2	Recovery of aromatic aglycones from grape pomace
3	winemaking by-products by using liquid-liquid and
4	pressurized-liquid extraction
5	
6	Carolina Muñoz-González; Juan J. Rodríguez-Bencomo; Pedro J. Martín-Álvarez; M.
7	Victoria Moreno-Arribas, M. Ángeles Pozo-Bayón*.
8	
9	Instituto de Investigación en Ciencias de la Alimentación (CIAL) (CSIC-UAM)
10	C/Nicolás Cabrera 9, 28049, Madrid, Spain
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	*Corresponding author: Tel +34 91 0017961; Fax: +34 91 0017905; email address:
22	m.delpozo@csic.es
23	
24	
	1

25 ABSTRACT

26

27 The potential of winemaking grape pomace by-products as a source of glycosidic aroma 28 precursors that under enzymatic hydrolysis might release aroma compounds has been 29 evaluated. Two different extraction methodologies, Liquid Liquid and Pressurized 30 Liquid Extraction (LLE and PLE) were employed. Solid Phase Extraction (SPE)-GC-31 MS analysis of the hydrolyzed LLE glycosidic extract revealed 22 aroma compounds belonging to different chemical families (terpenes, C13 norisoprenoids, vanillines, etc). 32 33 Response surface methodology was employed to study the effect of the most significant 34 PLE experimental variables (temperature and solvent composition) on the extraction of 35 aromatic aglycones. The parameters of the model were estimated by multiple linear 36 regressions. Most of the aroma compounds showed an adequate fit to the calculated model (18 compounds from 22 with $R^2 > 0.8$). The application of the optimized PLE 37 38 conditions (50% of ethanol in the hydroalcoholic solution) and 90 °C showed higher 39 extraction yield of aglycones when comparing with the extraction yield obtained by 40 LLE.

41

42

43 Key words: winemaking grape pomace by-products, glycosidic aroma precursors,

44 varietal aroma compounds, Pressurized Liquid Extraction, SPE-GC-MS

- 46 Introduction
- 47

Grape pomace consists in the skin, stems and seeds of grapes that remain after 48 49 processing in the wine and juice industry. Recently, it has been stated that 10 million 50 tons of grape pomace was produced in 2005 from 66 million tons of harvested grapes (*Vitis vinifera* L.) in the world 1 . Grape processing wastes can be an important 51 52 economical problem to producers besides the environmental impact caused by the large 53 amount of these types of residues generated during the harvest season. The majority of 54 this pomace is discarded as natural waste or distilled to produce alcohol and other distilled beverages. However, as Fernández and collaborators have recently pointed² 55 56 the new regulation in the reform of the Common Organization Market (OCM) of wine eliminates the subsidy to distillation in 2013. Therefore, the wineries will have new 57 58 economic difficulties with winery waste management.

59 Besides some traditional applications of grape pomace for animal fed formulations ³ or 60 compost production ⁴ in the latest years, the scientific works carried out on the 61 characterization of the chemical components of waste grape by-products has allowed 62 looking for different applications in trying to obtain high added value ingredients. Some 63 of these applications are the production of grape seed oil ⁵ or biodiesel from it ², 64 obtaining dietary fibre ⁶⁻⁸ and mainly in the last years, the extraction of polyphenols 65 with antioxidant properties ⁹⁻¹⁴ for food, cosmetic or pharmaceutical applications.

Some other potential applications, such as the use of grape pomace to recover aroma compounds have been less explored. Ruberto and collaborators ¹⁵ explored this possibility, but they focused on the free volatile profile of grape pomace coming from the processing of different grapes varieties (Nero d'Avola, Nerello Mascalese, Frappato and Cabernet Sauvignon), showing a volatile profile mainly dominated by carboxylicacid derivatives with relatively high odor thresholds.

72 However, grape aroma compounds can be present both as free volatiles and in much higher concentrations, as non-volatile sugar-bound glycoside conjugates ¹⁶. The 73 74 occurrence of glycosidically bound volatiles is typically two to eight times greater that 75 of their free counterparts ¹⁷ and, although their distribution in the grape berry might change during ripeness ¹⁸ they are present in the largest amount in the skin ¹⁹. In spite 76 77 that grape glycosides are non-volatile odorless flavor precursors, under enzymatic or 78 acid hydrolysis during winemaking they can release the corresponding odorant 79 aglycones. which are generally potent flavor compounds (monoterpenes, 80 norisoprenoids, benzenoids compounds, etc) characterised by low aroma thresholds and interesting sensory properties ¹⁷. 81

82 In spite of the evident interest of using grape glycosides as a source of aroma 83 compounds, the works focused on the characterization of glycosides in grape pomace are scarce in the literature. Only Vasserot and collaborators ²⁰ carried out pioneer 84 85 studies, in which they evidenced the presence of monoterpenol glucosides in Muscat 86 grape by-products. Nonetheless, in their study, the characterization of the released 87 odorant aglycones, which are the interesting compounds as a source of natural flavors, 88 was not performed, since they quantified the total amount of monoterpenols using a 89 colorimetric assay.

For the extraction of grape aroma glycosides, most of the works in the literature use liquid- liquid extraction employing hydroalcoholic solutions letting the sample macerate in the darkness during long extraction times (24 hours at least) ²¹⁻²³. However, other technologies, such as the use of supercritical CO₂ extraction has also been successfully used ²⁴, although in the above mentioned work the characterization of the corresponding 4

95 odorant aglycones was not performed. The use of pressurized liquid extraction (PLE) is 96 a relatively new extraction approach that is being applied for the extraction of different types of phytochemicals from plants 9, 10, 25, 26. The use of high pressure-high 97 temperature extraction might increases the contact with the solvent facilitating solvent 98 99 penetration into complex matrices such as grape pomace. In addition, other advantages 100 are the relatively short extraction times and the possibility of using GRAS solvents or even water (subcritical water), which makes PLE a "green" extraction methodology²⁶, 101 102 ²⁷. Different procedures using PLE have been optimized for the extraction of some phytochemicals from grape pomaces ^{10, 25} in recent years. However, as far we now, none 103 104 scientific work has evaluated the use of PLE for the extraction of glycoside aroma 105 precursors.

106 Therefore, the objective of this work has been firstly to check the potential of grape 107 pomace (*Verdejo* white grape variety) as a source of glycosides that under enzymatic 108 hydrolysis might release aroma compounds, and secondly, to know the feasibility of 109 PLE for the extraction of these glycosides comparing it with the more conventional 110 liquid-liquid extraction (LLE).

111

112 Materials and Methods

113

114 Grape Pomace Samples

115

Grape pomace from Verdejo white grape variety was provided by a winery from the
O.D Rueda (Spain). Fresh pomace from pressed grapes (pneumatic pressing) previously
submitted to a maceration process (without fermentation), was immediately recovery,
and placed into plastic bags in absence of oxygen, sealed and stored at -20°C. Frozen

grape pomace was dried in a lyophiliser (Labonco, Kansas City, MO, USA) and ground
into a fine and homogenous powder using a commercial coffee grinder. The powder was
stored at -20°C in absence of oxygen till it was used for the analyses.

123

124 Extraction of glycosidic aroma precursors from grape pomace by liquid-liquid125 extraction (LLE)

126

127 The procedure for the extraction of aroma precursors from grape pomace was based on that described by Hernandez-Orte and co-authors ²¹ with some modifications. One 128 129 hundred grams of the grape pomace powder were suspended in 500 mL of a buffer 130 solution (0.1 M Na₂HPO₄/NaH₂PO₄) at pH 7 and 13% (v/v) ethanol (Scharlau Chemie S 131 A., Barcelona, Spain) allowing macerating in the darkness in absence of oxygen (60 h, 132 20°C in a nitrogen atmosphere). This solution was centrifuged at 16770 g for 15 min at 133 20 °C, and the supernatant was filtered through filter paper. Ethanol was removed from 134 the sample by using a Rotavapor R-200 (Buchi Labortechnik AG, Flawil, Switzerland) 135 at 25 °C.

136

Extraction of glycosidic aroma precursors from grape pomace by pressurized-liquidextraction (PLE)

139

Aroma precursors were extracted from the grape pomace by using an accelerated
solvent extractor (ASE 200, Dionex Corporation, Sunyvale, CA) equipped with a
solvent flow controller. Two solvents of different polarity, ethanol (Scharlau Chemie
S.A.), and purified water by using a Milli-Q system (Millipore, Inc., Bedford, MA)
were employed. Freeze dried grape pomace (9 g) was dispersed thoroughly with 9 g of
6

sea sand (Panreac, Barcelona, Spain). The homogeneous mixture was loaded into a 33
ml extraction cell with a cellulose paper filter at the bottom of the cell. PLE
experimental variables were pressure (1500 psi), three extraction cycles, flush volume
(60 %), nitrogen purge time (60 sec), static time (8 min) and preheat time (5 min).
Ethanol was removed from the collected sample by using a Rotavapor R-200 (Buchi
Labortechnik AG, Flawil, Switzerland) at 25 °C. The experiment was repeated until the
complete extraction of 50 g of grape pomace.

152

153 Solvent and Temperature Optimization in the PLE method

154

155 The effect of two factors, solvent type (S) and temperature (T) on the relative peak area 156 of each aroma compound (response variable) obtained after the hydrolysis of the grape 157 glycoside aroma precursors recovered from the grape pomace was evaluated by using a central composite circumscribed (CCC) design ²⁸. A total of 10 assays: four points of a 158 159 full factorial design (combination of levels -1 and +1), four star points (at levels $\pm \alpha$, $\alpha =$ 160 start distance = 1.414), and two centre points to estimate the experimental error, were 161 carried out in randomized run order. By using this design, the two factors were tested at 162 five different experimental levels: the concentration of ethanol employed in the 163 hydroalcoholic mixture as solvent (S) at 0, 15, 50, 85 and 100 (% v/v EtOH); and the 164 temperature (T) at 48, 60, 90, 120 and 132 ($^{\circ}$ C); in correspondence with the coded 165 levels: -1.414, -1.000, 0, +1.000, +1.414, respectively. **Table 1** shows the experimental 166 matrix design, with the experimental levels of the independent variables (factors).

167 The quadratic polynomial model proposed for the response variable (Y_i) for each 168 selected volatile compound was:

170
$$Y_i = \beta_o + \beta_1 S + \beta_2 T + \beta_{1,1} S * S + \beta_{2,2} T * T + \beta_{1,2} S * T + \varepsilon$$
 (Equation 1)

171

Where β_o is the intercept, β_i the linear coefficients, $\beta_{i,i}$ the quadratic coefficients, $\beta_{i,2}$ 172 173 the interaction coefficient, and ε is the variable error. The parameters of this model 174 were estimated by Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) using the Statgraphics Centurion XV program (StatPoint Inc., www.statgraphics.com) that permits the creation and 175 176 analysis of experimental designs. The effect of each term and their statistical 177 significance for each of the response variables (aroma compounds released from the 178 corresponding glycosides) were analysed from the standardized Pareto chart. The goodness of fit of the model was evaluated by the coefficient of determination (R^2) and 179 180 the residual standard deviation (RSD). The terms not significantly different from zero (p>0.10), were excluded of the model and the mathematical model was re-fitted by 181 182 MLR. From the fitted model, the estimated surface plot and the optimum conditions that 183 maximized the response variable were obtained.

184

185 Isolation of glycosides aroma precursors from the grape pomace extracts by using Solid186 Phase extraction (SPE)

187

The glycosides aroma precursors contained in the extracts obtained by LLE or PLE were isolated by adsorption onto an Amberlite XAD-2 (Supelco, Bellefonte, USA), column. A 10 cm length glass column (Pobel, Madrid, Spain), filled with 40 g of Amberlite XAD-2 was prepared by sequentially conditioning it with 120 mL of dichloromethane, methanol and water. The sample extract was introduced into the 193 column which was afterward rinsed it with 100 ml of water and 150 ml of 194 pentane/dichloromethane (2:1 v/v) to remove any residual of free volatiles. Elution of 195 the glycosides aroma precursors was performed with 150 mL of ethyl acetate/methanol 196 (9:1 v:v). This fraction was collected and solvent was evaporated by using a rotavapor 197 (Buchi Labortechnik AG). The dried extract was reconstituted in 4 mL of water, 198 extracted twice with 1 mL of dichloromethane and 1 ml of pentane to ensure the 199 complete removal of free volatiles, aliquoted and stored at -20°C. The absence of free 200 volatiles in the aroma precursor extract was further tested.

201

202 Release of aromatic aglycones from the glycosidic extracts by enzymatic hydrolysis

203

204 Previous to the GC-MS analysis, the glycoside extracts from grape pomace were 205 submitted to enzymatic hydrolysis to release the corresponding free aroma compounds 206 (aglycones). Enovin® (Agrovin, Ciudad Real, Spain), a commercial oenological 207 enzymatic preparation of several Aspergillus niger (GMO free) with β -glucosidase 208 activity was used to release the odorant aglycones. The enzymatic preparation was 209 dissolved in a citrate/phosphate buffer (pH=5; 51.5% 0.2 M sodium phosphate and 210 48.5% 0.1 M citric acid) and 500 μ L of a 20 mg/mL of the enzyme solution were added 211 to the glycosidic precursors extract. The amount of enzyme was previously optimised to 212 provide the maximum hydrolysis yield. After the addition of 50 µL of a 90 mg/mL 213 solution of n-octylglucoside in ethanol as internal standard, the mixture contained in a 214 tube was closed and placed in a bath at 40 ° C for 16 h. The hydrolyzed was cooled over 215 ice, and the released aglycones were analysed by SPE following the procedure 216 described as following.

217

Analysis of the aroma compounds released from the glycosidic aroma precursors bySPE-GCMS

220

221 The SPE was carried out using the method proposed and validated by Loscos and collaborators ²³ with slight modifications. The total volume of the glycoside hydrolisate 222 223 containing 20 μ L of a solution of β -damascone from Sigma-Aldrich (0.25 mg/ml in 224 ethanol) as internal standard (previously, it was checked its absence in the hydrolysed 225 extract) was passed through a 50 mg LiChrolut EN cartridge (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, 226 Germany) previously pre-conditioned (2 mL of dichloromethane, 2 mL of methanol and 227 2 mL of a 12% ethanol solution). The sorbent was washed with 5 mL of 40% (v/v) 228 methanol solution and dried by letting air pass through (0.6 bar, 10 min). Aglycones 229 were recovered by elution with 1 mL of dichloromethane. Twenty µL of an internal 230 standard solution (4-methyl-2-pentanol, 4-hydroxy-4-methyl-2-pentanone and 2-octanol 231 at a concentration of 465.5, 598.5 and 665 µg in 10 ml of dichloromethane) were added 232 to the eluted sample. The extract was concentrated under a gentle stream of nitrogen to a 233 final volume of 100 µL and then analyzed by GC-MS under the conditions described 234 below.

235

Two μ L of the aroma extracts were directly injected in splitless mode into the GC-MS. (Agilent 6890) provided with an Agilent MSD ChemStation software to control the system. For separation, a Supra-Wax fused silica capillary column (60 m × 0.25mm i.d. × 0.50 µm film thickness) from Konik (Barcelona, Spain) preceded by a 50 cm x 0.25 mm uncoated and deactivated precolumn from Quadrex (Woodbridge, CT, USA) was used. Helium was the carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. The oven temperature was initially held at 40 °C for 5 min, then increased at 4 °C/min to 240 °C and held for 20
min.

244 For the MS system (Agilent 5973N), the temperatures of the transfer line, quadrupole and ion source were 270, 150 and 230 °C respectively. Electron impact mass spectra 245 246 were recorded at 70 eV ionization voltages and the ionization current was 10 µA. The 247 acquisitions were performed in Scan (from 35 to 350 amu) and Sim modes for some 248 specific compounds. The signal corresponding to a specific ion of quantification was 249 calculated by the data system. The identification of compounds was carried out by 250 comparison of retention times and mass spectra of the references compounds with those 251 reported in the mass spectrum library NIST 2.0. Quantitative data were obtained by 252 calculating the relative peak area in relation to that of the corresponding internal 253 standard. To calculate the concentration of each aroma compound, calibration curves of 254 each reference compound at different concentrations covering the concentration ranges 255 expected in the samples were prepared in dichloromethane and analysed in the same 256 conditions that the samples. To do so, standards of volatile compounds of the maximum 257 purity available (>98%) were purchased from different providers: Aldrich (Steinheim, 258 Germany); Fluka (Buchs, Switzerland); Merck (Munchen, Germany) and Firmenich 259 (Geneve, Switzerland). These compounds are shown in Table 2.

260

261 **Results and Discussion**

262

Aroma compounds released after the hydrolysis of aroma precursor glycosidesrecovered from grape pomace using LLE.

265

266 Aroma compounds were released from the aroma glycosides extracted from Verdejo 267 grape pomace by using commercial fungal glycosidases, therefore in trying to obtain a 268 more natural flavour profile compared to the acidic hydrolysis, which has been 269 indicated it might induce a molecular rearrangement and the transformation of some of the liberated aglycones ¹⁷. The aroma composition after the enzymatic hydrolysis of the 270 271 glycoside extracts recovered by LLE was shown in **Table 2**. A total of 22 varietal 272 aroma compounds belonging to different chemical families (terpenes, C13 273 norisoprenoids volatiles phenols, benzenoids, vanillines and lipid derivatives) were 274 identified based on their characteristic gas chromatography and mass spectra data. 275 Figure 1 shows a chromatogram of the typical GC-MS volatile profile of the varietal 276 compounds released from the glycosidic aroma precursors. All the compounds 277 identified in the extracts came from the hydrolysis of the glycosides extracted from 278 grape pomace, since the chromatogram of the no hydrolyzed precursor extract, did not 279 show any significant peak (data not shown). As can be seen in table 2, the most 280 represented class of aroma compounds were terpenes, volatile phenols and lipids 281 derivatives, followed by benzenoids and vanillins. Most of these compounds can be 282 interesting on the basis of their aroma characteristics. For instance, the monoterpenes 283 limonene, nerol, geraniol and two linalool related compounds such as 8-hydroxylinalool 284 and linalool oxide were detected in the grape pomace in an average concentration of 10 285 µg of monoterpenes / Kg dry pomace, in which geraniol, was the monoterpene extracted at the highest amount. In wines, this compound presents a *floral* aroma. Moreover, 286 geraniol and linalool are compounds associated to the pleasant Muscat like odor ²⁹. 287 288 Many monoterpenoids have been associated to pleasant floral aroma attributes and it is important to notice that in general, they present very low odor thresholds (100-400 289 290 μ g/L) ¹⁶. Another poly-oxygenated terpene identified in the pomace extract was the 12

291 compound 8-hydroxylinalool. Although by their own, poly-oxygenated terpenes might 292 have small sensory relevance, they can be transformed into odorant monoterpenols by hydrolysis at acid pH³⁰. Linalool, one of the most common odorant aglycones released 293 294 from some floral grape varieties such as Muscat, Riesling and Gewürztraminer, was 295 absent in the hydrolyzed grape pomace extract, which might be due to its oxidation via 296 the formation of an epoxide into different types of linalool oxides. In fact, linalool oxide 297 was also identified in the LLE extract (table 2 and peak n° 6 in Figure 1). The presence 298 of other types of hydroxylated linalool derivatives has been described in the bound fraction of other white grape varieties such as Muscat and Melon B grape varieties ³¹. 299 300 The compound $\infty - \alpha$ -ionol was the only C13 norisoprenoid identified in the hydrolyzed 301 extract. However, it was one of the quantitatively most abundant compounds extracted 302 from the grape pomace (28.6 µg / Kg dry pomace). This compound has been associated 303 with a *spicy* aromatic note and as opposite to terpenes, it is normally found in the same 304 quantities in all the grape varieties, aromatics or neutral ¹⁷. **Table 2**, also shows the four volatile phenols and three related compounds (vanillins) that were identified in the 305 306 pomace extract. In wines, these compounds might contribute to wine flavor because of 307 their low odor thresholds. Their presence in the pomace extract is likely due to the hydrolysis of the corresponding glycosidic precursors ³⁰. However, some vanillins could 308 have been formed from ethanolysis of lignin²⁹, which forms part of the stem and seeds 309 310 present in the pomace, and the use of ethanol employed as extracting solvent during the 311 extraction. Among the volatile phenols, the compound 2-methoxy-4-vinylphenol, was 312 present at the highest amount (176.76 µg/Kg dry pomace). This compound exhibits a very low odor threshold (10 μ g/L in water)²⁹, and it has been related to *clove-like*, 313 *balsamic*, *peppery-woody* aroma nuances ³². Among the vanillins, acetovanillone, was 314 315 the quantitatively most important compound detected in the pomace extract (9.77 µg/Kg 13

316 pomace extract). The three vanillins identified in the extracts (vanillin, methyl vanillate, acetovanillone) have been associated with pleasant vanilla aromatic notes in wines ^{33, 34}. 317 318 In addition, three benzenoids compounds (benzyl alcohol, β-phenylethyl alcohol and 319 benzaldehyde) were also identified. Taking into account their interest for their aroma 320 characteristics, β -phenylethyl alcohol could be the most interesting one, which has been 321 related to *rose-like* odor. This compound was detected in the extract in a relatively large 322 amount compared to other aglycones (above 136 µg/Kg dry pomace) (Table 2). The 323 amount of this compound in the pomace extract was even higher than that reported by Gómez and co-authors ¹⁹ in the skin of other non-aromatic grape varieties, such as 324 325 Monastrell, Cabernet Sauvignon and Tempranillo (43, 72 and 73 µg / Kg grape 326 respectively). Although the origin of β -phenylethyl alcohol in many fermented 327 beverages is from the catabolism of amino acids during the alcoholic fermentation, this 328 compound can occur in the fruit berry (e.g grape) in a rather high concentration as a non volatile precursor bound to an uncharacterised glycoside residue 35 . Table 2 also shows 329 330 some lipids derivatives identified in the pomace extract corresponding, in general, to 331 some C6 aliphatic alcohols and the lactone γ -nonalactone. It has been shown, that some C6 aliphatic alcohols might be in the grape as odorless β -D-glucosides ³¹. In fact, it has 332 333 been reported that while in aromatic grapes monoterpenols are important aglycones, in 334 the case of non aromatic grapes, instead of monoterpenols, the C6 aliphatic alcohols are the most preponderant varietal alcohols ¹⁹. Most of them are associated to green-herbal 335 aroma nuances 36, 37. The only lactone identified in the extracts, was γ -nonalactone, 336 337 although its concentration was relatively low (1.6 µg / Kg dry pomace). Nonetheless, it 338 could be interesting because of its aroma characteristics, since it has been shown it 339 possess a lower odor threshold (30 µg/L) and a pleasant odor described such as *coconutlike* ³⁸. 340 14

Therefore, the hydrolyzed extract from Verdejo grape pomace showed different types of varietal aroma compounds mainly characterised by very low detection thresholds and many of them associated to pleasant aromatic notes. Taking into consideration their aroma characteristics, this aroma extract seems more interesting for different types of industrial applications, than the remaining free volatiles fraction present in the grape pomace previously considered for the valorisation of this type of wine by-products ¹⁵.

347

Optimization of a procedure based on Pressurized Liquid Extraction (PLE) for therecovery of aroma precursor glycosides from grape pomace

350

351 Once it was proven that grape pomace contained glycosides that after hydrolysis can 352 release a wide spectrum of aroma compounds, the next step in the work was looking for 353 an extraction method allowing the maximum glycoside extraction yield. To do so, 354 pressurized liquid extraction (PLE) was chosen for this objective. This technique has 355 been recently and successfully used for the recovery of other grape phytochemicals from red grape pomaces 10, 25. For the optimization of the best extraction conditions, we 356 357 focused on the effect of the extracting solvent (different hydroalcoholic solutions) and temperature, since they are outstanding variables in the PLE extraction procedure ^{26, 27}. 358 359 The relative peak areas of the aromatic aglycones released after the hydrolysis of the 360 extracts obtained by PLE were calculated in the different analysis conditions provided 361 by the experimental matrix of the factorial design (Table 1). These ranges were chosen on the basis of previous works based on the extraction of other grape phytochemicals 10, 362 363 ²⁵. All the experiments were randomly performed to minimize the effect of uncontrolled 364 factors that might introduce bias in the measurements. MLR was applied to estimate the 365 parameters of the proposed model in **Equation 1** for all the aglycones identified in the 15

366 extracts (response variables). The effect of each parameter in the model and their 367 statistical significance were analyzed from the Pareto chart. Figure 2a shows an 368 example, in which the effect of each term of the model divided by its standard error is shown. The terms not significantly different from 0 (p<0.10) were excluded of the 369 370 model and the mathematical model was refitted. The regression coefficients, for 371 unscaled factors and the statistics of the fitting for each response variable (determination 372 coefficient, and residual standard deviation RSD) are also shown in **Table 3.** As can be 373 seen, most of the aroma compounds released from the pomace glycosides, showed an adequate fit to the calculated model (18 compounds from 22 with $R^2 > 0.8$). Only four 374 375 compounds, 2-methoxy-4-vinyl-phenol, 8-hydroxylinalool, oxo-α-ionol and 4-376 vinylphenol showed an inadequate fit to the proposed model. In the table, it can be seen 377 that the linear terms with the strongest influence on the recovery of odorant aglycones 378 after the hydrolysis were both the extracting solvent composition (S) and the 379 temperature (T) having in general, a negative and a positive influence respectively. Only 380 four compounds were negatively affected by the temperature: limonene, γ -nonalactone, 381 8-hydroxylinalool and $0x0-\alpha$ -ionol, although the two latter ones also showed inadequate 382 fits to the model. It seemed clear that solvent composition (% of ethanol/water) affected the glycoside extraction from grape pomace as has been also shown for the extraction of 383 other grape phytochemicals ^{9, 39, 40}. Considering the temperature, the significant effect of 384 385 this factor during the PLE extraction, might be explained because it provokes an increase in mass transfer favoring the solubility of the metabolites of interest ^{26, 27}. The 386 quadratic terms (S^2 and T^2) seemed to be less important for the model, although T^2 387 388 showed a significant and negative effect for many compounds, confirming the large 389 effect of temperature in the extraction. On the contrary, the interaction term (S^*T) did 390 not seem very significant, and only five compounds (γ-nonalactone, 2,6391 dimethoxyphenol, methyl vanillate and 4-vinylphenol) were affected.

392 When comparing the optimum values (maximum values of relative peak area) for the 393 extraction of each aroma compounds, there were not an ideal solvent/temperature 394 conditions valid for all of them likely due to the structural differences and complexity of the different types of glycosides present in the grape pomace $^{17, 35}$. This has been already 395 396 stated when optimizing the extraction conditions of other structurally complex grape phytochemicals such as anthocyanins ^{10, 25}. In addition, some of the extraction 397 398 conditions essayed, specifically those not involving the use of ethanol (extraction with 399 subcritical water), gave a lot of operational and technical issues during the extraction 400 procedure (clogging valves and tubes of the ASE device), possibly because of the 401 extraction of other polar compounds from the grape pomace (peptides, proteins, 402 pectines, polyphenols) that made unviable the use of low ethanol hydroalcohlic 403 Therefore, the optimal extraction conditions were chosen taking into mixtures. consideration those which provided the highest extractions (µg/Kg grape pomace) of the 404 405 majority of aromatic aglycones, which were obtained during the assay number 2 and 10 406 (Table 1) using 50% of ethanol in the hydroalcoholic solution and 90 °C as extraction 407 temperature. Figure 2b shows an example of the surface plot for the optimal extraction 408 conditions calculated for one of the aromatic aglycones. In this case, as can be shown, 409 although the best extraction yield was obtained at lower ethanol concentration, as it was 410 stated before, compromise conditions were used in order to obtain higher extraction 411 yield, but avoiding technical and operational problems in the extractor device.

412

Therefore, the optimized PLE conditions (50 % ethanol and 90 °C) were applied for the
extraction of glycosidic aroma precursors from grape pomace. The compounds 17

415 identified and their concentrations after the enzymatic hydrolysis are also shown in 416 Table 2. As can be seen in the table, these data were compared to those previously 417 obtained by using LLE (ethanol 13% v/v at room temperature during 60 hours in the 418 darkness). Compared to the most conventional extraction procedure (LLE), the 419 extraction efficacy of the PLE was higher. The hydrolyzed extracts obtained by PLE 420 had considerably higher amounts of the majority of varietal aglycones whatever the 421 chemical family considered. Only the amounts of lipid derivatives were more or less 422 similar indistinctly of the extraction method used. It is worth to notice that almost 50% 423 more terpenes derivatives were found in the PLE extracts. However, nerol was not 424 detected in this extract, which might be due to a minor conversion rate from its 425 precursor, geraniol ¹⁸, because of the shorter extraction time applied during the PLE 426 procedure compared to the LLE method. The compound 2,6-dimethoxyphenol was not 427 identified in the PLE extract either, although its concentration was also very low by 428 using LLE (Table 2). On the contrary, the three other volatile phenols, eugenol and 429 mainly 2-methoxy-4-vinylphenol and 4-vinylphenol, were higher extracted by using 430 PLE (3.7, 1872.9 and 590.8 µg/dry pomace respectively). In addition, very important 431 differences between both extraction methods were observed in the extraction of 432 vanillines, and for example, vanilline was above 90 percent more extracted using PLE 433 than LLE (only about 10% extracted using LLE) (Table 2). Benzenoids compounds 434 were only between 24 and 54% extracted using LLE compared to the PLE. These 435 results showed that PLE was more effective in the extraction of glycosides from grape 436 pomace than the more conventional LLE method. This higher effectiveness can be 437 linked to the advantages associated of using an ethanolic mixture at high pressure and 438 high-temperature compared to a conventional method also using a hydroalcoholic 439 mixture but in static conditions during longer extraction times. However, it is important 18

440 to consider, than is spite of the higher extraction rate of glycosides (therefore, of the 441 corresponding aromatic aglycones) associated to the PLE method, some drawbacks of 442 this procedure have also been noticed during this work. First of all, the limited amount 443 of sample that can fit in the extraction cell (using a conventional ASE device), which 444 makes necessary many repeated extraction cycles, and secondly, some operational 445 problems when using higher proportion of water in the hydroalcoholic solution, which 446 could be of interest lowering the solvent cost and making possible the use of more 447 environmental friendly solvents, because of the high extraction of other grape-polar 448 compounds.

449

450 **Conclusions**

451

452 The results of this work show that grape pomace by-products can be a source of 453 glycosidic aroma precursors that after hydrolysis can release interesting odorant 454 compounds based on their aroma quality and low odor thresholds. The use of PLE 455 working in the optimised conditions (50% ethanol/water, 90 °C) greatly improves the 456 extraction compared to the more conventional LLE. Considering the large amount of 457 grape pomace produced every year in the world, the extraction of aroma glycosides can 458 be an interesting alternative for the recovery and valorisation of grape by-products with 459 potential applications in different industrial sectors (agro-food, cosmetic, perfumery, 460 etc) and besides, reducing their environmental consequences.

461

462

463 Acknowledgments

- 464 Authors thank Dr. Maribel Estrella Pedrola from ICTAN (CSIC) and her lab staff for
- their valuable assistance during the PLE experiments.

467 **Compliance with Ethics Requirements**

468 Carolina Muñoz-González declares that she has no conflict of interest. Juan J.
469 Rodríguez-Bencomo declares that he has no conflict of interest; Pedro J. Martín-Álvarez
470 declares that he has no conflict of interest; M. Victoria Moreno-Arribas declares that she
471 has no conflict of interest; M. Ángeles Pozo-Bayón declares that she has no conflict of
472 interest.

473 This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects.

475 **References**

- 476 1.T. Maier, A. Göppert, D. R. Kammerer, A. Schieber, R. Carle, Eur. Food 477 Res.Technol. 227, 267-275 (2008).
- 478 2. C. M. Fernández, M. J. Ramos, A. Pérez, J. F. Rodríguez, Bioresource Technol. 101,
 479 7030-7035 (2010).
- 480 3. A. Brenes, A. Viveros, I. Goñi, et al., Poultry Sci. 87, 307-316 (2008).
- 481 4. M. A. Bustamante, R. Moral, C. Paredes, A. Pérez-Espinosa, J. Moreno-Caselles, M.
- 482 D. Pérez-Murcia, Waste Manage. 28, 372-380 (2008).
- 483 5. L. Fiori, J. Supercrit. Fluid. 43, 43-54 (2007).
- 6. M. R. González-Centeno, C. Rosselló, S. Simal, M. C. Garau, F. López, A. Femenia,
 Food Sci. technol-LEB. 43, 1580-1586 (2010).
- 486 7. J. M. Igartuburu, E. Pando, F. Rodríguez-Luis, A. Gil-Serrano, J. Nat. Prod. 61, 881487 886 (1998).
- 488 8. J. Pérez-Jiménez, S. G. Sáyago-Ayerdi, Agro Fod Ind.Hi Tec. 20, 22-24 (2009).
- 489 9. M. Pinelo, M. Rubilar, M. Jerez, J. Sineiro, M. J. Núñez, J. Agric. Food Chem. 53,
 490 2111-2117 (2005).
- 491 10. J. K. Monrad, L. R. Howard, J. W. King, K. Srinivas, A. Mauromoustakos, J. Agric.
 492 Food Chem. 58, 2862-2868 (2010).
- 493 11. V. Louli, N. Ragoussis, K. Magoulas, Bioresource Technol. 92, 201-208 (2004).
- 494 12. S. Hogan, C. Canning, S. Sun, X. Sun, K. Zhou, J. Agric. Food Chem. 58, 11250495 11256 (2010).
- 496 13. R. Guendez, S. Kallithraka, D. P. Makris, P. Kefalas, Food Chem. 89, 1-9 (2005).
- 497 14. A. Chafer, M. C. Pascual-Martí, A. Salvador, A. Berna, J. Sep.Sci. 28, 2050-2056
 498 (2005).
- 499 15. G. Ruberto, A. Renda, V. Amico, C. Tringali, Bioresource Technol. 99, 260-268500 (2008).
- 501 16. R. Baumes, Wine aroma precursors In *Wine Chemistry and Biochemistry*, Moreno-
- 502 Arribas, M. V.; Polo, M. C., Eds. Springer, New York, 2009.
- 503 17. S. Maicas, J. J. Mateo, Appl. Micrbiol.Biot. 67, 322-335 (2005).
- 504 18. S. K. Park, J. C. Morrison, D. O. Adams, A. C. Noble, J Agric Food Chem 9, 514-505 518 (1991).
- 505 516(1991).
- 506 19. E. Gomez, A. Martinez, J. Laencina, Vitis. 33, 1/4 (1994).
- 507 20. Y. Vasserot, A. Arnaud, P. Galzy, Bioresource Technol. 43, 269-271 (1993).
- 508 21. P. Hernandez-Orte, M. Cersosimo, N. Loscos, J. Cacho, E. Garcia-Moruno, V.
- 509 Ferreira, Food Res. Int. 42, 773-781 (2009).
- 510 22. P. Hernández-Orte, M. Cersosimo, N. Loscos, J. Cacho, E. Garcia-Moruno, V.
 511 Ferreira, Food Chem. 107, 1064-1077 (2008).
- 512 23. N. Loscos, P. Hernández-Orte, J. Cacho, V. Ferreira, Food Chem. 120, 205-216 513 (2010).
- 514 24. M. Palma, L. T. Taylor, B. W. Zoecklein, L. S. Douglas, J. Agric. Food Chem. 48,
 515 775-779 (2000).
- 516 25. Z. Y. Ju, L. R. Howard, J. Agric. Food Chem. 51, 5207-5213 (2003).
- 517 26. X. Lou, H. G. Janssen, C. A. Cramers, Anal. Chem. 69, 1598-1603 (1997).
- 518 27. B. E. Richter, B. A. Jones, J. L. Ezzell, N. L. Porter, N. Avdalovic, C. Pohl, Anal.
- 519 Chem. 68, 1033-1039 (1996).
- 520 28. G. Box, W. Hunter, J. Hunter, Statistics for experimenters An introduction to design,
- 521 *data analysis, and model building.* John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1978.

- 522 29. P. Etievant, Wine. In Volatile compounds in foods and beverages, Maarse, H., Ed.
- 523 Marcel Dekker, New York, 1991.
- 524 30. C. Strauss, B. Wilson, P. J. Williams, Phytochem. 26, 1995-1997 (1987).
- 525 31. E. Sánchez Palomo, M. S. Pérez-Coello, M. C. Díaz-Maroto, M. A. González Viñas,
- 526 M. D. Cabezudo, Food Chem. 95, 279-289 (2006).
- 527 32. E. Campo, V. Ferreira, A. Escudero, J. Cacho, J. Agric. Food Chem. 53, 5682-5690
 528 (2005).
- 33. M. Aznar, R. López, J. F. Cacho, V. Ferreira, J. Agric. Food Chem. 49, 2924-2929
 (2001).
- 531 34. A. Escudero, E. Asensio, J. Cacho, V. Ferreira, Food Chem. 77, 325-331 (2002).
- 532 35. B. Wilson, C. R. Strauss, P. J. Williams, J. Agric. Food Chem. 32, 919-924 (1984).
- 533 36. K. Hashizume, T. Samuta, J. Agric. Food Chem. 45, 1333-1337 (1997).
- 534 37. M. Ugliano, P. A. Henschke, Yeasts and wine flavour. In Wine chemistry and
- 535 biochemistry, Moreno-Arribas, M. V.; Polo, M. C., Eds. Springer, New York, 2009.
- 536 38. A. Escudero, E. Campo, L. Fariña, J. Cacho, V. Ferreira, J. Agric. Food Chem. 55,
 537 4501-4510 (2007).
- 39. J. Luque-Rodríguez, M. Luque de Castro, P. Pérez-Juan, Bioresource Technol. 98,
 2705-2713 (2007).
- 540 40. D. Makris, G. Boskou, A. Chiou, N. K. Andrikopoulos, Am. J. Food Tec. 3, 164541 173 (2008).
- 541 173 (2008 542
- 543
- 543
- 544
- 545 **Funding sources**
- 546 This work has been funded by CSIC INTRAMURAL Project 201070I036. CMG and
- 547 JJRB thank CSIC for their respective research contracts
- 548

549

550 **Figure captions**

Figure 1. Chromatogram corresponding to the aroma compounds released after the
enzymatic hydrolysis of the aroma precursors glycosides extracted by LLE from grape
pomace. Peak identities are shown in Table 2. ISa, ISb, ISc, ISd and ISe correspond to
the internal standards 4-methyl-2-pentanol, 4-hydroxy-4-methyl-2-pentanol, 2-octanol,
1-octanol and β-damascone.

556

Figure 2. a) Standardized Pareto Chart plot with the effect of each term the model divided by its standard error for the response variable eugenol (μ g/Kg dry pomace). The vertical line tests the significance of the effects at the 90% confidence level. Legend for the bars corresponds to the terms in the model of Equation 1. **b**) Surface plot of the estimated response variable (eugenol, μ g/Kg dry pomace) as a function of the extraction temperature, T(°C) and solvent, S (% of ethanol in the hydroalcoholic mixture).