

Rapid discrimination and classification of edible insect powders using ATR-FTIR spectroscopy combined with multivariate analysis

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Running header: Insect powder's authentication by infrared spectroscopy and chemometrics

Abstract

Insects are being proposed as an alternative way to ensure world's food and feed security. Methods to determine edible insect powder's origin and specie will be needed for quality control purposes. Infrared spectroscopy has been extensively used in rapid chemical fingerprinting of food products. The present research explores a new approach to discriminate and classify commercial edible insect powders using attenuated total reflectance mid-infrared spectroscopy combined with multivariate analysis. Infrared spectra of seven commercial edible insect powders from different species (*Tenebrio molitor*, *Alphitobius diaperinus*, *Gryllodes sigillatus*, *Acheta domesticus* and *Locusta migratoria*) and origins (Netherlands and New Zealand) were collected to build up soft independent modelling of class analogy (SIMCA) models. SIMCA models clearly discriminated insects by their specie and origin linking their differences to lipids and chitin. SIMCA models performance was tested using five spectra of each class not used to build up the training set. ~~100% correct predictions were obtained for most of the samples analysed~~ - predictions were obtained for all the samples analysed with the exception of one sample of *Alphitobius diaperinus*. Infrared spectroscopy coupled to multivariate analysis provided a powerful method for the assurance of insect powder's authenticity.

Keywords: rapid method, food authentication, chemometrics, edible insects

Introduction

World population growth combined with an increasing demand for animal-derived products in both developed and developing countries requires finding other and more sustainable protein sources. Insects are being considered as an alternative way to ensure food and feed security (Belluco *et al.*, 2017; Belluco *et al.*, 2013; van Huis *et al.*, 2013; van Huis and Oonincx, 2017). Entomophagy, namely the habit of eating insects, arachnids and arthropods, has been practiced by humans for centuries in several countries of Africa, Asia, Australia and Latin America, with more than 2,000 insects considered edible (Belluco *et al.*, 2017, Belluco *et al.*, 2013; Premalatha *et al.*, 2011; Rumpold and Schlüter, 2013; Sun-Waterhouse *et al.*, 2016; van Huis *et al.*, 2013; van Huis and Oonincx, 2017). Edible insects are good sources of proteins, polyunsaturated fatty acids, vitamins and minerals such as iron, calcium and zinc. Despite the fact that insects can also produce greenhouse emissions and ammonia, most commercially reared edible insect species have lower environmental impact than conventional livestock (Belluco *et al.*, 2017; Sánchez-Muros *et al.*, 2014; Sun-Waterhouse *et al.*, 2016; van Huis *et al.*, 2013; van Huis and Oonincx, 2017). In terms of productivity, insects have a higher growth rate and fecundity as

51 well as higher feed conversion efficiencies since they are poikilothermic (i.e. they do not invest
1 52 energy to maintain a constant body temperature). Additionally, insects can be reared on organic
2 53 side streams and therefore they are able to transform waste into high value food and feed
3 54 resources (Makkar *et al.*, 2014; Premalatha *et al.*, 2011; Rumpold and Schlüter, 2013; Sánchez-
4 55 Muros *et al.*, 2014; van Huis *et al.*, 2013; van Huis and Oonincx, 2017).
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7 57 Even though the use of insects seems encouraging, its incorporation to the market could be
8 58 slowed down by the long approval process stated by the current legislation and the poor
9 59 acceptance of entomophagy in Western countries (Belluco *et al.*, 2017). Concerning the low
10 60 acceptance of entomophagy, innovative ways to incorporate insects into the human diet have
11 61 been proposed. Edible insects can be processed into more palatable forms by drying and
12 62 grinding them, thus obtaining a powder that can be used as an ingredient to increase the protein
13 63 content of several food products (van Huis *et al.*, 2013).
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16 65 Accordingly, methods are required in order to discriminate and classify edible insect powder's
17 66 origin and specie to prevent fraud and adulterations. Ulrich *et al.* (2017) have already
18 67 discriminated several whole insects (*Tenebrio molitor*, *Alphitobius diaperinus*, *Acheta*
19 68 *domesticus* and *Locusta migratoria*) commercially available for human consumption through
20 69 protein profiling using mass spectrometry (MS). Moreover, Köppel *et al.* (2019) developed a
21 70 multiplex real-time PCR method for the detection of insect DNA and determination of contents
22 71 of *Tenebrio molitor*, *Locusta migratoria* and *Acheta domesticus* in several food matrixes. Even
23 72 though aforementioned techniques have been gaining attention from both scientific and
24 73 industrial communities because of their accuracy and reliability, both of them present several
25 74 drawbacks. In one hand, DNA-based molecular methods need to be cost-effective, as well as
26 75 they require highly trained operators and set-up optimization, which is not easily achieved (Ali
27 76 *et al.*, 2014; Levin *et al.*, 2018). On the other hand, MS implies a high initial cost due to the
28 77 purchase of the equipment and a fractionation of the sample must be done before collecting the
29 78 spectra in some applications (Sébédio and Malpuech-Brugère, 2016; Singhal *et al.*, 2015).
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31 80 Infrared spectroscopy combined with multivariate analysis has also been applied for
32 81 authentication of fruit juices, edible oils and dairy products, among others (Rodríguez-Saona
33 82 and Allendorf, 2012). This technique is fast, cheap, non-destructive, robust, simple to use and a
34 83 minimum training for the operator is needed. However, infrared spectroscopy is highly affected
35 84 by changes in sample's preparation (Wenning *et al.*, 2014), which is easily overcome when the
36 85 procedure is properly standardized. As far as we know, no previous research has investigated
37 86 the potential of using attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform mid-infrared spectroscopy
38 87 combined with supervised pattern recognition techniques to discriminate and classify
39 88 commercial edible insect powders by species and origins. The objective of the present work
40 89 was to obtain mid-infrared spectroscopy profiles from commercial edible insect powders and
41 90 to develop multivariate classification models to rapidly discriminate and classify edible insect
42 91 powder's specie and origin.
43 92

51 93 **Materials and methods**

52 94 *Edible insect samples*

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55 97 *Tenebrio molitor* (mealworm), *Alphitobius diaperinus* (Buffalo worm), *Grylloides sigillatus*
56 98 (banded cricket), *Acheta domesticus* (house cricket) and *Locusta migratoria* (grasshopper)
57 99 powders were purchased from Kreca Ento-Food BV (Ermelo, Netherlands), DeliBugs
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100 (Lelystad, Netherlands) and Eat Crawlers (Auckland, New Zealand) (more details are shown in
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Attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform mid-infrared spectroscopy

Insect powders were mixed thoroughly and 4 mg were taken randomly (per each spectrum collected) and placed onto the sample stage of a portable spectrometer Cary 630 (Agilent Technologies Spain SL, Madrid, Spain), equipped with a single bounce ATR diamond crystal accessory and a deuterated triglycine sulfate (DTGS) detector. A pressure clamp was used to ensure optimal contact between samples and the diamond crystal. A background scan was taken before every sample scan to prevent the environment from interfering the measurements. Spectra were obtained from 4000 to 800 cm^{-1} with 8 cm^{-1} of resolution. Data acquisition was controlled using MicroLab PC software (Agilent Technologies SL, Madrid, Spain). Two different batches of each edible insect powder were analysed during three different days obtaining five spectra per day and batch (30 spectra in total per edible insect powder).

Multivariate analysis

Multivariate analysis and data preprocessing were performed using a chemometric software (Pirouette version 4.0. Infometrix Inc., Washington, US). Second derivative transformation (13-point window second order polynomial-fit Savitzky-Golay function) and multiplicative scatter correction (MSC) were performed on mean-centred data. A PCA-based pattern recognition method, Soft Independent Modelling of Class Analogy (SIMCA), was performed to obtain classification models in order to discriminate the chemical differences between insect powders and for predicting unknown samples (Wold and Sjöström, 1977). Sample residuals and Mahalanobis distances were used for outlier diagnostics (Shah and Gemperline, 1990). Three SIMCA models were built up in order to assess differences between edible insect powders, a 7-class SIMCA model with all samples tested (whole model), a 3-class SIMCA model with Mealworm, Buffalo worm A and Buffalo worm B (worm model) and a 3-class SIMCA model with Banded cricket, House cricket A and House cricket B (cricket model). SIMCA models were interpreted according to class projections, interclass distances and discriminating power. Predicting ability of SIMCA models was tested using five spectra of each class not used to build up the training set (25 spectra per class) (Vandeginste *et al.*, 1998).

Results and discussion

Mid-IR raw spectra

Mid-infrared spectroscopy can provide information on the composition of complex chemical mixtures by studying the IR bands arising from their functional groups, whose assignment is known in most of the cases (Rodriguez-Saona and Allendorf, 2012). Raw IR spectra of several edible insect powders are shown in Figure 1. Different spectral regions linked to several components could be identified from the insect powder's spectra. In all samples, one broad band was observed at 3000-3500 cm^{-1} caused by the H-bonded O-H stretching of chitin, other polysaccharides and residual water. The spectral region at 2800-3000 cm^{-1} represented the C-H stretching of methyl groups of lipids and chitin (Ibitoye *et al.*, 2018; Marchessault *et al.*, 2003; Paulino *et al.*, 2006). The IR band located at 1740 cm^{-1} was assigned to C=O stretching of esters of lipids. IR bands from amide I, II and III regions linked to proteins or chitin were observed as well at 1700-1600, 1600-1500 and 1300-1200 cm^{-1} , respectively. Infrared spectra also showed an IR band around 1200-1000 cm^{-1} mainly attributed to carbohydrates (Socrates, 2001; Stuart, 2012; Talari *et al.*, 2017).

151 *Discrimination and classification of commercial edible insect powders by ATR-FT-MIR*
152 *combined with SIMCA*

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154 Class projections plots, namely PCAs of the entire training set, were generated through SIMCA
155 to visualize class separation among samples and spectra reproducibility (Figure 2). The ellipses
156 represent the regions in which samples belonging to a certain class fall into with a 95% of
157 confidence (Kvalheim and Karstang, 1992). Each data point in the plot represents one insect
158 powder's spectrum. Tight clustering and good separation was obtained among powders of
159 different insect species for all three SIMCA models. Spectra collected from insect powders
160 made from same insect species but produced by different manufacturers (i.e. House cricket A
161 and House cricket B, see Table 1) displayed clearly distinguishable clusters as well (Figure 2
162 b). On the other hand, Buffalo worm powders (i.e. Buffalo A and Buffalo B), which were
163 elaborated by the same manufacturer, showed overlapping clusters and poor differentiation
164 (Figure 2 c).

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166 Another way to evaluate class separation (i.e. distance between two classes) is the interclass
167 distance (ICD) value. In SIMCA, PCA models are built up for all the classes in the training set.
168 In **Table 2** number of factors and outliers per each class for the whole model are shown. After
169 building the PCA class models, the residuals are computed by fitting the objects of every class
170 of the training set to the PCA model of each class. The overall standard deviations of the
171 residuals (i.e. Euclidean distances) are used for calculating the ICD, which is a ratio of interclass
172 to intraclass distance. ICD values close to 0 indicate that the two classes compared are almost
173 identical and values larger than 1 show differentiation (Wold and Sjöström, 1977). As a rule of
174 thumb, ICDs above 3.0 are considered significant to discriminate two clusters of samples as
175 distinct classes (Dunn and Wold, 1995). ICDs among insect powders for the whole model are
176 displayed in Table 3, and are comparable to the clustering patterns obtained in class projections
177 plots (Figure 2 a). ICD values above 3.0 were achieved when comparing powders made of
178 different insect species, but lower values ($ICD < 3.0$) were obtained when comparing products
179 elaborated with the same insect species (Buffalo worm A-Buffalo worm B and House cricket
180 A-House cricket B clusters). In spite of that, the ICD for house cricket clusters was higher than
181 the one obtained for Buffalo worm clusters. The nutritional and bioactive profiles of edible
182 insects are affected by factors such as habitat, feed, sex, stage and preparation/processing
183 methods applied prior to consumption, among others (Rumpold and Schlüter, 2013; Sun-
184 Waterhouse et al., 2016). Since house cricket powders were produced by different
185 manufacturers (see Table 1), our data confirmed that product origin plays an important role in
186 insect powder differentiation. On the other hand, the ICD between House cricket B-Banded
187 cricket clusters was 2.5. Considering that both species belong to the same family (Gryllidae),
188 low ICD values could be expected (Krinsky, 2019). However, the same outcome was not
189 observed in House cricket A-Banded cricket powders ($ICD = 3.5$), which were produced by
190 different manufacturers, confirming again the assumption of differentiation by origin. From the
191 results presented in both class projections plots and ICD values, it is possible to conclude that
192 product origin (i.e. manufacturer) was a key factor for the differentiation in powders made from
193 same insect species, even though no significant differences were found on them (i.e. $ICD <$
194 3.0).

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196 Wavenumbers in the spectral range analysed were plotted against their capability to classify
197 and discriminate insect powders tested (Wold and Sjöström, 1977). Discrimination power plots
198 of all models are shown in Figure 3, displaying the IR bands responsible for the discrimination
199 among classes. For the whole model (Figure 3 a), the IR bands at 2945, 2919 and 2851-2825
200 cm^{-1} could be attributed to CH_3 and CH_2 asymmetric stretching and CH_2 symmetric stretching

201 of lipids and chitin, respectively (Ibitoye *et al.*, 2018; Marchessault *et al.*, 2003; Paulino *et al.*,
202 2006; Socrates, 2001; Stuart, 2012). The IR bands at 1744-1722 cm⁻¹ might be linked to C=O
203 stretching of lipids. Aforementioned IR bands were also present in the regions previously
204 commented in the insect powder's raw spectra (Figure 1). Nonetheless, SIMCA analysis
205 revealed which of them were mainly responsible of the discrimination of the samples analysed,
206 hardly detected from just observing their raw spectra. The data obtained suggests that the
207 chemical differences among the insect powders analysed related to their chitin and fat fractions
208 when all products were included in a single model (i.e. whole model).

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210 Similar IR bands were obtained for cricket (Figure 3 b) and worm models (Figure 3 c), as well
211 as new ones related to the insect protein and carbohydrate fractions, which were also present in
212 the raw spectra (Figure 1). The IR band at 3114 cm⁻¹ could be associated to O-H stretching of
213 carbohydrates (chitin) or N-H stretching of amide A of proteins or chitin. Furthermore, several
214 IR bands in the spectral region of 1700-1500 cm⁻¹ were detected, and could be attributed to
215 amide I and II regions of proteins or chitin (Ibitoye *et al.*, 2018; Marchessault *et al.*, 2003;
216 Paulino *et al.*, 2006; Socrates, 2001; Stuart, 2012; Talari *et al.*, 2017). Once again, the chemical
217 differences between cricket powders were mainly related to lipid and chitin components. Worm
218 powders gave the same output as well.

219 220 *Prediction of unknown samples*

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222 SIMCA models performance (whole, worm and cricket models) was tested using five spectra
223 of each class not used to build up the training set. Every data point (spectrum) falling inside the
224 95% confidence interval boundary of a certain class (i.e. class' PCA model) would be assigned
225 as a member of that class, otherwise would be rejected. Class prediction in SIMCA provides
226 three possibilities, whether the observation belongs to one, more than one (next best prediction)
227 or none of the predefined classes (He *et al.*, 2007). 100% of correct predictions into the
228 appropriate class were obtained for most of the insect powders. Nonetheless, it is important to
229 mention that for Buffalo worm clusters (A and B) some of the next best predictions were
230 assigned to the other Buffalo worm cluster (see Table 4). These results, which are in line with
231 both ICD values and class projections plots obtained through SIMCA, confirmed that there are
232 not significant differences between Buffalo worm A and Buffalo worm B. Lastly, even though
233 an ICD lower than 3.0 was obtained when comparing House cricket A and House cricket B
234 clusters, 100% of the spectra tested in the validation set were correctly assigned to each class
235 without obtaining next best predictions. These results confirmed that our SIMCA models could
236 discriminate and properly classify the commercial insect powders tested by specie and origin.

237 **Conclusions**

1 238
2 239 The current study has given the framework for a cheap, rapid and easy technique in edible insect
3 240 powder's discrimination (i.e. origin and specie) by using ATR-FTIR combined with SIMCA.
4 241 Our findings are the first step towards a reliable and easy-to-implement way of preventing fraud
5 242 and adulterations in the emerging insect sector. A further important implication is the possibility
6 243 of extrapolating this approach to any insect-derived product. For this reason, future work should
7 244 concentrate on the creation of models that include a wide range of products and, in collaboration
8 245 with insect farmers, taking into consideration factors such as feed, sex and stage when
9 246 discriminating them. Additionally, to further our research we plan to determine the feasibility
10 247 of this technique for detecting insect powders in several food matrixes.
11 248

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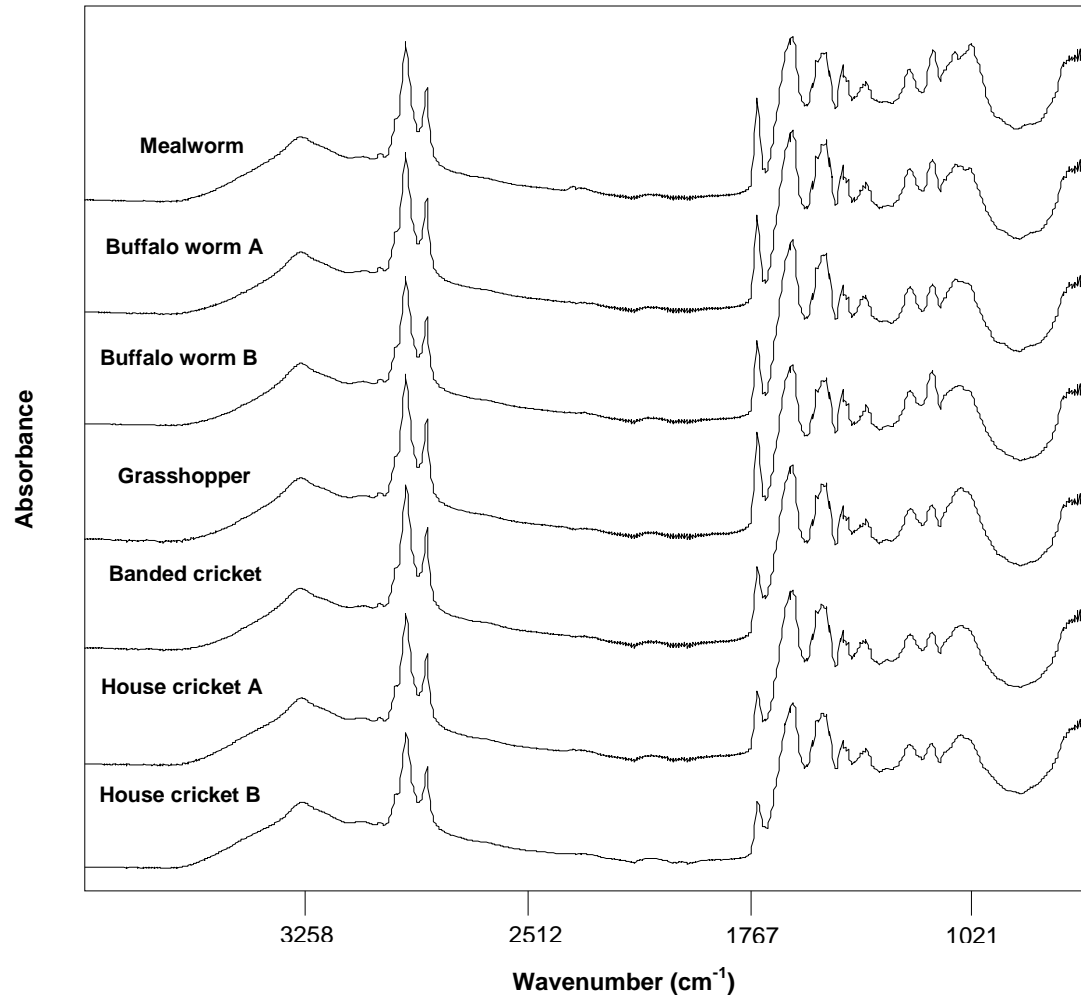
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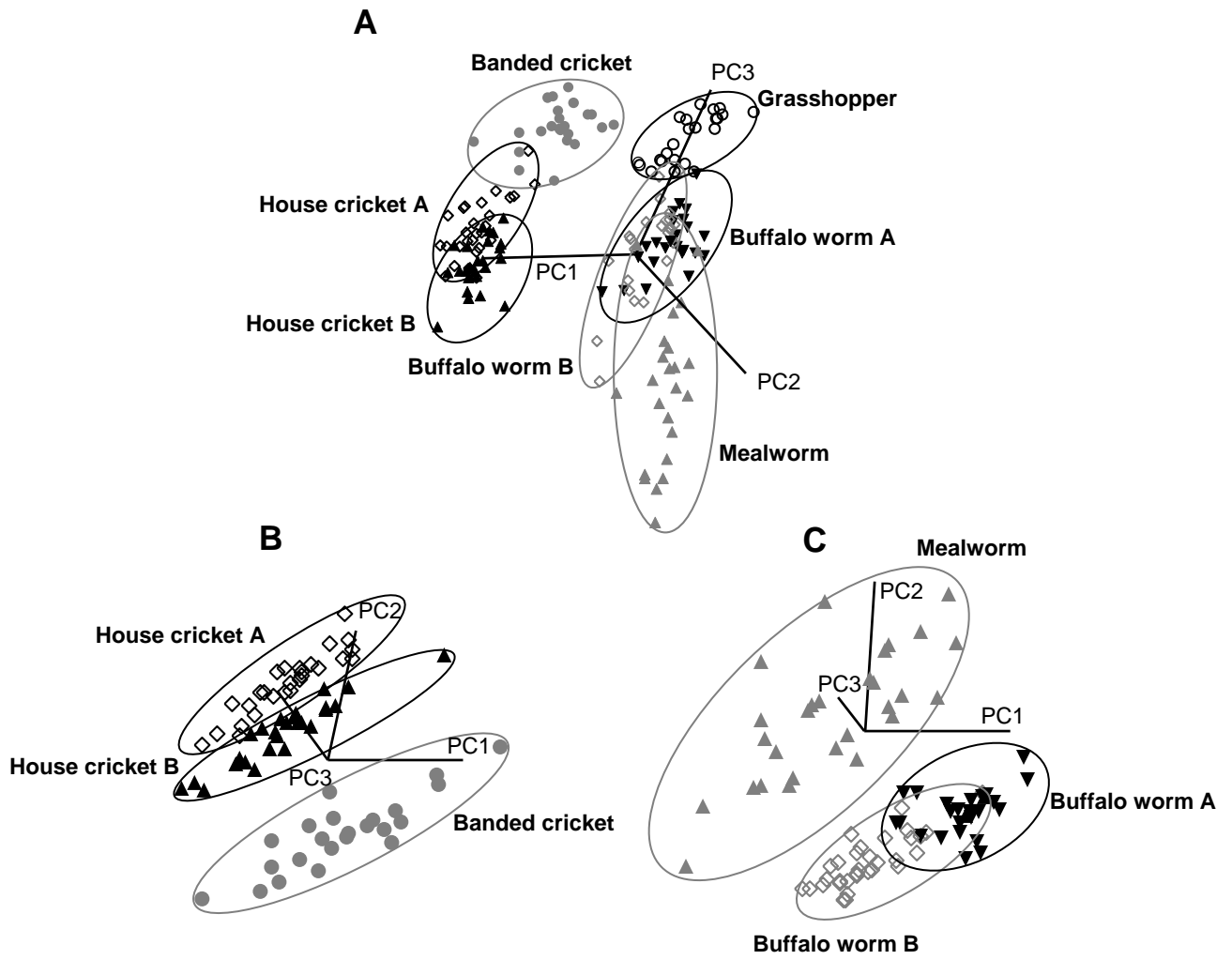
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Figure 1. Attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform mid-infrared spectroscopy raw spectra of seven edible insect powders.

Figure 2. Soft independent modelling of class analogy (SIMCA) class projections plots of transformed (second derivative, 25 points window) attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform mid-infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FT-MIR) spectra (4000-800 cm^{-1} region) of (A) 7-class SIMCA model with all samples tested (whole model), (B) 3-class SIMCA model with Mealworm, Buffalo worm A and Buffalo worm B (worm model) and (C) 3-class SIMCA model with Banded cricket, House cricket A and House cricket B (cricket model).

Figure 3. Soft independent modelling of class analogy (SIMCA) discriminating power plots of transformed (second derivative, 25 points window) attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform mid-infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FT-MIR) spectra (4000-800 cm^{-1} region) of (A) 7-class SIMCA model with all samples tested (whole model), (B) 3-class SIMCA model with Mealworm, Buffalo worm A and Buffalo worm B (worm model) and (C) 3-class SIMCA model with Banded cricket, House cricket A and House cricket B (cricket model).





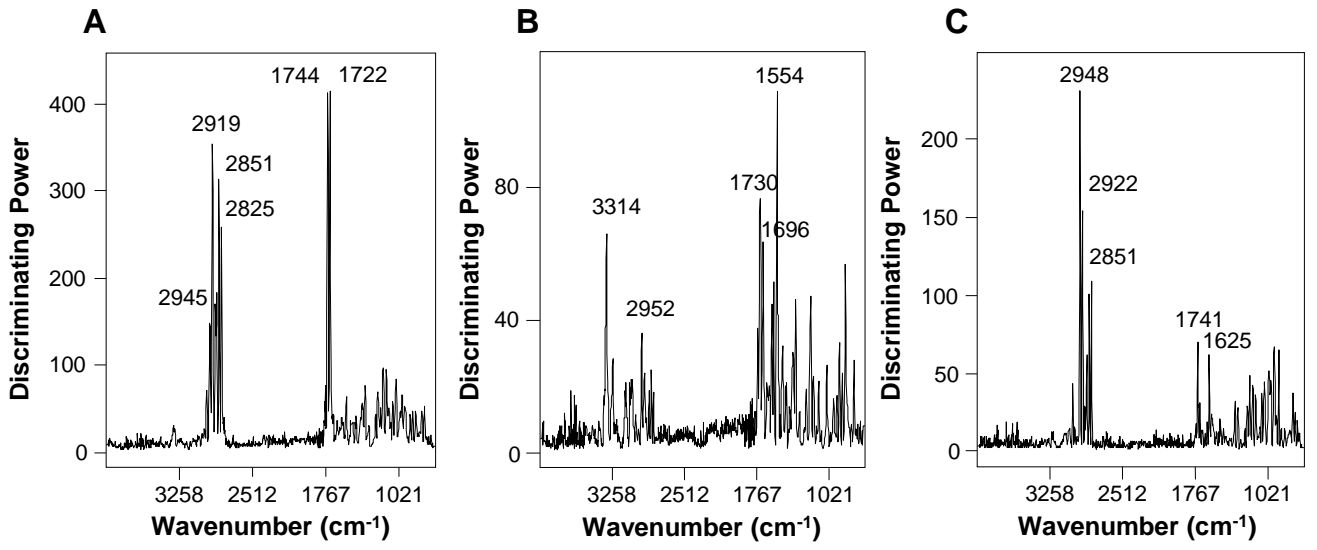


Table 1. Edible commercial insect powders tested in this research.

Insect powder	Supplier	Manufacturer	Amount per packaged ^c (g)	Sample tag
Mealworm	Kreca Ento-Food	1 ^a	100	Mealworm
	DeliBugs	1	50	Buffalo worm A
Buffalo	Kreca Ento-Food	1	100	Buffalo worm B
Grasshopper	Kreca Ento-Food	1	100	Grasshopper
Banded cricket	Kreca Ento-Food	1	100	Banded cricket
	Eat Crawlers	2 ^b	50	House cricket A
House cricket	Kreca Ento-Food	1	100	House cricket B

^aNetherlands (origin).

^bNew Zealand (origin).

^cTwo different batches analysed per product tested.

Table 2. Cumulative variance obtained for each factor and number of outliers considered per each class (disjoint PCA model) of 7-class soft independent modeling of class analogy whole model.

Class	Factor 1 (%)	Factor 2 (%)	Factor 3 (%)	Factor 4 (%)	Factor 5 ^a (%)	Number outliers ^b
Mealworm	78.7	91.9	94.8	96.9	97.6	3
Buffalo worm A	76.5	84.9	90.3	94.1	95.5	0
Buffalo worm B	47.7	73.8	87.9	91.5	94.5	2
Grasshopper	83.1	94.7	96.9	97.8	98.4	2
Banded cricket	61.4	83.5	90.0	92.6	94.5	8
House cricket A	44.4	75.0	83.2	89.1	91.8	3
House cricket B	62.7	82.4	87.9	91.3	93.8	1

^a The number of factors selected per model was to obtain at least 90% of variance. This criteria was established according to the number of optimal factors obtained through Pirouette's SIMCA algorithm (seven for the whole model), which performs an F-test with 95% confidence on the reduced eigenvalues (i.e. latent factors' variances; Malinowski, 1989).

^b Sample residuals and Mahalanobis distances were used for outlier determination.

Table 3. Interclass distances of transformed (second derivative, ~~25~~13 points window) attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform mid-infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FT-MIR) spectra (4000-800 cm⁻¹ region) of all edible insect powder model (7-class soft independent modeling of class analogy whole model).

	Meal-worm	Buffalo worm A	Buffalo worm B	Grasshopper	Banded cricket	House cricket A	House cricket B
Mealworm	0.0						
Buffalo worm A	3.3	0.0					
Buffalo worm B	3.1	0.9	0.0				
Grasshopper	4.5	3.3	3.6	0.0			
Banded cricket	6.3	5.0	4.9	4.3	0.0		
House cricket A	8.2	7.2	6.7	7.1	3.5	0.0	
House cricket B	7.8	7.1	7.1	6.4	2.5	2.2	0.0

Table 4. Insect powder model predictions validation of all edible insect powder model (7-class soft independent modeling of class analogy whole model) by internal validation using 5 spectra per sample.

Prediction	Insect powders						
	Meal-worm ¹	Buffalo worm A ²	Buffalo worm B ³	Grass-hopper ⁴	Banded cricket ⁵	House cricket A ⁶	House cricket B ⁷
Best ^a	100%	100%	80%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Next best ^b	-	60% ³ 20% ¹	75% ²	-	-	-	-

^a Percentages refer to spectra that were correctly identified by SIMCA model.

^b Percentages were obtained from the number of correctly identified samples. Next best prediction is indicated by superscript numbers (1-7).