originating from areas at risk of harmful algal
84 bloom have been reported to accumulate several marine biotoxins, such as tetrodotoxin, saxitoxins,

85 palitoxins, and domoic acid, thus possibly acting as toxin vectors to humans (Lopes et al., 2013;
86 Whitelaw et al., 2019; Karlson et al., 2021). Public health consequences may also arise from the
87 consumption of cephalopods from specific polluted fishing areas due to the presence of very high
88 concentrations of heavy metals and persistent organic pollutants (Gomes et. al., 2013; Rjeibi et al.,
89 2014; Roldán-Wong et al., 2018). Similarly, an actual food safety concern is related to the human
90 exposure to microplastics through the consumption of seafood whose contamination can vary a lot
91 among countries over the world (EFSA CONTAM Panel, 2016). Microplastics were in fact reported
92 to be a vector for chemical contaminants (heavy metals, organochlorine pesticides, drug residues,
93 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, polychlorinated biphenyls, and polybrominated diphenyl ethers)
94 (Brennecke et al., 2016; Camacho et al., 2019; De-la-Torre, 2020).

95 The prevention of food fraud should be based on a management system approach relying on two main
96 supports: a proper vulnerability assessment system and the design and implementation of mitigation
97 measures (Fox et al. 2018). That one is the framework within which the development of appropriate
98 analytical methods, testing compliance of foods with their label descriptions, is set as a fundamental
99 part of the management of food fraud incidents (Stadler et al., 2016). Recent attempts in literature
100 and practice have suggested a few analytical laboratory methods as appropriate means to identify
101 different types of frauds affecting cephalopod products. The issue of species mislabeling was
102 addressed by using DNA barcoding (Guardone et al., 2017; Tatulli et al., 2020), while the replacement
103 of fresh with frozen/thawed products was successfully identified through proteomics (Guglielmetti et
104 al. 2018) or histological evaluation of tissues (Tinacci et al., 2020). Likewise, illicit water addition
105 was uncovered by measuring electric conductivity and dielectric properties of samples (Mendes et
106 al., 2018), as well as through the development of ad hoc fast 3D scanning methods (Han et al., 2020).
107 Facing with the task of identifying the geographical origin of cephalopods is more challenging
108 because of many pre-catch (e.g., seasonality, sizes) and post-catch (e.g., storage conditions) factors
109 overlapping with the issue of interest and the lack of target measurable parameters providing the
110 certainty of geographical authenticity (Esslinger et al., 2014; Varrà et al., 2021a). Nevertheless,

111 considering the territorial nature, the small activity area, and the very small capability of
112 metabolization (Oliveira et al. 2018; Arechavala-Lopez et al., 2019) cephalopod mollusks and, in
113 particular, octopuses, appear to be good indicators of the seawater areas they inhabit. Based on this
114 consideration, the use of comprehensive approaches relying on the combination of modern
115 instrumental and advanced statistical methods, such as those based on near infrared (NIR)
116 spectroscopy and machine learning, may represent a direct solution for the identification of the
117 sources of origin of cephalopod stocks.

118 With the advances in instrumentatal technology, the latest years are witnessing a shift from the
119 laboratory usage of stationary benchtop NIR equipments to miniature and portable devices for quality,
120 safety, and authenticity testing of food of animal origin, including fish and seafood (Grassi et al.,
121 2018; Cruz-Tirado et al., 2021; Dos Santos et al., 2020; Silva et al., 2020; Dos Santos Pereira et al.,
122 2021; González-Mohino et al., 2020; Müller-Maatsch et al., 2021a; Pennisi et al., 2021; Yakes et al.,
123 2021; Yu et al., 2020; Currò et al., 2022). Nevertheless, only one study proved the suitability of using
124 portable NIR technology coupled with machine learning to monitor traceability of cuttlefish
125 cephalopods (Currò et al., 2021). Portable instruments, besides being rugged, user-friendly, compact,
126 ultra-light, and cheaper compared to traditional stationary instruments, allow direct analysis without
127 sample processing and consumption, thus facilitating on-site or in-line analysis and globally
128 minimizing times and costs associated with the analytical flow (Beć et al. 2021; McVey et al. 2021;
129 Müller-Maatsch et al., 2021b). Moreover, methods based on the use of portable NIR devices meet the
130 requirements and goals of 'White Analytical Chemistry', showing a sinergy between analytical,
131 ecological, and practical attributes (Nowak et al., 2021). Indeed, the greenness of the approach
132 (absence of waste generation and toxic solvents, low power consumption) is perfectly balanced both
133 with analytical efficiency (accuracy, precision, sensitivity) and practical/economic efficiency (Nowak
134 et al., 2021). Although these benefits ~~and~~, the extensive research done, and the substantial progress
135 in the development of more efficient computer algorithms, no reliable methods haves been yet
136 deployed in routine monitoring or accepted as an official standard since there is still the need to

137 identify the proper machine learning algorithms able to [speed up and simplify the analytical workflow](#)
138 [and](#) accurately ascertain the sought food authenticity features (Ríos-Reina et al., 2021).
139 Based on the above considerations, the goal of the present study is to propose a rapid, cheap, and eco-
140 friendly analytical methodology to identify possible fraudulent mislabeling concerning the country
141 of origin of different octopus species, which can be potentially useful for regulators, industry, and
142 stakeholders, for the inspection and certification of cephalopods authenticity. To this end, a handheld,
143 portable, and wireless NIR spectrometer was used to analyze two species of octopus originating from
144 two different fishing areas (Spanish Mediterranean and Portuguese Atlantic), and the resulting
145 spectral fingerprints were patterned by different traditional and modern machine learning tools in
146 order to identify a fit-for-purpose methodology for their origin recognition.

147 **2. Materials and Methods**

148 *2.1. Sample collection and handling*

149 Three different batches of musky octopuses (*Eledone* spp., Cephalopoda: Octopodidae) of medium
150 size (200–300 g total body weight, bw) and fished by means of otter trawls were collected during the
151 autumn season from each of the two sampling sites chosen, corresponding to the FAO fishing areas
152 37.1.1 (i.e., Balearic waters of the Western Mediterranean Sea) and 27.9.a (i.e., Eastern Portuguese
153 waters of the North-East Atlantic Ocean). Musky octopus from Mediterranean Sea and Atlantic
154 Ocean accounted for 61 and 57 specimens, respectively. Similarly, three different batches of common
155 octopuses (*Octopus vulgaris*, Cephalopoda: Octopodidae) of medium size (1300–1500 g bw) and
156 caught by means of otter trawls in summer were retrieved from the FAO fishing area 37.1.1,
157 accounting for a total of 29 specimens. Other 10 common octopus samples of the same size (1000–
158 1500 g bw) and fishing season were collected from the FAO fishing areas 27.9.a. The sampling plan
159 is graphically summarized in Figure 1.

160 All the samples were transported and delivered as fresh products and stored at freezing temperature
161 ($-21 \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) once arrived at the laboratory. Before analysis, the samples were defrosted in a

162 refrigerator ($4 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ per at least 18 hours) and the temperature gradually brought to room-conditions
163 ($20 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) for 60–90 min. The octopuses were then manually skinned and dissected. Since the mantle
164 was the flesh portion selected for the experiments, it was separated from the arms and left whole for
165 subsequent spectral analysis.

166 2.2. *MicroNIR setup and measurement*

167 The octopus mantles were analyzed by using the ultracompact, portable and wireless NIR device
168 MicroNIR OnSite-W (Viavi Solutions, Santa Rosa, CA) equipped with the spectral acquisition
169 software MicroNIR Pro™ (v.3.1, Viavi Solutions, Santa Rosa, CA, USA).

170 Diffuse reflectance NIR spectra were recorded in the 908.1–1676.2 nm region as 100 co-added scans
171 and with an integration time of 10 ms. The spectral apparent resolution was 6.25 nm, hence each
172 spectrum consisted of 125 reflectance points. NIR spectra were recorded by perpendicularly
173 interfacing the acquisition window of NIR spectrometer with the surface of the sample. Spectral
174 scanning was performed on four different points of the ventral and dorsal side of the mantle in order
175 to collect heterogeneity of composition and thickness. The four replicate spectra were all individually
176 used for statistical processing, thus resulting in two data matrices consisting of 472 spectra of musky
177 octopus (118 samples \times 4 spectral replicates) and 156 spectra of common octopus (39 specimens \times 4
178 spectral replicates). Before NIR analysis and every 15 minutes during the analysis execution, the
179 MicroNIR device was calibrated by recording a total absorbance (dark) reference spectrum (by
180 leaving the lamps on and the acquisition window of the spectrometer empty) and a total reflectance
181 reference spectrum (by using the external white diffuse reflectance standard disc Spectralon® 99%,
182 LabSphere, North Sutton, NH, USA) to correct the background signal for the proper response over
183 operation time and any little temperature changes.

184 2.3. *Statistics and data modeling pipeline*

185 The spectral data were exported, transformed to apparent absorbance values, mean-centered, and
186 preprocessed by using standard normal variate (SNV), multiplicative scatter correction (MSC), first

187 derivative (1st Der), and second derivative (2nd Der), alone or as combined spectral filters, to identify
188 the best solution enhancing the signal-to-noise ratio and spectral resolution.

189 To achieve significant and robust results, each classification model was trained on 75% and validated
190 on 25% of the common or musky octopus spectral pre-processed dataset. The low number of samples
191 in the common octopus dataset hindered the possibility of averaging the four spectral replicates
192 recorded for each sample. Therefore, it was decided to retain the four individual spectral replicates of
193 each sample and to perform the 75:25 splits by randomly allocating them together into either the

194 internal calibration sets (i.e., training sets) or the external validation sets (i.e., validation sets)- [as](#)
195 [follows: i\) 354 spectral data into the training set of musky octopuses \(118 samples × 3 spectral](#)
196 [replicates, i.e. 75% of total spectral replicates\); ii\) 118 spectral data into the validation set of musky](#)
197 [octopuses \(118 samples × 1 spectral replicate, i.e. 25% of total spectral replicates\); iii\) 156 spectral](#)
198 [data into the training set of common octopuses \(39 samples × 3 spectral replicates, i.e. 75% of total](#)
199 [spectral replicates\); iv\) 39 spectral data into the training set of common octopuses \(39 samples × 1](#)
200 [spectral replicate, i.e. 25% of total spectral replicates.](#) Thereby, a balanced repartition of the two

201 representative classes to be discriminated (i.e., the two geographical provenances of the samples), as
202 well as the maximum independence among samples in the two sets were assured. In order to enhance
203 statistical confidence with small sample sizes, training data were also 7-fold cross-validated (internal
204 calibration phase), thus the models were trained on 6/7th and internally evaluated on 1/7th of the data.

205 Considering that for small-sized datasets the whole performances of the machine learning models are
206 influenced by the exact repartition of samples into the training and the [test-validation](#) sets, the 75:25
207 splits were repeated 4 times for all the models. Hence, four different training and [testing-validation](#)
208 sets were generated for each octopus species. The final statistical outcomes resulting from training
209 and validation stages were reported as means and standard deviations (Michelucci & Venturini,
210 2021).

211 After data repartition, the spectra of the training sets were used to create two principal component
212 analysis (PCA) models (one for each of the octopus species considered). PCA was used for the sake

213 of screening data structure, to reveal any potential hidden correlations among samples and variables,
214 and to detect potential outliers, otherwise detrimental for the accuracy and stability of the subsequent
215 machine learning classification models. Nevertheless, since used as a preliminary investigation tool,
216 PCA was computed only once, i.e., by using data included in only one of the four training sets created.
217 The following supervised classification tools were then tested: orthogonal partial least square
218 discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA), logistic regression (LR), random forest (RF), support vector
219 machine (SVM), and multilayer perceptron artificial neural network (MLP-ANN). Calculations of
220 PCA and OPLS-DA were performed by using the statistical software packages SIMCA (v. 16.0.2,
221 Sartorius Stedim Data Analytics AB, Umea, Sweden), while calculations of LR, RF, SVM, and MLP-
222 ANN were done by using IBM SPSS Modeler software (v. 18.2, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

223 2.3.1 Training parameters of the machine learning models

224 In this work, the number of predictive and orthogonal new latent variables of the calibration OPLS-
225 DA models was estimated by cross-validation. The fitting and prediction abilities of the models were
226 evaluated by analyzing the following parameters: R^2X (cumulative variability of the spectral data
227 modelled by all the extracted latent variables), R^2Y (cumulative variation associated to class labels
228 explained by all the extracted latent variables), Q^2X (cumulative variability associated to class labels
229 predicted by all the extracted latent variables), RMSECV (root-mean-squared error of cross
230 validation) and RMSEP (root-mean-squared error of prediction).

231 The overall significance of the logistic regression equation to classify octopus samples was indeed
232 estimated by the likelihood ratio Chi-square test (using -2 times the log of the likelihood as reference
233 value) and taking into consideration the Cox-Snell pseudo- R^2 regression value.

234 As for RF models, their structures were created using the Gini Impurity Index as a tree branching and
235 variable selection criterion. According to the default settings suggested by the software, the number
236 of trees to be generated was beforehand set to a maximum of 100. To avoid over splitting, the
237 maximum depth of the tree structure was set to 10 levels while the minimum number of samples to

238 be included into each child node was set to 5. Finally, the number of split variables for each tree node
239 was set at 11 (square root of the total number of variables).

240 For the training of the SVM models, the Radial Basis Function (RBF) was used as kernel function.
241 The balance between the model complexity and training error was established by setting the
242 regularization parameter C (box-constraint or penalty factor) to 90, the additional kernel function γ
243 parameter to 0.1, and the regression precision parameter ϵ to 0.1, by following the default settings
244 suggested by the software.

245 Finally, the architecture of the MLP-ANN was built automatically and included an input layer
246 (containing the NIR spectral data), one single hidden layer with one hidden neuron (transforming the
247 weighted sum of the inputs by a hyperbolic tangent activation function to generate the outputs), and
248 an output layer (using SoftMax activation function to estimate the probability of samples belonging
249 to each classification group).

250 [The relative contribution of each NIR wavelength to the predictive models was measured through](#)
251 [different functions, based on the machine learning algorithm employed: while model-dependent](#)
252 [methods consisting on the evaluation of the of Variable influence on projection \(VIP\) index, t-test](#)
253 [statistics, and mean squared error were applied for OPLS-DA, LR, and RF, respectively, model-](#)
254 [independent method based on the calculation of the area under the receiver operating characteristic](#)
255 [\(ROC\) curve values \(AUROC\) were applied both for SVM and MPL-ANN.](#)

256 2.3.2. Evaluation and comparison of the classification models performances

257 The estimation of the goodness of each classification model was performed on multiple fronts.
258 Considering that each classification model is characterized by its own statistic outputs, standardized
259 metrics providing a direct comparison of the performances of the models were chosen.

260 Firstly, the mean accuracy, specificity, sensitivity, and precision parameters (Fawcett, 2006) were
261 calculated from the confusion matrices reporting percentages of common and musky octopus samples
262 of the training sets correctly classified in the proper class during the cross-validation process.

263 Prediction capabilities of the models were then graphically inspected through the [area under the](#)

264 ~~receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve values (AUROC)~~AUROC values for each of the two
265 classes (Mediterranean, Atlantic) of the validation sets, which is an optimal compromise to
266 summarize sensitivity and specificity. ROC curves for validation data were created by plotting the
267 true positive rate (TPR or sensitivity) versus the false positive rate (FPR or 1-specificity) at all
268 predicted probability cut-off values (Fawcett, 2006).

269 3. Results and Discussion

270 3.1. NIR spectral characteristics and correction

271 Pre-processing of NIR spectra is quite a mandatory step in common practice to minimize the
272 systematic variation in the spectra deriving from light scattering. Non-linearity and multiplicative
273 effects deriving from this variation appear in the form of baseline shifts and drifts which are not
274 directly related to the chemical properties, but rather to the structural features and physical status of
275 the sample (Rinnan et al., 2009).

276 As it can be observed from Figure 2, light scattering effects were found in the raw absorbance spectra
277 of both musky and common octopus samples recorded by MicroNIR. Therefore, ~~different~~ different pre-
278 processing techniques were applied to the raw spectra by finding a compromise among drifts/shifts
279 minimization, an acceptable peak separation degree, and the addition of unwanted noise. As a result,
280 MSC and 2nd Der were discarded, while transformation by SNV followed by 1st Der (Norris-Williams,
281 quadratic polynomial order, 15 points gap) was selected the best suited combination of spectral filters
282 since allowed to re-align NIR spectra and partially suppress broad bands, without over processing
283 and potential information loss (Figure 2). Despite intrinsic differences related to species, the average
284 SNV plus 1st Der spectra of musky and common octopuses from the two geographical provenances
285 were not characterized by rough visual differences in the absorbance pattern. The predominant bands
286 were found in the 950–1000 nm, 1100–1200 nm, and in the 1300–1450 nm NIR regions (Figure 2).
287 Nevertheless, considering that the original maximum peaks in the raw spectra correspond to the zero-
288 crossing segment of the 1st Der spectra, the predominant individual features observables within the

289 above mentioned NIR regions for common octopus dataset were at 1194 and 1440 nm, where $-CH_2$
290 and $-CH_3$ bonds of aliphatic hydrocarbons were reported to absorb (Workman & Weyer, 2012). In
291 the case of musky octopus spectral dataset, the first feature moved to a lower wavelength (1186 nm),
292 while the second one was located at the same wavelength (1440 nm) (Figure 2). ~~Due to difficulties in~~
293 ~~sampling procedures and in the interpretation of the NIR spectra, only a few research works have~~
294 ~~focused on the correlation between NIR absorbance spectra and the geographical origin of fish and~~
295 ~~seafood.~~ Mostly, NIR wavelengths related to lipid absorption and, sometimes, proteins, were already
296 identified as useful for the classification of fish by origin (Ghidini et al., 2019; Currò et al., 2021;
297 Varrà et al., 2021b). ~~Nevertheless, the assumption behind the possibility of fingerprinting the origin~~
298 ~~of cephalopods by using lipid and protein spectral features rely on the well known link existing~~
299 ~~between the characteristics of the specific marine environment (water saline composition and average~~
300 ~~temperature, sediments, currents, seasonal temperature changes, population, and availability of fish~~
301 ~~preys) and the parallel variation of the chemical constituents of the fish tissues (Saito et al., 1997.~~ In
302 this context, octopus species, since particularly sensitive to any variation of the aquatic ecosystem,
303 can provide useful information about the seawaters of origin, ~~including the environment pollution~~
304 ~~status~~ (Sillero-Ríos et al., 2018). ~~Indeed, especially -due to previous studies demonstrated that both~~
305 ~~variations of the~~ fatty acid and elemental profiles ~~vary a lot among *O. vulgaris* populations sampled~~
306 ~~in different areas and, therefore, they can be successfully used as markers of geographical origin~~
307 (Arechavala-Lopez et al., 2019; Semedo et al., 2012). ~~On the other hand, also pollutants or toxic~~
308 ~~elements on the fishing area may be similarly reflected into octopus tissues, leading to questioning~~
309 ~~food safety. This is one of the reasons why the authentication of seafood according to the geographic~~
310 ~~origin represent an important prerequisite of food safety (Freitas et al., 2020).~~

311 The possible differences in composition pointed out in the NIR spectra might explain the results
312 achieved upon applying PCA. Specifically, the PCA models for musky and common octopuses were
313 characterized by 8 and 7 principal components (PCs), covering 99.3 and 99% of the total variance,
314 respectively. From the score scatter plots of the first three PCs (Figure 3), it can be sated that none of

315 the octopus samples was suspected of being an outlier, since not crossing the 95% confidence limits
316 for Hotelling's T^2 defined by plot ellipse. At the same time, the PC1 collected the inter-origin
317 variability only among common octopuses, but not among musky octopuses, which did not separate
318 efficiently each other.

319 Nevertheless, all the above aspects suggested a promising route for the application of supervised
320 classification methods which could efficiently address the challenge of identifying the origin of
321 octopuses by using NIR spectroscopy.

322 3.2. Analysis and comparison of machine learning models performances

323 ~~In the field of food quality, safety and authenticity, there is a definite trend towards the automation
324 and the use of smart fingerprint technologies, able to collect a huge amount of data to characterize
325 foods and food systems in a comprehensive way, such as those based on miniaturized and portable
326 spectroscopic sensors (Mevey et al., 2021). This trend has been accompanied by a substantial progress
327 in the development of more efficient computer algorithms and solutions, aimed to speed up and
328 simplify the analytical workflow without sacrificing the reliability of the results. At the same time,
329 coupling fingerprinting techniques with advanced computer assisted data analysis offers the
330 advantages of extending the domain of food applications thanks to the possibility of monitoring
331 quality, safety, authenticity through one single analysis and, thus, preventing food fraud and food-
332 borne illness.~~

333 In this work, five different powerful machine learning tools were tested against NIR spectroscopic
334 data of musky and common octopus specimens of Mediterranean or Atlantic fishing origin included
335 into the training sets, with the aim to develop a new tool for the prevention of potential frauds related
336 to the falsification of the origin. The information embedded into the SNV + 1st Der pre-processed
337 spectra was thus modelled by selecting OPLS-DA, LR, SVM, RF, and ANNs as supervised
338 classification tools, which were initially tested on the training data by applying a cross-validation
339 process (see *Section 2.3*).

340 The cross-validation results of the five tested machine learning tools are illustrated in Figure 4, while
341 a summary of the modelling statistics is reported in *Supplementary Materials* (Tables S1, S2, S3,
342 Figure S1). Each model was trained by considering all the spectral variables included into the dataset,
343 corresponding to 125 NIR absorbance values (908.1–1676.2 nm spectra). The only exception was
344 represented by RF models which automatically perform a feature selection to avoid overfitting. These
345 models were built by using a total of 53 and 60 input variables for musky and common octopus
346 classifications, respectively.

347 Contrary to what achieved when applying PCA (see *Section 3.1*) slightly better results were obtained
348 when modelling musky octopuses compared to common octopuses, thus potentially confirming that
349 the higher number of the analyzed samples still included in their NIR spectra a fraction of discriminant
350 information related to the origin which was captured and described by the more powerful supervised
351 algorithms. The performance metrics in cross validation were all above 96% except for RF models,
352 which were characterized by the highest error rates (with approx. 6 and 16% of musky and common
353 octopus wrongly recognized). The conventional linear algorithms were the most performant ones.
354 Specifically, LR was found to be the best solution to recognize the origin labelling of common
355 octopuses (average values of accuracy, specificity, sensitivity, and precision over 4 repetitions of
356 99.79 ± 0.43 , 99.86 ± 0.29 , 99.86 ± 0.29 , and $99.60 \pm 0.81\%$, respectively), while OPLS-DA showed
357 the highest accuracy, specificity, sensitivity, and precision metrics for musky octopuses (average
358 values over 4 repetitions of 99.58 ± 0.67 , 99.59 ± 0.66 , 99.59 ± 0.66 , and $99.57 \pm 0.68\%$, respectively)
359 (Figure 4). In particular, the highest sensitivity (related to the true positive rates) and specificity
360 (indicating the true negative rate) values shown by OPLS-DA and LR have both important positive
361 consequences on the overall goodness of the discriminant methodology. In fact, sensitivity values
362 indicate the degree of confidence in identifying the real authentic samples, thus having a direct impact
363 on the economic side. On the other hand, specificity values indicate the degree of confidence in
364 identifying the real non-authentic samples, with significant repercussions on the legal front.

365 As for computational performances of both MLP-ANN and SVM, also these tools showed very good
366 predictions in cross-validation. SVM is one of the most frequently used machine learning technique
367 in food chemistry and authentication studies and, compared to linear classification methods, offers
368 the advantages of adaptability towards the non-linear distribution of the data typical of NIR
369 spectroscopy (Jiménez-Carvelo et al., 2019). The superiority of SVM methods over traditional linear
370 classifiers combined with NIR spectral data in verifying different food authenticity claims has been
371 demonstrated in several works (Cardoso & Poppi, 2021; Benes et al., 2020; Parastar et al., 2020;
372 Sampaio et al., 2020; Bisutti et al., 2019). The suitability of using SVM to authenticate cephalopods
373 (*Sepia officinalis*) has been also confirmed in a recent work, where its application yielded 83–100%
374 balanced accuracy, 67–100% sensitivity, and 88–100% specificity for the classification of the
375 samples according to 5 different geographical origins (Currò et al., 2021). It should be noted,
376 however, that in the present work SVM, as well as RF, were characterized by very large standard
377 deviations associated with all the metrics (Figure 4). This result might alert on the dependency of
378 these techniques on the specific repartition of samples into training and validation sets, thus
379 suggesting a potential instability and lack of robustness towards future prediction of unknown
380 samples.

381 In conclusion, it can be stated that the data support the hypothesis that the simplest and the most
382 interpretable classifiers (i.e., OPLS-DA and LR) also guarantee the best results in cross validation.
383 The reason underlying this finding could be due to the existence of a direct linear rather than indirect
384 correlation between NIR spectral patterns and the geographical origin of octopuses achieved by
385 applying optimal spectral pre-processing operations. Therefore, although the complex nature of the
386 samples, this correlation can be easily extrapolated by traditional linear techniques (Zareef et al.,
387 2020). Evidence for this theory is however limited to the results obtained throughout the present
388 research and it can be easily supposed that, with increasing sample size and non-linear variability (in
389 terms of different fishing seasons, batches, sizes, storage times and temperatures), the more complex
390 and flexible algorithms such as SVM, RF, and MLP-ANN might be the most performing ones.

391 Additionally, it is worth to say that the training of SVM and RF usually involves the identification of
392 the best numerical values to be assigned to building parameters, so as to increase accuracy and
393 performance of the final models. This operation is a very complex task requiring time, expertise, and
394 efforts and, therefore, it does not sit well with the purpose of having a speedy, cost-effective, easy
395 and fully exploitable procedure. In this work, the values for these building parameters (maximum
396 number and depth of trees, minimum size and number of variables included into each child nodes for
397 RF, as well as the C , γ , and ε parameters for SVM) were chosen by following the default settings
398 recommended by the software and no complex operations such as manual search, use of genetic
399 algorithms or grid search were performed (Phan et al., 2017).

400 3.2.1 Comparison of predictive NIR wavelengths

401 ~~Given the different mathematical nature of the models being presented, also the relative strength of~~
402 ~~each NIR wavelength in guiding the classification of octopus samples based on the geographic~~
403 ~~provenance is expected be different. For each predictive model computed, a different ranking of NIR~~
404 ~~wavelengths in terms of their importance (i.e., their relative contribution to the predictive models)~~
405 ~~was obtained since dependent on the mathematical function employed (see Section 2.3.1).~~

406 Information about the first ten most influential NIR bands extracted as strong predictors of origin by
407 individual cross-validated models obtained by training sets is provided in Table 1. Considering that
408 the training phase was performed four consecutive times by changing sample datasets (*Section 2.3*),
409 the kind and order of importance of the wavelengths were sometimes found to be different based on
410 the dataset considered for modelling. For the sake of conciseness, those extracted by the most accurate
411 of the four fitted models were reported.

412 NIR wavelength absorbance at 1453.2 nm was the most common important variable for musky
413 octopuses, since it was extracted by four out five machine learning algorithms (OPLS-DA, RF, SVM,
414 and MLP-ANN). Similarly, NIR band at 1632.8 had a strong influence on musky octopus samples
415 discrimination for OPLS-DA, LR, and SVM. On the contrary, RF stood out the most from the other
416 models because six out ten wavelengths (1081.5, 1075.3, 1465.6, 1137.3, 1341.7, 1093.9 nm) were

417 exclusive predictors. As for common octopuses, absorbance peaks at 970 and 976.2 nm were shared
418 as important predictors respectively by OPLS-DA, LR, RF, and SVM and by OPLS-DA, RF, SVM,
419 and MLP-ANN, while that located at 963.8 by OPLS-DA, SVM, MLP-ANN (Table 1).

420 From the above results, it seems that NIR bands around the 1137.3 and 1341.7 nm, which are
421 potentially related to aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbons (Workman & Weyer, 2012), were strongly
422 involved in differentiating Atlantic from Mediterranean musky octopuses, thus corroborating what
423 emerged from the visual inspection of the pre-processed spectra discussed in *Section 3.1*. However,
424 whereas OH-group absorption bands (1453 nm, 1075.3–1093.9 nm, and 963.8–976.2 nm) were
425 clearly influent, the additional contribution of water to musky and octopus discrimination by origin
426 should not be overlooked (Workman & Weyer, 2012). Considering that sample processing before
427 NIR recording was standardized and freezing/defrosting as well as acquisition procedures performed
428 at the same time/temperature conditions, it could be inferred that the water content varied across
429 specimens to such an extent that inter-origin difference was higher than inter-individual one in both
430 octopus species. Nevertheless, another hypothesis can be derived from the principles of
431 aquaphotomics, according to which, since one single biological compound is solvated by many water
432 molecules, the NIR response to individual biological compounds was amplified by water absorption
433 which, indirectly, contributed to the achievement of high accuracy in prediction (Muncan &
434 Tsenkova, 2019).

435 *3.3. Independent evaluation of the predictivity of machine learning models*

436 The ability of the ~~fitted-trained~~ models to generalize beyond the training data and confidently assign
437 the correct labels of geographical origin to future candidate octopus samples was estimated by using
438 the ~~samples 25% of data (i.e., one out four spectral replicates for each sample) belonging the~~
439 ~~validation sets~~ and previously excluded from the calibration phase (see *Section 2.3*). The resulting
440 label assignments for ~~118 musky~~ and ~~39 spectral data of musky and common, respectively, included~~
441 ~~into of~~ the validation sets are reported in the confusion matrices plotted in Figure 5. In agreement to
442 what observed for PCA, but in contrast to results of cross-validation, the absolute best outcomes in

443 external validation were achieved when recognizing the origin of common octopuses: three out five
444 models (OPLS-DA, SVM, and MLP-ANN) predicted both the Mediterranean and Atlantic origin of
445 [common octopus validation](#) ~~these~~ samples with 100% accuracy (Figure 5). More in detail, OPLS-DA,
446 SVM, and MLP-ANN classifiers were all characterized by mean AUROC values of 1, with OPLS-
447 DA and MLP-ANN also showing the lowest associated standard deviation values for the prediction
448 of Mediterranean and Atlantic common octopus samples, respectively. On the contrary, despite the
449 optimistic results in cross-validation, the analysis of the LR confusion matrix reported in Figure 5
450 revealed the poorest performances, since one Atlantic (10%) and nine Mediterranean common
451 octopus [validation](#) samples (31%) were misclassified. The associated AUROC values were in fact
452 0.638 ± 0.002 and 0.631 ± 0.019 and, thus, quite close to the randomly guess rate of class membership
453 recognition of 0.5. In this instance, it is important to reiterate that the [better-best](#) classification of
454 common octopuses compared to musky octopuses is likely to be the consequence of the smaller-sized
455 group which determined the inclusion into the models of a smaller amount of variation available for
456 self-learning which, in turn, hindered finding the best predictive correlation between NIR
457 wavelengths and octopus origins. Hence, definite conclusions on this aspect could not be drawn, but
458 it can be assumed that, although the noisy and collinear nature of the NIR spectra, none of the trained
459 models underwent overfitting, as can be seen from the similarity between training and validation
460 results.

461 As for musky octopuses, no models were able to recognize the provenance with 100% accuracy
462 (Figure 5). The maximum correct classification rates [in validation](#) were shown by SVM and LR
463 predicting the Mediterranean samples (98 and 97%, respectively) and by LR and MLP-ANN
464 predicting the Atlantic ones (100%). Although SVM and MLP-ANN classifiers had high mean
465 AUROC values, the lowest associated standard deviations were found for LR classifiers (AUROC=
466 0.989 ± 0.009 for Mediterranean samples; AUROC= 0.992 ± 0.009 for Atlantic samples). Shifting
467 the focus from machine learning classifiers to single classes (i.e., geographical origins), it can be also
468 noticed that, whatever the octopus species considered, samples from Atlantic Ocean were better

469 recognized than samples from Mediterranean sea. From this finding it could be inferred that the small
470 extension of the water surface and the close proximity to the coast of the Eastern Portuguese waters
471 of the North-East Atlantic Ocean (FAO fishing area 27.9.a) are reflected in a more uniform
472 environment which, in turn, might be responsible for the composition of octopus originating from
473 this area to be more stable and preserved compared to that of octopuses from Western Mediterranean
474 waters (FAO fishing areas 37.1.1). In fact, if on the one hand Western Mediterranean Sea is a semi-
475 enclosed area characterized by stable temperature and salinity, the North-East Atlantic Ocean is
476 characterized by a continuous input of organic matter from the Portuguese coast. This contributes to
477 the permanent availability of prey and constant accessibility to food, which is the main factor
478 influencing the fatty acid composition of octopuses (Massutí et al., 2004). Indeed, in the present work,
479 the same lipid composition was hypothesized to be determinant in differentiating samples according
480 to their country of origin (*Section 3.1*). As an example, concentrations of monounsaturated and n-6
481 polyunsaturated fatty acids were found to be constantly lower in Eastern Atlantic populations of *O.*
482 *vulgaris* than Western Mediterranean ones, while concentrations of total fatty acids and n-3-6
483 polyunsaturated fatty acids higher in Atlantic populations (Arechavala-Lopez et al., 2019; Torrinha
484 et al., 2014).

485 **4. Conclusions**

486 The results achieved from this study indicate that ~~portable NIR sensors a potential integrated~~
487 ~~analytical platform combining portable and miniature NIR spectroscopy and machine learning might~~
488 ~~be a suitable solution to~~ can identify with great accuracy the geographical origin of two ~~widely~~
489 ~~consumed~~ octopus species ~~widely consumed in Europe, coming from Mediterranean or Atlantic~~
490 ~~fishing areas~~, thus helping fraud prevention and having a direct impact on the quality and safety of
491 the products. Regardless of the classification method employed, equally good results were achieved
492 when fitting the models. Nevertheless, musky octopuses (*Eledone* spp.) were better modelled
493 compared to common octopuses (*O. vulgaris*) when using traditional linear algorithms, (OPLS-DA
494 and LR), thus suggesting the presence of a direct linear relationship between NIR spectra and the

495 provenances of octopuses which can be easily extracted with increasing sample sizes. ~~Following the~~
496 ~~validation of the fitted models, OPLS-DA, SVM, and MLP-ANN allowed to achieve the maximum~~
497 ~~label recognition rates of common octopuses, while LR and MLP-ANN performed better for musky~~
498 ~~octopuses. Additionally, r~~Regardless of the octopus species considered, the origin label estimates
499 were better for the Atlantic sample population compared to the Mediterranean one, probably because
500 of the specific characteristics of the fishing waters, which contributed to make Atlantic population
501 more homogenous from a compositional point of view.

502 ~~In conclusion, the obtained data might be transferred to the fish chain environment and, provided~~
503 ~~their constant validation, find concrete application for the protection of the reputation of national and~~
504 ~~regional traditional fisheries. This application may materialize in the direct interface of a portable~~
505 ~~NIR system to the production flow and its customization based on the products to be handled and the~~
506 ~~specific industrial facility processes, so as to online monitor quality, authenticity, and safety of~~
507 ~~cephalopods and contribute to the development of quality certification schemes.~~

508 ~~Given the promising outcomes, future research will be focused on the creation of multi-class~~
509 ~~classification models for the detection of commercial fraud, including additional fishing areas and,~~
510 ~~possibly, also different species of octopus. In this context, the most important impact under a future~~
511 ~~perspective would be the setting up of a tool to promote and protect the reputation of national and~~
512 ~~regional traditional fisheries and which would also help in the development of quality certification~~
513 ~~schemes.~~

514 ~~If this is shown to be possible and satisfying results are achieved, then the next step might be the~~
515 ~~exploitation of the methodology for complementary applications addressing food safety and~~
516 ~~surveillance, such as the detection of contaminants, residues, and food additives. This way, a single~~
517 ~~integrated methodology might be used to characterize in a comprehensive way the fishery products~~
518 ~~found in the marketplace and ensure high quality and safety standards.~~

519 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

520 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
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522

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529 ~~CRediT author statement~~

530 ~~Maria Olga Varrà: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing—~~

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533 ~~Project administration, Writing—Review & Editing; Emanuela Zanardi: Conceptualization,~~

534 ~~Supervision, Writing—Review & Editing; Project administration.~~

535

536 **Appendix A. Supplementary materials**

537 The following are the Supplementary data to this article:

538 **Table 1**

539 Comparison among the ten most important predictive NIR wavelengths used by each machine

540 learning tool to categorize the octopus samples [of the training sets](#) by their origin.

Models	Important predictors (wavelengths, nm)*	
	Musky octopus	Common octopus
OPLS-DA	1453.2; 1459.4; 1447; 1632.8; 1440.8;	982.4; 976.2; 988.6; 970; 963.8; 957.7; 951.5;
	1564.7; 1558.5; 1626.6; 1570.9; 1434.6	994.8; 1193; 1199.2
LR	1552.3; 1614.3; 1577.1; 1632.8; 1564.7;	957.7; 951.5; 970; 1304.5; 1298.3; 982.4;
	1589.5; 1316.9; 1397.5; 1409.8; 1583.3	1316.9; 1248.8; 1236.4; 1224
RF	1453.2; 1081.5; 1459.4; 1323.1; 1075.3;	970; 1180.7; 1304.5; 976.2; 1174.5; 1298.3;
	1465.6; 1137.3; 1341.7; 1447; 1093.9	1205.4; 1434.6; 1440.8; 1193.0
SVM	1632.8; 1626.6; 1620.5; 1614.3; 1608.1;	1583.3; 1248.8; 963.8; 1316.9; 994.8; 970;
	1453.2; 1601.9; 1595.7; 1589.5; 1583.3	976.2; 1007.2; 982.4; 1180.7
MLP-ANN	1453.2; 982.4; 1100.1; 1069.2; 1620.5;	1025.8; 1459.4; 976.2; 1019.6; 988.6; 963.8;
	1106.3; 1205.4; 1007.2; 1001; 1186.8	1242.6; 1211.6; 1236.4; 1069.2;

541 * For all the models, wavelengths are sorted in descending order of predictive importance. The reported wavelengths
 542 refer to the most accurate among the four trained models.

543

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767 **Figure captions**

768 **Figure 1.** Sampling area extensions of musky and common octopuses.

769 **Figure 2.** Effect of the application of different pre-processing filters ([Standard Normal Variate, SNV;](#)
770 [first derivative, 1st Der](#)) on the quality and usefulness of the 908.1–1676.2 nm spectra recorded by
771 MicroNIR ([Atlantic samples: red lines; Mediterranean samples: red lines](#)). [The main spectral features](#)
772 [in SNV + 1st Der spectral patterns are highlighted by dotted marker boxes.](#)

773 **Figure 3.** 3-D score scatter plot from PCA applied to musky and common octopuses.

774 **Figure 4** Main figures of merit (mean \pm standard deviation) of the five different machine learning
775 tools (OPLS-DA, LR, RF, SVM, and RF) obtained by cross-validation of the training samples for the
776 characterization of the geographic origin of musky and common octopuses.

777 **Figure 5.** Confusion matrices (mean classification rates) and corresponding [areas under the curve](#)
778 [\(AUC\) values of receiver operating characteristic \(AUROC\)](#) AUROC-values (mean \pm standard
779 deviation) resulting from the origin prediction of [118](#) musky and [39](#) common octopus ~~test-spectral~~
780 samples ([included into the external validation sets](#)) by the five different classifiers (OPLS-DA, LR,
781 RF, SVM and MLP-ANN). [Correct classification rates in confusions matrices are included into green](#)
782 [boxes \(Med: Mediterranean samples, Atl: Atlantic samples\).](#)