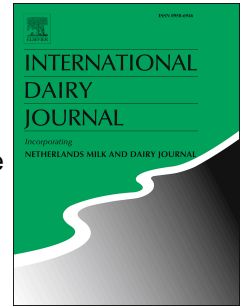


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Review of near-infrared spectroscopy as a process analytical technology for real-time product monitoring in dairy processing

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1 Review of near-infrared spectroscopy as a process analytical technology for real-  
2 time product monitoring in dairy processing

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28 ABSTRACT

29

30 Real-time process/product monitoring can be achieved using suitable process analytical  
31 technologies (PAT) to improve process efficiencies and product quality. In the dairy industry, near  
32 infrared (NIR) spectroscopy has been utilised as a laboratory analytical method (off-line) for  
33 compositional analysis of dairy products since the 1970s. Recent advances in NIR technology  
34 and instrumentation have widened its applications from a bench-top analytical instrument to a  
35 promising PAT tool for on-line and in-line implementation. This review focuses on the use of NIR  
36 technology for real-time monitoring of dairy products, by briefly outlining the measurement  
37 principle, NIR instrument configurations, in-line sampling methods, calibration models  
38 development, some practical considerations for process installation, and current state of the art in  
39 on-line and in-line NIR applications (2012 to date) for continuous process monitoring in the  
40 production of dairy products. The challenges and additional resources required to improve  
41 production efficiencies using NIR spectroscopy are also discussed.

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## 70 1. Introduction

71

72 The consumption of dairy products is expected to increase by 25% from 2015 to 2024 (IDF, 2019).

73 This increasing demand is driving dairy processors to become more competitive and streamline

74 processes to be more efficient. To achieve this, it is essential for dairy plants to implement real-time

75 process monitoring to allow corresponding production lines to be controlled and optimised, while also

76 ensuring the production of a high quality and consistent final product. The acquisition of real-time process

77 information (i.e., operating conditions, quality attributes of processed materials) can be achieved by

78 implementation of process analytical technologies (PAT) in the manufacturing processes. The concept of

79 PAT was first introduced to the pharmaceutical industry by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA,

80 2004), with the aim of supporting innovation and efficiency in pharmaceutical development, manufacturing,

81 and quality assurance. Since then, the adoption and promotion of PAT initiatives have been widely

82 spread across other related areas (Chew & Sharratt, 2010), particularly in the food industry including the

83 dairy sector (O'Donnell, Fagan, & Cullen, 2014).

84 In the dairy industry, common PAT tools such as pH, temperature, pressure and flow

85 instrumentation are installed at critical control points of a processing line to provide real-time operating

86 information of the process (Tajammal Munir, Yu, Young, & Wilson, 2015). In recent decades, the

87 importance for real-time measurement of chemical composition of in-process materials has been

88 recognised by dairy processors as an important component to ensure end products meet desired quality

89 specifications (Munir et al., 2017). For example, the protein-to-fat ratio (PFR) of cheese milk governs the

90 coagulation process, cheese yield and final composition of the cheese (Sturaro, De Marchi, Zorzi, &

91 Cassandro, 2015). It is important to maintain batch-to-batch consistencies during cheese manufacturing

92 with the use of standardised cheese milk. The milk standardisation process can be optimised and

93 controlled by real-time measurement of fat and protein content using suitable PAT tools, such as an in-

94 line NIR spectrometer or in-line milk standardisers. The majority of in-line milk standardisation currently is

95 carried out with at-line middle infrared (MIR) instruments (i.e., the MilkoScan<sup>TM</sup> or more recently

96 MilkoStream<sup>TM</sup> instruments from FOSS, Hillerød, Denmark), as a result, the fat and protein content can be

97 continuously adjusted to achieve a target PFR.

98           Near-infrared (NIR) spectroscopy has been identified as a powerful analytical technology for  
99           compositional analysis of a variety of dairy products, since its first application in the dairy industry in the  
100          late 1970s (Cattaneo & Holroyd, 2013). This technique can overcome the disadvantages of time-  
101          consuming and tedious laboratory analysis, offering a rapid (results derived in seconds), non-destructive  
102          (no sample damage), cost-effective (simultaneously measure multiple quality parameters) and  
103          environmentally-friendly (chemical-free and no waste disposal required) solution to meet the requirements  
104          of a fast-paced processing supply chain. In 2006, the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO)  
105          together with IDF published an international standard, providing guidelines for the application of NIR  
106          spectrometry as an off-line analytical technology for quality measurement of several milk products (ISO &  
107          IDF, 2006). This standard was substantially updated and revised in 2019 to cover a wider range of dairy  
108          samples in different forms (i.e., liquid, semi-solid and solid). In addition, a Bulletin of the IDF (No.  
109          497/2019) entitled "Applications of NIR spectrometry for the analysis of milk and milk products" was  
110          recently released (Niemöller & Holroyd, 2019). This document summarised unpublished calibration  
111          statistics originating from global dairy companies and NIR instrument vendors, to provide comprehensive  
112          and up-to-date information on NIR performance in the dairy industry. To meet current process  
113          requirements of quality by design (QbD), the latest NIR instruments are equipped with features that are  
114          suitable for real-time (on-line or in-line) process monitoring. The application and implementation of NIR  
115          technology has also started to move from the laboratory (off-line measurement) to production lines (at-line,  
116          on-line and in-line analysis), and from scientific research to industrial applications.

117                Currently, NIR technology has been successfully implemented in the pharmaceutical industry for  
118                process understanding, monitoring and control. Guidelines offered to the pharmaceutical industry  
119                regarding 'development and submission of near infrared analytical procedures' have been provided by the  
120                European Medicine Agency (EMA, 2014) and the FDA (FDA, 2015). However, the majority of the NIR  
121                implementation in the dairy industry is still off-line or at-line measurements.

122                Several other spectroscopic methods such as Raman spectroscopy (Yang & Ying, 2011),  
123                fluorescence spectroscopy (Shaikh & O'Donnell, 2017) and hyperspectral imaging (Manley, 2014) have  
124                been applied in the dairy sector. This review will focus on the NIR technology and its recent applications  
125                as a PAT tool for on-line and in-line measurements during dairy processing. The review will cover several

126 aspects including the basic principle of NIR spectroscopy, NIR instrumentation, in-line sampling,  
 127 calibration development and some practical considerations for on-line and in-line implementation.  
 128 Information listing global companies that provide on-line and in-line NIR solutions and the instrument  
 129 specifications is summarised in Supplementary material Table S1.

130

## 131 2. Principle of NIR spectroscopy

132

### 133 2.1. Spectral region

134

135 Spectroscopy studies the interaction between light and matter. Light is a form of electromagnetic  
 136 radiation, which contains a certain amount of energy. The energy ( $E$ ) of the light depends on its frequency;  
 137 the higher the frequency  $f$  of the light (or the shorter the wavelength  $\lambda$ ), the higher the light energy  $E$ , as  
 138 shown in Equation 1.

$$E = h \cdot f = \frac{h \cdot c}{\lambda} \quad (1)$$

139 where  $h$  is the Planck constant ( $\text{m}^2 \text{kg s}^{-1}$ ),  $f$  is the frequency of the light ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $c$  is the light speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ )  
 140 and  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the light (m).

141 Fig. 1 illustrates the electromagnetic spectrum that is divided into several spectral regions.  
 142 Increasing the wavelength of the light from gamma waves to radio waves will result in the corresponding  
 143 light energy decreasing. Visible light that can be perceived by the human eye covers the wavelength  
 144 range from 350 nm to 800 nm. The whole infrared (IR) region is from 800 nm to 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , and is sub-  
 145 divided into three main regions: near infrared (NIR, 800–2500 nm), middle infrared (MIR, 2500 nm – 25  
 146  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and far infrared (FIR, 25–100  $\mu\text{m}$ ) (Dufour (2009)). The NIR region is the region that is closest to the  
 147 visible light, thus, it is called 'near' infrared. Generally, the wavelength (in nm) is most frequently used for  
 148 the NIR region and the wavenumber (in  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) is used for the MIR region. The conversion between  
 149 wavelength and wavenumber is given in Equation 2.

$$\text{wavenumber (cm}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{10^7}{\text{wavelength (nm)}} \quad (2)$$

150 As a sample is exposed to a beam of IR light, the sample will absorb part of the light energy that  
151 can cause molecular vibrations. Each chemical bond (i.e., C–H, N–H, O–H, S–H) of a molecule has  
152 unique vibration modes (i.e., stretching, bending and rocking) and vibration frequencies (i.e., fundamental,  
153 overtones and combination; see Supplementary material for description and explanation). When the  
154 chemical bonds receive the light frequency that matches its vibrational frequency, the light energy will be  
155 absorbed. The concentration of absorbing chemical bonds in the light path influences the absorbance  
156 signal. As a result, the higher concentration, the more pronounced absorption signals being observed in  
157 the corresponding spectrum.

158

## 159 2.2. *Why NIR spectroscopy*

160

161 Both NIR and MIR spectroscopy are considered as rapid and chemical-free technologies. Table 1  
162 compares NIR and MIR spectroscopy. NIR spectroscopy is more attractive for on-line and in-line  
163 applications since: (i) the NIR region has higher energy than MIR (as known from Equation 1) resulting in  
164 a larger penetration depth into the sample; (ii) NIR light can pass through materials such as glass, films  
165 and plastic materials without losing much energy, giving a major advantage over the MIR in measuring  
166 samples through these materials (Lin, Rasco, Cavinato, & Al-Holy, 2009); (iii) The NIR spectrum contains  
167 a large amount of information related to the overtone and combination bands of hydrogen bonds (i.e., C–  
168 H, O–H and N–H). Most organic materials are made of these bonds, allowing a wide range of organic  
169 samples in chemistry, pharmaceutical and agri-food industries to be suitable for NIR analysis (Manley,  
170 2014). For example, the N–H vibration bands presented in the NIR spectrum of a milk sample are mainly  
171 corresponding to the protein molecules.

172 Nevertheless, NIR spectroscopy has its limitations. The NIR spectra are made up of overtones  
173 and combination bands of chemical bonds, the peaks are broad and overlapped which makes the  
174 spectral interpretation more difficult. NIR data exploration and interpretation rely heavily on the use of  
175 multivariate data analysis (chemometrics). The NIR technology cannot measure  
176 constituents/contaminations (e.g., melamine) that are lower than 0.1%, as a trace amount of  
177 contamination will have no measurable effect on the scatter properties of the samples (Norris, 2009).



178

179 2.3. *Measurement modes*

180

181 The interactions between light and matter include absorbance, reflectance and transmittance, as  
182 shown in Fig. 2. When the light (located in the NIR region) is passing through the sample, some parts of  
183 the light can be absorbed by the sample causing molecular vibrations, and the rest of the light is either  
184 reflected back towards the sample or transmitted through the sample, or a combination of both depending  
185 on the sample properties (i.e. sample density and chemical compounds).

186 According to the specific light-output captured by the detector in an NIR instrument, NIR  
187 spectroscopy can be performed in transmittance, reflectance, and transreflectance (a mixture of  
188 transmittance and reflectance) mode, as shown in Fig. 3. The transmittance mode measures the light  
189 transmitted through a sample, with the detector located at the opposite side of the light source. The  
190 reflectance mode measures the light reflected by the sample, with the detector located on the same side  
191 of the light source. For the transreflectance mode, a gold reflector (functioning as a mirror) is placed at the  
192 bottom of the sample, the transmitted light will be reflected back once it reaches the gold reflector  
193 (Núñez-Sánchez et al., 2016). As the light travels through the sample twice, the optical pathlength is  
194 double the sample thickness.

195 In dairy applications, for example, NIR light can penetrate through skim milk liquid easily, thus,  
196 the transmission spectra will provide more detailed compositional information on the sample. Compared  
197 with whole milk that has a fat content of 3~5%, light scattering effect could be observed due to the  
198 presence of different fat globules (Chen, Iyo, Terada, & Kawano, 2002), as a result, NIR spectrometers  
199 operating in either reflectance or transmittance can be considered for whole milk compositional  
200 measurement (Aernouts, Polshin, Lammertyn, & Saeys, 2011). Milk powders have a strong diffuse  
201 reflectance of the light, as a result, the reflectance spectrum carries more sample information compared  
202 with the transmission spectrum. The transreflectance mode is very useful in applications where there is a  
203 significant physical and chemical change in the in-process materials. For example, in the fermentation  
204 process of yoghurt, the rheology of the in-process materials changes from liquid milk to semi-solid gel  
205 after the addition of microorganism for a certain period of time (Grassi et al., 2013). It should be noted

206 that the penetration depth of the light is also wavelength-dependent (Aernouts et al., 2011), therefore, the  
207 selection of an optimal measurement mode of a NIR analyser is mainly based on the physical and  
208 chemical properties of a target sample (i.e., sample thickness, liquid or powder, clear liquid or emulsion)  
209 and the instrument specifications (i.e., spectral range and resolution). Supplementary material Table S1  
210 gives more details on the acquisition modes of NIR instruments and their suitable applications.

211

#### 212 2.4. NIR instrumentation

213

214 There are five main types of NIR instruments available on the market, according to the  
215 wavelength selection methods (AB Vista, 2018; Agelet & Hurburgh, 2010); these are as follows.

216 (1) Filter-based device, which uses optical filters that are mounted in a rotating wheel to generate  
217 the specific wavelengths required

218 (2) Dispersive type of spectrometer, which employs an optical prism or a grating element to  
219 generate a set of continuous wavelengths, e.g., as a ray of white light passes through a prism, it can be  
220 split into a whole spectrum of wavelengths due to different light refractions

221 (3) Fourier-transform (FT) spectrometer, which is based on the theory of Michelson interference,  
222 the light source is split and reflected by two mirrors, and then re-combined to interact with the sample.  
223 The resulting signal recorded by the detector is the light intensity as a function of time (called  
224 'interferogram'). Using Fourier-transform, the optical signal can be converted from time to frequency  
225 domain, as a result, a spectrum (light intensity as a function of frequency or wavelength) can be obtained.  
226 Many of the modern NIR instruments are FT-NIR instruments since the spectra generated are of a higher  
227 spectral resolution and quality.

228 (4) Diode-array type of instrument, which measures all the wavelengths at the same time using a  
229 fixed grating element with a dedicated diode detector for each wavelength (AB Vista, 2018), resulting in a  
230 high measurement speed.

231 (5) Micro-electro-mechanical systems (MEMS) type of spectrometer (Schuler, Milne, Dell, &  
232 Faraone, 2009), which is a small, compact and cost-effective NIR device based on semi-conductor  
233 technologies (Agelet & Hurburgh, 2010). This type of device can be used to fabricate portable / handheld

234 NIR instruments that are suitable for on-site measuring applications. As an example, Fig. 4 shows the  
235 working principles of the filter-based, dispersive and Fourier-transform types of NIR instruments.

236

### 237 **3. Analysis of NIR data**

238

#### 239 *3.1. Spectral profiles of dairy products*

240

241 Fig. 5 illustrates the typical NIR spectra of three different dairy powders: skim milk powder (SMP:  
242 protein content, 34%; moisture content, 4.0%), milk protein concentrate (MPC: protein content, 86%;  
243 moisture content, 5.6%) and whey protein isolate (WPI: protein content, 90.1%; moisture content, 6.9%).  
244 The spectra were collected using a FOSS-NIR 6500 system operating in the reflectance mode (FOSS UK  
245 Ltd., Warrington, UK). The spectral range is from 1100 nm to 2500 nm with a spectral interval of 2 nm. As  
246 observed in Fig. 5, the absorption bands in the NIR region are broad and overlapped. The water  
247 absorption bands due to the vibration of O–H bonds are found in the region of 1440–1470 nm and 1920–  
248 1940 nm (Manley, 2014). The protein absorption band at around 2172 nm can be attributed to the  
249 combination of C–O stretching, N–H bending and C–N stretching (Manley, 2014). The absorption band at  
250 2274 nm is possibly due to C–H and O–H vibration from lactose (Holroyd, 2013). More specifically, the  
251 NIR band assignments for different dairy products (cheese, liquid milk and milk powder) were  
252 summarised in a table in the review paper by Holroyd (2013).

253

#### 254 *3.2. Multivariate data analysis*

255

256 An NIR spectrum generally consists of hundreds of wavelengths and the wavelengths are  
257 considered as variables. For example, there are 700 variables (wavelengths) in the NIR spectra of dairy  
258 powders as shown in Fig. 5. In addition, the spectra are very complicated due to the overlapping of the  
259 overtones and combination bands. Thus, multivariate data analysis (MDA) is required to extract  
260 meaningful information from the NIR spectra of the sample. Common spectroscopic data analytical  
261 approaches include spectral pre-processing, spectra exploration, regression (quantitative analysis) and

262 classification (qualitative analysis), as summarised in Table 2. More details about multivariate data  
263 analysis and chemometrics in relation to spectroscopic data analysis can be referred to in papers by  
264 Rinnan, Berg, and Engelsen (2009), Roggo et al. (2007) and Xiaobo, Jiewen, Povey, Holmes, and Hanpin  
265 (2010).

266

### 267 3.3. *Development of a calibration model*

268

269 Before NIR spectroscopy can be employed in industry, a robust calibration model should be  
270 developed to ensure prediction results are accurate. A number of factors can influence the robustness of  
271 the model, i.e., the accuracy and reproducibility of the reference method, the sampling method used to  
272 collect representative samples, the spectra pre-processing methods, the quantitative or qualitative  
273 modelling methods. Fig. 6 illustrates a general procedure for the development of a calibration model.  
274 Samples in the calibration set are used to develop the calibration model, an external set of samples are  
275 used to evaluate and validate the model performance. For quantitative modelling, the quality composition  
276 parameter (i.e., protein, moisture, fat and total solids) is the dependent variable Y (results obtained from  
277 the reference method), the spectral signal/intensity at each waveband is the independent variable X ( $X_1$ ,  
278  $X_2, \dots, X_n$ ). For qualitative analysis (i.e., classification analysis), the sample class would be the dependent  
279 variable Y.

280 According to the IDF standard (ISO & IDF, 2006), typically at least 120 calibration samples are  
281 required for a robust model with the use of MLR and PLS techniques. For validation of the calibration  
282 models, at least 25 samples (a test set) that are independent of calibration samples are needed. A global  
283 or a local model can be developed based on the data used in calibration development. For example,  
284 Melenteva, Galyanin, Savenkova, and Bogomolov (2016) developed a global model (i.e., resistant to  
285 seasonal, geographical and genetic variation on milk composition) for measurement of fat and total  
286 protein content in raw milk, based on historical spectroscopic data that were collected from different cow  
287 breeds located in different regions over a specific time period.

288 Once a robust calibration model is developed, it should be regularly validated and updated to  
289 ensure model prediction performance. A model that is developed on one NIR instrument might not be

290 used directly in another similar NIR instrument due to variations in instrument components and the  
291 detecting environment. In this case, standardisation and calibration transfer techniques as mentioned in  
292 the review paper by Fearn (2001) can be applied to ensure model transferability for a wider model  
293 application.

294

#### 295 3.4. *Evaluation of a calibration model*

296

297 The model prediction performance can be evaluated using statistical criteria such as coefficient of  
298 determination ( $R^2$ ), root mean square errors for prediction (RMSEP), bias, standard error of prediction  
299 (SEP), and the ratio of prediction to deviation (RPD;  $RPD = \text{standard deviation (SD)} / \text{SEP or RMSEP}$ ).  
300 The calculations behind these prediction indices are outlined by Porep, Kammerer, and Carle (2015). For  
301 the same calibration range, a higher  $R^2$  value that is close to 1 (or a lower prediction error that is close to  
302 0) indicates a greater prediction performance of a model. Table 3 provides guidelines for the model  
303 prediction performance in terms of the  $R^2$  and RPD values. An  $R^2$  of over 0.92 is generally accepted for  
304 most applications including quality control (Williams, 2017).

305

## 306 4. **NIR applications**

307

### 308 4.1. *NIR application in dairy processing*

309

310 NIR spectroscopy applications in dairy processing include off-line (laboratories), at-line, on-line  
311 and in-line installations (FDA, 2015); the main differences between which are as follows.

312 (1) Off-line: samples are manually taken-off the process line and tested in a bench-top NIR  
313 system located in the quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) laboratory located away from the process  
314 line.

315 (2) At-line: samples are removed from the process line and analysed in an NIR system placed  
316 near the process line.

317 (3) On-line: a sample by-pass is created at a sampling point to divert the process materials from  
318 the mainstream for NIR analysis.

319 (4) In-line: the NIR analysis is directly integrated into the processing line by the use of different  
320 sampling strategies (in-line sampling will be discussed later).

321 Off-line and at-line measurements require manual sampling and consequently there is a time  
322 delay between sampling and measurement that does not facilitate real time monitoring. On-line and in-  
323 line analysis does not require manual sampling, which is a major advantage for measuring samples that  
324 are processed under high temperature and pressure conditions. In addition, the on-line and in-line  
325 measurement results can be obtained in seconds, which provides a real-time and continuous process  
326 measurement by 'bringing the instrument to the sample' (Cattaneo & Holroyd, 2013).

327

#### 328 4.2. *In-line sampling*

329

330 The configuration of in-line NIR sampling contains three parts: (i) the NIR analyser; (ii) hygienic-  
331 design optical interface (i.e., probes, flow cells, or non-contact sensor heads) to be used in the process  
332 line; (iii) fibre optic cables for the connection between the NIR analyser and the sensing elements to  
333 achieve remote control and analysis (Hitzmann et al., 2015). During dairy processing, raw materials,  
334 intermediates and final products are either stored in tanks / vats or transported by pipes / conveyor belts  
335 around the plant. Thus, in-line spectroscopic sensors can be mounted in the production line with either an  
336 immersion probe, by a flow cell or through an optically transparent window in the NIR range. Fig. 7  
337 summarises a variety of in-line sampling methods in specific applications.

338

#### 339 4.3. *Practical considerations for process installation*

340

341 Currently, most of the NIR applications in the dairy industry are off-line or are at-line  
342 measurements. Moving NIR technology from a well-controlled measuring environment (samples are  
343 measured at static state and at a controlled temperature) to a more practical environment (samples are  
344 measured in flow conditions) can present many challenges, i.e., the effect of process conditions (e.g.,

345 temperature and flow) on the prediction performance and transferability of the calibration models. For  
346 example, the temperature of the samples and operating environment may vary during the production,  
347 which can influence the repeatability of the spectral signals collected, resulting in a reduction in the  
348 prediction accuracy of the calibration model. Therefore, it is essential to identify variables that might affect  
349 the spectra and these variables (i.e., temperature) must be considered when developing a calibration  
350 model.

351 For on-line and in-line implementation, NIR spectrometers should be able to bear harsh operating  
352 environments such as high temperature, high humidity, process vibrations (Nikos, Serafim, & George,  
353 2004). To avoid the effect of humidity, the NIR spectrometer can be placed in a protective cabinet. The  
354 installation of the NIR probes or sensors should not affect the processing line (e.g., not introduce external  
355 contaminants, not disturb the process flow). The probes and sensors should meet an appropriate hygienic  
356 standard (i.e., 3-A Sanitary Standards (3-A SSI), European Hygienic Engineering & Design Group  
357 (EHEDG) standards (EHEDG)) to ensure a high standard of food safety is upheld. For some specific  
358 process / product applications where a frequent internal cleaning and sterilisation is required, the sensors  
359 applied should always be fully capable for cleaning-in-place (CIP) and sterilisation-in-place (SIP).

360 The result generated from NIR analysis can be integrated into an industrial control system (i.e.,  
361 the Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) system) for monitoring and to achieve continuous  
362 process control and optimisation. However, the cost for integration and communication between the NIR  
363 system and the control system should also be considered for real-time industrial applications.

364

## 365 5. Recent applications in dairy processing

366

367 NIR spectroscopy can be applied across the whole dairy processing chain, i.e., (i) to check the  
368 quality of raw milk on a farm and at milk intake points, (ii) at-line, on-line and in-line monitoring of products  
369 along production lines, (iii) routine off-line quality measurement conducted in QA/QC laboratories, (iv)  
370 determination of final products to meet quality specifications. This section of the review focuses on the  
371 application of NIR technologies for on-line and in-line measurement in the dairy industry. Most of the  
372 industrial-level applications are rarely reported in literature, possibly as the data are confidential and

373 commercially sensitive (Munir et al., 2017). Therefore, this review summarises the information available  
374 from literature and companies' application notes, to provide an overview of the on-line and in-line NIR  
375 applications during processing at industrial-level, close to industrial-level (i.e., pilot scales), or laboratory-  
376 scale research which indicates the potential for future on-line and in-line industrial applications.

377

#### 378 5.1. *Compositional analysis of milk*

379

380 Raw milk is the starting material of all dairy products. The changes in quality and composition of  
381 incoming milk can be due to seasonality, the animal feeding system used and stage of lactation, which  
382 can have a significant impact on the subsequent processes and products. As a result, continuous  
383 monitoring of incoming milk quality is required. Protein and fat are two nutritional components in liquid  
384 milk with high economic value. Bogomolov, Dietrich, Boldrini, and Kessler (2012) investigated the use of  
385 visible-NIR spectroscopy (TIDAS E, J&M Analytik AG, Essingen, Germany, 400–1000 nm) to  
386 quantitatively analyse fat and total protein in bovine milk. Milk samples were prepared using cream (fat  
387 source), skim milk (protein source) and a 10%-solution of lactose and water. The samples had a protein  
388 content ranging from 2.6 to 3.2% and fat content ranging from 3.0% to 4.0%. PLS regression was  
389 conducted on the raw spectra, an excellent prediction performance ( $R^2 > 0.94$  and root mean square  
390 errors  $< 0.05\%$ ) for the fat and protein content prediction was derived from the model, demonstrating the  
391 potential of NIR spectroscopy to be suitable for raw milk analysis either in the laboratory or in-line  
392 measurement.

393 An in-line NIR instrument (PSS-1720, Polytec GmbH, Waldbronn, Germany) using diffuse  
394 reflectance was applied to a milking parlour on a farm in Germany (Melfsen, Hartung, & Haeussermann,  
395 2012). The NIR spectra ( $n = 785$ ) covering the spectral range of 851–1649 nm were recorded to predict  
396 fat (%), protein (%), lactose (%), urea content ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) and somatic cell count. Promising results were  
397 obtained for the prediction of fat, protein and lactose content, with  $R^2 = 0.99, 0.98, 0.92$  and a standard  
398 error = 0.09, 0.05, 0.06, respectively, while satisfying results were obtained for the prediction of urea ( $R^2 =$   
399 0.82) and somatic cell count (SCC) ( $R^2 = 0.85$ ). Melfsen, Hartung, and Haeussermann (2013)  
400 investigated the robustness of in-line NIR calibration models for the prediction of raw milk composition (fat,



401 protein and lactose) in three different farms during the milking process and over a six-month period (n =  
402 3119). The authors reported that the prediction accuracy of the NIR calibration models on each farm  
403 could be improved once a validation set was completed using spectra from an external farm. Further  
404 improvements were observed after the inclusion of data sets from additional farms in the calibration set.  
405 The improved model performance was attributed to the diverse model developed from the farms that  
406 included more sample variations.

407

## 408 5.2. Dairy powders

409

410 Milk powders [i.e., whole milk powder (WMP), skim milk powder (SMP) and whey protein  
411 concentrate (WPC)] are widely produced final products in the dairy industry, as the milk powders have a  
412 high-value and are easy to store and transport. Holroyd, Prescott, and McLean (2013) reported on a  
413 number of industrial trials conducted in the Fonterra Co-operative Group Ltd (a major dairy processor in  
414 New Zealand) in which different on-line and in-line NIR instruments have been implemented and tested in  
415 the milk powder plants since the 1990s. Four on-line NIR systems (5500 series) from the FOSS company  
416 (Laurel, MD, USA) were installed to measure powder samples from the surge hopper after the sifter. Two  
417 of the instruments were calibrated for moisture prediction only, giving an SEP of 0.07–0.09%. One  
418 instrument was also calibrated for fat and protein prediction; however, the result was not stable and  
419 difficult to maintain overtime. The authors also pointed out other challenges / issues experienced with the  
420 on-line NIR systems, including the sample presentation system and instrument tolerance to high  
421 operating temperatures. A fifth NIR system from the FOSS company was an in-line system consisting of a  
422 probe, a spectrometer and fibre-optic cables. The instrument was calibrated for moisture prediction of  
423 different milk powders, giving a standard error of validation from 0.09% to 0.14%. It has been highlighted  
424 that the calibration stability of the system was related to the powder type, flow and production rate. A  
425 fixed-filter NIR system from NDC Infrared Engineering (Maldon, Essex, UK) was installed in the plant for a  
426 number of years to measure moisture of skim milk powder and butter milk powder, the prediction  
427 accuracy (SEP) was 0.13% for skim milk powder and 0.17% for butter milk powder. A recent study carried  
428 out in Fonterra was the use of a Matrix-F in-line FT-NIR system from Bruker Optics for a two-month trial of

429 WMP. The system consisted of a spectrometer that was located in a temperature-controlled cabinet far  
430 from the process line, two reflectance probes and 10 m fibre optic cables to connect the probes to the  
431 spectrometer. Results demonstrated that the system was stable throughout the trials and could be used  
432 to measure the moisture (SEP = 0.03%), fat (SEP = 0.11%) and protein content (SEP = 0.07%) of milk  
433 powder accurately. For optimal or best results, powder flow over the probe area must be uniform and  
434 stable to ensure consistent powder sampling.

435         Among a variety of dairy powders, infant formula production requires the highest standard of  
436 quality. Cama-Moncuñill, et al. (2016) employed multipoint NIR spectroscopy (MultiEye, Innopharma  
437 Labs., Dublin, Ireland, 1515–2170 nm) at laboratory scale to evaluate the carbohydrate and protein  
438 content of powdered infant formula under static and motion conditions. It was expected that an improved  
439 prediction performance would be achieved at the static condition ( $R_p^2 = 0.89\text{--}0.92$ ) compared with in-  
440 motion conditions ( $R_p^2 = 0.73\text{--}0.90$ ), which are more realistic to industrial applications. A greater  
441 prediction accuracy was obtained for carbohydrate prediction rather than protein, results indicated the  
442 potential of this NIR instrument for future in-line or on-line measurement of infant milk formula.

443

### 444 5.3. *Cheese manufacturing*

445

446         During cheese manufacturing, the determination of the optimal cutting-time of a formed milk gel is  
447 very important for producing high-quality cheese products. Lyndgaard, Engelsen, and van den Berg (2012)  
448 applied in-line NIR spectroscopy (Antaris MX FT-NIR Process Analyzer, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA,  
449 USA, 1000–2500 nm) for real-time measurement of the milk coagulation process. NIR spectra were  
450 collected during the coagulation process using a reflectance probe. PCA was applied to the spectral data  
451 to extract meaningful process information. Using component scores as a function of time, two kinetic  
452 models were developed, with one describing the whole coagulation process and the other describing  
453 three milk coagulation processes (k-casein proteolysis, micelle aggregation, and network formation). The  
454 models were successfully evaluated and validated using an additional 12 cheese batches to determine  
455 the cheese cutting-time. Nicolau, Buffa, O'Callaghan, Guamis, and Castillo (2015) used an in-line NIR  
456 light backscattering fibre optic sensor (CoAguLab, at 880nm, Reflectronics Inc., Lexington, KY, USA) to

457 predict the clotting and cutting times during sheep cheese manufacture. However, the study was carried  
458 out at laboratory scale using 300 mL of sheep milk to simulate the coagulation process, further studies on  
459 validating the models at a larger scale were required. An improved in-line sensor (FluorLite™ Milk  
460 Coagulation, Reflectronics Inc) integrating NIR (880 nm) and fluorescence (350 nm) was applied by  
461 Panikuttira, O'Shea, O'Donnell, and Tobin (2017) to optimise the milk coagulation process during cheese-  
462 making. Validation of the sensor at industrial level is currently under investigation. Another application of  
463 NIR spectroscopy in terms of cheese manufacturing was quantification of casein fractions and their  
464 genetic variants in reconstituted casein samples (Marinoni, Monti, Barzaghi, & de la Roza-Delgado, 2013).  
465 Results illustrated that the NIR techniques could potentially be used to select milk products for cheese-  
466 making, as milk rennet properties and cheese yield are affected by milk casein fractions and its content.  
467 Additional PAT tools based on different operating principles used on cheese manufacturing can be  
468 referred to in the review by Panikuttira, O'Shea, Tobin, Tiwari, and O'Donnell (2018).

469

#### 470 5.4. *Yoghurt and other products*

471

472 In the production of yoghurt, the milk lactic acid fermentation process requires real-time  
473 monitoring for optimal control of the microbial counts, lactic acid and sugar concentration to ensure the  
474 consistency of the final yoghurt product. Grassi et al. (2013, 2014) used an FT-NIR spectrometer (MPA,  
475 Bruker Optics, Milan, Italy) with a fibre optic transreflectance probe to directly monitor inoculated skimmed  
476 milk during the fermentation process. Though the study was conducted at laboratory scale, the results  
477 indicated that the NIR technology coupled with chemometrics [i.e., PCA and multivariate curve resolution-  
478 alternating least squares (MCR-ALS)] could capture critical process information that matched the off-line  
479 rheology and conventional quality parameters, demonstrating a greater potential of NIR technology for  
480 further application in the production of yoghurt. Svendsen, Cieplak, and van den Berg (2016) carried out  
481 seven milk fermentation batches at pilot scale using a 15 L in-house glass single-wall fermenter vessel.  
482 Batches 1–4 were maintained at nominal fermentation temperature of 35 °C, batch 5 was kept at 32 °C  
483 and batches 6-7 were conducted at 37.5 °C. A fibre optic reflectance probe (ABB Bomen, Quebec,  
484 Canada) was inserted in the fermentation broth for in-line and real-time acquisition of the NIR spectra

485 (1000–1800 nm). The spectra were pre-processed by SNV to remove the scaling effect caused by  
486 sample differences, then modelled by PCA for each fermentation batch. In addition, an in-line pH meter  
487 was also placed in the fermentation broth for pH measurement, as it is currently used in the dairy industry  
488 for yoghurt fermentation monitoring. By comparing the pH profiles and the scores plot derived from the  
489 PCA modelling of the NIR data, it can be observed that NIR spectroscopy is preferable for process  
490 monitoring as it provides more information related to the physical (i.e., textural differences of gel formed)  
491 and chemical changes (i.e., conversion of sugar to lactic acids) during fermentation, rather than using the  
492 an in-line pH meter that only gives uni-variate pH information of the process.

493 As reported in literature and from NIR companies' application notes, other applications of NIR  
494 spectroscopy in dairy processing include prediction of total solids, protein and the protein-total solids ratio  
495 after the final ultra-filtration process in whey protein concentrate (WPC) and milk protein concentrate  
496 (MPC) production (FOSS). In addition, an in-line NIR system (DA 7300, Perten Instruments, Stockholm,  
497 Sweden) was installed at the outlet of a butter churn for continuously measuring of moisture, butter-fat  
498 and colour during butter production. The real-time results could be used for quick adjustments of moisture  
499 content during butter production as well as for a complete documentation of the product quality  
500 (<https://www.perten.com/Publications/Articles/DA-7300-In-line-NIR-for-butter-production>).

501

## 502 **6. Current challenges and future work**

503

504 Currently, most of the NIR research reported for the dairy sector has been carried out in the  
505 laboratory (off-line) or at-line. For a successful implementation of in-line NIR spectroscopy at an industrial  
506 level, the following challenges have to be addressed.

507 (1) The NIR instruments need to be stable over a 10-year life time. They should also be able to  
508 cope with vibrations and variations in processing conditions (i.e., the temperature / humidity fluctuation of  
509 the process environment). Alternatively, the spectrometer can be placed in a protective cabinet with  
510 temperature control to reduce the effect of the process environment on the NIR signal.

511 (2) For those batch to batch type processes as mentioned in section 5.3 and 5.4 (i.e., milk  
512 coagulation in cheese manufacturing, milk fermentation in yoghurt production), the cost of the individual

513 NIR sensor should be taken into consideration, as a dairy processor may have many batches to be  
514 monitored at the same time. Alternatively, a multiplexed spectrometer which allows several process  
515 probes / sensors to be connected to the same spectrometer could be used for monitoring different  
516 batches.

517 (3) For calibration development, the in-line sampling points must be as close to the sensor as  
518 possible. Thus, the spectra captured by the NIR are matched to the reference samples taken from the  
519 process stream.

520 (4) Calibration models developed at laboratory-scale should be validated for further  
521 implementation at industrial scales to provide more reliable and accurate measurement results.  
522 Transferring calibration models between different on-line or in-line NIR instruments is also a challenge, as  
523 variations in instrument components (optics or new replacements) and detecting environment  
524 (temperature and humidity) may result in spectral differences between the same samples. Different  
525 standardisation techniques can be applied to adjust the calibration model by slope and bias correction, or  
526 to correct the spectra by spectral processing (i.e., SNV or MSC pretreatment) or standardisation (i.e.,  
527 direct standardisation and piecewise direct standardization) (Fearn, 2001; Pu et al., 2017).

528 (5) Seasonal variations, geographical differences and changes in an animals' diet can have an  
529 effect on the chemical composition of raw milk, resulting in changes to the spectra of raw milk (Melenteva  
530 et al., 2016). As a result, the developed calibration models need to be routinely validated and updated to  
531 ensure accurate and robust prediction performance.

532 (6) Due to the complexity of NIR spectra, interpretation of the data requires the use of multivariate  
533 data analysis. Efforts need to be made for integration of the NIR result to the process control system for  
534 successful PAT implementation to achieve process monitoring and control.

535

## 536 7. Conclusions

537

538 The higher demand for global consumption of dairy products requires dairy processors to  
539 increase process efficiency, product quality and yield. NIR spectroscopy has been seen as a fast, non-  
540 destructive and chemical-free process analytical technology for real-time measurement of a variety of

541 dairy products, from liquid, semi-solid to solid samples. Successful implementation of NIR technology in  
542 the production lines can bring many benefits to the dairy industry by improving the knowledge and  
543 understanding of the process through real-time process monitoring. Additional personnel upskilling is  
544 required for development, evaluation and maintenance of robust calibration models at industrial level to  
545 ensure the performance of a NIR analytical solution. Also, future work on the connection and  
546 communication between the NIR measuring system and the control system are required to close the loop  
547 of 'process, monitoring and control', and thus to achieve the goal of quality-by-design by real-time and  
548 continuous process automation.

549

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551

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554

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## Figure legends

**Fig. 1.** The electromagnetic spectrum.

**Fig. 2.** The interactions between light and matter. (This figure is extracted from the Application Note – TIDAS P Milk Inspector, J&M Analytik AG, Essingen, Germany; <http://www.j-m.de/2/main-navigation/applications/industry/milk/milk-inspector.htm>).

**Fig. 3.** Three spectrum acquisition modes of NIR spectroscopy.

**Fig. 4.** Three main NIR instruments according to the wavelength selection methods: (a) filter-based instrument, (b) dispersive instrument, (c) FT-NIR instrument.

**Fig. 5.** Typical NIR spectra of three different dairy powders.

**Fig. 6.** Development of a calibration model.

**Fig. 7.** In-line sampling examples: (a) diffuse reflectance sampling for in-pipe homogeneous process streams, (b) spoon probe sampling for powders, (c) transmission probe sampling for in-tank clear liquids, (d) transmission cell sampling for in-pipe liquids [Images in this figure are extracted from Q-interline brochure- InSight Pro (<http://www.q-interline.com/>)].

**Table 1**

Comparison between NIR and MIR spectroscopy.

Parameter	NIR	MIR
Spectral region	800–2500 nm (shorter wavelength)	4000–400 $\text{cm}^{-1}$ (longer wavelength)
Light energy	Higher	Lower
Vibrational frequencies	Overtones and combination	Fundamental
Spectral peaks	Broad and overlapped, weak intensity	Sharp, strong intensity
Peak assignment	Not straightforward	Can be assigned to specific functional groups, providing 'fingerprint' information of the sample
Cost	Lower	Higher

**Table 2**

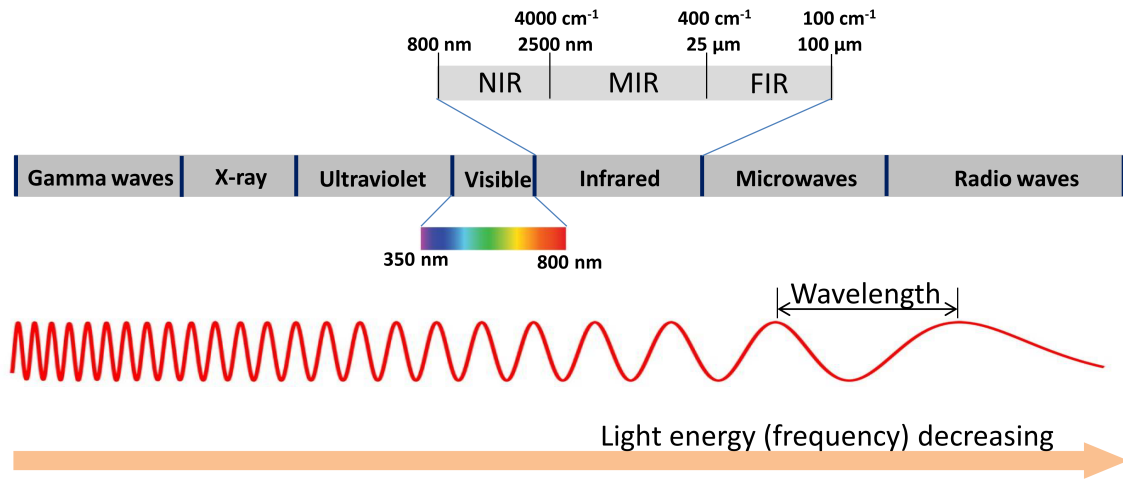
Analysis of NIR spectral data.

Analysis	Objectives	Most frequently used methods
Spectral pre-processing	To remove undesired information (i.e., noise), to improve the signal to noise ratio	Savitsky-Golay smoothing, Multivariate scatter correction (MSC), Standard normal variate (SNV)
Spectral exploration	To investigate the potential relations (i.e., grouping trends) between samples, to reduce data variates	Principal component analysis (PCA)
Regression (quantitative analysis)	To correlate the spectral data with the quantities of particular constituents (i.e., protein, fat, moisture) in the sample	Multiple linear regression (MLR), Partial least squares (PLS), Principal component regression (PCR), Artificial neural network (ANN) for regression
Classification (qualitative analysis)	To classify samples into different groups based on spectral differences, to identify out-of-specification samples (i.e., adulterated milk powders)	Partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA), K-Means clustering, Soft independent modelling by class analogy (SIMCA); Support vector machine (SVM)

**Table 3**Guidelines for model prediction performance indices. <sup>a</sup>

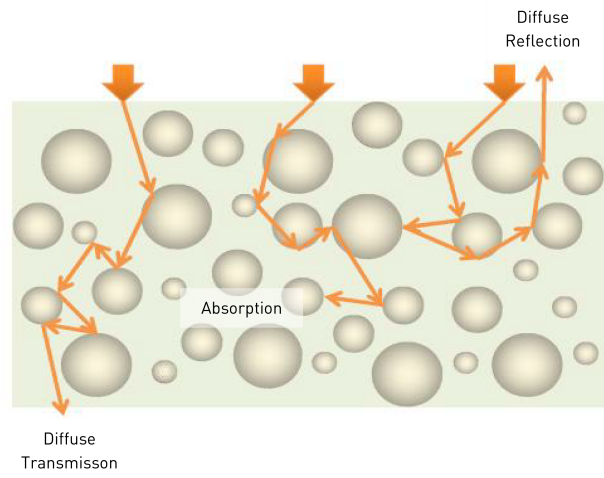
R <sup>2</sup>	RPD	Interpretation of R <sup>2</sup>
< 0.66	0.75	Not recommended: further research needed
0.66–0.81	< 1.7	Screening and some other 'approximate' applications
0.83–0.90	2.3	Usable with caution for many applications
0.92–0.96	3.6	Usable for most applications including quality control
> 0.98	> 5.0	Usable in any application

<sup>a</sup> This table was originally from Phil William who presented in the pre-conference course of ICNIRS 2017 in Copenhagen, Denmark. The authors have received permission from Phil William for the use of the table.

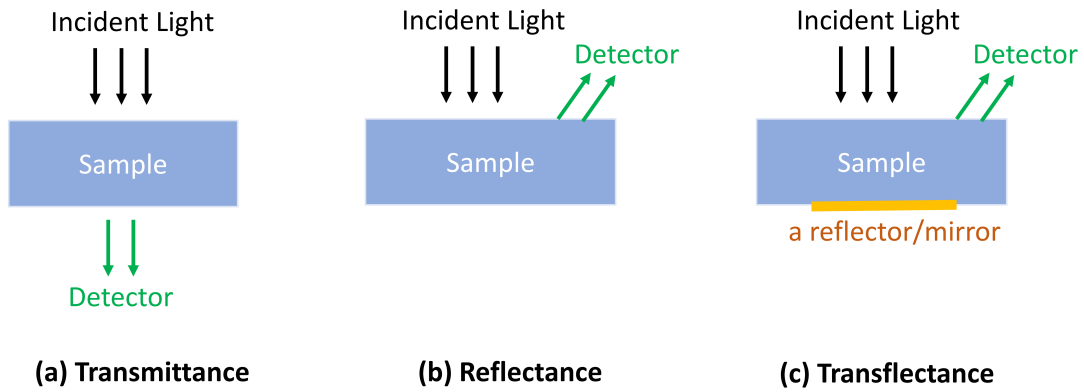


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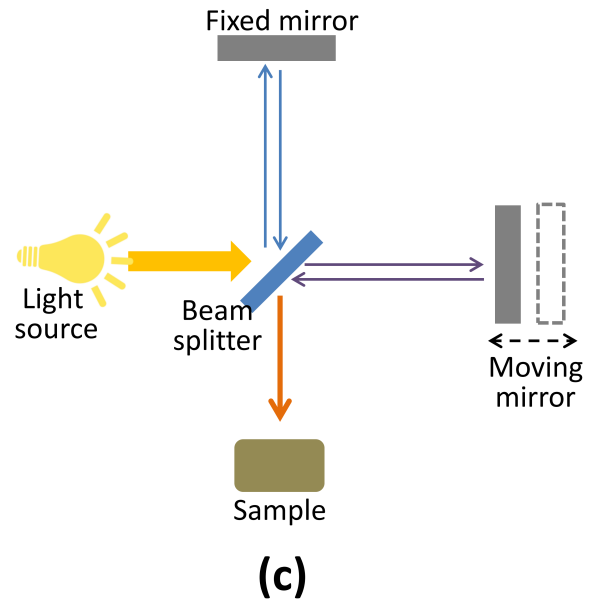
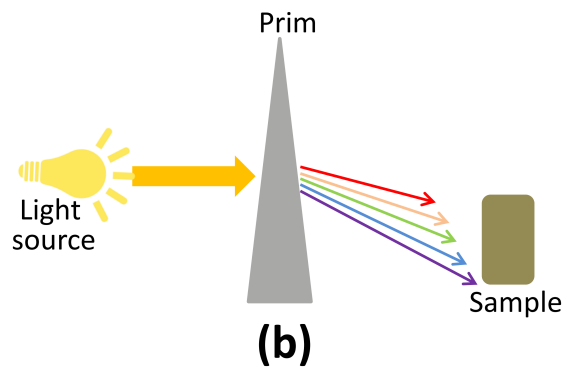
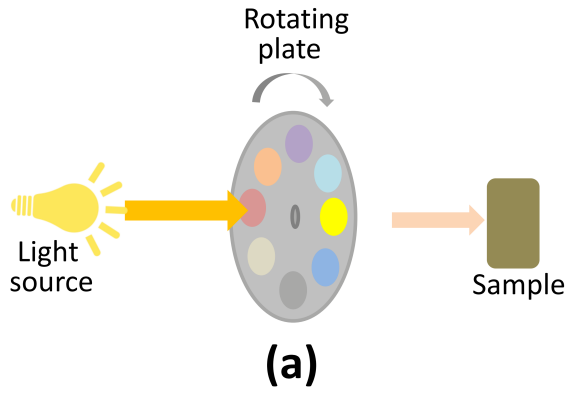


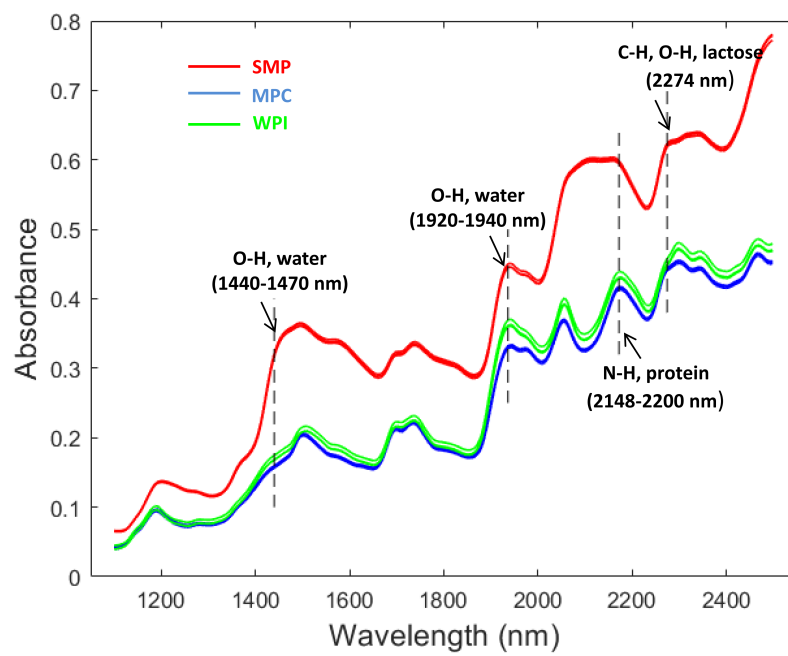


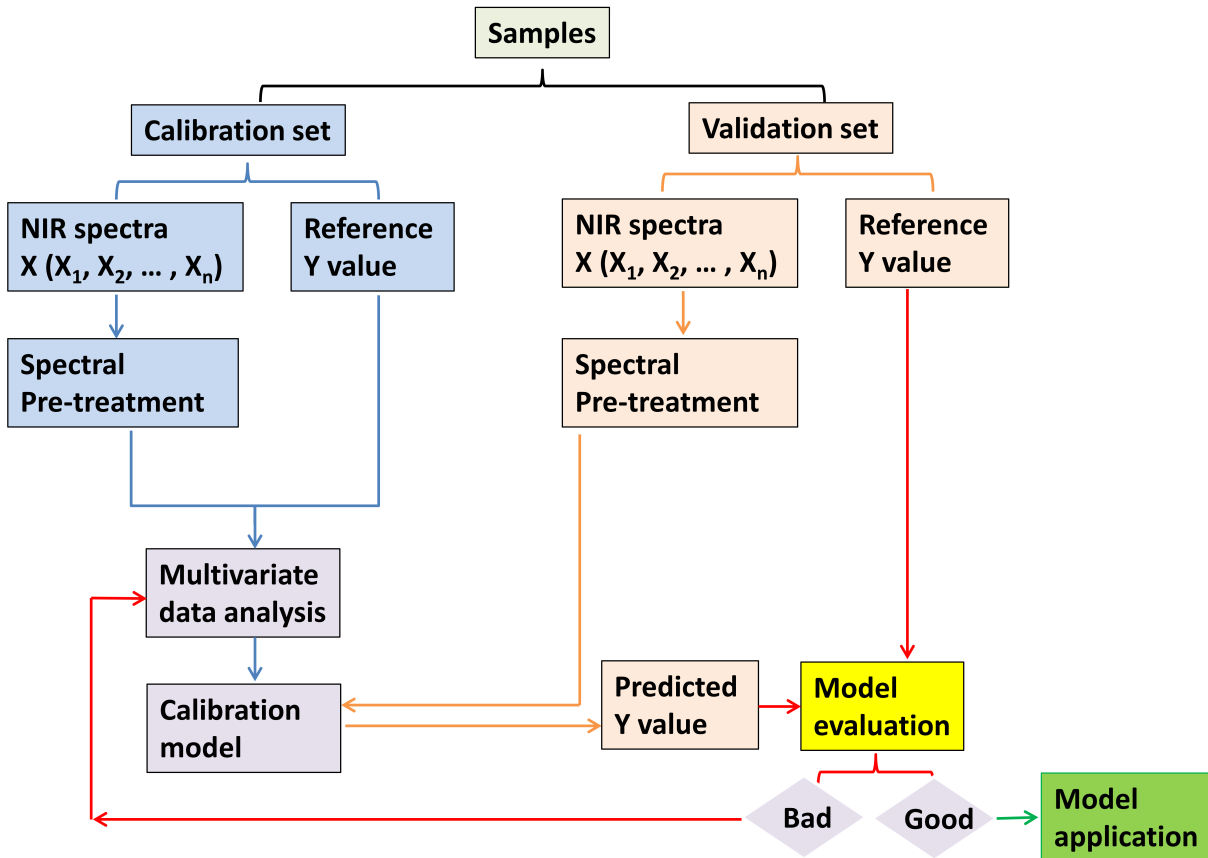
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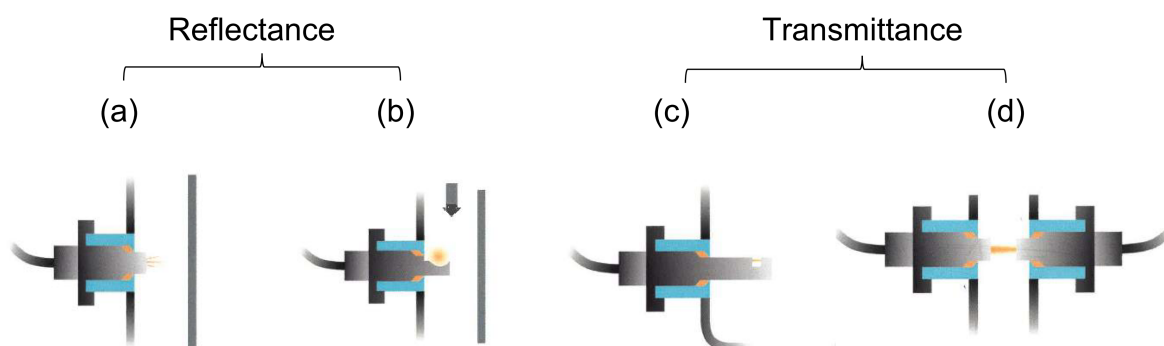


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