

A decision-support system to predict grape berry quality and wine potential for a Chenin vineyard

Nathalie Mejean-Perrot, Alberto Tonda, Ilaria Brunetti, Hervé Guillemin, Bruno Perret, Etienne Goulet, Laurence Guerin, Daniel Picque

▶ To cite this version:

Nathalie Mejean-Perrot, Alberto Tonda, Ilaria Brunetti, Hervé Guillemin, Bruno Perret, et al.. A decision-support system to predict grape berry quality and wine potential for a Chenin vineyard. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture, 2022, 200, pp.107167. 10.1016/j.compag.2022.107167. hal-03815449

HAL Id: hal-03815449 https://hal.science/hal-03815449

Submitted on 14 Oct 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	
2	
3	
4 5	
6	A Decision-Support System to Predict Grape Berry Quality and
7	Wine Potential for a Chenin Vineyard
8	
9 10	Nathalie Meiean ^{*1¶} , Alberto Tonda ¹ , Ilaria Brunetti ³ , Hervé Guillemin ² , Bruno Perret ³ ,
10	
11	Etienne Goulet ⁴ , Laurence Guerin ⁴ , Daniel Picque ³
12	
13	¹ Unité MIA-Paris, AgroParisTech, INRAE, Université Paris-Saclay, France.
14	2 Unité URTAL, INRAE, Unité de recherches en technologie et analyses laitières. Poligny, France.
15	3 Unité SayFood-Grignon, AgroParisTech, INRAE, Unité de recherches en microbiologie et procédés alimentaires,
16	Université Paris-Saclay, France
17	4 IFV Institut Français de la Vigne et du Vin, Unité de VINs, Innovations, Itinéraires, TERroirs et Acteurs, Amboise, France
18 19	Abstract
20	
20	Grape berry ripening is a complex process, and predicting the quality of wine starting from the
21	ripening kinetics of grape berries is a challenging task. To tackle this problem, we present a
22	decision-support system based on coupling expert know-how with probability laws
23	encapsulated in a probabilistic model, a dynamic Bayesian network. The proposed approach
24	predicts the ripening kinetics of grape berries starting from initial measurements and weather
25	conditions, and then exploits the information to evaluate the potential of the wine that will
26	produced from them. The results show that the dynamic Bayesian network predicts the total
27	acidity concentration and the sugar content of the grape berries with a small amount of error

^{*} Author to contact: <u>nathalie.mejean@inrae.fr</u>, UMR MIA, 16 rue Claude Bernard F-75231 Paris Cedex 05

(mean of 6% for total acidity concentration, 10% for sugar content) that is considered satisfying by the experts, making it possible to predict the ideal moment for harvesting the grapes up to two weeks in advance. Moreover, feeding the results from the probabilistic model to a fuzzy expert model, the predicted trajectories are compared to an ideal trajectory described by wine experts and formalized mathematically. From this comparison, it is possible to anticipate drifts in wine sensory quality right from the step of grape ripening.

34

Keywords: Chenin Vineyard, Decision Support System, Dynamic Bayesian Network, Fuzzy
Logic, Grape Berry Ripening, Model Coupling, Wine Quality.

37

40

38 Highlights

• We propose a system to predict grape berries ripening and wine potential.

- The tool is based on a coupling between expert know-how and probability laws.
- Predictions from the system are considered satisfying by the experts.
- RMSE is less than 10% for all variables.
- The predictions help experts decide the date of harvesting.
- 44 45
- 46

47 **1. Introduction**

The ripening of grape berries is a complex process, including physicochemical and biochemical reactions. Still more complex is predicting wine quality from the grape berries maturation kinetics. Reactions during the ripening depend on multiple factors, with weather being the most influential, especially in the last weeks preceding the harvest. Since berries ripeness plays a major role in determining wine potentialities, correctly predicting the ripening process and determining the ideal harvesting date is a significant challenge for the wine industry. While the expert consensus is that choosing an appropriate moment for harvesting has a considerable impact on the final quality of the wine, the exact effect has still not been exactly quantified (Van Leeuven, 2010). In this particular context, we define the wine potential of the grapes as their capacity of producing a wine of at least acceptable quality, provided that the rest of the processing is performed correctly. In other words, a good wine potential of the grapes is a necessary, but not sufficient condition for obtaining high-quality wine.

60 The ripeness of grape berries can be evaluated resorting to different measurable quantities, for example their sugar content, the color of their seeds, or their sensorial characteristics. Some of 61 these quantities can be measured exactly resorting to chemical means, while others require an 62 63 expert evaluation on a symbolic ordinated scale. In the last decade, new sensors have been developed to easily measure grape characteristics such as color, sugar content, and aromatic 64 potentialities, (Ben Ghozlen et al., 2010), (Geraudie et al., 2010). Nevertheless, most of the 65 66 analyses are in practice still carried out in laboratory, with time-consuming and expensive procedures required for a close monitoring of the grape berries ripeness and never used for on 67 line prediction. Literature reports relatively few contributions attempting to characterize the 68 link between the grape ripeness and a global indicator of wine quality. Interesting studies like 69 (Niimi et al., 2021) have worked on parameters determined by preprocessing techniques for 70 71 mid-infrared (MIR) spectra of grape berries to model sensory properties of different wines, using Partial Least Squares (PLS) regression models. But the problem is also the cost and time 72 consuming of such approaches, considering the equipment needed to acquire the data. Some 73 studies like (Jensen et al., 2008) have linked grape phenolic composition to wine phenolic 74 composition and color of wines using multivariate analysis. Nevertheless it is in this case too 75 specific enough to be used directly for decision help directly at the field. 76

On the other hand, the development of mathematical models to predict or characterize different 78 79 mechanisms taking place during winemaking has been widely treated in literature. For example the tool « Epicure » developed by the French Vineyard Institute (IFV) for managing 80 phytosanitary risks (Raynal, et al. 2010), or a work on the prediction of kinetics of fermentation 81 in wine processes like (Goelzer et al., 2009). For the grape ripeness prediction, a model has 82 83 been developed by (Baudrit, et al., 2015), (Perrot, et al., 2015) linking chemical indicators to weather conditions on Cabernet Franc grape berries. The approach presented in this paper is an 84 extension of this latter work, with several important differences: (i) the target grape berries are 85 for the Chenin wine, and this also reflects on the different structure of the dynamic Bayesian 86 network; (ii) in contrast with the approach outlined in (Perrot, et al., 2015), no expert system is 87 used to integrate the data set, as the available quantity of data is larger in this case; (iii) for the 88 first time, a link between variables related to grape berries ripening and wine quality is 89 90 provided, thanks to a fuzzy system.

Few other works have been developed in this domain, except PLS approaches (Claverie, et al., 91 92 2008) to link climatic and pedologic variables to chemical indicators of ripeness. Nevertheless, those approaches used mathematical classifiers to link two different spaces: climatic and 93 pedologic ones but are not models of prediction of the kinetics of the physicochemical 94 compounds. An interesting study have been developed by (Petropoulos et al., 2017), based on 95 the development of a fuzzy tool linking different physicochemical and sensory parameters of 96 the grape berries to the wine quality. It was nevertheless developed for wine classification and 97 not for decision support during harvesting. 98

99

100 In this work, we present a novel decision-support system able to predict 15 days before the 101 maturation process, considering chemical indicators, by observing the weather conditions. The 102 predicted indicators' values are then used to evaluate the wine potential, according to the winemaker goal. This model relies on probability laws encapsulated in a dynamic Bayesian
network formalism learned on available data and a fuzzy expert model based on expertise.

105

106 2. Materials and Methods

107 2.1 Experimental data

Experimental data are gathered by the IFV institute from Chenin vineyards located in the French region of "Vallee de la Loire" over several years, with weekly sample collections from July to September before grape harvesting season. The data range from 1989 to 2017 (more precisely 1989, 1995-2001, 2016-2017) with land plots distributed between two geographical places, "Anjou" and "Touraine" (see Figure 1), for a total of 30 vineyards and between 2 and 5 points by kinetics for each vineyard according to the year of the experiment.



114

116 2.2 Variables of the model

The inputs used for the probabilistic model used in proposed approach are weather conditions (see Table 1): Temperature (°C), rainfall (mm) and relative humidity (%) were supplied by Meteo France meteorological stations located near and/or on the vineyards. Insolation (quantity of solar radiation, in hours) was provided by one meteorological station located at Montreuil-Bellay, in the middle of the geographical area of the study.

Figure 1: The geographical distribution of the Chenin vineyards considered in this work.

Table 1: Weather conditions, used as inputs of the proposed approach. With HR_{min} is the lowest air humidity observe during the week, HR_{max} is the highest air humidity observe during the week, T_{min} is the lowest air temperature observe during the week, T_{max} is the highest air temperature observe during the week

Variable	Description	Calculation	Unit
HR	Relative humidity	$mean(\sum_{i=1}^{7} \frac{HRmin_i + HRmax_i}{2})$	%
т	Temperature	$\sum_{i=1}^{7} \frac{Tmin_i + Tmax_i}{2}$	•C
Pl	Rainfall	$\sum_{i=1}^{7} Pl_i$	mm
Ins	Insolation	$\sum_{i=1}^{7} Ins_i$	h

- 128 129
- 130

131 The outputs of the probabilistic models include both physicochemical and sensory 132 measurements. The physicochemical measurements have been selected after a discussion with wine experts, as those considered essential: sugar content (s) measured in g/l, total acidity 133 134 concentration (ac) in gH_2SO_4/l , and malic acid concentration (ac m) in g/l, (Barbeau, 2003), (Riou, 1994). Their variations during a week (defined as the difference between data collected 135 in two subsequent time points) are also considered: variation in sugar content (Var s), variation 136 in total acidity concentration (Var_ac), and variation in malic acid concentration (Var_ac_m). 137 Each week, a lot of 200 berries of Chenin, with pedicels, were randomly selected from each 138 139 vineyard according to the method of Vine and Wine French Institute (ITV-France) (Cayla et al., 2002) in order to limit the effects of the grape heterogeneity. With the set of 200 berries of 140 each sampling, a crushing was realized with a blender, then the must was filtered through a 141 142 Whatman paper filter. Sugars content (g/l) was measured with a refractometer; total acidity 143 concentration (g/l eq. H₂SO₄) was measured by the titration method and malic acid (g/l).

145 **2.3 Expert knowledge**

Two types of experts were interviewed: 3 scientists and 2 winegrowers working on the two 146 147 areas considered in this study. Each expert was interviewed during one or two sessions 148 (spanning 2–3 hours each). Each of the elicitation sessions was attended by one expert and one or two interviewers. Three hours were allocated for each interview. Notes were taken and 149 audiotapes were recorded. After each session, the tapes were re-played several times to make 150 sure the notes were accurate and complete. To build the interview, adapted methods proposed 151 by (Sicard et al., 2011) were applied. The elicitation process was based on a set of 152 predetermined structured open-ended questions used to direct the interviews. Questions were 153 designed according to techniques based on survey methods with the aim of optimizing the 154 expression of expert knowledge. The objective was to ask clear and simple questions without 155 ambiguities and that did not implicitly direct the expert towards a specific answer. Questions 156 were also asked in such a way to encourage simulation of the expert's situation using the 157 158 explicitation interview method developed by (Vermersch, 1994) (i.e. cognitive interviews, 159 (Moody, Will, & Blanton, 1996)). We paid particular attention to context reinstatement as recommended in these methods. This involves having the expert think about and describe their 160 feelings during the episodes being recalled. 161

Previous works (Perrot et al., 2015) had access to a larger number of experts, but it is important to remark that in the past the aim was to integrate the available data on grape berries ripening with an expert system, while in the current approach the objective is to link grape berries ripening kinetics to wine quality, creating a completely novel model. For this particular task, the availability of domain experts is relatively scarcer.

168 **2.4 Mathematical formulation**

The predictive model used in this work is a coupling between two models: a probabilistic graphical model, dynamic Bayesian networks in particular, and a fuzzy expert model. The first one is relevant to formalize mathematically, the implicit information, contained in the available experimental data. With the second one, it is possible to interact with the wine experts of Chenin vineyards and ultimately formalize the explicit knowledge, encoded through expert interviews and know-how.

175 **2.4.1 Introduction to the modeling approaches**

The first model used in our approach is a Dynamic Bayesian Network (DBN), a probabilistic 176 graphical model able to describe phenomena developing over time (Jensen & Nilsen, 177 2010)(Pearl, 1988). The structure of a DBN is an oriented graph, representing correlations 178 between variables, which in our case was created by interacting with human experts of the 179 Chenin wine. Once the structure of a DBN is fixed, it is then possible to compute its parameters 180 181 starting from a training dataset: the parameters are conditional probability tables, assessing the probability for variables taking a specific value, knowing the values of the variables they 182 depend on. For our specific application, the values of the variables need to be discretized. 183 Differently from a classical Bayesian Network, a DBN makes it possible to estimate variable 184 185 values over several subsequent time steps. In our case, each time step is equivalent to one week in the grapes ripening processes. DBNs have been successfully adopted for several agri-food 186 applications (Baudrit, et al., 2015) (Perrot, et al., 2015). 187

188 Coupled to this first model, a fuzzy expert model is set up to mathematically describe the 189 explicit knowledge of the experts concerning the complex link between the maturation of the 190 grape berries and the wine potential.

192 **2.4.2 The DBN algorithm**

More formally, a DBN is a graph-based model of a joint multivariate probability distribution, 193 capturing properties of conditional independence between variables. Like a BN, a DBN is a 194 directed acyclical graphs (DAG) where the nodes represent variables, and the missing arcs 195 196 represent conditional independences between variables. In DBNs in particular, nodes X(t) = $(X_1(t), \dots, X_n(t))$, represent n discrete random variables, indexed by time t, providing a 197 198 compact representation of joint probability distribution P for a finite time interval $[1, \tau]$. In other words, the joint probability P can be written as the product of the local probability 199 distribution of each node and its parents, as follows, Equation 1: 200

201

$$P(X(1), ..., X(\tau)) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{t=1}^{\tau} P(X_{i}(t)|U_{i}(t)) [1]$$

Where $U_i(.)$ denotes the set of all parents of node $X_i(.)$, and $P(X_i(.)|U_i(.))$ describes the conditional probability function associated with random variable $X_i(.)$ given the values of $U_i(.)$ $X_i(t)$ is termed "slice", and it represents the set of all variables at time t. This factorization of the joint probability distribution, based on information from the graph, makes it possible to straightforwardly represent large models, and use them for practical applications. In other words, DBNs represent the beliefs of possible trajectories of the variables involved in a dynamic process.

In order to make the problem treatable, DBNs assume the first-order Markov property: the parents of a variable in time slice t must appear in either slice t - 1 or t. As a consequence, for the first-order homogeneous Markov property, the conditional probabilities are time-invariant, meaning that $P(U(t)) = P(U(2)) \forall t \in (1, \tau)$. In order to fully specify a DBN, we will then need to define the intra-slice topology (within a time slice), the inter-slice topology (between two time slices), as well as the parameters (i.e. conditional probability functions) just for the

first two time slices. The structure of a model can be explicitly built on the basis of knowledge 215 216 available in the literature and parameters can be automatically learned without a priori 217 knowledge on the basis of a dataset, a process termed parameter learning. The techniques for learning DBNs are generally extensions of the techniques for learning BNs. Specialized 218 literature reports several methods to learn the structure or the parameters of a DBN from 219 substantial and/or incomplete data (Geiger & Heckerman, 1997); (Heckerman, 1999). In our 220 221 work, the topology of the graph is obtained from expert knowledge; for parameter learning, we consider the simplest and most commonly adopted methodology, simply evaluating the co-222 occurrence rate of values of variables in the training data. 223

224 Once a DBN is fully specified, it can be used to estimate marginal probabilities for target 225 variables, through a process also known as Bayesian inference (Equation 2):

226

$$P(X(t)/O(t') = o(t')), \forall t' \in [1, \tau]$$
[2]

Where X is a set of variables whose values we are interested in predicting, and O is a set of variables whose values are known (for example, in food processing X might be the variables representing the physicochemical properties of a product and O might be the variables representing the observed environmental conditions). In general, given a way of calculating P(X(t)|O(t')) from the knowledge of P(X(t')|O(t)), inference in a DBN is performed using recursive operators and Bayes' theorem, updating the belief state of the DBN as new observations become (Murphy, 2002).

234

2.4.3 The fuzzy expert algorithm

The second model used in our approach comes from the theory of fuzzy sets. Fuzzy logic was originally proposed by (Zadeh, 1965), and it is an extension of set theory by the replacement of the characteristic function of a set by a membership function whose values range between 0 and 1. Soft transitions between sets are thus obtained and make it possible to represent gradual concepts, as well as the representation and the inference of linguistic rules stemming from
expertise. This type of formalism is particularly adapted for taking human linguistic and
reasoning processes into account (Perrot et al., 2006). Fuzzy models can be written in an easy
form to understand for an expert, ie linguistic rules. Similarly, an essential fuzzy notion is the
fuzzy membership function. A fuzzy set E in universe of discourse U can be defined by
Equation 3:

$$E = \left\{ \left(u, \mu_{E}(u) \right) \setminus u \in E \right\}$$

$$\mu_{E}: U \rightarrow [0,1] \qquad \qquad [3]$$

 μ_E is thus the membership function of set E, and it represents the set of membership grades ($\mu_E(u)$) of a numerical variable u mapped to a fuzzy set E. This function makes it possible to link real numerical variables to a given linguistic variable. The value of the membership grade is a real number within the interval [0;1], expressing the translation from one space X to another space Y. It was set up with the experts. This notion gives the way to link a numeric variable to a linguistic variable often manipulated by the operators. In fact, fuzzy memberships are used to describe how much an object belongs to a linguistic notion. Going back to an example:

Suppose a value of sugar of 195 g/l belonging to the symbol "not target" with a membership degree of 0.5 and to the symbol "target" with a membership degree of 0.5. It would mean that the maturation will be mitigated for this value of sugar.

$$\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 0 & (\mathbf{x} < \mathbf{a}_1) \\ \frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_1}{\mathbf{a}_2 - \mathbf{a}_1} & (\mathbf{a}_1 \le \mathbf{x} < \mathbf{a}_2) \\ \frac{\mathbf{a}_3 - \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{a}_3 - \mathbf{a}_2} & (\mathbf{a}_2 \le \mathbf{x} < \mathbf{a}_3) \\ 0 & (\mathbf{a}_3 \le \mathbf{x}) \end{cases}$$
[4]

257 Membership functions can be expressed through various representations. The representations 258 most widely used are triangular (Equation 4) for a given triplet series of parameters a₁, a₂, a₃.

On the basis of the definition of the fuzzy subsets, the fuzzy Tnorm, is used in this paper to aggregate the information associating the three input variables of the fuzzy algorithm: the sugar content, the total acidity concentration and the malic acid concentration, to the output: the wine potential. Those input variables are joined by a connector "AND" (a classical mathematical logical interpretation of the join) using the fuzzy Tnorm (Equation 5).

264

Tnorm(μ0,μ1,...,μn) =∏μi [5]

265 Where μ_i are the input variables (three in our case study: sugar content, total acidity and malic 266 acid concentrations).

267

268 **2.4.4 Models evaluation**

The DBN previously introduced will be evaluated with a leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV), where the model is repeatedly trained on the whole dataset, minus one sample, and the remaining sample is used for testing. The procedure is repeated until each sample has been used for testing. Considering the mean and standard deviation on the results of a LOOCV provides a better estimate of the model's capabilities than just considering a random split of the available data between a training set and a test set (Geisser, 1993).

For the choices made in this study, before training the model, it is necessary to discretize the real-valued variables in the dataset (see subsection 3.1.1). However, in order to evaluate the performance of the model's predictions against the ground truth, the results of the model will have to be converted back into real values. Recalling that the predictions of a DBN model for variable *x* will consist in a series of probabilities P_i for each possible discrete class i = 280 $0, 1, ..., n_x$ associated with variable x, the predicted outcome can be converted to a real value 281 using the following Equation [6]:

282
$$x_i i^{predicted} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_x} \overline{x_i} P_i \qquad [6]$$

283 Where $\overline{x_i}$ is the average value of all samples of variable x that fall under class *i*.

The first metric used to evaluate the quality of the predictions against the ground truth is the root mean squared error (RMSE), Equation [7]:

286
$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_i^{predicted} - x_i^{observed})^2}$$
[7]

Where *N* is the number of predictions considered for target variable *x*, and $x^{observed}$ indicates its observed value. In this study, we will also use the relative RMSE (RRMSE) that expresses the RMSE as a percentage of the range of observed values for the target variable, and it is thus more informative as an error metric (Equation 8):

291

$$RRMSE = \frac{RMSE}{(x_{max}^{observed}) - (x_{min}^{observed})} \times 100 \quad [8]$$

292

Where $x_{max}^{observed}$ and $x_{min}^{observed}$ are the highest and lowest values observed for variable *x*, respectively.

For the fuzzy algorithm, the results are evaluated as classification accuracy in percentage, expressing the number of points classified correctly within the range of precision fixed by the experts, over the total amount of points classified.

298 **3 Results**

The results presented in this section include both the numerical assessment of the models' predictions, and the trained models themselves. The models are considered an output of this work, as they will be exploited by experts in the field to predict the best moment for harvesting grapes, once they have reached the proper degree of ripeness.

303 3.1 Description of the Chenin vineyard global model

304

The Chenin vineyard model is based on a coupling between a DBN expressing the kinetics of ripening of the Chenin grape berries and a Fuzzy expert model expressing the expert knowledge on empirical laws linking kinetics of maturation and wine sensory potentialities. We first built a Chenin Dynamic Bayesian Network (Chenin_DBN), which makes it possible to obtain reliable dynamic predictions of sugar content, total acidity, and malic acid concentrations by measuring air temperature, rainfall, relative humidity, and insolation hours in the three weeks preceding the harvest.

Once we predict the maturation indicators, we evaluate the wine potentialities according to the winemaker expectation, by means of a Chenin Fuzzy expert model (Chenin_FEM), linking the maturity indicators to global wine quality trajectories (see Figure 2).



315

Figure 2: The Chenin vineyard model developed in this work consists of two coupled models: one for the prediction of the physicochemical variables using a DBN (Chenin_DBN), and another based on a Fuzzy expert theory (Chenin_FEM) dedicated to the prediction of the potentialities of the wine for being in the target required by the winemaker.

320 **3.2 The Chenin_DBN model**

The three key elements of the proposed Chenin_DBN model are: (i) its structure, defining the relationships between the problem's variables, (ii) the choice of discretization for each variable, (iii) the parameters, expressed by conditional probability tables (CPTs), which describe how the probabilities of variables assuming a given value change, depending on the values of the variables they depend on. The structure of the network has been defined on the basis of expert knowledge, building upon previous works on different wines that led to the development of the software PREVIMAT (Brousset et al., 2009; Baudrit et al., 2015).

328

3.2.1 Network structure of the Chenin_DBN

The first part of the model developed, inspired by previous work on Cabernet-Franc and Gamay 329 wines (Baudrit et al., 2015) predicts physicochemical indicators starting from weather 330 conditions (Figure 3). For each physicochemical ripeness indicator, the climatic variables 331 playing a key role in their kinetics are selected from expert knowledge and literature. In 332 333 particular, relative humidity only affects the two acidities (total acidity concentration and malic acid concentration), sunshine influences sugar content, while temperature and rainfall have an 334 impact on the three variables considered: sugar content (s), total acidity concentration (ac), 335 malic acid concentration (ac m). 336



Figure 3: Representation of the Chenin_DBN, in the form of two generic slices that can be 339 340 unrolled on several slices representing the different step times. DBNs assume the first-order Markov property, which means that the parents of a variable in time slice t must occur in other 341 slices and the conditional probabilities are time-invariant. The slice representing the time t (t 342 343 measurements) is concerned at the beginning of the iterations by variables that are measured at time t0. The consecutive slice: time t+1 is dedicated to predictions. If several slices are added, 344 for example t, t+1 and t+2, it starts at t0 with an initialization where variables are measured, 345 followed by two slices predicted t+1 and t+2, with t+2 predicted on the basis of the prediction 346 347 of t+1.

348

As the Chenin_DBN needs to be able to capture dynamical variations of the values over time, to better predict the three variables it is necessary to define new intermediate state variables. In particular, having collected the data related to the last two to five weeks (according to the years of experiment) before the harvest, we can make the assumption that the trajectory in time of each variable is stable and its variation is constant, given identical meteorological conditions. In other words, we consider that a month before the harvest, only alterations in the weather can cause a significant deviation from an established trajectory in time. More formally, considering each physicochemical variable $x \in \{ac, ac_m, s\}$ at time t and t + 1:

358

$$x(t+1) = var_x(t+1) + x(t)$$

359 And consequently

360 $var_x(t) = x(t) - x(t-1)$

As already mentioned, the (absolute) value of a variable can be used as an indicator of the current stage of ripening, while its variation, as a function of the climatic variables, will dictate the ripeness trajectory.

364 Having taken into account the variation of the physicochemical variables over time and the limitation for certain years to two weeks of history, the Chenin_DBN can now be structured 365 over the minimum time steps history of the whole kinetics, which is three time steps t =366 367 $\{0, 1, 2\}$, each one spanning a week before the time of the harvest. At time t = 0, the value of each variable is known; for the next two time steps, only the climatic variables are known 368 (observed), while the physicochemical quantities and their variations are predicted by the 369 model. The complete structure of the Chenin_DBN for the physicochemical variables, when 370 considering all variables for the three time steps, is presented in Figure 4. 371



Figure 4: The unrolled Chenin_DBN model over time steps $t = \{0, 1, 2\}$. A physicochemical variable (t + 1), considered at time step t + 1 is predicted as a function of its value at the previous time step t and its variation $var_x(t) = x(t) - x(t - 1)$. In turn, $var_x(t)$ is

predicted as a function of the climatic variables at time steps t - 1 and t. It is interesting to notice that the values of the physicochemical variables are not influenced by each other.

378

379

3.2.2 Variables discretization

As previously described, to create the CPTs of our Chenin_DBN model, it is necessary to define the discretization of the continuous variables in the problem. In this context, discretizing variable *x* amounts to finding several intervals $\{[x_1, x_2), [x_2, x_3), ..., [x_{n-1}, x_n)\}$ of continuous values such that $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n$, with each interval corresponding to a discrete class.

The definition of such intervals has a considerable impact on the performance of the Chenin_DBN model, so this step is crucial for generalized the approach and to obtain satisfying predictions. Specialized literature reports different established partial solutions for discretization: for example, considering quantiles, nested averages, and amplitudes (Dougherty et al., 1995).

389

In our case we opted for test the latter solution, since it makes it possible to create intervals of similar amplitude for each category of variables in the problem: climatic variables, grape sensory variables, and variables indicating instantaneous physicochemical quantities, or variations of physicochemical quantities from a time step to the next. The number of classes was chosen by selecting a limited but sufficiently representative number of intervals, following the advice and recommendations of human experts.

For the climatic variables, the following intervals were defined (see Table 1 for the detaileddescription of the variables):

398

• Ins = [[15,30], [30,40], [40,55], [55,60], [60,75]]

- Pl = [[0,10], [10,20], [20,30], [30,45], [45,70], [70,100]]
- 400

401

- T = [[0,11], [11,15], [15,17], [17,19.5], [19.5,22]]
- HR = [[60,70], [70,75], [75,80], [80,90], [90,100]]

402 For the physicochemical variables, an interactive semi-automated discretization approach was 403 developed, based on the notion of co-occurrence between variable values and their variations. 404 The methodology is based on a visualization software, EvoGraphDice, coupled with an evolutionary optimization approach (Boukhelifa et al., 2017). Variations of the variable (for 405 example var_s for the sugar content) are fixed by the experts. Diagnostic and decisions of the 406 experts are indeed more based on the physicochemical variations during one week than on the 407 values themselves. It is then easier for them to describe the values in terms of variations. For 408 409 example, the variation var_s of the variable describing sugar content from one week to the next is fixed on the basis of the expert description. The optimal discretization of the variable itself 410 411 like the sugar content for example, is then calculated by optimization, to ensure a repartition of 412 the var_s classes of interval as homogeneous as possible, for each sugar interval in the data. Several iterations are performed to reach a good compromise between the values of 413 discretization proposed by the algorithm of optimization and what is considered to be coherent 414 according to the expert evaluation. Experts visualize the results of the optimization at each 415 iteration, and validate or reject the result. 416

An example of discretization obtained for sugar content is presented in Figure 5. We can see that classes of s are created by the optimization algorithm after 5 runs of interaction with an expert, with a good result in terms of repartition of the different classes of Var_s for each class of s. This homogeneous repartition is required for a good learning of the probability laws in the DBN model structure.



Figure 5: Result of the discretization of the variable s (classes equivalence: see Table 2) after 5 iterations and expert's interactions, var_s being fixed by the expert. The automatic discretization was used for values ranging from 0 to 210 g/l, generating four classes. Points with values above 210 g/l are rare, but rather than assigning them all to the same class as the algorithm proposed, the experts decided to divide the space evenly in three more classes with an amplitude of 10 g/l, plus one final class for all values above 240 g/l.

All the results of the optimization and thus the discretization proposed for the physicochemicalvariables are presented in Table 2.

431 Table 2: Discretization of the physicochemical variables, fixed by experts for the variation

432	var_X of variable X,	obtained by	the experts	through inte	eractive optimization.
-----	----------------------	-------------	-------------	--------------	------------------------

	Discretization of X	Discretization of Var_X		
S (Sugar)	• Class $0 = [\infty, 156.9]$ • Class $1 = [156.9, 182.86]$ • Class $2 = [182.86, 201.8]$ • Class $3 = [201.8, 210]$ • Class $4 = [210, 220]$ • Class $5 = [220, 230]$ • Class $6 = [230, 240]$ • Class $7 = [240, +\infty]$	• Class $0 = [0, 12]$, • Class $1 = [12, 20]$ • Class $2 = [20, 35]$ • Class $3 = [35, +\infty]$		
ac (total acidity concentration)	 Class 0 = [-∞, 5.47] Class 1 = [5.47, 6.33] Class 2 = [33, 7.94] Class 3 = [7.94, +∞] 	• Class $0 = [-\infty, -1.5]$ • Class $1 = [-1.5, -1]$ • Class $2 = [-1, -0.6]$ • Class $3 = [-0.6, 0]$		
ac_m (malic acid concentration)	 Class 0 = [-∞, 3.66] Class 1 = [3.66, 4.6] 	• Class $0 = [-\infty, -2.5]$ • Class $1 = [-2.5, -1.5]$		

	•	Class 2 = [4.6, 5.68]	•	Class	2	=
	•	Class 3 = [5.68, 6.88]		[-1.5, -	-0.75]	
	•	Class 4 = [6.88, +∞]	•	Class 3 =	= [-0.75,	-0.5]
			•	Class 4 =	= [-0.5,0]

435

3.2.3 Network parameters

Once the network structure has been defined, and the variables have been properly discretized, learning the parameters of the Chenin_DBN is a straightforward process. Each node represents a conditional probability table, describing the different probabilities for variable *x* to assume values $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$ given the values of the parent variables it depends on, pa(x). By reading the training data, the frequency of appearance of values for *x* together with the values for pa(x)for the same samples, can be directly used as a probability to fill the conditional probability tables, using the classic strategy of maximum likelihood (Redner &Walker, 1984).

443

444 **3.3 The Chenin Fuzzy Expert Model (Chenin_FEM)**

The Chenin_FEM is constituted of a set of membership functions adapted to the Chenin
characteristics of variation, and rules of aggregation leading to a quantification of the output of
the model.

448 **3.3.1 Membership functions**

_

The membership functions (see Section 2) set up in the Chenin_FEM are presented in Figure 6 for the three inputs considered: sugar content, total acidity concentration and malic acid concentration.



Figure 6: Membership function and associated targets for the three variables manipulated by
the expert to infer the quality of the Chenin vineyard: total acidity concentration, malic acid and
sugar content.

3.3.2 Rules of aggregation

Two experts were interviewed in this study, to find a link between the ripeness of grape berries 457 458 and their personal assessment of wine quality. Experts encode their knowledge as a symbolic 459 trajectory towards ideal wine quality, and assess differences in terms of drift from this trajectory. The experts classify grape berry ripeness into three categories (that we named Class 460 1, 2, and 3, see Table 3), in link with three steps of ripening that in their opinion should appear 461 sequentially at given times during the ripening process. In case of drift from the perceived ideal 462 category, experts usually perform their corrective actions after the harvesting, either by mixing 463 grapes from different batches, or changing the parameters of the wine fermentation. 464 Nevertheless, each expert has their own rules for managing this situation. In this work, we 465 decided to use the rules of the expert with the longest track record in wine production. 466

The rules used by the experts for the aggregation of the three terms are presented in Table 3 andprocessed according to the fuzzy Tnorm methodology presented in Section 2.

Table 3: Expert rules of aggregation for the three input variables of the Chenin vineyard: sugar 470 content (g/l), total acidity concentration (g/l) and malic acid concentration (g/l). The output is 471 the projection of the class of wine inferred by the aggregation, knowing the values of the input 472 variables: Class 3 represents the quality of the berries required to obtain wine that is at the very 473 least of acceptable quality according to the expert. Class 2 means that the maturity of this 474 475 vineyard plot is not enough to reach an acceptable wine quality, but it can potentially be still corrected by pursuing the ripening of the grapes, postponing the date of the harvest if possible; 476 or, if not possible, by adapting the fermentation process or mixing the berries of different 477 478 vineyard plots. Class 1 means that the maturity of the berries have, at the time of measurement, not the good potential to produce a good wine. It is generally associated with berries at the very 479 beginning of the ripening step. 480

Sugar	TARGET		NOT TARGET	
	Malic acid TARGET	Malic acid NOT TARGET	Malic acid TARGET	Malic acid NOT TARGET
Total acidity concentration				
TARGET	3	2	2	Non existant
NOT TARGET	1	1	1	1

481

482 **4 Experimental results**

483 This section describes the experimental results obtained by comparing the complete models

484 developed in Section 3 against the available data.

485 **4.1 Chenin_DBN model predictions for the physicochemical variables**

A LOOCV is performed on the dataset. At each iteration the network is trained on the whole
dataset minus one sample, and then tested on that sample. We obtained a mean RRMSE for
each predicted variable.

The results (Table 4) show that it is possible to predict with good results the total acidity concentration and the sugar content in a range that is satisfying for the experts (10% mean error for sugar, 6% mean error for the total acidity concentration) and so anticipate the maturation date up to 15 days in advance. For the malic acid, it seems to be more complex to have a good prediction with the only variables considered as inputs of the DBN. Other physicochemical variables, that are harder to measure and were not included in this study, such as characteristics of the soil, would probably beneficial towards the aim of obtaining better predictions.

Table 4: Results of prediction for the three variables for two time steps: one week (1) or twoweeks (2) in advance.

Variable in the unrolled DBN model	RMSE	RRMSE % ac = [3.4,12.5];	R2
ac_1 (g/l)	0.536	6	0.668
ac_2 (g/l)	0.648	7	0.583
ac_m_1 (g/l)	0.825	9	0.6673
ac_m_2 (g/l)	0.867	10	0.5302
s_1 (g /l)	11.37	8	0.702
s_2 (g/l)	12.87	10	0.67

498

In Figure 7, the model's predictions of the physicochemical data are compared with the observed values, for each variable and for the two considered time steps 1 and 2. Even if the R^2 value are moderately satisfactory, varying from 0.702 for the sugar to 0.53 for the malic acid, with cumulative errors for two time steps, scatterplots are relatively well aligned around the bisector, and most of the errors of the predicted points are within the range of uncertainty of the measurements defined by the experts. Essentially, 5 vineyards out of 30 were not well predicted and were not considered for the computation of the correlation coefficients. It is a possible effect of the lack of data on those land plots with particular behaviors and an increasing uncertainty. As described above, the proposed approach faces more difficulties for the malic acid variable, but the results are still acceptable.





Figure 7: Scatter plots for the predictions of the physicochemical variables by the Chenin_DBN model, for the two time steps t=1 and t=2. The error range considered acceptable by the experts for those variables is represented by the dotted lines in the plots $(\pm 0.5g/l)$ for the total acidity concentration and malic acid concentration, and $\pm 10g/l$ for the sugar concentration).

518

519 **4.2 Validation of the Chenin_FEM**

520 The Chenin_FEM model is tested in two separate experiments: Firstly, the predictions of the 521 fuzzy expert module are tested with inputs observed in the data; Secondly, the outputs of the 522 DBN presented above are used as inputs of the expert system. In this last case, the uncertainties 523 pertaining the prediction of the two models are cumulated.

The proposed approach is tested on twenty harvests performed in different batches, equivalent to twenty samples in the database, are tested from 2016 and 2017, at different time steps of maturation, and evaluated by a Chenin sensory expert.

The results are presented in Figure 8 for the predictions of Chenin_FEM based (1) on measured 527 input data and (2) on the Chenin_DBN predictions. The inputs are the physicochemical values 528 529 measured or predicted on the berries batch just before the grape harvest: the sugar concentration, the total acidity concentration and the malic acid concentration. The output is 530 531 the prediction of the wine quality, considering those inputs. Inputs are data measured just before 532 the harvesting of the batch used to produce the wine that is later evaluated by the expert, or 533 classified by the Chenin_FEM. As the output of the Chenin_FEM is a fuzzy value rather than a class, we consider the classification correct if the fuzzy value is within 1.0 of the class assigned 534 535 by the expert, a classical sensory threshold used by the experts in this experiment. Using this metric, the classification accuracy is 75% for predictions based on measured data, and 60% for 536

respectively predictions based data predicted by the Chenin_DBN model. This result is 537 538 considered acceptable, as predictions in this uncertain context, trying to establish a global link between grape berries physicochemical measurements and wine quality, are challenging. Errors 539 of classification based on measured data appear more often for Class 2 predictions. Those for 540 classification based on the Chenin_DBN predictions appear more often for Class 1, except one 541 for Class 3. This second class would probably need to be redefined and optimized, if more data 542 543 were available. The results of classification using data predicted by the Chenin DBN model are lower than the previous one, which can be explained by a cumulative effect of the error of 544 the two models (Chenin_FEM and Chenin_DBN). It is particularly true for predictions of Class 545 546 1.

547



■ Expert measurements ■ ES on measured data ■ ES on DBN predicted data

Figure 8: Predictions of the classes of wine for 20 samples by the Chenin_FEM. The expert
evaluations are in blue, the classifications based on inputs measured on the samples are in
orange, and the classifications based on physicochemical variable values predicted by the
Chenin_DBN are in grey.

4.3 Coupling the Chenin_DBN model to the Chenin_FEM: towards a decision support system for wine quality prediction

Coupling the two models has a strong interest for the winemakers, as together they can be used 556 to take a decision on the best date for harvesting grapes. It is also possible for them to intervene 557 558 on the vineyards in the earlier steps of ripening to correct the drift from the ideal trajectory. 559 Moreover, the experts' ability to predict the wine potential of the grapes allows them to manage their action directly on the plants or during the fermentation, with a possible prediction of the 560 561 quality of the wine. Their reasoning in this uncertain space is achieved in terms of deviations from an "ideal" trajectory that they have in mind. This type of reasoning has already been 562 observed in other traditional food production processes (Sicard et al., 2011). We have elicited 563 with the expert this "ideal trajectory" and have compared it to the trajectories of three samples 564 from the available database. Fixed fermentation process conditions were applied. The 565 trajectories of those three batches are shown in Figure 9, and compared to the ideal expert 566 trajectory. Thus, we can see that the deviation of the batch REH66 is growing all along the 567 weeks, with a maximum of a 2-class difference in week 6. It is important to notice that for this 568 batch, the first measurements were only available at week 4, but previous weeks are very likely 569 classified in Class 1. As predicted, after processing, the grapes of REH66 produced a wine that 570 was judged too acid and not aromatic enough by experts, so unsuitable to be a Chenin wine. In 571 572 this specific case, corrections could have been applied either before the step of grape ripening or after, by mixing the grapes with other batches. For the batch NOC52, the trajectory is almost 573 the ideal one, but a drift is observed during the last week of the ripening. This was due to 574 unexpected extreme climatic conditions during the week. In this case, the corrective action is 575 576 generally performed during the fermentation, and the wine potential is recoverable: in this case, 577 the wine resulting from the NOC52 grapes was considered of acceptable quality. Lastly, for the 578 batch CAD57, we can observe that this trajectory is quite the same as the one desired by the 579 expert, and predictably, after fermentation has led to a wine having the ideal characteristics 580 required by the experts for Chenin.

581

582



Figure 9: Ripening trajectories of 3 batches (labeled CAD57, REH66, NOC52) expressed under 583 the form of a prediction by the fuzzy algorithm of classes of potential towards wine. 584 Physicochemical measurements are obtained since the beginning of the maturation step. 585 586 Predictions of the fuzzy set of expert rules are calculated on these measurements. Measurements and predictions start at week 4 for the batch REH66, because the ripening 587 process of those vineyard plots was judged to be late. Week 6 is the one just before the harvest. 588 The wines produced from these batches were also evaluated by an expert of Chenin. For CAD57 589 and NOC52 the wine was evaluated to be at a good sensory quality type for a Chenin, better for 590 CAD57 with more aromatic potentialities and a good equilibrium between aroma and acidity 591

than NOC52. For REH66, the wine was evaluated not to be at the level of quality attempted fora Chenin, with too much acidity and not enough aromatic liveliness.

594

595

596 **Conclusions**

597 This study shows that it is possible and of valuable interest to propose computing tools able to 598 formalize and capitalize on the knowledge of a food domain, based on data as well as human 599 know-how and expertise. Even if for these complex processes the uncertainty is high, and 600 amount of data is relatively small to describe each ripening kinetics, this combination makes it 601 possible to develop relevant decision support systems based on artificial intelligence.

Interestingly, when compared to (Perrot et al., 2015), the accuracy of the predictive model for acidity is noticeably lower. While the previous work was carried out on a different quality of grapes, and considering less variables, the variability in weather for the data in the 2016-2017 period might also have played a role in the lower performance of the model presented.

Part of the difficulties in obtaining reliable predictive models is likely due to the growing impact
of climate change on local weather. Future works will investigate the possibility of integrating
climate-weather models into the proposed approach, in order to better take into account the
evolution of this global phenomenon.

610

611 Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all the experts and winegrowers of Tour and Angers who have
participated to this study. We also thank InterLoire, the Institut Français de la Vigne et du vin
- IFV Tours, the Institut Français de la Vigne et du vin – IFV Angers, the Chambre

615	d'Agriculture d'Indre et Loire - Groupement de Développement Viti-Vinicole (GDVV), the
616	Cellule Terroir Viticole, the INRA Angers – Unité Vigne et Vin, the ESA Angers – Laboratoire
617	GRAPPE.
618	
619	References
620	
621	Barbeau, G. BH. (2003). Comportement de quatre cépages rouges du Val de Loire en
622	fonction des variables climatiques. J Int Sci Vigne Vin, 38, 35-40.
623	Baudrit, C., Perrot, N., Brousset, JM., Guillemin, H., Perret, B., Picque, D., Barbeau, G.
624	(2015). A probabilistic graphical model for describing the grape berry maturity.
625	Computers and Electronics in Agriculture. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture,
626	118, 124-135.
627	Baudrit, C., Wuillemin, PH., & Perrot, N. (2013). Parameter elicitation in probabilistic
628	graphical models for modelling multi-scale food complex systems. Journal of Food
629	Engineering, 115(1), 1-10.
630	Ben Ghozlen, N., Moise, N., Latouche, G., Martinon, V., Mercier, L., Besancon, E., &
631	Cerovic, Z. (2010). Assessment of grapevine maturity using a new portable sensor:
632	Non-destructive quantification of anthocyanins. Journal International des Sciences de
633	la Vigne et du Vin, Vol. 44, pp. 1-8.
634	Boukhelifa, N., Tonda, A., Trelea IC., Perrot, N., & Lutton, E. (2017). Interactive
635	Knowledge Integration in Modelling for Food Sustainability: Challenges and
636	Prospects. ACM CHI Workshop on Designing Sustainable Food Systems.
637	Brousset, J. (2009). Caractérisation multifactorielle et modélisation de la maturité de baies
638	de Cabernet Franc en moyenne vallée de Loire. Rapport InterLoire.

639	Claverie, M., Prud'Homme, P., Mongendre, J., Zabollone, E., Raynal, M., Coulon, T., Forget,
640	D. (2008). Modélisation statistique de la qualité en viticulture par la méthode PLS
641	Spline. VIIe Congrès International des terroirs viticoles.

- Dougherty, J., Kohavi, R., & Sahami, M. (1995). Supervised and unsupervised discretization
 of continuous features. In Machine learning proceedings 1995 (pp. 194-202).
- Geiger D., Heckerman D. (1997) A characterization of the Dirichlet distribution through
 global and local parameter independence. The Annals of Statistics 25: 1344–1369.
- 646 Geisser, S. (1993). Predictive Inference. New York: Chapman and Hall.
- Geraudie, V., Roger, & J. M., O. H. (2010). Développement d'un appareil permettant de
 prédire la maturité du raisin par spectroscopie proche infra-rouge(PIR). *Revue Française d'Oenologie*, 240, 2-8.
- Goelzer, A., Charnomordic, B., Colombié, S., Fromion, V., & Sablayrolles, J. (2009).
 Simulation and optimization software for alcoholic fermentation in winemaking
 conditions. *Food Control*, 20(7), 635-642.
- Heckerman D. (1999) A Tutorial on Learning with Bayesian Networks. MIT Press,
 Cambridge, MA, USA, 301–354.
- Jensen Finn V. and Nielsen Thomas D.. (2010) Bayesian Networks and Decision Graphs,
 Springer-Verlag. 464p.
- Jensen, Jacob S., Demiray, S., Egebo, M., Meyer, A.S. (2008). Prediction of Wine Color
 Attributes from the Phenolic Profiles of Red Grapes (Vitis vinifera). J. Agric. Food
 Chem. 2008, 56, 3, 1105–1115. https://doi.org/10.1021/jf072541e
- Moody, J, Blanton, J.E., Augustine M.A. (1996). Enhancing End-User Mental Models of
 Computer Systems through the Use of Animation. Proceedings of the 29th annual

662	Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences.
663	https://www.researchgate.net/publication/221181855
664	Murphy, K. P. (2002). Dynamic bayesian networks: representation, inference and learning.
665	PhD Dissertation. Berkeley: University of California.
666	Niimi, J., Liland, K.H., Tomic, O., Jeffery D.W., Bastian S., Boss P.K. (2021). Prediction of
667	wine sensory properties using mid-infrared spectra of Cabernet Sauvignon and
668	Chardonnay grape berries and wines. Food Chemistry 344 (2021).
669	Pearl J. (1988). Probabilistic Reasoning in Intelligent systems: Networks of Plausible
670	Inference. Morgan Kaufmann, San Diego. 552p.
671	Perrot, N., Trelea, I., Baudrit, C., Trystram, G., & Bourgine, P. (2011). Modelling and
672	analysis of complex food systems: state of the art and new trends. Trends in Food
673	Science & Technology, 22(6), 304-314.
674	Perrot, N., Baudrit, C., Brousset, J. M., Abbal, P., Guillemin, H., Perret, B., & Picque, D.
675	(2015). A Decision support system coupling fuzzy logic and probabilistic graphical
676	approaches for the agri-food industry: prediction of grape berry maturity. PloS one,
677	10(7), e0134373.
678	Perrot, N., Ioannou, I., Allais, I., Curt, C., Hossenlopp, J., Trystram, G. (2006). Fuzzy
679	concepts applied to food product quality control: A review. Fuzzy Sets and Systems
680	157 special edition, 1145–115. doi:10.1016/j.fss.2005.12.013
681	Petropoulos, S., Karavas C.S., Balafoutis A.T., Paraskevopoulos, I., Kallithraka S.,
682	Kotseridis, Y. (2017). Fuzzy logic tool for wine quality classification. Computers and

Electronics in agriculture 142, 552-562.

684	Raynal, M., Debord, C., Guittard, S., & Vergnes, M. (2010). Epicure, a geographic
685	information decision support system risk assessment of downy and powdery mildew
686	epidemics in Bordeaux vineyards. Sixth international workshop on the grapevine
687	downy and powdery mildew (p. 144-146). Bordeaux: INRA-ISV.
688	Redner, R. A., & Walker, H. F. (1984). Mixture densities, maximum likelihood and the EM
689	algorithm. SIAM review, 26(2), 195-239.
690	Riou, C. (1994). Le déterminisme climatique de la maturation du raisin: application au
691	zonage de la teneur en sucre dans la Communauté Européenne. Office des
692	Publications Officielles des Communautés Européennes.
693	Sicard, M., Perrot, N., Leclerc-Perlat, M.N., Baudrit, C., Corrieu, G., 2011. Towards 703
694	integration of experts skills and instrumental data to control food processes. 704
695	Application to Camembert-type cheese ripening. Journal of Dairy Science 94 (1), 705
696	1–13.
697	Vermersh, P. (2006). L'entretien d'explicitation. Paris: ESF.
698	
699	Van Leeuwen, C. (2010). Terroir: the effect of the physical environment on vine growth,
700	grape ripening and wine sensory attributes Viticulture and Wine Quality. « Managing
701	wine quality » Woodhead Publishing Series in Food Science, Technology and
702	Nutrition. Chapter 9, Pages 273-315. https://doi.org/10.1533/9781845699284.3.273
703	
704	Zadeh , L. (1965). 'Fuzzy Sets.' Information and Control 8, 338-353
705	