

1 **An automated Gas Chromatographic-Mass Spectrometric method for the quantitative**
2 **analysis of the odor-active molecules present in the vapors emanated from wine**

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9
10 **Abstract**

11 An automated dynamic headspace (DHS) method combined with thermal
12 desorption (TD) and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) has been
13 developed and applied to characterize the composition of the vapors emanating from
14 wine during its consumption. The method provides a snapshot of the contents in the
15 wine vapors of up to 40 relevant aroma compounds, including methanethiol, sulfur
16 dioxide, aldehydes, fusel alcohols or volatile phenols. Leaving aside methanethiol,
17 method repeatability was better than 15%, and better than 11% in 30 cases.
18 Determination coefficients were better than 0.99 and detection limits, ranging from 0.1
19 to 1200 µg/L, depending on the compound, were below normal ranges of occurrence or
20 odor thresholds of those 40 compounds. The method has been applied to assess the
21 changes in the wine headspaces with time, monitoring the levels of 34 odorants emitted
22 to the headspace by 4 different wines during five consecutive time points. Levels of 15

23 polar aroma compounds remained constant, while levels of 14 non-polar and highly
24 volatile compounds decayed very fast, which should have strong sensory changes in the
25 odor perceived. The trends followed by methanethiol, dimethyl sulfide, ethyl
26 decanoate, by aldehydes and dicarbonyls were significantly related to the wine, which
27 suggests that prediction of the aroma impact in these cases should include an estimation
28 of the odorant x wine matrix interaction.

29 *Keywords: Odor, headspace, release, aroma profile, aroma perception*

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 The characteristic odors and flavors elicited by a product are related to the aroma
33 composition of the headspaces that reach the olfactory receptors during the action of
34 smelling or eating the product. In the case of complex aroma mixtures, the qualitative
35 characteristics of the odor perceived are related to the profile of odorants, rather than
36 to the absolute concentrations [1,2]. In the case of wine, there is strong evidence that
37 some aroma compounds can bind to different compounds or structures forming the
38 non-volatile matrix of wine [3-5]. The existence of these interactions suggest that the
39 odor activity of those odorants in a given wine will be related not only to the
40 concentrations of the odorants, but to the amount and type of “aroma-binders” present
41 in that wine. This means that two wines with exactly the same aroma composition could
42 in fact produce headspace vapors differing in composition, depending on the level and
43 type of “aroma-binders” specifically present in each wine [6]. This could explain why the
44 same aroma extract reconstituted in different wine non-volatile matrixes can produce
45 markedly different aroma perceptions [7].

46 The existence of odorant x matrix interactions potentially responsible for aroma
47 changes has been previously addressed in wine [8] and other products, notably solid or
48 semi-solid food products [9-11]. In these last cases, it is evident that the levels of aroma
49 chemicals released from the product are strongly dependent on the specific
50 composition of the solid or semisolid matrix. It is also evident that the analytically
51 relevant information in these cases is not only the absolute aroma composition, but the
52 rate at which the different aroma compounds are released from the matrix to the
53 headspace.

54 Several approaches have been proposed for the determination of the aroma
55 compounds present in the headspaces emanated from a given product. The most direct
56 strategy is the continuous monitoring of the composition of the headspace with
57 methods such as direct atmospheric pressure chemical ionization mass spectrometry
58 (APCI-MS) [12,13] or proton transfer reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS) [14,15].
59 These strategies are, however, not sensitive enough for the direct monitoring of aroma
60 compounds present at low levels, which limits their applicability to the study of products
61 containing relatively large amounts of volatile compounds. By contrast, in many natural
62 food products, including wine, aroma properties can be strongly influenced by powerful
63 aroma compounds present at very low concentrations. In the particular case of wine and
64 other alcoholic beverages, selectivity also becomes a problem, since wine headspaces
65 are much enriched in ethanol, fusel alcohols and other major wine volatiles.

66 A second possibility is trapping the aroma compounds present in the headspace in a
67 sorbent or cold trap in order to gain sensitivity, and to analyze the concentrated
68 odorants by GC-MS, to gain selectivity. The obvious drawback of these strategies is that
69 monitoring will become discontinuous. It should be noted, however, that most reports
70 using these strategies do not really intend to analyze the headspace, but the volatiles
71 present in the product. In this context and because of its simplicity, solid phase
72 microextraction (SPME) is frequently used [16], although other headspace sampling
73 techniques have been also widely applied [17]. In dynamic Headspace (DHS) techniques,
74 a flow of inert gas drags out volatile compounds from the product and is subsequently
75 directed to a sorbent or cryogenic trap, in which volatiles are retained. The vapors
76 produced with these techniques are more similar to those observed in real olfaction

77 than those obtained by using equilibrium methods such as static headspace or
78 headspace SPME sampling [18].

79 There are several reports proposing DHS techniques for wine aroma analysis. In most
80 of them, volatiles are dragged out by an inert gas bubbled through the wine [19-22] or
81 streamed on the wine headspace [23], but as was aforementioned, these methods were
82 designed for the quantitative analysis of the aroma compounds present in the liquid
83 phase of the wine rather than to monitor the changes in concentrations in wine
84 headspaces.

85 In the present work, our main aim is to develop a fast and simple DHS method able
86 to provide a “snapshot” of the headspaces emanated from wine in conditions close to
87 those found during wine tasting. For that, the headspace of unstirred wine will be
88 dragged by a gentle stream of nitrogen during a relatively short time. A second objective
89 is to use the method to make a preliminary assessment about the compositional
90 changes in the wine headspaces potentially experimented during the time that the wine
91 is kept in the glass during consumption.

92

93 **2. Materials and methods**

94 *2.1. Reagents and chemicals*

95 Ethanol was supplied by Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) and tartaric acid 99% was
96 obtained from Panreac (Barcelona, Spain). The internal standards (methyl 2-
97 methylbutyrate, 2,6-dichloronisole) and standards of the aroma compounds were
98 obtained from Aldrich, Fluka (Madrid, Spain).

99 *2.2. Wine samples*

100 Four white wines, four red wines and a rosé wine with diverse characteristics (in
101 terms of grape variety, alcoholic content and aging) from Spain were used to validate
102 and develop the method. The synthetic wine contained 5 g/L of tartaric acid, adjusted
103 to pH 3.4 with 1 M NaOH, and an ethanol content of 12% vol.

104 *2.3. Proposed method*

105 Five mL of sample were pipetted into a 20 mL standard headspace vial, then 20 µL of
106 the internal standard solution were added to reach a concentration level of 200 µg/L.
107 The vial was then closed and placed in the Gerstel MPS2 auto-sampler (Mülheiman der
108 Ruhr, Denmark) where the DHS sampling was automatically carried out under the
109 conditions detailed in Table 1. Thermal desorption and cryo-focusing were carried out
110 by means of a Thermo Desorption Unit (TDU) and Cooling Injection System (CIS4) also
111 supplied by Gerstel. Solvent venting mode was used to perform the desorption. Detailed
112 experimental conditions are shown in Table 1.

113 Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis was performed with a 7890 Agilent
114 GC system coupled with a 5975C Agilent quadrupole mass spectrometer (Santa Clara,

115 CA, USA). A J&W DB-Wax column was used (60 m × 0.25 mm i.d. × 0.25 μm film thickness,
116 Agilent). The temperature program was: initial oven temperature 35°C held for 3 min,
117 then raised to 220°C at 10°C/min, and 7 min of final hold time. The carrier gas was helium
118 at a constant flow of 1mL/min. The chromatograms were collected in both full scan and
119 SIM mode. Ionization was carried out in electronic impact mode at 70 eV. The ion source
120 temperature was 230°C. Spectra were recorded both in scan mode from 33 to 250 m/z
121 and in selected ion monitoring. Selected ions for particular compounds are shown in
122 Table 2.

123 *2.4. Method validation*

124 *2.4.1. Internal standards*

125 Two compounds which potentially should provide a headspace concentration
126 independent of the wine specific composition were tested (methyl 2-methylbutyrate
127 and 2,6-dichloroanisole). For that, a synthetic wine, 4 whites, 2 reds and 1 rosé, all made
128 from different grape varieties were spiked with 200 μg/L of both components and were
129 analyzed in duplicate and on 3 different days.

130 *2.4.2. Precision*

131 Method precision was studied over a four-month period. Four bottles (from the same
132 batch) of a Spanish red Crianza wine from La Rioja were kept refrigerated at 10 °C. Each
133 month, one bottle was opened in a glove box from Jacomex (Dagneux, France) with
134 oxygen levels under 0.002%. Immediately after opening, each bottle was aliquoted in 4
135 20-mL SPME vials to be analyzed on 4 different days within the same week. The vials
136 were kept in the glove box until the analysis.

137 *2.4.3. Linearity and limits of detection*

138 Method linearity was evaluated using a set of 9 different volatile compounds found
139 in wine representing different chemical families, as detailed in Table 4. These compounds
140 were dissolved in ethanol and were further spiked at five different levels to a Spanish
141 red wine from La Rioja. The ethanol content was adjusted to maintain the same level in
142 all calibration samples. All samples were prepared in duplicate and were analyzed
143 following the procedure described in Section 2.3. The areas of each compound in Table
144 4 were normalized by those of the IS (MBM), corrected by subtracting the relative area
145 obtained for that compound in the unspiked wine and fitted to an unweighted least
146 square regression model.

147 Method sensitivity was assessed by estimation of the limits of detection. These were
148 defined as the amount of analyte in the liquid phase of a wine that produces with the
149 proposed method a peak with a height equivalent to three times the average standard
150 deviation of the baseline in the surrounding area to the ion peak. The concentration of
151 the different compounds in the liquid phase of the wine was estimated by using
152 previously validated methods as is described in section 2.5.

153 *2.5. Quantitative analysis of compounds in the liquid phase*

154 The quantitative analysis of major volatile compounds contained in wine was carried
155 out using the method proposed and validated in our laboratory [24]. In accordance with
156 this method, 3 mL of wine containing the internal standards (2-butanol, 4-methyl-2-
157 pentanol, 4-hydroxy-4-methyl-2-pentanone, and 2-octanol) and 7 mL of water were
158 salted with 4.5 g of ammonium sulfate and extracted with 0.2 mL of dichloromethane.
159 The extract was then analyzed by GC with FID detection. The area of each analyte was

160 normalized by that of its corresponding internal standard and was then interpolated in
161 the corresponding calibration plot built by applying exactly the same analytical method
162 as that applied to synthetic wines containing known amounts of the analytes covering
163 the natural range of occurrence of these compounds.

164 The quantitative analysis of minor and trace compounds in the liquid phase of wine
165 was carried out using the method proposed and validated in our laboratory [25] with
166 the following changes in the procedure: standard solid phase extraction (SPE) cartridges
167 (1 mL, total volume) filled with 200 mg of LiChrolut EN resins were placed in the vacuum
168 manifold extraction system (Varian Sample Preparation Products), and the sorbent was
169 conditioned by rinsing the cartridges with 4 mL of dichloromethane, 4 mL of methanol,
170 and, finally, with 4 mL of a water-ethanol mixture (12%, v/v). The cartridges were then
171 loaded with 50 mL of wine sample and 26 μ L of a surrogate standards solution (recovery
172 standard) containing 3-octanone, β -damascone, and heptanoic acid (all at 200 μ g/g of
173 ethanol). This mixture was passed through the SPE cartridges (2 mL/min), followed by a
174 washing step using 5 mL of 30% methanol in water and 1% NaHCO₃ solution. The resins
175 were then dried by letting air pass through them (negative pressure of 0.6 bar, 10 min).
176 Analytes were recovered in a 2-mL vial by elution with 1.6 mL of dichloromethane.
177 Thirty-four μ L of an internal standard solution (300 mg/L of 4-hydroxy-4-methyl-2-
178 pentanone and 2-octanol) was added to the eluted sample. The extract was analyzed by
179 GC with ion trap-mass spectrometry (MS) detection (GC-450 gas chromatograph fitted
180 to a Varian Saturn 2200 ion trap-MS).

181 Total volatile sulfur compounds were quantified by using the method proposed and
182 validated in our laboratory [4]. First, 10 mL of brine was added to a 20 mL standard

183 headspace vial. The vial was then capped and Argon bubbled through the septum for 2
184 min to eliminate oxygen. Next, 200 μ L of wine sample and 20 μ L of internal standards
185 were added to the vial, and the prepared sample was analyzed immediately by SPME-
186 GC-pFPD.

187 Total and free sulfur dioxide was determined by the aspiration/titration method
188 (Rankine method recommended by the OIV, International Organization of Vine and
189 Wine). All analyses were performed in triplicate.

190 *2.6. Changes in wine headspace with time*

191 For this experiment, 4 Spanish red wines with different ageing times were selected:
192 a 1-year old young red wine without barrel ageing (coded as "YOUN1"), two different 4-
193 year old red wines (coded as "AGED1" and "AGED2") and a 7-year old red wine (coded
194 as "AGED3"). Detailed information about the wines is included in the supplementary
195 data section. The wines were prepared at room temperature and adjusted to 14.5%
196 ethanol content. To assess the changes in the headspace concentrations of the different
197 analytes with time, the headspaces of each wine sample were analyzed with the
198 proposed DHS method five consecutive times. For that, the wines were prepared in the
199 vials as described in the method, analyzed, and after 70 min the same vial was re-
200 analyzed following the procedure. The vials were kept closed in the vials at 25°C between
201 extractions.

202

203 **3. Results and discussion**

204 *3.1. DHS method*

205 The present method seeks to provide a reliable snapshot of the composition of the
206 vapors emanating from wine when it is smelled or consumed at a given time. For this is
207 important to fulfill two conditions:

208 1st The purging time has to be the smallest possible ensuring acceptable sensitivity.

209 2nd The purging process has to produce headspaces with compositions equivalent to
210 those produced during real olfaction or consumption.

211 Regarding this second condition, it should be noted that bubbling through the liquid
212 facilitates mixing and the transport to the headspace of all compounds present in the
213 liquid phase. In those conditions, the stream of vapors produced would have a
214 composition close to those observed in the headspace in equilibrium with the liquid
215 phase [26]. However, such conditions are far from those observed during real tasting
216 and consumption, where the vapor composition is determined by the kinetics of mass
217 transfer from the liquid to the gas [27,28]. If instead, the purging gas is used only to drag
218 the headspace of the unstirred liquid, the headspace is quickly diluted and impoverished
219 in the most volatile compounds which cannot be satisfactorily transferred from the bulk
220 of the unstirred liquid to the headspace.

221 Regarding the first condition, the total volume of gas used to drag the wine
222 headspace was limited to 100 mL in 4 minutes with the sample thermostated at 30 °C
223 and without stirring. This relatively short sampling time and gas sampling volume also

224 ensures that ethanol does not saturate the Tenax trap, which would reduce
225 breakthrough volumes and that even the most volatile compounds are retained.

226 The optimized experimental parameters of the DHS system are listed in Table 1. A
227 typical GC-MS chromatogram can be seen in Fig. 1. The method allows to study 40 wine
228 aroma compounds in a wide range of volatilities (from methanethiol to 4-ethylphenol),
229 concentrations (from $\mu\text{g/L}$ to $>200\text{ mg/L}$) and polarities (from acetic acid or sulfur
230 dioxide to ethyl decanoate). The other operative conditions, such as the drying volume
231 or solvent split at the TDU were chosen in order to minimize problems with water and
232 column overloading. Once these optimal conditions were found, the method was
233 evaluated for different quality parameters.

234 *3.2. Internal standards*

235 Finding an internal standard whose instrumental response can correct for changes in
236 the instrument sensitivity is of paramount importance for the method. Only with such
237 an internal standard could a comparison between different wines can be achieved. The
238 ideal internal standard for the present method is a compound whose concentration in
239 the headspace is always constant and independent from the wine matrix, implying that
240 it should exert a minimum interaction with the matrix components. According to
241 previous work carried out in our laboratory [5], methyl 2-methylbutyrate (MBM) and
242 2,6-dichloroanisole (DCA) were suitable candidates. Their potential usefulness was
243 experimentally checked by repeatedly analyzing batches of different commercial wines
244 ($n=7$) and synthetic wine models containing these compounds at fixed concentrations.
245 The results revealed that both compounds could be used as internal standards. MBM
246 performed better with a global relative standard deviation (RSD) for the absolute ion

247 peak areas of 10%. Additionally, the difference between the average area measured in
248 real wines coincided closely with the average area in synthetic wine (-3.5%), confirming
249 that the volatility of this compound was almost independent of the matrix composition.
250 Therefore, this compound was used to normalize the areas of the analytes and to correct
251 potential variations in the trapping system or in the instrumental response. The DCA
252 performance was slightly worse with a 16% global RSD, but it was retained in the internal
253 standard solution for additional quality controls.

254 *3.3. Precision, linearity and detection limits*

255 Precision was measured in terms of method reproducibility and method
256 repeatability. The repeatability was estimated as the within-batch variability (same
257 sample, different days within the same week), while reproducibility added the inter-
258 month and sample bottle variability and hence is not an appropriate measurement of
259 the method performance. As can be seen in table 3, repeatability was in general
260 satisfactory, particularly taking into account that the measurements took place during
261 one week. Even if wines were kept as stable as possible within an anoxic glove chamber,
262 some inevitable changes will occur during a week, affecting particularly to highly volatile
263 or reactive compounds. This suggests that the values obtained for repeatability in Table
264 3 represent a worst-case scenario. As can be seen, the worst results were obtained for
265 methanethiol. This poor result can be partly attributed to the low levels at which it was
266 present in the wine used in the study (3.5 µg/L) but also to the fact that the
267 concentration of this elusive molecule can change substantially during the experiments
268 because of its high volatility, lability to oxygen and because of the existence of different
269 non-volatile species in equilibrium with the volatile form [4,5]. Relatively poor

270 repeatabilities obtained for acetaldehyde and methylbutanal could be also related to the
271 ability of these compounds to form stable complexes with SO₂. In the cases of
272 acetaldehyde and DMS, their high volatility and poor retention in the Tenax trap can
273 also explain the outcome. Acetic acid seems to be particularly poorly retained in Tenax.
274 Leaving aside these cases, most compounds can be quantified with a worst-case
275 reproducibility better than 10%, which can be considered acceptable taking into account
276 the conditions of the experiment.

277 The detection limits were estimated taking into account the concentrations of the
278 compounds in the wine used for validation. These concentrations were determined by
279 different headspace, liquid-liquid or solid phase extraction strategies (see methods). The
280 results are given in table 3. As expected, the detection limits are strongly related to the
281 volatility of compounds in the wine matrix. Accordingly, the lowest detection limits (0.1-
282 0.3 µg/L) were found for various non-polar ethyl esters, such as ethyl -3-methylbutyrate,
283 while the highest were found for the most soluble compounds such as sulfur dioxide,
284 acetaldehyde, acetoin or acetic acid. Fortunately, the method makes it possible to
285 determine many relevant wine aroma compounds at the concentrations at which they
286 are present in normal wines.

287 Another key validation parameter was linearity. In order to have a realistic estimation
288 of this quality parameter, a red wine was spiked with known amounts of a small group
289 of selected analytes representative of the different chemical families of volatile
290 compounds found in wine. This approach guarantees that the intrinsic volatilities of the
291 compounds do not change as a consequence of changes in the matrix polarity caused by
292 increases in the levels of non-polar compounds. As can be seen in Table 4, in all cases

293 linear dynamic ranges spanned at least 2 or 3 orders of magnitude with determination
294 coefficients better than 0.99 in all cases. The study of the residuals did not show the
295 existence of any particular trend. These data prove that in the proposed DHS method,
296 any change in the composition of the headspace causes a proportional change in the
297 signal.

298 In summary, the method showed satisfactory validation parameters and can be used to
299 assess the content of up to 40 relevant aroma compounds in the headspaces emanating
300 from wine and hence to study how these headspaces change in response to different
301 matrix and environmental parameters.

302 *3.4. Changes in wine headspace with time*

303 The method has been applied to study how the headspaces emanated from four
304 different wines change with time as consequence of evaporation, shifts in chemical
305 equilibria or other phenomena that can take place during the time in which the wine is
306 exposed to air in a glass. In this experiment, however, the wines were kept in a closed
307 vial during the experiment (see methods). As will be shown, the levels of nearly a half of
308 the studied aroma compounds decayed with time, and the rates of decay were directly
309 related to the fraction of compound emitted to the headspace, suggesting that
310 evaporation is the major cause of the observed changes. It should be also noted that in
311 the present study decay curves are not used to obtain unbiased estimators of the
312 concentration of compound in the original matrix, as done in previous works [6,29,30],
313 but rather to characterize the specific decay patterns followed by the different aroma
314 compounds and also to assess whether these patterns are general to all wines or if they
315 are dependent on the specific matrix composition of a given wine.

316 Data from each wine were normalized to the level of compound found in the first
317 sampling point, in order to make decay curves independent of the concentration. As the
318 internal standard also decays with time, changes in instrumental sensitivity were
319 corrected by normalizing the areas by those obtained for ethanol, whose levels
320 remained stable during the experiment. Data were then processed by 2-way ANOVA
321 (table 5) to assess the significance of the factors wine, time (injection number) and of
322 their interaction. Results make it possible to classify the 34 aroma compounds which
323 could be monitored in the four wines during the five consecutive injections into four
324 broad categories:

- 325 1. Compounds whose concentrations in the headspaces remain unchanged
- 326 2. Compounds whose concentration in the headspace follows irregular wine-
327 dependent trends
- 328 3. Compounds whose concentration in the headspaces decay. This category can be
329 further subdivided in:
 - 330 a. Those whose decay functions are non-wine-dependent
 - 331 b. Those whose decay functions are wine-dependent

332 The four categories in which compounds can be classified are presented in Table 5, while
333 figures 2a to 2d show five evolution patterns representing illustrative examples.

334 The first category of compounds whose levels in the headspace remain constant with
335 time includes 15 polar or moderately non-polar and not very volatile compounds, as
336 detailed in Table 5. The case of isobutyl alcohol is shown in Figure 2a as example.
337 Compounds in this category are fusel alcohols, volatile phenols, volatile acids, hydroxy
338 esters, aromatic esters, diesters, whiskeylactone, β -damascenone and sulfur dioxide.

339 The second category includes aldehydes and diacetyl. Levels in the headspaces of these
340 compounds evolved with time differently in each wine, which should be most likely
341 attributed to the different levels of sulfites and of other sulfite binders present in the
342 wines. In the case of acetaldehyde, shown in Figure 2b as example, it can be seen that in
343 samples YOUN1 and AGED1, the content in the wine headspaces increased with time,
344 while in samples AGED2 and AGED3, levels decreased with time.

345 Nearly a half of the compounds (14 out of 34) followed decreasing trends and are
346 classified in the two last categories, which include non-polar compounds and some polar
347 but very volatile compounds such as dimethyl sulfide and methanethiol. Within the ethyl
348 ester homologous series, the rates at which levels decrease with time increase with
349 molecular size; while the levels of ethyl acetate decay just a 30%, levels of ethyl
350 octanoate and decanoate dropped around 80%. A remarkable observation is that
351 polarity is useful for predicting the decay rate only within a homologous series, since
352 molecular size, which strongly affects volatility, is also relevant. For instance, DMS and
353 methanethiol are lost very quickly in spite of the fact that they have higher polarity than
354 ethyl butyrate.

355 In most cases, decay trends are not affected by differences in the wine matrix so that
356 over time the levels of those aroma compounds decrease at the same rate in any wine.

357 An illustrative example is shown for the case of ethyl propanoate in Figure 2c. In some
358 few cases however, (isoamyl acetate, and 2 and 3-methylbutyrates) there is a slight
359 effect, close to statistical significance, of the wine matrix. And in the particular case of
360 ethyl decanoate, dimethyl sulfide and methanethiol, the effect of the wine matrix
361 reaches significance so that these compounds are classified into the fourth category. The

362 particular case of ethyl decanoate is shown in Figure 2d. This compound (the same trend
363 observed in isoamyl acetate and 2 and 3-methylbutyrates) is slightly less retained in the
364 youngest wine, and seem to be more retained in one particular aged red wine. The
365 pattern observed in methanethiol and dimethylsulfide, is rather the contrary, with the
366 youngest wine showing maxima retention for both compounds. This could be related to
367 the specific levels of metal cations in this wine, which were not measured in the present
368 experiment.

369 The theory of multiple extractions was applied to those compounds following a clear
370 decay [29,31]. According to this theory, if the proportion of compound extracted in each
371 extraction remains constant, and that proportion is represented as a series of areas
372 logarithmically transformed versus the ordinal number of the extraction minus 1, the
373 outcome of this representation is a straight line following the equation:

$$374 \quad \ln A_i = (i-1) \ln \beta + \ln A_1 \quad (1)$$

375 where i denotes the i th extraction and A_i refers to the area obtained in the i th extraction.
376 The slope of this straight line is by convention named $\ln \beta$ and it can be demonstrated
377 that $\ln \beta$ in fact reflects the proportion of compound extracted in each one of the
378 extractions performed in a given sample. A -0.4 value, for instance, means that 40% of
379 the compound is transferred to the headspace in each extraction. The closer to -1 is \ln
380 β , the higher the proportion of compound transferred to the headspace [6].

381 Average $\ln \beta$ values for the above-mentioned compounds are shown in table 6. These
382 values are in general agreement with those calculated elsewhere [6] even though the
383 instrumental setup and the purpose of the experiment were completely different. Data
384 in the table are arranged in decreasing order of $\ln \beta$. The least volatile is ethyl acetate

385 for which 10% its transferred to the headspace in each extraction cycle, and the most
386 volatile is dimethyl sulfide, for which 69% is transferred to the headspace. This implies
387 that wine is depleted from this extremely volatile compound very soon, in agreement
388 with previous results [32].

389 As $\ln \beta$ values are slopes obtained by regression analysis, the S value provided by the
390 regression model for the slope is an estimation of its uncertainty. The square roots of
391 the average variances obtained for each compound in the four wines is the average
392 within wine uncertainty, and is given in the Table 6. Assuming additivity of variances, the
393 variance of the four $\ln \beta$ values obtained for each compound in the four wines can be
394 decomposed into within and between wines variability attending to the model:

$$395 \quad S^2_{\text{tot}} = S^2_{\text{between wines}} + S^2_{\text{within wine}} \quad (2)$$

396 This makes it possible to obtain an estimation of the “between wines” variability (given
397 in Table 6) and also to apply an F test to assess its significance. The results of this test
398 shown in Table 6, where it can be observed that attending to this criterion, only the
399 dimethyl sulfide and ethyl decanoate $\ln \beta$ values differ significantly between wines. It
400 should be noted, however, that in the case of methanethiol the F quotient is abnormally
401 low because of the huge within wine variability, which should be attributed to its
402 extremely low levels.

403 *3.5.- Potential sensory relevance of these changes*

404 It should be taken into account that the qualitative characteristics of aroma perceptions
405 are essentially linked to the profile of odor volatiles reaching the olfactory receptors
406 located in the nose [33,34]. Although it is outside the scope of the present paper to

407 make a precise assessment on this question, the data presented here indicate that the
408 aroma profiles suffer major changes during the time that the wine is in the glass. As has
409 been previously highlighted, the levels of half of the aroma compounds remained
410 constant with time, while levels of the most volatiles such as DMS, ethyl decanoate or
411 methanethiol quickly dropped to zero. The levels of ethyl esters steadily decreased at
412 rates related to their molecular size, which implies that the profile of volatiles emanated
413 from the wine continuously change which should affect the quality of the odor
414 perceived. Additionally, data indicate that the levels of most aldehydes, many of which
415 have relevant sensory properties, followed matrix-dependent trends as do also dimethyl
416 sulfide, ethyl decanoate, methanethiol and surely other mercaptans. This implies that in
417 all these cases data of concentration in the liquid phase is not enough to accurately
418 interpret the role played by the aroma compound in the product. An estimation of the
419 specific volatility of the odorant in such specific wine should be also provided.

420

421 **4. Conclusions**

422 The proposed HS-TD-GCMS method provides quantitative data of up to 40 different
423 relevant aroma compounds in the vapors emanating from wine and makes it possible to
424 assess how the composition of the vapors change with time. Attending to the pattern of
425 change, aroma compounds have been classified into four categories. Polar and not very
426 volatile compounds (half of the total) are present in the headspaces at levels related to
427 their concentration and do not change during time. On the contrary, non-polar and
428 highly volatile compounds can decay very fast. Additionally, the levels and trends
429 followed by aldehydes, dicarbonyls, methanethiol, DMS or ethyl decanoate are
430 significantly affected by the matrix. This indicates that in these cases the data of

431 concentration in the liquid phase should be accompanied by an estimation of their
432 volatility in such specific wine in order to make a reliable interpretation of their sensory
433 role. Results confirm that wine headspace continuously changes during time, which
434 should cause relevant changes in the odor qualities perceived.

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440 **6. References**

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- 561
- 562

563 **Figure captions**

564

565 **Fig. 1.** GC-MS chromatogram (SCAN mode) of a wine sample: (1) acetaldehyde; (2)
566 methanethiol; (3) dimethyl sulfide; (4) isobutanal; (5) ethyl acetate; (6) 2- & 3-
567 methylbutanal; (7) diacetyl; (8) ethyl propanoate; (9) sulfur dioxide; (10) ethyl
568 isobutyrate; (11) methyl 2-methylbutyrate (IS); (12) isobutyl acetate; (13) isobutyl
569 alcohol; (14) ethyl butyrate; (15) 2,3-pentanedione; (16) ethyl 2-methylbutyrate; (17) 1-
570 butanol; (18) ethyl 3-methylbutyrate; (19) isoamyl acetate; (20) isoamyl alcohol; (21)
571 acetoin; (22) ethyl hexanoate; (23) ethyl lactate; (24) cis-3-hexen-1-ol; (25) acetic acid;
572 (26) furfural; (27) benzaldehyde; (28) ethyl octanoate; (29) linalool; (30) butyric acid;
573 (31) γ -butyrolactone; (32) diethyl succinate; (33) 2,6-dichloroanisole (IS); (34) ethyl
574 decanoate; (35) hexanoic acid; (36) phenethyl acetate; (37) β -damascenone; (38) trans-
575 whiskeylactone; (39) β -phenylethanol; (40) cis-whiskeylactone; (41) 4-ethylguaiacol;
576 (42) 4-ethylphenol.

577

578 **Fig. 2.** Evolution patterns of headspace composition after five consecutive extractions
579 for (a) isobutanol, (b) acetaldehyde, (c) ethyl propanoate and (d) ethyl decanoate. Wine
580 codes: YOUN1 was a 1-year old young red wine without barrel ageing, AGED1 and
581 AGED2 were two different 4-year old red and AGED3 was a 7-year old red wine.

582

Figure 1

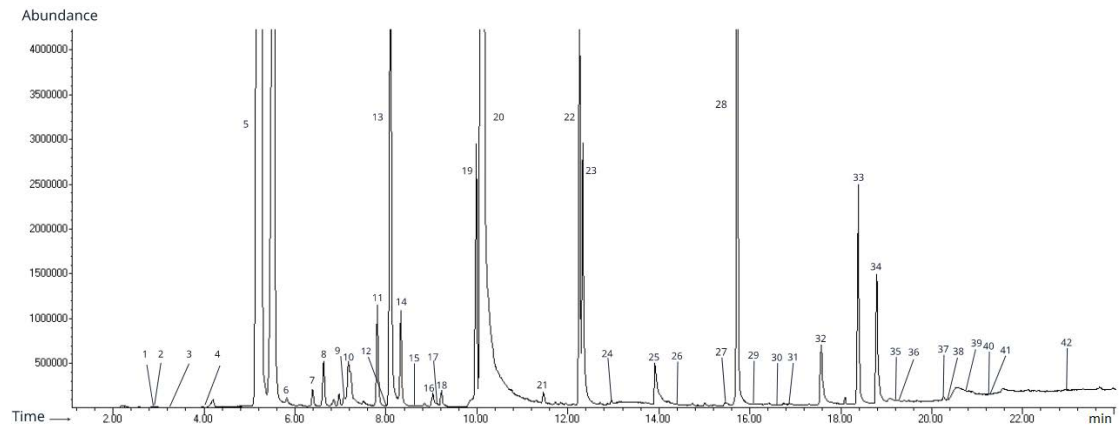


Figure 2a

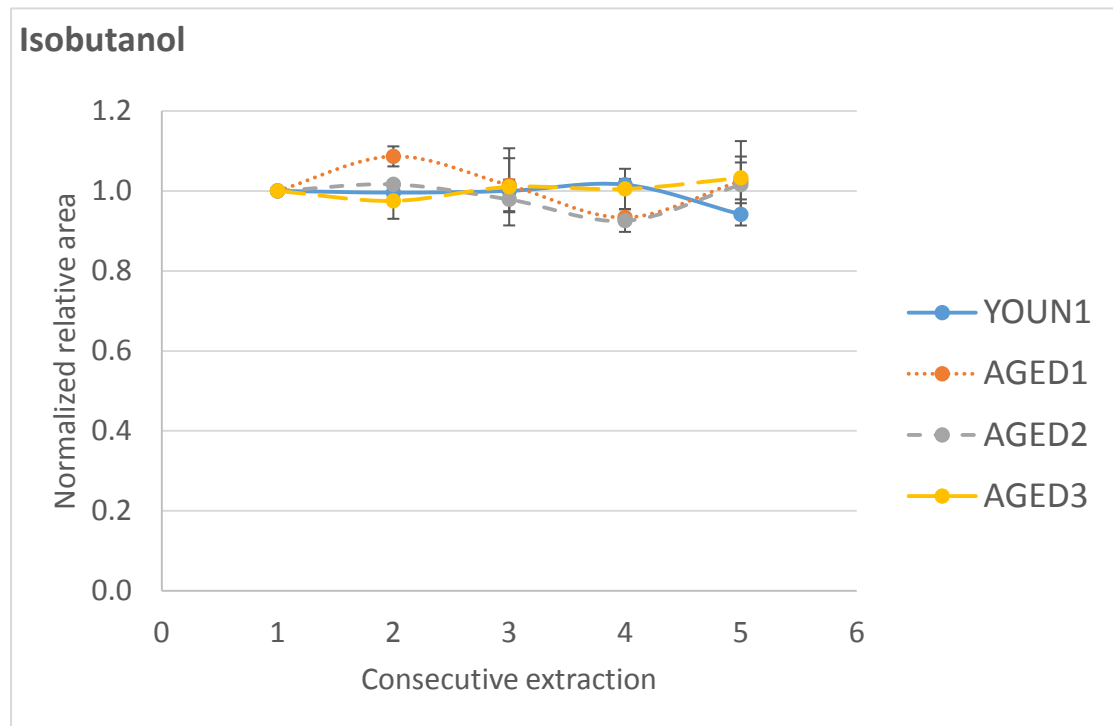


Figure 2b

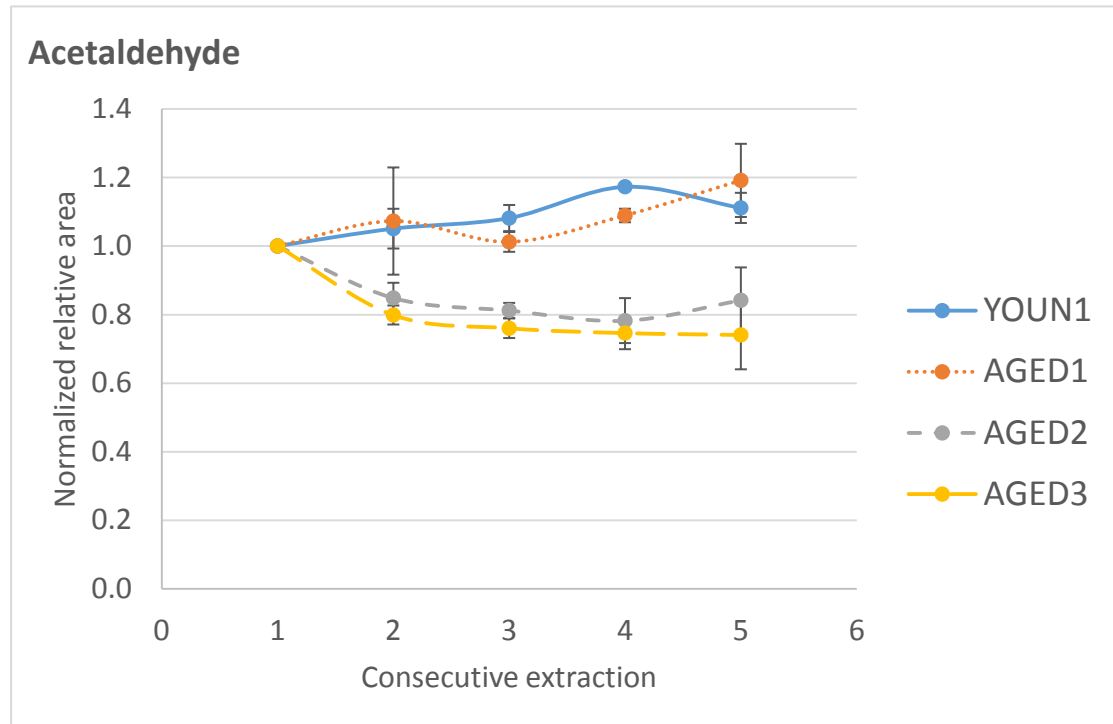


Figure 2c

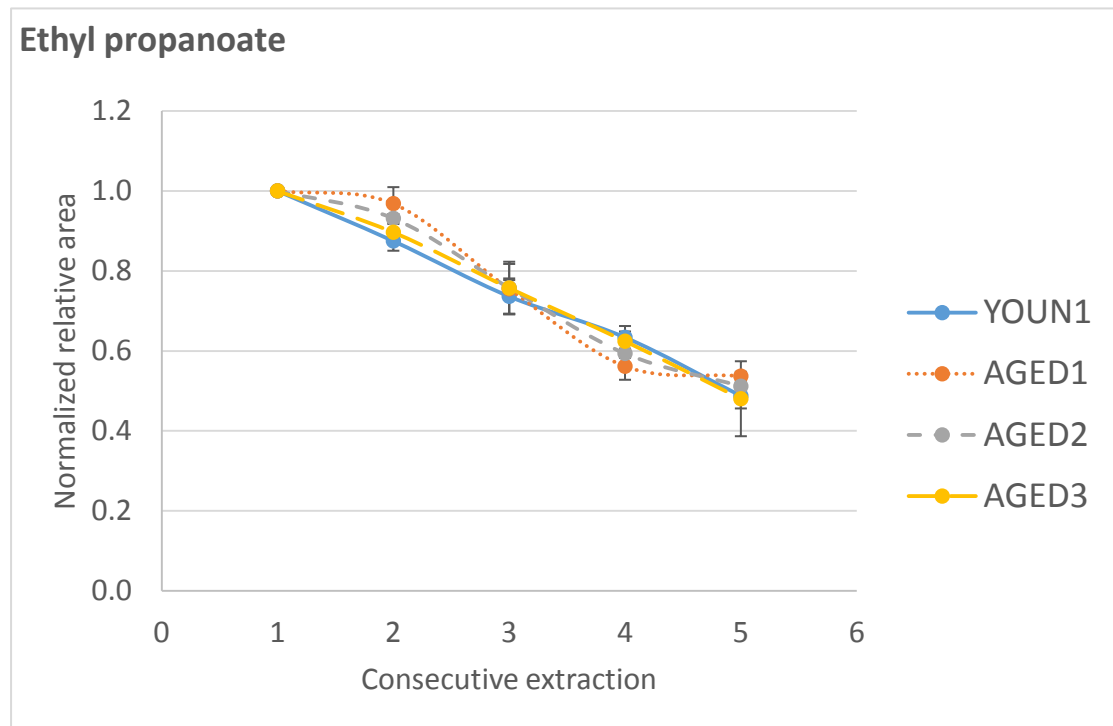


Figure 2d

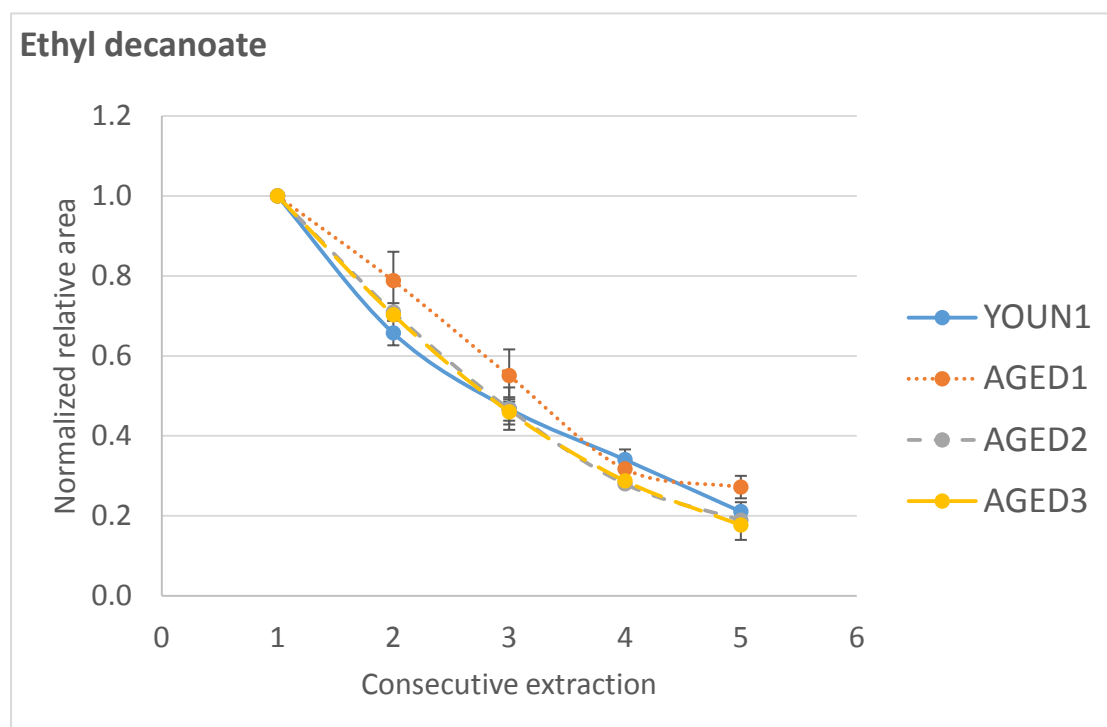


Table 1. Experimental parameters of the DHS system.

Parameters			
Incubation time (min)	5	Initial TDU temperature (°C)	20
Incubation temperature (°C)	30	End TDU temperature (°C)	300
Purge volume (mL)	100	Rate TDU (°C/min)	200
Purge flow (mL/min)	25	Initial CIS temperature (°C)	-100
Purge temperature (°C)	40	End CIS temperature (°C)	250
Dry volume (mL)	50	Rate CIS 1 (°C/s)	16
Dry flow (mL/min)	10	Rate CIS 2 (°C/s)	12
Dry temperature (°C)	40	Sample volume (mL)	5
Sorbent material	Tenax TA	No stirring	

Table 2. Acquisition mode and selected ions for the determination of target compounds in the study.

Compound	<u>Retention time</u> <u>(min)</u>	Scanning mode ^a	Ions (m/z)
Methanethiol	<u>2.983</u>	SIM	47, 48
Dimethyl sulfide	<u>3.418</u>	SIM	62, 47, 61
Sulfur dioxide	<u>7.151</u>	SIM	64, 48
Ethyl acetate	<u>5.191</u>	full scan	74
Ethyl propanoate	<u>6.632</u>	full scan	102
Ethyl butyrate	<u>8.321</u>	full scan	88
Ethyl hexanoate	<u>12.257</u>	full scan	99
Ethyl octanoate	<u>15.730</u>	full scan	88
Ethyl decanoate	<u>18.799</u>	full scan	101
Ethyl isobutyrate	<u>7.209</u>	full scan	116
Ethyl 2-methylbutyrate	<u>9.029</u>	full scan	115
Ethyl 3-methylbutyrate	<u>9.218</u>	full scan	115
Ethyl lactate	<u>12.332</u>	full scan	45
Diethyl succinate	<u>17.582</u>	full scan	129
Isobutyl acetate	<u>8.057</u>	full scan	73
Isoamyl acetate	<u>9.986</u>	full scan	70
Phenethyl acetate	<u>19.497</u>	full scan	104
Acetaldehyde	<u>2.880</u>	SIM	42, 43, 44
Diacetyl	<u>6.386</u>	full scan	86
isobutanal	<u>4.123</u>	SIM	72, 41
Methylbutanal	<u>5.822</u>	SIM	58, 57, 71
2,3-Pentanedione	<u>8.617</u>	full scan	100
Acetoin	<u>11.466</u>	full scan	88
Furfural	<u>14.216</u>	full scan	96
Benzaldehyde	<u>15.459</u>	SIM	105, 106
β -damascenone	<u>20.246</u>	SIM	121, 190
Isobutanol	<u>8.095</u>	full scan	74
1-Butanol	<u>9.190</u>	full scan	56
Isoamyl alcohol	<u>10.153</u>	full scan	70
<i>cis</i> -3-Hexenol	<u>13.091</u>	full scan	82
2-Phenylethanol	<u>20.473</u>	SIM	122, 91, 92
Linalool	<u>15.827</u>	SIM	121, 93
Acetic acid	<u>13.900</u>	full scan	60
Butyric acid	<u>16.344</u>	SIM	60, 88
Hexanoic acid	<u>19.105</u>	SIM	60, 87
γ -Butyrolactone	<u>16.742</u>	full scan	86
<i>trans</i> -Whiskeylactone	<u>20.281</u>	SIM	99, 71
<i>Cis</i> -Whiskeylactone	<u>21.267</u>	SIM	99, 69
4-Ethylphenol	<u>21.570</u>	SIM	107, 122
4-ethylguaiaicol	<u>22.931</u>	SIM	137, 152

^a SIM: selected ion monitoring

Table 3. Precision and detection limits of the DHS method.

	RSD (%)		Concentration in wine ($\mu\text{g/L}$) ^a	Detection limit ($\mu\text{g/L}$)
	Repeatability	Reproducibility		
Methanethiol	28	30	3.46 \pm 0.08	0.34
Dimethyl sulfide	14	48	20.0 \pm 0.7	0.19
Sulfur dioxide	10	12	13900 \pm 800	1.83
Ethyl acetate	8	15	87300 \pm 3500	15.3
Ethyl propanoate	1	8	220 \pm 10	0.74
Ethyl butyrate	5	7	120 \pm 6	0.16
Ethyl hexanoate	8	13	357 \pm 14	0.11
Ethyl octanoate	6	15	233 \pm 9	0.05
Ethyl decanoate	10	17	79.2 \pm 1.8	0.07
Ethyl isobutyrate	9	9	141 \pm 12	0.35
Ethyl 2-methylbutyrate	6	8	27.4 \pm 2.8	0.21
Ethyl 3-methylbutyrate	4	5	51.3 \pm 0.9	0.35
Ethyl lactate	9	11	17500 \pm 3000	41.3
Diethyl succinate	7	7	19400 \pm 600	5.50
Isobutyl acetate	11	14	8.10 \pm 0.14	0.33
Isoamyl acetate	7	14	333 \pm 12	0.06
Phenethyl acetate	6	11	27.3 \pm 1.1	0.23
Acetaldehyde	13	29	6491 \pm 410	356
Diacetyl	11	16	990 \pm 46	1.97
Isobutanal	8	13	45.5 \pm 2.4	0.79
Methylbutanal	13	20	21.0 \pm 1.1	0.38
2,3-Pentanedione	11	12	300 \pm 17	0.87
Acetoin	10	11	22300 \pm 600	4.52
Furfural	11	18	343 \pm 79	6.43
Benzaldehyde	10	12	11.1 \pm 0.2	0.02
β -damascenone	8	8	1.86 \pm 0.04	0.04
Isobutanol	5	12	35400 \pm 400	35.9
1-Butanol	7	7	718 \pm 17	5.35
Isoamyl alcohol	5	11	24500 \pm 4000	17.9
cis-3-Hexenol	7	9	180 \pm 4	2.51
2-Phenylethanol	10	10	40900 \pm 2400	2.82
Linalool	1	2	6.74 \pm 0.35	0.04
Acetic acid	12	17	451000 \pm 26000	354
Butyric acid	8	13	968 \pm 22	22.9
Hexanoic acid	3	7	2290 \pm 130	16.5
γ -Butyrolactone	7	13	17000 \pm 400	241
<i>trans</i> -whiskeylactone	4	5	25.2 \pm 0.6	0.13
<i>cis</i> -whiskeylactone	10	9	171 \pm 3	22.8
4-Ethylphenol	7	9	340 \pm 8	0.88
4-Ethylguaiacol	5	6	14.4 \pm 0.2	0.75

^a Uncertainty expressed as the standard error of the mean (n=3)

Table 4. Linearity of the proposed DHS method.

Compound	Concentration range ($\mu\text{g/L}$)	Slope	R^2
Dimethyl sulfide	20 - 566	5.00×10^{-5}	0.9998
Acetaldehyde	1550 - 16400	5.35×10^{-4}	0.9983
Ethyl acetate	2100-41000	1.29×10^0	0.9998
Ethyl butyrate	120 - 2450	2.08×10^0	0.9945
Ethyl decanoate	80 - 1460	1.51×10^0	0.9999
1-Butanol	720 - 14900	6.22×10^{-1}	0.9986
2-phenylethanol	18000-112000	1.10×10^{-2}	0.9971
Butyric acid	970 - 17800	1.05×10^{-2}	0.9952
4-Ethylphenol	340 - 6270	6.85×10^{-2}	0.9995

Table 5. 2-way-ANOVA carried out with data from the consecutive sampling of the headspaces of 4 different wines.

compound	wine (p)	injection number (p)	interaction (p)
Constant headspace concentration			
Sulfur dioxide	0.395	0.743	0.871
Acetoin	0.752	0.524	0.986
Furfural	0.925	0.293	0.981
Ethyl lactate	0.898	0.471	0.892
Diethyl succinate	0.427	0.500	0.881
Acetic acid	0.382	0.245	0.994
Butyrolactone	0.676	0.212	0.996
2-Phenylethyl acetate	0.437	0.360	0.931
β -damascenone	0.130	0.975	0.927
Isobutyl alcohol	0.791	0.634	0.677
Isoamyl alcohol	0.928	0.406	0.873
2-phenylethanol	0.746	0.659	0.954
Ethyl guaiacol	0.978	0.630	0.950
4-ethyl phenol	0.865	0.367	0.903
<i>trans</i> -whiskeylactone	0.902	0.197	0.922
Wine-dependent non-decay trends			
Acetaldehyde	0.000	0.394	0.051
2&3-Methylbutanal	0.004	0.868	0.273
Diacetyl	0.036	0.181	0.936
Isobutyraldehyde	0.001	0.003	0.011
Benzaldehyde	0.001	0.437	0.547
Simple decay trends			
Ethyl acetate	0.688	0.000	0.721
Propyl acetate	0.354	0.000	0.687
Ethyl propanoate	0.866	0.000	0.811
Ethyl butyrate	0.509	0.000	0.856
Ethyl isobutyrate	0.214	0.000	0.819
Isoamyl acetate	0.097	0.000	0.598
Ethyl-2-methylbutyrate	0.062	0.000	0.524
Ethyl-3-methylbutyrate	0.087	0.000	0.564
Ethyl hexanoate	0.334	0.000	0.766
Ethyl octanoate	0.210	0.000	0.751
Linalool	-	0.000	-
Wine-dependent decay trends			
Dimethyl sulfide	0.050	0.000	0.934
Methanethiol	0.048	0.002	0.007
Ethyl decanoate	0.020	0.000	0.586

Table 6: Average $\ln \beta$ values and results obtained in the F-test to assess significant differences in $\ln \beta$ for those compounds following clear decays.

Compound	$\ln \beta^a$	$S^2_{\text{between wines}}$	$S^2_{\text{within wine}}$	F
Ethyl acetate	-0.10	0.0000	0.0001	0.54
Ethyl propanoate	-0.18	0.0004	0.0004	1.91
Propyl acetate	-0.18	0.0001	0.0004	0.31
Ethyl butyrate	-0.22	0.0000	0.0005	0.18
Isoamyl acetate	-0.25	0.0005	0.0005	1.84
Ethyl hexanoate	-0.27	0.0002	0.0005	0.81
Ethyl isobutyrate	-0.30	0.0002	0.0003	1.35
Ethyl 3-methylbutyrate	-0.30	0.0003	0.0004	1.40
Ethyl 2-methylbutyrate	-0.31	0.0005	0.0005	2.32
Ethyl octanoate	-0.35	0.0005	0.0005	1.86
Methanethiol	-0.36	0.0025	0.0025	2.07
Ethyl decanoate	-0.38	0.0048	0.0005	20.75
Dimethyl sulfide	-0.69	0.0055	0.0017	6.50

^a $\ln \beta$ value calculated as the average of each of the $\ln \beta$ values ($n=2$) obtained from each wine ($n=4$). $S^2_{\text{between wines}}$ was calculated with the 4 $\ln \beta$ values (3 degrees of freedom) and $S^2_{\text{within wine}}$ was calculated from regression analysis (24 degrees of freedom). Values in bold are significant at $p < 0.05$