Highlights

- 1. Hemp inflorescences represent added-value co-products after seed harvest
- 2. Site (S) and harvest time (H) affected inflorescence yield; SxH influenced seed production
- 3. The EO composition changed more with harvest time, rather than the site
- 4. EOs were rich in sesquiterpenes, but monoterpene hydrocarbons were also relevant
- 5. Cannabinoids (mainly cannabidiol) were higher in the lowland early harvest EO

1	Valorisation of hemp inflorescence after seed harvest: cultivation site
2	and harvest time influence agronomic characteristics and essential oil
3	yield and composition
4	Roberta Ascrizzi ^{1,*} , Lucia Ceccarini ² , Silvia Tavarini ² , Guido Flamini ¹ , Luciana G.
5	Angelini ²
6	¹ Department of Pharmacy, University of Pisa, Via Bonanno 6, Pisa, Italy
7	² Department of Agriculture, Food and Environment, University of Pisa, Via del Borghetto 80, Pisa,
8	Italy
9	*Corresponding Author. E-mail: roberta.ascrizzi@gmail.com
10	Abstract
11	Cannabis sativa L. is a multipurpose crop, whose industrial varieties, complying with the 0.2%
12	threshold set by the EU legislation, can be cultivated without restrictions by farmers. Other than its
13	traditional use as a source of bast fibres from the stems, the fixed oil extracted from its seeds
14	represents a valuable nutritional product. Its inflorescences are also a further exploitable threshing
15	residue originating from seed harvest, as they can be used for the extraction of the essential oil
16	(EO), a high-value added product.
17	This study aims at contributing to the re-evaluation of the industrial hemp cultivation as an agro-
18	environmentally sustainable crop for the diversification of Mediterranean cropping systems, by
19	exploring the possibility to recover the EO from the inflorescences after seed harvest.
20	The influence of the cultivation site (lowland and hillyland of Pisa province, Tuscany, central Italy)
21	and the harvest time (August and September) have been investigated on the 'Fedora 17'
22	monoecious hemp cultivar: the main agronomic traits in term of stem, seed and inflorescences
23	production, as well as essential oil yield and composition have been evaluated.

The crops harvested in September exhibited higher total dry yield as well as higher inflorescence 24 25 and stem yields, whilst neither the site nor the harvesting period influenced the seed production, which was significantly influenced by harvest time x cultivation site interaction. Both seed fixed oil 26 and crude protein content were affected by the cultivation site only, but with an opposite trend: the 27 highest seed oil content was reached in the hilly area, while the plants grown in the plain area 28 exhibited the major seed protein content. All the extracted EOs were mainly rich in sesquiterpenes 29 (mostly β -caryophyllene and its oxidized derivatives, and α -humulene), but monoterpene 30 hydrocarbons were significantly represented as well (mainly α - and β -pinene, and myrcene). The 31 EOs extraction yields were slightly higher in the earlier harvest for both sites. 32

33

34 **Keywords:** *Cannabis sativa* L.; Fedora 17; hemp by-products; threshing residue.

35

36 **1. Introduction**

Cannabis sativa L. is a species native to Central and North-eastern Asia, where evidences of its 37 cultivation date back to over 5000 years ago (Li, 1973). Traditionally considered a multi-purpose 38 crop, industrial hemp has been widely cultivated and used throughout history for its fibre, 39 nutritional and medicinal properties (House et al., 2010; Kriese et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2006; Vera 40 41 and Hanks, 2004). Hemp is an annual high-yielding crop with low environmental impact due to its low susceptibility to pests and diseases, making it a suitable crop to be used in both conventional 42 and organic cropping systems (Angelini et al., 2016; Kreuger et al., 2011; Van der Werf et al., 43 1996). Compared with other crops, hemp requires a low level of irrigation and fertilizers after its 44 establishment (Amaducci et al., 2008; Gandolfi et al., 2013). The stems provide fibres and hurds, 45 46 while seeds are used for food, feed and pharmaceutical applications.

The hemp bast fibre is one of the most ecologically friendly, as well as the oldest of all natural fibres (Shahzad, 2012). Besides the traditional utilisation of the fibres, their use as reinforcement in biocomposites (mainly automotive), insulation materials and other non-woven applications

(technical textiles), has increased in recent years, as a response to the increasing demand for 50 51 developing biodegradable, sustainable, and recyclable materials (Carus, 2017). Furthermore, the biomedical relevance of hemp is well documented, thanks to the wealth of its secondary metabolites 52 identified so far (over 500) and their biological activity (Appendino et al., 2008; ElSohly and Slade, 53 2005; Pertwee, 2009; Turner et al., 1980). Hemp grain is generally composed of 25-35% of oil, 20-54 25% protein, 20-30% carbohydrates and 10–15% insoluble fibre, along with a rich array of minerals 55 56 (Deferne and Pate, 1996; Oomah et al., 2002; Pate, 1999; Vonapartis et al., 2015). Moreover, hemp seed oil has positive health benefits, including lowering cholesterol and blood pressure (Callaway, 57 2004; Jones, 1995). The highly polyunsaturated oil of hemp seed is currently used for personal care 58 59 products such as lotions, moisturizers, shampoos, and lip balms. The versatility of the hemp seed lends itself to the development of numerous products for the food, cosmetic, therapeutic, functional 60 food, and nutraceutical industries (Oomah et al., 2002). Hemp seed production and its properties 61 62 vary widely, depending mainly on the harvest date and on the agro-climatic and geographical conditions in which it is grown (Anwar et al., 2006; Campiglia et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2016). In 63 64 recent years, the essential oil (EO) extracted from the inflorescences of C. sativa L. has gained interest, including it among the various products obtained from this plant (Bertoli et al., 2010). 65 Hemp EO is synthesized in the glandular hairs, mainly present in the female flowers bracts and 66 67 floral leaves, where the cannabinoids synthesis takes place as well (Kim and Mahlberg, 1991). It is a high value product, mainly composed of terpenes, of which monoterpenes are the major 68 responsible for the fragrance profiles of different hemp EOs (Bertoli et al., 2010). Different 69 cultivars, indeed, produce EOs with very diverse compositions, leading to various aroma profiles 70 71 (Bertoli et al., 2010; Mediavilla and Steinemann, 1997; Nissen et al., 2010). Genetic improvement 72 and selection may have contributed to the differentiation in the terpenoid content within the various 73 selections and crossings. Besides the genetic variability, several agronomic and environmental factors are involved in both the yield and the composition of the produced essential oil. Among 74 them, the sowing density can affect inflorescence and, consequently EO yield. The modulation of 75

76 the flowering time (Faux et al., 2013) exerted by the climatic and photoperiodic conditions may 77 affect inflorescence development and consequently, EO production (Meier and Mediavilla, 1998), as well. In particular, weather seems to play a major role on the EO yield, as a quite dry period 78 79 occurring between the beginning of female flowering and seed maturity is desirable. The production of essential oil increases in humid areas, as it is also the case for resin, the density of glandular 80 trichomes and the content of cannabinoids. It seems that strong rains can destroy glandular 81 trichomes and cause product decreases (Meier and Mediavilla, 1998). At the same time, the 82 harvesting period plays an important role on EO yield: the flowers should be harvested when about 83 50% of the seeds are matured, shortly before their full maturity, which occurs when 75% of them 84 85 are matured. The prevention of the pollination and the use of manual harvesting also increase the yields (Meier and Mediavilla, 1998). 86

The essence can be obtained from both fresh and dried hemp inflorescences, although it is generally preferable to hydrodistill fresh material. The drying process decreases the amount of obtainable oil but, if performed correctly and with a short storage period, it does not affect the quality of the extracted EO. The EO yield of different hemp varieties ranges from 0.11 to 0.25% (w/w) and generally shows a significant content of α -pinene (3-20%), β -pinene (1-8%), (*E*)- β -ocimene (1-10%), mycene (8-45%), terpinolene (0.12-22%) limonene (0.3-6.4%), β -caryophyllene (7.3-28.0%) and α -humulene (3.2-12.6%) (Bertoli et al., 2010).

94 *C. sativa* L. essential oil extracted from industrial hemp varieties, cultivated for seed oil production, 95 can represent an interesting and promising added-value by-product. These varieties (complying with 96 the 0.2% threshold set by the EU legislation No. 2860/2000), can be cultivated without restrictions 97 by farmers and EO extraction could be realized on the threshing residues, recovered during seed 98 harvest and seed cleaning procedures.

99 Considering that there is a growing interest in hemp for seed production, this study aims at 100 evaluating the possibility to obtain good agronomic performances in terms of seed yield, fixed oil 101 and protein content, together with high quality EO from hemp inflorescences residues. For this

purpose, the effects of cultivation site and time of harvest on agronomic characteristics (plant height, density, stem and seeds yield, seed oil and protein content) and inflorescences essential oil yield and compositions were evaluated. The monoecious French cultivar 'Fedora 17' has been used and compared in two sites (hillyland and lowland) of central Italy, carrying out two distinct harvests (ripening phase in August and senescence phase in September). At the same time, the compositions of the EOs were compared to that of inflorescences coming from spontaneously reborn plants (volunteer plants), grown in the next year on the lowland site and harvested in November 2016.

109

110 2. Materials and Methods

111 2.1. Experimental conditions and plant material

Two experimental fields were established in 2015 in farms located in two contrasting sites: in the 112 hilly (Santa Luce, latitude 43°28'N, longitude 10°34'E, and altitude 200 m a.s.l.) and plain area 113 114 (Cascina, latitude 43°40'N, longitude 10°30'E, altitude 8 m a.s.l.) of Pisa Province (Tuscany region, central Italy). The soil of the hilly area is classified as Vertisoil, and it was characterized by clay-115 loam texture (35.8±4.3; 37.3±2.8, and 26.9±4.5 g 100 g⁻¹ soil, of clay, silt and sand, respectively in 116 the 0-30 cm soil layer), with a low content of both soil organic matter (1.29 \pm 0.42 mg g⁻¹ soil) and 117 available phosphorus (6.07 \pm 0.72 mg P₂O₅ kg⁻¹soil), a medium level of total nitrogen (1.11 \pm 0.07 mg 118 g^{-1} soil), and a good content of exchangeable potassium (137.0±8.2 mg K₂O kg⁻¹ soil). In the plain 119 area, the soil was a typically alluvial clay loam soil (20.1 \pm 7.1; 42.4 \pm 2.7; and 37.5 \pm 6.7 g 100 g⁻¹ 120 soil, of clay, silt and sand, respectively in the 0-30 cm soil layer), with a good content of both 121 organic matter (1.82±0.46 mg g⁻¹ soil) and total nitrogen (1.31±0.21 mg g⁻¹ soil), rich in 122 exchangeable potassium (197.0 \pm 10.2 mg K₂O kg⁻¹ soil) and poor of available phosphorus 123 $(13.42\pm2.41 \text{ mg } P_2O_5 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ soil})$. The two sites have a Mediterranean climate, with total rainfall 124 during the 2015 growing season (from March to August) of 420 mm and 422 mm for Santa Luce 125 and Cascina (long-term mean: 390 mm in the same period), with an average temperature of 21°C 126 and 20.3°C mm (long-term mean: 19.3°C in the same period). Very high temperatures, 3.1°C above 127

the long-term average, have been reached in July in both sites, which has been recorded as the hottest July since 1995.

Crop techniques and mechanization methods were defined in relation to the specific characteristics 130 of the area, and according to low input management practices applied by local farmers. In both 131 environments, tillage (medium-depth ploughing at 35 cm depth) was conducted in the autumn of 132 2014, while the seedbed was prepared in the following spring, immediately before planting, by a 133 pass with a double-disking harrow and a pass with a field cultivator. Two weeks before hemp 134 sowing, the fields were fertilized with 70 kg ha⁻¹ of P₂O₅ as triple superphosphate. K fertilizer was 135 not applied due to the high levels present in the soil. Nitrogen fertilization was applied at a ratio of 136 50 kg N ha⁻¹ as ammonium nitrate applied 21 days after crop emergence. Sowing took place on 8 137 and 10 April, at Santa Luce and Cascina respectively, by a pneumatic drill adopting a seed rate of 138 35-40 kg ha⁻¹. Row distance was set at 0.20 m (Cascina) and 0.13 m (Santa Luce). In both sites, the 139 140 crop was protected against weeds before inter row closure, by mechanical weeding and no herbicides, neither pesticides were applied during the growing season. The cultivation was carried 141 142 out under rainfed conditions. Two distinct harvests were carried out during seed ripening: the first 143 one was accomplished in early August, with a seed moisture around 20%; the second harvest occurred in September, when seed moisture decreased to 11%. 144

The monoecious variety used in this study was Fedora 17, a French cultivar, containing less than 0.2% w/w of Δ 9-tetrahydrocannabinol (Δ 9-THC) (Regulation EC No. 1124/2008, Annex XII), commonly used for fibre production, and characterized by an early onset of the flowering phase. The seeds were obtained from the "Coopérative Centrale des Producteurs de Chanvre" of Le Mans, France.

In each site the field layout was a completely randomized block design to compare the two harvest times. For each harvest time (August and September 2015), four randomized sample areas of 1 m^2 (1 x 1m) within each experimental field, for each cultivation site, were collected, in order to assess the main biometric and productive characteristics. The plants were manually cut at the base of the

stem. The main biometric and productive characteristics were evaluated on a sub-sample of 20 154 155 representative plants. The different plant organs and components (stems, leaves, seeds, inflorescences) were separated and dried into a ventilated oven (35/40°C) until constant weight for 156 dry weight determinations and for further processing and quality evaluations. Seeds were separated 157 from the inflorescence by using a small table threshing machine and then dried (at 30°C) and 158 cleaned. The empty seeds were removed and weighed for seed yield determination. The resulting 159 160 inflorescences (threshing residues) were then evaluated for EO yield and composition. Seed yields were also evaluated for the entire experimental plot using a thresher plot-machine. 161

Besides the observations on 2015 hemp cultivation carried out in Santa Luce and Cascina, further 162 163 investigations were carried out on volunteer plants grown from seeds that were dropped into the soil from the previous hemp crop in Cascina. Hemp regulations require that all volunteer plants be 164 eliminated in the field/crop following hemp production. However, we wanted to evaluate if the 165 166 essential oil characteristics differed between cultivated and volunteer hemp plants. Therefore, the volunteer plants were sampled from Cascina site in November 2016. The plants, irregularly reborn 167 on the soil, were short (<1m stem height) and in the vegetative stage. The aerial parts were air-dried 168 169 at 30°C and then analysed for EO yield and composition.

170

171 2.2. Seed oil and protein content

Four representative sub samples of grain were used for oil and protein determination. Seed protein 172 content was measured according to the Kjeldahl method (Bremner and Mulvaney, 1982) (Kjeldahl 173 $N \times 6.25$). Samples were analysed for oil content according to the Association of Official Analytical 174 Chemists (AOAC) methods (AOAC, 2000). Ether extract system was used for oil extraction from 175 176 powdered samples, by an ANKOM model XT10 extractor (ANKOM Technology, Macedon, NY, USA). In a typical extraction process, 1 g powdered samples were immersed in boiling petroleum 177 ether for 60 min to dissolve most of the soluble material. Total lipids were extracted by means of a 178 chloroform/methanol solution (2:1, v/v), according to Rodriguez-Estrada et al. (1997). 179

180

181 *2.3. Essential oil hydrodistillation*

The hydrodistillations were carried out in a standard Clevenger apparatus for 2 hours. The extractions were performed on representative sub samples of dried aerial parts: the EO yields, calculated on a dry weight basis and expressed as g of essential oil per 100 g of inflorescences, are reported in Table 1. For each Cascina and Santa Luce 2015 sample, hydrodistillation was carried out in triplicates, whilst, due to the low amount of plant material, only one hydrodistillation was performed for the Cascina November 2016 sample.

188

189 2.4. GC - MS Analysis

The hydrodistilled essential oils were diluted to 5% in *n*-hexane HPLC grade and then injected into 190 a GC – MS apparatus. Gas chromatography-electron impact mass spectrometry (GC-EIMS) 191 192 analyses were performed with a Varian CP-3800 gas chromatograph equipped with a DB-5 capillary column (30m×0.25 mm; coating thickness 0.25µm) and a Varian Saturn 2000 ion trap 193 194 mass detector. Analytical conditions were as follows: injector and transfer line temperatures 220 195 and 240 °C, respectively; oven temperature programmed from 60 to 240 °C at 3 °C/min; carrier gas helium at 1 ml/min; injection of 0.2 µl (5% n-hexane HPLC grade solution); split ratio 1:30. 196 197 Identification of the constituents was based on a comparison of the retention times with those of the authentic samples, comparing their linear retention indices relative to the series of *n*-hydrocarbons. 198 Computer matching was also used against commercial (NIST 14 and ADAMS) and laboratory-199 developed library mass spectra built up from pure substances and components of known oils and 200 201 MS literature data (Adams, 1995; Davies, 1990; Jennings and Shibamoto, 1982; Masada, 1976; Stenhagen et al., 1974). 202

203

204 2.5. Statistical Analyses

For the essential oil compositions, the statistical analyses were carried out using the JMP software 205 package (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). The correlation data matrix was a 99×9 matrix (99 206 compounds \times 9 samples including replicates = 891 data). The principal component analysis (PCA) 207 was performed selecting the two highest principal components (PCs) obtained by the linear 208 regressions operated on mean-centred, unscaled data; as an unsupervised method, this analysis 209 aimed at reducing the dimensionality of the multivariate data of the matrix, whilst preserving most 210 of the variance (Choi et al., 2004). The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed 211 selecting the two highest PCs obtained by the linear regressions: the chosen PC1 and PC2 cover 212 46.49% and 26.97% of the variance, respectively, for a total explained variance of 73.46%. The 213 214 Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA) was performed using Ward's method, with squared Euclidian distances as a measure of similarity. Both the HCA and the PCA methods can be applied to observe 215 groups of samples even when there are no reference samples that can be used as a training set to 216 217 establish the model.

Regarding to biometric, productive and qualitative parameters, a two-way ANOVA with four replications (Gomez et al., 1984) was carried out in order to estimate the variance components of harvest time (H; August and September), cultivation site (S; Cascina and Santa Luce) and their reciprocal interaction (HxS). Means were separated on the basis of post-hoc LSD test with a significance level of 5%.

223

3. Results and discussion

225 *3.1. Biometric and productive characteristics*

The main biometric and productive traits, as well as the main qualitative parameters of the seeds (oil and protein content), are reported in Table 1. Significant differences for plant density and plant height were observed between the two cultivation sites, with more dense crops in Santa Luce and taller plants in Cascina. On the other hand, no effect of the harvest time and HxS interaction was

detected for these two traits. A significant increase of total plant and inflorescence dry yields was 230 observed from the 1st to the 2nd harvest time. Furthermore, higher total dry biomass as well as 231 inflorescence and stem yields were observed in Santa Luce in comparison with Cascina, probably 232 due to the greater plant density registered in this hilly site. In such conditions the plants resulted 233 shorter and reached the reproductive stage earlier than the plants cultivated in the plain area of 234 Cascina. However, the same trend was not observed for the seed yield, which remained almost 235 stable during the two harvests and between the two sites. In this case, a significant effect of HxS 236 interaction was detected with the main differences between Santa Luce and Cascina for the seed 237 yield obtained in August, that was higher in the hilly site. The tendentially lower yields obtained at 238 Cascina can be attributable to seed losses due to shattering. This phenomenon was responsible, in 239 turn, for spontaneously reborn plants (namely volunteer plants) from seeds naturally dropped into 240 the soil. 241

The seed production and the stem and inflorescence yields obtained in this trial were similar to 242 those reported in the literature. In particular, Tang et al. (2016) reported seed yield ranging from 0.3 243 Mg ha⁻¹ to 2.4 Mg ha⁻¹ in trials carried out in Italy, France and Czech Republic, for Fedora 17, which 244 proved to be a particularly suitable variety for seed production. At the same time, similarly to our 245 findings, a threshing residue up to 2 Mg ha⁻¹ has been reported. Similarly, Campiglia et al. (2017). 246 in a field trial carried out on sandy loam soil in Viterbo (central Italy), reported, for Fedora 17, a 247 seed yield ranging from 1.04 to 2.02 Mg ha⁻¹ and inflorescences yield from 1.48 to 2.63 Mg ha⁻¹. In 248 such conditions the best results were achieved at the greater plant density (120 plants m^{-2}) and the 249 higher nitrogen fertilization (100 kg N ha⁻¹). 250

The fixed oil content was not affected by the harvest time or HxS interaction, but significantly varied depending on the cultivation site. The oil content ranged from 261 to 278 g kg⁻¹ and rose from Cascina to Santa Luce as plant density increased. Likewise, the crude protein content was similar between the two harvests and varied from 178 to 204 g kg⁻¹ with the lowest values in the hilly site of Santa Luce, showing an opposite behaviour to that observed for the oil content. The values of seed oil and crude protein content here observed, fall within the range reported previously
(Campiglia et al., 2017; Vera and Hanks, 2004; Vonapartis et al., 2015).

258

259 *3.2. Essential oil compositions and yields*

The complete compositions of the extracted essential oils (EOs), the yields of extraction and the legend of the samples are reported in Table 2. The essential oil content and composition was assessed, not only on the inflorescences resulting from seed threshing (see Table 1), but also on small Fedora 17 plants reborn from seed shattering (volunteer plants) from the previous crop in Cascina, which were collected manually in November 2016. The yields of extraction were, for both sites, higher for the samples harvested in August, while the inflorescences from the volunteer plants showed the lowest yield (0.01% w/w).

267 Sesquiterpenes were the most abundant chemical class of compounds for all the samples, as they 268 account for over 60% of all the EOs, with the hydrocarbon ones ranging from 40.1 to 51.6%. Their relative abundances were quite stable in samples from the same cultivation site. Monoterpene 269 270 hydrocarbons follow as the second most abundant class of compounds in all the samples: they 271 showed a decrement from August to September in the plants grown at Cascina, whilst the opposite was found for the plants from Santa Luce. In the volunteer sample, their relative abundance 272 273 incremented up to 32.8%. The oxygenated monoterpenes increased in the late harvest, where their relative abundances reached up to 3-4%. The detected cannabinoids (cannabichromene and 274 cannabidiol) ranged from a minimum of 0.5 to a maximum of 3.1% in SL2 and C1, respectively. 275 Cannabinoids decreased from the August to the September specimens of the same area; they were 276 not detected in the EO from volunteer plants. 277

 β -caryophyllene was the most abundant compound in all the samples: its relative abundance ranged between 17.4 and 23.4%. Its oxidized derivatives were also detected in relevant relative amounts: caryophyllene oxide and caryophylla-4(14),8(15)-dien-5-ol accounted for 7.0 and 2.8% on average,

respectively. The latter was less represented in the C3 sample, where it only reached 1.4%. 9-Epi-

(E)-caryophyllene, which was not detected in the C3 sample, ranged between 1.5 and 3.0% in the other EOs. Among the sesquiterpene hydrocarbons, α - and β -selinene exhibited a relevant presence, as they accounted for 2.5 and 3.5% on average, respectively; they were not detected in the volunteer plants. Valencene and viridiflorene, instead, were only found in the latter, where they represented 2.9 and 2.0%, respectively. α -Humulene, a typical constituent of *C. sativa* essential oil, showed a quite stable relevance in all the samples; it was slightly more abundant in the Santa Luce EOs from both the harvests.

The C3 composition was more variable compared to the other samples in terms of monoterpene 289 hydrocarbons relative abundances. α -Pinene was far less represented (4.3%) in the C3 sample 290 291 compared to the other ones (11.4-14.1%). β -Pinene showed a more stable behaviour: it slightly decreased in the C3 sample (2.3%), compared to C1 (3.3%) and C2 (3.6%). α- and β-pinene 292 relevant presence is typical of the monoecious varieties of C. sativa (Bertoli et al., 2010). Myrcene, 293 294 instead, showed an opposite behaviour, as it was almost three times more abundant in the C3 sample (9.7%) compared to all the other EOs (2.4-3.9%). The increment of myrcene in the essential 295 296 oil of a plant belonging to the same family, Humulus lupulus L., has been linked to a later 297 harvesting date (Matsui et al., 2016; Schnaitter et al., 2016). It is also reported as a result of drought conditions in Ocimum basilicum L. (Abdollahi Mandoulakani et al., 2017), as well as a response to 298 299 thermogenic stress in *Macrozamia* cycad cones (Terry et al., 2016). A moderate to severe water stress-induced increment in the monoterpene hydrocarbons fraction was also reported in EOs 300 extracted from Helichrysum petiolare Hilliard & B.L.Burtt (Caser et al., 2016). The results of the 301 302 present study are in accordance with these findings: the volunteer plants have been harvested later 303 compared to the other samples. Moreover, as they were not regularly watered, they might have 304 suffered both thermal and water stress.

(E)- β -Ocimene reached up to 8.0% in the volunteer sample EO, whilst it ranged between 1.2 and 1.8% in the other EOs. Terpinolene is also more relevant in the C3 sample EO, where it was detected in higher percentages (4.2%) compared to its contribution in the other samples (1.3-1.9%). Whilst cannabichromene was found exclusively in the SL1 sample as low as 0.1%, cannabidiol was found in all the EOs, with the exception of C3. The CBD content showed a decrement from the first harvest of August to the later one in both areas: it dropped from 3.1 to 1.3% in the Cascina samples and from 1.6 to 0.5% in the Santa Luce ones.

As expected, the differences in the essential oil compositions were more relevant between the inflorescence (threshing residue) of cultivated plants and the inflorescences collected from volunteer plants (spontaneously reborn from seeds fallen from the previous crop), rather than between the different cultivation sites. On the contrary, the extraction yields were slightly higher for the inflorescence obtained, after seed removal, from plants grown in the hilly area and harvested in August; the inflorescences obtained, in the same area, from the 2nd harvest (SL2), though, showed a higher yield reduction compared to C2.

The detected EOs compositions are, overall, very different from those reported by Nissen et al. 319 320 (2010) for three other industrial cultivars: Carmagnola and Fibranova, which are dioecious cultivars of Italian origin, and Futura, a monoecious of French origin. Monoterpenes dominate the 321 322 compositions, accounting for up to 60-70% of the total, with myrcene and α -pinene as the most 323 abundant compounds in the oil; sesquiterpenes, instead, reach up to 20-30% (Nissen et al., 2010). In Novak et al. (2001) the myrcene predominance over β -caryophyllene is shown by all the EOs 324 325 extracted from the five analyzed industrial cultivars (Felina 34, Fedrina 74, SwissMix, Kompolti and Secuemi) of C. sativa L. (Novak et al., 2001). The same behaviour is shown by other fibre 326 hemp EOs are reported by Bertoli et al. (2010): Pop 2 (harvested in 2005), Carmagnola (harvested 327 in 2005 and 2006), Red Petiole (harvested in 2005), which are all dioecious varieties, and the 328 monoecious Felina 34 (harvested in 2005 and 2006). In the same study, the dioecious varieties Pop 329 2 (harvested in 2006), Pop 4 (harvested in 2006) and Pop 5 (harvested in 2005), and the dioecious 330 Red Petiole (harvested in 2006) EOs showed a composition more similar to the ones in the present 331 study, with a predominance of β -caryophyllene, and sesquiterpenes in general, over monoterpenes 332 (Bertoli et al., 2010). 333

334

335 *3.3. Multivariate statistical analysis*

The hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) dendrogram (Fig. 1) grouped samples based on the cultivation site for the main crops, whilst the C3 volunteer sample was clustered separately: this confirms its compositional difference compared to all the other EOs. In the other macro-cluster, the Cascina and the Santa Luce samples were grouped in two different sub clusters: the compositions of the EOs are influenced by the site of cultivation in a recognizable pattern, even at different harvesting times.

The principal component analysis (PCA) plot (Fig. 2) confirmed the significant differences in terms 342 of composition of the EOs extracted from the volunteer sample: only C3 was plotted in the left 343 quadrants of the PCA plot, due to its larger relative abundances of myrcene, terpinolene, (E)- β -344 ocimene, valencene and viridiflorene. Moreover, the score plot evidenced the influence of the 345 346 harvesting time on the quality of the extracted EO. The earlier harvested samples (C1 and SL1), indeed, were plotted in the lower right quadrant of the PCA plot: their caryophylla-4(14),8(15)-347 348 dien-5-ol, 9-epi-(E)- caryophyllene and cannabidiol relative abundances separated them in this 349 quadrant from the later harvested ones. C2 and SL2 were positioned in the upper right quadrant: selina-3,7(11)-diene, caryophyllene oxide, santolina triene and sabinene played a major role in their 350 351 plotting.

The PCA result is not in disagreement with the HCA: they are to be interpreted as different aspects of the compositional behaviour. The HCA, which does not take into account the covariance among the samples, showed an overall qualitative proximity of the EOs compositions from the same site. The PCA, instead, evidenced the quantitative influence of all the compounds in the EO, taking into account the two most relevant linear regressions explaining most of the analysed covariance, differentiating the samples according to their harvesting time.

359 **4. Conclusion**

The findings obtained in this study highlighted that the exploitation of the whole biomass of industrial hemp is of pivotal importance in order to develop a series of specific products and coproducts (stems, seeds and inflorescences), in a modern biorefinery approach.

From an agronomic point of view, the cultivation of industrial hemp as multipurpose crop for fixed 363 oil production and inflorescences for high quality EO still requires optimized agro-techniques, 364 365 incorporating appropriate technical advances in agronomic practices in order to maximize both the seed production and the quantity and quality of the EO produced by the residual inflorescences. In 366 particular, this study confirms the importance of genotype x environment interaction and harvest 367 368 time of the seeds in defining the crop performances in term of productivity and quality of the final products. Certainly, the cultivation of industrial hemp for seed and both fixed and essential oil 369 production could represent a valid alternative in order to increase the agro-environmental 370 371 sustainability and diversification of Mediterranean cereal-based cropping, as well to contribute to differentiate and raise the income deriving from agricultural activity. In fact, the present study 372 373 demonstrated the possibility to effectively exploit the inflorescences as added-value co-products 374 after seed harvest, contributing to the overall economy of hemp cultivation. C. sativa L. essential oil can represent a high-value product, whose yield and composition are greatly influenced by the 375 376 selected cultivar. 'Fedora 17' EO, investigated in the inflorescences during seed ripening, is mainly rich in sesquiterpene compounds, both oxygenated and hydrocarbon: the most represented ones are 377 β -caryophyllene and its oxidized derivatives. Its monoterpene hydrocarbons fraction, though, is 378 379 particularly relevant, even in the volunteer plants, where they are almost as represented as the sesquiterpene hydrocarbons. The obtained data have shown that the majority of the compositional 380 381 variability was mainly due to the origin of the raw material and to the harvest time, rather than to 382 the cultivation site. In fact, the volunteer plants showed a significantly higher relative abundance of monoterpene hydrocarbons, with a different profile of sesquiterpene hydrocarbons, as well. Finally, 383 the inflorescences obtained from August harvest showed higher yields of extraction compared to the 384

385 later-harvested ones.

388 5. References

- Abdollahi Mandoulakani, B., Eyvazpour, E., Ghadimzadeh, M., 2017. The effect of drought stress
- 390 on the expression of key genes involved in the biosynthesis of phenylpropanoids and essential
- oil components in basil (Ocimum basilicum L.). Phytochemistry 139, 1–7.
- 392 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phytochem.2017.03.006
- Adams, R.P., 1995. Identification of essential oil components by gas chromatography/quadrupole
 mass spectroscopy. Allured Publishing Corporation, Carol Stream, Illinois, USA.
- 395 Amaducci, S., Zatta, A., Pelatti, F., Venturi, G., 2008. Influence of agronomic factors on yield and
- quality of hemp (Cannabis sativa L.) fibre and implication for an innovative production
- 397 system. F. Crop. Res. 107, 161–169. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fcr.2008.02.002
- 398 Angelini, L.G., Tavarini, S., Di Candilo, M., 2016. Performance of New and Traditional Fiber
- Hemp (Cannabis sativa L.) Cultivars for Novel Applications: Stem, Bark, and Core Yield and
 Chemical Composition. J. Nat. Fibers 13, 238–252.
- 401 https://doi.org/10.1080/15440478.2015.1029193
- 402 Anwar, F., Latif, S., Ashraf, M., 2006. Analytical characterization of hemp (Cannabis sativa) seed
- 403 oil from different agro-ecological zones of Pakistan. J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc. 83, 323–329.
- 404 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11746-006-1207-x
- 405 Appendino, G., Gibbons, S., Giana, A., Pagani, A., Grassi, G., Stavri, M., Smith, E., Rahman,
- 406 M.M., 2008. Antibacterial Cannabinoids from Cannabis sativa : A Structure–Activity Study. J.
- 407 Nat. Prod. 71, 1427–1430. https://doi.org/10.1021/np8002673
- 408 Bertoli, A., Tozzi, S., Pistelli, L., Angelini, L.G., 2010. Fibre hemp inflorescences: From crop-
- 409 residues to essential oil production. Ind. Crops Prod. 32, 329–337.
- 410 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2010.05.012
- 411 Callaway, J.C., 2004. Hempseed as a nutritional resource: An overview, in: Euphytica. pp. 65–72.
- 412 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10681-004-4811-6
- 413 Campiglia, E., Radicetti, E., Mancinelli, R., 2017. Plant density and nitrogen fertilization affect

414	agronomic performance of industrial hemp (Cannabis sativa L.) in Mediterranean environment
415	Ind. Crops Prod. 100, 246–254. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2017.02.022
416	Carus, M., 2017. Record Cultivation of Industrial Hemp in Europe in 2016, in: International
417	Conference of the European Industrial Hemp Association (EIHA). Hürth, Germany.
418	Caser, M., D'Angiolillo, F., Chitarra, W., Lovisolo, C., Ruffoni, B., Pistelli, L., Pistelli, L., Scariot,
419	V., 2016. Water deficit regimes trigger changes in valuable physiological and phytochemical
420	parameters in Helichrysum petiolare Hilliard & amp; B.L. Burtt. Ind. Crops Prod. 83, 680-692.
421	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2015.12.053
422	Choi, Y.H., Kim, H.K., Hazekamp, A., Erkelens, C., Lefeber, A.W.M., Verpoorte, R., 2004.
423	Metabolomic Differentiation of Cannabis sativa Cultivars Using 1H NMR Spectroscopy and
424	Principal Component Analysis. J. Nat. Prod. 67, 953–957. https://doi.org/10.1021/np049919c
425	Davies, N.W., 1990. Gas chromatographic retention indices of monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes on
426	Methyl Silicon and Carbowax 20M phases. J. Chromatogr. A 503, 1–24.
427	Deferne, JL., Pate, D.W., 1996. Hemp seed oil: A source of valuable essential fatty acids. J. Int.
428	Hemp Assoc. 3, 4–7.
429	ElSohly, M.A., Slade, D., 2005. Chemical constituents of marijuana: The complex mixture of
430	natural cannabinoids. Life Sci. 78, 539–548. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lfs.2005.09.011
431	Faux, AM., Draye, X., Lambert, R., D'Andrimont, R., Raulier, P., Bertin, P., 2013. The
432	relationship of stem and seed yields to flowering phenology and sex expression in monoecious
433	hemp (Cannabis sativa L.). Eur. J. Agron. 47, 11-22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eja.2013.01.006
434	Gandolfi, S., Ottolina, G., Riva, S., Fantoni, G.P., Patel, I., 2013. Complete Chemical Analysis of
435	Carmagnola Hemp Hurds and Structural Features of Its Components. BioResources 8, 2641-
436	2656. https://doi.org/10.15376/biores.8.2.2641-2656
437	Gomez, K.A., Gomez, A.A., Gomez, K.A., 1984. Two-Factor Experiments, in: Statistical
438	Procedures for Agricultural Research. Wiley J. and Sons Publisher, New York (NY), USA, pp.
439	84–130.

- House, J.D., Neufeld, J., Leson, G., 2010. Evaluating the Quality of Protein from Hemp Seed
- 441 (Cannabis sativa L.) Products Through the use of the Protein Digestibility-Corrected Amino
- 442 Acid Score Method. J. Agric. Food Chem. 58, 11801–11807.
- 443 https://doi.org/10.1021/jf102636b
- 444 Jennings, W., Shibamoto, T., 1982. Qualitative Analysis of Flavor and Fragrance Volatiles by Glass
- 445 Capillary Gas Chromatography, Food / Nahrung. Academic Press, New York, London,
 446 Sydney, Toronto, San Francisco.
- Jones, K., 1995. Nutritional and medicinal guide to hemp seed. Rainforest Botanical Laboratory,
 Auburn, WA, USA.
- Kim, E.-S., Mahlberg, P.G., 1991. Secretory Cavity Development in Glandular Trichomes of
- 450 Cannabis sativa L. (Cannabaceae). Am. J. Bot. 78, 220. https://doi.org/10.2307/2445245
- Kreuger, E., Sipos, B., Zacchi, G., Svensson, S.-E., Björnsson, L., 2011. Bioconversion of industrial
 hemp to ethanol and methane: The benefits of steam pretreatment and co-production.
- 453 Bioresour. Technol. 102, 3457–3465. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2010.10.126
- 454 Kriese, U., Schumann, E., Weber, W.E., Beyer, M., Brühl, L., Matthäus, B., 2004. Oil content,
- 455 tocopherol composition and fatty acid patterns of the seeds of 51 Cannabis sativa L. genotypes.

456 Euphytica 137, 339–351. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:EUPH.0000040473.23941.76

- Li, H.L., 1973. The origin and use of Cannabis in eastern Asia linguistic-cultural implications. J
 Econ Bot 28, 293–301.
- Masada, Y., 1976. Analysis of essential oils by gas chromatography and mass spectrometry. John
 Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, NY.
- 461 Matsui, H., Inui, T., Oka, K., Fukui, N., 2016. The influence of pruning and harvest timing on hop
- aroma, cone appearance, and yield. Food Chem. 202, 15–22.
- 463 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.01.058
- 464 Mediavilla, V., Steinemann, S., 1997. Essential oil of Cannabis sativa L. strains. J. Int. Hemp
- 465 Assoc. 4, 82–84.

- Meier, C., Mediavilla, V., 1998. Factors influencing the yield and the quality of hemp (Cannabis
 sativa L.) essential oil. J. Int. Hemp Assoc. 5, 16–20.
- 468 Nissen, L., Zatta, A., Stefanini, I., Grandi, S., Sgorbati, B., Biavati, B., Monti, A., 2010.
- 469 Characterization and antimicrobial activity of essential oils of industrial hemp varieties
- 470 (Cannabis sativa L.). Fitoterapia 81, 413–419. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fitote.2009.11.010
- 471 Novak, J., Zitterl-Eglseer, K., Deans, S.G., Franz, C.M., 2001. Essential oils of different cultivars of
- 472 Cannabis sativa L. and their antimicrobial activity. Flavour Fragr. J. 16, 259–262.
- 473 https://doi.org/10.1002/ffj.993
- 474 Oomah, B.D., Busson, M., Godfrey, D. V, Drover, J.C., 2002. Characteristics of hemp (Cannabis
- 475 sativa L.) seed oil. Food Chem. 76, 33–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-8146(01)00245-X
- 476 Pate, D.W., 1999. Hemp Seed: A Valuable Food Source, in: Ranalli, P. (Ed.), Advances in Hemp
 477 Research. CRC Press, pp. 243–255.
- 478 Pertwee, R.G., 2009. Cannabinoid pharmacology: the first 66 years. Br. J. Pharmacol. 147, S163–
 479 S171. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.bjp.0706406
- 480 Schnaitter, M., Wimmer, A., Kollmannsberger, H., Gastl, M., Becker, T., 2016. Influence of hop
- harvest date of the 'Mandarina Bavaria' hop variety on the sensory evaluation of dry-hopped
 top-fermented beer. J. Inst. Brew. 122, 661–669. https://doi.org/10.1002/jib.382
- 483 Shahzad, A., 2012. Hemp fiber and its composites a review. J. Compos. Mater. 46, 973–986.
 484 https://doi.org/10.1177/0021998311413623
- Stenhagen, E., Abrahamsson, S., McLafferty, F.W., 1974. Registry of Mass spectral data. Wiley &
 Sons, New York, NY.
- 487 Tang, C.-H., Ten, Z., Wang, X.-S., Yang, X.-Q., 2006. Physicochemical and Functional Properties
- 488 of Hemp (Cannabis sativa L.) Protein Isolate. J. Agric. Food Chem. 54, 8945–8950.
- 489 https://doi.org/10.1021/jf0619176
- 490 Tang, K., Struik, P.C., Yin, X., Thouminot, C., Bjelková, M., Stramkale, V., Amaducci, S., 2016.
- 491 Comparing hemp (Cannabis sativa L.) cultivars for dual-purpose production under contrasting

- 492 environments. Ind. Crops Prod. 87, 33–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2016.04.026
- 493 Terry, L.I., Roemer, R.B., Booth, D.T., Moore, C.J., Walter, G.H., 2016. Thermogenic respiratory
- 494 processes drive the exponential increase of volatile organic compound emissions in
- 495 Macrozamia cycad cones. Plant. Cell Environ. 39, 1588–1600.
- 496 https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.12730
- 497 Turner, C.E., Elsohly, M.A., Boeren, E.G., 1980. Constituents of Cannabis sativa L. XVII. A
- 498 Review of the Natural Constituents. J. Nat. Prod. 43, 169–234.
- 499 https://doi.org/10.1021/np50008a001
- 500 Van der Werf, H., Mathussen, E., Haverkort, A., 1996. The potential of hemp (Cannabis sativa L.)
- for sustainable fibre production: a crop physiological appraisal. Ann. Appl. Biol. 129, 109–
- 502 123. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-7348.1996.tb05736.x
- Vera, C.L., Hanks, A., 2004. Hemp Production in Western Canada. J. Ind. Hemp 9, 79–86.
 https://doi.org/10.1300/J237v09n02_08
- 505 Vonapartis, E., Aubin, M.-P., Seguin, P., Mustafa, A.F., Charron, J.-B., 2015. Seed composition of
- ten industrial hemp cultivars approved for production in Canada. J. Food Compos. Anal. 39, 8–
- 507 12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfca.2014.11.004

508

510 Tables

511 **Table 1.** Effect of harvest time, cultivation site and their reciprocal interaction on the main biometric, productive and

- 512 qualitative characteristics of *Cannabis sativa* (var. Fedora 17). Values are expressed as mean ± standard deviation
- 513 (n=4).

Cultivation Site								
	Harvest	Cascina (plain area)	Santa Luce (plain area)	Mean Harvest	Significance			
Plant density (plants m ⁻²)	August September Mean Site	72.86 ± 12.45 88.33 \pm 7.64 80.60 B	132.05 ± 26.39 142.31 ± 16.01 137.18 A	102.46 115.32	S = ***; H = n.s.; SxH = n.s.			
Plant height (cm)	August September Mean Site	211.80 ± 22.63 205.66 ± 29.64 208.73 A	172.00 ± 16.99 159.56 ± 13.60 165.78 B	191.90 182.61	S = ***; H = n.s.; SxH = n.s.			
Total dry yield (Mg ha ⁻¹)	August September Mean Site	15.55 ± 1.23 18.56 ± 1.76 17.06 B	23.60 ± 2.57 30.52 ± 2.88 27.06 A	19.58 B 24.54 A	S = ***; H = ***; SxH = n.s.			
Inflorescence dry yield (Mg ha ⁻¹)	August September Mean Site	1.66 ± 0.25 2.62 ± 0.24 2.14 B	2.17 ± 0.20 3.35 ± 0.33 2.76 A	1.92 B 2.99 A	S = ***; H = ***; SxH = n.s.			
Stem dry yield (Mg ha ⁻¹)	August September Mean Site	13.05 ± 0.98 c 14.94± 1.02 c 14.00 B	20.34 ± 1.73 b 26.30 ± 1.89 a 23.32 A	16.70 B 20.62 A	S = ***; H = ***; SxH = *			
Seed yield (Mg ha ⁻¹)	August September Mean Site	0.84 ± 0.13 b 1.00 ± 0.03 ab 0.92	1.09 ± 0.16 a 0.97 ± 0.09 ab 1.03	0.97 0.99	S = n.s.; H = n.s.; SxH = *			
Oil content (g kg ⁻¹)	August September Mean Site	265.80 ± 14.20 260.61 ± 9.18 263.21 B	278.40 ± 16.47 275.60 ± 9.11 277.00 A	272.10 268.11	S = *; H = n.s.; SxH = n.s.			
Protein content (g kg ⁻¹)	August	200.70 ± 12.10	178.0 ± 13.47	189.35	S = **; H = n.s.;			

September	204.20 ± 15.31	180.24 ± 13.89	192.22	SxH = n.s.
Mean Site	202.45 A	179.12 B		

Means followed by different letters are significantly different according to 2-way ANOVA with harvest time (H) and cultivation site (S) as variability factors. $LSD_{0.05}$ test has been used as *post-hoc* comparison. Lower-case letters indicate HxS interaction, upper-case letters indicate effect of harvest time and cultivation site. Significance is indicated as follows: ns, not significant; *, significant at p < 0.05 level; **, significant at p < 0.01 level; ***, significant at p < 0.001

518 level.

Constituents	l.r.i. ^a			1		
			Cascina		Sa	anta Luce
	-	August 2015	September 2015 (C2)	November 2016 (C3)	August 2015	September 2015 (SL2)
		(C1)			(SL1)	
(E)-2-hexenal	856	_b	-	0.4	-	-
heptanal	901	0.1±0.1	0.5±0.3	0.5	0.1±0.1	0.2±0.0
santolina triene	909	0.1±0.1	0.4±0.2	0.2	0.1±0.1	0.5±0.1
α-pinene	939	14.1±7.3	12.9±9.4	4.3	12.6±5.9	11.4±2.0
camphene	954	0.4±0.2	0.5±0.3	-	0.4±0.2	0.5±0.1
sabinene	976	-	0.1±0.1	-	-	0.1±0.1
β-pinene	980	3.3±1.6	3.6±2.2	2.3	2.5±1.1	2.8±0.6
myrcene	992	3.9±1.4	3.9±2.1	9.7	2.4±0.8	3.2±0.5
α-phellandrene	1005	0.3±0.7	0.1±0.1	0.2	0.1±0.1	0.1 ± 0.1
δ-3-carene	1011	1.3±1.8	0.4±0.2	1.2	0.1±0.1	0.2 ± 0.0
α-terpinene	1018	-	0.1±0.1	0.2	0.0±0.1	0.1±0.0
<i>p</i> -cymene	1027	-	0.1±0.0	-	0.0±0.1	0.2±0.0
limonene	1031	1.7±0.7	1.4±0.3	1.1	0.7±0.2	0.8±0.1
1,8-cineole	1035	0.1±0.2	0.3±0.4	0.3	0.4±0.3	0.5 ± 0.0
(Z)-β-ocimene	1041	0.3±0.2	0.2±0.1	1.1	0.2±0.1	0.3±0.0
(<i>E</i>)-β-ocimene	1051	1.4±0.7	1.5±0.5	8.0	1.2±0.5	1.8±0.3
γ-terpinene	1062	0.1±0.1	0.2±0.1	0.3	0.0±0.1	0.2±0.0

Table 2. Complete compositions and extraction yields (%w/w dry weight) of the extracted essential oils.

cis-sabinene hydrate	1070	-	0.2±0.0	0.2	0.0±0.1	0.2±0.0
terpinolene	1089	1.4±0.7	1.8±0.6	4.2	1.3±0.7	1.9±0.2
trans-sabinene hydrate	1099	-	0.1±0.2	-	-	0.1±0.1
linalool	1101	-	0.1±0.1	0.2	-	-
nonanal	1103	0.2±0.1	0.4±0.1	1	0.1±0.1	0.2±0.0
cis-p-menth-2-en-1-ol	1123	-	-	0.1	-	0.1±0.1
trans-pinene hydrate	1124	-	0.1±0.1	-	-	-
trans-pinocarveol	1140	0.1±0.1	0.6±0.0	0.1	0.4±0.1	0.7±0.1
trans-sabinol	1141	-	0.2±0.0	-	-	0.2±0.2
geijerene	1143	-	-	-	-	0.2±0.2
isopulegol	1146	-	0.1±0.1	-	-	-
camphene hydrate	1150	-	0.1±0.1	-	0.1±0.1	0.1±0.2
β-pinene oxide	1158	-	-	0.2	-	-
(E)-2-nonenal	1163	-	-	0.2	-	-
pinocarvone	1164	-	0.2±0.0	-	0.1±0.1	0.3±0.0
borneol	1167	-	0.1±0.1	-	0.1±0.1	0.1±0.1
pinocampheol	1170	0.1±0.1	0.9±0.1	-	0.5±0.1	1.0±0.0
p-cymen-8-ol	1183	-	0.1±0.1	0.1	-	0.1±0.1
α-terpineol	1190	0.1±0.1	0.2±0.0	-	0.1±0.0	0.2±0.0
myrtenol	1192	-	0.1±0.1	-	-	-
hexyl butyrate	1193	-	-	0.2	-	-
cyclosativene	1368	-	0.1±0.1	-	-	-
α-ylangene	1372	-	-	-	-	-

1-hexyl-1-hexanoate	1385	-	-	0.3	-	-
sativene	1395	-	0.1±0.2	-	-	0.1±0.1
<i>iso</i> caryophyllene	1405	0.4±0.0	0.6±0.2	0.4	0.4±0.1	0.6±0.1
α-gurjunene	1409	-	-	-	0.0±0.1	-
cis-α-bergamotene	1416	0.1±0.1	0.2±0.0	-	0.2±0.1	0.2±0.0
β-caryophyllene	1418	20.5±3.1	17.4±0.4	20.9	23.4±4.4	22.4±1.6
trans-a-bergamotene	1438	1.1±0.3	1.3±0.3	1.8	1.9±0.4	1.9±0.1
α-humulene	1455	7.0±0.9	5.9±0.9	6.5	8.5±1.3	8.1±0.3
(E) - β -farnesene	1460	-	-	3.3	-	-
alloaromadendrene	1461	-	2.1±2.9	-	1.5±2.1	2.2±3.1
9-epi-(E)-caryophyllene	1467	3.0±0.6	1.5±2.1	-	3.0±2.8	2.2±3.1
β-chamigrene	1475	-	-	-	0.1±0.1	-
γ-muurolene	1477	0.2±0.1	0.4±0.1	-	0.3±0.2	0.4±0.1
β-selinene	1485	3.0±1.7	3.3±1.2	-	4.0±0.9	4.3±0.2
valencene	1492	-	-	2.9	-	-
viridiflorene	1493	-	-	2.0	-	-
α-selinene	1494	2.4±1.2	2.5±0.7	-	2.8±0.5	3.0±0.2
α-bulnesene	1505	-	-	-	0.2±0.2	-
(E,E) - α -farnesene	1507	-	-	0.5	-	-
β-bisabolene	1509	0.2±0.2	0.3±0.1	-	0.3±0.1	0.3±0.0
trans-y-cadinene	1513	0.1±0.2	0.2±0.2	-	0.4±0.2	0.2±0.3
7- <i>epi</i> -α-selinene	1518	0.2±0.3	-	-	0.2±0.2	0.3±0.0
δ-cadinene	1523	0.3±0.1	0.8±0.5	-	0.5±0.2	0.5±0.0

β -sesquiphellandrene	1524	-	-	0.3	-	-
zonarene	1530	-	-	-	-	0.2±0.2
(E)- <i>γ</i> -bisabolene	1535	-	-	0.2	-	-
selina-3,7(11)-diene	1542	1.4±0.8	5.4±1.5	2.4	3.9±2.1	4.5±0.2
germacrene B	1556	-	0.2±0.3	-	-	-
cis-longipinanol	1557	-	-	-	-	0.3±0.4
longicamphenylone	1559	-	-	-	0.0±0.1	-
dimethyl ionone	1563	0.7±0.2	0.4±0.1	-	0.5±0.2	0.3±0.4
(E)-nerolidol	1565	0.6±0.4	1.1±0.2	0.4	0.6±0.3	0.6±0.0
caryophyllene alcohol	1569	0.3±0.3	-	-	0.5±0.2	0.4±0.0
caryophyllene oxide	1581	6.6±1.3	8.5±2.4	7.3	6±1.6	6.9±0.8
globulol	1583	-	0.3±0.4	-	-	-
carotol	1594	-	-	0.5	-	-
5-epi-7-epi-a-eudesmol	1606	0.4±0.4	0.1±0.2	-	0.3±0.1	0.1±0.1
humulene oxide II	1607	2.2±0.5	2.4±1.0	2.9	1.9±0.5	2.0±0.2
10-epi-γ-eudesmol	1623	1.3±0.6	0.7±0.7	1.9	0.4±0.6	0.3±0.5
1-epi-cubenol	1628	-	-	1.2	-	-
eremoligenol	1632	-	-	-	0.3±0.4	-
caryophylla-4(14),8(15)-dien-5-ol	1636	4.0±2.2	2.2±0.2	1.4	3.6±1.5	2.8±0.1
epoxy-alloaromadendrene	1641	0.5±0.4	1.1±0.1	1.2	0.8 ± 0.4	0.4±0.6
cubenol	1643	-	-	-	-	0.2±0.3
selina-3,11 dien-6-alpha ol	1644	0.2±0.3	0.8±1.2	-	0.3±0.4	1.5±0.9
α-eudesmol	1652	-	0.2±0.4	-	0.3±0.6	-

selin-11-en-4-α-ol	1653	0.6 ± 0.8	0.2±0.2	-	0.2±0.3	-
7-epi-α-eudesmol	1655	-	-	0.8	-	-
intermedeol	1667	-	0.3±0.4	-	-	-
14-hydroxy-9- <i>epi</i> -(<i>E</i>)-caryophyllene	1668	1.9±1.1	1.0±0.4	-	1.7±0.7	-
(Z) - α -santalool	1677	1.3±1.1	1.1±0.3	-	1.4±0.7	-
elemol acetate	1681	-	-	-	-	0.5±0.7
<i>epi</i> -α-bisabool	1685	-	0.4±0.5	-	0.1±0.2	0.6±0.3
juniper camphor	1692	-	0.3±0.4	0.3	-	0.1±0.2
acorenone B	1698	-	-	-	-	0.3±0.4
caryophyllene acetate	1701	0.8±0.5	0.1±0.2	-	0.4±0.4	-
hexahydrofarnesyl acetone	1845	0.3±0.2	0.2±0.1	1.0	0.3±0.3	0.2±0.0
cannabichromene	2427	-	-	-	0.1±0.1	-
cannabidiol	2431	3.1±1.9	1.3±0.4	-	1.6±1.9	0.5±0.3
Monoterpene hydrocarbons		28.2±12.4	27.1±16.1	32.8	21.7±8.8	24.1±3.8
Oxygenated monoterpenes		0.4±0.2	3.2±0.0	1.2	1.7±0.5	3.7±0.3
Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons		40.1±6.4	42.3±7.1	41.2	51.6±5.1	51.2±3.6
Oxygenated sesquiterpenes		20.8±7.9	21.0±7.6	17.9	18.8±5.6	17±1.5
Apocarotenoids		1.0±0.3	0.6±0.2	1.0	0.8 ± 0.4	0.4 ± 0.4
Cannabinoids		3.1±2.0	1.3±0.4	-	1.7±2.0	0.5±0.3
Non-terpene aldehydes		0.3±0.2	0.8±0.4	2.1	0.2±0.2	0.4 ± 0.0
Non-terpene esters		-	-	0.5	-	-
Total identified (%)	94.7±3.2	96.3±1.0	96.2	96.4±1.6	97.4±0.9

Extraction yield (% w/w)	0.06±0.02	0.04±0.01	0.01	0.12±0.03	0.02±0.00

^a Linear retention indices on a DB5 column; ^b Not detected.

Figure captions

Figure 1. Hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) dendrogram for the complete compositions of the essential oils extracted from all the samples.

Figure 2. Principal component analysis (PCA) score plot for the complete compositions of the essential oils extracted from all the samples.





