

1 **Screening and evolution of volatile compounds during ripening of ‘Nebbiolo’,**  
2 **‘Dolcetto’ and ‘Barbera’ (*Vitis vinifera* L.) neutral grapes by SBSE-GC/MS.**

3 Antonio Carlomagno<sup>1)\*</sup>, Andrea Schubert<sup>2)</sup>, Alessandra Ferrandino<sup>1)</sup>

4 <sup>1)</sup> Centro di Ricerche in Viticoltura ed Enologia, Università di Torino

5 C.so Enotria 2/C

6 12051 Alba (CN), Italy

7 <sup>2)</sup> DISAFA, Dipartimento di Scienze Agrarie, Forestali, Alimentari, Università di Torino

8 Largo P. Braccini 2

9 10095 Grugliasco (TO), Italy

10

11 \*Corresponding author:

12 Tel.: +39 0173-441486; fax: +39 0173-441349

13

14 [antonio.carlomagno@unito.it](mailto:antonio.carlomagno@unito.it)

15

16 **Abstract**

17 The evolution of pre-fermentative volatiles and of the global aroma potential in three Italian neutral  
18 varieties (‘Nebbiolo’, ‘Barbera’ and ‘Dolcetto’) was assessed from véraison to harvest by SBSE-GC/MS.

19 C6 and C9 compounds, benzene derivatives, bound monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes showed differences  
20 among varieties in quantity and profiles during berry ripening. Quantitatively, the most of total  
21 monoterpenes, C-13 norisoprenoids and sesquiterpenes were detected after acid hydrolysis. Among pre-  
22 fermentative norisoprenoids, exclusively  $\beta$ -ionone was detected with different kinetics among varieties.  
23 Monoterpene accumulation started around véraison with the exception of (E)-geranylacetone, whose  
24 content was already high at véraison. (E)-geranylacetone, deriving from the degradation of carotenoids,  
25 could become a target molecule to study indirectly the accumulation of carotenoids.

26 Data allowed to measure the global aroma potential and the pre-fermentative volatiles of grapes: result  
27 interpretation suggested a number of implications on biosynthetic processes that have been addressed.

28

29 Keywords: pre-fermentative volatiles; global aroma potential; C6 compounds; monoterpenes;  
30 sesquiterpenes; norisoprenoids.

31

## 32 **Introduction**

33

34 Volatiles of grape berries include molecules from different chemical classes that are essential for wine  
35 quality and typicality; many of these compounds are final or intermediate compounds of different  
36 metabolite pathways and play important ecological roles in plants. These compounds are present mainly  
37 in grape skin [1] and their concentration depends on many factors such as grape variety, vine physiology,  
38 soil management and growing area. Some grape genotypes show relatively high flavor (in particular  
39 monoterpene) concentration in the berry skins (“aromatic varieties”, *e.g.* Muscat), whereas others have a  
40 lower, albeit perceptible, content (“neutral varieties”). Many investigations have dealt with monoterpene  
41 profile in muscat-flavored varieties since longtime, whereas studies on volatiles of neutral varieties are  
42 more recent [2,3]. Most grape volatiles are ascribed to the chemical classes of benzenoids (with an  
43 important ecological role in plant interactions [4]), aliphatic aldehydes and alcohols, and lipid derivatives.  
44 Aldehyde and alcohol lipid derivatives (C6 and C9 compounds) are produced in plants by hydroperoxide  
45 lyase in response to wounding and play an important role in plant defense strategies [5]. They are  
46 produced at the crushing of berries and represent the majority of varietal pre-fermentative (*i.e.* determined  
47 in berry tissues before alcoholic fermentation) grape volatiles [3,6,7]. Oliveira and co-workers (2006) [8]  
48 have attributed to C6 aldehydes and alcohols important roles in wine classification, indicating the ratio  
49 between (*E*)-3-hexenol and (*Z*)-3-hexenol as a useful tool to distinguish monovarietal wines. Recently, the  
50 expression of two hydroperoxide lyases (*VvHPL1* and *VvHPL2*), has been characterized in Cabernet  
51 Sauvignon berries and was shown to peak at veraison [9].

52 Two other major classes of grape berry volatiles include terpenoids and C-13 norisoprenoids, whose  
53 flavor characterizes fresh berries, musts and wines of many genotypes. They are present in berries as free  
54 or glycosylated forms: the former can be released from the latter following the action of grape and yeast  
55 enzymes, or by acid-catalyzed reactions in the wine. To analyze grape volatile precursors there are two  
56 main strategies: enzymatic hydrolysis and acid hydrolysis. The efficacy of these methods is related to the  
57 chemical family of compounds. The main criticism to acid hydrolysis, raised in the past, is that it can  
58 induce rearrangements of the chemical structures of some aglycones, such as cyclation in monoterpenes.  
59 However Loscos *et al.* (2009)[10] found that several monoterpenes, such as linalool,  $\alpha$ -terpineol, geraniol,  
60 nerol and  $\beta$ -citronellol formed during acid hydrolysis were closely correlated with analogues formed

61 during alcoholic fermentation. Moreover, acid hydrolysis was found efficient to study norisoprenoids [11]  
62 and the levels of hydrolytically liberated  $\beta$ -damascenone in grapes could closely predict the levels of free  
63  $\beta$ -damascenone in the corresponding wines after one year of ageing [12]. Volatiles released after acid  
64 hydrolysis represent the grape global aroma potential and were effectively used in the characterization of  
65 neutral grapes [13]. Deglycosylation allowed the identification of some important C13-norisoprenoids,  
66 such as vitispirane,  $\beta$ -damascenone [14], Riesling acetale and TDN [15]. Both aglycones in the free form  
67 and acid hydrolysis-derived norisoprenoids have been used to characterize grapevine varieties [11, 13].

68 A crucial point of volatile determination in grape berries is the extraction method used as different  
69 extraction techniques can minimize or maximize the extraction of peculiar classes of volatiles [16]. A  
70 semi-rapid technique, based on the use of stir bars packed with polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS-SBSE) has  
71 been employed to assess pre-fermentative varietal volatiles [2, 17, 18] and global aroma potential [13] in  
72 *Vitis vinifera* grapes. The effectiveness of the SBSE technique use in different matrix, including grape and  
73 must, has recently been reviewed [19].

74 Nebbiolo, Dolcetto, and Barbera are the most cultivated red grape varieties in Piedmont (North-Western  
75 Italy). Nebbiolo is the basis of high quality wines defined by the growing area: 'Barolo' DOCG  
76 (Denomination of Controlled and Guaranteed Origin), 'Barbaresco' DOCG, 'Nebbiolo d'Alba' DOC  
77 (Denomination of Controlled Origin) and 'Roero' DOCG. Dolcetto is a red early-ripening cultivar of  
78 Piedmont, giving rise to several VQPRD wines: 'Dogliani' and 'Diano d'Alba' DOCG, 'Dolcetto d'Alba'  
79 DOC, all arising from the Langhe district. Barbera is one of the most important red-grape variety grown  
80 in Italy; in Piedmont Barbera is the base cultivar for the production of some appreciated red wines, such  
81 as 'Barbera d'Alba' DOC, 'Barbera del Monferrato' and 'Barbera d'Asti' DOCG.. Despite their  
82 economical importance, at present there is little information about the profile and evolution of volatiles in  
83 grapes from these varieties, even though knowing the volatile concentration and potential at different  
84 stages of ripening could help to optimize the date of harvest [2, 20], in match with other maturity indices  
85 (*i.e.* sugar/acidity ratio, phenolic maturity).

86 The aim of this study was to characterize the concentration of pre-fermentative and acid-released volatiles  
87 of 'Nebbiolo', 'Dolcetto' and 'Barbera' by SBSE-GC/MS. To this aim we collected grapes from  
88 commercial vineyards from véraison to harvest; each variety was studied in its typical cultivation site,  
89 corresponding to a specific DOC or DOCG wine. Our results describe the accumulation kinetics of  
90 volatiles in the three genotypes, and offer new insights for the study of key steps of volatile biosynthesis

91 in grapes. Moreover, we propose some molecules as chemical markers of each variety and we point out  
92 possible differences among genotypes.

93

## 94 **Materials and Methods**

### 95 *Vineyard description and sampling.*

96

97 The study was carried out in 2010 in three vineyards, one of ‘Nebbiolo’, one of ‘Dolcetto’ and one of  
98 ‘Barbera’; each vineyard was located within one of the Denomination of Origin areas of the variety,  
99 respectively in the sites of Barbaresco-Montestefano for ‘Nebbiolo’ (Barbaresco DOCG, Ca’ Neuva  
100 Winery), Treiso for ‘Dolcetto’ (Dolcetto d’Alba DOC, Pellissero Luigi winery) and Monforte d’Alba for  
101 ‘Barbera’ (Barbera d’Alba DOC, Podere Ruggeri Corsini winery).

102 ‘Nebbiolo’ vines were grafted onto ‘Kober 5 BB’, planted at a spacing of 2.40 by 0.90 m; the vineyard  
103 was South-exposed with East-West row orientation. ‘Dolcetto’ vines were grafted onto ‘420 A’, planted  
104 at 2.50 × 0.90 m; the vineyard was West-exposed with North-South row orientation. ‘Barbera’ (clone  
105 CVT 83) vines were grafted onto ‘420 A’; vines were planted with a spacing of 2.50 × 0.70 m with  
106 NNW-SSE row orientation and East exposure. The vines of the three vineyards were vertically shoot  
107 positioned (VSP) trained and pruned according to the Guyot system. In 2010 climatic conditions were  
108 similar in Barolo and Barbaresco whereas in Treiso temperatures were cooler, resulting in a lower GGD  
109 over the vegetative period (March-October, 1645 GDD), and the weather was rainier (about 100 mm of  
110 rain more than in Barolo and Barbaresco).

111 For each vineyard, three field replicates of 20-25 contiguous vines in a row were established; 250-300  
112 berries were collected from each field replicate from both sides of the canopy, to avoid the influence of  
113 different exposure to solar radiation on volatile accumulation [26]. Berries were detached from the rachis  
114 in small groups of 3 to 5 each from the upper, the middle and the bottom part of each cluster (about 60  
115 clusters sampled per each field replicate). Berries were stored in portable refrigerators and transported to  
116 the laboratory; berries were severed from the rachis and a subgroup of 200 berries was weighed and  
117 stored at – 20°C until volatile analysis. The remaining berries were crushed and the must soluble solids  
118 were measured with a digital refractometer (ATAGO, PR-32).

119

120 *Determination of volatile compounds by stir bar sorptive extraction gas*  
121 *chromatography-mass spectrometry (SBSE-GC/MS).*

122

123 For the analysis of pre-fermentative volatiles, frozen berries were crushed for 2 min in a common robot  
124 for domestic use without breaking seeds. 10 g of homogenized grapes were diluted to 100 mL with  
125 distilled water and a solution of 2-heptanol ( $\geq 97\%$ , Sigma-Adrich, St. Louis, MO) was added as internal  
126 standard for semi-quantification. After 30 min of extraction, 20 mL of the aqueous grape extract was  
127 transferred into a screw-cap vial and stirred with a PDMS-coated stir bar (0.5 film thickness, 10 mm  
128 length, Twister®, Gerstel, Mulheim and der Ruhr, Germany) for 6 hours at room temperature (20°C)  
129 [2,18]. The stir bar was then removed from the sample, rinsed with distilled water, dried with soft paper,  
130 and transferred into a thermal desorption unit for GC/MS analysis. Attention was paid to the time spent  
131 for each sample preparation to avoid that samples were subjected to different periods of de-freezing and  
132 extraction.

133 To measure the global aroma potential of grapes, we measured the concentration of volatiles released by  
134 acid hydrolysis [as reported in Pedroza et al. 2010 \[13\]](#). To this aim, we added to 20 mL of the aqueous  
135 grape extract a citric acid solution 2 M to reach pH 2.5. For quantitative purposes, 2-heptanol was used as  
136 internal standard. The acidified suspension was stirred at 600 rpm with Twister® for 2 hours at 70°C in a  
137 water bath [13]. At the end of the extraction, the stir bar was removed from the sample, rinsed with  
138 distilled water, dried with soft paper and transferred into a thermal desorption unit for GC/MS analysis.

139 Volatile compounds sorbed on the Twister® were desorbed in a thermal desorption unit (TDU, Gerstel,  
140 Mulheim and der Ruhr, Germany) in the splitless mode. The temperature program for thermal desorption  
141 was the following: 30°C for 6 seconds, then ramping at 120°C/min to 280°C, than 280°C for 1 min. The  
142 desorbed analytes were cryo-focused at 0°C using liquid CO<sub>2</sub>, in a programmed temperature vaporization  
143 (PTV) injector (CIS 4, Gerstel, Germany); the cryo-focalized analytes were transferred to the GC column  
144 by ramping at 12°C/s until 300°C (held for 6.00 min). Helium was used as the carrier gas, at a flow rate of  
145 1 mL/min, in a DB-WAX J&W 122-7032 (30 m × 0,25 µm × 0,25 mm ID) column. GC-MS analysis was  
146 performed using a 7890A gas chromatograph interfaced with 5975 C mass spectrometer (Agilent  
147 Technologies). The oven GC initial temperature was set at 40°C for 10 min, rose to 180°C at a rate of  
148 2.5°C/min, then to 200°C at a rate of 1°C/min, and was finally maintained at 200°C for 10 min. The

149 transfer line temperature was 280°C. After each desorption the magnetic stir bars were cleaned by  
150 immersion in acetonitrile for 24 hours (stirring during the first hour).

151 The identification of compounds was performed using NIST and Wiley libraries spectra (NIST-05a;  
152 Wiley7). Furthermore, for qualitative identification purposes, Kovats indices of identified compounds  
153 were calculated using an alkane standard mixture C10–C40 (Sigma–Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) as reference  
154 for retention times. Volatile compounds were quantified only when they were present in at least two  
155 replicates out of the three for each sample. The results were expressed as microgram equivalents of  
156 internal standard per Kg of fresh berry weight.

157 When a compound was detected both as pre-fermentative volatile and as global aroma potential its  
158 concentration as acid-released form was calculated by subtracting its free-form concentration from that  
159 detected after acid hydrolysis [as suggested by Pedroza \*et al.\* \(2010\) \[13\]](#).

160 On the basis of their mass-spectrum profile and with the aid of Nist and Wiley libraries we attempted to  
161 identify these sesquiterpenes:

162 Sesquiterpene 1: 43.97 min.; mass spectrum: 119 105 133 41 93 91 107 55 204 121; MW 204; C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>24</sub>;  
163  $\alpha$ -longipinene;

164 Sesquiterpene 2: 44.04 min.; mass spectrum: 41 161 91 93 105 107 204 79 69 133; MW 204; C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>24</sub>;  
165 (+)-aromadendrene;

166 Sesquiterpene 3: 50.48 min.; mass spectrum: 157 147 142 173 91 55 77 69 115 200 ; MW 200; C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>20</sub>;  
167 not identified;

168 Sesquiterpene 4: 60.40 min.; mass spectrum: 161 189 204 41 105 91 119 133 27 55; MW 204; C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>24</sub>;  
169 cadinene;

170 Sesquiterpene 5: 61.83 min.; mass spectrum: 183 198 168 184 153 165 152 167 169 141; MW 198;  
171 C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>18</sub>; cadalene.

172

### 173 *Statistical analysis.*

174 One separate extraction and analysis was performed for each [field](#) replicate. The data of each replicate  
175 were averaged and standard errors of averages were calculated. [Results are shown as the mean of the](#)  
176 [three field replicates. On data reported in tables 1 and 2, we performed an analysis of variance \(SPSS](#)  
177 [Statistics 22.0, IBM ®\) using Tukey-b as a post-hoc setting  \$\alpha = 0.05\$  to assess significance.](#)

178

## 179 **Results**

### 180 *Total pre-fermentative and acid hydrolysis-released volatiles.*

181

182 From véraison to harvest, the pre-fermentative total volatile compounds of Nebbiolo (N) constantly  
183 increased (Fig. 1a), whereas in Dolcetto (D) grapes total pre-fermentative volatiles increased until 30 dpv  
184 with a successive decrease until harvest (Fig. 1 a). Barbera (B) grapes displayed a plateau phase between  
185 30 and 50 dpv (Fig. 1 a).

186 The accumulation trend of acid hydrolysis-released products showed a peak at 10 dpv in N, followed by a  
187 decreasing trend until 30 dpv and by a successive increase until harvest (Fig. 2 a). D showed a linear  
188 accumulation trend from 30 dpv onwards, whereas no major differences were detected in B during the  
189 examined period. However, at harvest (about 50 dpv) no significant differences were detected among  
190 varieties (Fig. 2 a).

191

### 192 *Pre-fermentative C6 compounds.*

193

194 C6 compounds were detected throughout the berry ripening (Fig. 2 a); C6 compound concentration  
195 increased in the three varieties over the studied period and at harvest D showed the lowest concentration  
196 in comparison with N and B. The accumulation of hexanal increased from véraison to harvest in N and B  
197 (Fig. 3 a). N and D did not accumulate (Z)-3-hexenal in contrast to B, where it appeared 30 days after  
198 veraison (Fig. 3 c). Furthermore, in N, (Z)-3-hexen-1-ol was detected, whereas it was not found in B and  
199 D (Fig. 3 e). N and B showed a higher concentration of (E)-2-hexenal than D around 30 and 50 dpv,  
200 respectively (Fig. 3 b). Hexyl-acetate was exclusively accumulated in B grapes (Fig. 3 h).

201

### 202 *Other pre-fermentative(non C6) aliphatic aldehydes.*

203

204 At 50 dpv N grapes displayed the highest aldehyde concentration and, in general, showed a constant  
205 accumulation during ripening with a subsequent reduction in correspondence of harvest, whereas in D  
206 grape aldehyde concentration was more or less constant(Fig. 1 c). In B grapes a rapid decrease of

207 aldehyde concentration was detected immediately after véraison followed by a peak of maximum  
208 concentration around 30 dpv (Fig. 1 c).

209

#### 210 *Pre-fermentative alcohols.*

211

212 D showed a more complex qualitative profile than N and B, accumulating 2-methyl-4-octanol and  
213 dodecanol, during ripening (Tab. 1; Tab. 4 in supplementary data). D showed the highest alcohol  
214 concentration during all stages of ripening, whereas N and B showed comparable concentration over  
215 ripening (Fig. 1 d).

216

#### 217 *Pre-fermentative benzenoids .*

218

219 These compounds showed the tendency to decrease (in N and D) or to remain stable (B) during ripening  
220 (Fig. 1 e). Qualitative differences were detected among varieties, as shown in table 1 and tables 3, 4 and 5  
221 (supplementary data).

222 After hot acid hydrolysis, zingerone (Tab. 6 in supplementary data), a methoxyphenol compound  
223 involved in wine aroma definition, was detected exclusively in N grapes at 47 dpv.

224

#### 225 *Pre-fermentative and acid hydrolysis-released monoterpenes.*

226

227 Total pre-fermentative monoterpenes showed different concentrations and accumulation trends in the  
228 three examined varieties (Fig. 1 f). Qualitative differences were detected among varieties (Tab. 1 and  
229 supplementary Tables 3, 4 and 5). In N grapes the total concentration of acid hydrolysis-released  
230 monoterpenes was already high 10 dpv; then, the lowest concentrations were concomitant with the 2<sup>nd</sup>  
231 and the 3<sup>rd</sup> sampling dates, followed by a successive increase of concentration until harvest (Fig. 2 b) . B  
232 and D showed similar accumulation trends and concentrations of acid hydrolysis-released monoterpenes,  
233 however their concentration was much more lower than that detected in N grapes in the first stage of  
234 ripening (Fig. 2 b). At harvest the concentrations of monoterpene precursors, released after acid  
235 hydrolysis was much higher than that of pre-fermentative forms in all three examined varieties (Tab. 2).

236



237 *Pre-fermentative and acid hydrolysis-released norisoprenoids.*

238

239  $\beta$ -ionone was the only pre-fermentative detected norisoprenoid. N grapes showed a decrease of  $\beta$ -ionone  
240 concentration since 10 dpv to harvest (Fig. 1 g). D and B showed a lower concentration respect to N at 12  
241 dpv and in pre-véraison (-5 dpv), respectively (Fig. 1 g). However, D showed a decreasing trend whereas  
242 B displayed an increase from 23 to 32 dpv and a successive decrease until harvest (Fig. 1 g).

243 The three varieties did not show any difference in terms of quality profile of bound norisoprenoids, except  
244 for  $\alpha$ -ionene which was exclusively detected in B at 23 dpv (Tab. 8 in supplementary data).

245

246 *Pre-fermentative and acid hydrolysis-released sesquiterpenes.*

247

248 At harvest total pre-fermentative sesquiterpene concentration (Tab. 1) was higher in B grapes respect to D  
249 which, conversely showed the highest concentration of acid hydrolysis-released Sesquiterpenes (Tab. 2):  
250 417.5  $\mu\text{g/Kg}$  against 21.6  $\mu\text{g/Kg}$  for N and 23.9  $\mu\text{g/Kg}$  for B.

251 In this study we did not observe the presence of pre-fermentative sesquiterpenes in N grapes, whereas D  
252 accumulated sesquiterpene 3 and B sesquiterpene 2 (Tab. 1; Tab. 3 and 4 in supplementary data).  
253 Conversely, B exclusively accumulated sesquiterpene 2 since 23 dpv until harvest, with a constant  
254 accumulation trend over the studied period (Tab. 1; Tab 5 in supplementary data).

255 Sesquiterpenes released after acid hydrolysis in N and B showed a constant plateau phase from véraison  
256 to harvest whereas D displayed an important increase (Fig. 2 d). The profile of bound sesquiterpenes was  
257 different among the studied varieties, as shown in table 2 and tables 6, 7 and 8 in supplementary data.

258

## 259 **Discussion**

260

261 In this work we identified and quantified some volatile precursors after acid hydrolysis, namely  
262 monoterpenes, norisoprenoids and sesquiterpenes whereas aldehydes and alcohols, including C6 and C9  
263 derivatives and benzene derivatives, were found exclusively without acid hydrolysis so they were  
264 classified as pre-fermentative volatiles. As studies focused on sesquiterpene accumulation in *Vitis vinifera*  
265 are a few and quite recent [21] at present there are no information about the efficacy of acid hydrolysis to  
266 assess them. In berries sesquiterpenes were measured both from the headspace [21] and after

267 homogenization (in strawberries) [22]. Our data indicate the existence of sesquiterpenes in low amounts  
268 as pre-fermentative volatiles whereas they were present in higher concentration after acid hydrolysis,  
269 probably indicating they mainly exist as glycosides.

270 During ripening, in Nebbiolo and in Barbera a significant positive correlation between sugar and total  
271 pre-fermentative volatile accumulation ( $R^2 = 0.62$  for Nebbiolo;  $R^2 = 0.92$  for Barbera) was detected, in  
272 agreement with a previous study [2] on the colored varieties Monastrell. On the other hand, in Dolcetto we  
273 could not detect any correlation between sugars and total pre-fermentative volatiles ( $R^2 = 0.05$ ) as  
274 maximum pre-fermentative volatile accumulation was reached before maximum sugar content. This  
275 pattern was also previously observed. Versini *et al.* (1981) [23] indicated that the maximum 'aroma' can  
276 be attained before sugars have been accumulated. Vilanova *et al.* (2012) [7] reported that flavor maturity  
277 and technological maturity are not simultaneous, because they did not find any correlation between  
278 volatile evolution and total soluble solid accumulation in cv. Agudelo, Blanco lexitimo, Godello and  
279 Serradelo. In the white varieties Airen, Macabeo and Chardonnay, a non-uniform evolution of volatiles  
280 during ripening was described [24], highlighting the difficulty to establish grape maturity on the basis of  
281 volatile accumulation.

282 Volatiles derived from oxydation of lipids were detected in all stages of ripening: it is known that  
283 lipoxygenation of fatty acids is a plant response to biotic and abiotic stress and leads to the formation of  
284 the so-called 'oxylipins' that include the phytohormone jasmonic acid, hydroxy-, oxo- or keto-fatty acids  
285 and volatile aldehydes [25]. The three varieties examined in this study showed diversity in the profile and  
286 evolution of these compounds, underlying the existence of lipoxygenases with different activity,  
287 activation timing and, probably, acting on different substrates. Hexanal and E-2-hexenal, the most  
288 important product of lipoxygenation, were much more concentrated in Nebbiolo and Barbera than in  
289 Dolcetto; on the contrary hexanal increased during ripening in all genotypes, in agreement with Kalua and  
290 Boss (2010) [3]. In Cabernet Sauvignon berries, the expressions of VvHPL1 acting on 13-hydroperoxides  
291 and forming C6 compounds and of VvHPL2 acting on both 13- and 9-hydroxyperoxides and forming C6  
292 and C9 compounds were detected about 2 weeks after flowering and peaks of activity were at 12 and 14  
293 weeks after flowering, respectively; C6 compounds were accumulated in correspondence until 10 weeks  
294 after flowering and thereafter a reduction, probably due to the transformation of aldehydes into the  
295 correspondent alcohols, was detected [9]. In the varieties we studied, the accumulation trend during  
296 ripening was in line with the timing of enzyme expression in Cabernet Sauvignon, but the final reduction

297 of C6 compound concentration was not detected; this could be ascribed to differences in alcohol  
298 dehydrogenase activity due to the genotype or to the cultivation environment. In Nebbiolo, in particular,  
299 the absence of (Z)-3-hexenal (Fig. 3c) but the presence of (Z)-3-hexen-1-ol (Fig. 3e) suggests the specific  
300 activity of an alcohol dehydrogenase, whereas this enzyme may be absent or not expressed in Barbera  
301 (where (Z)-3-hexen-1-ol was absent). In a previous work on Nebbiolo grapes from three different  
302 growing locations (Z)-3-hexenal was never detected [18], suggesting that the absence of the aldehyde is  
303 more a genetic mark than an environmental effect. In effect, (Z)-3-hexen-1-ol concentrations in berries  
304 have been previously reported to be cultivar-dependent [3, 6, 26]. The high concentration of (E)-2-  
305 hexenal in Nebbiolo and Barbera throughout ripening (Fig. 3b), suggests an important role of enal  
306 isomerases in these two varieties, as suggested by Kalua and Boss (2010) [3] in Riesling and Cabernet  
307 Sauvignon. Besides, the lipoxygenase activity on linolenic acid (C18:3) is evidenced by the accumulation  
308 of (Z)-3-hexenal (only in B), E-2-hexenal, (Z)-3-hexen-1-ol (only in N) which, on the contrary, could not  
309 be active in D where (Z)-3-hexenal and (Z)-3-hexen-1-ol were not accumulated. The high concentration of  
310 (E,Z)-2,6-nonadienal (Fig. 3g), a product of linolenic acid peroxidation via the formation of 9-  
311 hydroperoxides, could suggest a high expression of *VvHPL2* in Nebbiolo. The contents of (E)-2-  
312 nonenal and (E,Z)-2,6-nonadienal (Tab. 3, 4, 5 in supplementary data) were rather low respect to C6  
313 volatiles, in line with data reported for Cabernet Sauvignon and they were almost absent in B, confirming  
314 what was described by Zhu *et al.* (2012) [9] and suggested by Kalua and Boss (2010) [3] that the  
315 degradation of fatty acids is mainly due to 13-LOXs and to 13-HPLs (which lead to the biosynthesis of  
316 C6) rather than to 9-LOXs and 9-HPLs. Interestingly, we noticed that Barbera berries did not accumulate  
317 C9 (except nonadienal at harvest; [Tab.1](#)), suggesting a very strong varietal influence on this metabolism.  
318 The presence of hexyl acetate (a C6-moiety ester) (Fig. 3h) limited to Barbera grapes suggests the activity  
319 of an alcohol acetyl transferase (AAT) on hexan-1-ol in this genotype. Moreover, this compound showed  
320 a decrease during ripening, implying that AAT activity decreased after véraison. To the best of our  
321 knowledge, nothing is known in *Vitis* on the specificity of alcohol acyltransferases; in *Malus domestica*  
322 the existence of a varietal effect on this enzyme was suggested as different enzyme haplotypes were  
323 detected in different varieties able to attain high or low ester concentrations [27]. Besides, an effect of  
324 MdAAT2 on the response to biotic and abiotic stress was detected in transformed tobacco leaves [28].  
325 Differences among varieties were found in concentration and profile of benzene derivatives.  
326 Benzaldehyde was detected in all varieties, but the derived benzylalcohol was present only in Nebbiolo

327 and Barbera grapes, consistently with a cultivar specificity observed in previous studies [3,24,29]. This  
328 finding suggests a varietal influence on the dehydrogenation pathway from benzaldehyde to the  
329 corresponding alcohol. In terms of quality of derived wines, these concentration aspects are important  
330 because sensory attributes of benzene derivatives depend on their concentration and on their reciprocal  
331 ratio [30]. Other benzenoid compounds may help to discriminate neutral grapevine varieties, though the  
332 biosynthetic origin of many of them is not known. For instance, Nebbiolo (Tab 1 and Tab. 3 in  
333 supplementary data) did not accumulate cinnamaldehyde, Dolcetto (Tab.1 and Tab. 4 in supplementary  
334 data) and Barbera (Tab. 1 and Tab. 5 in supplementary data) did not accumulate 2-phenoxy-ethanol (rose  
335 ether); methyl vanillate was present only in Dolcetto grapes (Tab. 1). Eugenol was detected exclusively at  
336 harvest in Barbera berries (Tab. 1); correspondingly, in a previous study on Nebbiolo grapes from  
337 different growing locations, no eugenol was detected [18].

338 Concerning monoterpenes, Nebbiolo showed a lower concentration respect to Barbera and Dolcetto; these  
339 latter two exhibited a more complex profile characterized by a number of specific molecules (isomenthol  
340 in Barbera and  $\beta$ -myrcene in Dolcetto). Monoterpene accumulation started around véraison with the  
341 exception of (E)-geranylacetone, whose content was already high at véraison. This aspect might depend  
342 on the different biosynthetic origin of this molecule respect to the other terpenes: indeed, (E)-  
343 geranylacetone derives from phytoene by carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 1 (CCD1) [30], so timing and  
344 type of its biosynthesis could be rather different from those of other terpene compounds whose  
345 biosynthesis was ascribed to monoterpene-synthases at flowering [31] and to other specific terpene-  
346 synthases activated during ripening [32]. (E)-geranylacetone deriving from the degradation of carotenoids  
347 (like abscissic acid, ABA) could become a target molecule to study indirectly the accumulation of  
348 carotenoids, thus a possible indicator of the vine early response to abiotic conditions, light in particular,  
349 being known that light has a direct influence on carotenoid accumulation [33, 34]. Currently, no  
350 information is available on the sensorial role of (E)-geranylacetone in grapes and derived wines, and  
351 about its fate during wine aging, even though a floral aroma descriptor was associated to its isomer (Z)-  
352 geranylacetone [35].

353 Monoterpene glycosides reached higher concentration than pre-fermentative forms during all stages of  
354 ripening, as noted in other grape genotypes [36, 37]. In a previous study, Di Stefano *et al.* (1998) [38]  
355 showed that Barbera grapes at harvest had few monoterpenes in the bound form compared to Nebbiolo. In  
356 this study similar concentrations of bound monoterpenes were detected at harvest among varieties, but

357 major differences were detected at early stages of berry ripening. The complexity of terpene profiles from  
358 acid hydrolysis was much higher in Nebbiolo respect to the other genotypes, which probably justifies the  
359 typical flavor fingerprint of Nebbiolo wines, also after long term storage. Grape juice heat treatment gives  
360 rise to changes in the terpene composition: Williams *et al.*, (1980) [39] described reaction mechanisms for  
361 the production of some monoterpenes from linalool as a precursor. Moreover, it was assessed that  
362 temperature and acid hydrolysis can induce the rearrangement of bound monoterpenes into free  
363 monoterpenes [39]. From data of the present study, however, as we treated grapes from the three varieties  
364 in the same way we can conclude 1) that both pre-fermentative and acid hydrolysis monoterpenes are  
365 cultivar related and 2) by exploiting the chemical transformation of terpenes following heat treatments at  
366 low pH, we were able to detect a number of compounds (among which cyclic  $\alpha$ -terpineol) whose  
367 concentration depends on the concentration of other terpene molecules from which they derive due to  
368 chemical cyclization.

369 The varietal volatile fingerprint of neutral grapes (and their corresponding monovarietal wines), also  
370 depends on norisoprenoid concentrations. The only pre-fermentative form detected in the three varieties  
371 was  $\beta$ -ionone. This molecule is important in vegetables due to its floral aroma [40] and it possesses a low  
372 sensorial threshold of 0.09  $\mu\text{g/L}$  [26]. Nebbiolo and Dolcetto showed a decrease in free  $\beta$ -ionone  
373 concentration during ripening whereas Babera displayed a later reduction, between 32 dpv and harvest.  
374 Kalua and Boss (2010) [3] reported the presence of norisoprenoids in grape prior to véraison. In tomato  
375 Goff and Klee (2006) [41] imputed the role of these apocarotenoids in signaling ripeness and attracting  
376 seed-dispersing organism, including humans, because of their absence from vegetative tissues: this was  
377 confirmed in our lab in leaves of *Vitis vinifera* where we did not find norisoprenoids whereas we found  
378 them in tendrils, that are homologue organs to flowers (data not shown). The accumulation trend of  
379 norisoprenoids also depends on environmental condition [42] and on plant water status [43, 44]; in our  
380 case, we cannot exclude that the different kinetics detected were influenced not only by the different  
381 genotypes, but also by the different growing areas (*i.e.* water availability).

382 It has been proposed [42] that glycosylation, which occur between véraison and maturity, is responsible  
383 for the decrease of the concentration of free norisoprenoids. This hypothesis could help to explain the  
384 reduction of  $\beta$ -ionone in Dolcetto during ripening, because it showed a correspondent accumulation in the  
385 bound form after véraison, but not in Nebbiolo that showed a decrease after véraison. Among acid  
386 hydrolysis-released norisoprenoids, we found *trans*  $\beta$ -damascenone, which contributes to the floral and

387 fruity notes of wine and has a very low sensorial threshold in model solutions (45 ng/L) [41]. The higher  
388 concentration of vitispirane and 1,1,6-trimethyl-1,2-dihydronaftalene (TDN), known to give camphor and  
389 kerosene notes in wines [45], in Dolcetto grapes could explain the tendency of Dolcetto wines to present  
390 these notes. Sefton *et al.* (1989) [46], reported the acid-catalized mechanism formation of these molecules  
391 from megastigmane precursors and Winterhalter *et al.* (1991) [15] suggested that the potential levels of  
392 TDN upon aging may be predicted by analysis of the corresponding aglycone released at acid pH.  
393 Together with the genotype, factors such as cluster exposure to sunlight could have influenced the  
394 accumulation of TDN and vitispirane in Dolcetto [47]; as a matter of fact in Dolcetto, the North-South  
395 row orientation in a vineyard with West exposure, together with an early leaf removal were probably able  
396 to favour TDN and vitispirane accumulation in berries. We found differences in the qualitative profile and  
397 in the accumulation kinetics of sesquiterpenes. In literature, data about accumulation of these compounds  
398 are not always in agreement; Coelho *et al.* (2006) [48] reported that sesquiterpene accumulation in cv.  
399 Baga, from véraison to post-ripening, showed its maximum expression at maturity and then remained  
400 constant until post-ripening, whereas in cv. Riesling and Cabernet Sauvignon it was reported that  
401 sesquiterpenes significantly decreased towards harvest [3]. Our data show that the kinetics of these  
402 compounds depend on the terroir (genotype  $\times$  environment interaction); the same molecule, namely  
403 sesquiterpene 5, displayed different kinetics in the three varieties: its concentration was constant during  
404 ripening in Nebbiolo and Barbera, whereas it increased in Dolcetto. Lückner *et al.* (2004) [31] identified  
405 two sesquiterpene synthases in grapevine flowers and berries; these Authors reported that sesquiterpene  
406 synthase and monoterpene synthase transcripts were not detected in the mesocarp and exocarp during  
407 early stages of fruit development, because they are expressed only during late ripening. May *et al.* (2013)  
408 [49] demonstrated that sesquiterpene biosynthesis and accumulation in grape berries is restricted to the  
409 exocarp, particularly to wax layers. As we homogenized the entire berry we cannot indicate where  
410 sesquiterpenes were accumulated; however, finding no or trace amounts of sesquiterpenes as free pre-  
411 fermentative volatiles we can conclude that in grape berries the most of sesquiterpenes exist as  
412 glycosides.

413 The present study allowed to point out that C6 and C9 compounds, benzene derivatives, bound  
414 monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes showed differences in quantity and profiles during berry ripening (from  
415 véraison to harvest) among varieties. The fate of specific molecules such as (E)-geranylacetone, could be  
416 indicative of stress conditions, being known that this molecule, easily detectable by SBSE-GC/MS,

417 derives from carotenoid degradation. Quantitatively, the most of total monoterpenes, C-13 norisoprenoids  
418 and sesquiterpenes were detected after acid hydrolysis, showing that in neutral grapes they mostly exist as  
419 glycosides. This aspect is well known for monoterpenes and C-13 norisoprenoids but it has not been  
420 largely investigated as to sesquiterpenes.

421 Pre-fermentative norisoprenoids did not differ among varieties as exclusively  $\beta$ -ionone was accumulated  
422 (table 1), but differences were detected as to kinetics (figure 1). Further research should be devoted to  
423 investigate the possible role of  $\beta$ -ionone as a target molecule for signaling ripeness in *Vitis vinifera*  
424 reproductive tissues, similarly to other plant species.

425

## 426 **Conclusions**

427 Data allowed to study the kinetic of pre-fermentative volatiles and of global aroma potential in the berries  
428 of three economical important grape varieties: result interpretation suggested a number of implications on  
429 biosynthetic processes that have been addressed. For instance (E)-geranylacetone, deriving from the  
430 degradation of carotenoids, could become a target molecule to study indirectly the accumulation of  
431 carotenoids.

432 Data showed a high complexity of volatile compounds in all three cultivars, despite being neutral flavor  
433 varieties. Moreover, this study revealed differences in the accumulation kinetics of single molecules and  
434 differences in terms of qualitative profile. This aspect is very important for the technological choices and  
435 for typical varietal productive performance, but also to discriminate monovarietal wines with chemical  
436 markers. The results showed a considerable contribute of volatile in the free-form to define the typical  
437 aromatic composition; the free-forms are characterized especially by lipid derivatives, quantitatively very  
438 important as pre-fermentative compounds in the fresh must. Moreover, this study revealed the importance  
439 of sesquiterpenes, in free and bound forms, to discriminate non aromatic varieties; still, the sensorial role  
440 of these molecules in berry tasting and the influence of biotic and abiotic factors on their accumulation  
441 remain to be clarified.

442

## 443 **Acknowledgements**

444 Authors wish to thank the wineries: Ca' Neuva (Barbaresco, CN), Podere Ruggeri Corsini (Monforte  
445 d'Alba, CN) and Pellissero Luigi (Treiso, CN) for vineyard management and grape supplying. Servizio  
446 Agrometeorologico Regione Piemonte is gratefully acknowledged for providing meteorological data.

447 Financial support from Fondazione CRC, Project 'Tracciabilità dei vitigni piemontesi attraverso analisi  
448 delle componenti aromatiche'.

449

#### 450 **References**

- 451 1. Günata YZ, Bayonove C, Baumes RL, Cordonnier RE (1985) The aroma of Grapes. 1.  
452 Extraction and determination of free and glycosidically bound fractions of some aroma  
453 components. *J. Chrom. A* 331: 83-90
- 454 2. Salinas MR, Zalacain A, Pardo F, Alonso GL (2004) Stir bar sorptive extraction applied to  
455 volatile constituents evolution during *Vitis vinifera* ripening. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 52: 4821-  
456 4827
- 457 3. Kalua CM, Boss PK (2010) Comparison of major volatile compounds from Riesling and  
458 Cabernet Sauvignon grapes (*Vitis vinifera* L.) from fruit set to harvest. *Austr. J. Grape Wine*  
459 *R.* 16: 337-348
- 460 4. Pichersky E, Gershenzon J (2002) The formation and function of plant volatiles: perfumes for  
461 pollinator attraction and defense. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 5: 237-243
- 462 5. Matsui K (2006) Green leaves volatiles: hydroperoxide lyase pathway of oxylipin metabolism.  
463 *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 9: 274-280
- 464 6. Yang CX, Wang YJ, Liang ZC, Fan PG, Wu BH, Yang L, Wang YN, Li SH (2009) Volatiles  
465 of grape berries evaluated at the germoplasm level by headspace-SPME with GC-MS. *Food*  
466 *Chem.* 114: 1106-1114
- 467 7. Vilanova M, Genisheva Z, Bescansa L, Masa A, Oliveira JM (2012) Changes in free and bound  
468 fractions of aroma compounds of four *Vitis vinifera* cultivars at the last ripening stages  
469 *Phytochemistry* 74: 196-205
- 470 8. Oliveira JM, Faria M, Sà F, Barros F, Araújo IM (2006) C6-alcohols as varietal markers for  
471 assessment of wine origin. *Anal. Chim. Acta* 563: 300-309
- 472 9. Zhu BQ, Xu XQ, Wu YW, Duan CQ, Pan QH (2012) Isolation and characterization of two  
473 hydroperoxide lyase genes from grape berries. *Mol. Bio. Reports* 39: 7443-7455
- 474 10. Loscos N, Hernández-Orte P, Cacho J, Ferreira V (2009) Comparison of the suitability of  
475 different hydrolytic strategies to predict aroma potential of different grape varieties. *J. Agric.*  
476 *Food Chem.* 57: 2468-2480



- 477 11. Sefton MA, Francis JL, Williams PJ (1993) The volatile composition of Chardonnay juice: a  
478 study by flavor precursors analysis. *Am. J. Enol. Vitic.* 44: 359-371
- 479 12. Kotseridis Y, Baumes RL, Skouroumounis GK (1999) Quantitative determination of free and  
480 hydrolytically liberated  $\beta$ -damascenone in red grapes and wines using a stable isotope dilution  
481 assay. *J. Chrom. A.* 849: 245-254
- 482 13. Pedroza MA, Zalacain A, Lara JF, Salinas MR (2010) Global grape aroma potential and its  
483 individual analysis by SBSE-GC-MS. *Food Res. Int.* 43: 1003-1008
- 484 14. Williams PJ, Strauss CR, Wilson B, Massy-Westropp RA (1982) Studies on the hydrolysis of  
485 *Vitis vinifera* monoterpene precursor compounds and model  $\beta$ -D-glucosides rationalizing the  
486 monoterpene composition of grapes. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 30: 1219-1223
- 487 15. Winterhalter P (1991) 1,1,6-Trimethyl-1,2-dihydronaphthalene (TDN) formation in wine. 1.  
488 Studies on the hydrolysis of 2,6,10,10-tetramethyl-1-oxaspiro[4.5]dec-6-ene-2,8-diol  
489 rationalizing the origin of TDN and related C13 norisoprenoids in Riesling wine. *J. Agric. Food*  
490 *Chem.* 39: 1825-1829
- 491 16. Cabrita MJ, Costa Freitas AM, Laureano O, Di Stefano R (2006) Glycosidic aroma compounds  
492 of some Portuguese grape cultivar. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* 86: 922-931
- 493 17. Caven-Quantrill DJ, Buglass AJ (2007) Determination of volatile organic compounds in  
494 English vineyard grape juices by immersion stir bar sorptive extraction-gas  
495 chromatography/mass spectrometry. *Flavour Frag. J.* 22: 206-213
- 496 18. Ferrandino A, Carlomagno A, Baldassarre S, Schubert A (2012) Varietal and prefermentative  
497 volatiles during ripening of *Vitis vinifera* cv Nebbiolo berries from three growing areas. *Food*  
498 *Chem.* 135: 2340-2349
- 499 19. Camino-Sanchez FJ, Rodriguez-Gomez R, Zafra-Gomez A, Santos-Fandila A, Vilchez JL  
500 (2014) Stir bar sorptive extraction: recent applications, limitations and future trends. *Talanta*  
501 130:388-399
- 502 20. Coelho E, Rocha SM, Barros AS, Delgadillo I, Coimbra MA (2007) Screening of variety and  
503 pre-fermentation-related volatile compounds during ripening of white grapes to define their  
504 evolution profile. *Anal. Chim. Acta* 597:257-264
- 505 21. May B, Wüst M (2006) Temporal development of sesquiterpene hydrocarbon profiles of  
506 different grape varieties during ripening. *Flavour Frag. J.* 27: 280-285

- 507 22. Hampel D, Mosandl A, Wust M (2006) Biosynthesis of mono- and sesquiterpenes in strawberry  
508 fruits and foliage: H-2 labeling studies. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*54: 1473-1478
- 509 23. Versini G, Inama S, Sartori G (1981) A capillary column gas-chromatographic research into the  
510 terpene constituents of Riesling Renano wine from Trentino Alto Adige: Their distribution  
511 within berry, their passage into must and their presence in the wine according to different wine-  
512 making procedures. *Organoleptic considerations. Vini d'Italia XXIII*: 189-211
- 513 24. Garcia E, Chacon JL, Martinez J, Izquierdo PM (2003) Changes in volatile compounds during  
514 ripening in grapes of Airen, Macabeo and Chardonnay white varieties grown in La Mancha  
515 region (Spain). *Food Sci. Techn. Int.*9: 33-41
- 516 25. Mosblech A, Feussner I, Heilmann I (2009) Oxylipins: structurally diverse metabolites from  
517 fatty acid oxidation. *Plant Phys. Biochem.*47: 511-517
- 518 26. Ferreira V, Lòpez R, Cacho JF (2000) *Quantitative determination* of the odorants of young red  
519 wines from different grape varieties. *J. Sci. Food Agric.*80: 1659-1667
- 520 27. Dunemann F, Ulrich D, Malysheva-Otto L, Weber WE, Longhi S, Velasco R, Costa F (2012)  
521 Functional allelic diversity of the apple alcohol acyl-transferase gene MdAAT1 associated with  
522 fruit ester volatile contents in apple cultivars. *Mol. Breeding* 29: 609-621
- 523 28. Li D, Shen J, Wu T, Xu YF, Zong XJ, Li DQ, Shu HR (2008) Overexpression of the apple  
524 alcohol acyltransferase gene alters the profile of volatile blends in transgenic tobacco leaves.  
525 *Physiol. Plant.* 134: 394-402
- 526 29. De Rosso M, Panighel A, Carraro R, Padoan E, Favaro A, Dalle Vedove A, Flamini R (2010)  
527 Chemical characterization and enological potential of Raboso varieties by study secondary  
528 grape metabolites. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*58: 11364-11371
- 529 30. Schwab W, Davidovich-Rikanati R, Lewinsohn E (2008) Biosynthesis of plant-derived flavor  
530 compounds. *The Plant J.* 54: 712-732
- 531 31. Lückner J, Bowen P, Bohlmann J (2006) *Vitis vinifera* terpenoid cyclases: functional  
532 identification of two sesquiterpene synthase cDNAs encoding (+)-valencene synthase and (-)-  
533 germacrene D synthase and expression of mono- and sesquiterpene synthases in grapevine  
534 flowers and berries. *Phytochem.* 65: 2649-2659

- 535 32. Sweetman C, Wong DCJ, Ford CM, Drew DP (2013) Transcriptome analysis at four  
536 developmental stages of grape berry (*Vitis vinifera* cv Shiraz) provides insights into regulated  
537 and coordinated gene expression. *BMC Genomics* 13: 691-714
- 538 33. Berli FJ, Moreno D, Piccoli P, Hespanhol-Viana L, Fernanda Silva M, Bressan Smith R,  
539 Cagnaro BJ, Bottini R(2010) *Abscissic acid* is involved in the response of grape (*Vitis vinifera*  
540 L.) cv. Malbec leaf tissues to ultraviolet-B radiation by enhancing ultraviolet-absorbing  
541 compounds, antioxidant enzymes and membrane sterols. *Plant Cell Envir.*33: 1-10
- 542 34. Ferrandino A, Lovisolò C (2014) Abiotic stress effects on grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* L.): focus on  
543 abscissic acid-mediated consequences on secondary metabolism and berry quality. *Env. Exp.*  
544 *Botany* 103: 138-147
- 545 35. Fan W, Xu Y, Jiang W, Li J (2010) Identification and quantification of impact aroma  
546 compounds in 4 nonfloral *Vitis vinifera* grapes. *J. Food Sci.*75: 81-88
- 547 36. Park SK, Morrison JC, Adams DO, Noble AC (1991) Distribution of free and glycosidic bound  
548 monoterpenes in the skin and mesocarp of Muscat of Alexandria during development. *J. Agric.*  
549 *Food Chem.*39: 514-518
- 550 37. Hellin P, Manso A, Flores P, Fenoll J(2010) Evolution of aroma and phenolic compounds  
551 during ripening of “Superior seedless” grapes. *J. Agric.Food Chem.*58: 6334-6340
- 552 38. Di Stefano R, Bottero S, Pigella R, Borsa D, Bezzo G, Corino L (1998) Precursori d’aroma  
553 glicosilati presenti nelle uve di alcune cultivar a frutto colorato. *L’Enotecnico* marzo: 63-74
- 554 39. Williams PJ, Strauss CR, Wilson B (1980) Hydroxylated linalool derivatives as precursors of  
555 volatile monoterpenes of Muscat grapes . *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 28: 766-771
- 556 40. Ribéreau-Gayon P, Glories Y, Maujean A, Dubourdieu D(2003) *Trattato di Enologia II.*  
557 *Chimica del vino-Stabilizzazione e trattamenti.* Edagricole, Milan
- 558 41. Goff SA, Klee HJ (2006) Plant volatile compounds: sensory cues for health and nutritional  
559 value. *Science*311: 815-819
- 560 42. Razungles AJ, Baumes RL, Dufour C, Sznaper CN, Bayonove CL (1998) Effect of sun exposure  
561 on carotenoids and C13-norisoprenoid glycosides in Syrah berries (*Vitis vinifera* L.). *Sci.*  
562 *Aliment.*18: 361-373
- 563 43. Bindon KA, Dry PR, Loveys BR (2007) Influence of plant water status on the production of C-  
564 13 norisoprenoid precursors in *Vitis vinifera* L. cv Cabernet Sauvignon grape berries. *J. Agric.*  
565 *Food Chem.*55: 4493-4500

- 566 44. Oliveira C, Silva Ferreira AC, Mendes Pinto M, Hogg T, Alves F, Guedes de Pinho P (2003)  
567 Carotenoid compounds in grapes and their relationship to plant water status. J. Agric. Food  
568 Chem. 51: 5967-5971
- 569 45. Simpson R (1979) Aroma composition of bottle aged white wine. Vitis 18: 148-154
- 570 46. Sefton MA, Skouroumounis GK, Massy-Westropp RA, Williams PJ (1989) Norisoprenoids in  
571 *Vitis vinifera* white wine grapes and the identification of a precursors of damascenone in these  
572 fruits. Austr. J. Chem. 42: 20171-2084
- 573 47. Marais J, van Wik C, Rapp A (1992) Effect of sunlight and shade on norisoprenoid levels in  
574 maturing Weisser Riesling and Bukettraube. S. Afr. J. Enol. Vitic. 13: 23-32
- 575 48. Coelho E, Rocha SM, Delgadillo I, Coimbra MA (2006) Headspace-SPME applied to varietal  
576 volatile components evolution during *Vitis vinifera* L. cv “Baga” ripening. Anal. Chim. Acta  
577 563: 204-214
- 578 49. May B, Lange MB, Wüst M (2013) Biosynthesis of Sesquiterpenes in grape berry exocarp of  
579 *Vitis vinifera* L.: evidence for a transport of farnesyl diphosphate precursors from plastids to the  
580 cytosol. Phytochemistry. 95: 135-144
- 581
- 582
- 583
- 584
- 585
- 586
- 587
- 588
- 589
- 590
- 591
- 592
- 593
- 594
- 595

596  
597  
598  
599  
600  
601  
602

**Table 1**

Pre-fermentative volatile concentration (mean of three field replicates  $\pm$  standard errors) at harvest time of 'Nebbiolo', 'Dolcetto' and 'Barbera' grape berry. Data obtained by SBSE-GC/MS and expressed as  $\mu\text{g Kg}^{-1}$  of 2-heptanol equivalents; dpv = days post veraison; TSS = total soluble solids; bw = berry weight; KI = Kovats Index; nd = not detected. The data marked by different letters are significantly different according to the test Tukey-b ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ); ns = no significant differences.

	harvest time	1 <sup>st</sup> october 2010	17 <sup>th</sup> September 2010	23 <sup>rd</sup> September 2010
	dpv	55	43	46
	TSS (Brix)	24.2	18.0	25.5
	bw (g)	1.9	1.3	2.3
<b>KI</b>				
		<b>Nebbiolo</b>	<b>Dolcetto</b>	<b>Barbera</b>
<b>Aldehydes</b>				
octanal	1291	7.9 $\pm$ 1.2 ab	5.1 $\pm$ 0.2 b	11.0 $\pm$ 1.9 a
Z-2-heptenal	1324	14.0 $\pm$ 5.2 ns	37.2 $\pm$ 5.7 ns	39.0 $\pm$ 9.9 ns
nonanal	1386	nd	22.9 $\pm$ 1.2 ns	27.2 $\pm$ 7.9 ns
E-2-octenal	1412	nd	3.1 $\pm$ 1.7 b	6.9 $\pm$ 0.7 a
furfural	1457	113.9 $\pm$ 9.2 ns	100.1 $\pm$ 25.7 ns	112.5 $\pm$ 3.4 ns
decanal	1498	3.9 $\pm$ 1.2 ns	1.7 $\pm$ 0.9 ns	12.2 $\pm$ 4.1 ns
E-2-nonenal	1528	73.3 $\pm$ 13.8	nd	nd
E,Z-2,6-nonadienal	1580	46.9 $\pm$ 6.7 a	11.5 $\pm$ 0.8 b	9.9 $\pm$ 1.7 b
<b>Alcohols</b>				
2-ethyl-1-hexanol	1499	1.4 $\pm$ 0.8 b	7.2 $\pm$ 0.5 a	3.8 $\pm$ 0.6 b
1-octanol	1568	nd	26.7 $\pm$ 0.7	nd
E-2-octen-1-ol	1628	nd	23.6 $\pm$ 3.1 ns	13.8 $\pm$ 4.7 ns
furfurylic alcohol	1671	3.7 $\pm$ 1.4 ns	6.9 $\pm$ 1.3 ns	6.8 $\pm$ 1.2 ns
2-methyl-4-octanol	1807-	nd	13.0 $\pm$ 1.1	nd
<b>Benzenoids</b>				
benzaldehyde	1510	17.2 $\pm$ 1.8 ns	9.5 $\pm$ 0.9 ns	8.7 $\pm$ 3.6 ns
cinnamaldehyde	1588	nd	5.4 $\pm$ 0.1 a	3.2 $\pm$ 0.5 b
acetophenone	1639	18.9 $\pm$ 0.5 b	41.2 $\pm$ 2.6 a	27.5 $\pm$ 5.0 b
2-ethyl-benzaldehyde	1660	5.36 $\pm$ 0.0 ns	nd	4.2 $\pm$ 0.9 ns
benzyl alcohol	1887	20.7 $\pm$ 3.1	nd	nd
phenol	2031	10.3 $\pm$ 0.3 ns	12.0 $\pm$ 0.4 ns	12.4 $\pm$ 1.3 ns
eugenol	2172	nd	nd	4.2 $\pm$ 2.1
2-phenoxy ethanol	2308	27.3 $\pm$ 3.2	nd	nd
p-butyl-cresol	2258	6.1 $\pm$ 1.2 ns	7.8 $\pm$ 0.6 ns	9.7 $\pm$ 0.6 ns
trimethyl-tetrahydro-benzofuranone	2324	5.7 $\pm$ 1.1 ns	3.7 $\pm$ 0.6 ns	4.3 $\pm$ 0.5 ns
methyl vanillate	2390	nd	8.8 $\pm$ 0.5	nd
<b>Monoterpenes</b>				
$\beta$ -myrcene	1171	nd	13.0 $\pm$ 0.9	nd
D-limonene	1206	3.8 $\pm$ 1.9 b	13.7 $\pm$ 1.1 a	9.6 $\pm$ 1.9 ab
isomenthol	1648	nd	nd	2.3 $\pm$ 1.7
geranial	1731	nd	8.2 $\pm$ 0.7 a	4.8 $\pm$ 0.9 b
$\beta$ -citronellol	1783	10.2 $\pm$ 2.1 b	41.3 $\pm$ 3.2 a	12.3 $\pm$ 2.0 b
nerol	1813	nd	26.5 $\pm$ 2.0 a	7.6 $\pm$ 1.1 b
E-geranyl acetone	1861	17.0 $\pm$ 1.5 ns	13.2 $\pm$ 2.6 ns	17.2 $\pm$ 1.6 ns

geraniol	1864	nd	144.1±8.7 a	79.4±5.9 b
<b>C13-Norisoprenoids</b>				
β-ionone	1939	17.5±4.0 ns	25.1±1.0 ns	35.0±6.9 ns
<b>Sesquiterpenes</b>				
sesquiterpene 2	1706-	nd	nd	12.6±2.5
sesquiterpene 3	1906	nd	2.8±0.7	nd

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629  
630  
631  
632  
633  
634  
635

**Table 2**

Bound volatile concentration (mean of three field replicates  $\pm$  standard errors) at harvest time of 'Nebbiolo', 'Dolcetto' and 'Barbera' grape berry. Data obtained by SBSE-GC/MS and expressed as  $\mu\text{g Kg}^{-1}$  of 2-heptanol equivalents; dpv = days post veraison; TSS = total soluble solids; bw = berry weight; KI = Kovats Index; nd = not detected. The data marked by different letters are significantly different according to the test Tukey-b ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ); ns = no significant differences.

harvest time	1 <sup>st</sup> october 2010	17 <sup>th</sup> September 2010	23 <sup>rd</sup> September 2010	
dpv	55	43	46	
TSS (Brix)	24.2	18	25.5	
bw (g)	1.9	1.3	2.3	
<b>KI</b>				
	<b>Nebbiolo</b>	<b>Dolcetto</b>	<b>Barbera</b>	
<b>Monoterpenes</b>				
$\gamma$ -terpinene	1218	19.3 $\pm$ 3.2	nd	nd
p-cymene	1270	39.6 $\pm$ 14.2 ns	57.3 $\pm$ 24.5 ns	nd
dehydro-p-cymene	1422	31.4 $\pm$ 3.5 ns	88.9 $\pm$ 36.8 ns	nd
ho-trienol	1615	38.7 $\pm$ 3.0	nd	nd
$\alpha$ -terpineol	1703	nd	74.3 $\pm$ 2.0	nd
Z-geranylacetone	1831	nd	16.3 $\pm$ 8.1	nd
E-geranylacetone	1859	442.6 $\pm$ 23.9 b	322.8 $\pm$ 51.8 b	697.3 $\pm$ 42.8 a
<b>C13-Norisoprenoids</b>				
vitispirane	1515	136.1 $\pm$ 18.0 ns	694.3 $\pm$ 260.9 ns	306.8 $\pm$ 42.1 ns
TDN	1731	49.5 $\pm$ 9.2 ns	327.6 $\pm$ 141.6 ns	194.7 $\pm$ 85.1 ns
trans- $\beta$ -damascenone	1817	265.2 $\pm$ 83.0 a	62.8 $\pm$ 23.0 b	48.2 $\pm$ 26.1 b
$\beta$ -ionone	1936	56.6 $\pm$ 14.7 b	23.0 $\pm$ 2.1 c	101.3 $\pm$ 0.9 a
<b>Sesquiterpenes</b>				
sesquiterpene 1	1790	nd	334.6 $\pm$ 117.6	nd
sesquiterpene 4	2346	nd	44.2 $\pm$ 18.5	nd
sesquiterpene 5	2226	21.6 $\pm$ 4.6 ns	38.7 $\pm$ 17.0 ns	23.9 $\pm$ 4.5 ns

636  
637  
638