

1 **Olive oil quality classification and measurement of its organoleptic attributes by**
2 **untargeted GC-MS and multivariate statistical-based approach.**

3 C. Sales¹, T. Portolés^{1*}, L.G. Johnsen², M. Danielsen², J. Beltran¹

4 ¹Research Institute for Pesticides and Water (IUPA), University Jaume I, Avda. Sos Baynat,
5 E-12071 Castellón, Spain.

6 ²MS-Omics, Birkehegnet 40, Ålsgårde, Denmark

7 *Corresponding author: tportole@uji.es

8 **ABSTRACT**

9 The capabilities of dynamic headspace entrainment followed by thermal desorption in
10 combination with gas chromatography (GC) coupled to single quadrupole mass spectrometry
11 (MS) have been tested for the determination of volatile components of olive oil. This
12 technique has shown a great potential for olive oil quality classification by using an
13 untargeted approach. The data processing strategy consisted of three different steps:
14 component detection from GC-MS data using novel data treatment software PARADISE, a
15 multivariate analysis using EZ-Info, and the creation of the statistical models. The great
16 amount of compounds determined enabled not only the development of a quality
17 classification method as a complementary tool to the official established method “PANEL
18 TEST” but also a correlation between these compounds and different types of defect.
19 Classification method was finally validated using blind samples. An accuracy of 85 % in oil
20 classification was obtained, with 100% of extra virgin samples correctly classified.

21

22 **Keywords**

23 Dynamic headspace; Olive oil; GC-MS; PARAFAC2; Foodomics

24

25 **1. INTRODUCTION**

26 Olive oil quality is a matter of concern for consumers and producers. It establishes the
27 differences between the products with poor attributes and the products with outstanding
28 features, as well as it contributes to set oil prizes. For this reason and to avoid fraud, many
29 times linked to this specific product (Jabeur, Zribi, & Bouaziz, 2016; Kalogiouri, Aalizadeh,
30 & Thomaidis, 2017; Kalogiouri, Alygizakis, Aalizadeh, & Thomaidis, 2016; Portarena,
31 Gavrichkova, Lauteri, & Brugnoli, 2014), guarantee of the genuine quality is a critical step

32 especially from an economical point of view. Thus, the total characterization of olive oil is
33 an important aim where analytical chemists can be of great support.

34 Apart from physicochemical parameters that can determine the quality (as the acidity and
35 turbidity of a sample), olive oil classification, as established by Spanish legislation
36 (COI/T.20/Doc. No 15/Rev. 9 2017) and European Legislation (EEC No 2568/91), is
37 performed by testers who establish if an olive oil must be labelled as extra virgin, virgin or
38 lampante (not recommended for consumption). This strategy is known as “PANEL TEST”,
39 which classifies the oils according to two main properties: defects (negative factors) and
40 positive attributes (positive factors). The major defects are rancid, fusty/muddy sediment,
41 musty/humid/earthy, acetone, burnt/heated, frozen/wet wood and winey/vinegary, while the
42 positive attributes can be fruity (specifying green attribute), bitter and spicy. An extra virgin
43 oil must have positive attributes and no defects, while the presence and amount of defects
44 determines if an olive oil must be classified as Virgin or Lampante. According to the
45 literature (Kalua et al., 2007; Luna, Morales, & Aparicio, 2006), and based on our previous
46 work (Sales et al., 2017), the organic compounds responsible of these flavours are
47 predominantly volatiles. This includes esters, ketones, aldehydes, alcohols, terpenes, phenols
48 and their derivatives, with different concentrations and odour thresholds. To this extent,
49 qualitative and quantitative analysis of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) has been an
50 important issue of scientific interest for the organoleptic characterization of olive oil.
51 Although PANEL TESTs are quite well trained in distinguishing these differences with an
52 impressive precision, such methodology is rather expensive and remarkably time-consuming.
53 In this scenario, a more objective methodology, based on instrumental responses, could be
54 presented as cheaper and faster alternative approach to PANEL TESTs and could also be

55 useful as a complementary tool to prevent fraud due to sample adulteration by means of
56 quality mislabeling.

57 Dynamic headspace with sorbent trapping (DHS) together with gas chromatography (GC)
58 coupled to mass spectrometry (MS) in full scan mode is a well-known technique that has
59 been used in our laboratory for the determination of VOCs in different food commodities
60 (Beltran et al., 2006; Fredes et al., 2016), including olive oils (Sales et al., 2017), at low to
61 trace levels. It allows to greatly concentrate most of the volatile compounds present in the
62 sample with a good efficiency and significantly low cost. When coupled to thermal
63 desorption, results improve considerably. This volatile-focused extraction technique makes
64 use of no solvents, which helps to cut analysis costs and time while it enhances the sensitivity
65 due to its high pre-concentration factor. Additionally, MS-spectra obtained when applying
66 this sampling technique has been demonstrated to be cleaner than those obtained by
67 traditional sampling methods, as the lack of solvents reduces column bleeding and
68 overloading issues. (Marquez, Serratos, Merida, Zea, & Moyano, 2014).

69 Other automatable alternatives to this approach rely on headspace (HS) coupled to MS or
70 GC-MS, with high detection limits and no pre-concentration factor (Arrebola, González-
71 Rodríguez, Garrido Frenich, Marín-Juan, & Martínez Vidal, 2005; Garrido-Delgado,
72 Mercader-Trejo, Arce, & Valcárcel, 2011) or headspace-solid phase micro-extraction (HS-
73 SPME) coupled to GC-MS, which has shown good performance in extraction of volatiles
74 and has even been used for the determination of defect related compounds in olive oils
75 (Benelli et al., 2015; Dierkes, Bongartz, Guth, & Hayen, 2012; Zhu, Wang, & Shoemaker,
76 2016). Most studies carried out on oil characterization are based on a targeted approach which
77 can produce biased classification models that could lead to important misclassification of the

78 samples if the compounds responsible for a specific type of defect have not been considered
79 in advance. Alternatively to target analyses for the determination of the chemical fingerprint
80 of food samples, in the last years and together with the advance of data treatment technology,
81 novel non-targeted methodologies have started to gain importance. Despite its great potential,
82 only few application are found in olive oil analysis field (Gerhardt, Birkenmeier, Sanders,
83 Rohn, & Weller, 2017; Gil-Solsona et al., 2016; Sales et al., 2017).

84 Metabolomics, defined as "the unbiased, global screening approach to classify samples based
85 on metabolite patterns or fingerprints that change in response to disease, environmental or
86 genetic perturbations with the ultimate goal to identify discriminating metabolites"
87 (Cevallos-Cevallos, Reyes-De-Corcuera, Etxeberria, Danyluk, & Rodrick, 2009), has already
88 demonstrated great capabilities to solve this problem. Application of a non-target approach
89 based on analytical techniques to determine chemical fingerprint in food leads to a new field
90 known as foodomics (Herrero, García-Cañas, Simo, & Cifuentes, 2010). Data processing
91 together with data acquisition has to be carefully optimized through the use of specialized
92 software to automatically obtain valuable markers (chromatographic peaks and masses) from
93 raw data. As no compounds are selected in advance, chromatography must be robust and has
94 to pursue the best peak resolution possible. Also, data acquisition has to be performed in full-
95 scan in order to obtain the maximum information possible (Cevallos-Cevallos et al., 2009;
96 Garcia & Barbas, 2011). After data acquisition, automatic deconvolution of spectra is needed,
97 to deep scan relevant signals through the whole chromatogram (Meyer, Peters, & Maurer,
98 2010).

99 In literature, foodomics studies make use of different software to get this information, such
100 as XCMS package of R (Díaz, Pozo, Sancho, & Hernández, 2014), MetAlign (Tikunov et

101 al., 2005) or MzMine 2.0 (Kind, Tolstikov, Fiehn, & Weiss, 2007). These software detect the
102 relevant m/z values at a specific time and automatically integrate the signal (area or total
103 intensity), in a procedure known as peak picking. Normally, it leads to different features
104 detected in the same samples depending on their specifications and use (Li et al., 2018;
105 Myers, Sumner, Li, Barnes, & Du, 2017). Recently, PARADISE (Johnsen, Skou, Khakimov,
106 & Bro, 2017), which makes use of the algorithm PARAFAC2 ((Elcoroaristizabal, Bro,
107 García, & Alonso, 2015; Johnsen et al., 2017; Lenhardt, Bro, Zeković, Dramićanin, &
108 Dramićanin, 2015), has emerged as a really promising tool for GC-MS data treatment. This
109 specific software presents a major difference compared with the others, which is the detection
110 of compounds instead of singular ions. This reduces the data matrix and makes the statistical
111 analyses easier and faster.

112 The aim of this work has been the development of a quality classification model for olive oil
113 by the application of a novel untargeted methodology. For this purpose, the potential of GC-
114 MS with DHS-TD has been exploited together with the use of the recently developed
115 PARADISE software for peak deconvolution purposes. As an additional aim, the correlation
116 of detected compounds with the major defects reported by the PANEL test has been explored.

117

118 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

119 **2.1. Chemicals and reagents**

120 Internal standard toluene-d8 (tol-d8) $\geq 99\%$ was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Germany).

121 Tenax[®]TA glass desorption tubes 60/80 mesh, O.D. 6.00 mm x 4 mm I.D. x L 60 mm, used
122 as traps were purchased from Gerstel (Mülheim an der Ruhr, Germany).

123 External standards of volatile compounds used for signal deviation correction (*Z*-3-hexenal,
124 hexanal, *E,E*-2,4-hexadienal, 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-one, 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-ol, *E,E*-2,4-
125 heptadienal, *R*-limonene, 2-isobutylthiazole, guaiacol, *E*-2-octenal, linalool, 2-
126 phenylethanol, methyl salicylate, α -terpineol, β -cyclocitral, *Z*-citral, *E*-citral, *E,E*-2,4-
127 decadienal, diphenyl ether, geranylacetone, β -ionone, phenylacetaldehyde, benzaldehyde)
128 were supplied by Supelco (Sigma–Aldrich and Fluka; Barcelona, Spain) as pure compounds
129 (92–99.5%).

130

131 **2.2. Olive oil samples**

132 A total of 108 olive oil samples were provided by the Spanish Olive Oil Interprofessional
133 Organization (INTERPRO, Spain), the Olive Oil Agency of the Ministry of Agriculture and
134 Fisheries, Food and Environment (AAO, MAPAMA) and the official control services from
135 the Council of Agriculture and Fisheries of Andalusia.

136 Oil samples were obtained from several Spanish cultivar regions during the 2015 campaign.
137 They were fully quality characterized by the official participating laboratories (Agricultural
138 Laboratory from MAPAMA, Cordoba and Atarfe) using the official COI method
139 (COI/T.20/Doc. No 15/Rev. 9 2017) by the corresponding panels accredited under EU
140 REGULATION 2017/625. 87 samples were used for the training set of the models (18 extra
141 virgin, 48 virgin and 19 lampante), and 21 were analyzed as blind samples (the quality was
142 unknown during analysis and classification) and were used for validation of the created
143 models. Samples were stored in freezer at $-22\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until their use. They were characterized by
144 means of pH measurements and physicochemical and organoleptic properties (including

145 defects, positive attributes and quality classification). Each sample was analyzed once, due
146 to limited sample volume and due to the fact that, after desorption, the sample has to be re-
147 extracted in case of a replicate is needed.

148

149 **2.3. Sample treatment**

150 Olive oil samples were allowed to defrost at room temperature before analysis. Then, they
151 were aliquoted in 4 different 10 mL vials. One aliquot was immediately used to perform the
152 extraction and the remaining ones were stored at 4 °C.

153 3 g of oil were weighed on a precision balance directly into a 150 mL Erlenmeyer flask. The
154 general procedure was based on previous works (Fredes et al., 2016; Sales et al., 2017), but
155 improving the trapping and desorption steps. The trap consisted of a Tenax[®] TA TDU tube
156 (ID 4mm, 60mm length) previously conditioned by applying a desorption step (300 °C during
157 8 minutes with a flow of high purity helium of 55 mL/min acting as carrier gas flowing
158 backflush). Prior to application of the extraction procedure, the trap was spiked with 10 µL
159 of a 50 ng/µL of toluene-d8 solution to correct extraction deviations.

160 For the extraction step, the sample was maintained at 40°C (by immersion of the flask in a
161 water bath) with magnetic agitation at 300 rpm and the headspace was purged with a flow of
162 100 mL/min of pure N₂ for 1 hour into a Tenax tube trap. **Figure S1** shows the experimental
163 set up used. After the extraction the traps were directly transferred to the GC/MS autosampler
164 to automatically carry out the thermal desorption on the TDU. In each sample extraction
165 batch, 6 samples (when possible, 2 extra virgin, 2 virgin and 2 lampante oils) were processed
166 simultaneously.

167 In order to avoid bias in the methodology, samples were analyzed in batches of 18 tubes,

168 randomly distributed. To ensure stability of the system and correct instrument deviation,
169 replicate thermal desorptions of traps spiked with 10 μ L of a mixture of 50 ng/ μ L of standards
170 corresponding to volatile compounds present in vegetable matrices (and specific for tomato
171 (Serrano, Beltrán, & Hernández, 2009)) were performed. These VOCs were used as they
172 were already available in the laboratory and are coincident in many different vegetable
173 matrices, including olive oil (Uriarte, Goicoechea, & Guillen, 2011). They are also used in
174 volatile metabolomics studies (Gómez-Cortés, Brenna, & Sacks, 2012). These desorptions
175 were planned at the beginning and at the end of each sequence batch, as well as every 6
176 samples.

177

178 **2.4. GC-MS**

179 The chromatographic analysis were performed using an Agilent 6890A gas chromatograph,
180 equipped with a Gerstel MPS2 autosampler (Gerstel, Maryland, USA), coupled to a single
181 quadrupole mass spectrometer, Agilent 5973N MSD (Agilent Technologies, California,
182 USA), operating in EI mode. The GC separation was performed using a fused silica
183 Supelcowax 10 capillary column with a length of 30m x 0.25mm ID and a film thickness of
184 0.25 μ m (Sigma Aldrich, Germany). The oven program was set as follows: 40°C (3 min);
185 5.00 °C/min to 160°C (1.00 min); 40.00 °C/min to 260°C (1.50 min). The injection system
186 consisted of two units; the thermal desorption unit (TDU) and the programmable temperature
187 vaporizing (PTV) – cooled injection system (CIS4) (Gerstel, Maryland, USA). The TDU
188 parameters were set as follows; sample removal mode, splitless at an initial temperature of
189 40°C (1 min equilibrium time); 60 °C/min to 260°C (4 min), transfer line temp 260°C. The

190 CIS4 PTV was equipped with a Tenax[®] TA packed liner, CIS4 temperature program: 40°C
191 (1 min equilibrium time); 12 °C/s to 260°C (4 min). A summary of the different temperature
192 programs is graphically displayed in **Figure S2**.

193

194 **2.5. Data processing**

195 GC-MS data were converted to netCDF format using the Chemstation[®] (Agilent
196 Technologies, California, USA,-Version G1701CA) *export to .AIA* function. Data mining
197 was carried out using PARADISE. After importing the netCDF data to the PARADISE
198 software, the regions of interest (ROIs), which are the time intervals where software applies
199 the deconvolution, were selected manually along the full chromatogram. A total of 118
200 intervals were selected, paying attention to peak shape (when visible in the TIC) and leaving
201 no empty spaces between intervals. Modelling options were set to a maximum of 8
202 compounds per interval and 50000 maximum iterations per interval. After the modelling step,
203 models created for each interval were carefully optimized attending to: model fitting over
204 95%, model consistency over 95%, background removal, and avoiding model overfitting (in
205 this order). Data matrix obtained after applying PARADISE consisted in an *.xls* file which
206 could be opened with Microsoft Excel for future data transformations. The areas provided by
207 PARADISE were divided by the area of tol-d8 to correct the differences between extraction
208 batches and TDU tubes. The relative areas were corrected with the nearest external standard
209 and then scaled applying mean-centering. Statistical analyses were performed using the
210 EzInfo software (U-Metrics, Waters Corporation, Wilmslow, UK, Version 2.0.0.0).

211

212 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

213 **3.1. Extraction procedure optimization**

214 Considering our previous experiences (Beltran et al., 2006; Fredes et al., 2016; Sales et al.,
215 2017), efforts were devoted to optimize and apply static headspace-stir bar sorptive
216 extraction-thermal desorption (SHS-SBSE-TD) and dynamic headspace entrainment
217 followed by thermal desorption (DHS-TD. Though SPME has been extensively used for the
218 analysis of olive oils (Arrebola et al., 2005; Benelli et al., 2015; Gómez-Cortés et al., 2012;
219 Oliver-Pozo, Aparicio-Ruiz, Romero, & García-González, 2015; Uriarte et al., 2011; Zhu et
220 al., 2016), it was discarded as no possibility for SPME automatically coupled to GC-MS was
221 available at our laboratory.

222 The first step was to compare the performance of the two considered extraction methods in
223 order to select only one of them for further development; Accordingly, a selected extra virgin
224 olive oil sample was extracted by triplicate by HS-SBSE-TD and DHS-TD under the same
225 conditions. Additionally, an aliquot of the same oil sample, spiked with the above mentioned
226 mixture of VOCs (see experimental section), was extracted (n=3 for each method) with the
227 same two methodologies. The analysis was performed in full-scan mode and then integrating
228 the areas for the specified ions. Results obtained unequivocally demonstrated the higher
229 performance of DHS-TD. On one hand, N₂ current (dynamic process) and the larger surface
230 area of Tenax[®] TA tubes, enhanced the extraction from 4 to 10 times for most of components
231 and up to 10³ times for the most volatile compounds when compared to Twister (SBSE)
232 extraction. Furthermore, to test the reliability of the DHS-TD extraction procedure, 15
233 replicates of an extra virgin olive oil spiked with the IS mixture were extracted. This test
234 gave RSD values below 15 % for most of the compounds, and permitted the detection of all
235 the spiked compounds, together with a huge amount of additional VOCs present in the olive

236 oil sample. As an example, boxplots for a number of selected spiked compounds is shown in
237 **Figure S3**. The plots show no outliers for the selected compounds, highlighting the
238 repeatability of the methodology.

239

240 **3.3. Data analysis optimization**

241 Many different deconvolution software can be used for the automatic detection of
242 chromatographic peaks in non-targeted approaches. There is plenty of literature regarding
243 the use of xcms package of R (Fernández-Varela, Tomasi, & Christensen, 2015; Gil-Solsona
244 et al., 2016) and MzMine (Hung, Lee, Yang, & Lee, 2014; Sales et al., 2017). More recently
245 PARADISE, integrating the algorithm PARAFAC2, has emerged as an efficient alternative
246 (Elcoroaristizabal et al., 2015; Khakimov et al., 2016; Lenhardt et al., 2015; Vegge et al.,
247 2016). From our previous knowledge on the application of these deconvolution tools to GC-
248 MS data, and specifically related to the analyses of VOCs in olive oil, PARADISE has been
249 recently revealed as a potential tool in this field. It provides more robust integrations while
250 removing a huge amount of interferent and ghost peaks. Additionally, it gives an additional
251 benefit due to its easiness of use and peak visualization. PARAFAC2 algorithm (Harshman,
252 1972) performs peak deconvolution attending to the intensity and the spectra of the signals,
253 so it is extremely powerful when resolving co-eluting peaks, even with unit mass resolution
254 MS.

255 During the optimization of PARADISE models for peak deconvolution, 118 individual
256 intervals were obtained from the entire chromatogram, cropping the last 3 minutes to avoid
257 ghost peaks from column bleeding at elevated temperatures. This step reduced data
258 complexity and weight before the model validation. PARADISE model validation was

259 performed as previously described elsewhere (Khakimov et al., 2016), testing the model
260 fitting for each interval with one to eight components. Each model was carefully evaluated
261 to find the optimal number of components, looking for a good model fitting (over 95%), noise
262 removal and low residuals, with a core consistency over 95%. Also model overfitting was
263 avoided while obtaining well resolved peaks. As an example, the capabilities of PARADISE
264 for compound detection and noise reduction are displayed in **Figure 1**. In **Figure 1(A)**, the
265 total ion chromatogram shows a very complex interval, with three presumable compounds.
266 The residuals in this case were up to 10^6 . After selecting 5 different components (**Figure**
267 **1(B)**), residuals were lowered by two orders of magnitude, and the algorithm detected four
268 different signals and noise (the red component). The model fit increases from a 60% for one
269 component to 100% with the selected compounds. At the same time, consistency is kept
270 higher than 95%, ensuring the goodness of the selected model. Among the components
271 selected, the green component was identified by using NIST08 as 3-(methylthio)-Propanal,
272 and confirmed with the injection of its standard. **Figure S4** highlights the potential of
273 PARADISE for spectra deconvolution, as it is able to distinguish the signals coming from
274 two different co-eluting components and column bleeding. This capability results in a higher
275 number of components detected (green and blue in **Figure 1B**) with cleaner spectra, which
276 results in better tentative identifications when using NIST. With the final selected model for
277 each interval, all the samples were processed. Data exported from PARADISE lead to a *.xls*
278 file containing a total of 230 different compounds, a number significantly lower than those
279 obtained by other peak picking software commonly used, often close to ten thousand different
280 features (Li et al., 2018). This step is determining to reduce the data matrix, which simplifies
281 the statistical analysis. All these compounds were processed by dividing each compound peak

282 area by the area of the internal standard (tol-D₈) in each sample to correct instrument
283 deviation. Then they were corrected by nearest external standard and finally mean centered
284 to enhance the difference between groups. The whole dataset was divided in two groups, one
285 for method training, containing 87 samples (20 lampante, 48 virgen and 19 extra) and a
286 smaller subset of 21 blind samples for model validation. **Figure 2** shows the evolution of the
287 different principal component analyses (PCA) applied depending on different data
288 corrections applied. As it can be appreciated, the use of surrogate tol-D₈ for data correction
289 helps to minimize deviation in groups when compared to the raw data. Furthermore, the use
290 of the response of the nearest external standard for data correction enhances the differences
291 between groups, and consequently, was selected for further method development.

292

293 **3.4. Classification Model Validation**

294 At this point, the development of a quality classification model of olive oils by DHS-TD was
295 studied. Subsequently, after aforementioned data transformations and having checked the
296 PCA for goodness of data, a partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) was
297 constructed according to the quality of each group (extra virgin, virgin and lampante groups
298 (see **Figure 3**). The PLS-DA showed a clear distinction between lampante and extra samples,
299 while the virgin samples, with both positive attributes and defects, were in the middle. In
300 order to verify the accuracy of the model, it was validated with the analysis of blind samples,
301 i.e with a priori unknown quality. **Figure S5** shows a confusion matrix presenting the results
302 for the training and the validation set of samples classified by PLS-DA. One of the greatest
303 outputs was the capability of the developed methodology to correctly classify 100% of extra
304 virgin olive oil samples. Another output was the great differentiation achieved between extra
305 and lampante samples which avoided any misclassification between these two extreme

306 groups. Finally, in order to determine the compounds responsible for extra and lampante
307 qualities, two different orthogonal partial least squares-discriminant analysis (O-PLSDA)
308 models were created. Firstly, the flawless extra virgin samples were faced to the virgin and
309 lampante ones; and secondly, lampante samples were faced to the rest. From them, two S-
310 PLOT graphs were obtained and inspected for endpoints. **Table 1** lists the main compounds
311 responsible of the positive attributes of extra samples and also those found as responsible of
312 the lampante quality.

313

314 **3.5. Defect-related compounds identification**

315 As a final step, PARADISE automatically compares deconvoluted spectra with NIST library
316 (in this case NIST08 (NIST, Maryland, USA)), giving the best fitted candidate for each peak.
317 In order to add more confidence to identification, retention index for each compound was
318 calculated using a C₇-C₃₀ alkane mixture which was injected along with the rest of the
319 sequence.

320 Although all the deconvoluted features were used in the creation of the statistical model, only
321 the compounds with a match over 850 and a RI match ± 20 (Chemspider) were considered
322 as tentatively identified compounds. Compounds given as completely identified were
323 confirmed by the injection of its corresponding standard.

324 In a previous work (Sales et al., 2017), it was demonstrated that the distinction between
325 flawless extra samples and samples with a specific defect was larger than the difference
326 between the three quality classes. Continuing with that work, our efforts were devoted
327 towards the complete identification of the compounds responsible of each kind of defect or
328 negative attribute. To that extent, a PLS-DA was constructed according to the main defect of

329 each sample (or the absence of it). **Figure 4** shows the results for the PLS-DA grouping the
330 samples by quality and colored by: considering the predominant (main) defect (**A**), defect
331 intensity (**B**) and main fruitiness intensity (**C**). From the first PLS-DA, distinguishing by the
332 type of defect, several O-PLSDAs were performed facing samples with one defect against
333 the flawless extra, one defect at a time. The next step was to obtain the corresponding S-
334 PLOT graph for each case and to inspect them looking for endpoints, especially in the part
335 of the defect, to see which compounds were highly related to each negative attribute.
336 Applying this methodology to each defect, a group of compounds were considered as
337 responsible of the bad quality of virgin/lampante olive oils, which are summarized in **Table**
338 **2**. The results show the great potential of this technique for the identification of defect-related
339 compounds, as well as for the discrimination of samples according to their defect. These
340 results correlate well with previous works in the field of defect identification using targeted
341 approaches. Especially interesting are E-2-decenal and Heptenal, with odour thresholds in
342 the low ppb level, which have been reported by many authors in different olive oils to be
343 related with distinct major defects (Morales, Luna, & Aparicio, 2005; Zhu et al., 2016). Our
344 approach, additionally, shows that their presence has stronger impact than other compounds
345 when labelling an olive oil with rancid or fusty defects and frozen, respectively, and that their
346 presence correlates normally with the label virgin rather than lampante. In a similar way,
347 octanal, which in our results is indicative of fusty defect, and octane, with a stronger presence
348 in defected oils (**Table S1**) are also reported as present in defected oils in previous literature
349 (Morales et al., 2005; Oliver-Pozo et al., 2015). As complementary information, an overview
350 of the signals (relative areas) for all the detected and unequivocally identified compounds in
351 olive oils and their relation to quality and defects are also shown in **Tables S1** and **S2**. Data
352 shown in these tables allow to highlight the potential of the combination of DHS-TD together

353 with PARADISE for the detection of high number of relevant compounds in untargeted
354 analysis. Apart from this, the use of this state-of-the art workflow for the determination of
355 VOCs using EI source together with NIST library matching, allowed to tentatively identify
356 several compounds detected in a previous work with the novel atmospheric pressure chemical
357 ionization source (APCI) (Sales et al., 2017). Also, RI from the previous used non-polar
358 column in GC-APCI-QTOF MS system, and RI from the polar Suplecowax 10 used in this
359 work were compared and compounds were tentatively correlated when considering
360 molecular ion and the molecular fragments found by both methodologies. **Table S3**
361 summarizes the results. Special attention must be paid to 4-ethyl phenol and 5-ethyl- 2(5H)-
362 Furanone, which have been detected by both methodologies and have been found to be
363 responsible of *fusty* defect and extra quality, respectively. It is also notable that *rancid* and
364 *brine* defects are poorly characterized by volatiles, as only one compound has been linked to
365 each defect.

366

367 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

368 A methodology coupling an advanced sample treatment technique for VOCs analyses, with
369 a promising powerful deconvolution software for non-targeted analyses, has been developed
370 for the quality classification of Spanish olive oils. This classification has been faced from an
371 untargeted point of view, a novel contribution in a field where normally target approaches
372 are applied. Also, this approach has allowed determining a wide number of compounds
373 related to main defects found in olive oils.

374 The high pre concentration factor obtained by DHS-TD has allowed the detection of a huge

375 number of volatile compounds in olive oil at trace levels. PARADISe has demonstrated huge
376 capabilities for robust peak detection. Thanks to its special algorithm (PARAFAC2),
377 extremely clean mass spectra has been provided. This has been very useful for tentative
378 identification of unknown compounds when matching their spectra with NIST libraries and
379 also for resolving coeluting peaks.

380 The developed methodology has permitted to obtain an enhanced quality classification
381 model, with a 100% discrimination of extra samples, and an overall 86% accuracy for the
382 three different classes, which reveals it as a very important complement to the PANEL TEST.
383 As a final remark, the method has allowed also to putatively identify and completely identify
384 (when standards were available) the main compounds responsible of each type of
385 organoleptic defect in virgin olive oils. This work presents an affordable solution for olive
386 oil classification thanks to the use of state-of-the-art sample treatment and data treatment
387 methodologies for untargeted foodomics. It contributes to postulate DHS-TD methodology
388 as a very powerful technique for the identification and quantitation of volatiles. Also it is
389 feasible for the classification of samples trough untargeted analysis not only in oils, but in
390 any complex sample with an important volatile composition.

391 **Conflict of interest**

392 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

393 **Acknowledgements**

394 The authors acknowledge the financial support of Generalitat Valenciana, as research group
395 of excellence (PROMETEO II/2014/023), Collaborative Research on Environment and
396 Food-Safety (ISIC/2012/016) and University Jaume I (UJI-B2016-10) C. Sales

397 acknowledges the financial support of Universitat Jaume I for his pre-doctoral grant. Tania
398 Portolés acknowledges Juan de la Cierva Incorporation Program from Ministry of Economy
399 and Competitiveness (IJCI-2014-20588) for funding her research. The authors are very
400 grateful to prof. Jan H. Christensen for his support. The investigation has been performed
401 within the frame of scientific collaboration between the “Ministerio de Agricultura,
402 Alimentación y Medio Ambiente”, the “Consejería de Agricultura, Pesca y Desarrollo Rural
403 de la Junta de Andalucía” and the “Interprofesional del Aceite de Oliva Español”.

404

405 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

406 **Figure 1:** Evolution of PARADISE model at interval 57 (17.53 – 17.87 min) for 1 component
407 (A) and 5 components (B) finally selected.

408 **Figure 2:** Evolution of PCA plots after each data treatment step (mean centered in all cases):
409 A Raw data, B corrected dividing by TOL-D₈ area, C corrected by the nearest standard.

410 **Figure 3:** PLS-DA plot for the training set used in the construction of the classification
411 model.

412 **Figure 4:** PLS-DA plots focused on defects: A colored by type of defect, B colored by
413 intensity of the defect, C colored by fruity intensity.

414 **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

415 Arrebola, F. J., González-Rodríguez, M. J., Garrido Frenich, A., Marín-Juan, A., &
416 Martínez Vidal, J. L. (2005). Determination of halogenated solvents content in olive
417 oil by two completely automated headspace techniques coupled to gas

418 chromatography-mass spectrometry. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, 552(1–2), 60–66.

419 Beltran, J., Serrano, E., López, F. J., Peruga, A., Valcarcel, M., & Rosello, S. (2006).
420 Comparison of two quantitative GC-MS methods for analysis of tomato aroma based
421 on purge-and-trap and on solid-phase microextraction. *Analytical and Bioanalytical*
422 *Chemistry*, 385(7), 1255–1264.

423 Benelli, G., Caruso, G., Giunti, G., Cuzzola, A., Saba, A., Raffaelli, A., & Gucci, R.
424 (2015). Changes in olive oil volatile organic compounds induced by water status and
425 light environment in canopies of *Olea europaea* L. trees. *Journal of the Science of*
426 *Food and Agriculture*, 95(12), 2473–2481.

427 Cevallos-Cevallos, J. M., Reyes-De-Corcuera, J. I., Etxeberria, E., Danyluk, M. D., &
428 Rodrick, G. E. (2009). Metabolomic analysis in food science: a review. *Trends in*
429 *Food Science & Technology*, 20(11–12), 557–566.

430 Díaz, R., Pozo, O. J., Sancho, J. V., & Hernández, F. (2014). Metabolomic approaches for
431 orange origin discrimination by ultra-high performance liquid chromatography
432 coupled to quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *Food Chemistry*, 157, 84–93.

433 Dierkes, G., Bongartz, A., Guth, H., & Hayen, H. (2012). Quality evaluation of olive oil by
434 statistical analysis of multicomponent stable isotope dilution assay data of aroma
435 active compounds. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 60(1), 394–401.

436 Elcoroaristizabal, S., Bro, R., García, J. A., & Alonso, L. (2015). PARAFAC models of
437 fluorescence data with scattering: A comparative study. *Chemometrics and Intelligent*
438 *Laboratory Systems*, 142, 124–130.

439 Fernández-Varela, R., Tomasi, G., & Christensen, J. H. (2015). An untargeted gas

440 chromatography mass spectrometry metabolomics platform for marine polychaetes.
441 *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1384, 133–141.

442 Fredes, A., Sales, C., Barreda, M., Valcárcel, M., Roselló, S., & Beltrán, J. (2016).
443 Quantification of prominent volatile compounds responsible for muskmelon and
444 watermelon aroma by purge and trap extraction followed by gas chromatography-mass
445 spectrometry determination. *Food Chemistry*, 190, 689-700.

446 Garcia, A., & Barbas, C. (2011). Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS)-Based
447 Metabolomics. *Metabolic Profiling: Methods and Protocols* (pp. 191–204).

448 Garrido-Delgado, R., Mercader-Trejo, F., Arce, L., & Valcárcel, M. (2011). Enhancing
449 sensitivity and selectivity in the determination of aldehydes in olive oil by use of a
450 Tenax TA trap coupled to a UV-ion mobility spectrometer. *Journal of*
451 *Chromatography A*, 1218(42), 7543–7549.

452 Gerhardt, N., Birkenmeier, M., Sanders, D., Rohn, S., & Weller, P. (2017). Resolution-
453 optimized headspace gas chromatography-ion mobility spectrometry (HS-GC-IMS)
454 for non-targeted olive oil profiling. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, 409(16),
455 3933–3942.

456 Gil-Solsona, R., Raro, M., Sales, C., Lacalle, L., Díaz, R., Ibáñez, M., Beltran, J., Sancho,
457 J.V., Hernández, F. J. (2016). Metabolomic approach for Extra virgin olive oil origin
458 discrimination making use of ultra-high performance liquid chromatography -
459 Quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *Food Control*, 70, 350-359.

460 Gómez-Cortés, P., Brenna, J. T., & Sacks, G. L. (2012). Production of isotopically labeled
461 standards from a uniformly labeled precursor for quantitative volatile metabolomic

462 studies. *Analytical Chemistry*, 84(12), 5400–5406.

463 Harshman, R. A. (1972). PARAFAC2: Mathematical and technical notes. *UCLA Working*
464 *Papers in Phonetics*, 22, 30-44.

465 Herrero, M., García-Cañas, V., Simo, C., & Cifuentes, A. (2010). Recent advances in the
466 application of capillary electromigration methods for food analysis and Foodomics.
467 *Electrophoresis*, 31(1), 205–228.

468 Hung, C.-H., Lee, C.-Y., Yang, C.-L., & Lee, M.-R. (2014). Classification and
469 differentiation of agarwoods by using non-targeted HS-SPME-GC/MS and
470 multivariate analysis. *Anal. Methods*, 6(18), 7449–7456.

471 Jabeur, H., Zribi, A., & Bouaziz, M. (2016). Extra-Virgin Olive Oil and Cheap Vegetable
472 Oils: Distinction and Detection of Adulteration as Determined by GC and
473 Chemometrics. *Food Analytical Methods*, 9(3), 712–723.

474 Johnsen, L. G., Skou, P. B., Khakimov, B., & Bro, R. (2017). Gas chromatography - mass
475 spectrometry data processing made easy. *Journal of Chromatography. A*, 1503, 57–64.

476 Kalogiouri, N. P., Aalizadeh, R., & Thomaidis, N. S. (2017). Investigating the organic and
477 conventional production type of olive oil with target and suspect screening by LC-
478 QTOF-MS, a novel semi-quantification method using chemical similarity and
479 advanced chemometrics. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, 409(23), 5413–
480 5426.

481 Kalogiouri, N. P., Alygizakis, N. A., Aalizadeh, R., & Thomaidis, N. S. (2016). Olive oil
482 authenticity studies by target and nontarget LC–QTOF-MS combined with advanced
483 chemometric techniques. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, 408(28), 7955–

484 7970.

485 Kalua, C. M., Allen, M. S., Jr, D. R. B., Bishop, A. G., Prenzler, P. D., & Robards, K.
486 (2007). Food Chemistry Olive oil volatile compounds , flavour development and
487 quality : A critical review, *100*, 273–286.

488 Khakimov, B., Mongi, R. J., Sørensen, K. M., Ndabikunze, B. K., Chove, B. E., &
489 Engelsen, S. B. (2016). A comprehensive and comparative GC–MS metabolomics
490 study of non-volatiles in Tanzanian grown mango, pineapple, jackfruit, baobab and
491 tamarind fruits. *Food Chemistry*, *213*, 691–699.

492 Kind, T., Tolstikov, V., Fiehn, O., & Weiss, R. H. (2007). A comprehensive urinary
493 metabolomic approach for identifying kidney cancer. *Analytical Biochemistry*,
494 *363*(2), 185–95.

495 Lenhardt, L., Bro, R., Zeković, I., Dramićanin, T., & Dramićanin, M. D. (2015).
496 Fluorescence spectroscopy coupled with PARAFAC and PLS DA for characterization
497 and classification of honey. *Food Chemistry*, *175*, 284–291.

498 Li, Z., Lu, Y., Guo, Y., Cao, H., Wang, Q., & Shui, W. (2018). *Analytica Chimica Acta*
499 Comprehensive evaluation of untargeted metabolomics data processing software in
500 feature detection , quanti fi cation and discriminating marker selection. *Analytica*
501 *Chimica Acta*, *1029*, 50–57.

502 Luna, G., Morales, M. T., & Aparicio, R. (2006). Characterisation of 39 varietal virgin
503 olive oils by their volatile compositions. *Food Chemistry*, *98*(2), 243–252.

504 Marquez, A., Serratos, M. P., Merida, J., Zea, L., & Moyano, L. (2014). Optimization and
505 validation of an automated DHS-TD-GC-MS method for the determination of

506 aromatic esters in sweet wines. *Talanta*, *123*, 32–38.

507 Meyer, M. R., Peters, F. T., & Maurer, H. H. (2010). Automated mass spectral
508 deconvolution and identification system for GC-MS screening for drugs, poisons, and
509 metabolites in urine. *Clinical Chemistry*, *56*(4), 575–584.

510 Morales, M. T., Luna, G., & Aparicio, R. (2005). Comparative study of virgin olive oil
511 sensory defects. *Food Chemistry*, *91*(2), 293–301.

512 Myers, O. D., Sumner, S. J., Li, S., Barnes, S., & Du, X. (2017). Detailed Investigation and
513 Comparison of the XCMS and MZmine 2 Chromatogram Construction and
514 Chromatographic Peak Detection Methods for Preprocessing Mass Spectrometry
515 Metabolomics Data. *Analytical Chemistry*, *89*(17), 8689–8695.

516 Oliver-Pozo, C., Aparicio-Ruiz, R., Romero, I., & García-González, D. L. (2015). Analysis
517 of Volatile Markers for Virgin Olive Oil Aroma Defects by SPME-GC/FID: Possible
518 Sources of Incorrect Data. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *63*(48),
519 10477–10483.

520 Portarena, S., Gavrichkova, O., Lauteri, M., & Brugnoli, E. (2014). Authentication and
521 traceability of Italian extra-virgin olive oils by means of stable isotopes techniques.
522 *Food Chemistry*, *164*, 12–16.

523 Sales, C., Cervera, M. I., Gil, R., Portolés, T., Pitarch, E., & Beltran, J. (2017). Quality
524 classification of Spanish olive oils by untargeted gas chromatography coupled to
525 hybrid quadrupole-time of flight mass spectrometry with atmospheric pressure
526 chemical ionization and metabolomics-based statistical approach. *Food Chemistry*,
527 *216*, 365-373.

528 Serrano, E., Beltrán, J., & Hernández, F. (2009). Application of multiple headspace-solid-
529 phase microextraction followed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry to
530 quantitative analysis of tomato aroma components. *Journal of Chromatography. A*,
531 *1216*(1), 127–33.

532 Tikunov, Y., Lommen, A., Vos, C. H. R. De, Verhoeven, H. A., Bino, R. J., Hall, R. D., &
533 Bovy, A. G. (2005). A Novel Approach for Nontargeted Data Analysis for
534 Metabolomics . Large-Scale Profiling of Tomato Fruit Volatiles. *Plant Physiology*,
535 *139*, 1125–1137.

536 Uriarte, P. S., Goicoechea, E., & Guillen, M. D. (2011). Volatile components of several
537 virgin and refined oils differing in their botanical origin. *Journal of the Science of*
538 *Food and Agriculture*, *91*(10), 1871–1884.

539 Vegge, C. S., Jansen van Rensburg, M. J., Rasmussen, J. J., Maiden, M. C. J., Johnsen, L.
540 G., Danielsen, M., ... Kelly, D. J. (2016). Glucose Metabolism via the Entner-
541 Doudoroff Pathway in *Campylobacter*: A Rare Trait that Enhances Survival and
542 Promotes Biofilm Formation in Some Isolates. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *7*, 1–16.

543 Zhu, H., Wang, S. C., & Shoemaker, C. F. (2016). Volatile constituents in sensory
544 defective virgin olive oils. *Flavour and Fragrance Journal*, *31*(1), 22–30.

545