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1	Research Article
2	Sensory Impact of Extended Maceration
3	and Regulated Deficit Irrigation in Washington State
4	Cabernet Sauvignon Wines
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18 19	Copyright © 2013 by the American Society for Enology and Viticulture. All rights reserved.
20	Abstract: Irrigation practices such as regulated deficit irrigation (RDI) and winemaking
21	practices such as extended maceration have been experimentally evaluated from a chemical
22	perspective but their impacts on sensory analysis and interactive effects remain underexplored.
23	This study evaluated the sensory impact of extended maceration applied to Cabernet Sauvignon
24	grapes sourced from a vineyard subjected to four RDI treatments: (1) 100% replenishment of
25	crop evapotranspiration (100% ET_c); (2) 70% ET_c ; (3) 25% ET_c until veraison followed by 100%
26	ET_c until harvest; and (4) 25% ET_c . Each RDI treatment was replicated four times (n = 4) and
27	made into wine, with two replicates designated as controls (10 day skin contact) and two as
28	extended maceration (30 day skin contact). Wines were evaluated by descriptive analysis with a
29	trained panel ($n = 15$) and chemical and sensory data were correlated using canonical correlation
30	analysis. Wine-perceived saturation and purple component ratings were highest in 25% ET_{c}

31 wines and were highly correlated with the concentration of flavonols, malvidin- and delphinidin-32 derivatives, and small polymeric pigments. Fruit-based aroma descriptors were highest in the 33 25/100% ET_c and 70% ET_c wines. Extended maceration increased perceived astringency and 34 bitterness, which were in turn correlated with the concentration of flavan-3-ol and oligomeric 35 proanthocyanidins. These results suggest that moderate RDI protocols such as 70% ET_c and 36 25/100% ET_c impact positively the fruity aroma component (black and red fruit), whereas 37 extended maceration lowered fruity aromas, possibly due to the masking effect of the oxidized 38 character perceived in these wines.

39 Key words: extended maceration, regulated deficit irrigation, wine aroma, oxidation,
40 astringency, bitterness

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Introduction

42 In wines, observed variations in sensory attributes such as color (hue and saturation) and 43 taste and mouthfeel properties (such as bitterness and astringency) are primarily the result of the 44 composition and concentration of two phenolic classes, anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins 45 (Lesschaeve and Noble 2005, Preys et al. 2006). Anthocyanins are pigments that modulate wine 46 color directly due to their spectral properties and indirectly by participating in reactions such as 47 copigmentation resulting in the typical hyperchromic shift (i.e., more color) and bathochromic 48 shift (i.e., more purple color) observed in young red wines (Boulton 2001). Isolated anthocyanins 49 are tasteless or indistinctly flavored (Vidal et al. 2004). However, upon reaction with 50 proanthocyanidins during winemaking, polymeric pigments are formed and these can in turn 51 modulate astringency (Weber et al. 2013).

52 Proanthocyanidins (also referred to as tannins) and, to a lesser extent, monomeric flavan-53 3-ols, display high affinity for proline-rich proteins found in the saliva of humans and other 54 mammals (Mehansho et al. 1987, Poncet-Legrand et al. 2007). The tactile sensation of 55 astringency arises from the formation of proanthocyanidin-protein complexes upon contact of the 56 wine proanthocyanidins with the oral epithelium in a reaction driven by both hydrophobic 57 interactions and hydrogen bonding (Baxter et al. 1997, Simon et al. 2003). Epicatechin-3-O-58 gallate and catechin can precipitate proline-rich proteins when the molar ratio of flavan-3-ols to 59 protein exceeds 27 (Poncet-Legrand et al. 2006), which highlights the potential cooperative role 60 of flavan-3-ols on astringency perception in red wine.

61 Management of the maceration period during red wine production is arguably the most 62 common practice to achieve the selective diffusion of phenolics, aroma precursors, and free 63 aroma compounds from the skins, seeds, and stems (when present). Extended maceration (EM) is 64 a widely used winemaking technique based on extending the contact of the fermentation solids 65 with the wine after fermentation is completed (Sacchi et al. 2005, Casassa et al. 2013a). This 66 technique has been used to alter the mouthfeel of the wines, possibly by facilitating 67 proanthocyanidin extraction and the formation of polymeric pigments (Harbertson et al. 2009, 68 Casassa et al. 2013a). However, changes in mouthfeel induced by extended maceration may also 69 arise from modifications in proanthocyanidin structure or size, resulting in a sensory impact 70 beyond that of their concentration in solution.

In addition to its role on the extraction of anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins, contact of the must/wine with the fermentation solids is also needed to extract the precursors of aroma compounds that ultimately define red wine aroma. However, longer maceration time does not necessarily result in an enhancement of fruity aromas in the resulting wines (Harbertson et al.

2009, Casassa et al. 2013a) because the maceration time may have competing effects on the
volatile component composition depending on the rate of release from the tissues, formation of
other compounds (such as acetaldehyde), and/or physical absorption or binding (Callejón et al.
2012).

79 Reports on the effect of regulated deficit irrigation (RDI) and other irrigation alternatives 80 on the sensory profile of the wines are few and often conflicting. In a study of the sensory 81 properties in Cabernet Sauvignon subjected to three drip irrigation treatments-minimal 82 irrigation, standard irrigation (32 L water/vine/week), and double irrigation (64 L 83 water/vine/week)—descriptive analysis showed that vine water deficits led to wines with fruitier 84 and less vegetal aromas and a reduced astringency, as compared with vines with high vine water 85 status (Chapman et al. 2005). In an evaluation of the sensory attributes of Merlot wines produced 86 from vines under differing levels of water stress (35, 70, 100, and 35 to 70% of crop 87 evapotranspiration, ET_c), results indicated that preveraison deficit at 35% ET_c increased fruity 88 aromas and that preveraison deficit followed by ET_c reposition of 70% increased the drying 89 mouthfeel in the resulting wines (Ou et al. 2010). In both of these studies, chromatic properties 90 and perceived color of wines were not examined.

The present study expands on a previous investigation that described the chemical features of wines produced from a combination of two contrasting skin contact treatments (control, 10-day skin contact; extended maceration (EM, 30-day skin contact) applied to fruit produced under four RDI treatments (100% ET_c, 70% ET_c, 25/100% ET_c, and 25% ET_c) (Casassa et al. 2013b). The objectives of the present work were to generate a descriptive analysis of the wines with emphasis on color, aroma, and mouthfeel properties to understand the

97 individual and combined sensory effect of skin contact time and RDI treatments and to elucidate 98 relationships between the chemical and sensory compositions of the wines.

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Materials and Methods

101 Experimental design. Own-rooted Vitis vinifera cv. Cabernet Sauvignon (clone 8) grown in the 102 Cold Creek vinevard of Ste. Michelle Wine Estates, southeast of Mattawa, Washington State (lat. 103 46°57'N; long. 119°89'W) was manually harvested on 12 Oct 2011 and processed at the 104 Washington State University (WSU) research winery facility. The experimental design consisted 105 of a combination of four RDI treatments: (1) 100% ET_c, replenishment of 100% of full-vine 106 evapotranspiration (ET_c) from fruit set through harvest; (2) 70% ET_c and (3) 25% ET_c, defined in 107 the same way as treatment 1; and (4) 25/100% ET_c, which consisted of 25% ET_c from fruit set to 108 veraison followed by 100% ET_c from veraison to harvest. In addition, there were two 109 winemaking skin contact treatments applied in duplicate using two of the four field replicates of 110 each RDI treatment—control wines, with a 10-day skin contact period, and extended maceration 111 wines (EM), with a 30-day skin contact period—for a total of 16 wines. More details on the 112 vineyard site, winemaking protocol, and chemical analysis in the fruit and in the wines are 113 described elsewhere (Casassa et al. 2013b). Monomeric anthocyanins and flavonols were 114 determined by HPLC-DAD-MS. Protein precipitable tannins, iron-reactive phenolics, large 115 polymeric pigments, and small polymeric pigments were measured as detailed elsewhere 116 (Harbertson et al. 2003).

117 **Descriptive analysis.** Descriptive analysis of the wines was conducted after three months of 118 bottle aging as described by Lawless and Heymann (2010). A prescreening of the wines by four 119 experienced wine tasters ensured that the wines were different enough to justify a descriptive

120 analysis and also that they were free of sulfur-like or other off-odors. A trained panel was 121 convened (n = 17, 10 females and 7 males, ages ranging from 24 to 63 years). No information 122 about the nature of the study was provided in order to reduce bias, and the WSU Institutional 123 Review Board for human subject participation approved the project. Panelists were screened for 124 both potential color deficiencies and bitterness sensitivity (also known as PROP status) as 125 detailed previously (Casassa et al. 2013a). The results of these tests indicated that none of the 126 panelists had color deficiencies and that the panel was composed of 25% nontasters, 13% 127 medium tasters and 62%, supertasters (Pickering et al. 2004).

128 Panel training and evaluation. Panelists were trained during seven sessions each lasting 129 one hour with an additional session for review of standards and self-calibration. After 130 terminology development, four color components (purple, red, brown, and saturation), three 131 aroma attributes (red fruit, black fruit, and oxidized character), and two mouthfeel attributes 132 (astringency and bitterness) were retained upon general consensus. Astringency was defined as 133 the puckering or lack of lubrication sensation around the gums immediately after expectoration 134 of the wine (Gawel et al. 2000). During the training and evaluation sessions, a 15 cm 135 unstructured line scale was used, labeled with terms *low* and *high* at the 1 cm and 14 cm mark 136 from the left side of the scale, respectively. Except for the purple, red and brown color 137 components, the standards were prepared at low, medium, and high levels (Table 1), representing 138 anchors located at 1 cm, 7.5 cm, and 14 cm, respectively, from the left end of the unstructured 139 scale. An example of each standard at the three intensity levels was initially presented to the 140 panelists, but the final intensity of each attribute was modified upon panelist feedback (Table 1).

141 The experimental wines were evaluated during five formal evaluation sessions. Panelists
142 tasted six or seven wines per evaluation session. Wines and their replicates were presented

143 monadically and evaluated twice following a randomized William Latin Square block design for 144 control of possible carryover effects, yielding a final count of 480 observations (16 wines \times 15 145 panelists \times 2 replicates) for each attribute. Panelists assessed the wines in individual booths (20 ± 146 2°C), lighted with Lumichrome full spectrum lamps (6,500 K) in the WSU Sensory Laboratory. 147 Aliquots of wine (30 mL) at room temperature were poured into wineglasses coded with three-148 digit random numbers and covered with aluminum lids to trap volatiles. To reduce buildup and 149 carryover effects, bitterness was evaluated prior to astringency. Prior to astringency evaluation, 150 panelists were instructed to chew one cracker, rinse with deionized water, and forced to wait at 151 least 4 min between samples during which they assessed the color components of another 152 sample. Results were collected on ballots with responses (in cm) decoded manually. After the 153 formal evaluation sessions, panelist performance was monitored by assessing the correlation of 154 the individual panelist with the panel mean and by their contribution to the panelist \times wine 155 interaction for each attribute. Based on these analyses, it was decided to remove data from two 156 panelists (final n = 15).

157 Materials and standards. Six-n-propylthiouracil (PROP), caffeine (food grade), and 158 acetaldehyde (>99% purity) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). For preparation 159 of reference standards (Table 1), raspberry jam and blackberry jam (Smucker's, Orrville, OH) 160 and blueberry/blackcurrant preserve (Mackays, Arbroath, Scotland) were obtained through local 161 grocery stores. Freeze-dried powdered strawberries were obtained from WSU Prosser. Reference 162 standards for aroma were prepared using a base wine (Paisano Red, Carlo Rossi Vineyards, 163 Modesto, CA) previously stripped of most aroma compounds under reduced pressure $(30^{\circ}C \times 45)$ 164 min/L) using a Büchi Syncore Polyvap (Flawil, Switzerland). Astringency standards were 165 prepared using a 2010 Cabernet Sauvignon wine and a 2010 Merlot wine produced at the WSU

166 winery. Bitterness and color standards were prepared using as a base wine a 2010 Merlot 167 produced at the WSU winery. The color components and saturation standards were obtained by 168 varying the pH and/or by addition of acetaldehyde, H_2O_2 , and SO_2 , with specifications reported 169 as CIELab units (Table 1). Unsalted crackers (Great Value, Bentonville, AR) and deionized 170 (18.2 MΩ[·]cm resistivity) water (Mili-Q, EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA) were provided for 171 palate cleansing. To avoid perceptual bias due to color, tulip-shaped cobalt black glasses 172 (Libbey, Toledo, OH) were used for evaluation of aroma and mouthfeel attributes. Clear ISO 173 wineglasses (ISO 1977) were used only for color evaluations.

174 **Data analysis.** The significance of effect of RDI, skin contact time, and their interaction 175 was analyzed by a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with separation of the means 176 accomplished using Fisher's LSD and the significance value established as p < 0.05 using 177 XLSTAT ver. 2011 (Addinsoft, Paris, France). Principal component analysis (PCA) using the 178 correlation matrix with no rotation was applied on the wine sensory data, including the 179 replicates, using R software (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). 180 Confidence ellipses indicating 95% confidence intervals were based on the multivariate 181 distribution of the Hotelling's test for p < 0.05 and were constructed using SensoMineR 182 panellipse function on R as described in Husson et al. (2005). Two-way canonical correlation 183 analysis with clustered image maps to relate sensory and chemical data was obtained using the 184 mix0mics package of the R software according to González et al. (2012).

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Results and Discussion

187 *Chemical composition of the wines.* A detailed discussion of the chemical composition of the188 wines in this study has been reported previously (Casassa et al. 2013b). Therefore, only a brief

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American Journal of Enology and Viticulture (AJEV). doi: 10.5344/ajev.2013.13068 AJEV Papers in Press are peer-reviewed, accepted articles that have not yet been published in a print issue of the journal or edited or formatted, but may be cited by DOI. The final version may contain substantive or nonsubstantive changes.

189 summary is given here of chromatic composition, anthocyanins, polymeric pigments, iron 190 reactive phenolics and flavonols, and proanthocyanidin composition with the reported proportion 191 of skin- and seed-derived tannins for the individual Cabernet Sauvignon wines (n = 16). In terms 192 of chromatic differences, the control wines had generally lower lightness values (L*) than their 193 EM counterparts (Table 2). With regard to the effect of RDI, the 25% ET_c treatment produced 194 wines with overall higher saturation (C^*) , hue (H^*) , and yellow component (b^*) values than the 195 other RDI treatments. In terms of phenolic parameters, anthocyanins were generally higher in 196 control wines (with the sole exception of the 25/100% ET_c control and EM treatments), whereas 197 iron-reactive phenolics were consistently higher in the EM wines (Table 3). The 25% ET_c RDI 198 treatment resulted in an increase in wine anthocyanins and small polymeric pigments but the 199 effect was less clear-cut for the remaining phenolics and the other RDI treatments. Protein-200 precipitable tanning and oligometric proanthocyaniding were higher in EM wines, whereas flavan-201 3-ols were higher in the EM wines of the 25/100% ET_c and 25% ET_c control treatments. The 202 proportion of skin- and seed-derived tannins affected by the RDI and skin contact treatments 203 showed an unclear trend in the one-way ANOVA analysis, likely due to the rather small sample 204 size and thus insufficient statistical power. However, in an earlier study, a two-way ANOVA 205 captured a significant effect of the skin contact treatment with an overall proportion of 55% of 206 seed-derived tannins in control wines versus 73% of seed-derived tannins in EM wines (Casassa 207 et al. 2013b). Once again, the effect of the RDI treatment on protein-precipitable tannins and 208 proanthocyanidin composition was less evident than the effect of the skin contact treatment.

209 **Descriptive analysis.** The main goal of this study was to assess the sensory impact of 210 extended maceration applied to Cabernet Sauvignon grapes produced using four different RDI 211 protocols. To that end, a descriptive analysis with a trained panel was conducted to determine

specific sensory effects of both the maceration and the RDI treatments. Potential synergistic or antagonistic sensory effects of extended maceration on the fruit of the different RDI treatments were also explored. A fixed-effect two-way ANOVA with interaction was performed on the sensory data (Table 5). The RDI treatment influenced the sensory profile of the wines, with particular impact on color, taste (bitterness), and mouthfeel (astringency) components. However, the effect of the maceration treatment prevailed in all the sensory attributes, a trend also previously reported for wine chemical composition.

219 A significant RDI treatment \times winemaking interaction was observed for the purple and 220 red color components, black fruit aroma, and bitterness. The significance of the interaction for 221 these attributes called for reevaluation of the treatment effects and first-order interactions by one-222 way ANOVA (Table 6). The purple component was more (negatively) affected in the 70% ET_c 223 treatment than in the other RDI treatments upon application of EM. Additionally, a two-way 224 ANOVA applied to the previously reported anthocyanin content of the wines at day 250 225 (coincident with the sensory analysis) revealed a small yet significant RDI × winemaking effect 226 for anthocyanins (p = 0.044) (Casassa et al. 2013b). This effect followed the same direction 227 observed in the visual purple component, which explains the observed sensory interaction.

There was also a significant RDI × winemaking interaction for the black fruit aroma component (Table 5). A one-way ANOVA indicated that the perception of the black fruit aroma decreased proportionally more in the 25% ET_c treatment than in the other treatments upon EM, although the reason for this decrease is unknown. However, extended maceration in general decreased the perception of the black fruit aroma (Table 6). Recently, Callejón et al. (2012) reported that in microfermentations (1 L) of Cabernet Sauvignon wines, some norisoprenoids such as β -damascenone could be selectively bound by the skins and other fermentation solids

during prolonged maceration, thereby decreasing their volatility. In turn, β -damascenone has been shown to synergistically increase the perception of the black fruit note (Pineau et al. 2007), which may explain the lower ratings of the black fruit attribute in extended maceration wines. Lastly, bitterness was also comparatively more accentuated in the 70% ET_c treatment upon EM than in the wines of the others RDI treatments.

240 **Principal component analysis.** To further explore the comparative influence of both the 241 maceration and the RDI treatments on the sensory profile of the wines, the full data set was 242 subject to principal component analysis (PCA), including the wine replicates and the repeated 243 measures performed during the formal evaluation sessions. The PCA biplot and confidence 244 ellipses were constructed with 95% certainty according to the Hotteling's test (Husson et al. 245 2005), which provides significance testing. Only the first two principal components with 246 eigenvalues greater than or equal to one were retained (Figure 1). The PCA plot showed a 247 bidimensional model that explained 94% of the observed variability. Dimension 1, which 248 explained $\sim 76\%$ of the variability, was a function of the maceration treatment, which suggests a 249 comparatively higher impact of the EM treatment over the RDI treatments on the sensory profile 250 of the wines. Irrespective of the RDI treatment, control wines clustered in the negative region of 251 dimension 1, whereas EM wines grouped on the positive region of dimension 1. There were 252 strong correlations between EM wines and the red and brown color components, oxidized 253 character, astringency and bitterness, all located in the positive side of dimension 1 (Figure 1). It 254 has been previously shown that extended maceration for 30 days or more increased astringency 255 ratings by 22% in Cabernet Sauvignon (Scudamore-Smith et al. 1990) and by 34% in Merlot 256 (Casassa et al. 2013a). Similarly, in the present study, astringency ratings averaged 25% higher 257 in EM wines relative to the control wines (Table 5).

258 Bitterness perception was also affected by extended maceration. Although previous 259 reports of the effects of extended maceration on bitterness perception are not conclusive 260 (Yokotsuka et al. 2000, Casassa et al. 2013a), the present work has shown an average increase of 261 26% in the bitterness ratings of EM wines relative to those of the control wines (Table 5). This 262 increase can also be further corroborated by inspection of the relative position of the ellipses for 263 the EM wines and the loadings for bitterness in the PCA analysis. Monomeric flavan-3-ols 264 content was generally higher in EM wines (Table 4). Because catechin and epicatechin are 265 known to primarily elicit bitterness (Lesschaeve and Noble 2005), higher amounts of these 266 monomers in EM wines may explain the observed higher bitterness ratings. In addition, 267 bitterness as a result of the oligometric and protein-precipitable tannin content in EM wines 268 (Table 4) may also contribute to overall bitterness perception, but this hypothesis merits further 269 research.

The PCA sensory loadings on the negative side of dimension 1 (Figure 1B) strongly associated the control wines with the purple component and saturation visual descriptors and the black and red fruit aroma descriptors. Overall CIELab chromatic differences between any given control and EM wines were detected at day 250 (Table 2), and these differences were most apparent in control wines. These results suggest that purple component and saturation were the two color components directly related to higher perceived color in the control wines.

Comparatively higher ratings for fruit aroma attributes in the control wines (or lower
ratings of both fruit aroma components in EM wines) (Table 5) can be attributed (but may not be
limited) either to a genuine increase in the headspace concentration of these two aroma attributes
in the control wines or to a masking effect resulting from the oxidized character in EM wines.
Many compounds, including heptenal, methional, and phenylacetaldehyde, have been associated

281 with the perception of oxidation in red wines (San Juan et al. 2012). However, in the context of 282 the present study, acetaldehyde formation by metal-catalyzed oxidation of ethanol during 283 extended maceration seems more plausible (Danilewicz 2003). Acetaldehyde at levels above its 284 detection threshold bears a negative sensory connotation, and this compound was used as a 285 standard for the oxidized character during the training of the sensory panel (Table 1). 286 Furthermore, quinones resulting from the coupled oxidation of polyphenols can readily bind 287 nucleophiles such mercaptans and thiols bearing fruity notes (Nikolantonaki et al. 2010), thus 288 lowering perceived fruitiness. However, the generation of an oxidized character and a decrease 289 in the fruit aroma of the wine may not necessarily be a causative result of the application of 290 extended maceration, as other studies have found no significant increases of the oxidative 291 character upon extended maceration (Casassa et al. 2013a) or no effect of it in the wine's fruit 292 flavor (Harbertson et al. 2009). In the present study, the oxidized character did develop after the 293 extended maceration, although the ratings for the oxidized character in these wines averaged 3 294 cm on the 15 cm unstructured scale (Table 2), which is in the low perception range of the scale. 295 However low this oxidative character, it was enough to reduce the ratings of red and black fruit 296 in the EM wines by 26% and by 21%, respectively, relative to the control wines.

The sensory impact of the RDI treatment was a function of dimension 2, which explained 17% of the residual variability of dimension 1. Wines from the 100% ET_c treatment clustered at the lower end of dimension 2 (Figure 1A), indicating the lowest perception for color, fruity aromas, and mouthfeel attributes. The 100% ET_c treatment was included in the experimental design to explore the relationship between the application of an irrigation protocol based on replenishment of the full evapotranspirative demand and the generation of vegetative aromas in the resulting wines under the premise that a more vigorous canopy would lead to an

304 enhancement of vegetative aromas (Allen and Lacey 1993). However, the vegetal component 305 was confirmed to be absent in the 100% ET_c wines (and in all the wines) and thus was not 306 selected as a discrimination term during the panel evaluations. This result suggests that, under 307 some combinations of cultivar, clone, climate, and soil, supplying the full evaporative demand 308 does not necessarily lead to vegetative flavors in the resulting wines.

309 The wines of the 70% ET_c and 25/100% ET_c treatments were distributed in the medial 310 region of dimension 2 defined by the aromatic descriptors red and black fruit aroma (control 311 wines) and the chromatic descriptors red and brown component (EM wines) (Figure 1). Although 312 not necessarily causative, the application of different RDI protocols have been linked to 313 enhanced concentration of fruity norisoprenoids in the resulting wines (Oian et al. 2009, Ou et al. 314 2010). The interconversion of carotenoids to odorant C_{13} -norisoprenoids has yet to be 315 conclusively established, but it is believed that reduced vine vigor may result in increased sun 316 exposure and berry temperature in the fruiting zone, thereby leading to carotenoid degradation 317 with the concomitant increase in C₁₃-norisoprenoids precursors (Kondouras et al. 2006, Bindon 318 et al. 2007). While we did not identify these compounds analytically, the generalized trend for 319 the sensory results presented here is consistent with these previous studies. Finally, the 25% ET_c 320 treatment generated wines with higher purple component and saturation in the control wines, 321 consistent with comparatively higher content of anthocyanins and small polymeric pigments in 322 these wines (Table 3). When the 25% ET_c treatment was processed with EM, the sensory profile 323 shifted toward a pronounced oxidized character, bitterness, and astringency.

Also of significance was the overlap of the 70% ET_c control and 25/100% ET_c control wines on the left side of dimension 1 (Figure 1). The ellipses represent empirical descriptions of the variability of the sensory evaluations (Husson et al. 2005), and if the ellipses are

superimposed, then the wines then are not significantly different from a sensory standpoint.
Conversely, the general absence of overlap in six out of the eight treatments highlights the
magnitude of the sensory differences. Furthermore, the compression of the ellipses is an
indication of the reliability of the panel data.

331 **Correlation between chemical and sensory data.** The relationship between the 332 significant chemical features of the wines and their sensory properties was examined by 333 canonical correlation analysis (Figure 2). In addition to an agglomerative hierarchical cluster 334 analysis of the chemical and sensory data sets, the correlation coefficients between any given 335 pair of variables in the two retained dimensions are also provided (González et al. 2012). Shared 336 cluster membership indicates the strength of the relationship between the canonical variates for 337 both the chemical and sensory variables. For the chemical and sensory data sets, the cluster 338 containing the highest number of variables was labeled cluster 1, the cluster with the next highest 339 number of variables was labeled cluster 2, and so forth. For the chemical analyses, cluster 1 is 340 composed of all the anthocyanin derivatives except cyanidin, skin-derived proanthocyanidins, 341 total flavonols, quercetin derivatives, small polymeric pigments, the red CIELab component (a^*) , 342 and saturation (C*). Cluster 2 is composed of flavan-3-ols, oligometric and polymetric 343 proanthocyanidins, seed-derived proanthocyanidins, protein precipitable tannins, iron reactive 344 phenolics, lightness (L*), and cyanidin derivatives. Cluster 3 is composed of large polymeric 345 pigments, the yellow CIELab component (b*), and the hue angle (H*). For the sensory data set, 346 three main clusters were identified. Cluster 1 is composed of astringency, bitterness, oxidized 347 character, and red and brown color components. Cluster 2 is composed of saturation and purple 348 component, whereas cluster 3 consists of red and black fruit aromas. To understand which 349 chemical variables were positively or negatively correlated with the sensory variables, the cluster

350 image map provides the observed correlation coefficient values between any pair of variables. 351 Positive correlation coefficients close to 0.93 were observed between protein precipitable 352 tannins, iron-reactive phenolics, and oligometric proanthocyanidins as well as astringency, 353 bitterness, and brown component. These sensory attributes define the sensory profile of extended 354 maceration wines, thus suggesting that for the wines analyzed here, bitterness and astringency 355 are highly correlated with the content of oligometric proanthocyanidins ($2 \leq$ mean degree of 356 polymerization > 5) and also with protein-precipitable tannins, seed-derived proanthocyanidins. 357 and overall phenolic concentration. Likewise, positive correlation coefficients were observed 358 between the color sensory attributes saturation and purple component and the chemical attributes 359 flavonols, guercetin derivatives, small polymeric pigments, a*, C*, and malvidin and delphinidin 360 derivatives. As control wines were chromatically (Table 2) and sensorially (Table 5) more 361 colored than EM wines, the aforementioned chemical variables may most likely be responsible 362 for the perceived color features of control wines. In particular, a positive correlation between small polymeric pigments, C*, and monomeric anthocyanins has been previously reported in 363 364 Merlot wines obtained after 10 day skin contact (Casassa et al. 2013a), consistent with the results 365 reported here. Positive correlations were also observed between flavan-3-ol content and the 366 perception of both astringency and bitterness, suggesting that at the concentration of these 367 monomers in EM wines (overall mean: 346 ± 37 mg/L, n = 8), the perception of both bitterness 368 and astringency could be at least partially explained by the occurrence of a comparatively higher 369 concentration of flavan-3-ols and oligometric proanthocyanidins. Nevertheless, since astringency 370 and bitterness are also correlated with multiple phenolic measures (e.g., oligomeric 371 proanthocyanidins, protein-precipitable tannins, iron-reactive phenolics), the occurrence of a 372 single causative effect is unlikely.

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Conclusions

374 The sensory effects of extended maceration and four different RDI treatments and some 375 of their interactive effects were studied under winemaking conditions comparable with those of a 376 commercial scale. While the application of the different RDI treatments primarily produced 377 differences in color, astringency, and bitterness in the resulting wines, the effect of the two 378 contrasting maceration treatments affected all sensory attributes. Thus, under our experimental 379 conditions, the maceration treatments had a comparatively higher impact than the RDI treatments 380 in the sensory and chemical profile of the wines.

381 Chromatic attributes were significant in the of the 25% ET_c control treatment and were 382 also highly correlated with the flavonol and anthocyanin derivatives and small polymeric 383 pigments. Red and black fruit aroma attributes were favored in the controls of the 70% ET_c and 384 25/100% ET_c treatments. These results suggest that moderate RDI protocols such as 70% ET_c 385 and 25/100% ET_c positively impact the fruity component of wine aroma, possibly by favoring 386 accumulation of norisoprenoids, whereas more severe RDI protocols such as 25% ET_c increased perceived color saturation, astringency, and bitterness. Extended maceration resulted in wines 387 388 with comparatively lower fruit-based aromas and perceived wine color saturation, but enhanced 389 the perception of bitterness and astringency, with the latter possibly arising from the concurrent 390 effect of a high concentration of flavan-3-ols and oligomeric proanthocyanidins in these wines. 391 Thus, extended maceration for 30 days or more appears to have limited merit as a winemaking 392 practice. If wines with high tannin content are sought for stylistic or blending purposes, then 393 practices such as prefermentation runoff (saignée) may be a more rational option in light of 394 optimizing winery logistics.

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 Table 1 Ingredients, specifications, and lexicon of sensory analysis standards used during the training and formal evaluation sessions.

-	Level							
Reference standard	Low	Medium	High					
Aroma ^a								
Red fruit character	1.1 g raspberry jam and 40 mg freeze-dried powdered strawberries	4.5 g raspberry jam and 150 mg freeze-dried powdered strawberries	7.5 g raspberry jam and 250 mg freeze-dried powdered strawberries					
Black fruit character	3 g each blackberry jam and blueberry/ blackcurrant preserve	4.5 g each blackberry jam and blueberry/ blackcurrant preserve	9 g each blackberry jam and blueberry/ blackcurrant preserve					
Oxidized character	56 μL acetaldehyde	150 µL acetaldehyde	$300 \ \mu L$ acetaldehyde					
Color ^b								
Purple component	NA	NA	$L^* = 28.2; C^* = 64.6;$ $H^* = 25.1; a^* = 58.5;$ $b^* = 27.4$					
Red component	NA	NA	$L^* = 35.4; C^* = 58.4;$ $H^* = 22.0; a^* = 54.1;$ $b^* = 21.9$					
Brown component	NA	NA	$L^* = 61.3; C^* = 40.6;$ $H^* = 42.4; a^* = 29.9;$ $b^* = 27.4$					
Saturation	C* = 22.9	C* = 50.5	C* = 64.6					
Taste/mouthfeel								
Bitterness ^c	No addition	75 mg caffeine	200 mg caffeine					
Astringency ^d	188 mg/L PPT	649 mg/L PPT	1583 mg/L PPT					

^aAroma standards prepared at three levels and dissolved in 750 mL base wine (Paisano Red) stripped of aroma compounds under reduced pressure ($30^{\circ}C \times 45$ min).

^bBase wine: 2010 Merlot. NA: not applicable. CIELab values: L*: lightness; C*: saturation or chroma; H*: hue; a*: red component; b*: blue component.

^cBase wine: 2010 Merlot.

^dBase wine: 2010 Merlot (188 mg/L protein-precipitable tannins [PPT]); 56/44 blend 2010 Merlot and 2010 Cabernet Sauvignon (649 mg/L PPT); 2010 Cabernet Sauvignon (1583 mg/L PPT).

Table 2 One-way ANOVA of CIELab color parameters of Cabernet Sauvignon wines subjected to four different regulated deficit irrigation regimes (RDI) and two skin contact time treatments (EM) at day 250 postcrushing.

RDI ^a	Skin contact ^b	L*	C*	H*	a*	b*
100% ET _c	Control	44.5 cde ^c	53.5 a	10.7 a	52.8 abc	10.0 a
100% ET _c	EM	49.8 f	50.6 a	11.4 a	49.6 a	10.0 a
7 00/ FT	Control	40.8 bc	55.4 ab	11.9 a	54.2 bc	11.4 a
70% ET _c	EM	49.5 ef	50.6 a	12.2 ab	49.5 a	10.7 a
25/1000/ ET	Control	41.9 cd	55.2 ab	10.9 a	54.2 bc	10.5 a
25/100% ET _c	EM	46.7 ef	52.9 a	11.7 a	51.8 ab	10.8 a
250/ ET	Control	34.2 a	59.1 b	15.6 bc	56.8 c	15.9 b
25% ET _c	EM	36.8 ab	58.9 b	16.3 c	56.5 c	16.5 b
<i>p</i> value		0.001	0.024	0.034	0.029	0.025

^a100% ET_c: replenishment of 100% of full-vine evapotranspiration from fruit set through harvest; 70% ET_c and 25% ET_c defined in the same fashion; 25/100% ET_c: 25% ET_c from fruit set to veraison followed by 100% ET_c from veraison to harvest.

^bControl (10 days skin contact); EM: extended maceration (30 days skin contact).

^cWithin a column, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Fisher's LSD test at p < 0.05.

Table 3 One-way ANOVA of selected phenolic parameters of Cabernet Sauvignon wines subjected to four different regulated deficit irrigation regimes (RDI) and two skin contact time treatments at day 250 postcrushing.

RDI ^a	Skin contact ^b	Anthocyanins (mg/L malvidin- 3-glucoside)	SPP (AU 520 nm)	LPP (AU 520 nm)	Iron-reactive phenolics (mg/L CE ^c)	Flavonols (mg/L quercetin- 3-glucoside)
1000/ ET	Control	342 bc ^d	1.8 ab	1.0 ab	1857 abc	98 ab
100% ET _c	EM	271 a	1.5 a	0.8 a	2384 d	84 a
700/ 57	Control	392 c	2.1 bc	1.3 ab	1765 b	109 abc
70% ET _c	EM	282 ab	1.8 ab	0.8 a	2423 d	84 a
25/1000/ ET	Control	352 c	2.1 bc	0.7 a	1665 a	107 abc
25/100% ET _c	EM	325 abc	1.9 b	0.8 a	2239 bcd	101 ab
250/ ET	Control	485 d	2.8 d	1.3 ab	1767 ab	139 c
25% ET _c	EM	377 с	2.4 cd	1.5 b	2642 d	128 bc
p value		0.0010	0.0017	0.1082	0.0161	0.0298

^a100% ET_c: replenishment of 100% of full-vine evapotranspiration from fruit set through harvest; 70% ET_c and 25% ET_c defined in the same fashion; 25/100% ET_c: 25% ET_c from fruit set to veraison followed by 100% ET_c from veraison to harvest.

^bControl (10 days skin contact); EM: extended maceration (30 days skin contact).

^cCatechin equivalents.

^dWithin a column, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Fisher's LSD test at p < 0.05.

Table 4 One-way ANOVA of protein-precipitable tannins (PPT), proanthocyanidin (PA) composition, and proportion of skin- and seed-derived tannins of Cabernet Sauvignon wines subjected to four different regulated deficit irrigation regimes (RDI) and two skin contact time treatments at day 250 postcrushing.

RDI ^a	Skin contact ^b	PPT (mg/L CE ^c)	Flavan-3-ols (mg/L CE)	Oligomeric PA (mg/L CE)	Polymeric PA (mg/L CE)	Skin-derived tannins (%)	Seed-derived tannins (%)
1000/ ET	Control	732 abc ^d	133 a	366 a	491 a	29 abc	71 bcd
100% ET _c	EM	878 cd	285 bc	989 c	688 abc	23 ab	76 cd
700/ ET	Control	703 abc	279 bc	578 b	437 a	59 d	41 a
70% ET _c	EM	949 de	372 c	1077 c	1003 c	21 a	79 d
25/1000/ ET	Control	568 a	232 b	535 ab	592 ab	44 bcd	56 abc
25/100% ET _c	EM	768 bc	341 c	893 c	615 ab	31 abc	69 bcd
25 0/ ET	Control	613 ab	286 bc	424 ab	385 a	46 cd	54 ab
25% ET _c	EM	1067 e	385 d	974 c	877 bc	37 abcd	63 abcd
<i>p</i> v	ralue	0.0002	0.0012	< 0.0001	0.0165	0.0119	0.0119

^a100% ET_c: replenishment of 100% of full-vine evapotranspiration from fruit set through harvest; 70% ET_c and 25% ET_c defined in the same fashion; 25/100% ET_c: 25% ET_c from fruit set to veraison followed by 100% ET_c from veraison to harvest.

^bControl (10 days skin contact); EM: extended maceration (30 days skin contact).

^cCatechin equivalents.

^dWithin a column, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Fisher's LSD test at p < 0.05.

Table 5 Main effects and interaction of descriptive sensory attributes (n = 15) of Cabernet Sauvignon wines subjected to four different regulated deficit irrigation regimes (RDI) and two skin contact time treatments.

	df	Color components				Aroma components			Taste/mouthfeel	
ANOVA parameter ^a		Purple	rple Red	Brown	Saturation	Red fruit	Black fruit	Oxidized character	Bitterness	Astringency
RDI	3									
100% ET _c		10.5 a ^b	7.2 b	1.2 a	10.1 a	4.5 a	6.4 a	1.9 a	6.9 a	10.6 b
70% ET _c		10.9 b	6.9 a	1.2 a	11.1 b	4.7 a	6.9 a	2.0 ab	7.5 b	10.5 b
25/100% ET _c		11.4 c	6.6 a	1.1 a	11.5 c	4.8 a	7.5 b	2.0 a	7.3 ab	10.2 a
25% ET _c		12.5 d	6.7 a	1.1 a	13.1 d	4.9 a	6.6 a	2.3 b	7.9 c	11.4 c
<i>p</i> value		< 0.0001	0.004	0.461	< 0.0001	0.371	0.001	0.111	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
Skin contact (SC)	1									
Control		12.1 b	6.1 a	0.9 a	11.9 b	5.4 b	7.6 b	1.0 a	6.6 a	9.5 a
EM		10.6 a	7.6 b	1.4 b	11.0 a	4.0 a	6.0 a	3.1 b	8.3 b	11.8 b
<i>p</i> value		< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
RDI × SC	3									
<i>p</i> value		< 0.0001	< 0.0001	0.179	0.161	0.887	< 0.0001	0.256	0.006	0.232

^aRDI treatments: 100% ET_c , replenishment of 100% of full-vine evapotranspiration from fruit set through harvest; 70% ET_c and 25% ET_c defined in the same fashion; 25/100% ET_c , 25% ET_c from fruit set to veraison followed by 100% ET_c from veraison to harvest. SC treatments: Control (10 days skin contact); EM: extended maceration (30 days skin contact).

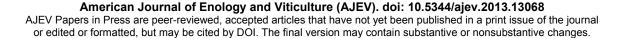
^bWithin a column, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Fisher's LSD test at p < 0.05. Evaluations made along a 15 cm unstructured line scale.

Table 6 One-way ANOVA of descriptive sensory attributes (n = 15) of Cabernet Sauvignon wines subjected to four different regulated deficit irrigation
regimes (RDI) and two skin contact time treatments.

Treatment ^a			Color component				Aroma components			Taste/mouthfeel	
RDI	Skin contact	Purple	Red	Brown	Saturation	Red fruit	Black fruit	Oxidized character	Bitterness	Astringency	
100% ET _c	Control	11.1 b ^b	7.0 c	1.0 a	10.5 b	5.3 b	6.6 cd	0.9 a	6.2 a	9.6 b	
	EM	9.9 a	7.4 cd	1.4 b	9.7 a	3.8 a	6.2 bc	2.9 b	7.5 bc	11.6 de	
70% ET _c	Control	12.1 c	6.0 b	0.8 a	11.7 d	5.3 b	7.8 e	1.0 a	6.3 a	9.3 ab	
	EM	9.8 a	7.7 de	1.6 b	10.5 b	4.1 a	5.8 ab	3.0 b	8.8 d	11.8 e	
25/100% ET _c	Control	12.0 c	6.2 b	0.9 a	11.8 d	5.5 b	8.0 e	1.1 a	6.6 a	8.9 a	
	EM	10.8 b	7.0 c	1.4 b	11.2 c	4.2 a	7.0 d	2.9 b	8.0 c	11.4 d	
25% ET _c	Control	13.2 b	5.2 a	0.8 a	13.5 f	5.6 b	8.0 e	1.1 a	7.2 b	10.1 c	
	EM	11.8 c	8.1 e	1.4 b	12.6 e	4.1 a	5.2 a	3.4 c	8.7 c	12.6 f	
<i>p</i> value		< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	

^aRDI treatments: 100% ET_c , replenishment of 100% of full-vine evapotranspiration from fruit set through harvest; 70% ET_c and 25% ET_c defined in the same fashion; 25/100% ET_c , 25% ET_c from fruit set to veraison followed by 100% ET_c from veraison to harvest. SC treatments: Control (10 days skin contact); EM: extended maceration (30 days skin contact).

^bWithin a column, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different according to Fisher's LSD test at p < 0.05. Evaluations made along a 15 cm unstructured line scale.



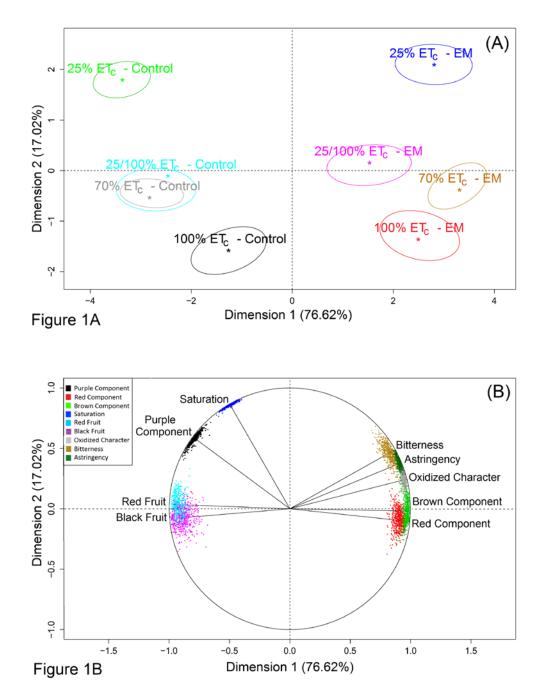
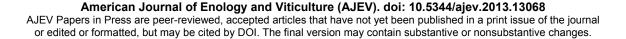


Figure 1 Principal component analysis of descriptive sensory data of Cabernet Sauvignon wines evaluated by a trained panel (n = 15): (A) confidence ellipses based on multivariate distribution of Hotelling's test for p < 0.05 indicating 95% confidence intervals and (B) sensory loadings. RDI treatments: 100% ET_c, 70% ET_c, and 25% ET_c: replenishment of 100%, 70%, and 25%, respectively, of full-vine evapotranspiration from fruit set through harvest; 25/100% ET_c: 25% ET_c from fruit set to veraison followed by 100% ET_c from veraison to harvest. Winemaking treatments: C, control (10 days skin contact); EM, extended maceration (30 days skin contact).



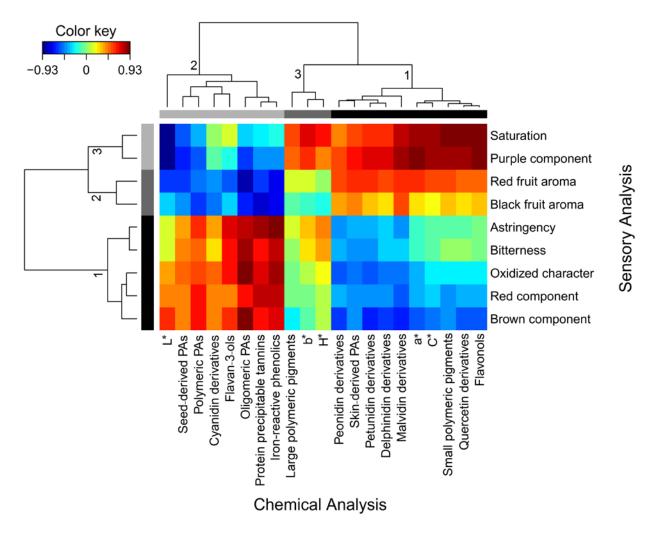


Figure 2 Canonical correlation analysis showing clustered image maps of the correlation between significant sensory and chemical attributes considering all wines (n = 16) in the experiment. The dark red and blue colors indicate positive and negative correlation coefficient values, respectively, whereas light green colors indicate near zero correlation coefficient values. Cluster membership within sensory and chemical data is indicated as different shades of grey and black. L*: lightness; C*: saturation; a*: red component; b*: yellow component; H*: hue; PAs: proanthocyanidins.