

1 **Determination of sotolon content in South African white wines by two novel HPLC-**
2 **UV and UPLC-MS methods**

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20 Abstract

21 Sotolon has been reported to play an important role in the atypical ageing and aroma
22 character of many wines. A number of analytical techniques for sotolon analysis in wine

23 have been reported, but these often require extensive sample preparation. In this work we
24 report a HPLC-UV method and a novel UPLC-MS method to determine sotolon
25 concentrations in white wines with little sample preparation applied for the first time for the
26 evaluation of sotolon levels in South African wines. The validation showed that the
27 instrumental methods had good accuracy, repeatability and linearity, but the UPLC-MS
28 method proved more sensitive. For both methods, quantification limits were lower than the
29 sotolon odour threshold in wine (10 µg/L), 0.86 µg/L and 0.013 µg/L, for HPLC-UV and
30 UPLC-MS methods, respectively. Sotolon levels in 65 South African white wines were
31 often found to be lower than the reported odour threshold, with the highest concentration
32 being 9.11 µg/L. However, for low levels (< 1 µg/L), unknown interferences in certain wines
33 led to sotolon not being quantified with the HPLC-UV method, which made the UPLC-MS
34 method more suitable.

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36 Keywords: sotolon, white wine, liquid chromatography

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39 **1. Introduction**

40

41 Sotolon (3-hydroxy-4,5-dimethyl-2(5)-furanone) is a powerful flavour compound with an
42 intense spicy /curry odour (Girardon, Sauvaire, Baccou & Bessiere, 1986). Sotolon has an
43 aroma associated with aged sake (Takahashi, Tadenuma & Sato, 1976), roasted coffee
44 (Blank, Sen & Grosh, 1992), fenugreek (Girardon *et al.*, 1986) and sugar cane (Tokitomo,
45 Kobayashi, Yamanishi & Murahi, 1980). Sotolon has been identified and quantified in
46 different wines, such as botrytised (or noble rot) wines (5–20 µg/L) (Masuda, Okawa,

47 Nishimura & Yunome, 1984), port (5–958 µg/L) (Silva Ferreira, Barbe & Bertrand, 2003),
48 vin Javen (120–268 µg/L) (Pham, Guichard, Schlich & Charpentier, 1995), sherry (0–500
49 µg/L) (Martin, Etiévant, Le Quéré & Schlich, 1992) and Madeira (0–2 000 µg/L) (Camara,
50 Marques, Alves & Silva Ferreira, 2004), and in barrel-aged white wines (0–140 µg/L)
51 (Lavigne, Pons, Darriet & Dubourdieu, 2008). Its odour threshold is extremely low: 0.02
52 µg/L in air (Blank, Lin, Fumeaux, Welti & Fay, 1996), 0.3 µg/L in water (nasal detection)
53 (Blank et al., 1996) and 10 µg/L in white wine (human perception) (Guichard, Pham &
54 Etiévant, 1993). Although it is associated to a typical flavour note in Madeira, port, sherry
55 and long-aged sweet wines, sotolon is considered to be one of the compounds responsible
56 for the atypical ageing and oxidative off-flavour in dry white wines when its concentration is
57 higher than the odour threshold (Du Toit, Marais, Pretorius & Du Toit, 2006).

58 Several pathways for the formation of sotolon are reported in the literature. It can be
59 produced by thermal degradation of intermediate compounds of the Maillard reaction
60 (Blank et al., 1996; Guerra & Yaylayan, 2011; Hofmann & Schieberle, 1997). Cutzach,
61 Chatonnet and Dubourdieu (1999) showed a pathway for the formation of sotolon via aldol
62 condensation between α -keto butyric acid and acetaldehyde. König, Gutsche, Hartl,
63 Hubscher, Schreier and Schwab (1999) explained that sotolon is produced by the reaction
64 between ethanol and ascorbic acid. During winemaking and ageing, sotolon formation is
65 affected by chemical and physical factors such as the presence of oxygen (Cutzach et al.,
66 1999; Lavigne et al., 2008), the reducing sugar concentration (Camara et al., 2004),
67 storage temperature and time (Cutzach et al., 1999), and concentrations of certain
68 antioxidants (e.g. sulphur dioxide, glutathione) (Dubourdieu & Lavigne, 2004).

69 Due to the number of physical and chemical factors affecting the formation of sotolon in
70 wine, this compound was suggested as a chemical marker of the shelf-life for dry white

71 wine (Lavigne & Dubourdieu, 2004). However, the levels of sotolon in South African white
72 wine have not been investigated before.

73 Several analytical techniques have been reported for the determination of sotolon in wine,
74 including Multi-Dimensional Gas Chromatography (MDGC-MS) and High-Resolution GC
75 (HRGC-MS) (Konig et al., 1999); High-Resolution GC Olfactometry (HRGC-MS-O)
76 (Escudero, Cacho & Ferreira, 2000); GC Olfactometry (GC-O) (Silva Ferreira et al., 2003);
77 Two Dimensional Capillary GC (2D-CGC) (Martin & Etiévant, 1991; Dugo et al. 2014); GC-
78 MS (Pons, Lavigne, Landais, Darriet & Dubourdieu, 2010; Castro et al. 2014; Zea et al.
79 2013); Two Dimensional GC (2D-GC) (Martin et al., 1992); and High Pressure Liquid
80 Chromatography (HPLC-UV) (Guichard et al., 1993). Moreover, the sotolon concentration
81 in wine is usually low and the compound has high boiling temperature (184°C), both
82 affecting negatively the sensitivity of the analytical methods based on head space
83 sampling technique (DHS and SPME) ((Ferreira et al. 2000); Ferreira, Jarauta, Lopez &
84 Cacho, 2003). The sample preparation requires both an extraction step (liquid/liquid
85 extraction or solid phase extraction (SPE)) followed by a concentration step prior the
86 chromatographic separation (Cutzach et al., 1999; Konig et al., 1999). Generally, these
87 reported methods use either instrumentation that is not standard in oenology laboratories
88 or long extraction time (Escudero et al., 2000), and substantial volumes of both sample
89 and solvents (Takahashi, Tadenuma & Sato, 1976; Konig et al., 1999; Schneider, Baumes,
90 Bayonove & Razungles, 1998).

91 The two main aims of this study thus were to develop, validate and compare two fast and
92 reproducible chromatographic methods (UPLC-MS and HPLC-UV) for sotolon analysis in
93 wine, and to use these methods to assess sotolon levels in South African white wines in
94 order to understand the occurrence of atypical aging causing a decrease of wine shelf-life.

95

96 **2. Materials and Methods**

97

98 2.1 Chemicals

99 4,5-Dimethyl-3-hydroxy-2,5-dihydrofuran-2-one ($\geq 97\%$), dichloromethane ($\geq 99.8\%$),
100 sodium chloride ($\geq 99.5\%$), methanol ($\geq 99.9\%$), acetonitrile LC-MS CHROMASOLV®
101 ($\geq 99.0\%$), iso-propanol LC-MS CHROMASOLV® ($\geq 99.0\%$) and anhydrous sodium
102 sulphate ($\geq 99.0\%$) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). UPLC water
103 was obtained from a Milli-Q filtration system (Millipore Filter Cor., Bedford, MA, USA).
104 Polyvinylpolypyrrolidone (PVPP) resin was purchased from Dal Cin Gildo spa (Sesto San
105 Giovanni, Milano, Italy). The model wine contained 12% (v/v) ethanol and 5 g/L of tartaric
106 acid, and the pH was adjusted to 3.5 with sodium hydroxide (Sigma-Aldrich St. Louis, MO,
107 USA).

108

109 2.2 White wine samples

110 Sotolon analysis was carried out on 70 commercial South African white wines. The
111 commercial wines were produced from ten different grape cultivars (Sauvignon blanc,
112 Chardonnay, Chenin blanc, Viognier, Semillon, Grenache blanc, Pinot Grigio, Colombard,
113 Gewurztraminer and Rhine Riesling) and sixteen different vintages (from 1983 to 2013).
114 The wine samples coded by number (1 to 65) were sourced directly from local cellars,
115 while the wines coded by letter (a to e) were stored for two years at 37°C.

116

117 2.3 Sample preparation

118 The sample preparation was done according to Gabrielli (2014a, 2014b). The equivalent of
119 3 g/L NaCl was added to 30 mL of white wine. The wine was extracted twice with 20 mL

120 dichloromethane for 10 min with stirring. The organic phases were combined and 2 g
121 anhydrous Na₂SO₄ was added to remove traces of water. Dichloromethane was
122 evaporated to dryness under a gentle nitrogen stream, and the dry material was re-
123 dissolved in 2 mL of 5% methanol solution. The concentrated extract was further purified
124 with 50 mg of PVPP resin by dispersion in the sample. The solution was filtered (0.22 μm
125 PVDF, Millipore, MO, USA) before injection.

126

127 2.4 UPLC–MS/MS and HPLC-UV analysis

128 UPLC-MS separations were performed with a Waters Acquity H Class UPLC system
129 connected to a Waters Xevo triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Waters, Milford, MA,
130 USA). The column used was a BEH C18, 2.1 x 100 mm, 1.7 μm (Waters, Milford, MA,
131 USA). Data were acquired in multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode, electrospray
132 positive ionisation, precursor ion at *m/z* 129, and the product ions at *m/z* 55 and 83, using
133 a collision energy of 20 V and 15 V, respectively. A cone voltage of 20 V was used. The
134 desolvation temperature was set at 400°C, and the desolvation gas was 900 L/h. A
135 capillary voltage of 3.5 kV was used and the rest of the MS settings were optimised for
136 best sensitivity. The mobile phases were (A) 1% formic acid in water and (B)
137 methanol:acetonitrile:iso-propanol (49:49:2), and the flow rate was 0.4 mL/min. The
138 injection volume was 3 μL and the column temperature was at 30°C.

139 HPLC-UV separations were performed with an Agilent 1260 Series system fitted with a
140 diode array detector (Agilent, Palo Alto, CA, USA). The column used was a Kinetex C18
141 100 x 3 mm x 2.6 μm, from Phenomenex (Torrence, CA, USA). The sotolon was detected
142 and quantified at 235 nm. The mobile phases used were (A) water and (B) methanol, and
143 the flow rate was 0.45 mL/min. The injection volume was 20 μL and the column
144 temperature was 30°C. The gradients are reported in **Table 1**.

145

146 2.5 Validation procedure

147 The validation of the methods was carried out with respect to qualitative (selectivity) and
148 quantitative (linearity, LOD, LOQ, repeatability and accuracy) parameters.

149

150 2.5.1 Selectivity

151 Selectivity was tested by spiking model wine and a young dry white wine with 10 µg/L
152 sotolon, performing the sample preparation procedure and the separation, and comparing
153 the chromatograms. In this way, the selectivity of the method was evaluated by comparing
154 the results obtained for the detection of sotolon in the absence and presence of possible
155 interferences originating from the white wine matrix.

156

157 2.5.2 Linearity

158 The linearity interval tested was 5 to 50 µg/L at six concentration levels, in young dry white
159 wine and in model wine, with extractions done in duplicate. The linearity correlation
160 coefficients (R^2) were calculated from the regression analysis. The limit of detection (LOD)
161 and limit of quantitation (LOQ) were calculated as the lowest concentration of analyte in a
162 sample that resulted in a signal-to-noise ratio of 3 (LOD) and 10 (LOQ), respectively. The
163 baseline noise was calculated by the software (MassLynx, Waters).

164

165 2.5.3 Accuracy (recovery test)

166 Accuracy was measured for two levels of sotolon, specifically 10.7 µg/L and 21.5 µg/L.
167 Spiked model wine (at both concentrations), white wine (blank) and the same white wine,
168 spiked (at both concentrations) were extracted in duplicate.

169

170 *2.5.4 Precision*

171 Precision was expressed as repeatability (intra-day measurements) and intermediate
172 precision (inter-day measurements). The model wine and white wine were spiked with two
173 levels of sotolon corresponding to a medium-low (10.7 µg/L) and medium-high (21.5 µg/L)
174 concentrations. The extractions were done in triplicate, and the intermediate precision
175 calculated over three days. For the instrumental repeatability, spiked white and model
176 wines containing 21.5 µg/L of sotolon were injected five times. The relative standard
177 deviation (RSD) values were calculated for the peak areas and retention times.

178

179

180 **3. Results and Discussion**

181 **3.1 Sample preparation**

182 Compared to the analytical procedures proposed by other authors, the method described
183 above presents sample preparation steps (extraction and purification) that are rapid,
184 improve sensitivity and are easy to apply in practice. Other authors have proposed
185 procedures that use long extraction times (up to 48 h) (Escudero et al., 2000) and larger
186 volumes of wine (up to 100 mL) (Lavigne et al., 2008; Pons et al., 2010) and solvents (up
187 to 250 mL) (Konig et al., 1999; Schneider, Baumes, Bayonove & Razungles, 1998).

188

189 3.2 Comparison of the validation results for the UPLC-MS and HPLC-UV methods

190 The comparison between the two instrumental methods was done using the validation
191 parameters for each method, namely selectivity, linearity, precision and accuracy.

192 Selectivity (lack of interferences) was evaluated by comparing the sotolon peak in the
193 presence and in the absence of interferences from the matrix. The UPLC-MS and HPLC-
194 UV chromatograms from samples of spiked model wine and dry white wine are reported in
195 **Figure 1** and **2**. The retention times for sotolon were 2.2 min and 5.7 min using the UPLC-
196 MS and HPLC-UV separation respectively. Although much less interference was observed
197 with the UPLC-MS method and the baseline noise is lower, sotolon could also be
198 measured by HPLC-UV in the absence of (potential) interference from the matrix.

199 Both methods showed good linear response, as measured by the correlation coefficients,
200 R^2 (Table 2). The concentration range chosen is in accordance with the sotolon
201 concentration values previously reported in wine (Camara et al., 2004; Lavigne et al.,
202 2008; Pons et al., 2010).

203 The UPLC-MS method had an LOD of 0.001 $\mu\text{g/L}$ and the LOQ was 0.003 $\mu\text{g/L}$ in wine.
204 The HPLC-UV method had LOD and LOQ values for wine of 0.259 $\mu\text{g/L}$ and 0.862 $\mu\text{g/L}$,
205 respectively. The odour threshold of sotolon in wine is approximately 10 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (Guichard et
206 al.,1993). To have practical application in sensorial wine investigations, an analytical
207 method for sotolon should be able to measure concentrations below the odour threshold.

208 Both methods detected sotolon at levels less than the odour threshold in white wine thus
209 allowing for its determination prior to the defect being perceived by sensory analysis.

210 Moreover, the LOQs were less than LOQ values previously reported in the literature.

211 Guichard et al. (1993) reported an LOD of 10 $\mu\text{g/L}$ in Vin Jaune, Vin de Paille and Tokai by
212 a HPLC-UV method, whereas Camara et al. (2004) reported an LOD of 1.2 $\mu\text{g/L}$ in
213 Madeira wines using GC/MS. Lavigne at al. (2008) reported an LOD of 1.2 $\mu\text{g/L}$ in dry

214 white wines with a GC/MS method, while Ferreira, Jarauta, López and Cacho (2003)
215 reported an LOD of 0.84 µg/L in white wines by GC/MS. As can be seen from Table 2, the
216 values for LOD and LOQ in the model wine were higher than in white wine samples; this
217 could be attributed to a higher extraction yield from the wine than from the model wine.
218 The reason for this is as yet unclear, but could be investigated in a follow-up study.

219 Precision is a measure of the agreement between test results from multiple, repeated
220 procedures on a series of standards. Therefore it is important to evaluate both the
221 precision of the sample preparation procedure and that of the instrumental method. The
222 concentrations chosen for testing the precision were 10 and 20 µg/L – the first is close to
223 the odour threshold and the second is two times higher. The RSD% was calculated for
224 peak areas and the values obtained are shown in Table 3. There was no observable trend
225 for the inter-day determination. Generally, the repeatability for the wine sample was better
226 than for the model wine. Repeatability and intermediate precision are acceptable for the
227 determination of sotolon, but could be improved if an internal standard was included in the
228 procedure.

229 Precision was measured for the instrumental method also, and %RSD calculated for peak
230 areas and retention times. For the HPLC-UV method, the %RSD for peak areas was 1.46
231 and 0.32 for the wine and model wine, respectively. For the UPLC-MS method, the %RSD
232 for peak areas was 5.45 and 1.94 for the wine and model wine, respectively. For retention
233 times, the %RSD was 0.23 for the HPLC-UV method and 0.23 for the UPLC-MS method.

234 Accuracy measures the amount of analyte that is quantified relative to the amount present
235 in the sample. In other words, recovery tests will indicate the amount of analyte quantified
236 in the presence and in the absence of matrix interferences. The recovery values (Table 3)
237 were acceptable for both methods (over 75%), but the use of an internal standard would
238 have improved accuracy.

239 In comparison with previously reported GC-MS and HPLC methods (Camara et al., 2004;
240 Guichard et al., 1993; Lavigne et al., 2008), the UPLC-MS method showed improved
241 sensitivity and speed for sotolon quantification in white wines. The HPLC-UV method was
242 shown to be acceptable for the determination of sotolon, even when present below the
243 odour threshold. However, the much lower LOD and LOQ of the UPLC-MS method makes
244 it more appropriate not only for the measurement of sotolon at concentrations at or around
245 the odour threshold (an important marker from a sensory point of view) but also for
246 metabolic studies, where much lower concentrations could be of interest. The majority of
247 the analytical methods described in the literature for sotolon determination in wine are
248 based on GC-MS (Camara et al., 2004; Lavigne et al., 2004; Oliveira e Silva et al., 2008;
249 Silva Ferreira et al., 2003;). The setting up of an analytical method allowing sotolon
250 determination using HPLC-UV could represent an alternative tool for oenological and cellar
251 laboratories that do not have routine access to GCMS.

252

253 3.3 Sotolon quantification in white wine

254 The methods developed were successfully applied for the determination of sotolon levels
255 in 65 South African white wines (sweet and dry). The sotolon concentrations as
256 determined with the UPLC-MS and HPLC-UV methods are shown in Table 4.

257 Using the UPLC-MS method, the highest sotolon concentrations were found in wine 49
258 (9.11 µg/L, dry, 2010) and 56 (8.72 µg/L, sweet, 1999). In both these wines, sotolon was
259 close to the reported odour threshold. Using this method, sotolon was not detected in 15
260 other wines, while it was lower than the odour threshold for most of the wines analysed.

261 The HPLC-UV method also detected the highest sotolon concentration in wine 49 (8.13
262 µg/L), even though it was lower (-10.8%) than the concentration measured by UPLC-MS.
263 Sotolon was not detected in 42 wines using this method, 27 more than when using the

264 UPLC-MS method, and was not quantifiable in seven wines, including wine 56. As
265 expected, sotolon could be measured in more wines by UPLC-MS, due to the lower LOQ
266 of the method, than by HPLC-UV. Moreover, due to the better selectivity of MS than UV,
267 the measurement of sotolon with the UPLC-MS method did not suffer from interference.
268 The levels of sotolon marked as “not quantifiable” (Table 4) are for samples in which the
269 measurement was impeded by the presence of an interfering peak, which needs further
270 investigation.

271 The sotolon content in wine is reported to be related to the winemaking conditions, e.g.
272 oxidative/reducing conditions, barrel ageing (Cutzach et al., 1999; Schneider et al., 1998),
273 as well as the sugar content in the wine (Camara et al., 2004). However, the sotolon level
274 in most of the South African wines was less than the odour threshold, even in wines
275 containing sugar and/or those older than 10 years. Thus, these levels were lower than
276 those previously reported (Camara et al., 2004; Guichard et al., 1993; Martin et al., 1992;
277 Oliveira e Silva et al., 2008; Silva Ferreira et al., 2003). Dagan, Schneider, Lepoutre and
278 Baumes (2006) also found sotolon levels in different older wines to be less than the odour
279 threshold. However, five additional wines stored at a higher temperature (37°C) for two
280 years (wines a to e) had sotolon levels 1.5 to 3 times higher than the odour threshold
281 (Table 4). This finding confirms the significant effect that temperature has on sotolon in
282 white wine (Cutzach et al., 1999).

283 This study, although performed on a limited number of white wines, indicates that sotolon
284 does not occur at concentrations higher than the odour threshold in most South African
285 wines and therefore has a limited role in atypical ageing character. However, sotolon may
286 contribute to the atypical ageing character of South African white wines by acting in a
287 synergistic manner with aroma-related compounds such as maltol, furaneol, homofuraneol
288 and cyclotene (Dagan et al., 2006). This is a matter that needs further attention.

289

290 **Conclusions**

291 The analytical methods developed used sample preparation steps that were quicker and
292 easier to apply in practice than other previously reported methods. The validation showed
293 that the instrumental methods (UPLC-MS and HPLC-UV) had good accuracy, repeatability
294 and were linear. The UPLC-MS method showed better sensitivity, but the repeatability was
295 best for the HPLC-UV method. Even so, both methods were proven to be suitable for the
296 determination of sotolon below the sensory odour threshold in most white wines. The two
297 methods were used successfully for the screening of commercial South African wines. In
298 general, sotolon does not occur in South African white wines at levels greater than the
299 odour threshold. However, sotolon levels can be increased in white wines stored for
300 prolonged periods at high temperatures.

301

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305

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402 Figure 1. Sotolon peak from spiked model wine (bottom trace) and spiked white wine (top
403 trace) in UPLC-MS.

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405 Figure 2. Sotolon peak from spiked model wine (bottom trace) and spiked white wine (top
406 trace) in HPLC-UV. Detection at 235 nm.

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