



AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

Key norisoprenoid compounds in wines from early-harvested grapes in view of climate change

This is the author's manuscript
Original Citation:
Availability:
This version is available http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1670924 since 2020-04-01T15:43:31Z
Published version:
DOI:10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.06.069
Terms of use:
Open Access
Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from convright protection by the applicable law

(Article begins on next page)

1	Aroma evaluation of wines from early-harvested grapes in view of climate change
2	Andriani Asproudi ^a , Alessandra Ferrandino ^b , Federica Bonello ^a , Enrico Vaudano ^a , Matteo Pollon ^b , Maurizio
3	Petrozziello ^{*a}
4	^a Consiglio per la ricerca in agricoltura e l'analisi dell'economia agraria (Italy) – Centro di ricerca Viticoltura
5	ed Enologia - CREA – VE, via P. Micca 35, Asti, Italy.
6	^b Dipartimento di Scienze Agrarie, Forestali e Alimentari – Università di Torino, Largo Braccini 2, 10095
7	Grugliasco (TO), Italy
8	*Corresponding Author
9	Email: maurizio.petrozziello@crea.gov.it
10	Phone:+39 0141433811
11	
12	Abstract
13	In view of climate change, the scheduling of an early harvest may be an agronomic option to limit wine alcohol
14	provided that, a satisfactory content of secondary metabolites is ensured in grapes. In order to better understand
15	the link between grape ripening, seasonal trend and wine aroma, the aromatic expression of Barbera and Pinot

16 Noir wines produced with early-harvested grapes was assessed. Major attention was focused on norisoprenoids 17 during both alcoholic fermentation and after three months of storage. At the end of fermentation, the highest 18 β-damascenone content was detected in wines obtained from less ripe grapes, then its content increased 19 significantly after 3 months of storage. Inversely, the levels of β -ionone decreased significantly during the 20 same period. The reduction of wine alcohol assessed by harvesting earlier especially for Barbera, was 21 associated to optimal aromatic levels as well as to good technological parameters.

22 Keywords 23 β-damascenone; β-ionone; Pinot noir; Barbera; carotenoids; early-harvest; wine, climate change

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Global warming and related climate change, mainly linked to anthropogenic factors, represent one of the most 26 important world issue. The consequences of these changes involve agriculture and have considerable 27 consequences both from a social and economic point of view (Barros, V. R., Field, C. B., Dokke, D. J., 28 Mastrandrea, M. D., Mach, K. J., Bilir, T. E. et al., 2014). Viticulture is one of the agricultural sector more 29 susceptible to these changes mainly due to its strict interaction with environment, soil, human choices 30 addressed to drive viticultural techniques, and tradition. If global change could exert its influence on, for 31 instance, cultivar distribution, the well-known and well-established combination variety-environment could 32 fail and many other aspects, such as cultivar distribution, phenological phases, vine productivity, vine pathologies could be influenced (Palliotti et al 2014; Sacchelli, Fabbrizzi, & Menghini, 2016). 33

34 Numerous studies have pointed out that during the last decades there has been an advance of the phenological 35 phases (Webb et al., 2012; Webb, Whetton, & Barlow, 2007), in particular flowering and veraison, compared 36 to what was considered "normal" for the vine and for a specific area (van Leeuwen & Darriet, 2016). The 37 increase in average temperatures of summer months as major consequence of climate change, as well as the 38 different distribution of rainfall during the ripening phase, led both to a higher concentration of sugar and to a 39 general change of the acidic profile of grapes, due, in particular, to the reduction of malic acid concentration. 40 Microbiologically, the must pH increase can facilitate the development of bacterial contamination in wine, 41 whereas the high sugar content may induce stuck fermentations or high production of unwanted by-products 42 such as acetic acid and glycerol (De Orduna, 2010).

Furthermore, in several viticulture areas, ripening occurs during the hottest part of the season, when both color and aroma profile can be adversely affected (Mori et al., 2007, Asproudi et. al., 2016). At high temperatures, vine metabolism is inhibited, leading to a lower accumulation of polyphenols and a lack of synchrony among the timing of sugar/acid balance and polyphenolic optimum, especially in Mediterranean conditions (Mori et al 2007; Tomasi, Jones, Giust, Lovat, & Gaiotti, 2011). Moreover, the improvement of vineyard management

48 (clonal choice, rootstocks, agronomic practices) together with the viticulturists' and political choices, oriented 49 to reduce yield per vine and to increase quality (sugars and polyphenols), combined with the series of 50 anomalous and warm summers, further contributed to increase the sugar content in grapes.

51 The excessive alcohol content of wines, resulting from exceptionally sugary grapes, has become an unwelcome 52 feature for the consumers. Nowadays the consumer orientation is directed to drinks with a moderate level of 53 alcohol, as a result both of health concerns and of significant changes in people preferences, mainly addressed 54 to more fresh and fruity wines (Caballero & Segura, 2017). From the sensorial point of view, the high alcohol 55 wine content has numerous organoleptic consequences such as the decrease in freshness and a change in the 56 perception of the aromatic bouquet. In fact, ethanol may enhance the perception of sweetness and bitterness 57 while reducing that of acid, saltiness and sourness. Moreover, ethanol influences headspace partitioning of 58 volatiles (Robinson et al., 2009) decreasing volatility of the aromatic compounds (Le Berre, Atanasova, 59 Langlois, Etiévant, & Thomas-Danguin, 2007). Thus, climate-change related variations of grape ripeness can 60 cause modification in the aromatic perception of wines, directly, with the formation of compounds 61 characterized by overripe fruit notes, the reduction of vegetal, fresh and flowery notes (Pons et al., 2017) or 62 indirectly, through the sensitive modification of their aromatic profile, due to the increase in alcohol content.

63 Nowadays, one of the major challenges in oenology and viticulture is how to mitigate and respond to the effects 64 of climate change (Mozell & Thach, 2014), in order to preserve the specific and distinctive olfactory and gustatory notes that link wines to their territory of origin. In this regard, the early harvest of grapes to limit 65 66 wine alcohol level may be an alternative to the use of subtractive cellar technologies, often invasive and which 67 may cause compositional alterations, penalizing the aromatic quality of the product. Previous studies have 68 doubted that, from the aromatic point of view, wines produced with early-harvested grapes could be endowed 69 with a high acidity and an excessive content of C6 compounds (six carbon atom aldehydes and alcohols, known 70 as leaf alcohols), to which vegetal notes are attributed (Longo et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the high sugar content 71 of the grapes recorded during the last vintages has made early-harvest of renewed interest, especially for the 72 warmer areas, provided that early-harvested grapes show an optimal balance between the different qualitative 73 components of the berry, especially volatile and polyphenol concentrations and profiles.

74 To the authors' knowledge, little investigation on key aroma compounds such as norisoprenoids and their 75 content in wines produced from sequential grape harvests has been reported and only some research linked 76 technological and aromatic maturity of the grapes to the aroma of finished wines. Norisoprenoids derive from 77 carotenoid degradation through both non-specific and enzymatic mechanisms, involving Carotenoid Cleavage 78 Dioxygenases (CCDs) whose expression is strictly correlated to climatic and agronomic parameters (Chen et 79 al., 2017). The most interesting norisoprenoids from the aromatic point of view are megastigmane, notably β -80 ionone with typical violet notes and β-damascenone, characterized by notes of quince and flowers (Mendes-81 Pinto, 2009). Especially β -damascenone is a strong flavor found in many foods and beverages (Pineau, Barbe, 82 Van Leeuwen, & Dubourdieu, 2007). It has a complex aroma, reminiscent of honey, tropical fruit, quince, 83 apple that is differently expressed depending on matrix and concentration. Some researchers suggested that β -84 damascenone also has an indirect impact on wine aroma by enhancing fruity notes of ethyl esters (Escudero, 85 Campo, Fariña, Cacho, & Ferreira, 2007). Clarifying the relationship between aromatic precursors in grapes 86 (carotenoids) and norisoprenoids in wines, could be relevant to understand the phenomena that can influence 87 wine quality as the complexity of the transformations that control these phenomena has provided no clear 88 answers, yet. Authors' previous research showed that in wines obtained from grapes with high total acidity, the 89 concentration of β -damascenone was higher than that of wines produced with grapes harvested when fully ripe 90 (Petrozziello M., 2012). More information is needed to define the optimum harvest time coupling together 91 strategies able to enhance the wine aroma and meeting contemporarily the demand for wines with both reduced 92 alcohol content and balanced organoleptic properties.

93 To this purpose, the effect of different grape ripening levels on the aroma of wines made under the same 94 fermentation conditions was investigated, using two non-floral varieties, the international Pinot noir, and 95 Barbera an important Italian variety grown in the same vineyard in Piedmont.

96 Pinot noir is a non-floral international grape variety widely planted around the world mostly in cool climate 97 areas. Berries generally accumulate low amounts of phenolic compounds, including anthocyanins whose 98 profile is characterized by the total absence of acylated-derivatives. When young, wines made from Pinot Noir 99 tend to have red-fruit aromas, such as cherries, raspberries and strawberries and overall Pinot noir wine 100 characteristics significantly vary with grape maturity (Fang & Qian, 2005, 2006; Miranda-Lopez, Libbey, 101 Watson, & Mc Daniel, 1992). Barbera is an Italian cultivar producing berries with high titratable acidity that, 102 in the past, made its cultivation a valued planting in warm climate regions where acidification was usually 103 needed. Traditionally, some viticulturists used to delay harvest, if the seasonal climatic conditions were 104 favorable, to increase sugar levels to balance Barbera wine acidity, despite a natural predisposition to a high 105 sugar accumulation. From the aromatic point of view previous studies pointed out that Barbera grapes were 106 characterized by important amounts of volatiles, including terpenes and β -ionone (Carlomagno et al., 2012).

In this work main technological parameters of Pinot noir and Barbera grapes harvested at three different ripening stages (-15d, -7d and 0d, indicating the days before full-ripeness) were assessed, together with important key aromas of must and wines. Attention was focused on β -damascenone, β -ionone and α -ionone which were quantified by stable isotope dilution assay (SIDA) and HS-SPME-GCMS quantification, whereas the most important free fermentative aromatic compounds were extracted and quantified respectively by Solid phase Extraction Gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (SPE/GC-MS).

113

2. Materials and methods

114 2.1 Vineyard site

115 Grape samples of cv Pinot noir and Barbera were collected at the DISAFA (Università degli Studi di Torino) 116 experimental vineyard located in Grugliasco (45°03'N, 7°35'E; in Piedmont, Italy), in 2015. Vine density was 117 4400 vines/ha (0.90 m x 2.50 m), vines were vertical shoot positioned (VSP) and trained to the Guyot pruning 118 system. The vineyard is located at 293 m above s.l.in a plain area and vines were planted in 2008; Pinot noir 119 plants were grafted onto 1103P while Barbera plants onto SO4. The vineyard was organized into randomized 120 blocks of 10 plants each. Three blocks for each variety were used as biological replicates (namely: A, B and 121 C). Starting from bud-burst, the main phenological phases of the plant were observed (flowering, veraison and 122 ripening). The first sampling of Pinot Noir was carried out at veraison (50 % of colored berries) and grapes were then sampled again on the 13th, 19th and 25th of August 2015. Barbera was firstly sampled at veraison and 123 then harvested sequentially on the 25th, 31st of August and on the 7th September 2015. 124

125 2.2 Grape sampling

Approximately 30 clusters for each biological replicate (A, B and C). were harvested manually at each sampling date (veraison, and 3 ripening levels). For each replicate, 500 berries were sampled for the analysis of the main chemico-physical parameters namely, berry weight, pH, titratable acidity (TA), total soluble solids (TSS). Remaining berries were opportunely prepared to obtain grape extracts for polyphenol, anthocyanin and total flavonoid measurements; two further replicates of 50 g of grapes were stored in the dark at -80°C for carotenoid compound assessment.

132 2.3 Microvinifications

133 Vinification trials at laboratory scale were carried out in triplicate for each maturation point for a total of 9 134 fermentations per variety. Grapes (about 2 Kg per replica) were manually destemmed, crushed and placed into 135 three liters Erlenmeyer flask. Inoculum (5 x 106 cells g⁻¹) was done using Saccharomyces cerevisiae yeast 136 strain ISE 167 belonging to CREA-VE culture collection after a preventive growth in YPG (Yeast Peptone 137 Glucose) medium. Fermentations were performed at 25 °C, and two punching per day were carried out to 138 simulate a standard red vinification. Fermentations were followed by daily monitoring of the flasks weight 139 loss, indirectly calculating the consumed sugar. Sampling was carried out at crushing (day 0), 50% of 140 fermented sugars (approximately day 3 for all trials) and at the end of fermentation (day 8). pH, AT, TSS and polyphenolic index measurements were assessed at crushing, at half time and at the end of the fermentation. 141 142 Final alcohol content was determined for each wine. The measurement of TSS, total acidity, pH, of grape 143 musts as well as the analysis of reducing sugars at the end of alcoholic fermentation, density, total dry extract 144 and ethanol in wines were carried out according to official EC methods (Commission Regulation No. 2676/90 145 determining Community methods for the analysis of wines, 1990). The evolution of norisoprenoid compounds 146 was thoroughly investigated during fermentation, namely the determination of α -ionone β -ionone and β -147 damascenone has been carried out at crushing, at mid-fermentation, at the end of alcoholic fermentation (FFA) and finally after 3 months of wine storage in cellar at 4°C. All analysis were carried out twice. 148

149 2.4 Meteorological assessments

The vineyard had meterological station equipped with a thermohygrometer and a rain gauge, managed by the
Agrometerological Serivice of the Piedmont Region. Part of the data were found on-line from the database of

the Department of Physics of the University of Turin-DF station (45° 03' N, 7°40 E, 254 above s.l, Turin).

153 2.5 Grape, must and wine determinations

154 2.5.1 Extraction and determination of polyphenols in grapes, musts and wines

Extraction of the polyphenolic fraction from the grapes was performed according to Di Stefano (Di Stefano & 155 156 Cravero, 1991). Briefly, 20 frozen berries were peeled, and the skins were placed in 50 mL of tartaric buffer at pH 3.20 (5 g of tartaric acid, 22 mL of 1N NaOH, 120 mL of ethanol and 2 g of sodium metabisulphite 157 brought up to 1L with distilled water). After 4 hours, the skins were homogenized and collected in a centrifuge 158 tube. After centrifugation (4000 rpm for 15 min), the supernatant was collected in a 100 mL flask. The pellet 159 160 was added of few mL of buffer and centrifuged for a second time, the supernatant collected in the same flask. 161 Then the volume was adjusted up to 100 mL using the tartaric buffer; samples were stored in -20°C until 162 analysis were carried out.

163 2.5.2 Total polyphenols index (TPI)

Total polyphenol content was determined using the Folin-Ciocalteau reagent (Di Stefano, Cravero, & Gentilini, 1989). Briefly, must or grape extract obtained as described above, were previously acidified with H_2SO_4 and passed through a 500 mg C18 cartridge to retain the compounds of interest that were successively eluted with 3 mL of methanol in a 20 mL flask. As to wines, due to the lower SO_2 content respect to berry extracts, no cartridge passage was required. Total polyphenols were determined by measuring the absorbance of the extract at 700 nm and expressed as mg equivalent of (+)-cathechin per kg of berries as to grapes and per L of wine.

170 2.5.3 Total antocyanin and flavonoid indexes (TAI and TFI)

171 Determination of flavonoids and anthocyanins was carried out spectrophotometrically as described by Di 172 Stefano and coworkers (Di Stefano et al., 1989). The grape extracts or musts were filtered onto 0.45 μ m 173 polypropylene membrane, then opportunely diluted with "hydrochloric ethanol" a mixture of ethanol/H₂O/HCl 174 37% (70: 30: 1). Subsequently, the sample absorbance spectrum was acquired from 230 to 700 nm, using a 10 175 mm path step cuvette. Total flavonoid index was determined through graphical correction applied to UV peak 176 with a maximum of 280 nm and expressed as mg equivalent of (+)-cathechin per kg of berries. Total 177 anthocyanin index was determined by measuring the absorbance of the extract at 540 nm and expressed as mg 178 equivalent of malvidin-3-O-glucoside chloride per kg of berries.

179 2.5.4 Extraction and determination of grape carotenoids

Carotenoid extraction procedure was adapted from Crupi and coworkers (Crupi, Milella, & Antonacci, 2010). 180 181 Approximately 50 g of berries, without seeds, added of BHA (Butylated hydroxyanisole) were homogenized 182 for 2 min in the presence of magnesium carbonate basic. The homogenate was spiked with 200 μ L of 180 mg 183 L^{-1} of β -apo-8-carotenal (Fluka, Porto, Portugal, ref. 10810) as internal standard and diluted with 40 mL of 184 ultrapure (UP) water obtained from a MilliQ purification system (Millipore Bedford, MA, USA). A liquidliquid extraction was carried out with ether/hexane (1:1, v/v), repeated three times for 30 min each. The 185 186 resulting upper layer was separated each time, thus the final combined extract was concentrated to dryness at 187 20° C (Laborota 4001, Heidolph instruments) and resuspended in 1 mL of acetone/hexane (1:1, v/v) for HPLC 188 determination. Each sample was injected in duplicate. Sample handling, homogenization and extraction were 189 carried out on ice under dim yellow light to minimize light-induced isomerization and oxidation of carotenoids.

190 An Agilent Model 1200 quaternary solvent system, equipped with a quaternary pump solvent delivery and an 191 UV-visible photodiode array detector was used (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, US). The absorption 192 spectra were recorded at 447 nm and the sample injection volume was 20µL. The column was an YMC30, 250 193 x 4,6 mm, with a pre-column YMC pack C30 (3 x 20mm, 5 μ m). Mobile phase was performed with three 194 different solvents as described by Crupi and coworkers (Crupi et. al 2010). The flow was set at 0.35 mL min-195 ¹. The analytical gradient started with 40% A, 60% B, and 0% C and then linear gradients as follows: to 20% A, 196 80% B, 0%C in 5 min; to 4%A, 81%B, 15%C in 10 min; to 45%A, 11%B, 85%C in 60 min. Acquisition time 197 was 70 min and equilibration time was 10 min.

198 The most relevant carotenoids were identified by comparison of spectra with those of commercially available 199 standards, violaxanthin, lutein epoxide, neoxanthin from CaroteNature (Lupsingen, *Switzerland*) and β - carotene and lutein from Extrasynthèses (Lyon, Genay, France), matching also different information such as position of absorption maxima (λ_{max}) and the degree of vibration fine structure (% III/II) (Crupi et al., 2010). Quantification of individual compounds was done by calibration curves using the respective standards. The results were expressed as mg per kilogram of grape berries.

204 2.5.5 Determination of β -damascenone, α -ionone and β -ionone

205 The chemical standards for this analysis were obtained from Sigma (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) at 206 the maximum purity grade available, except β -damascenone, which was generously supplied by Firmenich 207 (Genève, Switzerland). β -damascenone β -ionone and α -ionone were quantified in musts and wines using a sTable isotope dilution assay (SIDA) HS-SPME/GC-MS method as described by Petrozziello and co-workers 208 209 (Petrozziello, Borsa, Guaita, Gerbi, & Bosso, 2012). Briefly, a SPME fibre (CAR/PDMS/DVB da 30/50 µm, 210 Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA). was conditioned daily before use for 30' at 270 °C. For each analysis, 10 mL 211 of sample (must or wine) was placed into a 20 mL vial, added of 3 g of ammonium sulfate. Four µL of internal 212 standard containing $[{}^{2}H_{4}]$ - β -damascenone (final concentration: 2.36 µg L⁻¹), $[{}^{2}H_{3}]$ - β -ionone (final concentration: 11.8 μ g L⁻¹) and [²H₃]- α -ionone (final concentration: 24.3 μ g L⁻¹). The vial was capped with a 213 214 crimp seal with a PTFE/silicone septum and the sample was left to equilibrate in agitation for at least 15 min 215 at 40 °C before the analysis. The extraction time was 1h at 40°C and then the compounds were thermo-desorbed 216 from the fiber for 3 min into the GC injector held at 250 °C. The analyses were performed in splitless mode, 217 and the purge valve was opened after 3 min. Finally, to eliminate the carryover phenomena, the fiber was 218 cleaned at 250 °C in the needle heater device for 10 min after each analysis and for an additional 3 min time 219 before the following injection. All the operations were automated by a multipurpose sampler MPS 2XL 220 (Gerstel Applications, Brielle, The Netherlands).

GC-MS analyses were performed with a 6980 Agilent gas chromatograph interfaced to a mass selective detector 5973N (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA,USA). A HP-Innowax column, polyethylene glycol, 30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 μ m (J&W Scientific, Folsom, CA, USA) was used. Helium was the carrier gas and the column flow was maintained at 1.2 mL min ⁻¹. Transfer line was set at 230 °C. The oven temperature was held

at 45 °C for 2 min, raised to 80°C at a rate of 30 °C min⁻¹, then raised from 80 to 230 °C at a rate of 5 °C min 225 226 ⁻¹ and, finally was held at 230 °C for 17 min. The ionization voltage was at 70 eV, the quadrupole was set at 227 230 °C and the source at 250 °C. Mass spectra were acquired in Selective Ion Monitoring (SIM) mode using 228 a dwell time of 100 µs. Identification of these megastigmane compounds was performed by comparing 229 recorded mass spectra and retention time with those of authentic standards. β-damascenone standard was 230 kindly offered by Firmenich, (Swizerland). Quantifying ions were 190 and 194 m/z for β-damascenone and $[^{2}H_{4}]$ - β -damascenone respectively; 136 and 139 m/z for α -ionone and $[^{2}H_{3}]$ - α -ionone, respectively and 177 231 232 and 180 m/z for β -ionone and $[{}^{2}H_{3}]$ - β -ionone, respectively, using a calibration curve for each compound.

233 2.5.6 Extraction and determination of free volatiles in wines:

150 mL of wine, added of 150 μ L of internal standard (1-heptanol, 73.43 mg L⁻¹), were passed through a 5 g C18-RP cartridge (Biotage AB, Uppsala, Sweden), previously activated with 20 mL of methanol and equilibrated with 50 mL of UP water. After washing the cartridge with 50 mL of water, free varietal compounds and fermentative compounds were recovered with 30 mL of dichloromethane. Glycoside compounds were recovered with 25 mL of methanol (Sigma Aldrich Co., St. Louis, MO, USA). Dicloromethane was dried using anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated to about 200 μ L under a gentle stream of nitrogen; an aliquot of 1 μ L was injected into the GC-MS.

241 The hydrolysis of glycosides by exogenous enzyme was carried out accordingly to Cabrita and collaborators 242 (Cabrita, Costa Freitas, Laureano, Borsa, & Di Stefano, 2007). Briefly, the methanolic phase was evaporated 243 to dryness under vacuum and the residue dissolved in 5 mL of citrate-phosphate buffer (pH 5.0, 51.5 % v/v of 244 0.2 M sodium phosphate and 48.5 % v/v of 0.1 M citric acid). 100 mg of polyvinylpolypyrrolidone (PVPP) 245 was added and then the enzymatic hydrolysis was carried out with 0.2 mL of Pectinol (Genencor, Palo Alto, 246 CA, USA) with glycosidase-side activities at 40 °C for 24 h. After hydrolysis, 0.1 mL of 1-octanol as internal 247 standard was added and the hydrolyzed extract was passed through a 1 g C18-RP cartridge (Biotage AB, 248 Uppsala, Sweden) to isolate the aglycons. The free-released compounds were eluted with 12 mL of 249 dichloromethane. The organic layer was dried using anhydrous Na₂SO₄, and reduced to a small volume (about 500 μL) under a gentle stream of nitrogen at room temperature. The analysis of the aglycons was carried out
by GC-MS. Two replicates of all samples were analyzed.

All compounds were analyzed by GC-MS using an Agilent 7890A GC, equipped with an Agilent 5975C Mass 252 Selective triple Axis Detector. The samples (1µL) were manually injected at 250 °C, in splitless mode. The 253 254 column was a Zebron ZB-WAX column (30 m, 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 µm film thickness; Phenomenex, Torrance, 255 Calif., U.S.A.). The oven temperature was set at 45 °C for 2 min, then raised to 60 °C at a rate of 30 °C min⁻¹, from 60 to 230 °C at a rate of 2 °C min⁻¹, and held at 230 °C for 20 min. The carrier gas was helium with a 256 257 constant flow of 1 mL min⁻¹. The transfer line was set at 230 °C. The ionization voltage was 70 eV, the 258 quadrupole was set at 230 °C and the source at 250 °C. The acquisition of mass spectra for the analysis of 259 compounds was carried out in total ion current mode (TIC) and a 29-300 m/z range was recorded. Identification 260 of volatile compounds was performed by comparing recorded mass spectra with those of the WILEY275 261 database and retention index with those of authentic standards, if available, or by comparison with the gas chromatographic retention index LRI (Bianchi, Careri, Mangia, & Musci, 2007) and with the mass 262 263 spectrometric data reported in literature. The semi-quantitative analysis was carried out by comparing the areas 264 of individual chromatographic peaks with that of the internal standard.

265

266

267 2.6 Statistical analysis

Data from chemico-physical analyses were statistically elaborated using the software SPSS Windows version 15.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA), and XLstat (XLSTAT 2017: Data Analysis and Statistical Solution for Microsoft Excel. Addinsoft, Paris, France, 2017). Both for Barbera and Pinot noir, the evolution study of C13norisoprenoids during the grape maturation, the fermentation process and the interaction between these two factors were treated with a linear mixed effect regression model (lme) performed with R 3.4.3 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Linear mixed effects model was choice in order to manage the random factors of the analytical design and the fermentation repeated measures. Each of the three vineyard rows (A, B, C) and the three fermentation replications were included in the model as random factors. In case
of lme ANOVA (p-value < 0.05) was calculated and significant differences among means were analyzed with
least mean square with Bonferroni's correction.

278

3. Results and Discussion

279 3.1 Climatic trend 2015 vintage

280 Main meteorological conditions of 2015 are shown in Table 1. A mild winter characterized the season; this 281 led, early in the season, to the sum of temperatures necessary to the vine to bud-burst and to a general advance 282 of the phenological phases that was maintained throughout the entire season. The month of June was 283 particularly rainy either as frequency of rainy days and as mm of rainfalls. Because of these peculiar climatic 284 conditions (mild winter and water availability in June), veraison was much anticipated and it happened on July the 23rd and the 27th in Pinot noir and Barbera, respectively. Grape technological ripening was set to about 21 285 286 °Brix for Pinot noir and to about 24 °Brix for Barbera, on the basis of average ripening level used for the two 287 varieties in the cultivation area (Piedmont, North-West Italy). As a consequence, the sampling carried on the 13th of August corresponded to 15 days before full ripening for Pinot noir (early-ripening grapevine cultivar), 288 whereas for Barbera the sampling carried on the 25th of August corresponded to 15 days before full ripening. 289 Samplings performed on the 19th and 31st of August, represented harvests at seven days (-7d) before full 290 291 ripeness, respectively for Pinot noir and Barbera grapes.

292 Table 1

293 3.2 Chemical-physical characteristics of grapes

A relevant increase of berry weight for both varieties was noticed from veraison until the first sampling of the ripening period. Berry weight of Pinot Noir grapes increased constantly until the last sampling date (August, the 25th), *vice versa* Barbera berry weights increased earlier and since the 25th of August (15 days prior to full ripeness) they did not vary anymore. At full ripeness, as expected, Pinot noir grapes were about 60% lighter berries than Barbera ones. (Table 2).

Pinot noir grape TSS did not vary from the first to the second sampling and it increased slightly at full ripeness. Pinot noir TA decreased since the second sampling and it was almost half respect to that measured in Barbera berries. Berry pH was consequently higher in Pinot noir respect to Barbera but no major differences were detected among harvest dates, regardless the cultivar. The constant and linear increase of TSS during the last stage of ripening in Barbera allowed to obtain grapes that differed of about 2 degrees °Brix at each sampling date (-15 d, -7 d and full ripeness). TA values above 13.1 g L⁻¹ were reached in the first sampling (-15 d) and slowly decreased afterwards, maintaining, however, high levels until full ripeness (Table 2).

Table 2

307 3.3 Trend of the polyphenolic component during the last stages of ripening

308 Table 2 also reports the changes in the main parameters related to the polyphenolic composition of Pinot and 309 Barbera grapes during maturation. The accumulation of polyphenols in the berries followed a different trend 310 in the two varieties: in Pinot noir grapes a progressive decrease in the total polyphenol index and an increase 311 in the colored fraction was observed from veraison to the first sampling (-15 d) with a substantial constant 312 trend of the total flavonoid index. As to all measured indices, no relevant differences were noticed during the 313 last stages of ripening (-15d, -7d, and full ripeness) in Pinot noir grapes. In Barbera grapes there was a 314 progressive increase of total polyphenols and anthocyanins and the total anthocyanin index (TAI) reached 315 satisfactory values already 7 days before the theoretical and scheduled harvest (full ripeness). On average, the 316 total polyphenol index of Barbera grapes was lower than that of Pinot for the first two samplings.

The same spectrophotometric indices, but referred to the single berry (data not reported), showed for Barbera, a peak of accumulation coinciding with the second sampling followed by a plateau phase thereafter. For Pinot noir, when expressing data on a per berry basis, the highest values of total anthocyanin and flavonoid indices were observed at the third sampling date while the total polyphenol index remained almost constant all along the considered harvesting period.

322 3.4 Trend of carotenoids during the last stages of ripening

323 *Pinot noir*. According to literature, β-carotene and lutein contents in Pinot noir grapes tended to decrease 324 markedly within veraison, whereas violaxanthin showed a short period of accumulation before veraison Lutein, 325 β-carotene, and neoxanthin continued to decrease during berry development until harvest. Small differences 326 as regards neoxanthin in the last day of ripening were highlighted (Yuan and Qian, 2016). Our results showed 327 an important degradation of lutein from veraison to the first harvest (-15d) without any differences afterwards. Similar levels of β -carotene were observed during ripening and a slight decrease at the last sampling. As 328 329 regards violaxanthin and neoxanthin a decrease from veraison until the first sampling time was noticed, but no 330 notable differences were detected, afterwards. The lutein/ β -carotene ratio in Pinot noir grapes was found to 331 be higher than one (Table 2).

332 Barbera. A previous research, concerning the content in carotenoid compounds of Barbera during berry 333 development (Giovanelli and Brenna 2007), showed that lutein concentration followed a discontinuous and 334 fluctuating trend, whereas the content in β -carotene tended to decrease gradually. The data reported here (Table 335 2) showed for Barbera grapes a lutein concentration decrease from veraison until the first sampling (-15 d) and 336 a slight reduction afterwards; no variations over the considered period were noticed for β -carotene. The ratio 337 lutein/ β -carotene in Barbera grapes was lower than 1 at full ripeness similarly to Giovannelli and Brenna 338 (2007). However, this ratio was found to be dependent on the variety: in fact, it was found to be higher than 1 339 in Pinot Noir, whereas in other varieties these two carotenoids showed similar concentrations or, vice versa, 340 β-carotene concentration was higher than that of lutein, resulting in ratio lower than 1 (Bunea et al., 2012).

The concentration of minor xanthophylls, determined for the first time in Barbera grapes, had heterogeneous behaviors depending on the compound. Violaxanthin and lutein-5,6-epoxide followed a similar trend, that agreed with what reported in literature for other varieties (Razungles, Babic, Sapis, & Bayonove, 1996; Winterhalter & Ebeler, 2013) and that highlighted a content increase from veraison until the first sampling (-15 d) and almost constant concentrations afterwards. On the contrary, neoxanthin concentrations decreased constantly from the first (-15 d) to the last sampling date (full ripeness).

347 3.5 Chemical-physical characteristics of musts

In Pinot noir musts, no major differences were detected as to TSS, pH and TA during the three-consecutive samplings (Table 2). Pinot noir grapes reached a ripening degree correspondent to a satisfactory technological harvest, already on August the 13th, fifteen days before the scheduled harvest and the last days of ripening did not contribute to modify significantly the main technological parameters. Moreover, this ripening trend was also favored by the lowering of the temperatures and the rainy conditions that characterized that period. As to Barbera musts, the differences between the three different harvest dates were relevant; TSS increased and TA decreased from the first (-15 d) to the third grape sampling date (full ripeness).

355 3.6 Norisoprenoids in musts and wines during and at the end of fermentation

Pinot Noir wines. The linear mixed effect model applied to the entire Pinot dataset showed significant changes in norisoprenoid concentrations in wines obtained from different harvests. The comparison among modelized means of the three norisoprenoids highlighted that the concentrations of β-damascenone and β-ionone decreased on average in dependence of the ripening level of grapes while, α-ionone was less influenced by the grape ripening level (Table 3).

361 **Table 3**

362 Fig. 1 shows the trends of free norisoprenoids during fermentation in Pinot noir. β -ionone average content of 90 ng/L was measured at crushing (day 1) then its concentration increased linearly throughout fermentation 363 reaching final average values of more than 1.417 µg L⁻¹ corresponding to what reported in literature (Oliveira 364 365 et al., 2006; Yuan & Qian, 2016). It is worth mentioning that this concentration of β -ionone is well above its perception threshold in aqueous medium (Tempere et al., 2011). Comparing β -ionone content in wines at the 366 367 end of fermentation (Fig. 2), it emerged that those obtained with more mature grapes reached slightly lower concentrations of β -ionone (-15 d = 1.521a μ gL⁻¹; -7 days = 1.467a μ gL⁻¹; full ripeness = 1.263b μ gL⁻¹). These 368 369 results show a trend in contrast to previous researches (Fang & Qian, 2006), likely linked to the fact that, in 370 the present study, the ripening of Pinot Noir grapes was already accomplished at the first sampling (-15 d), due 371 to the net anticipation of the phenological phases detected in the studied season.

372 Fig.1

373 α -ionone tended to accumulate during fermentation rather quickly, following a trend similar to β -ionone (Fig. 374 1). At mid-fermentation, the average concentrations recorded for this compound were similar to those 375 measured at the end of fermentation. The ripening level did not display any significant impact on α -ionone 376 concentration at the end of alcoholic fermentation (Fig. 2).

 β -damascenone increased differently depending on time of harvest during fermentation; in the case of musts from less mature grapes (-15 days) there was a rapid increase, whereas in musts from more mature grapes the trend was more linear and less rapid during fermentation (Fig. 1). The average values measured at the end of fermentation were very similar between treatments reflecting the small ripening differences already highlighted in the grapes of origin. (Fig. 2).

382 Barbera wines. Considering all the data collected for Barbera, the linear mixed effect model showed statistical 383 significance for each factor considered. Also, the interaction between time of harvest and fermentation step 384 was significant. As regards "time of harvest" levels (-15 days, -7 days and full ripeness or 0 days), a statistically 385 significant decreasing trend for β -damascenone in dependence of time of harvest was found in finished wines (Table 3). The same trend was visible comparing exclusively the average values at the end of fermentation, 386 387 namely the last two sampling dates (Fig. 2). β -damascenone content resulted 15% higher in the wines at end 388 of fermentation from early harvested grapes (-7 days) than in the wine from fully ripe grapes. Also for α -ionone 389 it was possible to observe a decrease in concentration from -7 to zero point, finally resulting in a significantly 390 lower concentration in wines from fully-ripe berries (Fig. 1). No differences at end of fermentation were 391 observed for β -ionone from -7d and 0d (Table 3, Fig. 2).

Unlike what observed in Pinot noir, β-ionone did not increase during Barbera fermentation. After the mid of process, the concentrations of this compound remained constant on values between 1.915 µg L⁻¹ for the wine obtained from -15 d-grapes and 1.629 µgL⁻¹ for wine from fully-ripe grapes. Similarly to Pinot noir, βdamascenone increased rapidly in the first stage of fermentation in musts obtained from less mature grapes (-15 d), whereas a slow increase was observed in those from fully ripe grapes (Fig. 1).

397 Fig.2

398 3.7 Aroma profile of wines after three month of storage

399 After three months of storage both free and glycoside compounds were quantified (supplementary material 400 Tables 1S-4S). As to Barbera free volatiles, ethyl ester concentration increased with the berry ripening level 401 and C6 alcohol concentration decreased correspondently. This trend could be correlated with the level of nitrogen readily assimilable of the musts, equal to 176 mg L⁻¹ for -15 d point sampling, 213 mg L⁻¹ for -7 d 402 403 point sampling and 211 mg L⁻¹ for 0 d point sampling. As to Pinot noir, we observed a reduction of medium 404 chain fatty acid ethylic esters, and a more marked reduction of C6 alcohols, that was probably correlated to 405 berry over-ripening and to a slight decrease in assimilable nitrogen from the first to the last sampling (data not 406 reported). Overall Barbera wines glycosylated compounds, tended to decrease while increasing the grape 407 maturity grade, this fact was particularly evident for terpene and norisoprenoid forms (supplementary material 408 Tables 1S-4S).

409

410

411 3.7.1 Norisoprenoids in wines after three months of storage

412 A clear difference in free norisoprenoid profile between Barbera and Pinot noir.wines was detected (Fig. 2). Pinot noir wines were characterized by a higher concentration in β-damascenone, consistently with the highest 413 414 average neoxanthin concentration at version (Table 1). β -ionone and α -ionone measured in all wines were 415 much lower than those reported at the end of alcoholic fermentation (Fig. 2). According to literature, β -ionone 416 tends to degrade in the presence of oxygen (Silva Ferreira & Guedes de Pinho, 2004), whereas sulfur dioxide 417 could protect this compound from phenomena of oxidative degradation. Conceivably, the significant decrease 418 observed in our case for both α - ionone and β - ionone may be due to the conservation conditions that did not 419 provide a strict oxidation protection (Fig. 2). Differently, β -damascenone content, after 3 months, resulted higher than that recorded at the end of alcoholic fermentation. The presence of some glycosilate precursors, 420 421 extracted during the alcoholic fermentation and that can undergo acid catalyzed degradation during wine 422 conservation could have been the responsible of β-damascenone concentration increase. Actually, previous

studies have shown that wine acidity, more than other variables, plays a fundamental role in determining the increase of β -damascenone concentration during wine storage from its glycosylate precursors (Silva Ferreira & Guedes de Pinho, 2004).

426 **4.** Conclusions

427 This research work focused on the investigation of key aroma compounds such as megastigmane C13 428 norisoprenoids (α -ionone, β -ionone and β -damascenone) and their resulting content in wines produced from 429 the vinification of sequential grape harvests. Meteorologically, 2015 was characterized by a very mild winter 430 and a large amount of rain in June, which led to a significant advance of the vine phenological phases. Under 431 these climatic conditions, a rapid accumulation of sugars was highlighted during ripening for Barbera whereas 432 in Pinot noir no differences were observed during ripening. We observed that carotenoid degradation in grapes 433 was not linked to an increase of key-norisoprenoids in respective wines, but these compounds decreased in 434 wines concordantly with grape ripeness; namely β -damascenone and β -ionone decreased in dependence of 435 grape maturity while, α -ionone was less influenced by the grape ripening level. This was particularly evident 436 in wines from Barbera grapes. Actually, Barbera grapes collected 7 days earlier respect to full ripeness allowed 437 to obtain wines with a lower alcohol of 2% v/v and a higher content of β -damascenone of about 15%. The 438 reduction in alcohol content, obtained by harvesting grapes earlier was associated, especially in Barbera, to an 439 optimal composition in terms of acidity and of polyphenolic content.

440 After 3 months of storage β -damascenone content, resulted higher than that measured at the end of 441 fermentation, probably due to the presence of some glycosylate precursors extracted during vinification. 442 Generally, Pinot noir wines were characterized by a higher concentration in β -damascenone than Barbera 443 wines, consistently with the higher levels of neoxanthin at veraison.

444 β -damascenone, besides being *per-se*, an important wine-flavour, is also an aromatic enhancer of fruity notes 445 thus, especially for Barbera, early-harvesting can indirectly impact on wine quality having a positive sensorial 446 impact on the final wine aroma.

447 **5.** Acknowledgements

448	The research has been carried out as part of VARCA "Valorizzazione della qualità aromatica di vini a ridotto
449	contenuto alcolico" - RF 2014.1043. Project founded by CRT - Fondazione Cassa di Risparmio di Torino.
450	The authors would like to thank dr Christos Tsolakis and Maria Dipalma for their help during the project. β-
451	damascenone was generously supplied by Firmenich (Genève, Switzerland).
452	6. References
453	Asproudi, A., Petrozziello, M., Cavalletto, S., & Guidoni, S. (2016). Grape aroma precursors in cv. Nebbiolo
454	as affected by vine microclimate. Food Chemistry, 211, 947–956.
455	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.05.070
456	Barros, V. R., Field, C. B., Dokke, D. J., Mastrandrea, M. D., Mach, K. J., Bilir, T. E., Genova, R. C. (2014).
457	Climate change 2014: impacts, adaptation, and vulnerability-Part B: regional aspects-Contribution of
458	Working Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.
459	Bianchi, F., Careri, M., Mangia, A., & Musci, M. (2007). Retention indices in the analysis of food aroma
460	volatile compounds in temperature-programmed gas chromatography: Database creation and
461	evaluation of precision and robustness. Journal of Separation Science, 30(4), 563-572.
462	https://doi.org/10.1002/jssc.200600393

- Bunea, C.-I., Pop, N., Babeş, A. C., Matea, C., Dulf, F. V., & Bunea, A. (2012). Carotenoids, total polyphenols
 and antioxidant activity of grapes (Vitis vinifera) cultivated in organic and conventional systems.
 Chemistry Central Journal, 6(1), 66. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/1752-153X-6-6</u>
- 466 Caballero, A., & Segura, A. (2017). The quest for lower alcoholic wines. *Microbial Biotechnology*, *10*(2),
 467 238–241. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/1751-7915.12594</u>
- Cabrita, M. J., Costa Freitas, A. M., Laureano, O., Borsa, D., & Di Stefano, R. (2007). Aroma compounds in
 varietal wines from Alentejo, Portugal. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*, 20(5), 375–390.
 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfca.2006.12.006</u>
- 471 Chen, W.-K., Yu, K.-J., Liu, B., Lan, Y.-B., Sun, R.-Z., Li, Q., ... Wang, J. (2017). Comparison of
 472 transcriptional expression patterns of carotenoid metabolism in 'Cabernet Sauvignon' grapes from two

- 473 regions with distinct climate. *Journal of Plant Physiology*, 213(Supplement C), 75–86.
 474 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jplph.2017.03.001
- 475 Carlomagno, A., Schubert, A., & Ferrandino, A. (2012). Volatiles in Vitis vinifera L. cv Barbera during
 476 ripening as influenced by growing location. In Proceedings of IX International Terroir Congress (Vol.
 477 2, pp. 29–32)
- 478 Commission Regulation (EEC) No. 2676/90 determining Community methods for the analysis of wines., Pub.
 479 L. No. No. 2676/90, 1 (1990).
- 480 Crupi, P., Milella, R. A., & Antonacci, D. (2010). Simultaneous HPLC-DAD-MS (ESI+) determination of
 481 structural and geometrical isomers of carotenoids in mature grapes. *Journal of Mass Spectrometry*,
 482 45(9), 971–980. https://doi.org/10.1002/jms.1794
- De Orduna, R. M. (2010). Climate change associated effects on grape and wine quality and production. *Food Research International*, *43*(7), 1844–1855. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2010.05.001
- 485 Di Stefano, R., and Cravero, M. C. (1991). The grape phenolic determination. Riv. Vitic. Enol. 49, 37-45.
- 486 Di Stefano, R., Cravero, M. C., & Gentilini, N. (1989). Metodi per lo studio dei polifenoli dei vini. *Enotecnico*,
 487 25(5), 83–89.
- Escudero, A., Campo, E., Fariña, L., Cacho, J., & Ferreira, V. (2007). Analytical Characterization of the Aroma
 of Five Premium Red Wines. Insights into the Role of Odor Families and the Concept of Fruitiness of
 Wines. J. Agric. Food Chem., 55(11), 4501–4510. <u>https://doi.org/10.1021/jf0636418</u>
- 491 Giovanelli, G., & Brenna, O. V. (2006). Evolution of some phenolic components, carotenoids and chlorophylls
- 492 during ripening of three Italian grape varieties. European Food Research and Technology, 225(1), 145–
 493 150. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-006-0436-4</u>
- 494 Fang, Y., & Qian, M. (2005). Aroma compounds in Oregon Pinot Noir wine determined by aroma extract
 495 dilution analysis (AEDA). *Flavour and Fragrance Journal*, 20, 22–29.
 496 https://doi.org/10.1002/ffj.1551

- Fang, Y., & Qian, M. C. (2006). Quantification of Selected Aroma-Active Compounds in Pinot Noir Wines
 from Different Grape Maturities. J. Agric. Food Chem., 54(22), 8567–8573.
 https://doi.org/10.1021/jf061396m
- Le Berre, E., Atanasova, B., Langlois, D., Etiévant, P., & Thomas-Danguin, T. (2007). Impact of ethanol on
 the perception of wine odorant mixtures. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18(6), 901–908.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2007.02.004
- Longo, R., Blackman, J. W., Antalick, G., Torley, P. J., Rogiers, S. Y., & Schmidtke, L. M. (2017). Harvesting
 and blending options for lower alcohol wines: a sensory and chemical investigation. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*. https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.8434
- Mendes-Pinto, M. M. (2009). Carotenoid breakdown products the--norisoprenoids--in wine aroma. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, 483(2), 236–245. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.abb.2009.01.008</u>
- Miranda-Lopez, R., Libbey, L. M., Watson, B. T., & Mc Daniel, M. (1992). Odor analysis of Pinot Noir wines
 from grapes of different maturities by a gas chromatography-olfactometry technique (Osme). *Journal of Food Science*, *57*(4), 985–993. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.1992.tb14339.x
- Mori, K., Goto-Yamamoto, N., Kitayama, M., & Hashizume, K. (2007). Loss of anthocyanins in red-wine
 grape under high temperature. Journal of Experimental Botany, 58(8), 1935–1945.
 <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erm055</u>
- Mozell, M. R., & Thach, L. (2014). The impact of climate change on the global wine industry: Challenges &
 solutions. Wine Economics and Policy, 3(2), 81–89. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wep.2014.08.001</u>
- Oliveira, C., Barbosa, A., Ferreira, A., Guerra, J., Guedes, D., & others. (2006). Carotenoid profile in grapes
 related to aromatic compounds in wines from Douro region. Journal of Food Science, 71(1), S1–S7.
 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.2006.tb12398.x
- Palliotti, A., Tombesi, S., Silvestroni, O., Lanari, V., Gatti, M., & Poni, S. (2014). Changes in vineyard
 establishment and canopy management urged by earlier climate-related grape ripening: A review.
 Scientia Horticulturae, 178, 43–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2014.07.039
- 522 Petrozziello M. (2012). Caratterizzazione aromatica e valutazione del contenuto in β-ionone e β-damascenone
- 523 di vini da varietà autoctone e rare piemontesi (*doctoral dissertation*). Università degli Studi di Torino.

- Petrozziello, M., Borsa, D., Guaita, M., Gerbi, V., & Bosso, A. (2012). Quantification by solid phase micro
 extraction and sTable isotope dilution assay of norisoprenoid compounds in red wines obtained from
 Piedmont rare varieties. *Food Chemistry*, 135(4), 2483–2489.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2012.07.082
- Pineau, B., Barbe, J.-C., Van Leeuwen, C., & Dubourdieu, D. (2007). Which Impact for β-Damascenone on
 Red Wines Aroma? *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 55(10), 4103–4108.
 https://doi.org/10.1021/jf070120r
- Pons, A., Allamy, L., Schüttler, A., Rauhut, D., Thibon, C., & Darriet, P. (2017). What is the expected impact
 of climate change on wine aroma compounds and their precursors in grape? *OENO One*, *51*(2), 141–
 146. https://doi.org/10.20870/oeno-one.2016.0.0.1868
- Razungles, A. J., Babic, I., Sapis, J. C., & Bayonove, C. L. (1996). Particular behavior of epoxy xanthophylls
 during veraison and maturation of grape. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 44(12), 3821–
 3825. https://doi.org/10.1021/jf960260t
- Robinson, A. L., Ebeler, S. E., Heymann, H., Boss, P. K., Solomon, P. S., & Trengove, R. D. (2009).
 Interactions between wine volatile compounds and grape and wine matrix components influence aroma
 compound headspace partitioning. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *57*(21), 10313–
 10322. https://doi.org/10.1021/if902586n
- Sacchelli, S., Fabbrizzi, S., & Menghini, S. (2016). Climate change effects and adaptation strategies in the
 wine sector: a quantitative literature review. *Wine Economics and Policy*, 5(2), 114–126.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wep.2016.08.001
- Silva Ferreira, A. C., & Guedes de Pinho, P. (2004). Nor-isoprenoids profile during port wine ageing–influence
 of some technological parameters. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *513*(1), 169–176.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aca.2003.12.027
- Tempere, S., Cuzange, E., Malak, J., Bougeant, J. C., de Revel, G., & Sicard, G. (2011). The training level of
 experts influences their detection thresholds for key wine compounds. *Chemosensory Perception*, 4(3),
- 549 99. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s12078-011-9090-8</u>

- Tomasi, D., Jones, G. V., Giust, M., Lovat, L., & Gaiotti, F. (2011). Grapevine phenology and climate change:
 relationships and trends in the Veneto region of Italy for 1964–2009. *American Journal of Enology and Viticulture*, ajev–2011. https://doi.org/10.5344/ajev.2011.10108
- van Leeuwen, C., & Darriet, P. (2016). The impact of climate change on viticulture and wine quality. *Journal of Wine Economics*, *11*(1), 150–167.
- Webb, L. B., Whetton, P. H., & Barlow, E. W. R. (2007). Modelled impact of future climate change on the
 phenology of winegrapes in Australia. *Australian Journal of Grape and Wine Research*, *13*(3), 165–
 175. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-0238.2007.tb00247.x
- Webb, L. B., Whetton, P. H., Bhend, J., Darbyshire, R., Briggs, P. R., & Barlow, E. W. R. (2012). Earlier
 wine-grape ripening driven by climatic warming and drying and management practices. *Nature Climate Change*, 2(4), 259–264. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1417</u>
- 561 Winterhalter, P., & Ebeler, S. E. (2013). Carotenoid Cleavage Products. ACS Publications.
 562 <u>https://doi.org/10.1021/bk-2013-1134</u>
- Yuan, F., & Qian, M. C. (2016). Development of C 13-norisoprenoids, carotenoids and other volatile
 compounds in Vitis vinifera L. Cv. Pinot noir grapes. *Food Chemistry*, 192, 633–641.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.07.050
- 566
- 567

Pinot noir

Barbera



568 Figure 1





- 572 **Figure 1** Concentration of megastigmane norisoprenoids during fermentation of Pinot noir and Barbera
- 573 wines obtained from grapes and collected at different ripening levels (-15 and -7 days before full-ripeness,
- 574 0). All concentrations are expressed in μ g L⁻¹. Bold line represents the average values; light colored lines are
- 575 referred to different harvest time. Different means are indicate with different letters, Sign.= ANOVA on
- 576 linear mixed effects model significativity; *= p-value < 0.05, **= p-value < 0.01, *** = p-value < 0.001.
- **Figure 2** Average concentrations (μ g L-1) of α-ionone, β-ionone and β-damascenone in wines, obtained
- 578 from grapes at different ripening levels, at the end of alcoholic fermentation and after a three-month
- 579 period storage. Averages ± standard deviation (n=3).
- 580
- 581

582	

5	8	3
5	8	3

	GDD 10 °C	HI	Rain	RD ≥ 1
January	4.5	20.8	21.0	4
February	0.0	4.9	103.6	10
March	43.8	106.4	126.6	7
April	138.8	231.0	81.0	6
May	274.2	367.7	46.8	5
June	386.7	489.5	141.6	10
July	542.3	654.8	27.4	4
August	425.9	529.6	132.2	10
September	264.4	353.3	66.4	5
October	108.1	183.5	197.2	13
November	47.7	108.9	2.6	0
December	0.0	3.6	2.8	0
Period April/September for GDD and HI Whole year for rain and RD ≥ 1	2032.3	2625.9	949.2	74
Averages of years 2005-2014 (period April – September for GDD and HI; whole year for rain and RD ≥ 1)	1889.0	2436.7	1026.0	82

585 Monthly Growing Degree Days (GDD, base 10 °C), Huglin Index (HI), rain (mm) and number of rainy days with rainfall > 1 mm (RD \geq 1) 586 measured in Grugliasco in 2015. GDD and HI were calculated from the 1st of April to the 30th of September. Average values of the 587 period 2005-2014 measured in the same weather station (Grugliasco, node 144, Regione Piemonte). Meteorological data were kindly 588 provided by Dott. Spanna, Servizio Agrometereologico Regione Piemonte.

589

	Pinot noir grapes				Barbera grapes				
Sampling date	23-Jul	13-Aug	19-Aug	25-Aug	27-Jul	25-Aug	31-Aug	07-Sept	
	véraison	-15d	-7d	Full ripeness	véraison	-15d	-7d	Full ripeness	
berry weight (g)	1.17 ± 0.06	1.54 ± 0.24	1.59 ± 0.23	1.80 ± 0.27	1.63 ± 0.15	2.66 ±	2.66 ± 0.34	2.66 ± 0.27	
TSS (°Bx)	10.1 ± 0.6	19.5 ± 1.2	19.6 ± 0.8	20.4 ± 0.3	8.1 ± 2.8	19.8 ± 1.5	21.8 ± 1.5	23.8 ± 1.1	
	2.91 ± 0.11	3.15 ±	3.50 ±	3.21 ± 0.02	2.58 ±	2.82 ±	3.01 ±	3.02 ± 0.03	
pH		0.16	0.07		0.13	0.11	0.05		
TA (g L-1)	25.3 ± 3.8	8.8 ± 0.8	6.4 ± 0.2	6.9 ± 0.1	36.6 ± 0.7	13.1 ± 1.9	11.9 ± 1.4	11.2 ± 1.4	
TPI (mg kg ⁻¹)	1895 ± 399	1451 ± 333	1147± 229	1145 ± 150	1073 ± 130	1196± 156	1341 ± 124	1349 ± 107	
TAI (mg kg ⁻¹)	157 ± 94	510 ± 182	461 ± 137	616 ± 92	56 ± 37	908 ± 148	1132 ± 165	1163 ± 41	
TFI (mg kg ⁻¹)	1647 ± 404	1576 ± 392	1323 ± 226	1446 ± 360	652 ± 23	1524 ± 243	1863 ± 250	1951 ± 68	
	10.02	3.94 ±	3.64 ±		4.17 ±	2.53 ±	2.55 ±	1 01 + 0 28	
Lutein (mg kg ⁻¹)	±1.03	0.28	0.54	3.50 ± 0.48	0.49	0.10	0.30	1.91 ± 0.28	
		3.91 ±	3.63 ±		2.56 ±	2.91 ±	3.27 ±	2 87 + 0 32	
β -carotene (mg kg ⁻¹)	4.13 ± 0.56	0.39	0.53	2.81 ± 0.68	0.15	0.26	0.29	2.87 ± 0.32	
		0.76 ±	0.83 ±		0.60 ±	1.33 ±	1.06 ±	1 09 ± 0 15	
Violaxanthin (mg kg ⁻¹)	1.67 ± 0.28	0.05	0.13	0.93 ± 0.13	0.09	0.12	0.14	1.06 ± 0.15	
		0.60 ±	0.54 ±		0.74 ±	0.79 ±	0.50 ±	0 42 ± 0 07	
Neoxanthin (mg kg ⁻¹)	1.33 ± 0.17	0.07	0.07	0.62 ± 0.09	0.09	0.11	0.05	0.45 ± 0.07	
		0.69 ±	0.71 ±		0.04 ±	0.22 ±	0.24 ±	0.24 + 0.04	
Lutein epox. (mg kg-1)	0.71 ± 0.10	0.09	0.11	0.85 ± 0.08	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.24 ± 0.04	
Total carotenoids (mg kg ⁻	17.84	9.89 ±	9.35 ±	0 70 1 1 40	8.12 ±	7 70 10 61	7.64 ±		
1)	±2.14	0.88	1.38	8.70 ± 1.40	0.84	7.79 ±0.61	0.80	0.52 ± 0.80	
		P	'inot noir mu	sts			Barbera mus	ts	
		-15d	-7d	Full ripeness		-15d	-7d	Full ripeness	
TSS (°Bx)	-	19.7 ± 0.3	20.8 ± 1.2	20.5 ± 0.5	-	19.8 ± 0.8	20.9 ± 2.1	24.0 ± 0.3	
		3.41 ±	3.48 ±	2 20 1 0 00		2.94 ±	3.02 ±	2 00 1 0 00	
рН	-	0.10	0.09	3.39 ± 0.09	-	0.08	0.09	3.09 ± 0.06	
TA (g L ⁻¹)	-	4.8 ± 0.4	5.5 ± 0.7	5.0 ± 0.3	-	11.5 ± 1.2	10.5 ± 1.8	9.1 ± 1.0	
potential alcohol (% v/v)	-	10.8 ± 0.2	11.4 ± 0.6	11.3 ± 0.3	-	10.9 ± 0.4	11.50 ± 1.1	13.2 ± 0.2	
· · · ·		P	inot noir wir	nes			Barbera win	es	
		454		Full		45.4	- 1	Full	
		-15d	-/d	ripeness		-15d	-7d	ripeness	
density	-	0.99593	0.99469	0.99459	-	0.99732	0.99526	0.99291	
alcohol (% v/v)	-	10.9 ± 0.4	11.3 ± 0.4	11.4 ± 0.4	-	10.6 ± 0.8	12.1 ± 1.3	13.8 ± 0.6	
extract (g L ⁻¹)	-	29.4 ± 1.4	27.6 ± 0.8	27.6 ± 1.1	-	32.1 ± 0.9	31.9 ± 0.1	31.4 ± 0.8	
TDI (1-1)		1820 ±	1310 ±	4504 - 466		1154 ±	1192 ±	4440 - 242	
1 PI (mg L ⁻⁺)	-	367	390	1581 ± 168	-	206	210	1449 ± 219	
TAI (mg L ⁻¹)	-	160 ± 31	170 ± 45	191 ± 59	-	331 ± 105	357 ± 130	461 ± 145	
		1977 ±	1221 ±	1561 + 220		1009 ±	1121 ±	1260 ± 227	
TEL (mg 1-1)									

595 596	Table 3: Average concentration	n (μg L-1) and	d calculated on the grapes harvested a	whole dat It different	tabase of ripening	ß-damas Ievels	cenone,	ι- and β-ionor	ne produced
507				Tim	e of harv	est			
571				-15 d	-7 d	0 d	Sign.		
598			β-damascenone	0.60 a	0.57 a	0.47 b	**		
		Pinot noir	α-ionone	0.14 a	0.16 a	0.13 a	ns		
599			β-ionone	0.75 a	0.73 a	0.54 b	**		
			β-damascenone	0.84 a	0.71 b	0.56 c	***		
600		Barbera	α-ionone	0.12 ab	0.15 a	0.09 b	**		
			β-ionone	1.41 ab	1.28 b	1.45 a	*		
601									
(00									
602									
602	fully size O dues and fifte	an davia hafa	e full via evine 15	dauged 7	d users a	the labor Mar			A and linear w
603	fully ripe = 0 a; seven ana fifte	en aays befoi	re juli ripening, -15	o a ana — 7	a, respec	tively. Va	iues are.	Sign.= ANOVA	A on linear n
004	effects m	odel significa	nce; *= P value < 0	0.05, **=F	value <	9.01, ***	= P-valu	? < 0.001.	
<0 7									
605									
606									