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Phenolic Bioactives in Grapes and Grape-Based Products

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Introduction

Polyphenols are a large and complex group of compounds responsible for the characteristics, quality, and color of grape and wine, especially for red ones. The polyphenolic composition has been extensively studied and a large family of structures have been identified in grapes and wine (Ribereau-Gayon 1965; Somers 1971; Nagel and Wulf 1979; Slinkard and Singleton 1984; Bourzeix et al. 1986; Cheynier and Rigaud 1986; Da Silva et al. 1991b; Prieur et al. 1994; Souquet et al. 1996) These compounds can affect the appearance, taste, mouth-feel, fragrance, and antimicrobial properties of wine. In addition, polyphenols were confirmed to be the key compounds responsible for the antioxidant potential of wine (Burns et al. 2000).

Wines and grapes contain a number of polyphenolic constituents classified as flavonoids and non-flavonoids that contribute to wine sensory characteristics, especially to color, flavor, and astringency and therefore, to the differences between red and white wines. The family of wine flavonoids includes anthocyanins, flavan-3-ols, flavanols, and dihydroflavonols, whereas the nonflavonoids include phenolic acids (hydroxybenzoic and hydroxycinnamic acids (HCA) and their derivatives) and stilbenes. Red wines contain all the above phenolics, while white wines contain mainly phenolic acids and flavanols. In particular, flavan-3-ols (monomeric flavan-3-ols and proanthocyanidins) confer the astringency and structure to the wine (Sarni-Manchado et al. 1999) and anthocyanins, as red pigments, are responsible for the color of the wines (Wulf and Nagel 1978).

The grape phenolic composition and content is affected by several factors such as grape variety, ripening stage, climate, soil, place of growing, and vine cultivation. In addition, wine-making practices (maceration time, temperature, intensity of pressing, yeast, SO₂-doses) affect the extraction of phenolic compounds from grapes and also enological treatments and aging when subsequent reactions in wine occur to influence the wine phenolic composition.

Flavonoids

Flavonoids exist as free or polymerized with other flavonoids, sugars, and nonflavonoids, or in combination with nonflavonoids, such as HCA derivatives and occur esterified to sugars, organic acids, or various alcohols. The main structure of flavonoids that consists of two benzene rings (A and B) linked by an oxygen-containing pyrane ring condensed with the A ring, is presented in Figure 8.1. Flavonoids may be divided into the following groups.

Anthocyanins

Anthocyanins are red compounds, responsible for the color of red grapes and wines. They are mainly located in the vacuoles of grape skins, with the exception of the teinturier varieties that contain anthocyanins in the pulp. Anthocyanins identified in grape skins and wines from *Vitis vinifera* L. are based on five main anthocyanidins—delphinidin, cyanidin, petunidin, peonidin, and malvidin. The most abundant anthocyanins are the 3-*O*-glucosides and among them, malvidin-3-glucoside is the major compound. Acylated monoglucoside anthocyanins: 3-*O*-acetylglucosides, 3-*O*-*p*-coumaroylglucosides, and 3-*O*-caffeoylglucosides have also been identified in grapes and wines. Acylation occurs in the C-6 position of the glucose molecule with acetic, *p*-coumaric, and caffeic acid (Ribereau-Gayon 1965; Somers 1971; Wulf and Nagel 1978; Baldi et al. 1995; Núñez et al. 2004; Alcalde-Eon et al. 2006). The amount of acylated anthocyanins is largely influenced by the grape variety. The non-*V. Vinifera* grapes, such as *V. labrusca*, *V. rotundifolia*, and *V. upestris* and hybrid grape varieties contain anthocyanin 3,5-diglucosides, as well as 3-(*p*-coumaroylglucoside)-5-glucosides (Giusti et al. 1999; Favretto and Flamini 2000). The structure of anthocyanins is presented in Figure 8.2.

Enological practices affect the extraction of phenolic compounds from grapes and their subsequent reactions in wine. For red wine production, the grapes are crushed after the separation of the leaves and stalks and then maceration is applied on the pomace. Maceration means contact between the grape juice and pomace (hard parts of the grape skins and seeds) and its duration varies depending on the grape that is processed and type of wine that is produced.

During the maceration period when the grape juice and pomace are in contact, anthocyanins and the other phenolic compounds are transferred from the solid parts of the grape to the must. After a few days of fermentation, anthocyanins reach a maximum level followed by a decrease of their concentration as a result of precipitation with tartaric salts in a form of colloidal material, adsorption on yeast cell walls, or elimination during filtration and fining. Anthocyanin pigments extracted from the grapes give the color of the young wines, but during the winemaking and aging of wine, anthocyanins may be modified to create stable, C4-substituted pigments through reactions involving pyruvic acid (Bakker et al. 1997; Fulcrand et al. 1998) and vinyl phenol derivatives (Fulcrand et al. 1996). A number of oligomeric pigments resulting from a condensation reaction involving acetaldehyde and from direct reactions of anthocyanins with flavanols have also been described (Somers 1971; Fulcrand et al. 1996; Berg and Akiyoshi 1975; Bakker and Timberlake 1986). Recently, the existence of anthocyanins acylated with lactic acid, formed in wine, has been reported (Alcalde-Eon et al. 2006). Despite all these changes, the wine anthocyanin profile in some studies has also been used as criteria for characterizing and classifying grape varieties in order to establish differences between them (González-San José et al. 1990; Arozarena et al. 2000).

The color of anthocyanins is directly linked to the pH of the medium, as several studies have shown the presence of colored and uncolored forms of anthocyanins depending on the pH (Somers 1971; Brouillard and Dubois 1977; Brouillard et al. 1978). Flavylium cations are mainly present in highly acidic media, which lose their color as pH increases by formation of colorless carbinol bases as a result of addition of water and loss of proton. Carbinol bases are in equilibrium with the open ring chalcone yellow form. The equilibrium between Carbinol and chalcone forms is very slowly attained at room temperature in a slightly acidic media, while increased temperature displaces the equilibrium toward the chalcone forms. In neutral and alkaline medium, as a result of deprotonation (acid-base reaction), the flavylium is transformed into a purple quinoidal anhydrobase (Figure 8.3).

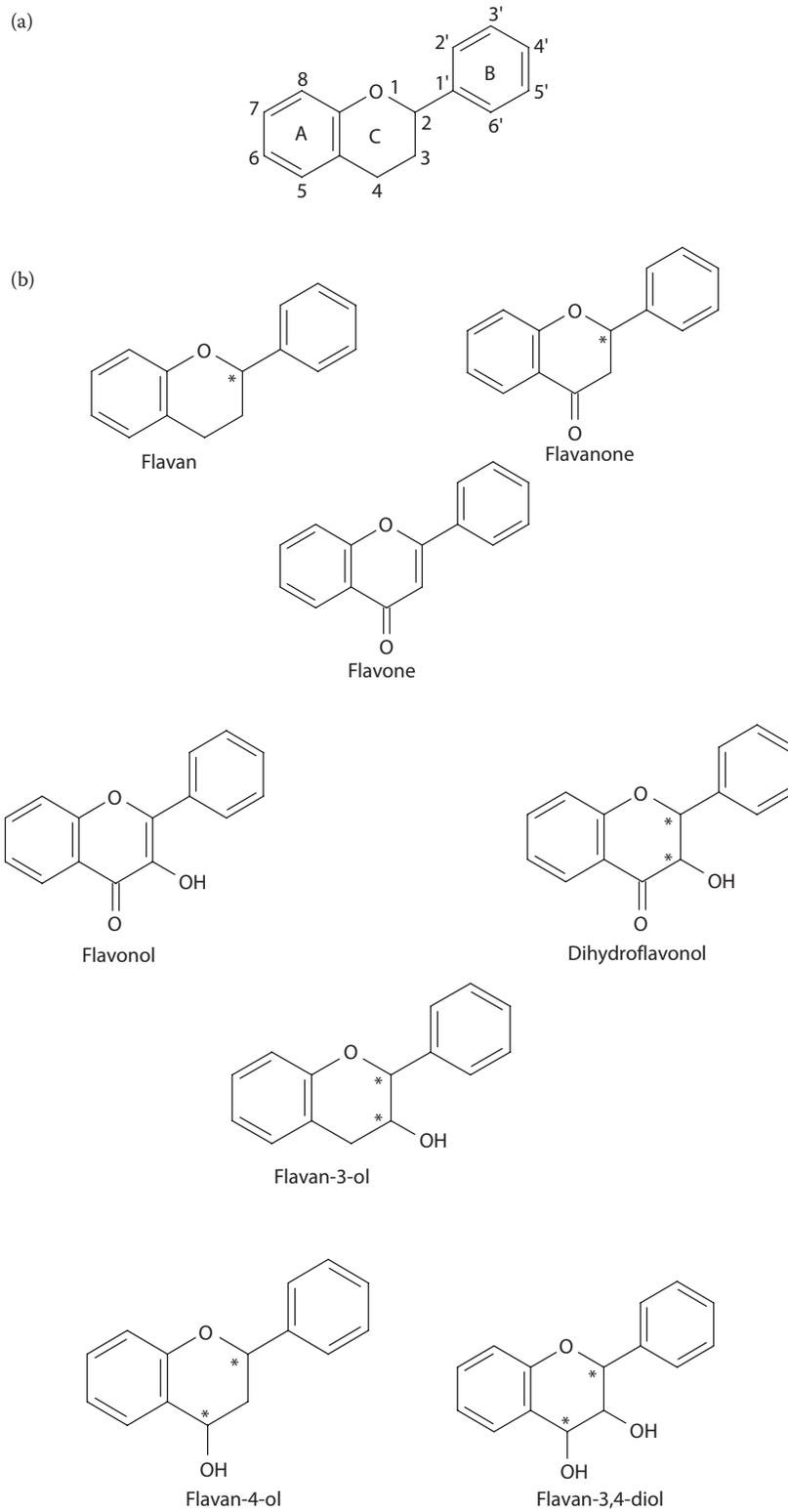
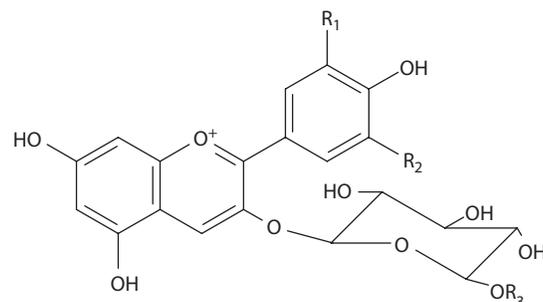


FIGURE 8.1 (a) Flavonoid structure, (b) flavonoid groups.



Anthocyanins	R ₁	R ₂	M _r
Delphinidin-3-glucoside	OH	OH	465
Cyanidin-3-glucoside	OH	H	449
Petunidin-3-glucoside	OCH ₃	OH	479
Peonidin-3-glucoside	OCH ₃	H	463
Malvidin-3-glucoside	OCH ₃	OCH ₃	493

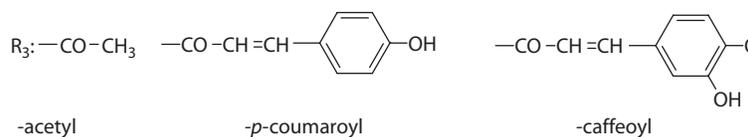


FIGURE 8.2 Structures of anthocyanins. (Adapted from Giusti, M. M., Rodriguez-Saona, L. E., Griffin, D., and Wrolstad, R. E., *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 47, 4657–64, 1999; Adapted from Favretto, D., and Flamini, R., *Am. J. Enol. Vitic.*, 51, 55–64, 2000.)

Anthocyanins can act as electrophiles in their flavylium form through the C-2 and C-4 positions (C-ring) accepting an electron pair in a chemical reaction. In addition, they can act as nucleophiles in hemiketal form through their C-6 and C-8 positions (A-ring) by donating electrons to the reaction partner, forming a chemical bond.

Flavan-3-ols

Flavan-3-ols are a large family of polyphenolic compounds mainly responsible for the astringency, bitterness, and structure of the wine (Arnold et al. 1980). These compounds can be found as monomers, but also as oligomers and polymers. The major flavan-3-ol monomers in grapes are (+)-catechin and (–)-epicatechin, and, to a lesser extent, the gallic ester of (–)-epicatechin and (–)-epicatechin-3-*O*-gallate (Su and Singleton 1969). In *Vitis vinifera* grapes, gallo catechin has been detected and also catechin-3-*O*-gallate and gallo catechin-3-*O*-gallate have been identified (Piretti et al. 1976; Lee and Jaworski 1987). The structure of flavan-3-ol monomers is presented in Figure 8.4.

Flavanol oligomers and polymers are better known as condensed tannins or proanthocyanidins. The term tannin also refers to their capacity to interact or react with proteins and precipitate them out. When heated under acidic and oxidative conditions, these molecules release red anthocyanidin pigments by an acid-catalyzed cleavage (Bate-Smith 1954), hence the term proanthocyanidins is used.

Grape and wine proanthocyanidins belong to two groups, procyanidins and prodelphinidins that release cyanidin and delphinidin, respectively. Procyanidins consist of catechin- and epicatechin-based polymers, and prodelphinidins contain gallo catechin and epigallo catechin units in addition to catechin and epicatechin (Czochanska et al. 1979; Porter et al. 1986). Proanthocyanidins composed of flavan-3-ol constitutive units containing a single interflavan linkage and linked by C4-C8 and/or C4-C6 bonds are named B-type (Da Silva et al. 1991a) whereas, A-type proanthocyanidins contain double interflavan linkages, with the C2-O-C7 or C2-O-C5 bond in addition to the C4-C6 or C4-C8. Figure 8.5 shows the structure of procyanidin dimers identified in grapes and wines.

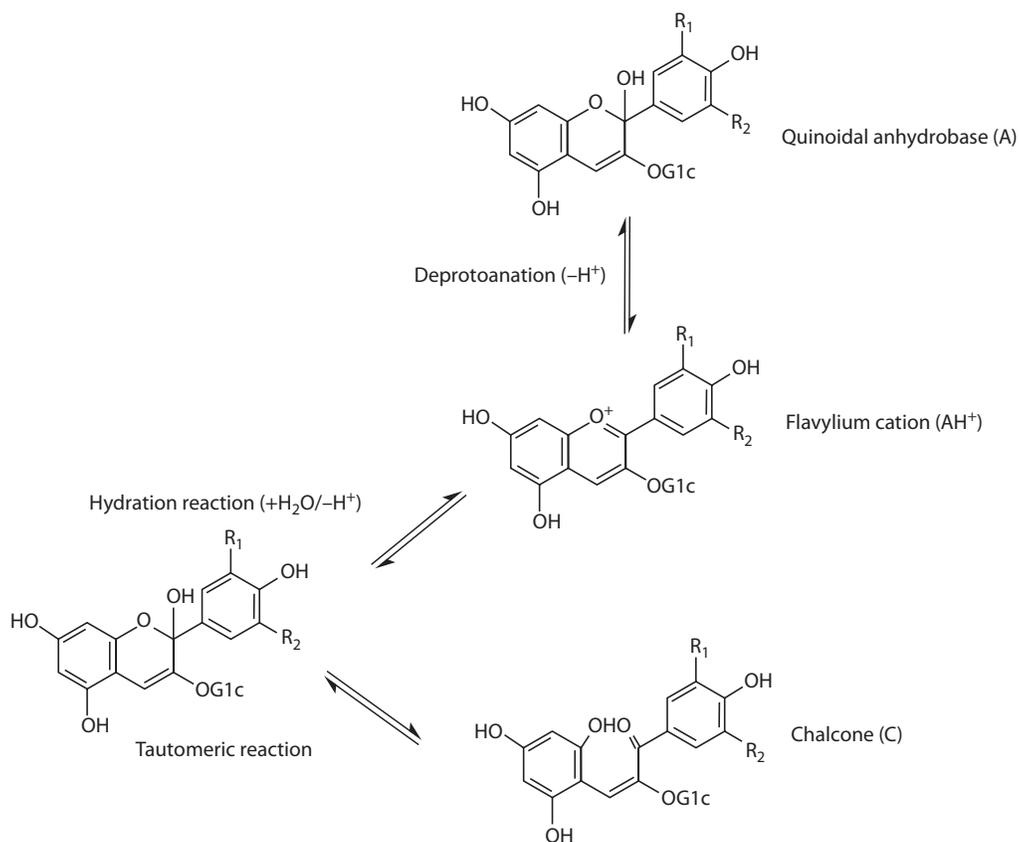
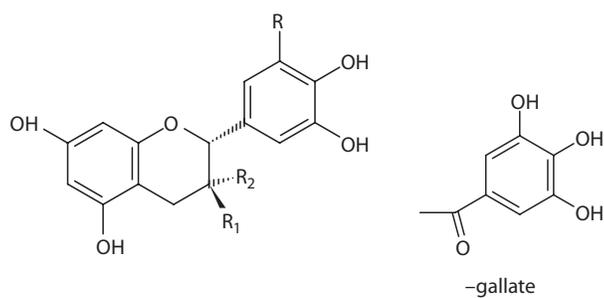


FIGURE 8.3 Anthocyanin transformations depending on pH of the medium. (Adapted from Somers, T. C., *Phytochemistry*, 10, 2175–86, 1971; Adapted from Brouillard, R., and Dubois, J. E., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 99, 1359–64, 1977; Adapted from Brouillard, R., Delaporte, B., and Dubois, J. E., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 100, 6202–5, 1978.)



Flavan-3-ols	R	R ₁	R ₂	M _r
(+)-Catechin	H	OH	H	290
(-)-Epicatechin	H	H	OH	290
(+)-Gallocatechin	OH	OH	H	306
(-)-Epigallocatechin	OH	H	OH	306
(-)-Epicatechin-3-gallate	H	H	OGallate	442

FIGURE 8.4 Structures of flavan-3-ol monomers.

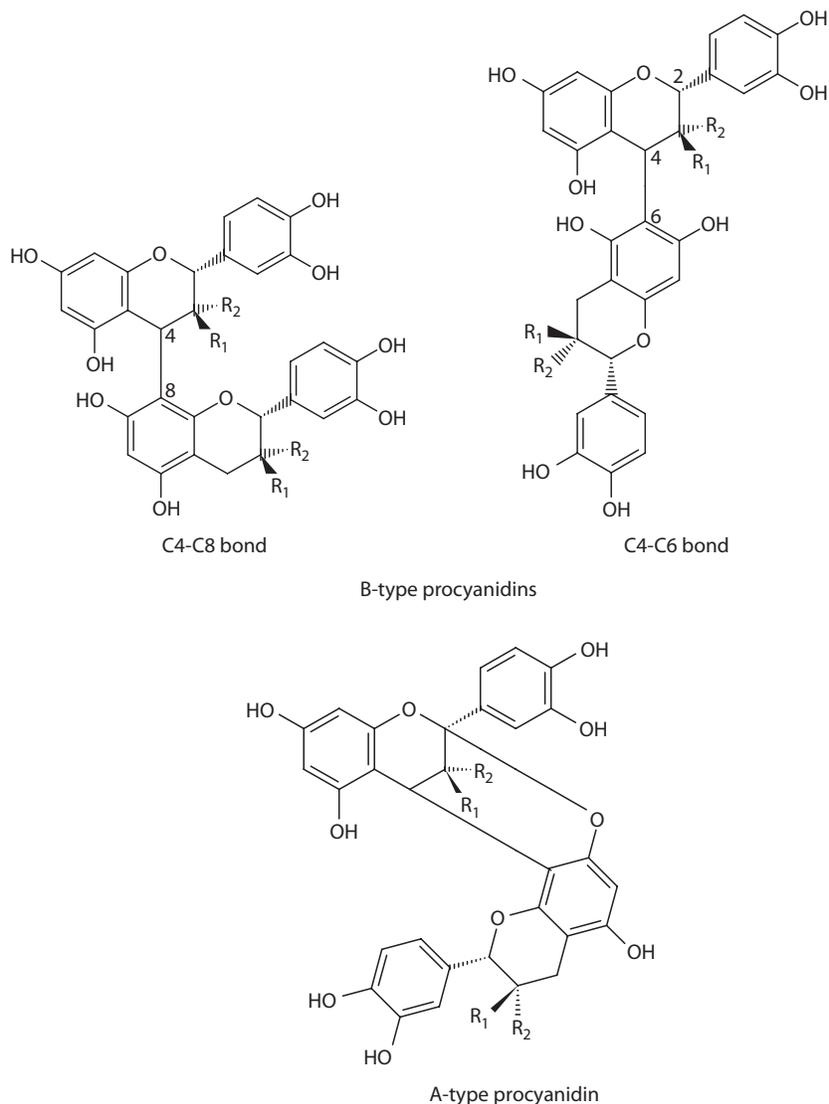


FIGURE 8.5 Structures of flavan-3-ol dimmers.

Determination of proanthocyanidins is generally based on acid-catalyzed depolymerization in the presence of strong nucleophilic reagent (Thompson et al. 1972; Foo et al. 1983) followed with formation of adducts, which are analyzed by reversed phase high-performance liquid chromatography (Shen et al. 1986; Rigaud et al. 1991; Koupai-Abyazani et al. 1992). In acidic media, proanthocyanidins are depolymerized, releasing terminal subunits, as flavan-3-ols and extensional subunits, as electrophilic flavan-3-ol intermediates (Figure 8.6). These electrophilic intermediates can be trapped by a nucleophilic reagent, followed by formation of adducts (Kennedy and Jones 2001).

The most commonly used electrophilic reagents are phloroglucinol (Kennedy and Jones 2001) and benzyldisulfide (Remy et al. 2000). After the performed acid-catalyzed depolymerization and HPLC analysis, the proanthocyanidin composition, the mean degree of polymerization (mDP), and the concentration of released units can be determined. According to literature data, the mDP in grape skins is around 30 and in seeds and stems around 10 (Souquet et al. 2000).

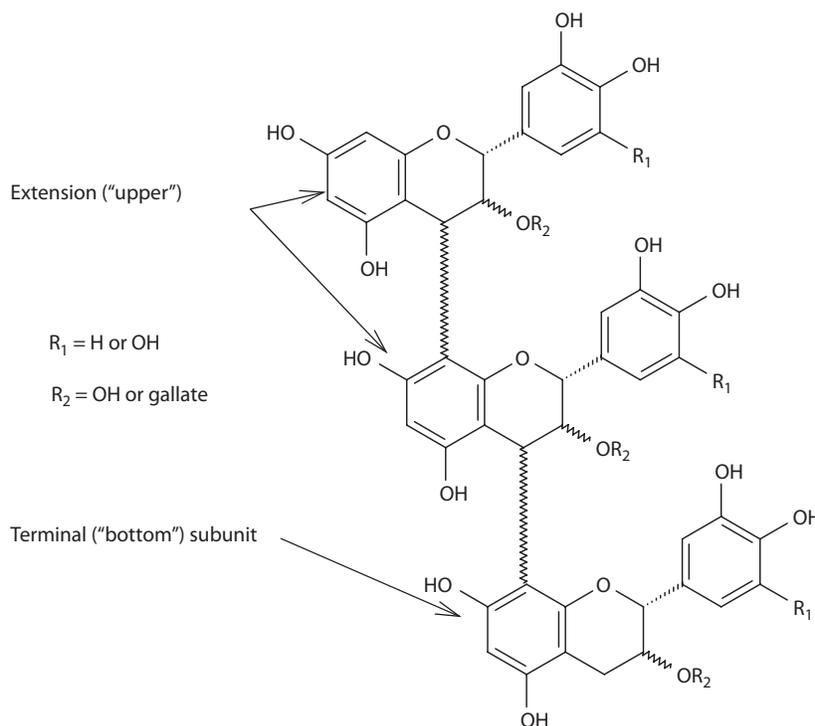


FIGURE 8.6 Basic structure of condensed tannins.

Flavonols and Dihydroflavonols

Flavonols, which are located in epidermal and hypodermal grape skin vacuoles (together with the anthocyanins present in red grapes), absorb the UV radiation and play a protective role. In this regard, the flavonol biosynthesis is increased in the grapes highly exposed to daylight (Spayd et al. 2002). Flavonols present in red grape *Vitis vinifera* L. varieties, are mainly 3-glucosides of myricetin, quercetin, kaempferol, and isorhamnetin (Cheynier and Rigaud 1986; Figure 8.7). Recently, the methoxylated flavonols, laricitrin and syringetin, and their 3-glucoside forms have been identified (Wang et al. 2003; Amico et al. 2004; Castillo-Muñoz et al. 2007).

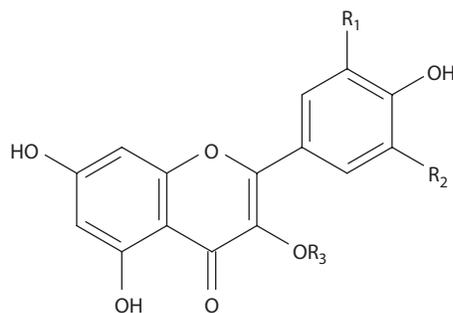
The presence of dihydroflavonols astilbin (dihydroquercetin-3-*O*-rhamnoside) and engeletin (dihydrokaempferol-3-*O*-rhamnoside) has been confirmed in grape and wine (Trousdale and Singleton 1983). Another compound from this group, dihydromyricetin-3-*O*-rhamnoside, has been reported in wine by Vitrac et al. (2001).

Nonflavonoids

The main nonflavonoid phenols in grape and wine that contain only one aromatic ring are derivatives of HCA and hydroxybenzoic acid. Stilbenes and stilbene glycosides are another class of nonflavonoids.

Hydroxybenzoic Acids

The commonly present hydroxybenzoic acids are gallic acid, gentisic acid, *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid, protocatechuic acid, salicylic acid, syringic acid, and vanillic acid, which are mainly found in conjugated forms as esters and glycosides in grapes (Figure 8.8). The free forms of these compounds mainly



Flavonols	R ₁	R ₂	R ₃	M _r
Myricetin	OH	OH	H	318
Myricetin-3-glucoside	OH	OH	glucoside	480
Myricetin-3-glucuronide	OH	OH	glucuronide	494
Quercetin	OH	H	H	302
Quercetin-3-glucoside	OH	H	glucoside	464
Quercetin-3-glucuronide	OH	H	glucuronide	478
Kaempferol	H	H	H	286
Laricitrin-3-glucoside	OCH ₃	OH	glucoside	494
Syringetin-3-glucoside	OCH ₃	OCH ₃	glucoside	508
Isorhamnetin	OCH ₃	H	H	316
Isorhamnetin-3-glucoside	OCH ₃	H	glucoside	498

FIGURE 8.7 Structures of flavonols.

prevail in the wine because of hydrolysis or heat breakdown reactions of the complex molecules, such as anthocyanins, that take place.

Gallic acid is the dominant hydroxybenzoic acid in wine. It originates from the grapes and also can be formed by hydrolysis of hydrolyzable and condensed tannins (i.e., the gallic acid esters of flavan-3-ols).

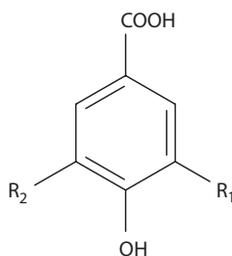
Hydroxycinnamic Acids and Derivatives

The main HCA present in the wine are caffeic acid, *p*-coumaric acid, ferulic acid, and sinapic acid (Figure 8.9a). They can be present in *cis*- and *trans*- forms, but the *trans* forms are more stable and therefore more prevalent (Häkkinen et al. 1998). In wine, HCA are predominant in a form of esters of *L*(+)-tartaric acid and among the derivatives of HCA, caffeoyltartaric (caftaric) acid, *p*-coumaroyltartaric (*p*-coutaric) acid, and feruloyltartaric (fertaric) acid are main compounds present in grape and wine (Figure 8.9b). Caftaric and coutaric acids are the most abundant in the wine, which are highly oxidizable components that cause the browning of white must (Cheynier et al. 1989, 1990).

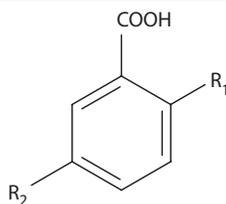
Another compound from the group of HCA, named 2-*S*-glutathionylcaffeoyltartaric acid (also, known as GRP or grape reaction product) has been identified. This compound is formed as a result of the nucleophilic addition of glutathione onto the caffeoyltartaric acid quinone that arises from enzymatic oxidation of coutaric and caftaric acid, catalyzed by polyphenoloxidases in musts (Singleton et al. 1985).

Stilbenes

Stilbenes, located in grape skin and pips, are a subclass of phenolic compounds in grape and wine that can be biosynthesized by grapevines as a defense response to stress, such as microbial infection and UV



Hydroxybenzoic Acids	R ₁	R ₂	M _r
Gallic acid	OH	OH	170
<i>p</i> -Hydroxybenzoic acid	H	H	138
Protocatechuic acid	OH	H	154
Syringic acid	OCH ₃	OCH ₃	198
Vanillic acid	H	OCH ₃	168



	R ₁	R ₂	M _r
Gentistic acid	OH	OH	154
Salicylic acid	OH	H	138

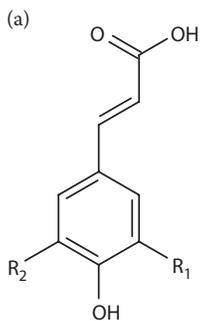
FIGURE 8.8 Structures of hydroxybenzoic acids.

irradiation. During the winemaking process, they are transferred from the grapes into the wine in very low quantities (Sun et al. 2006; Amira-Guebailia et al. 2006; Viñas et al. 2008).

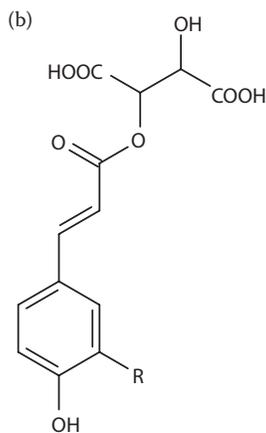
One of the most relevant and extensively studied stilbenes is *trans*-resveratrol (3,5,4'-trihydroxystilbene). In nature, resveratrol exists in two isomeric forms (*cis*- and *trans*-configurations) in the free, as well as in β -glucosjugated forms. The 3-O- β -D-glucosides of *cis*- and *trans*-resveratrol are called piceids (Figure 8.10). The levels of resveratrol depend on the grape variety; in general, red wines contain a higher concentration of resveratrol than white wines (Romero-Pérez et al. 1996).

Evolution of Polyphenols During Winemaking and Aging

For red wine production, studies are primarily focused on the influence of maceration on the extraction of grape pigments and tannins. Anthocyanins are the first components to be extracted from the grape skins together with the skin tannins at the beginning of fermentation. According to the literature (Gil-Muñoz et al. 1997, 1999; Bautista-Ortín et al. 2004; Ivanova et al. 2009), anthocyanins reach the maximal values during the first days of vinification followed by decreasing till the end of the fermentation. Longer maceration time is very often accompanied by oxidative polymerization of monomeric anthocyanins and their complexation with other phenolics, whereupon oligomeric and polymeric pigments are formed that can precipitate and decrease the anthocyanin contents and the red color, enhancing the brown color of wine (Somers 1971). Tannin extraction from seeds, which is more dependent on ethanol content because of their lower solubility in water, starts toward the midpoint of alcoholic fermentation and continues until pressing during the postfermentation phase (Canals et al. 2005). In



Hydroxycinnamic Acids	R ₁	R ₂	M _r
Coumaric acid	H	H	164
Caffeic acid	OH	H	180
Ferulic acid	OCH ₃	H	194
Sinapic acid	OCH ₃	OCH ₃	224



Derivatives of Hydroxycinnamic Acids	R ₁	M _r
Coutaric acid	H	296
Caftaric acid	OH	312
Fertaric acid	OCH ₃	326

FIGURE 8.9 (a) Structures of hydroxycinnamic acids, (b) structures of derivatives of hydroxycinnamic acids.

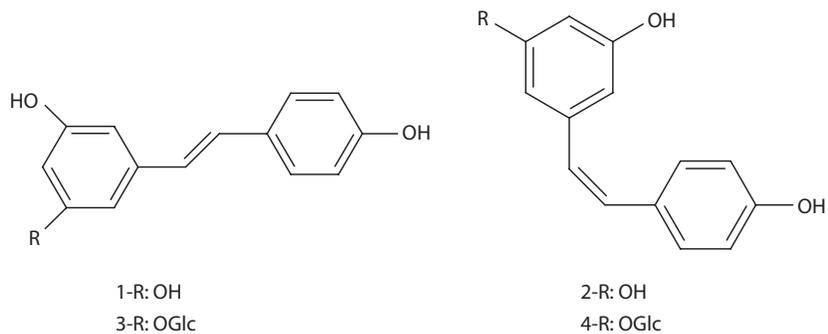


FIGURE 8.10 Structures of stilbenes: (1) *trans*-resveratrol, (2) *cis*-resveratrol, (3) *trans*-piceid, and (4) *cis*-piceid.

fact, flavan-3-ols in seeds are protected with a lipidic layer, which is disrupted when appropriate content of alcohol is formed, allowing their extraction from the seeds. Therefore, extraction of seed tannins occurs at later phases of vinification, and increasing of their concentrations during a longer maceration time is expected.

Sulphur dioxide is naturally present in wine, produced at concentrations up to 64 mg/L by the yeast metabolism (Larue et al. 1985), but most of the yeasts cannot produce more than 10 mg/L SO₂, so that contents of SO₂ higher than 30 mg/L usually are added during the vinification. The use of SO₂ in winemaking is due to its ability of an effective antioxidant, preventing the activity of oxidases. Also, it has significant activity as antimicrobial agent, as well as a potential for bleaching the pigments and elimination of unpleasant odors (as a result of oxidation). SO₂ can selectively act against the wild yeasts that come from the grape skin or equipment in the winery and can stop their activity, since yeasts are very sensitive to SO₂ (also, to other stress factors). Sulphur dioxide can be added in the form of a salt, potassium metabisulphite (K₂S₂O₅), which can be ionized in acid media, releasing gaseous SO₂. Higher doses of SO₂ in the must can lead to faster and more efficient precipitation, especially SO₂ in free form contributes to better extraction of phenolic components present in grape skins and seeds.

The potential of yeast to affect the extraction of grape phenolic compounds has already attracted the scientist's attention. The first study of the influence of yeast selection on the phenolic profile of Burgundy wine (Cuinier 1988) presented small effects on color intensity and total phenolics. Other studies focused on the effect of two yeast strains used for vinification of Pinot noir, as well as the Merlot wines, showed that no differences in total phenolics, anthocyanins, and color intensity were observed in the wines fermented with both yeasts (Gil-Muñoz et al. 1999; Girard et al. 2001). Recent studies showed that anthocyanins can be adsorbed at the yeast cell walls (Morata et al. 2003; Mazauric and Salmon 2005).

During maturation—aging and storage of wines, colored and noncolored phenolics have an important role on the color and taste of wine and they undergo a number of reactions during aging that result in changes in the sensory characteristics. Those changes are mostly due to the conversion of grape anthocyanins to derived pigments (Somers 1971) through reactions of anthocyanins with pyruvic acid (carboxy-pyrano-anthocyanins) and acetaldehyde (pyrano-anthocyanins) leading to pyranoanthocyanin formation (Timberlake and Bridle 1976; Glories 1984; Bakker and Timberlake 1986; Fulcrand et al. 1996; Remy et al. 2000). Another possible mechanism of the evolution of phenolics during wine aging that takes place spontaneously is the formation of direct condensation adducts between anthocyanins and flavonols (Timberlake and Bridle 1976), as well as, formation of ethyl linked pigments formed by acetaldehyde-mediated condensation between anthocyanins and flavan-3-ols. All of these formed adducts contribute to the color stability of wine and decrease in astringency.

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