

Determination of Enantiomeric and Stable Isotope Ratio Fingerprints of Active Secondary Metabolites in Neroli (Citrus aurantium L.) Essential Oils for Authentication by Multidimensional Gas Chromatography and GC-C/P-IRMS

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- **1** Determination of Enantiomeric and Stable Isotope Ratio Fingerprints of Active
- 2 Secondary Metabolites in Neroli (Citrus aurantium L.) Essential Oils for
- 3 Authentication by Multidimensional Gas Chromatography and GC-C/P-IRMS

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13

15 Abstract

Neroli essential oil (EO), extracted from bitter orange blossoms, is one of the most expensive 16 natural products on the market due to its poor yield and its use in fragrance compositions, 17 18 such as cologne. Multiple adulterations of neroli EO are found on the market, and several 19 authentication strategies, such as enantioselective gas chromatography (GC) and isotope ratio 20 mass spectrometry (IRMS), have been developed in the last few years. However, neroli EO 21 adulteration is becoming increasingly sophisticated, and analytical improvements are needed to increase precision. Enantiomeric and compound-specific isotopic profiling of numerous 22 metabolites using multidimensional GC and GC-C/P-IRMS was carried out. These analyses 23 proved to be efficient for geographical tracing, especially to distinguish neroli EO of Egyptian 24 origin. In addition, δ^2 H values and enantioselective ratios can identify an addition of 10% of 25 26 petitgrain EO. These results demonstrate that enantioselective and stable isotopic metabolite 27 fingerprint determination is currently a necessity to control EOs.

28 Keywords

29 Isotope ratio mass spectrometry, Multidimensional gas chromatography, Enantioselective

30 analysis, Stable isotope analysis, Neroli essential oil, Authentication

31

33 **1. Introduction**

The essential oil (EO) of neroli is produced via hydrodistillation or steam distillation of bitter 34 orange (Citrus aurantium L.) blossoms. This EO is highly expensive due to its very low 35 36 production yield (0.1%) [1]: at least one metric ton of fresh orange blossoms is required to 37 produce only one kilogram of pure EO. The price of EO can fluctuate between 2,500 and 6,000 38 €/kg depending on the country and the year. The quantity of EO produced worldwide is 39 estimated between 4.5 to 6.5 MT per year. Neroli EO is nowadays an iconic product in the fragrance industry, due to its olfactive profile (Floral, orange blossom, green, methyl-like, and 40 honeyed) in demand in the perfume industry [2]. Previous pharmacological studies have 41 42 reported neurotonic properties [3] and antimicrobial, antioxidant [4,5], anticonvulsant [6], analgesic and anti-inflammatory activities [7] for this EO. Currently, this EO (C. aurantium ssp. 43 44 amara var. pumilla) is mainly produced in Morocco, Tunisia, and Egypt but also in Spain, and 45 Lebanon. The EO of another variety (C. aurantium L ssp amara var. daidai) is produced in 46 China.

Adulteration is a common problem in the EO industry, especially with expensive EOs such as 47 neroli. These adulterations are generally carried out to meet standard requirements, increase 48 49 artificial EO quantities, or develop economic strategies. Orange blossom harvesting requires caution, and the production quality is a function of the weather and temperature conditions 50 51 throughout the year. In the case of neroli EO, the main adulterations include blending with 52 several known adulterations have been reported in the literature: blending with inexpensive EOs such as sweet orange EO (*Citrus sinensis*) [8], bitter orange EO [8], and petitgrain EO [9]; 53 addition of synthetic components such as linalool and linalyl acetate; and dilution with 54 55 vegetable oils or solvents, such as sunflower oil [10] or ethanol [11].

56 Typical identification and characterization techniques, such as gas chromatography (GC) quality control or olfactive panel tests, cannot always differentiate a natural molecule from 57 various origins (species or geographical) or a natural molecule from its synthetic equivalent. 58 EO authentication requires the combination of several advanced analytical techniques to 59 60 accurately identify adulteration with high precision. Currently, several methods are commonly 61 used, such as the determination of synthetic residual impurities and natural markers [12], 62 enantioselective analyses [13,14], radiocarbon activity assessment [12,15], and stable isotope 63 analyses [12,13,16–19].

Enzymatic synthesis of asymmetric carbon molecules provides stereoselectivity. In most cases, 64 65 one enantiomer is significantly in excess compared to the other enantiomer. However, organic synthesis will lead to a racemic mixture of both enantiomers. Adulteration of an EO can also 66 67 be determined with a chiral study if some enantiomer proportions are reversed between the 68 two EOs. Analysis of chiral molecules with enantioselective GC, monitored on cyclodextrinbased capillary columns, enables efficient determination of the enantiomeric ratios of 69 70 compounds of interest. Chiral analysis is an effective tool to authenticate neroli EO purity. 71 Several studies have been performed to determine the enantiomeric ratios of major 72 metabolites in neroli EO, including linalool and linalyl acetate [14], α -pinene, β -pinene, limonene [8,19], and other components [20]. 73

Isotope ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS) is another powerful tool used to highlight the addition of synthetic molecules to an EO, blending with another natural extract, or assessment of its geographical origin. GC – combustion/pyrolysis – IRMS (GC-C/P-IRMS) allows for the determination of compound-specific δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H isotope ratios. IRMS has been recently used to identify adulterations of food products such as honey [21,22] or wine [23]. This analytical

79 technique is especially useful in the EO field, which presents complex matrices with several metabolites in nonnegligible quantities. GC-C/P-IRMS has been successfully used in the past 80 for the authentication of several essential oils, including rose [17], oregano and thyme [24], 81 Allium species [16], lemongrass and citronella [13], and lemon [18]. Several studies have also 82 83 determined stable isotopic ratios on several secondary metabolites in neroli EOs, such as 84 linalool and linalyl acetate [25], and other components (β-pinene, myrcene, limonene, 85 terpinen-4-ol, α -terpineol, nerol, neryl acetate, geranyl acetate, β -caryophyllene, (E)-86 nerolidol, and (E)-(E)-farnesol) [20,26].

In the present study, chiral and isotopic data of some compounds of neroli EOs have been 87 88 used in combination with chemometrics to trace their geographical origin and to assess their authenticity. The first part of this study illustrates the use of these data to geographically 89 90 discriminate neroli EO samples. Geographical traceability is relevant because an EO is defined 91 by its extraction process, its species, and its location. Furthermore, prices vary with the geographical origin of harvest. The second part of this study is a focus on the purity of neroli 92 93 EO samples. Although EO naturalness can be easily authenticated by ¹⁴C activity assessment or chiral studies, purity is much harder to detect, especially the addition of petitgrain EO, 94 95 which is also manufactured from bitter orange. Petitgrain EO is obtained from the distillation 96 process of bitter orange leaves and twigs. Neroli and petitgrain EOs are mainly composed of monoterpenic hydrocarbons and oxygenated monoterpenoids. The principal components of 97 neroli and petitgrain EOs are linalool, limonene, linalyl acetate, β-pinene, (E) β-ocimene, (E)-98 nerolidol, (E) (E) farnesol, and α -terpineol [27]. Neroli and petitgrain EOs share similar 99 100 compounds, except for nitrogen-containing trace compounds (indole and methyl 101 anthranilate), which have only been reported in neroli EO [28,29].

102 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

103 2.1. Essential Oil Information

All studied samples (*C. aurantium* L *ssp amara var. pumilla*) were provided by Albert Vieille
 SAS (Vallauris, France). The traceability and provenance of the EOs were certified.

106 Neroli EOs came from Morocco (26 samples), Lebanon (4 samples), Tunisia (16 samples), and
107 Egypt (22 samples) via several official producers.

108 In addition, Spanish samples (9 samples) were directly manufactured by Albert Vieille SAS from 109 their aromatic raw material production facility localized in Sevilla region (Spain). Flowers of 110 *Citrus aurantium* were mechanically harvested at the beginning of spring. Fresh flowers were 111 manually sorted to remove leaves and twigs and quickly conveyed to production. Two 112 different processes of distillation were undertaken. Steam distillation conditions applied were as follows: 1 ton of fresh flowers were loaded in a 4000 L still apparatus, with a water steam 113 flow set between 100 and 150 L/h. After 3 hours of distillation, obtained yields comprised 114 between 0.03 and 0.06%. Hydrodistillation conditions applied were as follows: 800 kg of fresh 115 116 flowers were loaded in a 4000 L still apparatus, with a water flow set between 120 and 135 117 L/h. After 3 hours of distillation, obtained yields comprised between 0.01 and 0.04%.

Petitgrain EOs were from Madagascar (3 samples) and Paraguay (6 samples). More information can be found in **Supplementary Table S1** including the year of production, harvest location details, the vegetative stage at time of harvest, and the extraction process.

121 **2.2. Enantioselective Analyses**

122 **2.2.1.** Sample Preparation

123 Two hundred microliters of each EO sample were settled on silica gel 60A (35-70 µm particle size, Carlo Erba Reagents, Val-de-Reuil, France). A primary fraction was collected by elution 124 with 200 mL of pentane. This nonpolar fraction, largely composed of monoterpene and 125 sesquiterpene molecules, was called Fraction 1. A second fraction was obtained by elution 126 127 with 200 mL of diethyl ether. This polar fraction, mainly composed of alcohols and esters, was 128 called Fraction 2. Fractions 1 and 2 were then evaporated with a rotary evaporator (Rotavapor R200, Büchi, Villebon-sur-Yvette, France) and diluted in 1 mL of hexane. This sample 129 130 preparation was applied to dispose of 1-8 cineole from Fraction 1, which can interfere with limonene and β -phellandrene detection in Enantio-GC. 131

132 **2.2.2.** Multidimensional Gas Chromatography (MDGC) Analyses

MDGC analyses were performed on a 7890A GC gas chromatograph system (Agilent
Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) operating
at a detector temperature of 250°C.

136 One microliter of each Fraction 1 was injected into the GC in split mode (120:1). Helium was used as the carrier gas with a constant inlet pressure of 26.4 psi. The flow rate was set to 0.7 137 mL/min in the first column and 2 mL/min in the second column. Separation of volatile 138 compounds was realized on an HP-1 primary capillary column (15 m x 0.200 mm x 0.5 µm film 139 140 thickness, Agilent Technologies) combined with a Dean Switch system (heart cutting program) 141 with a second Cyclosil β column (30 m x 0.250 mm x 0.25 μ m film thickness, Agilent 142 Technologies) coated with cyclodextrin stationary phase. The initial oven temperature was 143 55°C held for 15 min, followed by an initial increase at 1°C/min to reach a temperature of 85°C. An additional increase in temperature at 10°C/min was then applied to reach a final 144 temperature of 200°C and held for 10 min. Enantiomeric ratios were determined for α -145

thujene, α-pinene, camphene, sabinene, β-pinene, δ-3-carene, limonene, and β-phellandrene,
as reported in Figure 1a.

An aliquot 0.2 μ L in volume of each Fraction 2 was injected into the GC in split mode (60:1). 148 149 Helium was used as the carrier gas (18.8 psi applied inlet pressure). The flow rate was set to 150 0.7 mL/min in the primary column and 1.7 mL/min in the secondary column. Separation of 151 volatile compounds was realized on an HP-1 column (15 m x 0.200 mm x 0.5 μm film thickness, 152 Agilent Technologies) combined with a DEtTBuSilBetaCDX PS086 cyclodextrin stationary phase column (25 m*0.25 mm*0.25 µm, Mega, Legano, Italy) and a Dean Switch system (heart 153 154 cutting program). The oven temperature program was as follows: the initial temperature was 155 held at 60°C for 5 min, increased at a rate of 1°C/min to reach a temperature of 95°C, and held for 9 min. An additional increase at 1°C/min was applied to reach 150°C. Then, a final increase 156 157 at 10°C/min was carried out to reach 200°C, which was held for 10 min. Enantiomeric ratios 158 were determined for linalool, terpinen-4-ol, α -terpineol, linalyl acetate, and (E)-nerolidol, as reported in Figure 1b. 159

160 **2.3. Isotopic Analyses**

161 **2.3.1. Data Expression**

162 Isotopic results are expressed in delta (δ) units according to the following formula [30]:

163
$$\delta^{i} \mathbf{E} = \frac{\left({}^{i} \mathbf{R}_{sample} - {}^{i} \mathbf{R}_{Reference}\right)}{{}^{i} \mathbf{R}_{Reference}}$$

where i is the mass number of the heavy isotope of element E, R_{Sample} is the isotope ratio of the sample, and $R_{Reference}$ is the isotope ratio of a relevant internationally recognized reference material. The δ values were multiplied by 1000 and are expressed in units "per mil" (‰). High-purity gases of carbon dioxide (99.998%, 4.8 Messer) and hydrogen (99.999%, 5.0
Messer) were used as the working reference gases injected with each sample. Helium
(99.999% purity) was used as a carrier gas.

All studied metabolites in the EOs of interest were calibrated with a mixture of molecules (βpinene, limonene, (E)-β-ocimene, linalool, linalyl acetate, α-terpineol, neryl acetate, geranyl
acetate, nerol, geraniol, and (E)-nerolidol) purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Saint Louis, MO,
USA) and TCI (Tokyo, Japan). These molecules were previously calibrated against international
standards in elemental analysis – IRMS (EA-IRMS).

175 International reference materials IAEA CH7 (polyethylene foil: δ^{13} C (‰) -32.15, δ^{2} H (‰) -100) and USGS40 (L-glutamic acid: δ^{13} C (‰) -26.39), supplied by the International Agency of Atomic 176 Energy (IAEA, Vienna, Austria), were used to calibrate each molecule in the mixture, which 177 allowed us to express our δ^{13} C results relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) scale 178 179 and our δ^2 H results relative to the Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) scale. Each sample was analyzed versus a monitoring gas for which two pulses were admitted with each analyte. 180 All sample values were analyzed in duplicate and verified by bracketing the analytical 181 sequence with international reference materials every six analyses. The δ^{13} C values are 182 expressed within a maximum standard deviation of \pm 0.28‰ and those of δ^2 H within SD = \pm 183 5‰. δ^{13} C isotopic analyses of the standards molecules were conducted using a Flash HT 184 elemental analyzer connected to a Delta V Plus via a Conflo V interface. The $\delta^2 H$ 185 186 measurements were carried out using a TC-EA elemental analyzer linked to a Delta V Plus via a Conflo V interface (all Thermo Fisher Scientific). The method is fully explained in a previous 187 study [12] 188

2.3.2. Gas Chromatography - Mass Spectrometry - Combustion/Pyrolysis - Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS-C/P-IRMS) 190

191 The δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H values of targeted neroli and petitgrain EO metabolites were determined by 192 GC-IRMS using a GC Trace 1310 simultaneously connected to an ISQ MS quadrupole mass spectrometer and to a Delta V Plus isotope ratio mass spectrometer via a GC Isolink II 193 194 interface. (Thermo Fisher, Bremen, Germany). This equipment enabled the identification of 195 compounds via the ISQ MS instrument and specific compound isotopic ratio measurements of δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H via IRMS. Isotopic ratios were determined for β -pinene, limonene, (E)- β -ocimene, 196 linalool, linalyl acetate, α -terpineol, neryl acetate, geranyl acetate, nerol, geraniol and (E)-197 nerolidol. 198

199 One microliter of diluted EO (1 µL into 100 µL of ethanol) was injected using a Tri Plus RSH autosampler in a Trace 1310 gas chromatograph equipped with an Agilent HP-Innowax column 200 201 (60 m * 0.250 mm * 0.50 µm internal diameter film thickness) used for chromatographic 202 separation. The injection port was held at 250°C, fitted with a split liner containing glass wool 203 and operated in split mode (120:1 for linalool and linalyl acetate assessment, 10:1 for the other compounds). The oven temperature program started at 60°C for 2 min, increased to 204 100°C at a rate of 2°C/min, increased to 150°C at a rate of 5°C/min, increased to 200°C at a 205 rate of 2°C/min, and increased to 260°C at a rate of 1°C/min (which was for 5 min). 206 207 Components were separated at a flow rate of 1.2 mL/min and divided in 2 ways using a Sil Flow connector. 208

The combustion of carbon in carbon dioxide was achieved using an alumina tube containing 209 nickel oxide maintained at 1000°C in a furnace. Pyrolysis of the sample for ²H measurement in 210 H₂ was carried out at a high temperature (1400°C) using an alumina conversion tube (Thermo 211

Fischer Scientific). Undecane, $C_{11}H_{24}$ (Sigma Aldrich), was regularly added to regenerate the alumina pyrolysis tube.

214 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

Multivariate statistical analyses were performed using R version 4.0.3 (R Core Team, Vienna, Austria) [31] with corrplot [32], ropls [33], Factoextra [34], and FactoMiner [35] packages. The Pearson correlation test was carried out to determine pairwise correlations between isotope ratio values. Univariate analysis was realized to determine significant differences between species, within a confidence level p-value < 0.05.

For multivariate data analyses, data were first analysed with unsupervised method such as principal component analysis (PCA) [36] and clustering. PCA was used in this study to describe and to assess the quality and homogeneity of the 90 samples of interest (81 neroli EO and 9 petitgrain EO). An autoscaling was realized prior to PCA and Ward's minimum variance clustering method was applied to perform the hierarchical clustering [34].

Supervised methods were then carried out, including orthogonal partial least square– discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA), to link models and variables responsible for the separation observed on the unsupervised method [37].

A 7-fold stratified cross validation was repeated 50 times to avoid overfitting the small number of data-points. Features were ranked according to the variable importance projection (VIP) from OPLS-DA. S-plot verifies the selectivity and the specificity of the selected features. The model's quality was evaluated based on the residuals (R²X, R²Y) and the models predictive ability parameter (Q²_{cum}) [38]. The statistical significances of models were also assessed using confusion matrix.

234 **3.** Results and Discussion

235 **3.1. Enantiomeric Ratio Fingerprint**

236 **3.1.1.** Neroli Essential Oils

Enantiomeric ratio determination was conducted in this study to minor chiral compounds in neroli EOs to obtain a complete enantiomeric signature of the studied EOs to improve authentication. This study was achieved using a MDGC approach. This technique was previously applied to authenticate other EOs, such as rosemary EO [39]. Thirteen chiral components were identified in the EO: α -thujene, α -pinene, camphene, β -pinene, δ -3-carene, sabinene, limonene, β -phellandrene, linalool, linalyl acetate, terpinen-4-ol, α -terpineol, and (E)-nerolidol.

The results are depicted in **Table 1**. The neroli EOs from Morocco, Tunisia and Lebanon showed the same chiral profile with the dominance of levorotary (-) form: α -thujene, α -pinene, camphene, sabinene, β -pinene, δ -3-carene, β -phellandrene, linalool, linalyl acetate, and terpinen-4-ol. Limonene, α -terpineol, and (E)-nerolidol were predominantly dextrorotary (+). The α -pinene, β -pinene, limonene, linalool, linalyl acetate, terpinene-4-ol, α -terpineol and (E)nerolidol chiral results were in good agreement with those of previous enantioselective studies of neroli EOs [8,14,19].

Several samples from Egypt featured different chiral signatures: racemization of α -pinene and β -phellandrene was observed, and reversions of sabinene and terpinen-4-ol enantiomer amounts were also detected. These results were in good agreement with those found in the literature [20], except for a contradiction with the α -terpineol enantiomeric ratio previously indicated in the literature, as we reported the R enantiomer as the major enantiomer. These results suggest differences in varieties between neroli EO samples from Egypt and other geographical origins. It is also hypothesized that Egyptian samples were produced from flowers of a citrus hybrid *aurantium x sinensis*, based on our harvested area data. Sweet orange *Citrus sinensis* cultivars are the most widely grown among *Citrus* species in Egypt (accounting for 69% of the total cultivated area) [40] and bitter orange *Citrus aurantium* tree is the main *Citrus* rootstock used in Egypt.

262 Several enantiomeric discrepancies were detected for minor compounds (α -pinene, sabinene, 263 terpinen-4-ol, and β-phellandrene), which were all present at less than 2% of the total composition of neroli EOs. Differences between neroli EOs of Egyptian and other origins would 264 have been undetected if only chiral analyses of major compounds were conducted. This 265 266 highlights the interest in carrying out a complete enantiomeric profiling approach to authenticate EOs. These results are compelling, as neroli EOs from Egypt also present 267 268 perceptible olfactive profiles. Indeed, EO is more fresh, lemony, and less methylated than 269 Morocco origin and more green and less honeyed than Tunisian.

270

3.1.2. Petitgrain Essential Oils

271 Petitgrain EO is a common adulterant in neroli EO. This adulteration can be unintentional if 272 producers are not meticulous enough during harvest, as they must harvest only flowers of C. aurantium and not the leaves. It can be tricky to detect such adulterations, as major 273 compounds, including linalool and linalyl acetate, are similar between the two types of 274 275 hydrodistilled C. aurantium EOs. Enantiomeric fingerprints of chiral metabolites can also 276 highlight EO blending. Several studies have established chiral databases on petitgrain, sweet, and bitter orange EOs [8,19,41]. By comparison with chiral data for sweet orange and bitter 277 orange EOs, adulteration of neroli EO can be detected. However, literature databases suggest 278 that the petitgrain chiral profile is similar to that of neroli. 279

280 The petitgrain EO chiral signature is detailed in Table 1. Enantiomeric ratios were determined 281 in 9 samples from Madagascar and Paraguay. α -pinene, β -pinene, limonene, linalool, linalyl 282 acetate, terpinen-4-ol, and α -terpineol chirality were consistent with previous investigations 283 [8,19,42].

No significant differences were observed between petitgrain and neroli profiling, except for limonene and nerolidol (+) forms, which were less predominant in the petitgrain profile than in the neroli profile. Enantiomeric profiles of petitgrain and neroli EOs are not sufficiently distinct to highlight an addition of petitgrain EO in neroli EO. A complementary analysis is required to detect such adulteration.

289 **3.2.** δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H Isotopic Composition

290 Multiple isotope (¹³C and ²H) analysis of multiple components results in a large amount of 291 information about the samples: compound-specific isotope analysis with GC-C/P-IRMS 292 enables the assessment of the complete isotope fingerprint of neroli EO samples via 293 determination of the δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H ratios of major metabolites.

Carbon isotope ratios are dependent on the metabolic pathways for carbon fixation in 294 photosynthesis. *C. aurantium* is a C3 plant (Calvin cycle [43]). Its δ^{13} C is between -20 and -33 295 296 ‰ [44]. By comparison, a C4 plant (Hatch and Slack pathway [45]), such as lemongrass [13], 297 has a δ^{13} C value slightly more positive, between -9 and -16 ‰ [46]. The δ^{13} C stable isotopic ratios of several metabolites of the samples are detailed in Table 2. These values are in line 298 299 with the C3 plant range stated in the literature. The results were also consistent with those of 300 previous δ^{13} C analyses conducted with neroli EOs [20]. Furthermore, the results were not 301 significantly different among geographical origins. It was expected that all the samples were 302 neroli EOs and came from the same *C. aurantium* natural plant variety.

303 Hydrogen isotopic ratios are predominantly influenced by the geographical origin of a plant due to the hydrological cycle [47], resulting in δ^2 H being dependent on the geographical area. 304 Neroli EO δ^2 H values are detailed in **Table 3**. Several differences were observed among the 305 different geographical origins. It is important to note that the samples from Egypt were 306 different than other samples, with mean δ^2 H values higher than those of samples with other 307 308 origins. According to Hör et al. (2001) [25], neroli EOs have δ^2 H values (measured in 4 samples) 309 ranging between -234‰ and -253‰ for linalool and -270‰ and -272‰ for linalyl acetate. In 310 this study, δ^2 H values of the 86 samples were higher than the previously reported values, with mean values between -200‰ (Egypt) and -214‰ (Tunisia) for linalool and between -218‰ 311 312 (Egypt) and -240‰ (Tunisia) for linalyl acetate.

In conclusion, compound-specific stable isotopic data are relevant because they provide a
stable isotopic fingerprint that provides geographical information, as the samples from Egypt
were clearly different than those from Morocco, Lebanon, and Tunisia.

316

3.3. Chemometric Analyses

317 3.3.1. Geographical Origin Authentication

Principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out on the entire sample data set (83 samples of neroli), with 33 parameters as variables (enantiomeric ratios and δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H isotopic ratios) to obtain a visual representation of the collected data (**Figure 2a**). Two different clusters could be observed: one comprising neroli EOs from Morocco, Lebanon, and Tunisia, and another including neroli EOs from Egypt. Most Spanish samples were in the first cluster, but two commercial samples were found in the second cluster. The Moroccan and Tunisian samples were also slightly separated from each other.

325 Hierarchical clustering was then realized to distinguish the clusters with more accuracy. This clustering technique calculates the difference in distance between each sample. The cluster 326 plot (Figure 2b) helps to distinguish three different clusters: one comprising samples from 327 Spain, Morocco, Tunisia, and Lebanon (Cluster 1) and two clusters including samples from 328 Egypt (Clusters 2 and 3). Both Egyptian clusters corresponded to different providers. 329 330 Geographical location differences might explain these differences: Cluster 2 includes only 331 samples from the specific Egyptian region of Gharbia Governorate, whereas Cluster 3 regroups 332 other samples from Egypt.

As described in **Supplementary Table S1**, neroli essential oils were extracted from two different several processes: steam distillation and hydrodistillation. Based on the clustering, the extraction process does not affect the enantiomeric and isotopic compositions, as no differences were observed between steam distilled and hydrodistilled samples. The vegetative stage at time of harvest, the type of resources (wild or cultivated flowers), and the year of production do not impact chirality and isotopy of neroli EO metabolites too.

This study highlights the differences in quality between Egyptian and other neroli EOs. Authentication criteria need to be different among the two groups of EO samples to avoid misinterpreting analytical results from Egypt samples.

342

3.3.2. Purity Authentication

An additional PCA process was employed, this time including petitgrain samples. **Figure 3a** depicts the score plot of the principal components F1 and F2, which accounted for 49% of the total variance in the data. Differences between neroli and petitgrain EOs were successfully visualized.

347 Orthogonal partial least squares – discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA) was conducted to identify 348 discriminant variables. This model was built from all samples using all parameters. The projection of the individual samples is represented in Figure 3b: neroli and petitgrain are 349 significantly separated on the OPLS-DA score plot. The S-Plot visualization represented in 350 Figure 3c highlights discriminant variables. The S-plot represents the variable confidence 351 352 (correlation) against the variable contribution (covariance). Variables with the highest contributions and reliability are $\delta^2 H$ stable isotope values, including nerol, geranyl acetate, 353 354 geraniol, and α -terpineol. The geographical origins of petitgrain samples (Madagascar, Paraguay) probably affecting this discrimination, but this large isotopic fractionation is also 355 explained by the differences between leaves and flowers. (E)-Nerolidol and limonene 356 357 enantiomeric distributions also present high contributions. The δ^{13} C parameter did not seem 358 to contribute to clustering based on this S-Plot representation.

Finally, petitgrain was added to one Moroccan neroli EO sample. Three levels of adulteration were applied (10%, 20%, and 50% adulteration). PCA (**Figure 4**) was then performed to observe the effects of this addition on the data. Since neroli EOs presented geographical variations, as seen earlier, only Moroccan samples were represented. As observed in the figure, adulterated samples were no longer in the neroli cluster. Even 10% adulteration can be detected with the determination of enantiomeric and stable isotope ratio fingerprints of the major metabolites of neroli EO.

This study shows the importance of determining the most complete enantiomeric and isotopic signature to investigate adulterations, especially if the matrices are similar to those of neroli and petitgrain EOs.

369 Conclusion

370	Measurements of enantiomeric and isotopic ratios of major metabolites of neroli essential oils
371	were performed using MDGC and GC-C/P-IRMS. The data banks were treated with
372	chemometric models, leading to geographical and authentication of varieties.
373	Geographical discrimination was achieved using PCA and hierarchical clustering models.
374	We demonstrated that an adulteration of 10% of petitgrain could be highlighted in neroli
375	essential oil.
376	The work carried out in this study highlighted the interest to use simultaneously enantiomeric
377	and isotopic compound-specific analyses to authenticate geographical and botanical origins
378	of an essential oil sample. This type of multianalytical approach can be reproduced to other
379	type of complex essential oils in the future to improve authentication and detect fraudulent
380	products.

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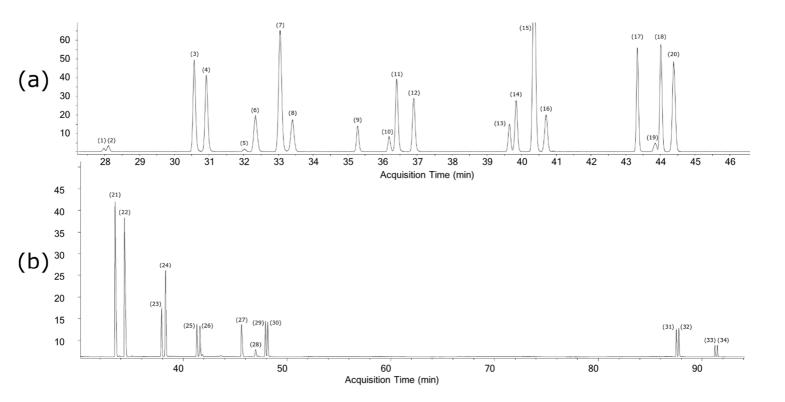
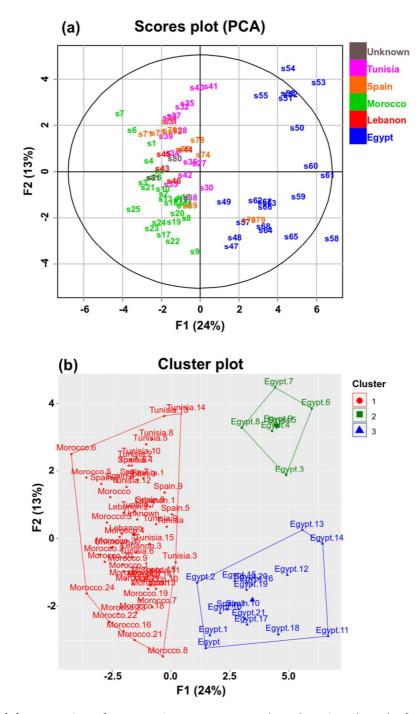


Figure 1. (a) Second dimension chromatographic profile obtained with MDGC (Columns HP-1 528 529 15m*0.200mm*0.5um. combined by Dean Switch system with a second column Cyclosil ß 30m*0.250mm*0.25um). This method enables the separation of 10 chiral metabolites: α -530 531 thujene 1(+), 2(-); α -pinene 3(-), 4(+); α -fenchene 5(+), 6(-); camphene 7(-), 8(+); sabinene 9(+), 10(-); β-pinene 11(+), 12(-); α-phellandrene 13(-), 14(+); δ-3-carene 15(+), 16(-); limonene 17(-532), 18(+); β -phellandrene 19(-), 20(+). (b) Second dimension chromatographic profile obtained 533 534 with MDGC (HP-1 column 15m*0.200mm*0.5um, combined by Dean Switch system, with a 535 second column DEtTBuSilBetaCDX PS086 25m*0.25mm*0.25µm). This method enables the separation of 7 chiral metabolites: linalool 21(+), 22(-); borneol 23(-), 24(+); terpinen-4-ol 536 25(+), 26(-); α-terpineol 27(-), 28(+); linalyl acetate 29(+), 30(-). (Z)-nerolidol 31(+), 32(-); (E)-537 nerolidol 33(-), 34(+). 538



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Figure 2. (a) Score plot of principal component F1 (24%) and F2 (13%) of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) model developed from enantiomeric ratio percentages and δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H compound specific isotope analysis (CSIA) values determined on neroli essential oils from different geographical origins: Morocco (in green), Egypt (in blue), Tunisia (in pink), Lebanon (in red), and Spain (in orange). Samples with unknown geographical origins are represented in grey. Clusters are represented via (b) hierarchical cluster plot. Cluster 1 (in red) includes

- 547 Moroccan, Lebanese, Tunisian, and most Spanish samples. Cluster 2 (in green) includes only
- 548 Egyptian samples. Cluster 3 (in blue) comprises some Egyptian and two Spanish samples.

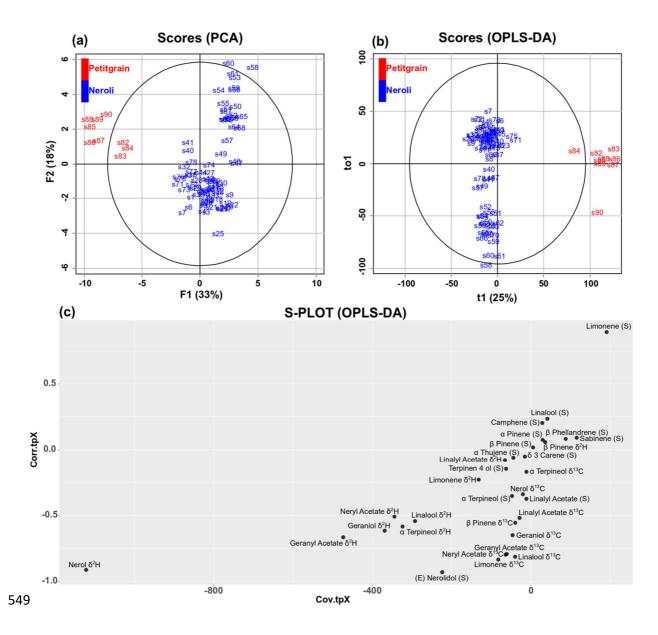


Figure 3. (a) Score plot of principal component t1 (33%) and t2 (18%) of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) model developed from enantiomeric ratio percentages and δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H compound specific isotope analysis (CSIA) values determined on neroli (in blue) and petitgrain (in red) essential oils. (b) Orthogonal Partial Least Square – Discriminant Analysis (OPLS-DA) score plot of enantiomeric ratio percentages and δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H CSIA values. (c) OPLS-DA loadings S-Plot. This representation shows the correlation against the covariance.

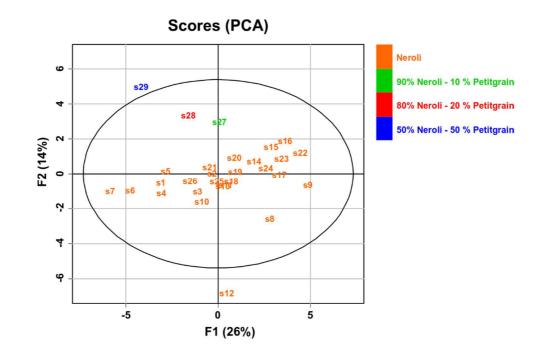


Figure 4. Principal Component Analysis representation of the addition of petitgrain in neroli
essential oil. Three levels of adulteration were undertaken: 10% (green), 20% (red), and 50%
(blue) additions of petitgrain in 100% pure and natural Moroccan neroli essential oils (Samples
represented in orange).

Table 1: Enantiomeric distribution of chiral secondary metabolites of neroli and petitgrain essential oils from different geographical origins: Morocco,

Tunisia, Lebanon, Egypt, Spain, Madagascar, and Paraguay.

			Enanti	omeric di	istributio	on (%)																						
Essential oil type	Geographical origin	Number of Samples	α-Thujene S-(+)		α-Pinene S-(-)		Camphene 1S, 4R-(-)		Sabinene S-(-)		β-Pinene S-(-)		δ-3-Carene 1S-(+)		Limonene S-(-)		β- Phellandrene S-(+)		Linalool S-(+)		Terpinen-4- ol S-(+)		α- Terpineol S-(-)		Linalyl Acetate S-(+)		(E)-Nerolidol S	
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Neroli	Morocco	26	0.0	0.0	87.9	2.5	98.6	1.0	93.3	6.9	99.2	1.9	0.6	2.9	1.9	1.0	25.8	10.8	26.7	1.4	35.7	1.8	30.8	1.3	1.9	0.9	98.6	0.4
Neroli	Tunisia	16	3.3	6.9	88.9	3.1	97.9	1.3	79.5	16.4	99.1	1.0	9.6	16.6	2.6	0.9	23.6	14.0	23.0	1.3	40.4	5.2	31.9	0.9	1.2	0.4	98.2	0.4
Neroli	Lebanon	4	0.0	0.0	90.8	2.6	100.0	0.0	95.4	0.8	99.8	0.1	11.3	22.7	1.7	0.3	27.3	15.2	20.7	1.2	36.6	1.4	30.0	0.4	1.4	0.4	98.8	0.2
Neroli	Egypt	22	23.4	26.7	65.9	9.6	94.3	6.1	24.9	20.8	94.6	17.3	0.3	1.1	2.5	0.6	53.1	18.1	18.6	4.0	59.8	6.2	32.5	6.2	0.7	0.1	97.5	1.5
Neroli	Spain	11	12.0	26.7	86.5	9.5	97.7	3.5	77.1	30.9	99.5	0.8	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.8	40.0	18.3	28.2	3.4	42.7	9.9	29.7	2.5	1.4	0.3	98.4	1.0
Petitgrain	Madagascar	3	0.0	0.0	92.7	3.0	100.0	0.0	92.0	0.6	98.2	0.9	0.0	0.0	9.2	2.8	18.3	16.7	24.4	4.3	30.9	7.8	27.6	1.2	0.4	0.3	81.0	5.5
Petitgrain	Paraguay	6	5.5	6.1	81.0	4.4	100.0	0.0	73.9	27.7	98.4	0.6	0.9	0.8	24.0	2.3	53.5	4.9	28.1	3.4	42.3	10.2	27.0	0.2	0.4	0.2	77.0	6.2

Table 2: Stable isotope δ^{13} C distribution of secondary metabolites of neroli and petitgrain essential oils from different geographical origins: Morocco,

	Geographical origin		Isotopic	sotopic Distribution (‰)																		
Essential oil type		Number of Samples	β -Pinene δ^{13} C		Limonene $\delta^{13}C$		Linalool $\delta^{13}C$		Linalyl Acetate $\delta^{\rm 13}C$		$\alpha\text{-Terpineol }\delta^{13}\text{C}$		Neryl Acetate $\delta^{13}C$		Gernayl Acetate $\delta^{\rm 13}C$		Nerol $\delta^{13}C$		Geraniol $\delta^{13}C$		(E) Nero	lidol δ ¹³ C
		Samples	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Neroli	Morocco	26	-26.32	0.97	-26.77	1.20	-25.47	0.95	-25.08	1.19	-26.64	1.90	-27.96	0.88	-26.77	0.98	-26.35	1.13	-26.58	0.78	-29.64	2.05
Neroli	Tunisia	16	-26.99	2.32	-27.33	1.02	-26.03	0.47	-26.15	1.23	-26.99	2.19	-29.30	2.01	-28.87	1.31	-27.39	1.36	-28.09	2.33	-30.65	2.45
Neroli	Lebanon	4	-26.99	1.08	-27.83	0.63	-26.37	0.65	-25.54	0.35	-28.10	1.69	-28.41	0.42	-27.38	0.60	-27.18	0.51	-27.19	0.75	-29.44	0.65
Neroli	Egypt	22	-26.71	1.57	-27.54	1.19	-25.96	0.88	-26.35	0.84	-27.88	1.54	-28.68	0.77	-27.67	0.89	-26.45	1.70	-27.02	1.00	-29.03	0.73
Neroli	Spain	11	-27.29	0.87	-28.31	0.94	-26.85	0.35	-27.54	1.24	-28.39	0.72	-28.99	0.72	-28.42	0.61	-27.17	0.80	-28.63	1.48	-27.98	1.17
Petitgrain	Madagascar	3	-28.01	1.31	-35.52	0.60	-29.73	0.21	-29.43	0.36	-28.31	0.08	-33.80	1.14	-33.38	0.82	-27.98	3.07	-30.77	0.47	N/A	N/A
Petitgrain	Paraguay	6	-31.51	2.92	-34.21	2.97	-29.48	0.23	-28.40	0.57	-28.21	1.68	-34.20	0.51	-32.89	0.85	-28.62	1.37	-31.99	1.16	N/A	N/A

Tunisia, Lebanon, Egypt, Spain, Madagascar, and Paraguay.

Table 3: Stable isotope δ^2 H distribution of secondary metabolites of neroli and petitgrain essential oils from different geographical origins: Morocco, Tunisia,

Essential oil type		Number of Samples	Isotopi	sotopic Distribution (‰)																		
	Geographical origin		β -Pinene δ^2 H		Limonene $\delta^2 H$		Linalool $\delta^2 H$		Linalyl Acetate $\delta^2 H$		α -Terpineol δ^2 H		Neryl Acetate $\delta^2 H$		Geranyl Acetate $\delta^2 H$		Nerol $\delta^2 H$		Geraniol $\delta^2 H$		(E) Nerolidol δ^2 H	
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Neroli	Morocco	26	-213	12	-221	12	-210	7	-223	24	-224	12	-210	9	-203	14	-196	11	-201	11	-102	8
Neroli	Tunisia	16	-214	12	-223	8	-210	6	-237	17	-228	15	-208	11	-204	10	-189	9	-204	15	-106	8
Neroli	Lebanon	4	-218	4	-229	5	-209	7	-227	3	-222	5	-202	8	-203	16	-198	7	-205	4	-103	4
Neroli	Egypt	22	-208	32	-216	17	-199	16	-217	15	-217	14	-187	16	-182	9	-177	15	-188	9	-84	11
Neroli	Spain	11	-211	6	-212	21	-210	16	-220	32	-223	7	-214	11	-205	12	-198	17	-194	10	-101	14
Petitgrain	Madagascar	3	-212	15	-217	3	-219	5	-212	6	-239	3	-221	3	-229	2	-271	14	-220	1	N/A	N/A
Petitgrain	Paraguay	6	-205	4	-239	10	-239	5	-240	8	-255	4	-240	5	-241	4	-291	12	-232	17	N/A	N/A

Lebanon, Egypt, Spain, Madagascar, and Paraguay.

