

# **Modelling the transfer and degradation kinetics of aroma compounds from liquid media into coffee beans during simulated wet processing conditions**

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## **Title page**



## **Abstract**

Models of increasing complexity were developed to identify and represent mechanisms affecting the evolution of the concentration of 3 aroma compounds (2-phenylethanol, isoamyl acetate and butanal) usually produced by yeasts and transferred to coffee beans during the fermentation. Model parameters were identified from simulated wet treatment performed with four media (M1: dehulled beans, M2: demucilaginated beans, M3: depulped 27 beans, M4: depulped beans with yeast), at 25  $\degree$ C using labeled aroma compounds. The transfer of 2-phenylethanol was well described by a model including evolving resistance 29 over time  $(R^2=0.98)$  while the accumulation of isoamyl acetate and butanal was better 30 described by a model including two first order reactions in parallel ( $r^2$ = 0.87-0.66 and  $r^2$ = 0.80-0.67, respectively). The model development contributed to understand several mechanisms involved during fermentation such as the evolutive parchment resistance and the complex degradation reactions that take place simultaneously and have a significant impact on the compounds transfer.

**Key words:** fermentation; mass transfer; coffee; model; aroma compounds.

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### **1. Introduction**

Coffee aroma is a key attribute that defines the quality of the final coffee product (Otero et al., 2018) and it is significantly related to the chemical composition of beans (Pereira et al., 2019). This chemical content depends on several factors such as agricultural variables, coffee variety and postharvest process conditions (Hameed et al., 2018). Several studies have highlighted that postharvest processing, in particular wet processing, could have a direct impact on the quality and value of the final product (D. P. de C. Neto et al., 2018; Pereira et al., 2017).

Wet processing requires several complex steps: depulping, fermenting and drying. First, the skin and pulp of the coffee cherries are removed mechanically leaving a viscous mucilage adhering to the parchment (Avallone et al., 2001). This step could initiate the germination-related metabolism in the coffee beans. Selmar et al. (2006) measured the expression of the germination-specific enzyme isocitrate lyase and they reported that the germination-related metabolism recorded the highest activity throughout the post-harvest process during the first 2 days of the coffee wet-process which could significantly affect the beans' chemical composition (Knopp et al., 2006). Then the depulped beans are fermented to degrade the mucilage layer by microorganisms that produce extracellular enzymes such as protease, pectinase and cellulase (Elhalis et al., 2021). The removal of this highly hydrated tissue, rich in pectic substances, is essential to facilitate the drying of the beans to avoid the growth of undesirable fungi and spoilage bacteria (D. P. D. C. Neto et al., 2020). During this step, the metabolism of yeast can lead to the hydrolysis of mucilage macromolecules and the generation of important metabolites such as flavor compounds like esters, alcohols, aldehydes, ketones, and terpenoids (Hameed et al., 2018; Lee et al.,

2015; Martinez et al., 2019). Some of these metabolites can diffuse into coffee beans by crossing the parchment layer and therefore contribute to the aroma profile of coffee such as 2-phenylethanol, isoamyl acetate and butanal (Hadj Salem et al., 2020; Pereira et al., 2019). Parchment, a fibrous layer with a similar structure to wood (Ramírez-Martínez et al., 2013), is a natural means of protecting coffee seeds from digesting enzymes in the gut of frugivorous animals, keeps the coffee seed available to germination-related metabolism after harvesting (De Castro & Marraccini, 2006; Selmar et al., 2006) and acts like a transfer resistance layer (Hadj Salem et al., 2020). Finally, the beans are sundried to 10-12% moisture content to facilitate storage and transport (Pereira et al., 2019). In fact, several studies were performed to modulate the coffee aroma profile using yeast starter cultures (Bressani et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2017; Martinez et al., 2019; Pereira et al., 2015). However, the direct link between the microbial activities during fermentation and coffee quality is not yet established as long as the mechanisms of diffusion/reactions involved are not yet well known (Pereira et al., 2019). Having a good knowledge of these mechanisms and control of the fermentation parameters will allow the coffee producers to improve the quality of the final product, to produce specialty coffee and even to predict its aromatic profile through a mathematical model.

This work aims at building a dynamic model in order to better understand the evolution of the concentration of three aroma compounds in coffee beans during fermentation and to identify the mechanisms involved in this wet processing step which have a direct impact on the transfer of metabolites. The implementation of this model follows a progressive approach and uses data from the monitoring of transfer kinetics of labeled molecules obtained in our previous study (Hadj Salem et al., 2020).



#### **2. Materials and methods**

### **2.1. Experimental setup**

Transfer kinetic data used to build the model were obtained from our previous study (Hadj Salem et al., 2020), in which the transfer kinetics of three volatile molecules labeled with a stable isotope (butyraldehyde, 2-phenylethanol and isoamyl acetate) were monitored during simulated fermentations over five timings (0, 6, 12, 24 and 48 hours). To investigate transfer kinetic parameters, a progressive experimental approach was followed by carrying out four study media of increasing complexity: Medium M1, being the simplest, contained coffee beans without parchment; Medium M2 contained coffee beans with parchment; Medium M3 contained depulped coffee beans composed of beans with parchment and mucilage and medium M4 contained coffee beans with parchment and mucilage, inoculated with a yeast selected for coffee fermentation LSCC1 (Lallemand SAS, France). All trials were 102 conducted at 25  $\degree$ C, at an agitation speed of 120 rpm and in triplicate.

## **2.1.1. Plant material and labeled compounds**

The additional experimental tests were performed with the same raw material and the same molecules used to study the transfer kinetics in our previous study (Hadj Salem et al., 2020). Following the same pre-treatment protocol, the depulped coffee, purchased from the Tarrazu cooperative (Tarrazu, Costa Rica), was disinfected using chlorinated solution before handling to avoid any microbiological reactions. The labeled molecules, including an 109 aldehyde butyraldehyde  $(CH_3CH_2CD_2CHO)$ , an alcohol 2-phenylethanol  $(C_6D_5CH_2CH_2OH)$ 110 and an ester isoamyl acetate  $((CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHCH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OCOCD<sub>3</sub>)$ , were purchased from CDN-isotopes (Quebec, Canada).

#### **2.1.2. Experimental approach to study reaction kinetics in coffee beans**

The degradation kinetics of the labeled molecules in the coffee bean was studied in two steps. First, a transfer of the labeled molecules into the coffee beans was carried out by submerging depulped coffee cherries in distilled water (10g of coffee beans/10 ml) containing 40 µg/ml of the molecules studied. The transfer was carried out three times (3, 9 and 27 hours) to obtain three different initial concentrations. The coffee beans were then washed to stop the transfer reaction and placed under vacuum in a hermetic bag. In the 120 second stage, the hermetic bags containing the coffee beans were placed in an oven at 25  $^{\circ}$ C to study the degradation kinetics of the previously transferred molecules over five periods of time (0, 3, 6, 9 and 15 hours). At the end of the reaction, the coffee bean samples were ground and analyzed by SPME-GC-MS using the same method previously described in Hadj Salem et al. (2020). All the tests were independent and performed in triplicate.

## **2.2. Mathematical model**

A simplified schematic representation of the studied system is shown in Fig.1, illustrating the possible mechanisms involved in the evolution of molecule concentration in the coffee bean during fermentation. The simulated fermentation tests were performed in a finite 129 closed system with a known initial external concentration of labeled molecules,  $C_{e0}$ , in the liquid phase. In this system, mass transfer passed from the liquid phase (solution with a 131 concentration  $C_e(t)$  to the solid phase (coffee bean) through the resistance of the parchment and mucilage layers. In the coffee bean, the transferred molecules could undergo a degradation reaction. Hence, the concentration of the labeled molecules, C(t), contained in the coffee beans during fermentation could be the result of the transfer and reaction mechanisms.

The predictive model of the evolution of the concentration of volatile molecules in coffee beans during simulated fermentation was developed using a progressive approach. The mathematical model (presented in the following sections) was implemented in Matlab R2020b (The Matworks Inc., Natick, MA). The parameters were identified by nonlinear least-squares regression analysis, with Optimization Toolbox in Matlab and experimental data reported in table 1. Statistical parameters such as the sum of squared errors (SSE), 142 root mean squared error (RMSE) and coefficient of determination  $(r^2)$  were calculated by Matlab to determine goodness-of-fit of the model. An F-test was performed to see which model is statistically better by verifying the H0 hypothesis, which states that the simpler model fits better. F-critical values were obtained using F-table with p-value = 0.05. F-statistic was estimated using the degrees of freedom (df) and the sum of squared errors (SSE) of the compared models, with the following equation:

$$
F = \frac{\frac{SSE1 - SSE2}{df1 - df2}}{\frac{SSE2}{df2}}
$$

The first model (1) is the one with the fewer parameters, the simpler model.

## **2.2.1. Simple Mass Transfer model (SMT)**

The hypothesis adopted to build the mass transfer model are: (1) the coffee bean is considered a homogeneous solid body; (2) the distributions of the marked molecules are assumed as homogeneous in the liquid fraction and in the solid phase after transfer, considering a rapid and non-limiting diffusion within the bean; (3) volume of the compartments is kept constant; (4) the mass transfer is governed only by the concentration gradient between the two compartments. The concentration of labeled volatiles transferred into the coffee bean can be calculated from the following ODE (Eq. (1)):

$$
\frac{dC}{dt} = K * (C_e(t) - C(t))
$$
\n(1)

159 Where t is the time,  $C_e$  is the external concentration of labeled volatiles and K is the effective 160 global mass transfer coefficient including several mechanisms such as convective transfer 161 at the interface.

162 In the first modeling step, it is considered that there is no loss of the total mass of the 163 molecules in the system, neither by leakage nor by reaction, so this total mass will be 164 distributed between the liquid and solid phases:

165 
$$
m_e(t) = m_{e0} - m(t)
$$

166 (2)

167 By converting this mass balance into an equivalent volume concentration, we obtain an 168 affine equation of the variation of the concentration outside (Eq. (3)).

169 
$$
C_e(t) = -V * C(t) + C_{e0}
$$

170 (3)

171 With  $C_e$ , expressed as a function of the variation of the concentration inside C and having a 172 slope V equal to the ratio of the volume of the solid phase,  $V_c$ , divided by the volume of the 173 liquid phase  $V_w$  (Eq.4)):

$$
174 \quad V = \frac{V_C}{V_W}
$$

$$
175 \qquad (4)
$$

176 By replacing the expression of the external concentration,  $C_e$ , in Eq. (1) by Eq. (3), we obtain 177 the ODE (Eq. (5)):

178 
$$
\frac{dC}{dt} = K * (C_{e0} - C(t) * (V + 1))
$$

179 (5)

180 With the initial conditions:

181 
$$
C(0) = 0
$$
;  $C_e(0) = Ce0$ ; at  $t = 0$ 

182 The limit conditions are reached when the transfer flux of the molecules becomes equal to 183 zero and the concentration in the solid phase reaches the equilibrium concentration  $C_{eq}$ :

184 
$$
\frac{dc}{dt} = 0
$$
 when  $C_{eq} = \frac{C_{eq}}{(V+1)}$ 

185 which leads to the following analytical solution:

186 
$$
C(t) = C_{e0} * \frac{(1 - e^{-K*t*(V+1)})}{(V+1)}
$$

187 (6)

## 188 **2.2.2. Mass Transfer model with parchment Resistance (MTR)**

189 It is assumed that the parchment plays the role of resistance in the transfer of molecules 190 into the coffee bean. It is expressed in the model with a resistance term R that is added in 191 series to the effective global transfer coefficient:

192 
$$
C(t) = C_{e0} * \frac{(1-e^{-\left(\frac{1}{(\frac{1}{K})+R}\right)_{*t*(V+1))}}}{V+1}
$$

193 (7)

# **2.2.3. Mass Transfer model with parchment Resistance and First Order Reaction (MTR-FOR)**

The degradation reaction of transferred labeled compounds is assumed to occur instantaneously in coffee beans and the concentration of the volatiles, C, in the coffee bean becomes equal to the concentration of the transferred volatiles, undergoing a degradation 199 proportional to the rate constant  $k_d$ . As a first approach, the reaction model is described by the simple first order differential equation (FOR).

A general model, which predicts the evolution of the concentration of a volatile molecule in 202 the coffee bean during fermentation, is constructed by coupling the models proposed above. This model (Eq. (8)) considers that the transfer of molecules is governed by a concentration gradient between the liquid phase (solution) and the solid phase (coffee bean) subject to the resistance of the parchment, R, and that the transferred concentration undergoes an instantaneous degradation reaction.

207 
$$
C(t) = C_{e0} * \frac{1 - e^{-\left(\frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{K}\right) + R}\right) * t * (V+1)}}{V+1} * e^{-k_d * t}
$$
(8)

**3. Results and discussion** 

## **3.1. Experimental data of transfer and degradation kinetics**

The results of the transfer kinetics of labeled molecules in coffee beans during simulated fermentations, shown in Fig 2.a, were exported from our previous work Hadj Salem et al., (2020). As previously described, the transfer of 2-phenylethanol was continuous showing a first exponential regime followed by a deceleration phase when approaching the

equilibrium concentration, which is equal to 41.5% of the initial concentration in the solution. The transfer kinetic of this higher alcohol was monotonous and affected by parchment resistance revealed by the data obtained on the M2 medium. The transfer of isoamyl acetate and butanal was different and showed a transition through a maximum followed by a loss of the molecules in the coffee bean. To explain the nature of this loss, previously described as a degradation reaction, tests were conducted to monitor the evolution of these labeled molecules in the coffee bean after their transfer. The results of the degradation kinetics are reported in Fig 2.b. As expected, the amount of 2- phenylethanol transferred remained relatively stable in the coffee bean after 15h, which agrees with what was observed in the transfer kinetics.

In the absence of degradation, the equilibrium concentration could be reached, and the mass balance could be achieved, which indicates that the experimental device was completely hermetic. This observation confirms that isoamyl acetate and butanal showed significant degradation due to the reaction.

Trials to monitor degradation kinetics were conducted to understand the mechanisms occurring in the coffee bean after the transfer of the molecules. The degradation kinetics of these two molecules, isoamyl acetate and butanal, showed two regimes regardless of the initial concentration. A first regime marked by a high degradation rate was observed from the beginning up to 6h of reaction, followed by a second regime with a much slower degradation rate at 15h, to reach less than 20% and 40% of remaining isoamyl acetate and butanal, respectively, in coffee beans. Because of the low temperature, reactions are more likely to be activated by enzymes. Selmar et al. (2006) reported the existence of enzymatic activity associated with the germination-related metabolism. This metabolism could be 237 activated after pulping and contact between the bean and water (Selmar et al., 2006). Therefore, it can be assumed that these molecules transferred to the coffee bean undergo enzymatic degradation. These degradation kinetic monitoring trials were conducted to understand the mechanisms occurring in the coffee bean after the transfer of the molecules.

## **3.2. Simple Mass Transfer model (SMT)**

As described above (section 3), a progressive approach was taken to develop a predictive model of the evolution of volatile concentration in coffee beans during simulated fermentation and to understand the mechanisms involved in aroma transfer. A first model based on a simple mass transfer governed by a concentration gradient (SMT), described by Eq. (6), was fitted to the transfer kinetics of 2-phenylethanol in the coffee beans of M1 media (contained coffee beans without parchment) to estimate the global mass transfer coefficient K by using experimental data reported in table 1. This data set was chosen because the previous experiments showed that 2-phenylethanol did not significantly react, contrary to isoamyl acetate and butanal, and its accumulation in the bean is only driven by mass transfer.

The model fit is shown in Fig. 3.a and the adjusted parameters are reported in table 2.

253 The model used reproduced reality relatively accurately with  $r^2$  of 0.89. It could be noticed that the model slightly underestimated the transfer from 6h to 18h, then it also slightly overestimated the transfer from 18h to 48h (Fig. 3.a). This slight discrepancy between the model and the experimental data could be explained by one of the simplifying hypotheses where the coffee bean is considered as a homogeneous solid body. However, Ramírez-Martínez et al., (2013) reported a heterogeneous structure of the coffee bean observed by a rupture of the tissue in the upper part of the endosperm (bean) and called it "natural discontinuity", which could lead to more complex transfer mechanisms due to an inhomogeneous distribution of the concentration of volatile molecules in the coffee bean.

## **3.3. Mass transfer with parchment resistance**

The parchment was considered as an additional resistance to the transfer of molecules into the coffee bean, in particular for the transfer of 2-phenylethanol (Hadj Salem et al., 2020; Ramírez-Martínez et al., 2013). This resistance R was added in series to the mass transfer coefficient K as described in Eq. (7) which represents the mass transfer model with parchment resistance (MTR). The MTR model was fitted to the transfer kinetics of 2- phenylethanol in coffee beans of M2 media (contained coffee beans with parchment). The model fit is shown in Fig. 3.b and the adjusted parameters are reported in table 2.

The MTR model significantly underestimated the transfer from the beginning up to 24 hours, then it overestimated the transfer until the end. This model did not reproduce the 272 reality correctly due to its significant discrepancy with the experimental observations ( $r^2$  = 273 0.80). This discrepancy could be explained by the assumption of considering the parchment has a fixed resistance structure. Indeed, Siddharth & Karthiayani, (2014) studied the evolution of the parchment's physical properties during fermentation, and they reported a decrease in parchment porosity with the increase in the fermentation duration. This porosity decrease could be explained by the expansion of the mucilage volume during fermentation that could obstruct the parchment pore space (Siddharth & Karthiayani, 279 2014) and induce an evolving parchment resistance. Despite the mechanical removal of the mucilage layer, some of the mucilage cells remained adhered to the parchment. Based on the data reported by these researchers, it is proposed to use an exponential evolution of the global mass transfer coefficient K during fermentation as described in Eq. (9):

283 
$$
K = (K_1 * e^{p*t}) + K_2
$$
 (9)

The parameters of Eq (9) were estimated by fitting this equation to the transfer kinetics of 2-phenylethanol in coffee beans in medium M2 and reported in table 2. The initial mass transfer coefficient K1 was estimated from the first hours of transfer and the final mass transfer coefficient K2 was estimated from the last hours of transfer, p is the exponential parameter of the transition between the two mass transfer coefficients. The Mass Transfer model with Evolving Resistance (MTER) was constructed by replacing eq (9) in eq (6). The model fit is shown in Fig. 3.b and the adjusted parameters are reported in table 2. The 291 MTER model, with  $r^2$  of 0.98, correctly reproduced the experimental observations of the transfer kinetics of 2-phenylethanol in coffee beans during fermentation with the M2 medium. An F-test was conducted in order to better compare the two models MTR and MTER. The MTR is considered as the simpler model with less parameters. The F-statistic and F-critic values, 69.48 and 9.26 respectively, were determined and reported in table 2. The F-statistic calculated from data is greater than the critical value of the F-distribution. This induces a rejection of the H0 hypothesis and confirm that the MTER model is statically better than the MTR model.

Accordingly, the observed discrepancy between the SMT model and experimental data obtained with M1 media, described above, could be explained by the evolving structure of coffee beans during the fermentation.

Through this model, it can be deduced that the transfer rate of 2-phenylethanol in coffee bean could be governed by the concentration gradient and the evolving structure of coffee bean and the parchment during fermentation. These mechanisms are linked to the duration of fermentation where a significant decrease in the transfer rate of 2-phenylethanol could be observed after 15 hours of fermentation due to the obstruction of the parchment pores. Therefore, to ensure a significant transfer of this molecule, which confers a floral note to the aromatic profile (Pereira et al., 2019), it may be recommended to use yeasts capable of producing a large quantity of this molecule from the first hours of fermentation with an addition of liquefying enzymes to quickly dissolve the mucilage, or alternatively, to proceed with a second fermentation of the coffee bean without the parchment.

#### **3.4. Mass transfer coupled with the degradation reaction**

Isoamyl acetate and butanal underwent an instantaneous degradation reaction in the coffee bean after transfer (Fig. 2). A simple mass transfer model coupled to a first order degradation reaction SMT-FOR, described by Eq. (8), was fitted to the transfer kinetics of isoamyl acetate and butanal obtained with the M1 media. Model fits are shown in Fig. 4 and the adjusted parameters are reported in table 3. As expected from the trend of Fig 2b, the 318 SMT-FOR did not correctly reproduce the experimental data with  $r^2$  of 0.31 and 0.26, respectively for isoamyl acetate and butanal. It is possible that the molecules underwent several reactions occurring simultaneously in the coffee beans and could be described by Double First Order Reaction in Parallel DFORP. The DFORP has been reported by several researchers (Briones & Sarmah, 2019) to describe degradation reactions that occur at the same time and especially when enzymes are involved; the model equation is given by Eq. (10):

325 
$$
C(t) = C_0 * (g * e^{-k_{d1} * t} + (1 - g) * e^{-k_{d2} * t})
$$

(10)

327 The constant g refers to the fraction of the initial concentration  $C_0$  of molecule in the coffee 328 bean which enters the first reaction with the rate constant  $k_{d1}$ . Therefore, the  $(1-g)$ 329 corresponds to the fraction undergoing the second reaction with the rate constant  $k_{d2}$ . This model was coupled with the model of mass transfer SMT-DFORP given by the Eq. (11):

331 
$$
C(t) = C_{e0} * \left(\frac{1 - e^{-K * t * (V+1)}}{(V+1)}\right) * (g * e^{-k_{d1} * t} + (1-g) * e^{-k_{d2} * t})
$$

(11)

The SMT-DFORP model fitted well with the transfer kinetics of isoamyl acetate and butanal obtained with M1 media that are shown in Fig. 4 and the adjusted parameters are reported in table 3. The model correctly reproduced the experimental observations of the transfer 336 kinetics of isoamyl acetate with  $r^2$  of 0.95 and the transfer kinetics of butanal less correctly 337 with  $r^2$  of 0.76 by significantly underestimating the concentrations of this aldehyde towards the end of fermentation. This significant discrepancy was not observed for isoamyl acetate; hence it could be postulated that butanal could be subject to another transfer mechanism in the coffee bean and/or to another type of reaction.

The MTER model coupled with the DFORP was adjusted to the experimental transfer kinetics of isoamyl acetate and butanal obtained with M2 media. The MTER-DFORP model fits are shown in Fig. 4 and the adjusted parameters are reported in table 3. A significant difference was observed between the two models SMT-DFORP and MTER-DFORP fitted with the transfer kinetics of isoamyl acetate and butanal obtained with M2 media (Fig. 4).

The two models SMT-DFORP and MTER-DFORP were compared using an F-test to determine statistically the best fitting model taking into account their degrees of freedom. The SMT-DFORP is considered as the simpler model with less parameters. The F-statistic and F-critic values, reported in table 3, were determined for isoamyl acetate fits, 0.505 and 199.5 respectively, and for butanal fits with 0.554 and 199.5 respectively. The F-statistic values calculated from data for both molecules are lower than the critical value of the F-distribution. Interpreting this results, the H0 hypothesis cannot be rejected and confirm that the SMT-DFORP model is statically better than the MTER-DFORP.

Indeed, the MTER-DFORP model significantly underestimated the transfer of these two molecules into the coffee beans and did not reproduced reality like the SMT-DFORP model did.

Thus, the parchment and the decrease in its porosity during fermentation did not significantly affect the transfer of this ester and aldehyde. This fact is in line with the experimental observations (Fig. 2). Only 2-phenylethanol was held back by this physical resistance which could be related to its conformation, structure and chemical properties. This fibrous layer acts as a molecule filter with a resistance that increases with the duration of fermentation. Isoamyl acetate, which confers a fruity note to the coffee (Lee et al., 2015; Sunarharum et al., 2014), and butanal, which confers a green note (Evangelista et al., 2014; Pereira et al., 2019), are not retained by the parchment. Their maximum concentration in the coffee bean is only reached between 15 and 20 hours for the ester and at only 6 hours of fermentation for the aldehyde, and then decreases due to the complex degradation reactions that could be linked to the germination metabolisms. To avoid this degradation and to be able to increase the content of these aromatic molecules in the coffee bean, it is suggested that the germination metabolism be modulated, either by heat treatment or by chemical treatment, before bringing the beans into contact with water.

**3.5. General model** 

During fermentation, it has been shown that certain molecules could interact with the yeast, and this interaction was described as an adhesion of these molecules to the yeast wall cells (Chalier et al., 2007; Comuzzo et al., 2011). Hadj Salem et al., (2020) reported that the addition of yeast to the fermentation medium induced the adsorption of butanal on the cell walls, which strongly reduced the availability of this aldehyde for transfer to the coffee beans. However, this adsorption phenomenon was not observed for 2-phenylethanol and isoamyl acetate (Comuzzo et al., 2011). This interaction phenomenon was implemented in 379 the model as a term equivalent to the percentage of  $C_{e0}$  available for transfer, L (%), which was identified from experimental trials reported in Hadj Salem et al. (2020), where butanal availability was estimated with and without yeast in the medium. A general form of the model MTER-DFORP is given by Eq. (12):

383 
$$
C(t) = L * C_{e0} * \left( \frac{1 - e^{-(K_1 * e^{p*t} + K_2) * t * (V+1)}}{V+1} \right) * (g * e^{-k_{d1} * t} + (1 - g) * e^{-k_{d2} * t})
$$
  
384 (12)

Fig. 5 illustrates the results obtained when the MTER-DFORP model was used to simulate the evolution of the concentration of volatiles (2-phenylethanol, isoamyl acetate and butanal) in coffee bean during simulated fermentation of M3 media (containing depulped coffee beans) and M4 media (containing depulped coffee beans inoculated with yeasts). The parameters of the model, estimated from the fits on M1 and M2, are summarized in table 4.

The model accurately predicted the transfer kinetics of 2-phenylethanol into coffee beans 391 during simulated fermentation of M3 and M4 media, with  $r^2$  of 0.98 and 0.97, respectively. However, it was less accurate in predicting the transfer kinetics of isoamyl acetate and butanal especially on M4 media. This could be due to the existence of other phenomena linked to the fermentative activity of the yeast, which play a role in the transfer of these molecules.

By comparing the estimated parameters for each molecule, a different and specific behavior of each molecule could be observed. 2-phenylethanol appears to be an interesting molecule with a transfer coefficient 3 to 10 times higher than that of butanal and isoamyl acetate, respectively. Despite a transfer coefficient 3 times higher than isoamyl acetate, butanal undergoes several reactions in the coffee bean inducing a higher loss than isoamyl acetate. Therefore, it will be more interesting to favor the transfer of this ester than that of aldehyde in the selection of ester producing starters.

## **Conclusion**

The model developed here constitutes a first step towards a dynamic view of development of the aroma profile of coffee beans during fermentation. This dynamic model allows for the first time, to predict the evolution of three volatile concentrations, 2-phenylethanol, isoamyl acetate and butanal, in coffee bean during simulated fermentation. This predictive model highlighted the complexity of the mechanisms involved during fermentation and the significative impact of the evolving resistance of the parchment, the interaction of certain molecules with yeast cell walls and the degradation reactions in the coffee bean on the concentration of aromatic molecules in the beans. The transfer of higher alcohol was accurately predicted by this model, while the accumulation of isoamyl acetate and butanal was more complex to describe because of two regime reactions and was predicted with less accuracy. To improve the model performance, other experiments should be conducted, and parameters should be implemented to take into account more mechanisms that affect the transfer of these molecules and the evolution of their concentrations in coffee beans, such as the partition coefficient and the complex mechanisms of germination. The numerical values of the coefficients are, however, specific to each molecule and can vary with the modulation of certain fermentation parameters such as temperature and yeast strain. Furthermore, this study highlighted that the three molecules, belonging to three different groups, have a different behavior during their transfer into the coffee beans. It will be important to extend this study to other molecules of interest and to make a scan of the different existing behaviors. Classifying these behaviors and modelling them afterwards will allow a more general model to be developed in order to test the different levers to modulate the final aromatic profile.

The understanding of the mechanisms involved during fermentation through this model could open new perspectives for the development of innovative strategies to modulate the aroma profile of coffee via fermentation to produce specialty coffees. Moreover, this will help to draw an approximate aromatic profile of the coffee beans during the fermentation process. The study of these strategies can be the subject of prospective studies and that need to be validated before application in the industry.

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## **Tables**

**Table 1.** Data used in the experiments and numerical simulations.

	Parameter	<b>Value</b>	555	
	$C_{e0}$	$0.04 \text{ kg/m}^3$		
	$V_{w}$	$10^{-5}$ m <sup>3</sup>	556	
	$V_c$	$2.2 \times 10^{-7} \times n_c m^3$	557	
	$n_c$	63		
	V	1.408	558	
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584 **Table 3.** Model parameters and statistical measures for mass transfer kinetics of 2-phenyl-585 ethanol in coffee beans using SMT-FOR, SMT-DFORP and MTER-DFORP models.





586 \* Study media used for parametric estimation.

## 587 **Table 4.** Selected parameters used for validation on M3 and M4 media.



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## **Figures**







**Fig. 2.** Experimental data, (a) mass transfer kinetics of labeled compound in coffee beans during fermentation, M1 media with coffee beans without parchment; M2 media with coffee bean with parchment; M3 media with depulped coffee beans; M4 media with depulped coffee beans inoculated with yeast; (b) degradation reaction of transferred labeled molecules into coffee after 3, 9 and 27h.



 **Fig. 3.** Transferred concentration of 2-phenylethanol (% transferred) into coffee beans (a) using M1 media with fit for SMT model (continuous blue line), (b) using M2 media with fit for MTR (discontinuous blue line) and MTER (continuous blue line) models.

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 **Fig. 4.** Transferred concentration of isoamyl acetate (a) and butanal (b) (% transferred) into coffee beans using M1 media (green circle) with fit for SMT-FOR model (dotted blue line) and SMT-DFORP model (discontinuous blue line); and using M2 media (yellow diamond) with fit for

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**Fig. 5.** Transferred concentration of 2-phenyethanol, isoamyl acetate and butanal (% transferred) into coffee beans. Superposition of the experimental results with M3 (a) and M4(b) with the values calculated by the model (blue line).