1	Color, Phenolics and Antioxidant Activity of Blackberry
2	(Rubus glaucus Benth.), Blueberry (Vaccinium
3	floribundum Kunth.) and Apple Wines from Ecuador
4	
5	
6	Jacqueline Ortiz ^a , María-Remedios Marín-Arroyo ^b , María-José Noriega-
7	Domínguez ^ь , Montserrat Navarro ^ь , Iñigo Arozarena ^ь
8	
9	2 Escultad de Oispeis e la provisión de Aliasentes I la inservide d'Etcaise de
10	^a Facultad de Ciencia e Ingeniería de Alimentos, Universidad Técnica de
11	Ambato, Avenida Los Chasquis y río Payamino s/n, Ambato, Ecuador
12	^b Departamento Tecnología de Alimentos, Universidad Pública de Navarra,
13	Campus Arrosadía s/n, 31006 Pamplona, Spain
14	
15	*Corresponding author: Iñigo Arozarena, Departamento Tecnología de
16	Alimentos, Universidad Pública de Navarra, Campus Arrosadía s/n, Edificio de
17	los Olivos, 31006 Pamplona, Spain. Tel. (34) 948169849. Fax (34) 948169893.
18	E-mail: inigo.arozarena@unavarra.es
19	
20	
21	Publicado en <i>Journal of Food Science</i> (2013)
2.2	

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Ortiz, J., Marín-Arroyo, M.-R., Noriega-Domínguez, M.-J., Navarro, M. and Arozarena, I. (2013), Color, Phenolics, and Antioxidant Activity of Blackberry (Rubus glaucus Benth.), Blueberry (Vaccinium floribundum Kunth.), and Apple Wines from Ecuador. Journal of Food Science, 78: C985-C993. https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12148, which has been published in final form at https:// doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12148. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions. This article may not be enhanced, enriched or otherwise transformed into a derivative work, without express permission from Wiley or by statutory rights under applicable legislation. Copyright notices must not be removed, obscured or modified. The article must be linked to Wiley's version of record on Wiley Online Library and any embedding, framing or otherwise making available the article or pages thereof by third parties from platforms, services and websites other than Wiley Online Library must be prohibited.

23 **ABSTRACT**:

Seventy wines were produced in Ecuador under different processing conditions 24 with local fruits: Andean blackberries (Rubus glaucus Benth.) and blueberries 25 (Vaccinium floribundum Kunth.) and Golden Reinette apples. Wines were 26 evaluated for antioxidant activity (AA) using the radical scavenging capacity 27 (DPPH) method, total phenolic content (TPC) using the Folin-Ciocalteu method, 28 total monomeric anthocyanins (TMA) using the pH differential test, and color 29 30 parameters using VIS-spectrophotometry. For blackberry wines, ellagitannins and anthocyanins were also analyzed using HPLC-DAD. Apples wines (n = 40)31 had the lowest TPC (608 \pm 86 mg/L) and AA (2.1 \pm 0.3 mM Trolox). Blueberry 32 wines (n = 12) had high TPC (1086 ± 194 mg/L) and moderate AA (5.4 ± 0.8) 33 mM) but very low TMA (8 \pm 3 mg/L), with a color evolved toward yellow and blue 34 shades. Blackberry wines (n = 10) had the highest TPC (1265 ± 91 mg/L) and 35 AA (12 \pm 1 mM). Ellagitannins were the major phenolics (1172 \pm 115 mg/L) and 36 correlated well with AA (r = 0.88). Within anthocyanins (TMA 73 \pm 16 mg/L), 37 cyanidin-3-rutinoside (62%) and cyanidin-3-glucoside (15%) were predominant. 38 Wines obtained by co-fermentation of apples and blackberries (n = 8) showed 39 intermediate characteristics (TPC 999 ± 83 mg/L, AA 6.2 ± 0.7 mM, TMA 35 ± 22 40 mg/L) between the blackberry and blueberry wines. The results suggest that the 41 Andean berries, particularly R. glaucus, are suitable raw materials to produce 42 wines with an *in vitro* antioxidant capacity that is comparable to red grape wines. 43

44

46 **Keywords:** polyphenols, antioxidant activity, wine, anthocyanin, fruit

47

48 **Practical Application:**

Red wine is known to be a health-promoting product when consumed 49 moderately, due to the presence of antioxidants, mainly phenolic compounds. In 50 Ecuador, the cultivation of grapes for winemaking is not possible. However, in 51 the Sierra region, wines are produced from other fruits such as apples and 52 53 Andean fruits including Mora de Castilla (blackberry, Rubus glaucus Benth.) and 54 Mortiño (blueberry, Vaccinium floribundum Kunth.). This study shows how these wines, particularly blackberry wines, are characterized by high polyphenol 55 contents and antioxidant activities as compared to red grape wines. Therefore, 56 winemaking can be a suitable fruit processing alternative in the region. 57

59 Introduction

Globally, grape wine is the most-produced fruit-fermented alcoholic beverage. 60 followed by apple cider. However, other fruits are processed through wine-61 making procedures, particularly red berries, which are rich in anthocyanins and 62 other phenolic-type compounds. From a technological perspective, phenolic 63 compounds are key determinants of the definition and evolution of several wine 64 characteristics, such as color, astringency and bitterness. Red wine color 65 depends on the absolute and relative concentrations of anthocyanins in the fruit, 66 the wine production method, and the multiple chemical reactions that occur 67 during fermentation and aging. These reactions are responsible for the 68 69 generation of new pigments and the natural evolution of the red wine color from red to orange nuances. On the other hand, polyphenols are interesting as health 70 promoting compounds. Most of the previous reports on red berry wines included 71 72 the evaluation of their in vitro antioxidant activity (Pinghero and Paliyath 2001, Sánchez-Moreno and others 2003, Rupasinghe and Clegg 2007, Yildirim 2007, 73 Jung and others 2009, Johnson and Gonzalez de Mejia 2012, Lim and others 74 2012, Mudnic and others 2012). 75

South America has a wide variety of native berries that are rich in antioxidants with high commercialization potential (Schreckinger and others 2010a). In Ecuador, blackberries (*Rubus glaucus* Benth.) are widely cultivated in the Andean regions and consumed fresh or processed into products such as frozen pulp, juice, jam and wine. Research has only recently addressed the phenolic composition, mainly ellagitannins and anthocyanins, and antioxidant activity of

raw fruit (Garzón and others 2009, Mertz and others 2007, Vasco and others 82 2008, 2009b) or fruit-derived products, such as wines (Arozarena and others 83 2012) and isotonic beverages (Estupiñan and others 2009). The Andean 84 blueberry (Vaccinium floribundum Kunth.) is a fruit that is found in Ecuador at 85 very high altitudes and almost exclusively in wild form. Commercial use of 86 Andean blueberries is still low. Vasco and others (2009a) characterized the 87 phenolic composition of this berry for the first time and reported that it is primarily 88 characterized by anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins, in a lesser amount 89 (Schreckinger and others 2010b). In Ecuador, different apple varieties are also 90 produced. "Emilia" is the local name of a Golden Reinette variety that has 91 diminished in commercial value over the past decade in comparison to other 92 apple varieties. 93

The aims of this study were to characterize the total phenolic content, total 94 95 anthocyanin content, color and in vitro antioxidant activity of fruit wines of R. glaucus, V. floribundum and "Emilia" apples produced in Ecuador and to 96 compare them with previous findings for grape and fruit wines. For blackberry 97 98 wines, ellagitannins and individual anthocyanins were also analyzed. In addition, this study evaluated the influence on all of the aforementioned variables of 99 100 several technological factors including fermentation with several yeast strains, in presence or absence of fruit solids, with different water-to-fruit ratios, the addition 101 102 of pectinases, and the co-fermentation of blackberries and apples.

103

105 Materials and Methods

Chemicals. All chromatographic solvents were HPLC grade. Methanol, 106 acetonitrile, formic acid, hydrochloric acid, gallic acid, Folin-Ciocalteu reagent, 107 sodium carbonate and sodium metabisulfite were purchased from Panreac 108 109 (Spain). 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) and 6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid (Trolox) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich 110 111 (Germany). Cyanidin-3-glucoside (\geq 96%), cyanidin-3-rutinoside (\geq 96%), and 112 ellagic acid (\geq 90%), were from Extrasynthese (France).

Wines. Seventy fruit wines divided into six independent sets were produced in
Ecuador. The experimental design and the features of the wine-making
procedure for each set of wines are described in Table 1.

The basic raw materials for wine production were fruit, cane sugar, and water. 116 117 Fifty-eight wines were made at the Technical University of Ambato (Tungurahua province) with Andean blackberries (Rubus glaucus Benth.) and Golden Reinette 118 apples that were purchased at the municipal market of Ambato. Blackberries had 119 a total acidity of 0.75 ± 0.01 g malic acid/100 g and a pH of 3.01 ± 0.01 . Apples 120 had a total acidity of 0.12 ± 0.04 g malic acid/100 g and a pH of 4.17 ± 0.12 . In 121 addition, twelve blueberry wines were produced in Salinas de Guaranda (Bolivar 122 province) at the facilities of the Cooperative Consortium "Gruppo Salinas" using 123 wild fruits (mortiño or Andean blueberry Vaccinium floribundum Kunth.) that were 124 125 picked in the fields surrounding the village. The total acidity of the blueberries was 0.32 ± 0.04 g malic acid/100 g, and the pH was 3.51 ± 0.09 . 126

Wines were produced on a small scale in plastic containers of 25 L. The general wine-making procedure was as follows: the fruit was mixed with water in the proportions indicated in Table 1, sulfited (100 mg K₂S₂O₅/L) and crushed. The practice of diluting fruit with water is common in the region in order to diminish the viscosity and acidity of the juices, and also due to economic reasons. Immediately after crushing, and only in the S0 trials of set 1, the fruit solids were removed manually through a sieve (850 μ m).

All of the musts were enriched up to 21 °Brix to acquire a potential alcohol level of approximately 12 % vol. The next step was the inoculation of the yeasts (0.3 g dry yeast/L). The soluble solids content of each trial was monitored daily during fermentation until it reached a constant level (usually 6-7°Brix).

Subsequently, the solids were removed, and the wines were transferred into a new container and sulfited (75 mg K₂S₂O₅/L). The wines were maintained at 18 \pm 1°C for 2 months. Samples of all of the wines were sent to the Public University of Navarre (Spain) and kept refrigerated (4 °C) and under nitrogen until analyses. **Basic characteristics.** Alcoholic degree (% vol.), pH and total acidity (% malic acid) were measured according to usual methods (Commission Regulation (EEC) No 2676/90).

Turbidity. This analysis was applied to the wines of sets 2 and 4, in which the study of enzymatic treatments with pectinases was included. Turbidity of wines was measured in a HACH 2100N Turbidimeter (Hach Company USA) calibrated with formazine standards within the range 20-1000 NTU. **Color measures.** All the spectrophotometric measures were made in a doublebeam spectrophotometer (Zuzi TU 1901 Spain). In the apple wines only the absorbance at 420 nm was measured (A420 nm). In the red wines the absorbances at 420, 520 and 620 nm were used to calculate color intensity (CI = $A_{420} + A_{520} + A_{620}$), yellow (100·A₄₂₀/CI) red (100·A₅₂₀/CI) and blue (100·A₆₂₀/CI) components (Glories, 1984), and hue (A₄₂₀/A₅₂₀) of the wines.

The method of Somers and Evans was used to obtain wine absorbance at 520 nm or wine color (WC), the color due to pigments resistant to SO₂ blanching (CDR_{SO2}) or residual absorbance of the wine containing 0.3 % sodium metabisulfite, the anthocyanin color (AC = WC – CDR_{SO2}) or the color mainly due to monomeric anthocyanins, and chemical age (CAW = CDR_{SO2}·100/WC).

Antioxidant activity. DPPH assay (Rivero-Pérez and others 2008) was used to evaluate the radical scavenging activity of wines. Sixty microliters of wine (previously diluted 1:20 with methanol) was mixed with 2940 μ l of a 60 μ M DPPH methanolic solution. The difference between the absorbance at 515 nm at time zero and at 60 minutes was employed to quantify the antioxidant activity as millimoles of Trolox equivalents (TE) per liter (0.1-1 mM TE R² = 0.999).

Total phenolic content. Total polyphenol content (TPC) was determined by the Folin-Ciocalteu method (Commission Regulation (EEC) No 2676/90). TPC was expressed as milligrams per liter of gallic acid equivalents (100–600 mg GAE/L, $R^2 = 0.999$).

Total monomeric anthocyanins. Total monomeric anthocyanins (TMA) were determined by the pH-differential method described by Giusti and Wrolstad (2005). TMA were expressed as cyanidin-3-glucoside equivalents in milligram
 per liter.

174 **HPLC-DAD** analysis of anthocyanins and ellagitannins. These analyses were applied to the wines elaborated with Andean blackberries (sets 4 and 5). 175 Anthocyanins were separated and quantified with a modified version of the 176 method described by Vasco and others (2009b), while ellagitannins were 177 estimated through their acid hydrolysis and the subsequent analysis by HPLC-178 DAD of the hydrolytic products, according to the method reported by Vrhovsek 179 and others (2006), with some modifications. All the methods were described in 180 detail in a previous work (Arozarena and others 2012). 181

182 Statistical analysis

183 Means and standard deviation were obtained from at least three repetitions. One-way ANOVA and Tukey's Range Test were used to evaluate the differences 184 185 among wine sets and the effects of technological factors within each set of wines. Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to establish the relationship 186 among antioxidant activity and the rest of analytical parameters. Principal 187 Component and Cluster Analyses were used to achieve a better description and 188 discrimination of the red fruit wines. All the statistical analyses were made with 189 the Statgraphics Centurion XVI software (StatPoint Technologies Inc., 190 191 Warrenton, Virginia, USA).

192 **Results and Discussion**

193 **Fermentation**

First, the sugar attenuation during fermentation and the turbidity of wines will be 194 discussed briefly to clarify subsequent sections. For each trial, fermentation was 195 completed when the soluble solids reached a value below 7 °Brix. As shown in 196 Figure 1, the time of fermentation differed depending on the fruit that was used 197 as the raw material. For the blueberry wines (Blue), fermentation finished 55-76 198 199 days after yeast inoculation. The extremely slow rate of sugar decrease was most likely caused by the low temperature of juices during fermentation (14-200 18°C), due to the cold climate of Salinas de Guaranda (3550 m altitude). The 201 other wines were produced in Ambato (2570 m altitude), with temperatures 202 fluctuating between 18 and 24°C. The time of fermentation of these wines could 203 be considered consistent to the time reported for wines produced from dessert 204 apples (Satora and others 2008) and black raspberries (Lim and others 2012). 205 Blackberry wines (Blk) fermented the fastest (12-17 days) and most regularly, 206 while apple wines (Ap) needed 30 to 45 days to finish the process, and wines 207 produced through the co-fermentation of apples and blackberries (ApBlk) had an 208 intermediate behavior. Furthermore, within the latter wines, it was observed that 209 210 the larger the proportion of blackberry in the initial juice, the shorter the fermentation time. As all of the wines were prepared from juices with similar 211 soluble solids levels (21 °Brix), these results suggest that blackberries might 212 213 provide nutrients other than carbohydrates in a higher concentration than apples. The richness of nutrients in the juices might also be the reason because of, 214 within the Blue wines, those with the lowest water-to-fruit ratio (BlueW2) finished 215 216 the fermentation first. In contrast, this finding could not be verified for the Ap3 wines. In the Ap1 and Ap2 sets, the fermentations with the bread yeast strain were significantly slower than those developed by the wine yeast strains. Finally, neither the presence/absence of fruit solids (Ap1) nor the pectinases (Blk, Ap2) affected the course of fermentation.

221 Turbidity

Approximately two months after the end of fermentation, turbidity was measured 222 in the Blk and Ap2 wines. The use of pectinases is common in cider processing. 223 As expected, the addition of pectinases, either before or after fermentation, 224 significantly reduced (p < 0.01) the turbidity of the Ap2 wines from 150-280 NTU 225 to 14-36 NTU. Neither the time at which pectinases were added nor the type of 226 227 yeast strain affected the final turbidity value. For the Blk wines, no differences were observed among treatments, with low turbidities (15-33 NTU) in all of the 228 trials. Therefore, the addition of pectinases in these wines would not be required, 229 230 since the process occurred naturally in the untreated wines.

231 Color and phenolics

The characteristics of each type of wines are summarized in Table 2. The total 232 phenolic content (TPC) of the Ap wines ranged from 471 to 801 mg GAE/L, 233 which is consistent with previous findings in Spanish ciders (Picinelli and others 234 2009) and apple wines from Turkey (Yildirim 2006, Satora and others 2008). The 235 Blk, ApBlk and Blue wines had TPC levels (854-1400 mg GAE/L) that were 236 similar to those previously reported in wines produced from blackberries (Yildirim 237 238 2006, Amidzic-Klaric and others 2011, Johnson and Gonzalez de Mejia 2012, Mudnic and others 2012), blueberries (Sanchez-Moreno and others 2003, 239

Rupasinghe and Clegg 2007, Su and Chien 2007) and other red berries (Yildirim
2006, Rupasinghe and Clegg 2007, Jung and others 2009, Schmitzer and others
2010, Lim and others 2012).

Blackberry (R. glaucus) wines also had the highest monomeric anthocyanin 243 concentration (TMA), which was similar to previous findings in commercial 244 245 blackberry wines from Croatia (Klaric and others 2011) and Illinois (Johnson and Gonzalez de Mejia 2012). The main anthocyanin compounds in the Blk wines 246 (Figure 2a) were cyanidin-3-rutinoside (62%) and cyanidin-3-glucoside (15%), in 247 agreement with the typical anthocyanin profile of Rubus glaucus (Mertz and 248 others 2007, Vasco and others 2009b). In addition, a substantial proportion of 249 other minor pigments (23%) was observed. Among these pigments, several 250 pyroanthocyanins produced during the fermentation and maturation of wines 251 were identified in a previous report (Arozarena and others 2012). TMA in the V. 252 253 floribundum wines was very low in comparison with the levels found in the Blk and ApBlk wines and other blueberry wines (Su and Chien 2007, Johnson and 254 255 Gonzalez de Mejia 2012). It is well-documented that the free anthocyanin content of any anthocyanin-rich juice declines during fermentation (Rommel and 256 others 1992, Czyzowska and Pogorzelski 2004, Amidzic-Klaric and others 2011, 257 Arozarena and others 2012). Considering the extremely long duration of 258 fermentation in the Blue trials, the low TMA levels found in the wines are not 259 surprising. Furthermore, these levels are consistent with the values observed for 260 261 the color parameters. According to the variables Hue, Yellow, Red, and Blue, the blueberry wines showed a more evolved color than the Blk and ApBlk wines. In 262

addition, the chemical age (CAW) of the Blue wines was high, indicating that almost half (48%) of the wine absorbance at 520 nm was attributable to pigments resistant to the SO₂ blanching, that is assumed to be generated from the native free anthocyanins during fermentation and aging.

267 Antioxidant activity

Higher antioxidant activities (AA) were shown for red wines; in particular, the AA 268 of the Blk wines was almost twice that of the ApBlk and Blue wines (Table 2). 269 The results agreed with the radical scavenging capacities that were previously 270 detected in Andean blackberry wines (3.8 to 14.2 mM TE, Arozarena and others 271 2012), in elderberry wines (6.3-9.95 mM TE, Schmitzer and others 2010) and in 272 red grape wines (4.7-17.4 mM TE, Fernández-Pachón and others 2004), through 273 the DPPH method. Furthermore, the AA of the Ap wines was comparable to that 274 reported by the latter authors in white grape wines (0.3-2.68 mM TE). 275

AA was highly correlated with TPC in the four types of wines (Figure 3), as is 276 usually observed in most phenolic-rich products, including fruit wines (Sanchez-277 Moreno and others 2003, Rupasinghe and Clegg 2007, Satora and others 2008, 278 Amidzic-Klaric and others 2011, Lim and others 2012, Johnson and Gonzalez de 279 Mejia 2012, among others). The AA/TPC ratios for the Blk, ApBlk, Blue and Ap 280 wines were, 9.2 ± 0.2 , 6.2 ± 0.4 , 5.0 ± 0.3 and 3.5 ± 0.2 mmoles TE/g GAE, 281 respectively. On the other hand, values of 4.5 ± 0.6 , 4.9 ± 1.5 , and 3.4 ± 2.3 282 mmoles TE/g GAE were calculated from the data previously reported in wines 283 from elderberries (Schmitzer and others 2010), red grapes and white grapes 284 (Fernández-Pachón and others 2004), respectively. These data suggest that, in 285

relative terms, the Blk wines were the most effective in vitro antioxidants among 286 all of the aforementioned wines, which is in agreement with previous findings 287 comparing the superoxide anion scavenging capacity (Pinghero and Paliyath 288 2001) and the ferric reducing antioxidant power (Mudnic and others 2012) of 289 blackberry and red grape wines. This observation might be attributed to the 290 291 different nature of the major phenolic compounds in each type of wine. In red grape wines, AA are particularly associated with flavanols and anthocyanins 292 (Fernández-Pachón and others 2004). Both in elderberry wines (Schmitzer and 293 294 others 2010), and in V. floribundum berries (Vasco and others 2009a), anthocyanins are predominant. Schreckinger and others (2010b) showed that 295 the AA of *V. floribundum* was more highly correlated with anthocyanins than with 296 proanthocyanidins. Flavanols and hydroxycinnamic acids are known to be the 297 most abundant phenolic compounds found in apples (Khanizadeh and others 298 299 2008), apple wines (Satora and others 2008) and ciders (Rodriguez-Madrera and others 2006, Picinelli and others 2009). In the Blk wines, radical scavenging 300 activity was related to the content of ellagitannins (r = 0.881, Figure 3), but no 301 302 significant correlation with anthocyanins could be verified. Similar findings were previously reported in other *Rubus glaucus* wine samples (Arozarena and others 303 304 2012) and in ellagitannin-rich berries such as Rubus adenotricus (Acosta-Montoya and others 2010) and Rubus idaeus (Borges and others 2010). In 305 contrast, in the ApBlk wines, AA was correlated with ellagitannins (r = 0.882, 306 Figure 3), but also with TMA (r = 0.853), cyanidin-3-rutinoside (r = 0.874) and 307 cyanidin-3-glucoside (r = 0.870). Finally, in the Blue wines, AA was correlated 308

with CDR_{SO2} (r = 0.842), which appears to be consistent with the above observations regarding the low content in TMA and the advanced evolution of the color of these wines.

312 Influence of technological factors

The significance of the effects of the technological factors on each of the sets of 313 apple wines is summarized in Table 3. The yeast strain factor (Y) was irrelevant 314 in the Ap1 and Ap2 wines. In the Ap2 wines, the reduction of turbidity caused by 315 the pectinases was accompanied by a significant decrease of the AA, and this 316 effect was more important for the post-fermentative treatments (18% of 317 reduction) than for the pre-fermentative treatments (5%). These results are 318 319 consistent to those reported by Hubert and others (2007) showing that enzymatic depectination followed by sedimentation removed 14% of the flavanols in apple 320 musts. However, other factors had a more profound effect than pectinases on 321 322 apple wine characteristics. When fruit solids were not removed prior to fermentation, the TPC and AA of the Ap1 wines showed increases of 19% and 323 12%, respectively. Within Ap3 wines, those obtained from juices with the lowest 324 325 water-to-fruit ratio (1 L/kg) had 29% higher TPC values and 24% higher AA 326 values than those from musts prepared with 2 L and 3 L of water per kg of apple fruit. 327

The results for the influence of technological factors on the red fruit wines are shown in Table 4 and Figures 4 and 5. The Blk wines are shown as a homogeneous group of wines characterized by an appreciable richness in polyphenols, a very high AA, and an intense reddish color that is predominantly

linked to TMA. The pectinolytic treatments produced neither positive nor negative 332 effects on these characteristics. The method used to prepare the musts might 333 partially explain these findings. In blackberries, anthocyanins are located in the 334 flesh, while ellagitannins are distributed throughout the fruits, with the seeds 335 being the main source (Siriwoharn and Wrolstad 2004, Hager and others 2008). 336 337 Crushing the raw material in a highly diluted medium (two parts water to one part fruit) caused an intense disruption of the fruit drupelets that would produce a 338 massive extraction of anthocyanins from the fruit flesh so that subsequent 339 addition of enzymes would not have any additional effect on anthocyanin 340 concentration. Pectinases cannot attack the hard tissues of seeds and therefore 341 cannot influence the extraction of ellagitannins from them. 342

In Figure 4, the Blue wines are located on the opposite side of the blackberry 343 wines. These wines were also rich in polyphenols but had a moderate 344 antioxidant activity and a very low TMA, with a color approaching blue and yellow 345 shades. The BlueW2 wines, with the highest fruit proportion, are clearly 346 separated from the remaining blueberry wines (Table 4, Figures 4 and 5). The 347 348 BlueW2 showed 37% and 29% higher values for TPC and AA, respectively, than the BlueW0 and BlueW1 wines. This result was also verified for the variables 349 related to the color concentration: CI (55%), WC (45%), AC (27%), and CDR_{SO2} 350 351 (65%). In contrast, no differences were observed for TMA and the variables linked to the color shade (Hue, Yellow, Red, or Blue). 352

Finally, the ApBlk wines are located between the Blue and Blk wines (Figure 4).
 The ApBlkF2 wines, with some characteristics resembling those of the Blk wines,

are separated from the ApBlkF1 wines, which are closer to the Blue wines, 355 particularly to the BlueW0 and BlueW1 trials. As expected, the ApBlkF2 wines 356 were a greater source of antioxidants and colorants than the ApBlkF1 wines. On 357 average, when the blackberry proportion was increased, the changes observed 358 were as follows: 13% TPC, 22% AA, 46% CI, 63% WC, 128% AC, 113% 359 ellagitannins 265% TMA, 580% cyanidin-3-glucoside, and 1085% cyanidin-3-360 rutinoside (Table 4). This explains why in ApBlk wines both ellagitannins as well 361 as anthocyanins were correlated with AA, as it was mentioned above. On the 362 other hand, the predominance of apples in the ApBlkF1 wines gave them a more 363 evolved color, with less red and more yellow and blue, and a CAW two times 364 higher than that of the ApBlkF2 wines. This result was consistent with the finding 365 that in the ApBlkF1 the minor compounds detected using HPLC-DAD 366 represented on average 68% of the sum of areas recorded at 520 nm, while in 367 the ApBlkF2 wines this percentage was only 19%, being the native anthocyanins 368 cyanidin-3-rutinoside (66%), and cyanidin-3-glucoside (15%) predominant 369 (Figures 2b and 2c). 370

371 Conclusions

Wines produced from Andean red berries from Ecuador have high total polyphenol contents that are correlated with their *in vitro* antioxidant activity, which is comparable with that of red grape wines. *Rubus glaucus* blackberries are highly available in Ecuador and have outstanding levels of anthocyanins and ellagitannins, making these berries particularly interesting as raw materials for winemaking. The combination of Andean blackberries with other less-acidic fruits such as apples may also be a good end-use alternative for both fruits. In contrast, the lack of widespread crops of the *Vaccinium floribundum* blueberry in Ecuador hinders its exploitation. Further research is needed to evaluate the best processing practices for the production of wines or other products derived from these fruits.

383

384 **References**

385 Amidzic-Klaric D., Klaric I., Mornar A. 2011. Polyphenol content and antioxidant

activity of commercial blackberry wines from Croatia: application of multivariate

analysis for geographic origin differentiation. J Food Nutr Res 50:199-209

Arozarena I., Ortiz J., Hermosín-Gutiérrez I., Urretavizcaya I., Salvatierra S.,

389 Córdova I., Marín-Arroyo M.R., Noriega M.J., Navarro M. 2012. Color,

390 ellagitannins, anthocyanins and antioxidant activity of Andean blackberry (*Rubus*

glaucus Benth.) wines. J Agric Food Chem 60:7463-7473

Commission Regulation (EEC) No 2676/90 determining Community methods for
 the analysis of wines. Official Journal L 272 03/10/1990 P. 0001 – 0192.

³⁹⁴ Czyzowska A., Pogorzelski E. 2004. Changes to polyphenols in the process of

production of must and wines from blackcurrants and cherries. Part II.
 Anthocyanins and flavanols. Eur Food Res Technol 218:355–9.

Estupiñan D.C., Schwartz S.J., Garzón G.A. 2011. Antioxidant Activity, total
phenolics content anthocyanin and color stability of isotonic model beverages
colored with Andes berry (*Rubus glaucus* Benth) anthocyanin powder. J Food
Sci 76:S26-S34.

- Fernández-Pachón M.S., Villaño D., García-Parrilla M.C., Troncoso A.M. 2004.
 Antioxidant activity of wines and relation with their polyphenolic composition.
 Anal Chim Acta 513:113-8.
- Garzón G.A., Riedl K.M., Schwartz S.J. 2009. Determination of anthocyanins,
 total phenolic content and antioxidant activity in Andes berry (*Rubus glaucus*Benth). J Food Sci 74:227-32.
- Giusti M., Wrolstad R.E. 2005. Characterization and measurement of
 anthocyanins by UV-visible spectroscopy. In: Wrolstad R.E., editors. Handbook
 of food analytical chemistry. Pigments, colorants, flavors, texture and bioactive
 food components, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., p19-31.
- Glories Y. 1984. La couleur des vins rouges. II mesure origine et interpretation.
 Conn Vigne Vin 18:253-71.
- Hager T.J., Howard L.R., Liyanage R., Lay J.O., Prior R.L. 2008. Ellagitanin
 composition of blackberry as determined by HPLC-ESI-MS and MALDI-TOF-MS.
- 415 **J Agric Food Chem 56:661-9**.
- 416 Hubert B., Baron A., Le Quere J.M., Renard C.M.G.C. 2007. Influence of
- 417 prefermentary clarification on the composition of apple musts. J Agric Food418 Chem 55:5118-22.
- Johnson M.H., Gonzalez de Mejia E. 2012. Comparison of chemical composition
 and antioxidant capacity of commercially available blueberry and blackberry
 wines in Illinois. J Food Sci 71:C141-8.

Jung J., Son M.Y., Jung S., Nam P., Sung J.S., J Lee S.J., Lee K.G. 2009.
Antioxidant properties of Korean black raspberry wines and their apoptotic
effects on cancer cells. J Sci Food Agric 89:970–7.

Khanizadeh S., Tsao R., Rekika D., Yang R., Charles M.T., Rupasinghe H.P.V.
2008. Polyphenol composition and total antioxidant capacity of selected apple
genotypes for processing. J Food Compos Anal 21:396-401.

Lim J.W., Jeong J.T., Shin C.S. 2012. Component analysis and sensory evaluation of Korean black raspberry (*Rubus coreanus* Mique) wines. Int J Food Sci Tech 47:918-26.

431 Mertz C., Cheynier V., Günata Z., Brat P. 2007. Analysis of phenolic compounds

432 of two blackberry species (Rubus glaucus and Rubus adenotrichus) by High-

433 Performance Liquid Cromatography with Diode Array Detection and Electrospray

434 Ion Trap Mass Spectrometry. J Agric Food Chem 55:8616-24.

Mudnic I., Budimir D., Modun D., Gunjaca G., Generalic I., Skroza D., Katalinic
V., Ljubenkov I., Boban M. 2012. Antioxidant and vasodilatory effects of
blackberry and grape wines. J Med Food 15(3) 315-21

438 Picinelli-Lobo A., Diñeiro-García Y., Mangas-Sánchez J., Rodríguez-Madrera R., Suárez-

Valles B. 2009. Phenolic and antioxidant composition of cider. J Food Comp Anal22:644-8.

441 Pinghero R.G., Paliyath G. 2001. Antioxidant and calmodulin-inhibitory activities

of phenolic components in fruit wines and its biotechnological implications. Food

443 Biotechnol 15:179-92.

Rivero-Pérez M.D., González-San José M.L., Ortega-Heras M., Muñiz P. 2008.
Antioxidant potencial of single-variety red wines aged in the barrel and in the
bottle. Food Chem 111:957-64.

Rommel A., Wrolstad R.E., Heatherbell D.A. 1992. Blackberry juice and wine:
processing and storage effects on anthocyanin pigment composition color and
appearance. J Food Sci 57:385-91.

Rupasinghe H.P.V., Clegg S. 2007. Total antioxidant capacity total phenolic
content mineral elements and histamine concentrations in wines of different fruit
sources. J Food Comp Anal 20:133–7.

453 Sanchez-Moreno C., Cao G., Ou B., Prior R.L. 2003. Anthocyanin and
454 proanthocyanidin content in selected white and red wines. Oxygen Radical
455 Absorbance capacity comparisons with non-traditional wines obtained from
456 highbush blueberry. J Agric Food Chem 51:4889-96

457 Satora P., Sroka P., Duda-Chodak A., Tarko T., Tuszynski T. 2008. The profile
458 of volatile compounds and polyphenols in wines produced from dessert varieties
459 of apples. Food Chem 111:513-9.

Schmitzer V., Veberic R., Slatnar A., Stampar F. 2010. Elderberry (*Sambucus nigra* L.) wine: a product rich in health promoting compounds. J Agric Food
Chem 58:10143–6.

463 Schreckinger M.E., Lotton J., Lila M.A., Gonzalez de Mejia E. 2010a. Berries 464 from South America: a comprehensive review on chemistry health potential and

commercialization. J Med Food 13:233-46.

466	Schreckinger M.E., Wang J., Yousef G., Lila M.A., Gonzalez de Mejia E. 2010b.
467	Antioxidant capacity and in Vitro inhibition of adipogenesis and inflammation by
468	phenolic extracts of Vaccinium floribundum and Aristotelia chilensis. J Agric Food
469	Chem 58:8966-76

- 470 Siriwoharn T., Wrolstad R.E. 2004. Polyphenolic composition of Marion and
 471 Evergreen blackberries. J Food Sci 69:FCT233-40.
- Somers T.C., Evans M.E. 1977. Spectral evaluation of young red wines:
 anthocyanin equilibria total phenolics free and molecular SO₂ "Chemical age". J
 Sci Food Agric 28:279-87.
- 475 Su M-S, Chien P-J. 2007. Antioxidant activity anthocyanins and phenolics of
- 476 rabbiteye blueberry (*Vaccinium ashei*) fluid products as affected by fermentation.
- 477 Food Chem 104:182-7.
- Towantakavanit K., Park Y.S., Gorinstein S. 2011. Quality properties of wine from Korean kiwifruit new cultivars. Food Res Int 44:1364–72.
- 480 Vasco C., Riihinen K., Ruales J., Kamal-Eldin A. 2009a. Chemical composition
- and phenolic compound profile of Mortiño (Vaccinium floribundum Kunth). J
- 482 Agric Food Chem 57:8274–81.
- Vasco C., Riñen K., Ruales J., Kamal-Eldin A. 2009b. Phenolic compounds in
- 484 *Rosaceae* fruits from Ecuador. J Agric Food Chem 57:1204-12.
- 485 Vasco C., Ruales J., Kamal-Eldin A. 2008. Total phenolic compounds and
- antioxidant capacities of major fruits of Ecuador. Food Chem 111:816-23.

Vrhovsek U., Palchetti A., Reniero F., Guillou C., Masuero D., Mattivi F. 2006.
Concentration and mean degree of polymerization of *Rubus* ellagitannins
evaluated by optimized acid methanolysis. J Agric Food Chem 54:4469-75.
Yildirim H.K. 2006. Evaluation of colour parameters and antioxidant activities of
fruit wines. Int J Food Sci Nutr 57:47–63.

492

493

494 **Acknowledgments**

This work was possible by financial assistance from the AECID (Spanish Agency of International Cooperation for Development): Projects PCI-A/016087/08 and PCI-A/023823/09. Thanks to M.J. Andrade, I. Córdova, V. Criollo, P. Guano, I. Ocaña, G. Salazar, and K. Tapia, from the Universidad Técnica de Ambato (Ecuador), J. Sánchez from Gruppo Salinas (Salinas de Guaranda, Ecuador); and I. Urretavizcaya, H. Ortega and S. Salvatierra, from the Universidad Pública de Navarra (Spain), for their collaboration in the projects.

Set 1 – Apple	Wines (Ap 1)
Factor Y - yeast strain	Description: sixteen apple wines were obtained in either
Y0 - LEVAPAN - <i>S. cerevisiae</i> var. <i>cerevisiae</i>	presence or absence of fruit solids using four different
Y1 - Lalvin ICV OPALE - <i>S. cerevisiae</i> var. <i>cerevisiae</i>	yeast strains, three wine dry active yeast strains supplied
Y2 - Lalvin EC1118 - <i>S. cerevisiae</i> var. <i>oviformis</i>	by Lallemand (Canada), and one bread instantaneous dry
Y3 - Lalvin QA 23 - <i>S. cerevisiae</i> var. <i>oviformis</i>	active yeast supplied by LEVAPAN (Ecuador). The latter
Factor S - Fruit solids in fermentation	is the cheapest, most readily available and most used
S0 - Without solids	commercial yeast in the region.
S1 - With solids	Year of production = 2009
Number of trials: 4 x 2 x 2 repetitions = 16 wines	Temperature of fermentation = 24.1-26.4°C
Set 2 – Apple Factor E - Pectinolytic enzymes E0 – No treatment E1 – Lallyzme EX: 0.03 g/kg fruit (prior-fermentation) E2 – Lallzyme EX: 0.0075 g/L wine (post-fermentation) Factor Y (yeast strain) Y0 - LEVAPAN - <i>S. cerevisiae</i> var. <i>cerevisiae</i> Y1 - Lalvin EC1118 - <i>S. cerevisiae</i> var. <i>oviformis</i> Number of trials: 3 x 2 x 2 repetitions = 12 wines	e wines (Ap2) Description: twelve wines were obtained with a wine yeast strain or with the same bread yeast used in the set 1 and submitted to enzymatic clarification treatments with Lallzyme C-MAX (Lallemand Inc., Canada) prior or after the fermentation. Treatments were carried out at ambient temperature, as is customary in enological practices, and doses of the enzymes were established according to the supplier's recommendations. Year of production = 2009 Temperature of fermentation = 23.8-26.1°C
Set 3 – Apple	wines (Ap3)
Factor W - proportions of water and fruit in the musts	Description: twelve wines were obtained from musts
W0 – 3 L water/kg fruit	prepared by mixing fruit and water in three different
W1 – 2 L water/kg fruit	proportions.
W2 – 1 L water/kg fruit	Year of production = 2010
Number of trials: 3 x 4 repetitions = 12 wines	Temperature of fermentation = 18.2-19.9°C
Set 4 – Blackber Factor E - Pectinolytic enzymes E0 – No treatment E1 – Lallyzme EX: 0.02 g/kg fruit (prior-fermentation) E2 – Lallzyme EX: 0.03 g /kg fruit (prior-fermentation) E3 – Lallzyme C-MAX: 0.0013 g/L (post-fermentation) E4 – Lallzyme C-MAX: 0.0025 g/L (post-fermentation) Number of trials: 5 x 2 repetitions = 10 wines	erry wines (Blk) Description: two doses of two commercial pectinases (Lallemand Inc., Canada) were added at different moments. Lallzyme EX, is recommended for the red grape maceration process to increase the amount of juice and color extraction. It was added to the must just before the beginning of the fermentation process. Lallzyme C-MAX which is recommended to clarify must and wines was added once the alcoholic fermentation concluded. As in set 2, treatments were done at ambient temperature. Year of production = 2009 Temperature of fermentation = 23.1-26.9°C
Set 5 - Apple and Blac Factor F – Proportions of each fruit in the musts F1 – 2 parts of apples and 1 part of blackberries F2 – 1 part of apples and 2 parts of blackberries Number of trials: 2 x 4 repetitions = 8 wines	ckberry wines (ApBlk) Description: eight wines were produced from musts in which two different mixtures of apples and blackberries were used. Year of production = 2010 Temperature of fermentation = 17.5-19.5°C
Set 6 – Blueber	ry wines (Blue)
Factor W – Proportions of water and fruit in the musts	Description: twelve wines were obtained from musts
W0 – 4 L water/kg fruit	prepared by mixing fruit and water in three different
W1 – 3 L water/kg fruit	proportions.
W2 – 2 L water/kg fruit	Year of production = 2010
Number of trials: 3 x 4 repetitions = 12 wines	Temperature of fermentation = 14.2-18.3°C

Wines of sets 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 were fermented in the presence of fruit solids.

Wines of sets 3, 4, 5, and 6 were fermented with the same yeast strain (Lalvin QA 23).

Wines of sets 1, 3 and 5 were clarified after fermentation with pectinases (Lallzyme C-MAX)

506 507 508 Table 2. Summary of basic characteristics, color parameters, phenolic composition and antioxidant activity

of wines.

Wines Variables	Blackberry (n = 10)		Apple/Blackberry (n = 8)		Blueberry (n = 12)		Apple (n = 40)	
variables	Mean ± SD	Min-Max	Mean ± SD	/ Min-Max	Mean ± SD	Min-Max	Mean ± SD	Min-Max
AD (% vol.)	12.3 ± 0.4	11.9-12.8	12.1 ± 0.6	11.6-12.9	12.3 ± 0.3	12.0-12.9	12.1 ± 0.9	11.2-12.9
pН	3.0 ± 0.1	2.9-3.1	3.3 ± 0.1	3.1-3.5	2.9 ± 0.1	2.8-3.0	3.2 ± 0.1	3.1-3.4
TA (% malic acid)	0.7 ± 0.1	0.6-0.8	0.3 ± 0.5	0.1-1.0	0.5 ± 0.1	0.4-0.6	0.3 ± 0.1	0.2-0.4
TPC (mg GAE/L)	1265 ± 91	1122-1400	999 ± 83	862-1077	1090 ± 190	854-1386	608 ± 86	471-801
AA (mM TE)	11.6 ± 0.7	10.6-12.5	6.2 ± 0.7	5.2-7.2	5.4 ± 0.8	4-7	2.1 ± 0.3	1.6-2.8
CI	8.3 ± 0.6	6.9-9.0	2.9 ± 0.6	2.2-3.7	4.5 ± 1.2	2.9-6.4	0.21 ± 0.03	0.14-0.25
Hue	0.50 ± 0.02	0.46-0.55	0.60 ± 0.06	0.53-0.67	1.15 ± 0.10	1.00-1.32		
Yellow (%)	31 ± 1	30-32	35 ± 1	34-36	44 ± 2	42-48		
Red (%)	63 ± 2	60-66	58 ± 4	54-63	39 ± 2	36-42		
Blue (%)	6 ± 1	4-8	6 ± 7	3-10	17 ± 1	13-18		
WC	5.2 ± 0.5	4.4-5.9	1.7 ± 0.5	1.2-2.3	1.7 ± 0.4	1.0-2.4		
AC	3.5 ± 0.5	2.5-4.5	1.2 ± 0.5	0.6-1.8	0.9 ± 0.2	0.5-1.2		
CDR _{SO2}	1.7 ± 0.3	1-2	0.5 ± 0.1	0.3-0.7	0.8 ± 0.3	0.5-1.3		
CAW (%)	33 ± 7	21-43	33 ± 13	18-52	48 ± 5	42-60		
TMA (mg/L)	73 ± 16	52-105	35 ± 22	11-63	8 ± 3	5-13		
CyGlu (mg/L)	11 ± 4	8-18	7 ± 6	1-15				
CyRut (mg/L)	44 ± 15	25-69	30 ± 28	3-64				
A_min (mg/L)	15 ± 3	9-19	14 ± 2	12-17				
Ellagitannins (mg/L)	1172 ± 115	1010-1312	361 ± 144	206-538				

* AD: alcoholic degree, TA: total acidity, TPC: total polyphenol content, AA: antioxidant activity, CI: color intensity, WC: wine color, AC: anthocyanin color, CDRSO2: color of pigments resistant to SO2 decoloration, CAW: chemical age, TMA: Total monomeric anthocyanins, CyGlu: cyanidin-3-glucoside, CyRut: cyanidin-3-rutinoside, A_min: sum of minor 509 510 511 512 513 514 515 anthocyanin peaks.

516

517

519 520

521 Table 3. Effects of technological factors in apple wines. Set 1 - Ap1 (factor S: fruit solids in fermentation) Variables p-value Ap1S0 Ap1S1 TPC (mg GAE/L) 0.0012 574 ± 28a 682 ± 48b AA (mM TE) 0.0089 2.1 ± 0.1a $2.3 \pm 0.1b$ A420 0.4424 0.21 ± 0.01a 0.21 ± 0.01a Set 2 - Ap2 (factor E: pectinolytic enzymes) Variables p-value Ap2E0 Ap2E1 Ap2E2 TPC (mg GAE/L) 0.0716 523 ± 31a 567 ± 30a 509 ± 34a 2.1 ± 0.1b AA (mM TrE) 0.0105 $2.0 \pm 0.2b$ 1.7 ± 0.1a A420 0.0906 0.23 ± 0.01a 0.21 ± 0.02a 0.21 ± 0.01a

Set 3 - A	p3 (factor W: p	proportions of wat	er and fruit)	
Variables	<i>p</i> -value	Ap3W0	Ap3W1	Ap3W2
TPC (mg GAE/L)	0.0001	630 ± 13a	563 ± 56a	772 ± 22b
AA (mM TrE)	0.0001	2.3 ± 0.1b	1.9 ± 0.1a	2.6 ± 0.2c
A420	0.0000	0.16 ± 0.01a	0.15 ± 0.01a	0.22 ± 0.01b

* For each set of wines, values within a raw followed by different letters are significantly different (Tukey's test, p < 0.05). Data for each factor level are represented as the mean \pm SD. Identification of factor levels in table 1. Results regarding the effect of factor Y (yeast strain) for Ap1 and Ap2 wines not included due to the lack of significance.

525

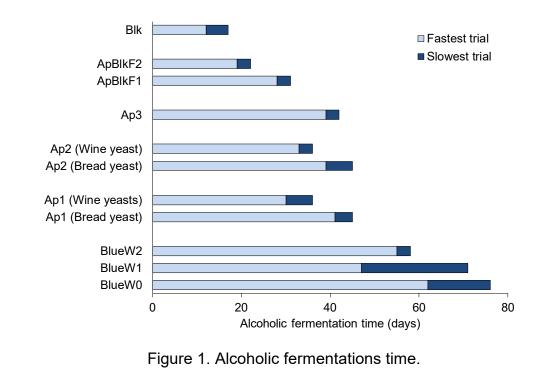
522 523 524

526

Wines Set 5 – Apple/Blackberry wines			Set 6 – Blueberry wines						
	(Factor F: proportions of each fruit)			(Fac	(Factor W: proportions of water and fruit)				
Variables	<i>p</i> -value	ApBlkF1	ApBlkF2	<i>p</i> -value	BlueW0	BlueW1	BlueW2		
TPC (mg GAE/L)	0.0150	936 ± 72a	1061 ± 18b	0.0003	934 ± 60a	1001 ± 110a	1322 ± 89b		
AA (mM TE)	0.0025	5.6 ± 0.4a	6.8 ± 0.3b	0.0000	4.7 ± 0.3a	5.0 ± 0.1a	6.3 ± 0.3b		
CI	0.0009	2.4 ± 0.2a	3.4 ± 0.3b	0.0009	3.3 ± 0.3a	4.2 ± 0.9a	5.8 ± 0.4b		
Hue	0.0008	0.65 ± 0.02b	0.56 ± 0.03a	0.1495	1.15 ± 0.14a	1.07 ± 0.03a	1.21 ± 0.07a		
Yellow (%)	0.0039	36 ± 1b	34 ± 1a	0.4470	45 ± 2a	44 ± 1a	45 ± 1a		
Red (%)	0.0008	55 ± 1a	62 ± 2b	0.0736	39 ± 3a	41 ± 1a	37 ± 1a		
Blue (%)	0.0010	9 ± 1b	4 ± 1a	0.0701	16 ± 1a	16 ± 2a	18 ± 1a		
WC	0.0001	1.3 ± 0.1a	2.1 ± 0.2b	0.0028	1.3 ± 0.2a	1.7 ± 0.3ab	2.2 ± 0.2b		
AC	0.0000	0.7 ± 0.1a	1.6 ± 0.1b	0.0765	0.7 ± 0.1a	0.9 ± 0.2a	1.0 ± 0.2a		
CDR _{SO2}	0.1713	0.6 ± 0.1a	0.5 ± 0.1a	0.0002	0.6 ± 0.1a	0.8 ± 0.1a	1.1 ± 0.1b		
CAW (%)	0.0017	44 ± 8b	22 ± 4a	0.0961	47 ± 2a	46 ± 4a	53 ± 5a		
TMA (mg/L)	0.0001	15 ± 3a	55 ± 9b	0.4119	7 ± 2a	9 ± 2a	8 ± 4a		
CyGlu (mg/L)	0.0004	2 ± 1a	12 ± 3b						
CyRut (mg/L)	0.0001	5 ± 2a	55 ± 10b						
A_min (mg/L)	0.0506	13 ± 2a	15 ± 1a						
Ellagitannins (mg/L)	0.0001	231 ± 25a	492 ± 51b						

Table 4. Effects of technological factors in red wines

529 530 531 532 533 534 535 536 * For each set of wines, values within a raw followed by different letters are significantly different (Tukey's test, p < 0.05). Data for each factor level are represented as the mean \pm SD. Identification of factor levels in table 1. TPC: total polyphenol content, AA: antioxidant activity, CI: color intensity, WC: wine color, AC: anthocyanin color, CDRSO2: color of pigments resistant to SO2 decoloration, CAW: chemical age, TMA: Total monomeric anthocyanins, CyGlu: cyanidin-3glucoside, CyRut: cyanidin-3-rutinoside, A_min: sum of minor anthocyanin peaks. Results regarding the effect of factor E (pectinolytic enzymes) for blackberry wines (set 4) not included due to the lack of significance.



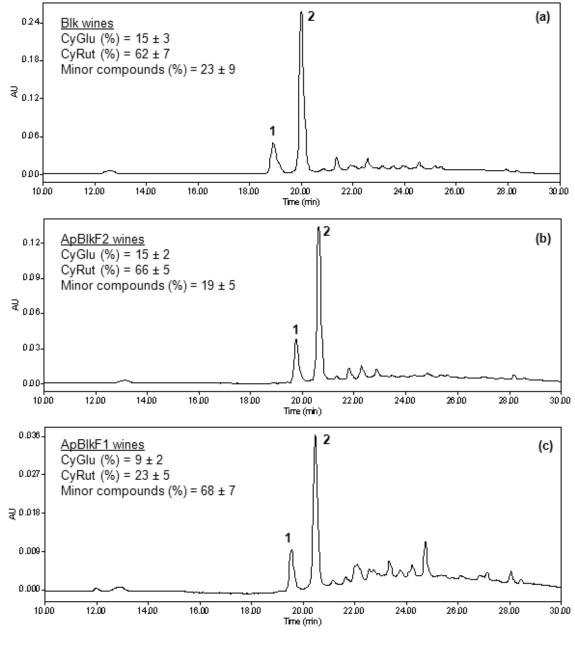
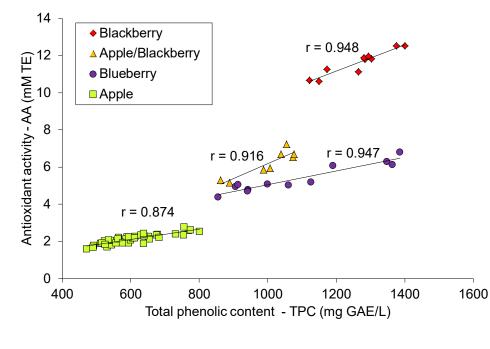


Figure 2. Chromatograms at 520 nm of samples of Blk (a), ApBlkF2 (b), and
 ApBlkF1 (c) wines (Peak 1: cyanidin 3-glucoside. Peak 2: cyanidin 3-rutinoside).



554 Figure 3. Relationship between the antioxidant activity and the total phenolic 555 content of wines

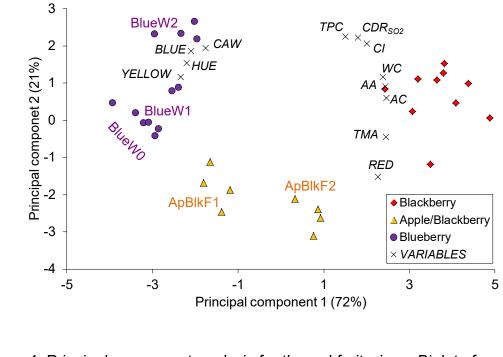


Figure 4. Principal component analysis for the red fruit wines: Biplot of variables and wines.

* AA: antioxidant activity, AC: anthocyanin color, CAW: chemical age, CDRSO₂: color of pigments
 resistant to SO₂ bleaching, CI: color intensity, WC: wine color, TMA: Total monomeric
 anthocyanins, TPC: total polyphenol content.

