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ABSTRACT

The present study evaluated the effect of winemaking technologies on the concentration of different biogenic amines in Chardonnay wines. Wines produced from sedimented, inoculated must with active dry yeast without malolactic fermentation were compared with wine produced from nonsedimented must spontaneously fermented with malolactic fermentation. Histamine and putrescine concentrations were not significantly different in either variant. The highest concentration of histamine was 0.055 mg L⁻¹, and the highest concentration of putrescine was 1.6 mg L^{-1} in both variants. Statistically significantly higher values of cadaverine (from 0.06 to 0.07 mg L⁻¹), spermidine (from 0.8 to 1.4 mg L⁻¹), spermine (from 0.15 to 0.25 mg L⁻¹), and isoamylamine (from 0.40 to 0.46 mg L^{-1}) were found in the variant made from nonsedimented must, in which spontaneous malolactic fermentation was performed. The higher concentration of biogenic amines in this variant may be due to the different composition of lactic bacteria during the spontaneous malolactic fermentation. A simplified, unpublished HILIC method of chromatographic separation of biogenic amines without prior deprivation with MS-MS detection was used to determine individual biogenic amines.

KEYWORDS

biogenic amines, HPLC/HILIC, wine, vinification, malolactic fermentation, lactic acid bacteria

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1. INTRODUCTION

Biogenic amines are organic bases naturally present in protein-rich food (fish, milk, and meat) and, generally at higher concentrations, in fermented foods (cheese, salami, beer, and wine) [\(Silla Santos, 1996\)](#page-9-0). Biogenic amines can be formed in different stages of the winemaking process. The concentration of the biogenic amines can be affected by vineyard conditions during grape processing, in which nonsterile conditions may increase their formation as well as alcoholic and malolactic fermentation, and their concentration may also be affected by wine maturation and storage conditions ([Guo et al., 2015\)](#page-8-0). Histamine is not an additive but a natural biotechnological product during production, therefore the consumer packaging does not need to state "contains histamine" or "contains biogenic amines" [\(Ailer, 2016](#page-8-1)).

Biogenic amines occurring in wine at very low concentrations (range ng mL^{-1}) have similar structures, chemical and physical properties as other compounds in wine. Therefore, a suitable column is important for the proper separation of substances, which may increase the cost of analytical determination. Pretreatment of samples is also important due to the presence of interfering compounds such as polyphenols, lipids, and proteins. Many studies have been conducted on the determination of biogenic amines in wine. Most of these HPLC assays require derivatisation of the samples. For example, o-phthaldialdehyde, dansyl chloride, dabsyl chloride, and ethoxy methylene malonate are used for the derivatisation of wine samples that are determined by HPLC coupled to fluorescence, PDA, or UV detector ([Caruso et al., 2002](#page-8-2); [Martín-Álvarez et al., 2006\)](#page-9-1). In wines, a reversed phase (RP)-HPLC method that used o-phthaldialdehyde (OPA) for pre-column derivatisation and detection by fluorescence was adopted by the International Organization of Vine and Wine (OIV), allowing the simultaneous quantification of 18 biogenic amines [\(OIV, 2009\)](#page-9-2).

In reverse phase LC (RP-HPLC), an apolar stationary phase and a polar mobile phase are used, leading to increased retention when the polarity of the analysed compounds and/or the stationary phase decreases, and/or when the polarity of the mobile phase increases ([Doyle and](#page-8-3) [Dorsey, 1998](#page-8-3); [Rizzi, 1998\)](#page-9-3). Its main disadvantage is that very polar and hydrophilic compounds are not or insufficiently retained.

In normal phase LC (NPLC), contrary to RP-HPLC, the stationary phase is polar, and apolar solvents are used as mobile phase, resulting in increased retention when the polarity of the analysed compounds and/or the SP stationary phase increases, and/or when the polarity of the mobile phase decreases ([Caude and Jardy, 1998](#page-8-4)). However, the nonpolar mobile phase solvents are quite expensive, often toxic, and environmentally unfriendly. Moreover, polar and hydrophilic compounds are not well soluble in these solvents.

Hydrophilic interaction LC (HILIC), first introduced by [Alpert \(1990\),](#page-8-5) can be used as an alternative for NPLC. In HILIC, a hydrophilic stationary phase and an aqueous-organic solvent of mobile phase with high organic-solvent content that has an increased solubility for the polar and hydrophilic compounds, are used. HILIC has similarities with NPLC in the sense that there is also increased retention when the polarity/hydrophilicity of the analysed compounds and/or the stationary phase increases.

Only a few studies have been performed to determine biogenic amines without prior derivatisation of the samples. An HILIC-PI APCI MS/MS method has been developed for the determination of seven biogenic amines (cadaverine, histamine, putrescine, spermidine, spermine, tryptamine, and tyramine) in cheese [\(Gianotti et al., 2008\)](#page-8-6), and ultra-performance liquid

chromatography (UPLC) coupled to triple quadruple mass spectrometry (TQ/MS) has been used to determine biogenic amines in Macedonian red and white wines ([Tashev et al., 2017](#page-10-0)). The present study investigated the effect of wine-producing technologies on the concentration of different biogenic amines. The novelty of the study is the use of a simplified, unpublished HPLC/ HILIC method with ESI for the determination of biogenic amines in wine without prior deprivation with MS-MS detection.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Design of the experiment

The experiment was performed at the Mendel University in the Czech Republic using the Chardonnay variety from Mendeleum, Lednice. The grapes were handpicked at the optimal ripening stage (pH 3.25, total acidity of 7.7 $g L^{-1}$, $^{\circ}$ NM of 21.5, and yeast assimilable nitrogen concentration of 184 mg L^{-1}). The destemmed and crushed grapes were pressed in a WOTTLE 1200 (Wottle, Austria) pneumatic press.

Variant 1 was processed in a stainless-steel tank, and bentonite (Bentogran, AEB) (40 g $\rm hL^{-1})$ and 10 mg L^{-1} SO₂ were added. After 24 h of bentonite treatment, the must was divided into three demijohns (20 L) as repetitions 1A, 1B, and 1C. Variant 2 was directly divided into three demijohns as three repetitions (2A, 2B, and 2C) without any intervention. The sedimented must from Variant 1 had approximately 320 NTU, and the nonsedimented must from Variant 2 had approximately 1700 NTU.

In Variant 1, active dry wine yeasts (Siha cryaroma, Lipera: EATON Technologies GmbH, Germany) at a dose of 20 g hL^{-1} were used for inoculation. After fermentation, SO₂ was added at a dose of 40 mg L^{-1} , and the final wine was racked. In Variant 2, spontaneous alcoholic and malolactic fermentation was performed.

2.2. Determination of biogenic amines

2.2.1. Chemicals. Acetonitrile (ACN), formic acid (HCOOH), and ammonium formate (HCOONH4) were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). The other chemicals used were p.a. quality from a local supplier (Lachema, Penta). Standards of biogenic amines (histamine, phenylethylamine, tyramine, tryptamine, putrescine, cadaverine, spermidime, spermine, isoamylamine, and 1,6-diaminohexane) were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA).

2.2.2. Wine sample preparation. After centrifugation of the wines $(3,000\times g, 6 \text{ min})$, 20 µL of 0.1 mM (11.62 mg L^{-1}) internal standard (hexamethylenediamine) and 930 µL of 80% ACN with 3 mM HCOONH₄ were added to 50 μ L of wine. The pH was then adjusted to 2.7 with formic acid.

2.2.3. HPLC-MS/MS analysis. Biogenic amine analyses were performed on an ExionLC highpressure binary gradient HPLC system coupled to a 3200QTrap LC-MSMS/MS detector (AB Sciex, Concord, Canada). The ion source was a Turbo V interface equipped with an

electrospray ionisation (ESI) probe. The data were processed using Analyst 1.5.1 software (AB Sciex, Canada).

The mobile phase used consisted of solvent A $(3 \text{ mM HCOONH}_4$ in water) and solvent B $(3 \text{ mM HCOONH}_4$ in 95% can). The pH of both mobile phases was adjusted to 2.7 with HCOOH. The flow rate of the mobile phase was 0.5 mL min⁻¹. The gradient elution program was as follows: 0.00 min 100% B; 3.00 min 70% B; 7.00 min 0% B; and 7.10 min 100% B. The sample injection volume was $5 \mu L$, and the separation temperature was 40 °C.

2.2.4. Detector settings. The ESI source was set in positive mode with an ionisation voltage of 3600 V, curtain gas of 30 psig, nebuliser gas GS1 of 40 psig, turbo gas GS2 of 60 psig, and desolvation temperature (TEM) of 720 °C. The 3200QTrap works was set to multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode with the settings summarised in [Table 1.](#page-3-0)

The total time between two samples was 10 min. The mass detector recorded an analysis in the range of 0.3–8 min. The determination of the individual components was based on the calibration curves of the standards. HDA (1,6-diaminohexane) was used as an internal standard.

2.2.5. Calibration curves. Stock solutions $(1 \text{ mg} \text{ mL}^{-1})$ of each biogenic amine (tryptamine, 2 -phenvethylamine, isoamylamine, puttescine, cadaverine, spermine, spermidine, tyramine, and 2-phenyethylamine, isoamylamine, putrescine, cadaverine, spermine, spermidine, tyramine, and histamine) were prepared in 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in water. For quantification, seven-point calibration curves were constructed in a range from 10 to 1,000 μ g L⁻¹ for all amines, except for spermine, for which a concentration range of 20–2000 μg L^{-1} was used [\(Table 2\)](#page-4-0). To evaluate the effect of the wine matrix, the same series of standard solutions was prepared using a diluted mixed white wine sample (0.9 mL of white wine in 1 mL of standard solution). Calibration samples were prepared in the same way. Calibration and quantification were performed using an external standard. Substances were identified according to their retention times and MRM transitions.

Q1 (m/z)	Q3 (m/z)	RT (min)		DP (V)	EP (V)	CEP (V)	CE (V)	CXP (V)
112	95	4.24	Histamine	31	5.1	6.4	17.6	3.1
122	105	0.91	Phenylethylamine	36	4.0	7.7	16.0	2.7
138	121	1.53	Tyramine	33	4.0	8.8	14.5	2.8
161	144	1.21	Tryptamine	33	3.6	10.1	16.0	3.0
89	72	4.36	Putrescine	27	5.6	5.5	14.0	2.8
103	86	4.20	Cadaverine	30	5.4	7.5	14.0	2.6
146	129	5.13	Spermidine	40	4.2	9.9	16.0	2.9
203	129	5.59	Spermine	57	4.6	5.5	18.2	2.9
88	71	0.83	Isoamylamine	33	5.4	4.4	9.0	2.9
117	100	4.03	1,6-Diaminohexane	32	5.3	7.8	13.8	2.5

Table 1. MRM transitions

Q1 and Q3: precursor and product ions; RT: retention time; DP: potential declustering; EP: entrance potential; CEP: collision cell entrance potential; CE: collision energy; CX: collision cell exit potential; MRM transitions are monitored for each analyte.

BA	Range $(\mu g L^{-1})$	Slope	R^2	LOD $(\mu g L^{-1})$	LOO $(\mu g L^{-1})$	Matrix Slope	Matrix R^2	SSE (%)
Histamine	$10 - 1,000$	523.0	0.9923	0.5	1.5	508.0	0.9874	97.1
Phenyethylamine	$10 - 1,000$	268.0	0.9937	1.0	3.0	271.0	0.9912	101.1
Tyramine	$10 - 1,000$	111.0	0.9879	2.5	7.5	119.0	0.9836	107.2
Tryptamine	$10 - 1,000$	51.4	0.9816	5.0	15.0	48.7	0.9754	94.7
Putrescine	$10 - 1,000$	192.0	0.9854	2.0	6.0	201.0	0.9817	104.7
Cadaverine	$10 - 1,000$	251.0	0.9895	1.0	3.0	265.0	0.9853	105.6
Spermidine	$10 - 1,000$	621.0	0.9968	0.5	1.5	609.0	0.9915	98.1
Spermine	$20 - 2,000$	79.4	0.9745	4.0	12.0	58.4	0.9637	73.6
Isoamylamine	$10 - 1,000$	498.0	0.9873	0.5	3.0	524.0	0.9812	105.2

Table 2. Results of HPLC/HILIC and results for repeatability and reproducibility of biogenic amines (μ g L⁻¹) in white wine

Range: range of determination; slope: coefficients of the regression curves; R^2 : correlation coefficient; LOD: limit of detection; LOQ: limit of quantification; Matrix Slope: coefficients of the regression curves in matrix; Matrix R^2 : correlation coefficient in matrix; SSE: signal suppression enhancement.

2.3. Determination of biogenic amines

The HPLC/HILIC method with electrospray ionisation (ESI) was used for the separation and detection of biogenic amines [\(Table 2](#page-4-0)). The determination of the individual biogenic amines in wine samples was performed by comparison with the MS/MS data obtained for the standards and analysed under the same experimental conditions as in previous studies ([Sagratini et al.,](#page-9-4) [2012](#page-9-4); [Daniel et al., 2015\)](#page-8-7). This method is simple, fast, and without sample derivatisation prior to HPLC analysis ([Tashev et al., 2016](#page-10-1)). An InfinityLab Poroshell 120 (HILIC-Z, 2.1×150 mm, $2.7 \,\mu m$) column was used for analysis.

Linearity was tested at seven concentration levels. The linearity data are presented in [Table 2](#page-4-0). The linearity was satisfactory in all cases with correlation coefficients ($R^2 > 0.97$) ranging from 0.9745 for spermine to 0.9968 for spermidine. The limit of detection (LOD) was determined as the concentration of the analyte that gives a signal equal to the average background (S_{blank}) plus three times the standard deviation of the blank (s_{blank}) as follows: LOD = $S_{\text{blank}} + 3 \times (s_{\text{blank}})$. The limit of quantification (LOQ) was determined using the following equation: LOQ $=$ $3 \times$ LOD. The obtained values for LOD and LOQ ranged from 0.5 to 5 μ g L⁻¹ and from 1.50 to 15 μ g L⁻¹, respectively.

The signal suppression enhancement (SSE) was calculated as the ratio of the slope of the standards in the wine matrix and the slope of the standards prepared without a matrix to evaluate the matrix effect ([Sagratini et al., 2012](#page-9-4)). The wine matrix has a diverse influence on each biogenic amine. SSE >100% is caused by the signal enhancement and more efficient ionisation, whereas SSE <100% is caused by ionisation suppression in the presence of the matrix. A negative influence of the wine matrix was observed for spermine (SSE 73.6), tryptamine (SSE 94.7), histamine (SSE 97.1), and spermidine (SSE 98.1). A positive effect of the wine matrix was observed for phenylethylamine (SSE 101.1), putrescine (SSE 104.7), cadaverine (SSE 105.6), and tyramine (SSE 107.2). Based on these results, this method for the determination of biogenic amines in wine samples using a HILIC column can be successfully used for all studied

biogenic amines with a calibration curve standard in an aqueous solvent. None of the monitored biogenic amines had a signal suppression of more than 73.6%. [Tashev et al. \(2017\)](#page-10-0) used an Agilent Zorbax C18 Plus (100×2.1 mm, 1.8μ m particle size) column and reported a higher signal suppression for spermine (SSE 39), resulting in a higher negative effect of the wine matrix. Chromatograms of standards and samples are in Attachment $1 - 6$, available at the server of Publisher.

2.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis and graphs were created using MS Excel 2010 (Microsoft Office, USA) and Statistica 10 (StatSoft, Czech Republic). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Fischer's least significant difference (LSD) test were used to compare the means ($n = 3$) at the level of significance of $P = 0.05$.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

[Figure 1](#page-6-0) shows the results of the determination of individual biogenic amines, including histamine, isoamylamine, cadaverine, putrescine, spermidine, and spermine, in wines. Phenylethylamine, tyramine, tryptamine, and serotonin were also measured, but these amines were not detected in the wines tested in the present study.

The results of the present study showed that the concentrations of histamine and putrescine were not significantly different in Variants 1 and 2. [Martínez-Pinilla et al. \(2013\)](#page-9-5) found no correlation between total amino acids and total biogenic amines after malolactic fermentation, suggesting that a higher initial concentration of amino acids in the medium does not affect the concentration of biogenic amines after malolactic fermentation. [Martín-Álvarez et al. \(2006\)](#page-9-1) studied the effect of the amount of available amino acids as a consequence of several technological factors, including the length of skin maceration, and they reported that 2- or 4-fold lower concentrations of histamine and putrescine were detected in red wines produced with shorter skin maceration.

Variant 1 contained lower concentrations of isoamylamine, cadaverine, spermidine, and spermine compared to Variant 2. Yeasts generally present in wine are considered responsible for the formation of biogenic amines, such as histidine, tyramine, spermidine, ethanolamine, and cadaverine [\(Caruso et al., 2002](#page-8-2); [Torrea and Ancín, 2002;](#page-10-2) [Landete et al., 2007;](#page-9-6) [Wang et al.,](#page-10-3) [2014\)](#page-10-3). However, the contribution of yeast microflora and amino acid precursors to biogenic acid production in wine is controversial, and the results of different studies are inconsistent. [Vidal-](#page-10-4)[Carou et al. \(1990a\)](#page-10-4) reported formation of histamine and tyramine during alcoholic fermentation, but [Lopéz-Rituerto et al. \(2013\)](#page-9-7) reported that the production of histamine in wine is the consequence of malolactic fermentation and not of alcoholic fermentation. However, in general, it is agreed that BAS formation by LAB during MLF is more significant than the contribution of yeast during alcoholic fermentation ([Vidal-Carou et al., 1990b](#page-10-5); [Goñi and Azpilicueta, 2001](#page-8-8); [Smit](#page-10-6) [et al., 2013](#page-10-6)). The more diverse bacterial microflora caused by spontaneous malolactic fermentation in Variant 2 should cause a significant increase in biogenic amines, which was not confirmed for histamine and putrescine. Lactic acid bacteria can produce biogenic amines simultaneously, and some strains may have more amino acid decarboxylase enzymes ([Coton](#page-8-9) [et al., 1998](#page-8-9); [Moreno-Arribas et al., 2000\)](#page-9-8). Depending on environmental conditions, both Oenococcus oeni strains with histamine-forming capacity and strains without this capacity have been

Fig. 1. Concentration of: A: histamine; B: putrescine; C: cadaverine; D: spermidine; E: spermine; F: isoamylamine (1: sedimented must, inoculated alcoholic fermentation without malolactic fermentation;

2- non-sedimented must, spontaneous fermentation with spontaneous malolactic fermentation)

isolated from wine ([Coton et al., 1998;](#page-8-9) [Moreno-Arribas et al., 2000](#page-9-8); [Landete et al., 2005](#page-9-9); [Garai](#page-8-10) [et al., 2007](#page-8-10)).

Conflicting results have been explained in a review by [Garcia-Moruno and Muñoz \(2012\)](#page-8-11), who suggested that the following factors attribute to the contradictory results: absence of validated controls, such as histamine-producing O. oeni strains; analytical errors affecting the published results; very low reported HIS concentration produced by O. oeni strains; and the

presence of contradictory data for the same strain or method, i.e., Lactobacillus with reference to L. buchneri, L. brevis, L. hilgardii, L. mali, Leuconostoc spp., and L. mesenteroides, which are frequently linked with BA production in wine.

The higher values of several biogenic amines, namely, cadaverine, spermidine, spermine, and isoamylamine, in Variant 2 can be explained by spontaneous malolactic fermentation when there is a different population of lactic bacteria in the wine. [Henríquez-Aedo et al. \(2016\)](#page-9-10) isolated Lactobacillus rhamnosus as the predominant species in Chilean Cabernet Sauvignon, in which spontaneous malolactic fermentation is performed during the wine-making process, and they suggested that *L. rhamnosus*, with the highest aminogenic capacity, is the principal species responsible for biogenic amine formation in their study. Other species of bacteria, such as Pediococcus, also often occur during spontaneous malolactic fermentation and affect not only the formation of biogenic amines but also the further spoilage of wine. [Lonvaud-Funel \(2001\)](#page-9-11) and [Landete et al. \(2007\)](#page-9-6) suggested that *P. damnosus* and *P. parvulus* are responsible for histamine production. Additionally, some uncommon strains of *Enterococcus faecium*, *Glucono*bacter oxydans, Asaia siamensis, Serratia sp., and Enterobacter sp. have been reported in wine, grape, and musts, and these strains can produce histamine [\(Ruiz et al., 2010](#page-9-12); [Capozzi et al., 2011](#page-8-12); [Garcia-Moruno and Muñoz, 2012](#page-8-11); [Pérez-Martín et al., 2014](#page-9-13)).

There are currently no uniform limits in the EU for the content of biogenic amines in wines. The literature has reported that different countries have established upper limits of histamine in wine: 2 mg L⁻¹ in Germany, 5 mg L⁻¹ in Finland, 10 mg L⁻¹ in Australia and Switzerland, 8 mg L⁻¹ in France, 3.5 mg L⁻¹ in Netherlands, and 6 mg L⁻¹ in Belgium [\(Smit et al., 2008](#page-9-14)). In this study, the average concentration of histamine in Variant 1 and 2 was 0.05 mg L^{-1} . OIV with regard to Resolution OENO 4/97, in view of the actions K.4 of the 2009–2012 strategic plan of the OIV, which intends in particular to propose the means to detect and limit the presence of contaminants in vine-based products; and taking into account the principles provided for in Resolution CST 1/2004 on the development of a sustainable viticulture and resolution CST 1/2008, decides to adopt, as follows, the code of good vitivinicultural practices in order to minimise the presence of biogenic amines in wines, establishing the actions to be carried out in vineyards and wineries to help reduce the risks related to the presence of biogenic amines in wines ([OIV, 2011\)](#page-9-15).

4. CONCLUSIONS

The HPLC/HILIC method with ESI was used for separation and detection of biogenic compounds without sample derivatisation prior to HPLC analysis. This method was successfully used to determine the most abundant biogenic amines in wine samples. None of the monitored biogenic amines had a signal suppression of more than 73.6%.

Statistically significant differences were found in the concentrations of cadaverine, isoamylamine, spermine, and spermidine. The highest values were found in Variant 2, which was made from nonsedimented must fermented spontaneously and with malolactic fermentation.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at [https://doi.org/10.1556/066.2022.](https://doi.org/10.1556/066.2022.00247) [00247.](https://doi.org/10.1556/066.2022.00247)

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