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Baustista-Ortin A.B.; Jimenez-Martinez M.D; Jurado, R.; Iniesta, JA.; Terrades-Rocafull, LS.; Andrés Grau, AM.; Gomez-Plaza, E. (2017). Application of high Power ultrasounds during red wine vinification. *International Journal of Food Science & Technology*. 52(6):1314-1323. doi:10.1111/ijfs.13411



The final publication is available at

<https://doi.org/10.1111/ijfs.13411>

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Additional Information

1 **Application of high power ultrasounds during red wine vinification**

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10

11 **Summary**

12 Wine color is one of the main organoleptic characteristics influencing its quality.
13 It is of special interest in red vinifications due to the economic resources that wineries
14 have to invest for the extraction of the phenolic compounds responsible for wine color,
15 compounds that are mainly located inside the skin cell vacuoles, where the volatile
16 compounds are also found. The transfer of phenolic compounds from grapes to must
17 during vinification is closely related with the type of grapes and the winemaking
18 technique. During traditional winemaking, grapes are crushed and skin macerated for
19 several days, with pumps overs to facilitate the color extraction. To increase this
20 extraction, some chemical (maceration enzymes) or physical technologies
21 (thermovinification, cryomaceration, flash-expansion) can be applied. In this work, a
22 new methodology has been tested. This methodology consists in the application of high
23 power ultrasounds to crushed grapes to increase the extraction of phenolic
24 compounds. Crushed grapes were treated with this non-thermal technology and
25 vinified, with 3, 6 and 8 days of skin maceration time, and the results were compared

26 with a control vinification, where crushed grapes were not subjected to any treatment
27 and were skin macerated during 8 days. The wine chromatic characteristics
28 (determined spectrophotometrically) and the individual phenolic compounds
29 (anthocyanins and tannins, determined by HPLC) were followed during the maceration
30 period, at the end of alcoholic fermentation and after two months in bottle. Also, the
31 wine volatile compounds were determined by GC-MS. The wines made with ultrasound
32 treated grapes showed differences with the control wine, especially regarding total
33 phenol content and tannin content. The wines elaborated with sonicated grapes and
34 with only three days of skin maceration time presented similar concentration of
35 anthocyanins and twice the concentration of tannins than control wines elaborated with
36 8 days of skin maceration.

37

38 **Keywords:** Ultrasound, phenolic compounds, proanthocyanidins, anthocyanidins,
39 volatile compounds

40

41 **Introduction**

42 Red wine vinification implies the maceration of grape skins with the must, this
43 step being one of the most important processes of this type of vinification. Red wine
44 quality and its stability are mainly associated with the type and concentration of
45 phenolic compounds in the grapes and with the extraction to must and wine that occurs
46 during the skin fermentation period.

47 The optimum skin contact time needed to achieve the adequate level and
48 composition of wine phenols depends on the desired wine style. It is commonly
49 assumed that maximum anthocyanin and colour is achieved within 4 to 5 days of the
50 start of the fermentation, but tannins and other flavonoids usually continue to be
51 extracted from the pomace up to the end of fermentation (Sacchi et al., 2005).

52 For wineries, the maceration process is a very important technological part of
53 the winemaking process due to the influence in the resulting wine and the economic

54 inputs that have to be used to extract the desirable substances from grape skins, not
55 only phenolic but also volatile compounds.

56 Therefore, to achieve a good and stable wine color and a desirable varietal
57 aroma a certain length of skin maceration is needed, in order to promote the extraction
58 of anthocyanins (responsible of the wine red color and located inside the cells in the
59 skin), tannins (located in skin and seeds, their presence is necessary for stabilizing the
60 unstable anthocyanins) and aroma compounds (also mainly located in the skin cells).
61 The maceration process, and therefore, the extraction of phenolics and aroma
62 compounds, starts when the grapes are crushed and it is facilitated when the ethanol
63 from the fermentation is present (Sacchi et al., 2005), so the necessary presence of
64 some ethanol determine the minimum length of the maceration. To facilitate the contact
65 of skin and must, pumping-overs are done frequently. Bautista-Ortín et al. (2004)
66 stated that the best chromatic characteristics of young Monastrell wines (as regard
67 color intensity and stability) were obtained with 10 days of skin maceration, shorter
68 times led to poor phenolic extraction and unstable colour.

69 However, sometimes problems appear for large wineries, especially in the
70 middle of the harvest time, when the capacity of the winery, especially regarding
71 maceration tanks, is exceeded due to the high quantities of grapes being transported to
72 the winery. In this case, the winery can be forced to reduce the maceration time and,
73 as a consequence, the quality of the wine and its potential for aging can be
74 compromised.

75 To face this problem some strategies have been used to shorten the maceration
76 time but maintaining color and wine quality. These techniques are mainly focused on
77 facilitating the disgregation of the cell walls of the skins (for an easier extraction of the
78 compounds located inside the cells) or facilitating the diffusion. Among these
79 techniques we can find the use of enzymes (Bautista-Ortín et al., 2005; Romero-
80 Cascales et al., 2008; Romero-Cascales et al., 2012) and the use of physical
81 methodologies as the thermovinification (de Andrade Neves et al., 2014; Jackson,

82 2000; Ribéreau-Gayon et al., 1998) or the flash release systems (Morel-Salmi et al.,
83 2006).

84 Among the physical methodologies, thermovinification has been developed to
85 enhance the extraction of phenolic components. This technique consists in warming
86 the crushed grapes with a heat exchange column (70-85°C). Heating leads to a better
87 solubilization and diffusivity of cell components; however, it may cause a significant
88 reduction in the levels of anthocyanins, flavonoids and total phenolic compounds after
89 aging in the bottle (de Andrade Neves et al., 2014) and the apparition of cooked flavors
90 and losses of volatile compounds (Geffroy et al., 2015) and it is also energy costly. The
91 flash release systems consist in rapidly heating the grapes and then applying strong
92 vacuum. This technique has also been proposed for increasing the polyphenol content
93 of red wines. Its impact on polyphenol extraction kinetics and on the polyphenol
94 composition of red juice and wines was studied by Morel-Salmi et al. (2006) and they
95 stated that the flash release process allowed an initial fast extraction of phenolic
96 compounds although the concentration of all polyphenols dramatically decreased
97 throughout fermentation when pressing was achieved immediately after the flash
98 release. If a pomace maceration time followed the application of the flash release, the
99 wines were enriched in polyphenols compared to the corresponding control wines.
100 However, in comparison to a standard vinification, a two-hour heat treatment at 70° C
101 induced a significant loss in several grape-derived aroma compounds. Moreover, the
102 process consumes relatively high quantities of energy.

103 Together with these well-known techniques, other different alternative must
104 pretreatments, such as ultrasound, pulsed electric fields, and high voltage electrical
105 discharges had been tested to enhance the extraction of phenolic compounds (El Darra
106 et al., 2013). Among these last three techniques, ultrasound is the technology that is
107 closer to be found in the market as an industrial commercial technology for optimizing
108 the maceration process.

109 The ultrasound technology is based on mechanical waves at a frequency higher
110 than the upper limit of human hearing (> 16kHz) that are transmitted through any
111 substance which possesses elastic properties (Ferraretto et al., 2013). In the food
112 industry, ultrasound can be divided into two frequency ranges: high frequency
113 ultrasound (100 kHz-1 MHz) and power ultrasound (16-100 kHz). High frequency
114 ultrasound is commonly applied as an analytical technique to provide information on
115 the physicochemical properties of food such as ripeness, sugar content, acidity, etc
116 (Demirdoven and Baysal, 2008) and power ultrasound can be used to generate
117 emulsions, disrupt cells and disperse aggregated materials (Knorr et al., 2004; Tiwari et
118 al., 2010).

119 In enology, power ultrasound may enhance the extraction of intracellular
120 compounds from skin cells during vinification, in fact, some works can be found
121 indicating that ultrasound application at 20–35 kHz enhances the extraction of
122 polyphenols from red-grape residues (Tao, Zhang, & Sun, 2014) and from grape seeds
123 (Da Porto et al., 2013). An extraction method using a sonication was developed to
124 recover total phenolic compounds and anthocyanins from grape skins (Ghafoor and
125 Choi, 2009). Furthermore, ultrasound-assisted extraction allowed the extraction of
126 anthocyanins, condensed tannins and other phenolics present in grape in a very short
127 time, compared with a classical solvent extraction (Carrera et al., 2012).

128 Other authors are exploring the possibilities of using power ultrasounds for
129 accelerating the wine aging process (Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2015) since the
130 high temperatures and pressures generated by the collapse of cavitation bubbles can
131 induce chemical reactions, and accelerate some reactions that usually occur during
132 wine aging.

133 In this paper, we focused our attention on the application of a small scale power
134 ultrasound system to crushed grapes, looking for a reduction of the maceration time
135 needed for the extraction of phenolic and volatile compounds.

136

137

138

139

140 **Materials and Methods**

141

142 *Grapes*

143 Monastrell red grapes were harvested from vineyards in the province of Murcia (Spain)
144 and they were transported the same day to the winery for their processing.

145

146 *Winemaking (micro-vinification)*

147 The grapes (200 kg) were destemmed and crushed. The crushed grapes were treated
148 with a pilot scale power ultrasound system (MiniPerseo, Agrovin S.A., Alcazar de San
149 Juan, Spain) that could treat 400 kg of crushed grapes per hour. The system operated
150 at 2500 W and 28 kHz frequency, with a power density of 8 W/cm². A batch of crushed
151 grapes was not treated (control vinification). 10 kg stainless-steel small tanks were
152 filled with the control and ultrasound treated crushed grapes. Must homogeneity in
153 each tank was achieved weighting separately the solid parts and the liquid and filling
154 each 10 L vessels with the same quantity and proportion to assure the same
155 solid:liquid ratio in each vessel. Total acidity was corrected to 5.5 g/L and selected
156 yeasts were added (Viniferm CT007, acidity Agrovin, Spain, 20 g of dry yeast/100 kg of
157 grapes). Three different skin maceration times were tested for the sonicated must: 3
158 (SW3d), 6 (SW6d) and 8 (SW8d) days, whereas the control vinification had a skin
159 maceration time of 8 days (CW). All vinifications were done in duplicate. Throughout
160 the fermentation pomace contact period, the cap was punched down twice a day. At
161 the end of this period, the wines were pressed. Free-run and press wines were
162 combined and stored at room temperature. After alcoholic fermentation was finished,
163 wines were cold stabilized at 2°C for one month and bottled. Must and wines were

164 analysed after the ultrasound treatment, at the end of skin maceration, at the end of
165 alcoholic fermentation and after two months in the bottle.

166

167

168 *Analytical determinations*

169 *Determination of wine anthocyanins:* This analysis was performed by direct injection of
170 wine samples on a Waters 2695 liquid chromatograph (Waters, Milford, PA, USA),
171 equipped with a Waters 2996 diode array detector and a Licrochart RP-18 column
172 (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), 25 x 0.4 cm, 5 µm particle size, using as solvents water
173 plus 4.5% formic acid (solvent A) and HPLC grade acetonitrile (solvent B) at a flow rate
174 of 0.8 mL/min. The chromatographic conditions were those described by Busse-
175 Valverde et al. (2011). The anthocyanins were quantified at 520 nm as malvidin-3-
176 glucoside, using malvidin-3-glucoside chloride as an external standard (Extrasynthese,
177 Genay, France).

178

179 *Determination of proanthocyanidins:* Wine samples were prepared by an optimization
180 of the method described by Pastor del Rio and Kennedy (2006) and the detailed
181 methodology can be found in Busse-Valverde et al. (2010). Briefly, five mL of wine
182 were evaporated in a centrivap concentrator (Labconco, USA), redissolved in 3 mL of
183 water and then passed through a C18-SPE column (1 g, Waters, Milford, MA). The
184 cartridge was washed with 20 mL of water, and compounds of interest were eluted with
185 10 mL of methanol, evaporated, and then dissolved in 1 mL of methanol. The analyses
186 of proanthocyanidins were done by depolymerizing the molecule using the
187 phloroglucinol reagent. The depolymerized samples (10 µL injection volume) were
188 analyzed by HPLC. The elution conditions can be found in Busse-Valverde et al.
189 (2010). Proanthocyanidin cleavage products were estimated using their response
190 factors relative to (+)-catechin, which was used as the quantitative standard. These
191 analyses allowed determination of the total proanthocyanidin content, the apparent

192 mean degree of polymerization (mDP) and the percentage of each constitutive unit.
193 The mDP was calculated as the sum of all subunits (flavan-3-ol monomer and
194 phloroglucinol adducts, in moles) divided by the sum of all flavan-3-ol monomers (in
195 moles). Wine tannin mass conversion yield was also calculated at the end of alcoholic
196 fermentation and after bottle storage, reporting a conversion yield of 37.98%±5.64 and
197 38.16%±5.70 respectively.

198

199 *Spectrophotometric parameters:* Colour intensity (CI) was calculated as the sum of
200 absorbance at 620, 520 and 420 nm, and tint as the ratio between absorbance at 420
201 nm and absorbance at 520 nm. Total and polymeric anthocyanins were determined
202 spectrophotometrically (Boulton, 2001). Total phenols (TP) were calculated by
203 measuring wine absorbance at 280 nm, according to Ribereau-Gayon et al. (1998).

204

205 *Isolation of wine and grape volatile compounds by SPME:* For the isolation of volatile
206 compounds by SPME, a divinylbenzene-carboxen-polydimethylsiloxane 50/30 micras
207 (DVB/CAR/ PDMS) fiber was used. It was conditioned before the first use by insertion
208 into the GC injector, as recommended by the manufacturer.

209 For the analysis of wine volatile compounds, 10 mL of wine were added to a 20
210 mL headspace vial. 4 g of sodium chloride and 50 µL of the internal standard (125 µL/L
211 of 2-octanol in absolute ethanol) were added to the same vial. The vial was tightly
212 sealed and loaded onto a Gerstel autosampling device (Gerstel GmbH & Co.KG,
213 Mellinghofen, Germany). The program of the autosampling device consisted on swirling
214 the vial at 500 rpm for 15 min at 40°C, then inserting the fiber into the headspace for 30
215 min at 40°C as the solution was swirled again, then transferring the fiber to the injector
216 for desorption at 240°C for 5 min. The conditions of the gas chromatograph and the
217 mass spectra can be found in Gómez-Plaza et al. (2012). Injections were done in the
218 splitless mode for 0.75 min, using a 2 mm I.D. non-deactivated direct liner for the
219 SPME.

220 Peak identification was carried out by comparing mass spectra with those of the
221 mass library (Wiley 6.0) and comparing the calculated retention indices with those
222 published in the literature. Semiquantitative data were obtained by calculating the
223 relative peak area (or TIC signal) in relation to that of the internal standard (2-octanol).

224

225

226

227 *Statistical analysis*

228 The Analysis of Variance and the Principal component analysis were carried out
229 using the statistical package Statgraphics Centurion XVI.

230

231

232 **Results and Discussion**

233 The results of the chromatic parameters are shown in Table 1. The initial must
234 already had large differences in total phenols, total anthocyanins and color intensity,
235 the sonicated must presenting the highest values for these parameters. The control
236 grapes were put in stainless steel tanks and the skins were separated from the
237 must/wine after 8 days of contact time; the same was done for sonicated crushed
238 grapes and the skins were separated from the must/wine after 3, 6 or 8 days of contact
239 time. After that, alcoholic fermentation was completed without the skins. Comparing the
240 chromatic characteristics of the different samples at the moment the skins were
241 pressed-off, sonicated samples with only 3 days of skin maceration (SW3d) showed
242 the highest values of the chromatic parameters, even when the control wine (CW8d)
243 had 5 more days of skin contact time. The content of total anthocyanins for SW3d was
244 also maximum and no differences were observed between the wines in the case of
245 polymeric anthocyanins. The highest color intensity was also found in SW3d, and the
246 lowest was observed in SW8d. It is clear that the sonication of the crushed grapes led
247 to a disruption of the cell structures that facilitated the extraction of phenolic

248 compounds during the maceration process, but the length of the skin maceration
249 modified the final chromatic characteristics of the fermenting must.

250 At the end of alcoholic fermentation, we found a slight decrease in phenolic
251 content in the wines elaborated from sonicated crushed grapes (especially those with 3
252 and 6 days of skin contact time) although for SW3d and SW8d values were still higher
253 than those of control wine. At this moment, SW3d also presented higher total and
254 polymeric anthocyanins and color intensity whereas the other wines presented similar
255 color intensity. After two months in the bottle, the phenolic content did not significantly
256 decrease for any of the wines, although there was a decrease in anthocyanins and
257 color intensity. At that moment, SW3d still maintained its chromatic differences with all
258 the other wines.

259 Anthocyanins were also analysed by HPLC (Table 2). The results were quite
260 coincident with those of the spectrophotometric values. It was quite curious that, in the
261 must, just after sonication, the anthocyanins found at maximum concentration were
262 cyanidin-3-glucoside and peonidin-3-glucoside, both being the dihydroxylated
263 anthocyanins. Romero-Cascales et al. (2005) observed a similar behaviour during the
264 initial steps of the Monastrell maceration process. At the end of skin contact time and
265 alcoholic fermentation, the profile was similar to that described for the Monastrell wine
266 variety (Romero-Cascales et al., 2005), malvidin-3-glucoside being the monomeric
267 anthocyanin present at the highest quantity, the acylation percentage being around
268 10% and the sonication process not affecting the qualitative composition of the wine
269 anthocyanin profile. The maximum content of free anthocyanins was measured right
270 after the separation of skins, the quantities presented at the end of alcoholic
271 fermentation being slightly lower (around 22 and 30% lower), the lowest decrease
272 being observed in SW3d. After two months in the bottle, the measured content
273 decreased again, probably due to factors such as polymerization with other phenolic
274 compounds and oxidation reactions (Cano-López et al., 2008).

275 Since one of the main differences between control and sonicated musts and
276 wines were related to total phenol content (as observed in Table 1), we were interested
277 in the study of the concentration and type of tannins extracted from sonicated crushed
278 grapes (Table 3). The analysis of tannins by phloroglucinolysis and HPLC gave us
279 information on the total tannin content, the mean degree of polymerization of these
280 tannins, the percentage of galloylation and the concentration of epigallocatechin, a
281 subunit that only appears in the tannins extracted from grape skin since it is absent in
282 seed tannins (Labarbe et al., 1999; Souquet et al., 1996) and can inform us of the
283 proportion of skin tannins in the wines.

284 The results showed that the sonication of the crushed grape samples doubled
285 the tannin concentration in must (in fact, tannins could not be detected in the first
286 control must samples) and wines, these compounds being the most favoured by the
287 ultrasound application, with no difference between the wines from sonicated grapes at
288 the end of skin contact time, even when different maceration times were used.
289 Differences with control wine were maintained at the end of alcoholic fermentation and
290 no decreases in tannin content could be observed after two months in bottle. The
291 percentage of galloylation was not affected by the sonication process and decreased
292 after 2 months in the bottle, however, the content of epigallocatechin was higher in
293 wines from sonicated grapes during all the studied period, indicating that the extraction
294 of skin tannins was favoured by the ultrasound treatment. This could positively affect
295 wine quality since skin tannins have frequently been described as “soft” or “ripe,”
296 contrary to seed tannins, which have been associated with more aggressive and less
297 desirable sensory descriptors like “green” or “hard.” No differences in mDP were
298 observed between the different wines and its values slightly decreased at the end of
299 alcoholic fermentation for all the wines.

300 Ferrareto et al. (2013) also studied, at laboratory scale, the effect of the
301 application of ultrasound to crushed grapes on wine color. The maceration time for the
302 ultrasound treated samples was 2, 3 and 4 days, while the time for the control sample

303 was 5 days. Coincident with our results, the sonicated crushed grapes led to musts
304 with higher polyphenol content in comparison with the reference at the beginning of
305 maceration. The same was found at the end of the process and the influence of the
306 sonication process on total polyphenols index was higher than on anthocyanins
307 content. These results are also similar to our findings, corroborating that tannin
308 extraction seems to be more favoured by the application of ultrasounds than
309 anthocyanin extraction. This could be related to the localization of tannins in skin cells,
310 ultrasound facilitating the liberation of those integrated in skin cell walls (Gagne et al.,
311 2006), and to the fact that ultrasound may also facilitate the extraction of seed tannins,
312 although probably to a lesser extent than favored skin tannins. Some authors have
313 already studied the positive effect of ultrasound in extracting tannins from grape seeds
314 (Da Porto et al., 2013).

315 Ferrareto et al. (2013) also reported that the treatment caused an enrichment of
316 the medium in colloidal fractions. The same phenomenon was observed in our
317 experiment, the fraction presumably being formed of polysaccharides and other
318 fractions from the cell walls. The high presence of suspended cell wall material in the
319 sonicated musts could explain why longer maceration techniques did not lead to higher
320 tannin content since the affinity of the suspended cell walls for tannins is a adsorption
321 mechanism clearly established and proved (Bautista-Ortin et al., 2014; Bindon et al.,
322 2010; Castro-Lopez et al., 2016). Therefore, in wines from sonicated grapes, longer
323 maceration time might have led to higher adsorption of tannins in the suspended cell
324 walls. But not only tannins might be adsorbed in cell wall but also anthocyanins
325 (Bautista-Ortin et al., 2016) and this fact could also explain the lowest anthocyanin
326 content of SW6d and SW8d compared with SW3d and CW8d.

327 El Darra et al. (2013) also compared the effect of different physical treatments
328 on Cabernet Franc red grapes. Crushed grapes were sampled and then subjected to a
329 laboratory ultrasound bath that enhanced the polyphenols yield, much more than a
330 thermovinification process at 50°C. The effect of ultrasound is usually attributed to the

331 acoustic cavitations causing mechanical rupture of solid particles and cell structure,
332 increasing the contact surface area between the solid and liquid phase and, as a result,
333 permitting better diffusivity of solute from the solid phase to the media.

334 Even less studied than the effect of ultrasound on phenolic compounds is the
335 effect on the volatile composition. The results of the semiquantitative analysis of
336 volatile compounds of control and sonicated wines at 3 different maceration times (3, 6,
337 and 8 d) after two months in the bottle are presented in Table 4. The identified
338 compounds included alcohols, monoterpenes and norisoprenoids, acetates and fatty
339 acid ethyl esters, three ketones and fatty acids. No significant differences were
340 observed in the total concentration of volatile compounds, neither due to the sonication
341 nor to the maceration length.

342 Acetates of higher alcohols and fatty acids ethyl esters contribute to aroma of
343 young wines, exhibiting floral and fruity odors. Although no significant differences were
344 observed in the sum of these compounds, the quantities of esters were slightly higher
345 in control than in the sonicated wines, where their quantities seemed to be slightly
346 reduced as maceration time increased. It has been reported that long maceration time
347 could generate a decrease of esters, probably as a result of nonenzymatic hydrolysis
348 (Rapp, 1988). Furthermore, during the maceration and alcoholic fermentation, fatty
349 acids could be used by the yeast as a carbon source, causing a decline of their
350 amounts.

351 Fatty acid production is associated with the initial must composition and the
352 fermentation conditions and was higher in SW3d (although not differing statistically
353 from control wine). The concentration of acids decreased in SW6d and SW8d.

354 The alcohol fraction was mainly composed of four compounds present in
355 highest amount: 3-methyl-1-butanol, 2-methyl-1-propanol, phenylethyl alcohol and 1-
356 hexanol, which is in agreement with literature data (Petropulos et al., 2014). It was
357 observed that the concentration of higher alcohols slightly increased with sonication
358 and with maceration time although, again, the differences were not significant. Contrary

359 to these results, it has been reported that the production of higher alcohols declines
360 with maceration time, because of blockage of the Ehrlich mechanism, the main
361 pathway for the formation of these compounds (Rapp and Versini, 1996).

362 Terpenes and norisoprenoids are considered to be closely related to the variety
363 and are important for the expression of varietal characteristics in wine. Both terpenes
364 and norisoprenoids have a low olfactory threshold and are generally associated with
365 floral and citric aromas. In the studied wines, several terpenes were detected, the
366 largest quantity being found in the sesquiterpene nerolidol and the monoterpenes
367 linalool and citronellol. Contrary to what was expected, wines from sonicated grapes
368 did not show higher concentration of these compounds than control wines, however,
369 the levels of terpenes and norisoprenoids in SW3d did not significantly differ from those
370 of control wines made with 8 days of skin maceration.

371 A Principal component analysis was conducted, using all the measured
372 chromatic parameters, the total concentration of anthocyanins determined by HPLC
373 and, given the large number of identified compounds, the sum of the different families
374 of volatile compounds as variables. The objective was to find out how the wine
375 samples, after two months in the bottle, were grouped and which variables were
376 responsible for the grouping. This analysis reduced the information provided by all the
377 measured variables to two principal components, which explained 78% of the variability
378 of the data (Figure 1). The analysis clearly showed how different the wines were.
379 Control wines and those elaborated from sonicated grapes were separated along PC1,
380 the control wines presenting lower values of the chromatic parameters but, in general,
381 slightly higher content of volatile compounds. Wines from sonicated grapes were
382 separated along PC2, SW3d located in the positive part of PC2 and being
383 characterized by the highest values in total anthocyanins and color intensity. SW6d and
384 SW8d were located in the negative part of PC2, being characterized by their higher
385 content of total tannins and phenols.

386 The results of the application of this small scale industrial ultrasound system to
387 crushed grapes indicate that this technology facilitates the extraction of phenolic
388 compounds from grape to must. It could be applied as a continuous pre-treatment of
389 crushed red grapes, before loading the maceration-fermentation tanks, representing a
390 possibility to optimize winery capacity by reducing the skin maceration time without
391 losing the quality characteristics of the obtained wines.

392

393 **Acknowledgement**

394 This work was funded by the SME Instrument of the Horizon 2020 program from the
395 European Commission.

396

397

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Table 1. Chromatic characteristics of the control and sonicated musts and wines

Sample	TP	TA (mg/L)	PA (mg/L)	CI	Tint
<i>Initial must</i>					
Control must	9.9 ± 0.5 ^a	4.6 ± 0.0 ^b	2.3 ± 0.0 ^b	1.1 ± 0.0 ^a	2.01 ± 0.0 ^b
Sonicated must	23.2 ± 0.8 ^b	124.0 ± 0.0 ^b	4.1 ± 0.1 ^b	3.2 ± 0.0 ^b	0.83 ± 0.0 ^a
<i>End of skin maceration</i>					
Control wine (8 days)	33.1 ± 1.3 ^a	265.7 ± 5.6 ^a	10.5 ± 0.7 ^a	6.2 ± 0.3 ^{ab}	0.51 ± 0.0 ^b
Sonicated wine (3 days)	50.3 ± 2.6 ^b	363.6 ± 24.9 ^b	10.8 ± 0.6 ^a	8.9 ± 0.4 ^c	0.46 ± 0.0 ^a
Sonicated wine (6 days)	47.5 ± 3.3 ^b	283.4 ± 1.6 ^a	11.1 ± 0.3 ^a	6.6 ± 0.2 ^b	0.52 ± 0.0 ^b
Sonicated wine (8 days)	45.2 ± 1.3 ^b	247.5 ± 8.9 ^a	10.8 ± 0.1 ^a	5.7 ± 0.0 ^a	0.56 ± 0.0 ^c
<i>End of alcoholic fermentation</i>					
Control wine (8 days)	34.7 ± 3.2 ^a	233.3 ± 1.6 ^{ab}	13.8 ± 1.1 ^a	6.3 ± 0.1 ^b	0.57 ± 0.0 ^a
Sonicated wine (3 days)	43.6 ± 1.6 ^b	266.9 ± 20.1 ^b	20.4 ± 2.1 ^a	7.9 ± 0.5 ^c	0.54 ± 0.0 ^a
Sonicated wine (6 days)	39.8 ± 6.5 ^b	224.8 ± 2.4 ^{ab}	17.4 ± 3.2 ^a	6.3 ± 0.9 ^b	0.62 ± 0.0 ^b
Sonicated wine (8 days)	44.5 ± 1.3 ^b	213.9 ± 16.1 ^a	14.1 ± 1.6 ^a	5.4 ± 0.3 ^a	0.65 ± 0.0 ^b
<i>Two months in bottle</i>					
Control wine (8 days)	31.8 ± 2.4 ^a	180.9 ± 4.8 ^a	4.0 ± 0.8 ^a	4.8 ± 0.7 ^a	0.66 ± 0.0 ^a
Sonicated wine (3 days)	41.9 ± 1.6 ^b	207.7 ± 8.9 ^b	6.4 ± 1.1 ^b	6.3 ± 0.5 ^b	0.67 ± 0.0 ^a
Sonicated wine (6 days)	38.1 ± 1.4 ^b	173.5 ± 4.0 ^a	5.6 ± 0.3 ^{ab}	5.5 ± 0.1 ^{ab}	0.74 ± 0.0 ^b
Sonicated wine (8 days)	42.6 ± 0.8 ^b	165.6 ± 18.5 ^a	4.7 ± 0.7 ^{ab}	4.8 ± 0.0 ^a	0.77 ± 0.0 ^b

TP: total phenols, TA: total anthocyanins, PA: polymeric anthocyanin, CI: color intensity

Different letters within same column and for each of the different moments of sampling indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) according to a LSD test

Table 2. Anthocyanin content (mg/L) of the different control and sonicated musts and wine samples

Sample	Del-Glu	Cyan-Glu	Pet-Glu	Peon-Glu	Malv-Glu	AAT	AT
<i>Initial must</i>							
Control must	nd	2.40±1.84 ^a	0.00±0.00 ^a	6.70±1.29 ^a	20.86±5.55 ^a	0.00±0.0 ^a	31.27±8.69 ^a
Sonicated must	1.99±0.84 ^b	21.49±1.44 ^b	8.71±2.03 ^b	24.66±1.08 ^b	97.92±4.70 ^b	6.14±0.05 ^b	168.55±14.33 ^b
<i>End of skin maceration</i>							
Control wine (8 days)	19.97±3.73 ^{ab}	8.22±0.35 ^{ab}	39.09±3.81 ^{ab}	16.22±0.02 ^{ab}	183.43±8.67 ^b	25.97±1.99 ^b	295.53±18.53 ^b
Sonicated wine (3 days)	24.15±1.47 ^b	14.54±0.83 ^c	39.71±3.26 ^b	25.03±1.77 ^c	204.08±9.83 ^c	33.88±1.12 ^c	340.35±18.27 ^c
Sonicated wine (6 days)	14.18±0.19 ^a	9.11±0.41 ^b	29.39±1.49 ^a	18.96±0.43 ^b	166.22±0.43 ^{ab}	23.95±0.42 ^{ab}	261.93±2.53 ^{ab}
Sonicated wine (8 days)	15.24±2.25 ^a	7.31±0.55 ^a	30.57±2.78 ^a	14.94±0.58 ^a	156.16±8.74 ^a	21.54±2.07 ^a	247.35±16.98 ^a
<i>End of alcoholic fermentation</i>							
Control wine (8 days)	10.97±1.80 ^a	5.28±0.32 ^{ab}	26.13±2.09 ^{ab}	13.01±0.55 ^a	151.34±0.72 ^b	21.07±0.15 ^b	229.08±3.89 ^b
Sonicated wine (3 days)	17.70±3.50 ^b	5.84±0.79 ^b	28.41±2.45 ^b	12.38±1.16 ^a	142.27±5.27 ^b	21.15±3.86 ^b	225.27±9.30 ^b
Sonicated wine (6 days)	9.59±1.23 ^a	5.46±0.00 ^{ab}	21.71±2.09 ^a	12.41±0.34 ^a	121.58±2.54 ^a	10.52±1.57 ^a	182.14±0.45 ^a
Sonicated wine (8 days)	8.19±1.97 ^a	5.29±0.18 ^a	17.43±2.20 ^a	12.63±0.65 ^a	127.12±9.88 ^a	11.75±1.52 ^a	181.04±8.11 ^a
<i>Two months in bottle</i>							
Control wine (8 days)	9.59±0.70 ^{ab}	3.49±0.22 ^a	16.95±1.94 ^{ab}	7.71±1.05 ^a	87.75±13.85 ^a	8.68±1.51 ^a	134.17±19.27 ^b
Sonicated wine (3 days)	12.11±0.41 ^b	4.16±0.45 ^a	20.42±0.83 ^b	9.44±0.65 ^a	96.36±7.20 ^a	12.60±1.42 ^a	155.08±9.24 ^b
Sonicated wine (6 days)	7.18±0.50 ^a	3.31±0.02 ^a	12.89±0.81 ^a	7.53±0.31 ^a	66.66±5.51 ^a	7.62±0.56 ^a	105.20±6.63 ^a
Sonicated wine (8 days)	8.92±2.13 ^a	3.85±0.76 ^a	16.61±3.32 ^{ab}	8.81±2.55 ^a	88.06±18.54 ^a	9.59±2.25 ^a	135.83±29.56 ^b

Del-Glu: delphinidin-3-glucoside, Cyan-Glu: cyanidin-3-glucoside, Pet-Glu: petunidin-3-glucoside, Peon-Glu: peonidin-3-glucoside, Malv-Glu: malvidin-3-glucoside, AAT: total acylated anthocyanins, AT: sum of anthocyanins

Different letters within same column and for each of the different moments of sampling indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) according to a LSD test

Table 3. Tannin content (mg/L) and composition of the control and sonicated musts and wine samples

Sample	TT	mDP	%Galoyllation	EGC (mM)
<i>Initial must</i>				
Control must	nd	--	--	--
Sonicated must	297.8 ± 13.8	3.8 ± 0.0	6.1 ± 0.1	105.2 ± 0.5
<i>End of skin maceration</i>				
Control wine (8 days)	448.4 ± 96.0 ^a	4.1 ± 0.1 ^a	4.9 ± 0.4 ^a	221.7 ± 52.1 ^a
Sonicated wine (3 days)	861.7 ± 32.5 ^b	4.3 ± 0.1 ^b	5.0 ± 0.0 ^a	350.2 ± 17.0 ^b
Sonicated wine (6 days)	948.9 ± 70.4 ^b	4.1 ± 0.1 ^a	5.4 ± 0.1 ^a	331.9 ± 12.9 ^b
Sonicated wine (8 days)	927.9 ± 76.2 ^b	4.0 ± 0.1 ^a	5.0 ± 0.2 ^a	331.3 ± 37.4 ^b
<i>End of alcoholic fermentation</i>				
Control wine (8 days)	397.5 ± 46.8 ^a	3.4 ± 0.2 ^a	5.3 ± 0.6 ^a	182.1 ± 28.7 ^a
Sonicated wine (3 days)	774.7 ± 25.5 ^b	3.9 ± 0.1 ^b	4.8 ± 0.0 ^a	329.2 ± 29.3 ^b
Sonicated wine (6 days)	926.1 ± 107.4 ^{bc}	3.8 ± 0.0 ^b	5.3 ± 0.2 ^a	306.6 ± 16.8 ^b
Sonicated wine (8 days)	941.4 ± 57.9 ^c	3.8 ± 0.0 ^b	5.3 ± 0.1 ^a	310.0 ± 27.0 ^b
<i>Two months in bottle</i>				
Control wine (8 days)	379.1 ± 46.6 ^a	3.7 ± 0.0 ^a	4.1 ± 0.4 ^b	195.1 ± 25.6 ^a
Sonicated wine (3 days)	821.3 ± 87.4 ^b	4.3 ± 0.1 ^b	3.3 ± 0.1 ^a	352.1 ± 52.8 ^b
Sonicated wine (6 days)	902.5 ± 28.5 ^b	4.1 ± 0.0 ^b	3.6 ± 0.2 ^{ab}	313.6 ± 36.9 ^b
Sonicated wine (8 days)	905.1 ± 106.8 ^b	4.1 ± 0.0 ^b	3.6 ± 0.1 ^{ab}	312.7 ± 50.7

TT: total tannins, mDP: mean degree of polymerization, EGC (mM): concentration of epigallocatechin

Different letters within same column and for each of the different moments of sampling indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) according to a LSD test

Table 4. Semiquantitative analysis of the volatile compounds in the different control and sonicated samples

	Control wine	Sonicated wine (3d)	Sonicated wine (6d)	Sonicated wine (9d)
<i>Esters</i>				
2-Methyl propyl acetate	33.84 ^{b*}	9.39 ^a	7.54 ^a	6.60 ^a
Ethyl butanoate	14.33 ^a	17.80 ^c	13.56 ^a	16.23 ^b
Ethyl 2-methylbutanoate	6.02 ^a	4.92 ^a	4.39 ^a	6.09 ^a
Ethyl 3-methylbutanoate	10.64 ^b	4.40 ^a	4.53 ^a	5.32 ^a
3-Methyl butanol acetate	505.42 ^b	164.42 ^a	142.05 ^a	123.63 ^a
2-Methyl butanol acetate	14.58 ^b	4.14 ^a	2.87 ^a	2.65 ^a
Pentil acetate	3.99 ^a	4.68 ^a	3.30 ^a	3.43 ^a
3-Methyl butanol butanoate	1.19 ^a	1.24 ^a	1.04 ^a	0.96 ^a
Ethyl hexanoate	429.00 ^a	528.00 ^a	488.75 ^a	512.50 ^a
Ethyl heptanoate	21.92 ^b	14.42 ^a	15.62 ^a	15.16 ^a
Ethyl lactate	42.65 ^a	32.02 ^a	40.00 ^a	44.79 ^a
Methyl octanoate	25.21 ^a	19.89 ^a	20.28 ^a	21.40 ^a
Ethyl octanoate	2260.99 ^a	2482.74 ^a	2247.37 ^a	2158.24 ^a
Isopentyl hexanoato	39.86 ^b	10.72 ^a	35.48 ^b	38.38 ^b
Ethyl nonanoate	56.19 ^a	72.75 ^{ab}	67.94 ^{ab}	82.38 ^b
Methyl decanoate	27.11 ^a	25.37 ^a	25.64 ^a	28.38 ^a
Ethyl decanoate	1275.68 ^a	1620.80 ^b	1408.97 ^{ab}	1437.06 ^{ab}
3-Methylbutanol octanoate	35.02 ^a	84.71 ^b	88.51 ^b	84.36 ^b
Diethyl succinate	491.56 ^b	179.00 ^a	441.38 ^b	528.13 ^b
Ethyl 9-decenoate	64.38 ^a	104.61 ^b	60.83 ^a	57.02 ^a
Ethyl undecanoate	53.41 ^a	43.16 ^a	41.65 ^a	48.96 ^a
Ethyl benzene acetate	18.32 ^a	89.23 ^c	nd	35.74 ^b
2-Phenyl ethyl acetate	197.42 ^b	nd	41.74 ^a	nd
Ethyl dodecanoate	227.47 ^a	239.01	217.17 ^a	257.56 ^a
Ethyl benzenepropanoate	36.25 ^a	39.55 ^a	35.45 ^a	nd
3-Methyl butyl 2-hydroxybenzoate	15.32 ^a	13.33 ^a	12.80 ^a	17.05 ^a

Ethyl 3-hydroxydodecanoate	11.18 ^a	14.53 ^a	12.77 ^a	15.66 ^a
Ethyl cinnamate	16.59 ^b	6.90 ^a	5.78 ^a	7.67 ^a
3-Methylbutyl benzoate	10.72 ^a	13.30 ^a	nd	nd
2-Propenyl benzeneacetate	7.96 ^b	7.97 ^b	4.73 ^a	8.82 ^b
Ethyl hexadecanoate	12.69 ^a	20.48 ^b	nd	11.86 ^a
Ethyl hydrogen succinate	53.94 ^b	23.28 ^a	nd	nd
Sum esters	6020.87 ^b	5896.76 ^b	5492.14 ^a	5581.67 ^a
<i>Alcohols</i>				
Propanol	2.41 ^a	2.47 ^a	2.05 ^a	3.30 ^a
2-Methyl propanol	189.00 ^a	199.67 ^{ab}	209.50 ^{bc}	223.50 ^c
3-Methyl butanol	2224.80 ^a	2197.15 ^a	2223.63 ^a	2324.04 ^a
4-Methyl pentanol	1.26 ^a	1.23 ^a	1.41 ^a	1.39 ^a
Hexanol	109.98 ^a	143.84 ^b	154.79 ^c	163.49 ^c
3-Ethoxy-2-propanol	0.56 ^a	1.86 ^a	1.12 ^a	2.01 ^a
3-Hexen-1-ol	1.67 ^a	1.84 ^a	2.42 ^a	2.30 ^a
2-Ethyl hexanol	12.11 ^a	9.40 ^a	11.79 ^a	10.79 ^a
2-Nonanol	12.05 ^a	23.00 ^b	22.45 ^b	24.37 ^b
2,3-Butanediol	40.35 ^a	36.58 ^a	37.54 ^a	37.06 ^a
Octanol	52.22 ^a	92.03 ^b	105.82 ^c	107.18 ^c
2,3 Butanediol	31.14 ^a	33.65 ^a	36.76 ^a	39.97 ^a
4-Methyl guaiacol	28.46 ^a	20.22 ^a	19.30 ^a	23.78 ^a
Nonanol	38.20	nd	nd	nd
Methyl thiopropanol	45.42 ^b	nd	34.57 ^a	37.81 ^a
2-Phenylethanol	1799.07 ^a	1797.73 ^a	1769.88 ^a	1714.33 ^a
4-Ethylguaiacol	31.79 ^a	74.39 ^b	157.13 ^c	109.29 ^c
Benzene propanol	12.38 ^b	6.09 ^a	8.03 ^a	7.40 ^a
4-Ethyl phenol	32.25 ^a	186.95 ^b	243.08 ^b	176.28 ^b
Sum alcohols	4679.55 ^a	4849.11 ^a	5058.06 ^a	5025.60 ^a
<i>Ketones</i>				
3-Hydroxy-2-butanone	32.65 ^b	14.24 ^a	11.86 ^a	11.59 ^a
2-Octanone	18.65 ^a	21.92 ^a	19.65 ^a	20.00 ^a

furanone	10.36 ^a	6.11 ^a	9.58 ^a	9.97 ^a
Sum ketones	61.66 ^b	42.27 ^{ab}	41.09 ^a	41.56 ^a
<i>Acids</i>				
Acetic acid	51.64 ^b	77.67 ^c	108.75 ^d	39.34 ^a
Methoxy benzofuran. 2 carboxylic acid	84.28 ^a	71.67 ^a	66.77 ^a	74.13 ^a
Hexanoic acid	66.33 ^a	72.96 ^a	71.55 ^a	72.77 ^a
Heptanoic acid	19.73 ^a	14.60 ^a	12.06 ^a	17.10 ^a
Octanoic acid	494.22 ^{ab}	534.28 ^b	476.18 ^a	465.17 ^a
Nonanoic acid	25.93 ^a	26.65 ^a	nd	27.16 ^a
Decanoic acid	264.69 ^{ab}	294.50 ^b	245.09 ^a	254.78 ^a
Dodecanoic acid	9.98 ^a	13.21 ^a	nd	12.38 ^a
Sum acids	1016.79 ^{ab}	1105.53 ^b	980.39 ^a	962.83 ^a
<i>Terpens and norisoprenoids</i>				
Carene	19.40	15.47	14.80	14.78
Limonene	25.90	23.70	22.96	24.72
Ionone	124.20 ^b	94.47 ^a	75.33 ^a	93.83 ^a
Linalool	51.14	46.67	44.66	46.29
Dihydro- α -ionone	33.47	28.87	27.16	30.15
Citronellol	89.54 ^a	109.74 ^b	105.00 ^b	109.25 ^b
Damascenone	168.00 ^c	137.78 ^b	127.24 ^a	116.79 ^a
Nerolidol	130.25 ^b	135.62 ^b	86.92 ^a	109.53 ^a
Farnesol	12.38 ^{ab}	15.12 ^b	9.86 ^a	nd
Sum	654.28 ^c	607.43 ^{bc}	513.94 ^a	545.34 ^a
Totals	12433.15 ^a	12501.09 ^a	12085.62 ^a	12156.99 ^a

* different letters within the same row indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$)

FIGURE CAPTION

Figure 1. Biplot representation of the Principal component analysis showing the distribution of the wine samples along component 1 and 2.