Document downloaded from:

http://hdl.handle.net/10251/156321

This paper must be cited as:

Guijarro-Real, C.; Rodríguez Burruezo, A.; Prohens Tomás, J.; Raigón Jiménez, MD.; Fita, A. (2019). HS-SPME analysis of the volatiles profile of water celery (Apium nodiflorum), a wild vegetable with increasing culinary interest. Food Research International. 121:765-775. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2018.12.054



The final publication is available at

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2018.12.054

Copyright Elsevier

Additional Information

- 1 HS-SPME analysis of the volatiles profile of water celery (Apium
- 2 nodiflorum), a wild vegetable with increasing culinary interest
- 3 Carla Guijarro-Real^a, Adrián Rodríguez-Burruezo^a, Jaime Prohens^a, María D Raigón^a,
- 4 Ana Fita^a*

12

- ^aInstituto de Conservación y Mejora de la Agrodiversidad Valenciana (COMAV),
- 6 Universitat Politècnica de València, Camino de Vera s/n. 46022 Valencia, Spain
- 8 *Corresponding author: Ana Fita. Instituto de Conservación y Mejora de la
- 9 Agrodiversidad Valenciana (COMAV), Universitat Politècnica de València, Camino de
- 10 Vera s/n. 46022 Valencia, Spain. E-mail address: anfifer@btc.upv.es, telephone
- *number* +34 96 3879418, *fax number* +34 96 3879422
- E-mail addresses
- 14 Carla Guijarro-Real: carguire@etsia.upv.es
- Adrián Rodríguez-Burruezo: adrodbur@upvnet.upv.es
- Jaime Prohens: jprohens@btc.upv.es
- 17 María D Raigón: mdraigon@quim.upv.es
- Ana Fita: anfifer@btc.upv.es
- 20 Reference: Guijarro-Real C, Rodríguez-Burruezo A, Prohens J, Raigón MD, Fita A.
- 21 2019. HS-SPME analysis of the volatiles profile of water celery (*Apium nodiflorum*), a
- wild vegetable with increasing culinary interest. Food Research International 121:765–
- 23 775. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2018.12.054

24

Abstract

- Water celery (Apium nodiflorum) is a wild plant traditionally harvested in some 26 Mediterranean areas for being consumed raw. Despite its appreciated organoleptic 27 properties, the aromatic profile of the fresh vegetable remains to be studied. In the 28 present study, volatile compounds from five wild populations were extracted by the 29 headspace-solid phase microextraction technique, analysed by gas cromatography-mass 30 spectrometry, and compared to related crops. The wild species had a high number of 31 aromatic compounds. It was rich in monoterpenes (49.2%), sesquiterpenes (39.4%) and 32 phenylpropanoids (9.6%), with quantitative differences among populations, in absolute 33 terms and relative abundance. On average, germacrene D was the main compound 34 (16.6%), followed by *allo*-ocimene (11.9%) and limonene (11.1%). Only in one 35 36 population, the levels of limonene were greater than those of germacrene D. Among phenylpropanoids, dillapiol displayed the highest levels, and co-occurred with 37 38 myristicin in all populations except one. These differences may have a genetic component, which would indicate the possibility of establishing selection programmes 39 for the development of water celery as a crop adapted to different market preferences. 40 41 On the other hand, comparison with related crops revealed some similarities among individual volatiles present in the different crops, which would be responsible of the 42 common aroma notes. However, water celery displayed a unique profile, which was in 43 addition quantitatively richer than others. Thus, this differentiation may promote the use 44 of water celery as a new crop. 45
- **Keywords:** Aroma; carrot; celery; diversity; fool's watercress; parsley;
- 47 phenylpropanoids; sesquiterpenes

1. Introduction

49	Aromatic plants, rich in volatile organic compounds (VOCs), have been highly
50	appreciated by humans since the early beginning of civilization (Evergetis &
51	Haroutounian, 2014). These plants are used in the cuisine to enhance the taste of many
52	dishes, either as fresh herbs or dried spices. There are different botanical families
53	including species rich in VOCs such as Alliaceae, Apiaceae, Labiateae, Lauraceae,
54	Myrtaceae or Rutaceae (Raut & Karuppayil, 2014). Among these, Apiaceae and
55	Labiateae families are probably the most relevant for culinary uses as flavour
56	enhancers. Within the <i>Apiaceae</i> family it is possible to find species used in cuisine by
57	the aerial parts such as celery (Apium graveolens L. var. dulce (Mill.) Pers.), coriander
58	(Coriandrum sativum L.), dill (Anethum graveolens L.), fennel (Foeniculum vulgare
59	Mill.) or parsley (Petroselinum crispum (Mill.) Nyman), or for the seeds such as anise
60	(Pimpinella anisum L.) or cumin (Cuminum cyminum L.). Due to the importance of the
61	family, it is possible to find several works studying the volatile profiles, specially
62	focused on essential oils (e.g., Cioanca, Hancianu, Mircea, Trifan & Hritcu, 2016; El-
63	Zaeddi et al., 2016; Filly et al., 2014). In addition, the interest on the volatile fraction
64	and/or essential oils from other wild species and neglected vegetables has increased
65	recently, attending mainly to pharmacological uses and, to a lesser extent, culinary
66	purposes (e.g., Dev et al., 2010; Landoulsi et al., 2016; Maggi, Bartolucci & Conti,
67	2017; Quassinti et al., 2013; Tabanca et al., 2007).
68	Water celery (Apium nodiflorum (L.) Lag., also known as fool's watercress) is a
69	perennial wild herb from the Apiaceae family. It is distributed in Central and Southern
70	Europe (especially in the South-West), Northern Africa and Western and Central Asia
71	(Knees, 2003; Molina, Pardo-de-Santayana, & Tardío, 2016), and can be easily found in
72	fresh, shallow water courses such as natural streams or irrigation ditches. The young

leaves and tender shoots have been consumed in the Mediterranean cultures in salads 73 and different traditional dishes (Guarrera & Savo, 2016; Licata et al., 2016; Tardío et 74 al., 2016). In the last years wild water celery is marketed in the United Kingdom in 75 mixtures of wild vegetables due to its flavour and crunchy texture (Evans & Irving, 76 2018), and its use may increase if the species becomes cultivated. 77 The taste of water celery has been described as spicy (Guarrera & Savo, 2016) with a 78 flavour that resembles celery, carrot (Daucus carota L.) or a mixture of both of them 79 (Heshmati Afshar, Maggi, Iannarelli, Cianfaglione, & Isman, 2017; Nebel, Pieroni, & 80 Heinrich, 2006; "Wild Food UK," 2018). In addition, the volatile fraction has been 81 previously studied in essential oils extracted from dried materials (Benelli, Pavela, 82 Ricciutelli, Lupidi, & Maggi, 2017; Heshmati Afshar et al., 2017; Maxia et al., 2012; 83 Menghini, Leporini, Tirillini, Epifano, & Genovese, 2010). Nevertheless, dried samples 84 85 do not represent the common way to consume this vegetable. In addition, the extraction of VOCs by hydrodistillation, the common methodology applied for essential oils, has 86 87 as a disadvantage the occurrence of thermal artifacts, which may modify the real volatile profile, as well as tedious and time-consuming extraction protocols (Rodríguez-88 Burruezo, Kollmannsberger, González-Mas, Nitz, & Nuez, 2010). As an alternative, the 89 headspace-solid phase microextraction (HS-SPME) technique has been successfully 90 91 used for the isolation of VOCs in a number of fruits and vegetables (e.g., González-Mas, Rambla, Alamar, Gutiérrez & Granell, 2011; López-Gresa et al., 2017; Mzoughi et 92 al., 2018; Taveira et al., 2009), providing a more accurate profile of volatiles present in 93 fresh vegetables. In the present work, we evaluated the volatile profile of water celery 94 based on the analysis of the fresh edible leaves and tender shoots. Considering that the 95 96 most common use of water celery is as vegetable eaten raw in salads, HS-SPME technique will provide a more realistic and accurate description of its aroma and flavour 97

factors, as they are perceived by the consumer. We also compared the volatile profile of 98 water celery with related cultivated species (i.e., carrot, celery and parsley) in order to 99 identify qualitative and quantitative differences and similarities, which will be helpful to 100 explain the distinctive features of the aroma and flavour of this species. 101 102 103 2. Materials and methods 104 2.1. Plant material 105 Irrigation ditches with regular water flows of the Horta Nord shire of Valencia (Spain) were prospected for water celery populations during the spring of 2015 (Fig. 1). Five 106 isolated populations were sampled: Nod-001 (Puerto de Sagunto, 39°37'30" N, 0°16'49" 107 W), Nod-015 (Foios, 39°31'59" N, 0°20'31" W), Nod-018 (Meliana, 39°31'01" N, 108 0°19'36" W), Nod-023 (Pueblo Nuevo, 39°31'19" N, 0°23'17" W) and Nod-025 (Alfara 109 110 del Patriarca, 39°32'21" N, 0°23'06" W). The edible shoots were harvested, cleaned and stored at 4 °C until analysed within the next two days (Fig. 1). 111 112 In addition, two commercial samples of aerial parts of celery and parsley, and one 113 commercial sample of carrot (including both root and aerial parts) were acquired from local markets and used as reference crops. The samples were also analysed within the 114 next 24 hours after acquisition. For all the materials, three independent replicates were 115 116 prepared. 2.2. Preparation of samples and extraction of VOCs 117 Extraction and analysis of volatiles was performed by the HS-SPME technique 118 according to Moreno, Fita, González-Mas and Rodríguez-Burruezo (2012). For that, 1.5 119 g of fresh leaves were weighted, finely chopped with a knife and immediately placed 120 121 into 20 mL sealed headspace vials. In the case of carrot roots, 1.5 g were weighted and

cut in small, regular pieces, then placed into the sealed vials. Pre-incubation of samples

was performed at 40°C during 30 min, then in the extraction step, VOCs were adsorbed 123 on a fibre (50/30 µm DVB/CAR/PDMS; Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) for 40 min at 124 125 the same temperature. The thermal desorption was carried out at 250°C for 30 s in the splitless mode. Prior to the first analysis, the fibre was conditioned at 270°C for 1 h and 126 reconditioned after each sample for 30 min at 250°C to ensure no cross-contamination 127 between samples. 128 129 2.3. Analysis of volatiles 130 VOCs were analysed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) using a 6890N Network GC System with autosampler coupled to a 5973 Inert Mass Selective 131 Detector (Agilent Techonologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and equipped with a HP-5MS 132 J&W silica capillary column (5% phenyl-95% methylpolysiloxane as stationary phase, 133 30 m length x 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 µm thickness film; Agilent Technologies). Helium was 134 used as carrier gas at a constant flow of 1 mL min⁻¹. The temperature of the column was 135 programmed to raise from 100°C to 250°C at a rate of 5°C min⁻¹ and then maintained at 136 137 250°C for 10 minutes. The transfer line was maintained at 220°C. The electron impact 138 (EI) mode (70 eV ionization energy, source temperature 225°C) was used for the detection by the mass spectrometer, and acquisition was performed in scanning mode 139 (mass range m/z 35-350 amu). 140 141 Chromatograms and spectra were processed using the MSD ChemStation D.02.00.275 142 (Agilent Technologies). Identification of compounds was performed by comparing the 143 GC retention time and mass spectra with reference substances (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint 144 Louis, MO, USA), when available, or tentatively by comparing the mass spectra with 145 the NIST 2005 Mass Spectral Library, previous literature and also with a customized 146 library from our laboratory and, when available. Due to the number of volatiles 147 detected, it was not possible to find suitable standards and estimate response factors.

Thus, quantification of VOCs was based on the integration of peak areas by the total ion 148 149 current chromatogram (TIC), as previously reported (e.g., González-Mas et al., 2011; 150 Moreno et al., 2012; Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2010). The percentage of each compound was also estimated as the ratio of its peak area relative to the total of 151 152 compounds identified. 2.4. Statistical analysis 153 154 The five populations of water celery data were used for determining the mean value of 155 the species, and coefficients of variation (CV) were calculated. Data were log₂transformed for normalization. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed and 156 significant differences were calculated with the multiple range Student-Newman-Keuls 157 test. In addition, the relative abundance of each compound in the different samples was 158 calculated as the ratio between the peak area of the compound against the total area of 159 160 the compounds identified in the sample. Finally, an illustrative comparison of the profiles in the different species was performed 161 162 by means of both Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Hierarchical Cluster 163 Analysis, using the ClustVis Tool (Metsalu & Vilo, 2015). Unit variance scaling for the normalized and centred data was applied for PCA. The Hierarchical Cluster Analysis 164 165 was performed with the distance measures based on Pearson correlations. 166 3. Results 167 3.1. VOCs detected among the different species analysed 168 A total of 64 VOCs were identified among the different species (Table 1). Terpenes 169 represented the largest group in all the materials studied (41 compounds, 16 170 171 monoterpenes and 25 sesquiterpenes). In addition, terpenoid-derived compounds were 172 also found, including several alcohols (two monoterpene-derived, four sesquiterpene-

173	derived and one diterpene-derived), three monoterpene-derived esters, one
174	monoterpene-derived ketone and one sesquiterpene-derived ether. Phenylpropanoids,
175	including myristicin and the derivatives apiol and dillapiol were also detected. Finally,
176	other compounds detected included two aromatic hydrocarbons, two ketones, one ester,
177	one cyclic alkene, two furanes and one thiazole.
178	The occurrence of the identified compounds differed among species. At a qualitative
179	level, water celery and parsley presented the most diverse volatile fraction, with forty-
180	four compounds identified in each species. On the contrary, celery showed the least
181	diverse volatile composition with only thirty-one VOCs, while carrot (both roots and
182	leaves) showed an intermediate level with thirty-seven VOCs (Table 1).
183	3.2. Volatile profile of water celery
184	The volatile profile of water celery was mainly characterized by terpene hydrocarbons.
185	The average relative abundance of monoterpenes ranged between 39.1 (Nod-025) and
186	61.3% (Nod-001); however, the highest absolute levels were determined for Nod-018
187	(Table 2). On the contrary, Nod-025 presented the highest level in sesquiterpenes, more
188	than 2-fold the levels of Nod-001. In relative terms, these contents corresponded to 53.9
189	and 25.8%, respectively.
190	The main terpenes targeted in the species were germacrene D (S17, 16.6% on average),
191	<i>allo</i> -ocimene (M16, 11.9%), limonene (M9, 11.1%), β -(Z)-ocimene (M11, 9.7%), and
192	terpinolene (M14, 7.3%) (Table 3). However, significant differences in quantitative
193	terms and relative abundance were found among populations (Table 2). Nod-025
194	displayed the highest levels of germacrene D, 2.3-fold higher than Nod-001, and
195	represented 22.5% of the total VOCs within this population. On the contrary, Nod-001
196	displayed the greatest area of limonene (M9), corresponding to a relative abundance of
197	18.0%. Terpinolene (M14) was also relevant in Nod-018, with a content up to 5-fold

higher than the other populations; while β-caryophyllene (S10) was accumulated in 198 high, similar content in Nod-015 and Nod-025. By contrast, allo-ocimene (M16) and β-199 200 (Z)-ocimene (M11) had similar levels in the five populations. Phenylpropanoids were also relevant in the species, with a relative abundance between 201 202 5.2% (Nod-025) and 15.0% (Nod-018) (Table 2). Dillapiol was the main phenylpropanoid in all populations except Nod-001, with levels of expression similar to 203 relevant terpenes. Only in Nod-001, myristicin (P1) was found in higher relative 204 205 abundance than dillapiol (P2), representing the former 8.4% of total. Interestingly, Nod-025 did not accumulated myristicin (P1). 206 3.3. Comparison of the volatile profile of water celery with related crops 207 208 Water celery was determined as the species with the highest values of total VOCs, 209 followed by parsley, while celery and the carrot samples presented low contents (Table 210 3). As in water celery, terpenoids were also the main group in all related species, with 211 monoterpenes relative abundances between 49.8% and 75.3% (carrot leaves and 212 parsley, respectively). Sesquiterpenes represented also the second major class in celery 213 and carrot materials, although the total absolute levels were significantly lower compared to water celery. By contrast, the relative abundance of phenylpropanoids in 214 parsley was greater than the sesquiterpenes fraction (16.2% and 7.3% on average, 215 216 respectively) (Table 3). In parsley, the main monoterpenes were 1,3,8-p-menthatriene (M15, 24.0% on average), 217 β-phellandrene (M10, 15.1%) and terpinolene (M14, 13.6%) (Table 3). As 218 phenylpropanoids, the species presented myristicin (P1) and apiol (P3) at relative 219 220 abundances of 7.6 and 9.0%, respectively. Celery also had great amounts of terpenes, 221 specially limonene (M9, 31.0%), and β-caryophyllene (S10, 23.6%) (Table 3). β-Selinene (S18) was the third in abundance (12.0%). Phenylpropanoids were not found 222

223	in celery, and other compounds such as terpenoid derived compounds were present in
224	low amounts, representing only 1.8 % of the VOCs profile of this species. On the other
225	hand, the leaves and roots of carrot, even belonging to the same species, had important
226	differences (Table 3). The most abundant VOC in leaves was β -myrcene (M5),
227	representing 26.3% of its aroma. Other terpenes of relevance were germacrene D (S17,
228	13.2%), β -caryphyllene (S10, 9.7%) and α -pinene (M2, 9.0%). By contrast, terpinolene
229	was the main terpene of carrot roots (M14, 31.0%), followed by β -caryophyllene and α -
230	pinene (23.7 and 6.9%, respectively). Myristicin was the unique phenylpropanoid found
231	in the species, and accounted for 11.4% of total in carrot root but was only present as
232	traces in carrot leaf (Table 3).
233	The hierarchical cluster analysis showed the differences and similarities among species
234	in an illustrative way. The analysis separated two main clusters: A and B, including
235	different subclusters (Fig. 2). Subcluster A1 grouped the sesquiterpenes found in water
236	celery, which were at the highest contents compared to the related crops. Germacrene D
237	(S17), main compound of water celery, was found in this subcluster. Levels of this VOC
238	were on average 4-fold higher than in carrot leaves, although representing similar
239	relative abundances, and even higher compared to the other materials (Table 3). In this
240	subcluster was also included the phenylpropanoid myristicin (P1), determined at similar
241	levels in water celery, parsley and carrot roots but accounting for different relative
242	abundances (Table 3). Within the subcluster A2, A2.1 included the most relevant
243	monoterpenes in water celery: limonene (M9), found at similar content in celery but
244	representing in the latter a higher relative abundance, and <i>allo</i> -ocimene (M16), present
245	in all materials but displaying the highest content in water celery (Fig. 2, Table 3).
246	Subcluster A2.2 grouped the isomers α -caryophyllene (S14) and β -caryophyllene (S10)
247	and the derived caryophyllene oxide (SE1) (Fig. 2), whose content varied among

samples. In particular, β-caryophyllene (S10) had similar levels to carrot leaves and 248 celery although the relative abundance in water celery was lower (Table 3). Finally, 249 250 subcluster A2.3, which clearly separated the volatile profile of water celery from the rest of species, included among others, the compounds reported as unique for water 251 252 celery (1,2-benzothiazole, T1; spathulenol, A4; dillapiol, P2; 4-hydroxy-3-methyl acetophenone, K3; and α-gurjunene, S8) (Fig. 2). 253 Subclusters in cluster B grouped compounds of relevance for the other species (Fig. 2). 254 255 Most compounds grouped in subcluster B1 were exclusive of celery, such as β-selinene (S18), one of the main VOCs of celery, and α -selinene (S20); or found in the species at 256 the highest content, like α-cedrene (S9), also present in parsley but at significant lower 257 levels (Table 3). On the contrary, subcluster B2.1 grouped some of the main compounds 258 of parsley (Fig. 2). In this subcluster was included the compound 1,3,8-p-menthatriene 259 260 (M15), on average 280-fold higher than in water celery; but also those exclusive for the 261 species including β-phellandrene (M10), with similar levels to limonene (M9) in water 262 celery, and apiol (P3), close to the levels of dillapiol (P2) in water celery (Table 3). 263 Finally, subcluster B2.2 grouped compounds unique from carrot (e.g. βsesquiphellandrene, S12; and (Z)- β -farnesene) together with others found also in parsley 264 at considerable levels like α -pinene (M2), which level in these species was higher than 265 266 in water celery. The PCA score plot clearly separated the materials evaluated according to the 267 qualitative and quantitative differences described among them (Fig. 3). The first two 268 principal components accounted for 63.0% of the variance (PC1 37.8%, PC2 25.2%), 269 270 which increased to 79.5% when the third principal component was considered. Water 271 celery and celery were clearly separated in the PC1, while the samples of parsley and 272 leaves of carrot overlapped. By contrast, the second principal component grouped the

materials by species, overlapping the roots and aerial parts of carrot and with water celery and celery being very close to each other. Finally, the third principal component separated the roots of carrot from the other leafy materials (Fig. 3).

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

273

274

275

4. Discussion

Water celery has been traditionally gathered from the wild and included in the culinary tradition of several countries, especially among the Mediterranean cultures, that lived in close connection with the nature. Despite the popularity of this wild vegetable, described as an aromatic herb with spicy, intense flavour (Guarrera & Savo, 2013, 2016), there are few works focused on the aromatic profile of the species, based in the analysis of the extracted essential oil from dried leaves and with pharmacological and environmental purposes (Benelli et al., 2017; Heshmati Afshar et al., 2017; Maxia et al., 2012; Menghini et al., 2010). Here we provide for the first time the volatile profile of the unprocessed water celery shoots using the HS-SPME technique instead of other extracting methods. Previous works reported this species as rich in monoterpene hydrocarbons (20.9 to 58.7%) and phenylpropanoids (33.9 to 70.8%) (Benelli et al., 2017; Heshmati Afshar et al., 2017; Maxia et al., 2012; Menghini et al., 2010), while the sesquiterpene fraction represented less than 7.0% of total volatiles. By contrast, in our study, sesquiterpenes ranged from 25.7 to 53.9%. These differences probably derived from the extraction method and analysis employed. In this way, Stashenko, Jaramillo and Martínez (2004) found that the HS-SPME technique significantly increased the percentage of total sesquiterpenes, in comparison to other techniques. On the other hand, drying methods may also affect the extraction of VOCs, although differences in these terms are not clear and apparently depend on the spice, drying method and compound considered (Díaz-

298	Maroto, Pérez-Coello & Cabezudo, 2002; Pirbalouti, Mahdad & Craker, 2013).
299	Consequently, monoterpenes and phenylpropanoids, specially limonene, dillapiol and
300	myristicin were previously described as the main VOCs (Benelli et al., 2017; Heshmati
301	Afshar et al., 2017; Maxia et al., 2012; Menghini et al., 2010). By contrast, the HS-
302	SPME technique allowed in our work to identify the sesquiterpene germacrene D as the
303	main VOC in fresh leaves of water celery, while the relative abundance of
304	phenylpropanoids were not higher than 15% in any of the populations.
305	Our results showed that the volatile profile of water celery is quantitative and
306	qualitatively very rich, at the same or even higher level than parsley. The main aroma
307	constituents of water celery were germacrene D (S17), which provides weak spicy and
308	fruity flavour, and limonene (M9), with citrus and fresh notes (Acree and Arn, 2004;
309	Jirovetz, Buchbauer, Ngassoum & Geissler, 2002; "The Good Scents Company", 2018);
310	as well as allo-ocimene (M16), terpinolene (M14), and β -caryophyllene (S10), which
311	provide different woody, spicy and sweet notes (Acree and Arn, 2004; Jirovetz et al.,
312	2002; "The Good Scents Company", 2018). Also, the great content in dillapiol (P2)
313	contributed to the spicy and woody notes that can be detected in this vegetable.
314	Moreover, the specific aroma of a species is due not only to the main components, but
315	also the relative abundance of them (Auda, Pineau, Mestdagh, Poisson, & Rytz, 2016).
316	The aroma of water celery has been described as a mixture of carrot and celery
317	(Heshmati Afshar et al., 2017), with notes that related it to parsley. The aromatic profile
318	described here reinforces this idea. On the one hand, all of them were rich in terpenes.
319	This family of VOCs has been described as the main group in the essential oil in
320	Apiaceae species, together with the phenylpropanoids (e.g., El-Zaeddi et al., 2016;
321	Jawdat, Al-Faoury, Odeh & Al-Safadi, 2015; Valente et al., 2013). Many sesquiterpenes
322	determined here provide herbal and woody notes (Acree and Arn, 2004; Jirovetz et al.,

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

2002; "The Good Scents Company", 2018), whose presence would characterise the common, basal aroma in all the materials. Moreover, some of the most prominent VOCs of water celery were present in a similar relative abundance in celery, carrot and, to a lesser extent, in parsley. For instance, limonene (M9), β-caryophyllene (S10), alloocimene (M16), β -(Z)-ocimene (M11) and terpinolene (M14) were the predominant compounds of celery and were in high relative abundances also in water celery. All these VOCs are probably the reason for similarities in the aroma of both vegetables. The same happened with the presence of β-caryophyllene (S10) and terpinolene (M14) in carrot samples. And probably the notes of parsley come from the phenylpropanoid myriscitin (P1) present in parsley and water celery. On the contrary, the presence of other unique compounds, such as dillapiol (P2) or spathulenol (A4), and the specific combinations of VOCs present, would contribute further to differentiate the aroma of water celery. Also, our findings showed that the volatile fraction of water celery was quantitatively richer compared to the related species evaluated, particularly in the levels of sesquiterpenes. An increasing content in these compounds would be reflected in a more intense aroma. In fact, the aroma and taste of wild edible vegetables is frequently cited as one of the sociocultural reasons behind the consumption of these plants (Serrasolses et al., 2016); and, in the case of water celery, this is a critical point for its consumption since the vegetable is described as an aromatic ingredient and, therefore, is used for adding flavour to several dishes (Guarrera and Savo, 2013, 2016). Finally, differences among the five water celery populations were described, in terms of absolute GC areas and for relative abundance of individual compounds. The genotype can be responsible in the production and accumulation of volatile compounds (Darriet, Andreani, De Cian, Costa, & Muselli, 2014). Thus, our results may be used in future

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

works of selection and adaptation for developing a new crop adapted to the consumers' preferences. For instance, Nod-001 presented the lowest levels in sesquiterpenes, so the intensity of the woody and herbal odour that many of these compounds provide, would be the lowest. On the contrary, this population may be selected for developing a variety with more intense citrus and minty notes, due to the higher content and relative abundance in limonene (M9) of this accession. By contrast, Nod-025 could be selected for the high content combined with relative abundance in germacrene D (S17) and βcaryophyllene (S10), two main sesquiterpenes that would provide woody and spicy notes with high intensity due to their content. Moreover, based on the variation found in our materials and considering that only populations of the Horta Nord shire of Valencia were studied, our results suggest that more diversity on the volatile composition for this species could be found in other areas. This suggestion is supported by the differences that Maxia et al. (2012) found between specimens coming from Italy or Portugal. Therefore, further surveys are advisable in order to widen the genetic pool available for breeding based on the organoleptic quality of this species. In addition, the use of controlled conditions for growing materials in the subsequent steps of the breeding program would be useful for minimising the environmental effect.

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

5. Conclusion

As a whole, the volatile profile of water celery was determined as rich in terpenes, but also the phenylpropanoids dillapiol and myristicin presented relevant contents in the fresh leaves of this vegetable. In contrast to previous studies, the sesquiterpene fraction was accumulated in higher percentage in our water celery materials, differences that may be related to the extraction protocol and analysis of the VOCs. In fact, the HS-SPME technique employed in the current study allowed identifying germacrene D as

Versión autor

the main compound of water celery, together with limonene and *allo*-ocimene. 373 Differences found among the populations for these contents and relative abundance may 374 375 present a genetic component, thus allowing the selection of materials according to consumers' preferences. 376 The particular aroma of water celery, although unique, presented similarities in the 377 relative abundance of different VOCs with their relatives. These similarities would 378 account for the similarities in the aroma of water celery and the other species. In 379 380 addition, the sesquiterpene family of VOCs was accumulated in higher concentration in water celery, which would be reflected in a more intense aroma with herbal, spicy and 381 citrus notes. Therefore, this distinct aroma quality may be useful for the differentiation 382 and enhancement of water celery as new salad ingredient, enhancing its value as a 383 potential new crop for vegetable diversification. 384 385 **Declarations of interest** 386 387 None. 388 389 Acknowledgments C. Guijarro-Real thanks the Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte of Spain 390 391 (MECD) for the financial support with a predoctoral FPU grant (FPU14-06798). 392 Authors also thank Manuel Figueroa for his unvaluable ethnobotanical knowledge and advice, as well as his support in the survey of water celery in the Horta Nord shire. 393 394 **Funding sources** 395 396 This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors. 397

References

398

Acree, T., & Arn, H. (2004). Flavornet. Retrieved from 399 400 http://www.flavornet.org/flavornet.html. Accessed 09 May 2018. Auda, M., Pineau, N., Mestdagh, F., Poisson, L., & Rytz, A. (2016, March). Proposal of 401 402 statistical procedure to relate aroma chemistry data to aroma sensory data. Poster session presentation at the 14th Symposium on Statistical Methods for the Food 403 Industry. Lausanne. 404 405 Benelli, G., Pavela, R., Ricciutelli, M., Lupidi, G., & Maggi, F. (2017). Efficacy of the volatile oil from water celery (Helosciadium nodiflorum, Apiaceae) against the 406 filariasis vector Culex quinquefasciatus, the housefly Musca domestica, and the 407 African cotton leafworm Spodoptera littoralis. Chemistry and Biodiversity, 14, 408 409 e1700376. 410 Cioanca, O., Hancianu, M., Mircea, C., Trifan, A., & Hritcu, L. (2016). Essential oils from Apiaceae as valuable resources in neurological disorders: Foeniculi vulgare 411 412 aetheroleum. Industrial Crops and Products, 88, 51–57. 413 Darriet, F., Andreani, S., De Cian, M. C., Costa, J., & Muselli, A. (2014). Chemical variability and antioxidant activity of Eryngium maritimum L. essential oils from 414 Corsica and Sardinia. Flavour and Fragrance Journal, 29, 3–13. 415 416 Dev, V., Whaley, W. H., Bailey, S. R., Chea, E., Dimaano, J. G., Jogani, D. K., Ly, B., & Eggett, D. (2010). Essential oil composition of nine Apiaceae species from 417 western United States that attract the female Indra Swallowtail butterfly (Papilio 418 indra). Biochemical Systematics and Ecology, 38, 538–547. 419 Díaz-Maroto, M. C., Pérez-Coello, M. S., & Cabezudo, M. D. (2002). Effect of drying 420 421 method in the volatiles in bay leaf (Laurus nobilis L.). Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 50, 4520-4524. 422

El-Zaeddi, H., Calín-Sánchez, Á., Martínez-Tomé, J., Noguera-Artiaga, L., Burló, F., & 423 Carbonell-Barrachina, Á. A. (2016). Irrigation dose and plant density affect the 424 essential oil content and sensory quality of parsley (*Petroselinum sativum*). 425 Scientia Horticulturae, 206, 1–6. 426 427 Evans, R., & Irving, M. (2018). Forager. Retrieved from forager.org.uk. Accessed 27 July 2018. 428 Evergetis, E., & Haroutounian, S. A. (2014). Exploitation of Apiaceae family plants as 429 430 valuable renewable source of essential oils containing crops for the production of fine chemicals. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 54, 70–77. 431 Filly, A., Fernandez, X., Minuti, M., Visinoni, F., Cravotto, G., & Chemat, F. (2014). 432 Solvent-free microwave extraction of essential oil from aromatic herbs: From 433 laboratory to pilot and industrial scale. Food Chemistry, 150, 193–198. 434 435 González-Mas, M. C., Rambla, J. L., Alamar, M. C., Gutiérrez, A., & Granell, A. (2011). Comparative analysis of the volatile fraction of fruit juice from different 436 437 Citrus species. PLoS ONE, 6, e22016. 438 Guarrera, P. M., & Savo, V. (2013). Perceived health properties of wild and cultivated food plants in local and popular traditions of Italy: A review. *Journal of* 439 Ethnopharmacology, 146, 659–680. 440 441 Guarrera, P. M., & Savo, V. (2016). Wild food plants used in traditional vegetable mixtures in Italy. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 185, 202–234. 442 Heshmati Afshar, F., Maggi, F., Iannarelli, R., Cianfaglione, K., & Isman, M. B. (2017). 443 Comparative toxicity of *Helosciadium nodiflorum* essential oils and combinations 444 of their main constituents against the cabbage looper, Trichoplusia ni 445 446 (Lepidoptera). Industrial Crops and Products, 98, 46–52. Jawdat, D., Al-Faoury, H., Odeh, A., & Al-Safadi, B. (2015). Essential oils in seeds of 447

Daucus spp.: Insights into the development of potential new cultivars. Industrial 448 449 *Crops and Products*, 74, 867–874. 450 Jirovetz, L., Buchbauer, G., Ngassoum, M. B., & Geissler, M. (2002). Aroma compound analysis of *Piper nigrum* and *Piper guineense* essential oils from 451 452 Cameroon using solid-phase microextraction-gas chromatography, solid-phase microextraction-gas chromatography-mass spectrometry and olfactometry. Journal 453 of Chromatography A, 976, 265–275. 454 455 Knees, S. (2003). Apium L. In S. Castroviejo, G. Nieto, S. Jury, & A. Herrero (Eds.), Flora Ibérica: Plantas vasculares de la Península Ibérica e Islas Baleares (pp. 456 457 269–275). Madrid: Real Jardín Botánico, CSIC. Landoulsi, A., Roumy, V., Duhal, N., Skhiri, F. H., Rivière, C., Sahpaz, S., Neut, C., 458 Benhamida, J., & Hennebelle, T. (2016). Chemical composition and antimicrobial 459 460 activity of the essential oil from aerial parts and roots of Eryngium barrelieri 461 Boiss. and Eryngium glomeratum Lam. from Tunisia. Chemistry and Biodiversity, 462 *13*, 1720–1729. 463 Licata, M., Tuttolomondo, T., Leto, C., Virga, G., Bonsangue, G., Cammalleri, I., Gennaro, M. C., & La Bella, S. (2016). A survey of wild plant species for food use 464 in Sicily (Italy) - results of a 3-year study in four Regional Parks. *Journal of* 465 466 Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine, 12, 12. López-Gresa, M. P., Lisón, P., Campos, L., Rodrigo, I., Rambla, J. L., Granell, A., 467 468 Conejero, V., & Bellés, J. M. (2017). A non-targeted metabolomics approach 469 unravels the VOCs associated with the tomato immune response against 470 Pseudomonas syringae. Frontiers in Plant Science, 8, 1188. 471 Maggi, F., Bartolucci, F., & Conti, F. (2017). Chemical variability in volatile 472 composition between several Italian accessions of Siler montanum (S. montanum

subsp. montanum and S. montanum subsp. siculum). Biochemical Systematics and 473 Ecology, 70, 14-21. 474 475 Maxia, A., Falconieri, D., Piras, A., Porcedda, S., Marongiu, B., Frau, M. A., Gonçalves, M. J., Cabral, C., Cavaleiro, C., & Salgueiro, L. (2012). Chemical 476 composition and antifungal activity of essential oils and supercritical CO₂ extracts 477 of Apium nodiflorum (L.) Lag. Mycopathologia, 174, 61–67. 478 Menghini, L., Leporini, L., Tirillini, B., Epifano, F., & Genovese, S. (2010). Chemical 479 480 composition and inhibitory activity against Helicobacter pylori of the essential oil of Apium nodiflorum (Apiaceae). Journal of Medicinal Food, 13, 228–230. 481 Metsalu, T., & Vilo, J. (2015). ClustVis: A web tool for visualizing clustering of 482 multivariate data using Principal Component Analysis and heatmap. Nucleic Acids 483 Research, 43, W566–W570. 484 485 Molina, M., Pardo-de-Santayana, M., & Tardío, J. (2016). Natural production and cultivation of Mediterranean wild edibles. In M. Sánchez-Mata & J. Tardío (Eds.), 486 487 *Mediterranean wild edible plants: Ethnobotany and food composition tables* (pp. 81–107). New York: Springer New York. 488 Moreno, E., Fita, A., González-Mas, M. C., & Rodríguez-Burruezo, A. (2012). HS-489 SPME study of the volatile fraction of *Capsicum* accessions and hybrids in 490 491 different parts of the fruit. Scientia Horticulturae, 135, 87–97. Mzoughi, Z., Chahdoura, H., Chakroun, Y., Cámara, M., Fernández-Ruiz, V., Morales, 492 493 P., Mosbah, H., Flamini, G., Snoussi, M., & Majdoub, H. (2018). Wild edible Swiss chard leaves (Beta vulgaris L. var. cicla): Nutritional, phyochemical 494 composition and biological activities. Food Research International, in press. 495 496 Nebel, S., Pieroni, A., & Heinrich, M. (2006). Ta chòrta: Wild edible greens used in the Graecanic area in Calabria, Southern Italy. *Appetite*, 47, 333–342. 497

Pirbalouti, A. G., Mahdad, E., & Craker, L. (2013). Effects of drying methods on 498 qualitative and quantitative properties of essential oil of two basil landraces. Food 499 500 Chemistry, 141, 2440-2449. Ouassinti, L., Bramucci, M., Lupidi, G., Barboni, L., Ricciutelli, M., Sagratini, G., 501 502 Papa, F., Caprioli, G., Petrelli, D., Vitali, L. A., Vittori, S., & Maggi, F. (2013). In 503 vitro biological activity of essential oils and isolated furanosesquiterpenes from the neglected vegetable Smyrnium olusatrum L. (Apiaceae). Food Chemistry, 138, 504 505 808-813. 506 Raut, J. S., & Karuppayil, S. M. (2014). A status review on the medicinal properties of 507 essential oils. Industrial Crops and Products, 62, 250–264. Rodríguez-Burruezo, A., Kollmannsberger, H., González-Mas, M. C., Nitz, S., & Nuez, 508 509 F. (2010). HS-SPME comparative analysis of genotypic diversity in the volatile fraction and aroma-contributing compounds of Capsicum fruits from the annuum-510 511 chinense-frutescens complex. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 58, 512 4388-4400. 513 Serrasolses, G., Calvet-Mir, L., Carrió, E., D'Ambrosio, U., Garnatje, T., Parada, M., 514 Vallès, J., & Reyes-García, V. (2016). A matter of taste: Local explanations for the consumption of wild food plants in the Catalan Pyrenees and the Balearic Islands. 515 516 Economic Botany, 70, 176–189. Stashenko, E. E., Jaramillo, B. E., & Martínez, J. R. (2004). Comparison of different 517 518 extraction methods for the analysis of volatile secondary metabolites of *Lippia* alba (Mill.) N.E. Brown, grown in Colombia, and evaluation of its in vitro 519 520 antioxidant activity. Journal of Chromatography A, 1025, 93–103. Tabanca, N., Demirci, B., Baser, K. H. C., Mincsovics, E., Khan, S. I., Jacob, M. R., & 521 Wedge, D. E. (2007). Characterization of volatile constituent of Scaligeria 522

523	tripartita and studies on the antifungal activity against phytopathogenic fungi.
524	Journal of Chromatography B, 850, 221–229.
525	Tardío, J., Sánchez-Mata, M. C., Morales, R., Molina, M., García-Herrera, P., Morales,
526	P., Díez-Marqués, C., Fernández-Ruiz, V., Cámara, M., Pardo-de-Santayana, M.,
527	Matallana-González, M. C., Ruiz-Rodríguez, B. M., Sánxhez-Mata, D., Torija-
528	Isasa, M. E., Guil-Guerrero, J. L., & Boussalah, N. 2016. Ethnobotanical and food
529	composition monographs of selected Mediterranean wild edible plants. In M.
530	Sánchez-Mata & J. Tardío (Eds.), Mediterranean wild edible plants: Ethnobotany
531	and food composition tables (pp. 273-470). New York: Springer New York.
532	Taveira, M., Fernandes, F., Guedes de Pinho, P., Andrade, P. B., Pereira, J. A., &
533	Valentão, P. (2009). Evolution of Brassica rapa var. rapa L. volatile composition
534	by HS-SPME and GC/IT-MS. Microchemical Journal, 93, 140–146.
535	The Good Scents Company. (n.d.). http://www.thegoodscentscompany.com/. Accessed
536	19 May 2018.
537	Valente, J., Zuzarte, M., Gonçalves, M. J., Lopes, M. C., Cavaleiro, C., Salgueiro, L., &
538	Cruz, M. T. (2013). Antifungal, antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activities of
539	Oenanthe crocata L. essential oil. Food and Chemical Toxicology, 62, 349–354.
540	Wild Food UK. (2018). http://www.wildfooduk.com/hedgerow-food-guide/fools-
541	watercress-1-hedgerow/ Accessed 27 July 2018.

Table 1. List of volatile organic compounds (VOC) identified in the present study with its retention index (RI), identification method (Id) and their presence in the materials studied: water celery (WaCel), carrot leaf (CtL), carrot root (CtR), celery (Cel) and parsley (Par).

VOC	Code	RI	Id ^d	Wa Cel	CtL	CtR	Cel	Par
Alcohols								
p-cymen-8-ol ^a	A1	1197	MS	X		X	X	
(Z)-carveol ^a	A2	1206	MS	X			X	
germacrene D-4-ol ^b	A3	1660	MS	X				X
spathulenol ^b	A4	1536	MS	X				
α -cadinol ^b	A5	1580	MS	X				X
α-bisabolol ^b	A6	1625	R	X	X	X		
phytol ^c	A7	2045	MS	X	X		X	X
Esters								
(Z)-3-hexenyl acetate	E1	992	MS		X			X
bornyl acetate ^a	E2	1277	MS			X		X
carvyl acetate ^a	E3	1346	MS				X	
α-terpinyl acetate ^a	E4	1432	MS			X		
Furanes								
4,7-dimethyl benzofuran	F1	1244	MS					X
3-butylidenephtalide	F2	1655	MS				X	
Aromatic hydrocarbons								
1-Methyl-4-sec-butylbenzene	H1	1141	MS	**	**	**	• •	X
β-methylnaphthalene	H2	1345	R	X	X	X	X	X
Ketones	TZ 1	1140) / C					V
<i>p</i> -methylacetophenone	K1	1142	MS	v			X	X
carvone ^a 4-hydroxy-3-methyl	K2	1190	R	X			Λ	
acetophenone	K3	1363	MS	X				
Monoterpenes								
α-thujene	M 1	902	MS					X
α-pinene	M2	948	R	X	X	X	X	X
camphene	M3	943	R		X	X	X	X
β-pinene	M4	943	R	X	X	X	X	X
β-myrcene	M5	958	R	X	X	X	X	X
α-phellandrene	M6	969	R	X	X	X	X	X

α-terpinene	M7	998	R	X	X	X	X	X
<i>p</i> -cymene	M8	1042	R	X	X	X	X	X
limonene	M9	1018	R	X	X	X	X	X
β-phellandrene	M10	964	MS					X
β -(<i>Z</i>)-ocimene	M11	976	R	X	X	X	X	X
β -(E)-ocimene	M12	976	R	X	X	X	X	X
γ-terpinene	M13	998	R	X	X	X	X	X
terpinolene	M14	1052	R	X	X	X	X	X
1,3,8- <i>p</i> -menthatriene	M15	1029	MS	X		X	X	X
allo-ocimene	M16	993	R	X	X	X	X	X
Phenylpropanoids								
myristicin	P1	1516	R	X	X	X		X
dillapiol	P2	1705	MS	X				
apiol	P3	1705	MS					X
Sesquiterpenes								
δ-elemene	S 1	1367	MS	X	X	X		X
α-cubebene	S2	1344	MS	X	X	X		X
ylangene	S3	1221	MS	X	X	X		X
α-copaene	S4	1221	R	X	X	X	X	X
β-bourbonene	S5	1339	MS	X	X			X
β-cubebene	S6	1339	MS	X	X	X	X	X
β-elemene	S7	1398	R	X	X	X	X	X
α-gurjunene	S8	1419	R	X				
α-cedrene	S9	1403	R				X	X
β-caryophyllene	S10	1494	R	X	X	X	X	X
α-bergamotene	S11	1430	R	X	X	X	X	X
β-sesquiphellandrene	S12	1446	MS		X	X		
γ-muurolene	S13	1435	MS	X	X			X
α-caryophyllene	S14	1579	R	X	X	X	X	X
(Z) - β -farnesene	S15	1440	R		X	X		
α-curcumene	S16	1524	MS				X	
germacrene D	S17	1515	R	X	X	X		X
β-selinene	S18	1469	MS				X	
α-zingiberene	S19	1451	MS			X		
α-selinene	S20	1474	MS				X	
β-bisabolene	S21	1500	MS		X	X		X
γ-cadinene	S22	1435	MS	X	X	X		X
δ-cadinene	S23	1469	MS	X	X		X	
cadala-(1,10)-3,8-triene	S24	1423	MS	X	X	X		X
cadalene	S25	1706	MS	X	X			
Ethers								
4	CE1	1507	D	X	X	X	X	X
caryophyllene oxide ^b	SE1	1507	R	Λ	1	Λ	Λ	1

Thiazols

	1,2-benzothiazole	T1	1208	MS	X		
546	^a Monoterpenoid derived compo	und					
547	^b Sesquiterpenoid derived compo	ound					
548	^c Diterpenoid derived compound						
549	^d The identification of the VOCs is indicated by: R, if the VOC matched to the GC						
550	retention time and MS with subs	stances (of refer	ence; oı	MS, if the MS matched with the		
551	NIST 2005 Mass Spectral library	y and co	onsideri	ing the l	iterature available and our		
552	customized library						

Table 2. Mean values (n=3) and coefficient of variation (CV) of the individual VOCs targeted in the five populations of water celery (Nod-001, Nod-015, Nod-018, Nod-023, and Nod-025), expressed as GC peak area (x10⁶). The relative abundance is also indicated, in parentheses, as percentage from each VOC against the total identified.

VOC	Nod-001	Nod-015	Nod-018	Nod-023	Nod-025	CV
p-cymen-8-ol	1.42 a	0.43 a	4.71 b	1.64 a	1.23 a	0.82
	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	
(Z)-carveol	1.39 a	tr ^a	tr	tr	tr	2.09
	(0.0)					
germacrene D-4-ol	3.73 a	6.80 b	6.31 b	4.97 ab	6.69 b	0.28
	(0.0)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	
spathulenol	8.08 a	tr	8.62 a	7.07 a	3.51 a	0.71
	(0.1)		(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.0)	
α-cadinol	6.31 a	5.14 a	-	3.24 a	4.90 a	0.78
	(0.1)	(0.1)		(0.0)	(0.1)	
α-bisabolol	31.72 a	27.36 a	28.57 a	17.99 a	20.63 a	0.35
	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.2)	
phytol	93.35 a	85.89 a	74.39 a	83.67 a	97.99 a	0.23
	(1.2)	(1.0)	(0.7)	(1.0)	(1.1)	
β-methylnaphthalene	1.56 a	1.43 a	0.96 a	28.90 c	3.49 b	1.56
	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.3)	(0.0)	
carvone	1.48 a	2.05 a	0.73 a	1.68 a	1.00 a	0.65
	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	
4-hydroxy-3-methyl acetophenone	13.72 a	17.06 ab	11.32 a	22.01 b	14.16 a	0.29
1	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.3)	(0.2)	

α-pinene	43.93 b	34.21 ab	33.35 ab	31.45 ab	22.22 a	0.28
	(0.5)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.2)	
β-pinene	612.22 c	506.07 bc	306.07 ab	349.34 abc	247.75 a	0.41
	(7.4)	(5.6)	(2.8)	(3.9)	(2.7)	
β-myrcene	130.54 a	108.38 a	137.54 a	120.44 a	111.20 a	0.26
	(1.6)	(1.2)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.2)	
α-phellandrene	28.10 ab	21.31 a	40.20 b	30.78 ab	25.71 ab	0.25
	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.3)	
α-terpinene	tr	2.85 a	2.16 a	1.83 a	tr	1.14
_		(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)		
<i>p</i> -cymene	33.30 a	65.37 b	45.64 a	36.05 a	31.67 a	0.36
	(0.4)	(0.7)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.3)	
limonene	1476.22 d	1002.70 bc	804.87 ab	1132.49 c	767.76 a	0.27
	(18.0)	(11.0)	(7.5)	(12.7)	(8.4)	
β -(<i>Z</i>)-ocimene	874.69 a	858.05 a	1190.80 a	910.65 a	722.43 a	0.24
	(10.6)	(9.4)	(11.0)	(9.8)	(7.9)	
β -(E)-ocimene	97.56 a	85.12 a	137.94 a	95.42 a	65.71 a	0.35
	(1.2)	(0.9)	(1.3)	(1.0)	(0.7)	
γ-terpinene	94.41 a	214.61 a	145.11 a	114.40 a	102.55 a	0.46
	(1.2)	(2.3)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.1)	
terpinolene	529.08 b	251.54 a	1263.25 c	769.46 bc	620.50 bc	0.56
	(6.5)	(2.7)	(11.7)	(8.3)	(6.8)	
1,3,8-p-menthatriene	2.83 ab	1.29 a	14.23 c	5.06 b	4.79 b	0.87
	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	
allo-ocimene	1127.08 a	1043.03 a	1445.55 a	1092.00 a	850.75 a	0.25
	(13.6)	(11.4)	(13.4)	(11.7)	(9.3)	
myristicin	695.22 b	29.70 a	304.86 b	35.49 a	-	1.35
	(8.4)	(0.3)	(2.9)	(0.4)		

dillapiol	209.61 a (2.5)	647.04 ab (7.0)	1437.32 b (13.0)	681.37 ab (7.0)	466.60 ab (5.2)	0.80
δ-elemene	212.13 b (2.6)	106.95 a (1.2)	308.11 b (2.9)	262.85 b (2.9)	182.78 b (2.0)	0.39
α-cubebene	17.82 a (0.2)	37.89 bc (0.4)	26.88 b (0.3)	27.05 b (0.3)	42.46 c (0.5)	0.34
ylangene	9.42 a (0.1)	18.27 b (0.2)	15.13 b (0.1)	14.87 b (0.2)	23.24 b (0.3)	0.34
α-copaene	126.84 a (1.5)	270.68 b (3.0)	191.92 b (1.8)	191.59 b (2.2)	267.91 b (2.9)	0.30
β-bourbonene	31.50 a (0.4)	38.81 a (0.4)	33.72 a (0.3)	24.94 a (0.3)	37.14 a (0.4)	0.26
β-cubebene	65.69 a (0.8)	125.79 a (1.4)	97.80 a (0.9)	82.21 a (0.9)	128.60 a (1.4)	0.36
β-elemene	44.61 a (0.5)	40.34 a (0.4)	36.59 a (0.3)	37.62 a (0.4)	55.69 a (0.6)	0.38
α-gurjunene	5.19 b (0.1)	3.17 a (0.0)	7.16 c (0.1)	6.81 c (0.1)	5.53 bc (0.1)	0.29
β-caryophyllene	397.24 a (4.8)	847.67 b (9.3)	513.18 ab (4.8)	589.96 ab (6.7)	907.06 b (9.9)	0.37
α-bergamotene	26.55 a (0.3)	98.95 bc (1.1)	61.60 ab (0.6)	272.64 cd (3.2)	413.56 d (4.2)	1.01
γ-muurolene	92.31 a (1.1)	185.30 b (2.0)	152.68 b (1.4)	144.44 b (1.6)	226.46 b (2.5)	0.34
α-caryophyllene	126.70 a (1.5)	282.00 b (3.1)	221.88 b (2.1)	203.10 b (2.3)	311.64 b (3.4)	0.33
germacrene D	906.92 a (11.0)	1800.27 b (19.7)	1502.69 b (14.0)	1516.03 b (17.0)	2063.93 b (22.5)	0.28

γ-cadinene	60.87 a	267.10 b	276.45 b	129.64 b	143.26 b	0.60
	(0.7)	(2.9)	(2.6)	(1.4)	(1.6)	
δ-cadinene	-	-	-	-	395.55 a	2.09
					(4.3)	
cadala-(1,10)-3,8-triene	8.89 a	17.41 b	13.87 b	14.18 b	20.96 b	0.33
• • • •	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.2)	
cadalene	2.20 a	3.25 a	2.70 a	2.94 a	4.28 a	0.31
	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	
caryophyllene oxide	6.20 a	6.89 a	4.34 a	5.68 a	7.12 a	0.34
7 1 7	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.0)	(0.1)	(0.1)	
1,2-benzothiazole	0.74 a	-	0.78 a	1.04 a	0.91 a	0.58
,	(0.0)		(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	
	,		,	,	,	
Total	5050 ab	4187 ab	5566 b	4689 ab	3573 a	0.2
monoterpenes	(61.3)	(45.8)	(51.4)	(51.0)	(39.1)	
Ī	,	, ,	,	,	,	
Total	2134 a	4144 bc	3462 b	3521 b	4954 c	0.29
sesquiterpenes	(25.8)	(45.3)	(32.3)	(39.7)	(53.9)	
1 1	,	,	,	,	,	
Total	904 a	667 a	1641 b	705 a	467	0.6
phenylpropanoids	(10.9)	(7.2)	(15.0)	(7.3)	(5.2)	
	,	,	,	,	,	
Total terpenoid	153 a	134 a	128 a	125 a	143 a	0.19
derived compounds	(1.9)	(1.5)	(1.2)	(1.4)	(1.6)	
<i>T</i>		· · · /			· - /	
Total	16 a	19 a	13 a	52 b	18 a	0.64
others	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.6)	(0.2)	
	\ - · - /	\ - · - /	\ - · - /	()	(- · - /	

Versión autor

Total 8259 a 9151 a 10810 a 9091 a 9156 a 0.13

Different letters within rows indicate significant differences at P < 0.05, according to the Student-Newman-Keuls test

557 ^a tr indicates compound detected as traces

Table 3. Mean values of the individual VOCs targeted in water celery (WaCel, n=5), carrot leaves (CtL, n=3), carrot roots (CtR, n=3), celery (two samples, Cel1, n=3, and Cel2, n=3) and parsley (two samples, Par1, n=3, and Par2, n=3), expressed as GC peak area (x10⁶). The relative abundance is also given, in parentheses, as percentage of each compound against the total identified.

	WaCel	CtL	CtR	Cel1	Cel2	Par1	Par2
p-cymen-8-ol	1.89 a	-	0.89 a	-	0.20 a	-	_
	(0.0)		(0.0)		(0.0)		
(Z)-carveol	0.28 a	-	-	1.54 b	0.43 b	-	-
	(0.0)			(0.0)	(0.0)		
germacrene D-4-ol	5.70 b	-	-	-	-	0.95 a	1.06 a
	(0.1)					(0.0)	(0.0)
spathulenol	5.46 a	-	-	-	-	-	-
	(0.1)						
α-cadinol	3.92 a	-	-	-	-	2.98 a	1.74 a
	(0.0)					(0.0)	(0.0)
α-bisabolol	25.25 c	3.23 b	0.66 a	-	-	-	-
	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.0)				
phytol	87.06 e	29.58 bc	-	71.50 de	41.03 cd	16.38 a	22.83 ab
	(0.9)	(1.0)		(1.5)	(1.6)	(0.2)	(0.4)
(Z)-3-hexenyl acetate	-	181.37 a	-	-	-	-	261.92 a
		(6.4)					(5.1)
bornyl acetate	-	-	60.11 b	-	-	-	0.77 a
			(2.7)				(0.0)
carvyl acetate	-	-	-	5.34 b	1.10 a	-	_
				(0.1)	(0.0)		

α-terpinyl acetate	-	-	0.77 a (0.0)	-	-	-	-
4,7-dimethyl benzofuran	-	-	-	-	-	1.83 a (0.0)	1.47 a (0.0)
3-butylidenephtalide	-	-	-	4.75 a (0.1)	-	-	-
1-Methyl-4-sec-butylbenzene	-	-	-	-	-	1.50 a (0.0)	1.34 a (0.0)
β-methylnaphthalene	7.27 ab (0.1)	0.44 a (0.0)	tr ^a	20.30 b (0.4)	8.26 ab (0.3)	1.04 ab (0.0)	tr
<i>p</i> -methylacetophenone	-	-	-	-	-	9.23 a (0.1)	6.86 a (0.1)
carvone	1.39 b (0.0)	-	-	0.55 a (0.0)	0.29 a (0.0)	-	-
4-hydroxy-3-methyl acetophenone	15.65 a (0.2)	-	-	-	-	-	-
α-thujene	-	-	-	-	-	tr	tr
α-pinene	33.03 c (0.3)	258.01 e (9.0)	152.61 d (6.9)	8.74 a (0.2)	16.89 b (0.6)	173.80 d (2.3)	167.93 d (3.3)
camphene	tr	tr	tr	tr	2.82a (0.1)	tr	tr
β-pinene	404.29 d (4.3)	110.47 c (3.9)	75.36 bc (3.4)	19.55 a (0.4)	42.93 b (1.6)	61.69 bc (0.8)	109.21 c (2.1)
β-myrcene	121.62 c (1.3)	750.64 f (26.3)	30.67 a (1.4)	195.28 d (4.2)	86.72 b (3.3)	569.54 e (7.4)	466.73 e (9.1)
α -phellandrene	29.22 b (0.3)	tr	13.19 a (0.6)	tr	tr	223.73 c (2.9)	36.54 b (0.7)

α-terpinene	2.28 a (0.0)	tr	1.40 a (0.1)	tr	2.42 a (0.1)	14.64 b (0.2)	tr
<i>p</i> -cymene	42.41 b (0.5)	21.77 a (0.8)	22.08 a (1.0)	23.74 a (0.5)	33.06 ab (1.3)	171.21 d (2.2)	89.12 c (1.7)
limonene	1036.81 d	91.19 b	52.08 a	1478.66 e	786.04 d	141.67 с	81.70 b
β-phellandrene	(11.1)	(3.2)	(2.3)	(31.9)	(30.2)	(1.8) 1084.18 a	(1.6) 826.50 a
β -(Z)-ocimene	911.32 e	6.83 a	tr	178.84 c	257.28 d	(14.1) 10.39 ab	(16.2) 18.60 b
β -(E)-ocimene	(9.7) 96.35 c	(0.2) 133.20 c	14.98 a	(3.9) 26.11 b	(9.9) 12.65 a	(0.1) 68.28 c	(0.4) 113.72 c
γ-terpinene	(1.0) 134.22 d	(4.7) 27.02 ab	(0.7) 51.66 c	(0.6) 40.27 bc	(0.5) 66.46 c	(0.9) 22.82 ab	(2.2) 20.60 a
terpinolene	(1.4) 686.77 c	(0.9) 167.98 ab		(0.9) 122.60 a	(2.6) 247.06 b	(0.3) 1063.08 c	(0.4) 684.95 c
1,3,8-p-menthatriene	(7.3) 5.64 a	(5.9)	(31.0) 2.15 a	(2.6) 4.39 a	(9.5) 2.33 a	(13.8) 2164.54 b	(13.4) 1010.39 b
allo-ocimene	(0.1) 1111.68 d		(0.1) 0.55 a	(0.1) 291.12 c	(0.1) 321.99 c	(28.2) 12.59 b	(19.8) 20.74 b
myristicin	(11.9) 213.05 a	(0.5) tr	(0.0) 253.71 a	(6.3)	(12.4)	(0.2) 526.86 a	(0.4) 385.92 a
dillapiol	(2.3) 688.39 a	-	(11.4)	-	-	(6.9)	(7.6)
apiol	(7.3)	-	-	-	-	682.78 a	465.83 a
δ-elemene	214.56 e (2.3)	44.58 d (1.6)	15.75 c (0.7)	-	-	(8.9) 4.55 b (0.1)	(9.1) 2.06 a (0.0)

α-cubebene	30.42 d (0.3)	16.73 c (0.6)	tr	-	-	8.71 b (0.1)	5.33 a (0.1)
ylangene	(0.3) 16.19 d	(0.0) 4.77 c	tr			2.22 b	1.04 a
yrangene	(0.2)	(0.2)	u	_	_	(0.0)	(0.0)
α-copaene	(0.2) 209.79 g	38.21 d	1.60 b	2.73 c	0.97 a	(0.0) 112.94 f	57.26 e
и-сораене	(2.2)	(1.3)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.0)	(1.5)	(1.1)
β-bourbonene	33.22 c	8.62 b	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.0)	11.04 b	(1.1) 3.06 a
p-bourbonene			-	-	-		
0 1 1	(0.4)	(0.3)	1.50	5.041	1.70	(0.1)	(0.1)
β-cubebene	100.02 e	17.21 c	1.56 a	5.94 b	1.73 a	46.93 d	24.16 c
	(1.1)	(0.6)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.6)	(0.5)
β-elemene	42.97 d	8.80 c	2.65 b	4.96 c	1.35 a	8.57 c	2.96 b
	(0.5)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.0)	(0.1)	(0.1)
α-gurjunene	5.57 a	-		-	-	-	-
	(0.1)						
α-cedrene	_	_	-	13.34 d	5.97 c	1.92 b	0.95 a
				(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.0)	(0.0)
β-caryophyllene	651.02 d	278.24 c	525.64 d	1088.77 e	338.32 c	145.41 b	89.20 a
	(6.9)	(9.7)	(23.7)	(23.5)	(13.0)	(1.9)	(1.7)
α-bergamotene	174.66 c	34.86 b	49.74 b	2.07 a	2.36 a	7.54 a	6.97 a
w bergamotene	(1.9)	(1.2)	(2.2)	(0.0)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)
β-sesquiphellandrene	(1.))	9.25 b	2.24 a	(0.0)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)
p-sesquiphenandrene	_			-	-	_	-
1	160.24.1	(0.3)	(0.1)			16061	5.60
γ-muurolene	160.24 d	37.48 c	-	-	-	16.86 b	5.69 a
	(1.7)	(1.3)				(0.2)	(0.1)
α-caryophyllene	229.06 c	90.82 b	84.33 b	138.79 b	33.21 a	39.00 a	24.77 a
	(2.4)	(3.2)	(3.8)	(3.0)	(1.3)	(0.5)	(0.5)
(Z) - β -farnesene	-	29.63 b	7.07 a	-	-	-	-
		(1.0)	(0.3)				

α-curcumene	-	-	-	14.35 b (0.3)	6.75 a (0.3)	-	-
germacrene D	1557.97 e (16.6)	376.43 d (13.2)	21.50 a (1.0)	-	-	211.18 c (2.7)	68.46 b (1.3)
β-selinene	-	-	-	693.87 b (15.0)	233.83 a (9.0)	-	-
α-zingiberene	-	-	18.13 a (0.8)	-	-	-	-
α-selinene	-	-	-	167.18 b (3.6)	43.72 a (1.7)	-	-
β-bisabolene	-	9.94 a (0.3)	61.18 d (2.8)	-	-	28.14 c (0.4)	17.80 b (0.3)
γ-cadinene	175.46 c (1.9)	11.80 b (0.4)	-	-	-	8.67 b (0.1)	2.59 a (0.0)
δ-cadinene	79.11 a (0.8)	32.12 a (1.1)	-	tr	1.50 a (0.1)	-	-
cadala-(1,10)-3,8-triene	15.07 e (0.2)	2.29 d (0.1)	0.34 a (0.0)	-	-	1.05 c (0.0)	0.54 b (0.0)
cadalene	3.07 b (0.0)	0.71 a (0.0)	-	-	-	-	-
caryophyllene oxide	6.05 d (0.1)	3.28 c (0.1)	5.77 d (0.3)	5.78 d (0.1)	1.49 b (0.1)	0.61 a (0.0)	1.30 b (0.0)
1,2-benzothiazole	0.73 a (0.0)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	4615 e	1582 b	1104 a	2389 с	1879 b	5782 f	3647 d

monoterpenes	(49.2)	(55.5)	(49.8)	(51.6)	(72.2)	(75.3)	(71.4)
Total sesquiterpenes	3698 e (39.4)	1052 c (36.9)	792 bc (35.7)	2132 d (46.0)	670 b (25.7)	655 b (8.5)	313 a (6.1)
Total phenylpropanoids	901 a (9.6)	tr	254 a (11.4)	-	-	1210 a (15.8)	852 a (16.7)
Total terpenoid derived compounds	137 e (1.6)	36 bc (1.3)	68 d (3.1)	85 d (1.8)	44 c (1.7)	21 a (0.3)	28 ab (0.5)
Total others	24 a (0.2)	181 ab (6.4)	-	25 ab (0.5)	8 a (0.3)	14 a (0.2)	272 b (5.3)
Total	9376 e	2852 b	2218 a	4631 c	2601 ab	7681 d	5111 c

Different letters within rows indicate significant differences at P < 0.05, according to the Student-Newman-Keuls test

^atr indicates compound detected as traces

Versión autor



Figure 1. A1. Population of water celery growing in a ditch. A2. Material representing the edible part of this wild vegetable.

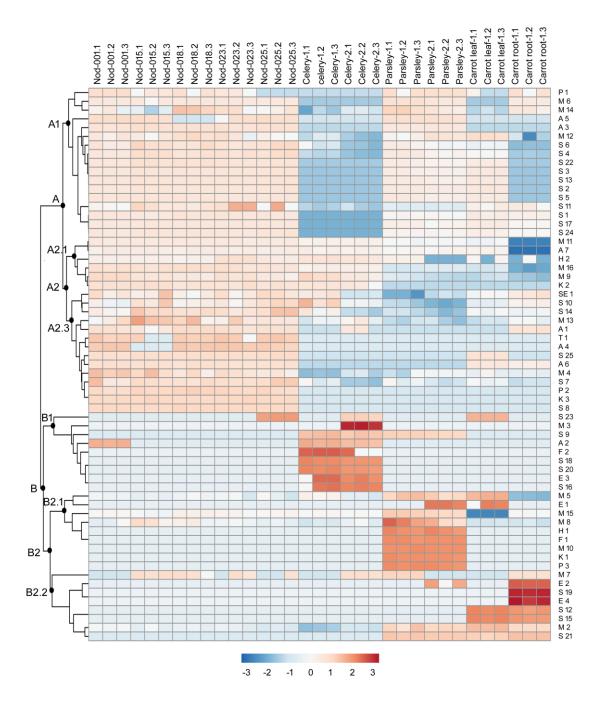


Figure 2. Hierarchical cluster analysis of the VOCs targeted in the materials studied: water celery (Nod), celery, parsley, and carrot leaf and root, including the three biological replicates of each material. VOCs are clustered in two clusters, A and B, and the correspondent subclusters. Codes of the VOCs correspond to codes indicated in Table 1.

Versión autor

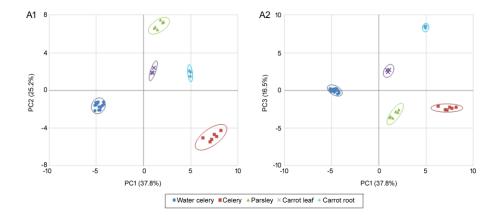


Figure 3. Scores plot from the Principal Component Analysis of the materials studied: water celery, celery, parsley, and carrot leaf and root, including the three biological replicates. A1. Analysis of the first and second principal components, A2. Analysis of the first and third principal components.