1	Chemical and sensory characterization of Brazilian virgin olive oils
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24 Abstract

25 Brazil is an emerging virgin olive oil producer country whose oils have been scarcely studied till now and, in particular, no data are present in literature about their volatile profiles 26 27 and organoleptic characteristics as well as the Pearson's correlations between chemical and 28 sensory parameters. Hence, giving insights about these aspects was the aim of the current 29 investigation. The volatile profiles showed the presence of the aldehydes responsible for the 30 positive attribute of VOOs (i.e. trans-2-hexenal and hexanal) although, in some cases, 31 volatiles from anaerobic and aerobic fermentation were also detected. The panel test showed low values of fruity and pungent notes (mean values of 1.1 and 0.6, respectively) whereas the 32 33 bitter taste was detected only in one sample, probably due to the low amount of total phenolic compounds (ranging from 40 to 280 mg kg⁻¹). Accordingly to the volatiles analysis, slight 34 defects of the oils were evidenced by the panelists. Tocopherols ranged from 123 to 222 mg 35 kg⁻¹; carotenoids from 10.69 to 26.18 mg kg⁻¹, chlorophylls from 14.06 to 54.90 mg kg⁻¹, 36 antioxidant activity from 976 to 1790 µmol TE g⁻¹, and fatty acid ethyl esters from 2.56 to 37 19.22 mg kg⁻¹. Positive Pearson's correlations were highlighted between hydroxytyrosol 38 derivatives and antioxidant activity (r=0.9601, p<0.0001), trans-2-hexenal and fruity median 39 40 (r=0.6526, p<0.05), acetic acid and vinegary defect (r=0.7854, p<0.0001), and fatty acid ethyl 41 esters and vinegary defect (r=0.8418, p<0.0001). Our findings give first insights about sensory characteristics of Brazilian virgin olive oils and their association with chemical 42 43 quality parameters. Finally, based on the obtained data, an improvement of preliminary operations (harvesting, storage) of the extraction process is recommended. 44

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46 Keywords: VOO quality; Brazilian VOO; Phenolic compounds; Antioxidants; Volatile
47 compounds; Ethyl esters; Panel test

49 Introduction

50 Virgin olive oil (VOO) is obtained from the fruit of the olive tree only by mechanical or 51 physical processes in conditions which do not affect olive oil quality (Official Journal of the 52 European Communities, 2001). VOO is widely consumed due to its beneficial health 53 properties and unique sensory characteristics, which, in turn, are the result of its physicochemical features in terms of quantity and quality of its constituents (Bernardini & 54 55 Visioli, 2017; Martín-Peláez, Covas, Fitó, Kusar, & Pravst, 2013; Nocella et al., 2018; 56 Parkinson & Cicerale, 2016). VOO quality is defined according to the results of the chemical and sensory assessments (Bajoub, Bendini, Fernández-gutiérrez, & Carrasco-Pancorbo, 2018) 57 58 and in this framework International Olive Council (IOC), European Union (EU), and Codex 59 Alimentarius Commission (CODEX STAN) provide the international regulation for olive oil 60 classification. According to IOC (International Olive Council, 2015b) 28 physicochemical 61 parameters, including those classic and innovative, should be measured in order to evaluate 62 the genuineness and quality of VOO. However, according to EC regulation 2568/91 (Official 63 Journal of the European Communities, 1991) and subsequent modification and additions, free 64 acidity, peroxide value, absorbance in ultra-violet, ethyl esters of fatty acids, which are parameters of quality, besides sensory evaluation must be taken into account to classify 65 66 VOOs.

Sensory evaluation is an important instrument to analyze the quality and to classify virgin olive oils in commercial category. This analysis should be performed by a group called "panel", constituted by 8 to 12 tasters trained and qualified by regulatory bodies. The group is coordinated by a leader (Panel Leader), who collects the scores given to the positive (fruity, bitter, and pungent) and negative (sensory defects) sensory attributes. According to the median values of fruity and sensory defects, the virgin olive oil receives its classification:

extra virgin, virgin, or *lampante* (Bertoncini & Testa, 2014; International Olive Council,
2015a).

75 VOO sensory attributes arise from the stimulation of the gustative and olfactive receptors 76 through a great number of volatiles and some non volatile compounds, such as phenolic substances (Campestre, Angelini, Gasbarri, & Angerosa, 2017; Cerretani, Salvador, Bendini, 77 78 & Fregapane, 2008; Procida, Cichelli, Lagazio, & Conte, 2015). Phenolic compounds are 79 responsible for the taste perception of bitterness and chemesthetic perceptions of pungency 80 (Dierkes et al., 2012). The other sensory perceptions of VOO are attributed to the stimulation 81 of the olfactory epithelium by the volatile fraction (Angerosa, 2002; Angerosa et al., 2004; Kalua et al., 2007). 82

Olive is a millenary crop and the main production area is around the Mediterranean basin, which accounts for more than 95% of the total olive oil produced worldwide. Thanks to the similar climate characteristics to the southern European countries, the crop has expanded to other regions, such as North Africa, North America and South America, as well as Asia. In the context of South America, Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay are already considered producer countries, while Brazil is at the begin (Borges et al., 2017; International Olive Council, 2017).

90 Brazil has been increasingly believing and investing in the olive tree cultivation, 91 presenting ever more strongly the culture to society and contributing to the development of 92 agriculture and agribusiness in the country. The olive tree has adapted well in the Mantiqueira 93 mountain range, between Minas Gerais and São Paulo, and in regions of Rio Grande do Sul. 94 Although olive growing in Brazil is a little over ten years old, the current scenario is already 95 very promising and signaling potential for growth. According to the Brazilian Institute of 96 Olive Growing the Brazilian production of olive oil in 2018 was estimated at 150,000 liters, 97 representing an increase of a 42.8% in relation to the production of the last year and, taking

into account that Brazilian olive crops are still very young (only 40% of them are ready to
produce), the projection for 2025 is reach 20,000 hectares planted that represents an increment
of 300% in relation to the area produced at this time. Brazil currently cultivates Arbequina,
Arbosana, Manzanilla, Koroneiki, Coratina, Picual, Ascolana, and Grappolo cultivars, being
Arbequina the main one, for having adapted very well to the climate and soil of the producing
regions (Instituto Brasileiro de Olivicultura, 2018).

Regarding Brazilian regulation, the norms that standardize the classification and
commercialization of virgin olive oil are described in Normative Instruction No. 1, of January
30, 2012, of the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Food Supply of Brazil (Brasil.
Ministério da Agricultura Pecuária e Abastecimento, 2012) and are based on IOC and EC
regulations.

109 For almost ten years Brazil have produced olive oils whose chemical characteristics has 110 been reported in literature (da Silva, de Oliveira, Zambon, Pio, & Gonçalves, 2014; Ballus et 111 al., 2014; Ballus et al., 2015). Since there is no published scientific information regarding the 112 sensory characteristics of Brazilian virgin olive oils evaluated by trained tasters, according to 113 the IOC official protocol, no data available on the volatile compounds of virgin olive oil 114 produced in Brazil, and neither any data with respect to correlations between chemical and 115 sensory parameters, this research contributes to the scientific knowledge about virgin olive oil 116 produced by an emerging country in the olive tree cultivation. In this context, the aim of this 117 work was to evaluate chemical and sensory features of commercial Brazilian virgin olive oils.

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119 Materials and Methods

120 Sampling

Brazilian virgin olive oils from Arbequina, Grapollo, Koroneiki and Coratina cultivars,
representative of those cultivars produced in Brazil (Instituto Brasileiro de Olivicultura, 2018;

Teramoto, Sachs, Garcia, Oliveira, & Duarte, 2017) were studied. Twelve commercial virgin olive oils of the crop harvest 2016/17, each representative of large batch, were considered (Table 1). All of them derived from olive trees cultivated in Brazil in conditions of altitude between 900 and 1200 meters, rainfall above 1500 mm per year and a temperature range from 10 to 24 °C. Virgin olive oils were obtained under a two-phase centrifuge extraction system. Samples in triplicate were sent to the University of Bari Aldo Moro, Department of Soil, Plant and Food Sciences, Food Science and Technology Unit, where they were analyzed.

130 Routine analyses

Free fatty acids (FFA), expressed as percentage of oleic acid, peroxide value (PV), expressed as meq O_2 kg⁻¹ of oil, and specific extinction coefficients at 232 and 270 nm (K₂₃₂ and K₂₇₀) were determined according to EU standard methods (Official Journal of the European Communities, 1991).

135 Fatty acid composition

Fatty acid composition were determined according to EU standard methods (OfficialJournal of the European Communities, 1991).

138 Fatty acid alkyl esters determination

Fatty acids methyl esters (FAME) and ethyl esters (FAEE) were determined according to
EU Commission Regulation 61/2011 (Official Journal of the European Communities, 2011)
as described in Squeo, Grassi, Paradiso, Alamprese, & Caponio (2019).

142 **Pigments determination**

143 Chlorophylls and carotenoids were determined according to Makhlouf, Squeo, Barkat, 144 Trani, & Caponio (2018) with some modifications. The chlorophyll content was evaluated by 145 the absorption spectrum according to the American Oil Chemists' Society (2017), and 146 expressed as mg of *pheophytin a* per kg of oil. The concentration of total carotenoids was 147 calculated measuring the absorption of 0.25 g of oil dissolved in 10 mL UV-hexane at 449 148 nm.

149 **Tocopherols determination**

150 Total tocopherols (α , β , γ , and δ) were determined by HPLC according to Gliszczynska-151 Swigło & Sikorska (2004). Samples of oils were weighted (0.02-0.03 g) and dissolved in 1 152 mL of 2-propanol. Vortex-mixed samples were directly injected to HPLC column (C18, $150 \times$ 153 4.6 mm i.d. with a particle size of 3 µm, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The mobile 154 phase consists in a mixture of acetonitrile and methanol (1:1 v/v) at a constant flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹ in isocratic elution. The injection volume was 20 µL. The quantification of 155 156 tocopherols was reached by means of FLD detector (Dionex 3400RS, Waltham, MA, USA), 157 set at excitation wavelength of 295 nm and an emission at 325 nm, using the external calibration method on the basis of three calibration curves (α - γ - δ -tocopherols, R² 99.99, 158 99.95 and 99.96, respectively). Results were reported as ppm (mg kg⁻¹) of oil for α -tocopherol 159 160 and for the sum of γ - and β -tocopherols.

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Phenolic compounds determination

162 VOO phenolic compounds were extracted and determined according to Squeo, Caponio, 163 et al. (2019) e Difonzo et al. (2017) with some modifications. For the extraction, about 1 g of 164 the oil was added with 1 mL of hexane and 5 mL of methanol/water (70:30 v/v). After 10 min vortexing, and centrifugation at 3941 \times g for 10 min at 4 °C (SL 16R Centrifuge, Thermo 165 166 Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA), the methanol/water phase was recovered and 167 submitted a subsequent centrifugation at 8867 \times g for 5 min at 4 °C. The methanol/water 168 phase was then filtered through nylon filter (pore size 0.45 µm, Sigma, Ireland) to an amber 169 glass vial. Total phenols were determined spectrophotometrically by Folin-Ciocalteu assay. To 100 µL of appropriately diluted extract, was added 100 µL of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent. 170 171 After 4 min, 800 µL of 5% Na₂CO₃ were added and then incubated at 40 °C for 20 min. The

172 absorbance was read after cooling down at room temperature at 750 nm. The results were 173 expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalents per kg of oil. For phenolic compounds analysis by 174 HPLC, the extraction was performed using 5 g of oil added with 250 µL of 100 ppm gallic 175 acid solution (internal standard), 1 mL of hexane and 2 mL of methanol/water mixture and 176 following the same procedure reported before. Then, an aliquot of the methanol/water 177 solution of phenolic compounds (250 µL) was transferred to a HPLC vial with 250 µL of water/acetic acid (99:1, v/v). UHPLC binary system (Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC, Waltham, 178 179 MA, USA) equipped with a quaternary pump (HPG 3200RS), auto-sampler (WPS 3000), 180 stationary phase compartment (TCC 3000), diode array detector (3000 RS) and the 181 Chromeleon software for data acquisition and processing was used. The stationary phase was 182 an Acclaim C18 analytical column (150 \times 4.6 mm i.d.) with a particle size of 3 μ m (Thermo 183 Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The mobile phases were (A) water/acetic acid (99:1, v/v) 184 and (B) methanol/acetonitrile/acetic acid (50:49:1 v/v/v) at a constant flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹. 185 The column temperature was set at 30 °C. The gradient program was as follows: 95% A for 1 186 min; 80% A in 10 min; 56% A in 12 min; 41% A in 10 min; 10% A in 14 min, for a total run 187 duration of 46 min. Diode array detection was monitored at 280 nm, and spectra were 188 recorded at wavelength range 200-380 nm. The identification of phenolic compounds was 189 performed by comparing the peak retention times with those obtained by the injection of pure 190 standards and, in absence of these, with data in literature (International Olive Council, 2009). 191 The quantification was achieved using a gallic acid internal standard on the 280 nm spectrum 192 and the results expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalents (GAE) per kg of oil (Tamborrino et 193 al., 2017).

194 Volatile compounds

195 Volatile compounds were determined adding 1 ± 0.010 g of oil into 20 mL vials, sealed 196 with a screw top aluminum cap and silicon/PTFE septum, and 100 μ L of a 60 mg kg⁻¹

197 solution of 1-octanol in purified olive oil as internal standard for quantification and submitted 198 to the (SPME/GC-MS) in the conditions reported in Tamborrino et al. (2017). The extraction 199 was performed by exposing a 50/30 µm DVB/CAR/PDMS fiber (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) in the headspace of the sample at 40 °C for 20 min. When the extraction process was 200 201 completed, the fiber was inserted into the injector port of the gas chromatograph for thermal 202 desorption of volatiles in splitless mode. The GC/MS instrumentation included an Agilent 203 model 6850 gas chromatograph coupled to a mass spectrometer Agilent 5975. The volatile 204 compounds were separated on a HP-Innowax (60 m \times 0.25 mm, 0.25 µm film thickness) polar capillary column (Agilent) under the following conditions: flow 1.5 mL min⁻¹; injector 205 temperature, 250 °C; pressure of the carrier (helium), 30 kPa. The oven temperature was held 206 207 for 5 min at 40 °C, then increased by 4 °C min⁻¹ to 220 °C and held constant for 10 min. The mass spectrometer was operated in the electron impact mode (electron energy = 70 eV), and 208 209 the ion source temperature was 230 °C. A continuous scan mode was employed with a scan time of 7.7 scans s⁻¹ over a mass range of 33-270 amu. The volatile compounds were 210 211 identified by comparison of their mass spectra with those present in the NIST and Wiley libraries. Results have been expressed as mg kg⁻¹ of 1-octanol equivalents (OE). 212

213 Antioxidant activity

Antioxidant activity was carried out as reported in Difonzo et al., (2018). Extracts were analyzed for their capacity to scavenge the stable DPPH radical. A solution of DPPH 0.08 mM in ethanol was prepared. In cuvettes for spectrophotometry, 50 μ L of each sample were added to 950 μ L of DPPH solution. After 30 min in the dark, the decrease of absorbance was read at 517 nm. The results were expressed in μ mol Trolox equivalents (TE). For all the spectrophotometric determinations a Cary 60 Agilent spectrophotometer (Cernusco, Milan, Italy) was used.

- All determinations were carried out in duplicate.
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222 Panel test

223 The panel test was carried out according to EU Commission Regulation EEC/2568/91 224 and its subsequent modifications (Annex XII) (Official Journal of the European Communities, 225 1991). A panel from Department of Soil, Plant and Food Sciences, Food Science and 226 Technology Unit, of the University of Bari Aldo Moro, formed by eight trained tasters, 227 evaluated the samples. After performing the olfactory tests, the gustatory sensations were 228 evaluated considering positive attributes, i.e., fruity and bitter, and negative attributes, as the 229 presence of defects, i.e., fusty/muddy sediment, musty-humid-earthy, winey-vinegary, acid-230 sour and rancid. The tactile sensation of pungency was either analyzed. The notes given by 231 each taster were compiled by the leader of the panel, the statistical evaluation was carried out 232 by the median of the fruity and median of the defects, and the results indicated the 233 classification of the olive oils in extra virgin, virgin, and *lampante*.

234 Data analysis

The associations between variables were evaluated by Pearson's coefficient. Analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism version 7.00 for Windows, GraphPad Software, La Jolla California USA. Descriptive statistics were calculated by means of Minitab 17 (Minitab Inc., State College, PA, USA). Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a powerful and useful tool to explore multivariate dataset, study variable's correlations and highlight samples clusters. PCA was carried out on the correlation matrix by means of Minitab 17 (Minitab Inc., State College, PA, USA) and the results have been reported as score plot and loading plot.

242

243 **Results and Discussion**

244 Chemical parameters

The results of the chemical quality parameters are reported in Table 2. Values obtained for the routine analyses (FFA, PV, K₂₃₂, and K₂₇₀) were in accordance with EU regulations for

extra-virgin olive oil (EVOO) classification (Official Journal of the European Communities, 247 248 1991) and comparable to those reported in literature for Brazilian olive oils (Borges, Pereira, 249 et al., 2017). The characteristic olive oil fatty acid profile was observed in all samples, being 7 250 saturated (miristic, palmitic, margaric, stearic, arachidic, behenic, and lignoceric acids), 3 251 monounsaturated (oleic, palmitoleic, and gadoleic acids), and 2 polyunsaturated (linoleic and 252 linolenic acids) (Ballus et al., 2014; Borges, Pereira, et al., 2017; de Oliveira, Ramos, Pio, & 253 Cardoso, 2012; Official Journal of the European Communities, 2016). Palmitic, linoleic and 254 oleic acid showed the highest range among samples (Table 2). Similar ranges of these fatty 255 acids in Brazilian olive oils were reported by Ballus et al. (2014).

256 Regarding antioxidants and pigments, the average values of chlorophylls and carotenoids 257 were higher than those reported by literature for Brazilian olive oils – which reported values ranged from 1.3 to 1.7 mg kg⁻¹ for chlorophylls and from 2.7 to 3.9 mg kg⁻¹ for carotenoids 258 259 (Borges et al., 2017) – whereas tocopherol content was in accordance with literature (Borges, 260 López, Pereira, Cabrera-Vique, & Seiguer, 2017). Our findings are worthy considering the 261 important role of carotenoids in the protection of lipids from oxidation (Ambra, Natella, 262 Lucchetti, Forte, & Pastore, 2017; Choe & Min, 2006). The total phenolic content (TPC), not 263 determined by other authors in Brazilian virgin olive oils (Ballus et al., 2014; Borges, Pereira, 264 et al., 2017; Borges, López, et al., 2017), showed high variability among samples ranging 265 from 40 to 280 mg kg⁻¹, with the lowest values found for Arbequina oils and the highest for 266 Coratina oil (sample 12, Table 1). The antioxidant activity of the VOOs, similarly to TPC, 267 showed high variability (range 976-1790 μ mol TE g⁻¹). It is well known that phenols, which 268 constitute a complex matrix of hydrophilic substances, are mainly responsible for the VOOs 269 antioxidant activity (Ballus, Meinhart, de Souza Campos, & Godoy, 2015; Fuentes et al., 270 2018; Ramos-Escudero, Morales, & Asuero, 2015). A significant Pearson's correlation (r=0.8508, p<0.0001, Table S1), between TPC and antioxidant activity measured by DPPH 271

272 assay was observed, similarly to the positive correlation already reported between TPC and 273 induction time found by different authors on virgin olive oils collected in Europe (Caponio, 274 Alloggio, & Gomes, 1999; Franco et al., 2014; Fuentes et al., 2018; Owen et al., 2000). VOOs 275 phenols are mainly represented by secoiridoids (3,4-DHPEA-EDA, p-HPEA-EDA, p-HPEA-276 EA, oleuropein), phenolic acids (vanilic acid and *p*-coumaric acid), phenolic alcohols (tyrosol 277 and hydroxityrosol), flavonoids (apigenin and luteolin), and lignans (pinoresinol). Among 278 them, 3,4-DHPEA and its derivatives (3,4-DHPEA-EDA, 3,4-DHPEA-EA, and p-HPEA) are 279 reported to have the higher antioxidant activity when compared with other biophenols of 280 VOOs (Ragusa et al., 2017).

281 In the VOOs under study, twelve phenolic compounds were identified (Figure 1), being 282 diphenols conjugated to the elenolic acid, especially the 3,4-DHPEA-EDA and 3,4-DHPEA-283 EA, the most abundant compounds followed by pinoresinol, hydroxytyrosol, p-HPEA-EDA, 284 cinnamic acid, luteolin, and tyrosol. The other phenolic compounds were detected in amount lower than 1 mg kg⁻¹. 3,4-DHPEA-EDA and hydroxytyrosol presented the highest variability 285 286 among samples, with an overall range of 34.12 and 13.98 mg kg⁻¹, respectively (Table 2). On 287 the whole, the obtained values are comparable to those found by Borges et al (2017) and 288 lower than those determined by Ballus et al. (2015) on Brazilian oils confirming that phenols 289 are strongly affected by cultivar as well as climatic conditions, agronomical and technological 290 factors, olives ripeness degree, and oil extraction system, as well known (Ballus et al., 2014; 291 Borges et al., 2017; Dabbou et al., 2009; Caponio et al., 2018). Moreover, the concentration 292 of hydroxytyrosol and its derivatives were strongly correlated (r=0.9601, p<0.0001) with 293 antioxidant activity suggesting that this class of phenols plays an important role on the 294 antioxidant properties of the Brazilian VOOs studied. Similar findings were reported by 295 Franco et al. (2014) studying olive oil samples from several Spanish cultivars. Several studies 296 highlighted the antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties of the VOOs phenols profile 297 establishing a relationship between health protective effects of the VOOs consume and 298 prevention of the several diseases such as obesity, cardiovascular disease cancer and 299 Alzheimer's disease (Muto et al., 2015; Nocella et al., 2018; Parkinson & Cicerale, 2016; 300 Rossi et al., 2017). According to the European Regulation (Official Journal of the European 301 Communities, 2012) VOO phenols contribute to blood lipids protection against oxidative 302 injury when the oil contains at least 5 mg of hydroxytyrosol and its derivatives (e.g. 303 oleuropein complex and tyrosol) per 20 g of olive oil. Among analyzed VOOs, Coratina 304 sample (n. 12 of Table 1) showed the highest amounts of hydroxytyrosol.

305 Another important quality parameter for EVOOs, proposed by the International Olive 306 Council (International Olive Council, 2010), are the fatty-acid alkyl esters (FAAEs) defined 307 by the sum of fatty-acid methyl esters (FAMEs) and fatty-acid ethyl esters (FAEEs) produced 308 by esterification of fatty acids with low-molecular-weight alcohols, such as methanol and 309 ethanol, respectively (Di Serio et al., 2017; Mariani & Bellan, 2008). In particular, methanol 310 is associated with overripe olives that lead to cellular damage and subsequent its release from 311 the breakdowns of pectins through the enzyme pectin methylesterase action while ethanol is 312 associated with fermentative processes during olives storage in inadequate conditions (Valli et al., 2013). In turn, such conditions also lead to sensory defects such as fusty and winey-313 314 vinegary flavor (Morales, Luna, & Aparicio, 2005; Reiners & Grosch, 1998). For these 315 reasons, the European Union focused their attention only on the FAEEs setting the maximum value for EVOO at 35 mg kg⁻¹ of oil (Official Journal of the European Communities, 2016). 316 317 The detected values led to classify the oils as extra virgin; in particular FAEEs ranged from 2.56 to 19.22 mg kg⁻¹ while FAMEs ranged from 1.50 to 13.88 mg kg⁻¹. To the best of our 318 319 knowledge, no previous data are present in literature on FAAEs content of Brazilian extra 320 virgin olive oils.

322 Sensory characteristics and Pearson's correlation with chemical parameters

323 Sensory notes of VOO are considered essential to consumers' approval. Its unique and 324 delicate fragrance and flavor (Campestre et al., 2017; Fiorini et al., 2018; Kalua et al., 2007) 325 is attributable to the volatile profile, that stimulate the human sensory receptors, mainly 326 produced endogenously by oxidation of the polyunsaturated fatty acids (linoleic and linolenic 327 acids) through the lipoxygenase (LOX) pathway (Kalua et al., 2007). Moreover, most of the 328 volatile compounds associated to green and fruity notes are formed during the climacteric 329 stage of the olive ripening. The climacteric stage, in which the production of ethylene is the 330 highest inducing biochemical changes and increasing the enzyme activities, is the period in 331 which the extracted VOO has the large amounts of aromatic volatile compounds (Rahmani & 332 Csallany, 1998). Milling and malaxation are crucial since the aromatic substances are formed 333 through the action of enzymes released in these steps of extraction processes (Olías, Pérez, 334 Ríos, & Sanz, 1993; Ranalli, Tombesi, Ferrante, & De Mattia, 1998). Trans-2-hexenal, 335 hexanal, and *trans*-2-hexan-1-ol – associated with green and fruity aroma perceptions – are 336 the major volatile compounds responsible of the positive aroma of VOOs (Morales et al., 337 2005; Reiners & Grosch, 1998). However, the presence of volatiles from lipid auto-oxidation 338 and aerobic or anaerobic fermentation, due to non-optimal both olive management and oil 339 storage conditions, characterizes the off-flavor of the oil being associated with sensory defects 340 (Caponio et al., 2015; Fiorini et al., 2018; Kalua et al., 2007).

The relationship between volatile profile and VOO quality has been largely investigated in the countries traditionally producer of virgin olive oil (Angerosa, 2002; Caponio et al., 2015; García-Vico et al., 2017; Hbaieb, Kotti, Gargouri, Msallem, & Vichi, 2016). Data about volatile compounds of virgin olive oils produced in other regions of the world are scarce or nonexistent. There is no data available in literature on the volatile profile of VOO produced in Brazil. Since 2008, when Brazil extracted the first virgin olive oil, producers have been improved their agricultural and processing conditions in order to produce an olive oil withhigh quality in both chemical and sensory aspects.

349 Table 3 shows the volatile compounds composition of the investigated samples. Overall, 350 seventeen volatile compounds were identified (Figure 2): seven aldehydes (butanal, 2 methyl, 351 butanal, 3 methyl, cis-3-hexenal, trans-2-hexenal, trans-2-pentenal, hexanal, nonanal), two 352 ketones (3-pentanone, 1-penten-3-one), three alcohols (trans-2-hexen-1-ol, 2-penten-1-ol, 353 ethyl alcohol), three carboxylic acid (propanoic acid, butanoic acid, acetic acid), and two 354 other compounds (3-ethyl-1,5-octadiene, octane). As expected, aldehydes were the class of 355 volatiles more abundant evidencing a general good quality of the investigated oils. The major 356 aldehydes identified were trans-2-hexenal, whose values ranged from 74.42 to 252.75 mg kg⁻ ¹, and hexanal with values that ranged from 4.79 to 17.45 mg kg⁻¹. The low amount of 357 358 nonanal, detected only in two oils and associated with fatty/waxy/pungent notes and ethyl 359 alcohol, detected only in four oils and associated with fermentative process (Morales et al., 360 2005), as well as the high amount of *trans*-2-hexen-1-ol, more abundant alcohol whose values ranged from 5.89 to 71.51 mg kg⁻¹, confirm this assumption. Moreover, among volatiles 361 362 associated with off-flavors the most abundant was acetic acid, associated to sour/vinegar 363 notes (Morales et al., 2005; Reiners & Grosch, 1998), with values ranging from 5.38 to 122.05 mg kg⁻¹. Its presence could be associated to non-optimal olive management pending 364 365 processing (Angerosa et al., 2004).

In addition to the chemical quality parameters, the organoleptic parameters are also required by European Regulation 2568/91 and subsequent modification, so that the presence of fruity and absence of defects are mandatory conditions to be an extra virgin olive oil. Then, the investigated samples were analyzed for positive sensory attributes and the presence of defects. Table 4 shows median values of fruity, bitter, pungent, and the kind of defect of the virgin olive oils studied. Overall, data showed a quite low fruity and pungent intensity and, 372 with the exception of sample 12, the absence of bitter notes. This could be attributable to the 373 general low amount of phenolic compounds (Table 2), such as oleuropein related compounds, 374 which are significantly and positively correlated to the bitter taste, as reported by other 375 authors (Siliani, Mattei, Innocenti, & Zanoni, 2006; Beltrán, Ruano, Jiménez, Uceda, & 376 Aguilera, 2007; Favati, Condelli, Galgano, & Caruso, 2013). According to the median of the 377 defects and the median of the fruity, ten of the samples were classified as VOO, one as EVOO 378 (sample 7), and one was classified as lampante (sample 5) having fruity equal to zero. With 379 the exception of sample 5, all the others olive oil samples presented notes of fruity, which 380 median value ranged from 0.4 to 3.0. Pungency was also identified with a median ranged 381 from 0.3 to 1.7. The main defects identified were fusty/muddy and winey-vinegary. Fusty is a 382 typical defect of oil deriving from olives stored for long periods before extraction, whereas 383 vinegary defect is typical in oil from overripe olives, both defects arising from fermentation 384 processes (Angerosa et al., 2004).

385 A significant and positive Pearson's correlation was observed between trans-2-hexenal content and fruity median (r=0.6526, p < 0.05, Table S1), acetic acid content and vinegary 386 387 defect (r=0.7854, p<0.0001, Table S1), total FAAEs content and vinegary defect (r=0.7505, 388 p < 0.05, Table S1) and FAEEs content and vinegary defect (r=0.8418, p < 0.0001, Table S1). 389 Also Morales & Luna, (2000) and Morales et al. (2005) reported strong correlation between 390 the presence of acetic acid and winey-vinegary defect in virgin olive oil while Gómez-Coca, 391 Moreda, & Pérez-Camino (2012) demonstrated the association between high amounts of 392 FAEEs and defects that arise from fermentation. Corroborating these data, Di Serio et al. 393 (2017) reported that FAEEs are correlated to the fermentation processes, which are also 394 responsible for organoleptic defects in olive oil, such as winery/vinegary.

395 Overall, the obtained data suggested that raw material managing of Brazilian olive oil 396 mills should be improved. Indeed, together with the volatile compounds responsible for the basic positive attribute of VOO, typically found in oils from healthy and fresh fruits, those
compounds indicating anaerobic and aerobic fermentations were the negative ones generally
found.

400

401 **Principal component analysis (PCA)**

402 Figure 3 reports the multivariate explorative analysis (PCA) carried out on the dataset. 403 Thirty-nine variables were used to explore the data, namely the fatty acid composition, 404 pigments, tocopherols, TPC, antioxidant activity, single phenolic compounds (3.4 DHPEA-405 EDA, 3,4 DHPEA-EA, p-HPEA-EDA, p-HPEA-EA, Hydroxytyrosol, Tyrosol, Apigenin, 406 Luteolin and Pinoresinol), single volatile compounds (trans-2-Hexenal, Hexanal, trans-2-407 Hexen-1-ol, 2-Penten-1-ol and Acetic acid), sensory descriptors (fruity and pungent) and 408 methyl end ethyl esters of fatty acids. The first two components explained around 60% of the 409 total variability and allowed a good separation of the samples according to the varieties. 410 Indeed, the Arbequina oils lie on the negative quadrant of the PCs and were characterized by 411 the highest amount of C_{16:1}, C_{17:0}, C_{18:2}, total saturated and total polyunsaturated fatty acids. 412 Further, according to the loadings (data not shown), these oils were richer in *p*-HPEA-EA and 413 Hexanal. Interestingly, the two blends in which Arbequina was one of the constituent lie on 414 the boundary of the region circumscribed by the pure Arbequina oils, highlighting the good 415 ability of the variables considered and of the PCA in grabbing and describing the oil features. 416 Accordingly, the blend Arbequina/Grappolo moved toward the neighboring quadrant in which 417 the pure Grappolo oils are located. These samples had higher content of C_{20:1}, FAMEs, 418 FAEEs, 2-Penten-1-ol and Acetic Acid. The loading plot also highlighted the good correlation 419 between the amount of Acetic acid and the alkyl esters content of the oils. Only one sample of 420 Arbequina was far from the others (number 7), due to the higher content in total tocopherols, 421 in *trans*-2-Hexenal and, accordingly, in the fruity note. The geographical origin influenced to

422 a less extent the oils features since the Arbequina oil from the southern area was confused to 423 the others from the southeastern region. Coratina and Koroneiki oils lie far from all the other 424 samples having, the former, the higher amount of phenolic compounds, antioxidant activity 425 and pungent note and *trans*-2-Hexen-1-ol. Koroneiki oil seemed characterized by 426 intermediate features between Arbequina and Coratina samples.

427

428 Conclusions

429 The obtained data give a comprehensive overlook about the quality of commercial 430 Brazilian virgin olive oils. Significant correlations between the panel test results and the 431 minor components of VOO, such as volatile compounds, were observed. Our findings are 432 relevant not only for contributing to the production of scientific knowledge about the 433 chemical and sensory quality of virgin olive oil, but also to indicate the importance of 434 conducting research on Brazilian olive oil in order to help finding the proper agricultural and 435 technological practices adapted to subtropical climate conditions and resulting in a high 436 quality virgin olive oil, in both sensory and chemical approaches.

437

438 **Conflict of interest**

439 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

440

441 Acknowledgments

We are grateful to the olive oil producers that kindly provide us the samples. Authors contribution: LZ conceived the study, conducted the analysis, analyzed data, performed statistical analysis and wrote the manuscript. GS and GD participated in the conception of the study, conducted the analysis, analyzed data, performed statistical analysis and revised the manuscript. EIB participated in the conception of the study and interpretation of data and revised the manuscript. FC conceived and designed the study, analyzed data and revised themanuscript critically.

449

450 Figures captions

Figure 1. Chromatogram of the phenolic compounds of Brazilian virgin olive oil. Peaks are
indicated as follows: (I.S.) Gallic acid (internal standard), (1) Hydroxytyrosol, (2) Tyrosol, (3)
Vanillic acid, (4) Siringic acid, (5) *p*-Coumaric acid, (6) Cinnamic acid, (7) 3,4-DHPEAEDA, (8) *p*-HPEA-EDA, (9) Pinoresinol, (10) 3,4-DHPEA-EA, (11) Luteolin, and (12)
Apigenin.

456

Figure 2. Chromatogram of the volatile compounds of Brazilian virgin olive oil. Peaks are
indicated as follows: (1) Octane, (2) Butanal, 2 methyl, (3) Butanal, 3 methyl, (4) 3Pentanone, (5) Ethyl alcohol, (6) 1-Penten-3-one, (IS) 1-propanol (internal standard), (7) 3Ethyl-1,5-octadiene, (8) hexanal, (9) *trans*-2-Pentenal, (10) *cis*-3-Hexenal, (11) *trans*-2Hexenal, (12) Nonanal, (13) 2-Penten-1-ol, (14) Acetic acid, (15) *trans*-2-Hexen-1-ol, (16)
Propanoic acid, and (17) Butanoic acid.

463

464 **Figure 3.** Results of the PCA. (A) Score plot and (B) loading plot.

465

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Tyrosol, (3) Vanillic acid, (4) Siringic acid, (5) *p*-Coumaric acid, (6) Cinnamic acid, (7) 3,4DHPEA-EDA, (8) *p*-HPEA-EDA, (9) Pinoresinol, (10) 3,4-DHPEA-EA, (11) Luteolin, and
(12) Apigenin.





Figure 2. Chromatogram of the volatile compounds of Brazilian virgin olive oil. Peaks
are indicated as follows: (1) Octane, (2) Butanal, 2 methyl, (3) Butanal, 3 methyl, (4) 3Pentanone, (5) Ethyl alcohol, (6) 1-Penten-3-one, (IS) 1-propanol (internal standard), (7) 3Ethyl-1,5-octadiene, (8) hexanal, (9) *trans*-2-Pentenal, (10) *cis*-3-Hexenal, (11) *trans*-2Hexenal, (12) Nonanal, (13) 2-Penten-1-ol, (14) Acetic acid, (15) *trans*-2-Hexen-1-ol, (16)
Propanoic acid, and (17) Butanoic acid.



Olive oil sample	Cultivar	Region/State		
1	Arbequina	Southeast/Minas Gerais		
2	Arbequina	Southeast/Minas Gerais		
3	Arbequina	Southeast/Minas Gerais		
4	Grappolo	Southeast/Minas Gerais		
5	Grappolo	Southeast/Minas Gerais		
6	Arbequina	Southeast/Minas Gerais		
7	Arbequina	Southeast/São Paulo		
8	Arbequina/Arbosana	Southeast/Minas Gerais		
9	Arbequina/Grappolo	Southeast/Minas Gerais		
10	Arbequina	Southern/Parana		
11	Koroneiki	Southern/Parana		
12	Coratina	Southern/Parana		

Table 1. Cultivar and producing regions of the Brazilian virgin olive oil samples.

Chamical manamatan	Mean	Min	Max	Danca	Madian	IOD
Chemical parameter	value	value	value	Kange	Median	IQK
Routine quality parameters						
FFA (g 100 g ⁻¹)	0.53	0.34	0.80	0.46	0.55	0.20
$PV (meq O_2 kg^{-1})$	9.1	8.2	10.5	2.2	8.9	1.4
K ₂₃₂	1.79	1.49	2.22	0.73	1.78	0.33
K ₂₇₀	0.17	0.14	0.21	0.07	0.17	0.03
Fatty acid composition (g 100 g^{-1})						
C _{14:0}	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01
C _{16:0}	12.91	8.60	16.72	8.12	13.32	3.19
C _{16:1}	1.46	0.54	2.51	1.97	1.35	1.44
C _{17:0}	0.25	0.13	0.37	0.24	0.28	0.18
C _{18:0}	1.66	1.49	2.19	0.70	1.61	0.16
C _{18:1}	74.80	64.40	83.56	19.16	74.58	7.71
C _{18:2}	7.82	4.15	13.19	9.04	8.18	3.86
C _{18:3}	0.37	0.30	0.47	0.17	0.37	0.03
C _{20:0}	0.51	0.42	0.61	0.19	0.50	0.10
C _{20:1}	0.17	0.12	0.22	0.10	0.16	0.06
C _{22:0}	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01
C _{24:0}	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01
TFA	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
SFA	15.38	10.93	19.27	8.34	15.93	3.10
MUFA	76.42	67.13	84.28	17.15	75.81	6.64
PUFA	8.20	4.50	13.59	9.09	8.57	3.80
Antioxidants and pigments (g kg ⁻¹)						
Chlorophylls	33.12	14.06	59.93	45.87	35.04	31.37
Carotenoids	18.02	10.69	26.18	15.49	17.99	10.52
Tocopherols	177	123	222	99	181	50
TPC	119	40	280	240	99	117
3 4 DHPEA-EDA	7 55	0.60	34 72	34.12	4 57	8 50
3 4 DHPEA-EA	8 41	5.05	10.25	5 20	8 55	1.98
<i>p</i> -HPEA-EDA	2 39	0.81	7 28	6.47	1.98	2.09
<i>p</i> -HPEA-EA	0.57	0.37	0.81	0.47	0.56	0.28
Svringic acid	0.84	0.57	1.37	0.44	0.50	0.20
Cinnamic acid	1 27	0.00	5.08	5.02	0.79	2 29
Vanillic acid	0.62	0.00	1.15	0.94	0.60	0.23
<i>n</i> -Coumaric acid	0.02	0.21	1.15	1.08	0.02	0.23
Hydroxytyrosol	2.33	0.00	13.08	13.08	1.37	2 31
Tyrosol	1 44	0.00	5 42	5.00	1.07	2.51
Apigenin	0.78	0.35	1 73	1.38	0.62	0.82
Luteolin	1.60	0.33	2.75	1.30	1.75	0.62
Pinoresinol	2.00	1.20	2.20	2.05	2.02	0.55
Antiovident activity (upol TE a^{-1})	1255	076	4.65	5.05 914	2.95	128
Eatty acid alloy esters $(a ka^{-1})$	1233	9/0	1/90	014	11/3	420
r any acta alkyl esters (g kg r) EAME ₂	6 27	1.50	12 00	17 20	5 00	2.02
	0.27	1.30	10.00	12.38	5.8U 6.14	3.92 3.01
FALLS	1.20	2.30	17.22	10.00	0.14	5.91
I OTAL FAAES	13.33	5.20	2ð.43	23.23	11.08	3.02

IOMATYAALS13.555.2028.4525.2511.085.02IQR, inter quartile range; FFA, free fatty acids; PV, peroxide value; TFA, total trans fatty acids;
SFA, total saturated fatty acids; MUFA, total monounsaturated fatty acids; PUFA, total
polyunsaturated fatty acids; TPC, total phenolic compounds; FAMEs, fatty acids methyl esters;
FAEEs, fatty acids ethyl esters; FAAEs, total fatty acids alkyl esters.

Table 3. Volatile compounds (mg OE kg⁻¹ oil) identified in the Brazilian virgin olive oils samples (mean value \pm standard deviation).

Compounds	ds Olive oil sample**											
(Sensory descriptor/aroma*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Aldehvdes												
Butanal, 2 methyl	2.10	1.93	2.41	0.83		1.94	1.00	1.32	1.36	2.09	0.78	
(Malty)	± 0.37	± 0.57	± 0.43	±0.12	-	± 0.30	±0.26	± 0.09	± 0.05	± 0.23	± 0.06	-
Butanal, 3 methyl	1.10	1.43	1.61	-	0.49	1.82	1.10	1.09	0.70	2.00	0.74	-
(Malty)	±0.13	±0.30	±0.16		± 0.41	±0.20	±0.76	±0.03	± 0.03	± 0.10	±0.02	
cis-3-Hexenal	3.76 +0.63	1.53	3.32	1.23 + 0.13	-	2.4 7+0.52	2.16	3.43	1.41	1.23 + 0.42	1.21	2.24
trans-2-Hexenal	±0.05	±0.07	10.55	10.15		7±0.52		±1.52	±0.04	±0.42	1.50	-2.34
(Green/apple-like/bitter	184.17 +25.21	78.80	185.82 +15.13	74.42	96.39 ±23.50	120.77	225.07	252.75	90.08	184.20	104.31	222.86
almonds)	±23.21	10.02	15.15	113.42	±23.39	135.78	±11.56	+00.17	±3.94	±1.9 4	±7.15	120.30
trans-2-Pentenal	2.65	-	2.33	0.90	-	1.63	2.79 ±0.18	2.02	1.11	-	1.40	-
	17.45	8 02	16.90	±0.01	12.25	±0.01	±0.10	10.74	±0.11	10.10	4 70	6.02
(Green/green apple)	± 1.99	±1.25	± 0.62	±2.17	± 0.38	± 1.58	±1.98	± 2.69	± 1.22	± 0.89	4.79 ±0.40	± 0.03
Nonanal	2.10									0.95		
(Fatty/waxy/pungent)	±1.21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	±0.14	-	-
Total aldehydes	213.33	91.70	212.38	85.85	109.23	134.31	240.66	271.35	101.57	200.66	113.23	231.12±
10iui uluenyues	±28.56	±12.81	±12.92	±17.83	±22.80	±39.18	±12.25	± 72.85	±8.18	±1.10	±6.18	29.20
Ketones												
3-Pentanone	9.23	10.19	7.99	13.97	12.25	6.46	5.34	3.85	_	3.47	_	$9.79\pm$
(Sweet)	±0.21	±2.40	±1.59	±1.96	±2.97	±2.04	±1.13	±0.22	-	±0.10	-	2.81
1-Penten-3-one	9.14	2.07	7.72	-	-	3.86	13.22	7.86	-	8.20	-	-
(Green)	±0.37	±0.19	±0.5/	12.07	12.25	±0.59	±1.40	±1.5/		± 0.23		0.70
Total ketones	18.3/ +0.58	12.20 +2.59	$\frac{15.11}{+2.16}$	13.97 +1.96	12.23 +2.97	+2.64	18.30 +2.54	11./1 +1.79	-	+0.13	-	9.79 +2.81
	-0.00	,		-1170	,,	,				-0.10		-2:01
Alcohols	17.26	20.51	40.10	52.41	5(00	27.52	7.54	1675	40.77	5 90	12.50	71.51
(Green/leaves)	$\frac{17.36}{\pm 1.38}$	± 30.51 ± 3.80	48.12 ± 9.84	52.41 ± 29.79	± 25.24	$\frac{37.52}{\pm 13.06}$	/.54 ±0.79	± 3.22	40.77 ±44.20	5.89 ±0.27	± 7.41	$\frac{1.51}{\pm 1.52}$
2-Penten-1-ol	0.49	0.77	0.69	4.82	4.24	3.06	1.33	0.93	0.39	0.48	0.59	1.19
(Banana-like)	±0.33	±0.51	±0.28	±0.31	±4.64	±4.10	±1.38	±0.56	±0.02	±0.01	± 0.53	±1.14
Ethyl alcohol	1.07	0.50		0.53	0.56							
(Alcohol)	± 0.78	±0.19	-	±0.26	±0.36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total alcohols	18.93	31.78	48.80	57.76	60.87	40.58	8.87	17.67	41.16	6.36	14.12	72.71
	± 2.48	±4.30	± 10.12	±29.22	±29.31	±17.13	±0.39	±3.78	±44.23	±0.26	± 7.94	± 0.37
Carboxylic acids												
Propanoic acid	1.33	2.04	-	3.18	3.04	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Pungent/sour)	±1.32	± 0.04		±0.73	±0.21							
Butanoic acid (Rancid/cheese)	-	-	-	4.65	18.90	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Rationarcinesc)	40.55	20.07	5 99	122.05	121.07	24.05	10.00	10.10	6 20	5 38	7 80	7 74
(Sour/vinegary)	±42.04	± 7.64	±0.27	± 40.85	± 28.20	± 6.32	± 5.60	±7.28	±1.37	± 1.87	±3.43	±2.36
	41.88	32.01	5.88	129.89	143.01	24.95	10.99	10.10	6.20	5.38	7.80	8.10
Total carboxylic acids	± 43.35	±7.67	± 0.27	± 42.68	±27.28	±6.32	± 5.60	±7.28	±1.37	± 1.87	±3.43	±2.35
Other compounds												
	1.24	8.52	4.38	2.10	4.16	1.69	8.80	3.07	6.94	5.76	5.77	6.36
3-Ethyl-1,3-octadiene	±0.20	±4.47	±0.49	±1.98	±0.52	±1.16	±0.51	±2.53	± 1.10	±0.78	±0.64	±0.65
Octane	1.39	1.32	0.78	1.42	2.13	0.50	0.45	0.77	2.04	1.44	1.38	0.48
Sweet/alcane	±0.35	± 0.31	± 0.04	±0.35	± 0.81	± 0.07	± 0.08	±0.13	±0.23	± 0.05	±0.12	±0.04

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Olive oil sample*	Fruity	Bitter	Pungent	Defect	Principal defect
1	1.0	0.0	0.4	1.1	fusty/muddy
2	0.6	0.0	0.5	3.3	fusty/muddy
3	0.6	0.0	0.4	2.0	fusty/muddy
4	0.6	0.0	0.6	1.5	winey-vinegary
5	0.0	0.0	0.5	3.3	winey-vinegary
6	0.8	0.0	0.6	1.4	fusty/muddy
7	3.0	0.0	1.7	0.0	-
8	3.0	0.0	0.6	0.7	fusty/muddy
9	0.3	0.0	0.3	2.3	fusty/muddy
10	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.9	fusty/muddy
11	0.4	0.0	0.6	1.1	fusty/muddy
12	1.4	0.3	1.1	1.0	fusty/muddy

Table 4. Results of the panel test on the Brazilian virgin olive oil samples expressed as median value.

* See Table 1 for cultivar specification.

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^{*(}Kalua et al., 2007; Angerosa et al., 2004); ** See Table 1 for cultivar specification.