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ArticleTitle	Evaluation of Industrial Sour Cherry Liquor Wastes as an Ecofriendly Source of Added Value Chemical Compounds and Energy	
Article Sub-Title		
Article CopyRight	Springer Nature B.V. (This will be the copyright line in the final PDF)	
Journal Name	Waste and Biomass Valorization	
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Schedule	Received	25 November 2017
	Revised	
	Accepted	25 June 2018

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Abstract

There has been a growing interest in the recovery and valorization of chemical products from biomass wastes. In the present study pomace from sour cherry liquor was analyzed in order to evaluate its potential for valorization. Two different samples of liquor pomace and two different extraction methods were screened through determination of their phenolic content (HPLC/PDA) and antioxidant activity (FRAP and DPPH assay). Results obtained showed that skins (pomace without kernel) presented a higher extraction yield, polyphenolic content and antioxidant activity than pomace with kernel (skin+kernel). Decoction at 100 °C allowed a higher recovery of phenolic compounds, but, maceration with water at 25 °C was considered a more sustainable process. HPLC analyses allowed the identification and quantification of phenolic compounds such as cyanidin-3-*O*-glucoside, (+)catechin and (–)epicatechin and some phenolic acids. The analyzed by-products might be a promising source of natural polyphenolic compounds, which can act as a new eco-friendly antioxidant ingredient, with potential to be incorporated in nutraceutical formulations or applied in food or cosmetic industries. The residues remaining after extraction have a high calorific value and fat content, suggesting its valorization as a source of energy or through the extraction of value-added oil.

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Keywords (separated by '-') Agro-industrial waste - Antioxidant activity - Biorefinery - Liquor industries - Phenolic compounds - Sour cherry liquor

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Footnote Information

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2 **Evaluation of Industrial Sour Cherry Liquor Wastes as an Ecofriendly**  
3 **Source of Added Value Chemical Compounds and Energy**

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5 Received: 25 November 2017 / Accepted: 25 June 2018  
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19 extraction of value-added oil.

AQ1

20 **Keywords** Agro-industrial waste · Antioxidant activity · Biorefinery · Liquor industries · Phenolic compounds · Sour  
21 cherry liquor

22 **Statement of Novelty**

23 The aim of this work was to evaluate industrial sour cherry  
24 liquor wastes as an ecofriendly source of added value  
25 chemical compounds and energy. The study focused on the

analyses made to two different samples of liquor pomace 26  
(skins and skins+kernel) and on the obtained extracts from 27  
two different methods (decoction at 100 °C and maceration 28  
with water at 25 °C). The residual fraction obtained after 29  
extraction was also analyzed towards its valorization for 30  
energy. As far as we know, information about the recovery 31  
of sour cherry liquor by-products and their chemical and 32  
antioxidant evaluation has not been thoroughly described 33  
by other authors. Moreover, information concerning the 34  
chemical composition (ash, fat, sugar and nitrogen con- 35  
tent) of the remaining residues in order to evaluate their 36  
potential to be valorized for energy production was not yet 37  
described before. Additionally, the study shows the pros- 38  
pects of using an ecofriendly and more sustainable process 39  
(maceration with water at 25 °C) applied to recover added 40  
value-products, compared to a process that demands more 41  
energy (decoction at 100 °C) and that causes degradation of 42  
some compounds due to the effect of high temperature. The 43  
authors believe that this work will add up to the (scarce) 44  
information about the recovery of pomace by-products of 45

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46 sour cherry liquor industry, their transformation into eco-  
47 friendly extracts, and the potential of bio-active products  
48 from those extracts to promote health.

## 49 Introduction

50 In the European Union the production of large amounts of  
51 waste and by-products is a concern. According to the Euro-  
52 pean Environment Agency [1], it has been estimated that  
53 around 89 million tons of food waste was generated in the  
54 EU in 2006, of which 39% were food industry waste. These  
55 by-products are wasted without any valorization and depos-  
56 ited in soil and water, giving rise to environmental issues.  
57 Thus, reducing the environmental impact of industrial by-  
58 products, maximizing their recovery and recycling has been  
59 a challenge in recent years [2].

60 According to the recent circular economy development  
61 model it is possible to build a more harmonious society  
62 that efficiently manage all natural resources in a sustainable  
63 way by increasing the share of renewable and recyclable  
64 resources while reducing the consumption of raw materials  
65 and energy as well as the emissions and losses of material. In  
66 this perspective, the recovery and recycling of by-products  
67 and materials and their conversion into new and low cost  
68 interesting products, will play a significant role in maintain-  
69 ing the utility of products, components and materials and  
70 retaining their value, reducing the environmental pollution  
71 generated at each step and in saving resources [3–5].

72 There are many scientific works concerning the recovery  
73 of phenolic compounds from food industry by-products. In  
74 fact, in most cases those by-products can be regarded as  
75 potential sources of antioxidants that might be interesting  
76 for different applications in pharmaceutical, food or cos-  
77 metic industries [6–8]. Some authors have reported lycopene  
78 extraction from tomato waste [9] or some applications of by-  
79 products derived from grape marc [10], pomegranate leaves  
80 and peels [11] or olive oil production [12, 13], including  
81 its wastewater [14, 15], and olive leaves [16], from which  
82 antioxidant compounds such as hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol and  
83 oleuropein may be extracted [17]. Even the production of  
84 fruit juices and the transformation of fruit and vegetables  
85 have shown to be also a potential source of polyphenols,  
86 which are still mainly located in the skins of those by-prod-  
87 ucts [18–21]. Other examples studied are the citrus, apples  
88 and tomato industries that produce, as by-products, a large  
89 amount of skins which could have an even higher phenolic  
90 content than that of the edible part of the fruit [22–25]. Thus,  
91 the recovery of these pomaces seems to be a natural way to  
92 obtain active food-value ingredients, rich in bioactive com-  
93 pounds such as anthocyanins and other phenolics, and that can  
94 substitute synthetic food colorants and antioxidant ingredi-  
95 ents [2, 26].

Sour cherry (*Prunus cerasus* L.) is an acid fruit widely  
used for liquors production that can be found in many coun-  
tries of Europe and Southwestern Asia. These liquors are  
produced in several industrial units and have a typical taste  
that makes them one of the most appreciated beverages all  
over the world. In the manufacturing process, fruits are first  
infused in an alcoholic solution for about 12 months, to  
extract all the aromatic and color compounds, and after-  
wards separated from the liquid using a press (crush). At the  
end of the process the juice of the fruit is mixed with sugar  
and alcohol to make the final product [27]. However, this  
manufacturing process generates many by-products, mainly  
skins and kernels (20% of the cherry), arising from industrial  
pressing and that are normally discarded without any valoriz-  
ation or environmental concerns. Only a small percentage  
of those wastes have other final destination. Some authors  
have reported their transformation into organic fertilizer or  
their distillation for ethanol production, but without any  
recovery of the bioactive compounds [18, 27–29].

In recent years, many studies on sour cherries have  
revealed that they are rich sources of bioactive compounds,  
due to their polyphenolic phytochemicals, mainly phenolic  
acids and flavonoids, and nutritional value [30–32]. The  
most common flavonoids identified by several authors on  
cherries and sour cherries are essentially anthocyanins, such  
as cyanidin, flavonols, such as quercetin, kaempferol and  
rutin, and flavanols, such as (+)catechin and (–)epicatechin.  
These compounds have showed a high antioxidant capacity  
and other pharmacological properties [25, 33–36]. Those  
compounds are mainly located in the fruit skin and contrib-  
ute to its organoleptic and sensory properties, such as taste  
or astringency [37]. Besides providing fruit color, anthocya-  
nins from cherries may be behind several of the important  
health benefits attributed to those fruits. They are reported  
to exhibit antioxidant [38–42], anti-inflammatory [11, 38,  
43, 44], anticancer [17, 45], and anti-diabetic activities [46],  
and protective properties against cardiovascular and neuro-  
degenerative diseases [47, 48].

However, information about the recovery of pomace by-  
products of sour cherry liquor industry, their transformation  
into ecofriendly extracts, and the potential of those extracts  
to promote health, has not been thoroughly described in lit-  
erature and no previous studies were performed concerning  
their composition and antioxidant activity. Moreover, infor-  
mation concerning the potential of the remaining residue  
to be valorized for energy production was not yet describe.  
Therefore, this work aimed to investigate the transformation  
of these by-products in extracts with biological properties  
that can act as functional ingredients when added to food,  
nutraceuticals and cosmetics. For this, the phenolic profile  
and antioxidant activity of two different samples of pomace  
from sour cherry liquor industry, namely skin and a mix  
of skin and kernels, were determined in order to evaluate

149 their bioactive potential. Additionally, the chemical com-  
150 position (organic matter, fat, sugar and nitrogen content) of  
151 the remaining residue was also analyzed in order evaluate  
152 its potential as an energy source with the perspective of total  
153 recycling of by-products reducing its environmental impact.

## 154 Materials and Methods

### 155 Sample Preparation

156 Plant and fruits of sour cherry *P. cerasus* L. were collected  
157 in Sobral, Óbidos and voucher specimens were deposited  
158 in herbarium “João de Carvalho e Vasconcellos”, of the  
159 “Instituto Superior de Agronomia”, Lisbon, Portugal, with  
160 identification LISI-345/2013, 2013. At the production unit  
161 fruits were squeezed and crushed to collect the liquid for the  
162 manufacture of the liquor. After crushing many by-products  
163 are generated mainly composed by a mixture of skins and  
164 kernels (pomace). Skin represents about 24% of the total  
165 pomace (skin+kernel) weight. Studied pomace was provided  
166 by Frutóbidos liquor industry, from Óbidos, Portugal. The  
167 pomace was transported in cold conditions to the laboratory  
168 where it was divided in two halves: pomace (skin+kernel)  
169 and skin. The skin fraction was obtained from the pomace  
170 by manual separation. Skin was also characterized because  
171 it is known that phenolic compounds are mainly located in  
172 the skin of the fruits. Samples were than stored at  $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$   
173 for further analysis.

### 174 Reagents and Reference Compounds

175 Folin–Ciocalteu (FC) reagent, gallic acid and sodium car-  
176 bonate were purchased from VWR (Leuven, Belgium).  
177 2,4,6-Tri(2-pyridyl)-s-triazine (TPTZ) were purchased  
178 from Fluka (Steinheim, Alemanha) and iron chloride(III)  
179 hexa-hydrated 97%, potassium chloride and sodium acetate  
180 tri-hydrated 99,9% from Panreac, (Barcelona, Spain).  
181 2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH); methanol, chlo-  
182 rogenic and *p*-coumaric acids, kaempherol and cyanidin-  
183 3-glucoside were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim,  
184 Germany). Procatechuic, ferulic, *p*-hydroxybenzoic and van-  
185 illic acids, as well as, catechin, epicatechin, quercetin-3-*O*-  
186 glucoside and kaempherol-3-*O*-rhamno-glucoside were iso-  
187 lated and provided by Doctor Ana M. Díaz-Lanza, from the  
188 University of Alcalá de Henares; Madrid, Spain.

### 189 Extract Preparation

190 Two kinds of samples were used for extract preparation:  
191 pomace (skin+kernel) and skins after manual removal of  
192 the kernels (skin). Samples were first ground in a coffee  
193 mill for 3 min, in order to reduce the particle size and

194 increase the surface area, and then homogeneously mixed  
195 and riddled in a Retsch®-Test Sieve up to a particle diam-  
196 eter of 0.5 mm. The extraction was performed by macera-  
197 tion with water at  $25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  during 24 h and by decoction in  
198 boiling water for 15 min. All the extracts were prepared  
199 with the proportion 1/10 plant/water, under constant stir-  
200 ring (900 rpm) and reduced-light conditions. Finally, sam-  
201 ples were filtered through quantitative filter paper (P5;  
202 Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA, USA) and freeze-dried  
203 (Freezone 2.5 L, Freeze-dryer Labconco, Kansas City,  
204 MO, USA). The dry weight of each extract was deter-  
205 mined in percentage of yield. All the extracts were stored  
206 at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  for further analysis. All the analytical proce-  
207 dures were performed in triplicate.

### Total Phenolic Content

208  
209 The total phenolic content (TPC) was determined accord-  
210 ing to the modified FC colorimetric method using gallic  
211 acid as a standard [49]. Briefly, 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of each extract (or  
212 its dilutions) were mixed with 500  $\mu\text{L}$  of FC reagent and  
213 1.5 mL of sodium carbonate 20% (w/v), and water up to  
214 10 mL. The absorbance at 765 nm of the blue coloration  
215 formed was measured after 2 h of incubation in the dark at  
216  $25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  against the blank standard. TPC was calculated with  
217 respect to gallic acid standard curve (concentration range  
218 50–500 mg/L). Results are expressed in mg equivalent of  
219 gallic acid (GAE)/100 g of fresh biomass.

### Total Anthocyanin Content

220  
221 Total anthocyanins content were estimated by the pH differ-  
222 ential method [31, 36]. Absorbance was measured at 510 and  
223 700 nm in buffers at pH 1.0 (potassium chloride, 0.025 M)  
224 and pH 4.5 (sodium acetate 0.4 M). Results were expressed  
225 in mg of cyanidin 3-glucoside equivalents (EC3G)/100 g  
226 of fresh biomass, using a molar extinction coefficient of  
227 29,600 L/mol/cm.

### Antioxidant Capacity

#### DPPH Assay

228  
229  
230 Radical scavenging capacity was determined by the DPPH  
231 assay. Briefly diluted samples were added to the DPPH  
232 methanolic solution (0.1 mM) and the absorbance was  
233 measured at 517 nm immediately and after 30 min.  $\text{IC}_{50}$   
234 was defined as the dry matter content of the sample in  $\mu\text{g}/$   
235 mL, required for decreasing the initial DPPH concentration  
236 by 50% [50].

## 237 FRAP Assay

238 The FRAP assay was carried according to the procedure  
239 described by Ramful et al. [51]. The principle of this  
240 method is based on the ability of substances to reduce  
241 Fe(III)-2,4,6-Tri(2-pyridyl)-s-triazine (TPTZ). The  
242 absorbance was read at 593 nm after 4 min incubation at  
243 37 °C. A calibration curve of ferrous sulphate (0–1.2 mM)  
244 was used and results were expressed as mmol Fe<sup>2+</sup>/100 g  
245 fresh biomass.

246 **High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC)**  
247 **Analysis**

248 Phenolic profile of the extracts was evaluated by HPLC,  
249 using a HPLC system (DIONEX ICS3000) equipped with  
250 a photodiode array detector (PDA) (ICS series DIONEX),  
251 and 3.9 × 150 mm Novapak C18 column from WATERS  
252 (Massachusetts, USA). Extracts were prepared and  
253 diluted in methanol:water (70:30, v/v) and analyzed by  
254 HPLC, injecting 20 µL at 30 °C and using a two-solvent  
255 gradient elution. The solvent compositions used were  
256 A: water–methanol–acetic acid (88:10:2, v/v/v) and B:  
257 water–methanol–acetic acid (8:90:2, v/v/v).

258 The solvent composition changed according to the fol-  
259 lowing gradient: 0–10 min 100% A; 25 min 85% A + 15%  
260 B; 35 min 50% A + 50% B; 35–44 min 50% A + 50% B;  
261 50 min 30% A + 70% B. The flow rate was set at 0.5 mL/  
262 min. Detection was carried out between 200 and 550 nm  
263 with a PDA detector. Retention times and UV–Vis absorb-  
264 ance spectra were used to identify the different phenolic  
265 compounds. Quantification of polyphenols was performed  
266 using calibration curves (peak area vs. concentration)  
267 obtained with individual standards prepared and diluted  
268 in methanol: water (70:30, v/v) and analyzed in the same  
269 conditions. Results were expressed as µg/100 g fresh bio-  
270 mass. All analyses were performed in triplicate.

271 **Chemical Analyses of the Remaining Residue**

272 The chemical composition of the residue obtained after pom-  
273 ace/skin extract preparation was determined in order to eval-  
274 uate its potential as an energy source. Thus the residues were  
275 analyzed for moisture, protein, fat, carbohydrates and ash.  
276 Moisture was determined by the loss of weight after drying  
277 at 105 ± 2 °C (2 h), repeated until constant weight, expressed  
278 in relation to a wet sample [52]. Ash content was determined  
279 by incineration in a muffle at 550 ± 50 °C [52]. The crude  
280 protein content was estimated from the total nitrogen Kjel-  
281 dahl content (N × 6.25) determined after mineralization with  
282 H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, distillation and titration with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> 0.02N [52]. The  
283 crude fat was determined gravimetrically after extraction  
284 with petroleum ether in a Soxhlet apparatus [52]. Total car-  
285 bohydrates were calculated by difference: Total carbohy-  
286 drates = 100 – (g moisture + g protein + g fat + g ash) [53].  
287 Total energy was calculated according to the following equa-  
288 tion: Energy (kcal) = 4 × (g protein + g carbohydrate) + 9 × (g  
289 lipid) [53].

290 **Statistical Analysis**

291 Data are expressed as mean ± standard deviation. Statistical  
292 analysis was performed by Kruskal–Wallis-test using SPSS  
293 Statistics® software, version 22.0, Chicago, USA. Results  
294 with p < 0.05 were considered significantly different.

295 **Results and Discussion**

296 Results from extraction yields, TPC, anthocyanin content,  
297 and antioxidant activity of aqueous pomace (skin with and  
298 without kernels) extracts prepared by decoction at 100 °C  
299 (W100) or maceration at 25 °C (W25) are presented in  
300 Table 1. Results showed that in general, extracts from pom-  
301 ace without kernel (skins) showed a higher extraction yield,  
302 phenolic and anthocyanin contents and antioxidant activity  
303 than those from pomace with kernel (skin+kernel), show-  
304 ing that the sour cherry skin contributes more to the total

**Table 1** Characterization of aqueous extracts prepared by decoction at 100 °C (W100) or by maceration at 25 °C (W25)

Sample	Water extracts	Yield (%)	Phenolic content (mg GAE/100 g)	Anthocyanin content (mg EC3G/100 g)	Antioxidant activity	
					FRAP (mmol Fe <sup>2+</sup> /100 g)	DPPH (IC <sub>50</sub> ) (µg dry extract/ mL)
Skin	W100	18 ± 2 <sup>a</sup>	289 ± 5 <sup>a</sup>	1.6 ± 0.9 <sup>a</sup>	7.5 ± 0.3 <sup>a</sup>	380 ± 3 <sup>c</sup>
	W25	6.8 ± 0.4 <sup>b</sup>	31 ± 1 <sup>c</sup>	1.8 ± 0.3 <sup>a</sup>	3.0 ± 0.4 <sup>b</sup>	880 ± 21 <sup>b</sup>
Skin+kernel	W100	14 ± 2 <sup>a</sup>	173 ± 8 <sup>b</sup>	0.5 ± 0.3 <sup>b</sup>	1.9 ± 0.1 <sup>c</sup>	407 ± 14 <sup>c</sup>
	W25	1.7 ± 0.6 <sup>c</sup>	40 ± 4 <sup>c</sup>	0.9 ± 0.4 <sup>b</sup>	1.9 ± 0.2 <sup>c</sup>	946 ± 21 <sup>a</sup>

Within the same column different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05)



phenolic and anthocyanin contents of pomace extracts as well as for its antioxidant capacity. Those results are in agreement with the results from other authors that refer that most of skin phenolic compounds can remain after fruit pressing because they are associated with the skin pectin matrix [23–25, 54].

In what concerns the extraction yields (Table 1), the best results were obtained by the decoction method. Skin extracts prepared at 25 °C presented an extraction yield significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) than skin+kernel extracts prepared by the same method. In contrast, the extraction yield obtained with decoction at 100 °C showed no significant differences between the skin and skin+kernel ( $p > 0.05$ ).

For both samples (skin and skin+kernel), extracts prepared at 100 °C presented a significantly higher phenolic content ( $p < 0.05$ ) than extracts prepared at 25 °C. Thus, according to our results the decoction method seems to be more efficient in extracting phenolic compounds than the maceration method. Other authors refer that temperature can potentially increase polyphenol extraction, which may be due to increased diffusion of phenolic compounds [55, 56].

Decoction skin extract presented a significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) phenolic content than decoction skin+kernel extract. This result may be due to the presence of phenolic compounds in the fruit skin. As previously stated, skin represents only about 24% of the total weight of skin+kernel sample. Thus, this small amount of skin may explain the observed differences in the phenolic content of skin and skin+kernel extracts. When analyzing the pulp and skin of *P. cerasus* fruits, Chaovanalikit and Wrolstad [25], reported a TPC higher in skin (5.58 mg/g fresh weight) than in pulp (3.01 mg/g fresh weight). These authors found that phenolic compounds are mainly located in the skin of those fruits, which can make the by-products resulting from the processing of sour cherry an interesting source of polyphenolic compounds. In comparison with other fruit by-products, the values obtained for total phenols were higher than those found by Bonilla et al. [6] for grape pomace extracts carried out by maceration for 6 h with ethyl acetate/water 50:50 (v:v). For those extracts the TPC was about 100 mg GAE/100 g of marc by-product. Additionally, Rødtjer et al. [57], extracted cherry liquor pomace with different solvents (methanol, ethanol, acetone and 2-propanol), and obtained phenolic contents (78–74 mg GAE/100 g) lower than those obtained in the present study using water as extraction solvent.

The anthocyanin content was significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) for skin extracts than for skin+kernel extracts (Table 1). Once again, these results may be due to the presence and permanence of these compounds in fruit skin, even after industrial pressing, and to the smaller amount of skin used to prepare the skin+kernel extracts when compared to the amount of skin used to prepare the skin

extracts. On the other hand, for both samples (skin and skin+kernel), the anthocyanin content of extracts obtained by decoction at 100 °C, was not significantly higher ( $p > 0.05$ ) than anthocyanin content of extracts obtained by maceration at 25 °C. These results could be related to the vulnerability of anthocyanins to high temperatures, which may have led to their destruction in the samples extracted at 100 °C. It has been reported that increases in temperature in aqueous extract of red fruit can increase the content of other phenolic compounds that are not thermolabile, such as phenolic acids and flavones. Nevertheless, increases in temperature almost always result in a marked decrease in anthocyanin content of aqueous extracts [56, 58], which is in agreement with the results obtained in the present work.

Also, according to FRAP and DPPH assays (Table 1), the extract that presented the best antioxidant activity was the skin extract obtained by decoction at 100 °C. This result is in agreement with the previously discussed phenolic content and emphasizes the involvement of phenolic compounds on the antioxidant activity of the extracts. Conversely, the values obtained with skin+kernel extracts obtained by decoction or maceration were quite different in FRAP and DPPH assays. Thus, in FRAP assay both skin+kernel extracts showed similar antioxidant activity, but in DPPH assay the antioxidant activity of skin+kernel extract was significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) when the extract was obtained by decoction than when the extract was obtained by maceration, similarly to what was observed with the skin extracts.

Additionally aqueous extracts were analyzed by HPLC in order to identify and quantify the phenolic compounds that can contribute to the antioxidant activity previously demonstrated. Table 2 shows the quantification of the main phenolic compounds identified in the different by-products extracts. The major polyphenols identified were phenolic acids (protocatechuic, chlorogenic, *p*-hydroxybenzoic, coumaric, vanillic and ferulic acids), and flavonoids, mainly flavanols [(+)-catechin and (–)-epicatechin]; flavonols (kaempferol and quercetin-3-*O*-glucoside) and anthocyanins (cyanidin-3-*O*-glucoside).

Table 2 shows that extracts from pomace without kernel (skins) presented a higher concentration in polyphenols, with a total of 370 µg/100 g for W25 and 1767 µg/100 g for W100, than extracts from pomace with kernel (skin+kernel), with a total phenolic compounds of 157 µg/100 g for W25 and 1529 µg/100 g for W100 extracts. It is also possible to observe that values obtained for total phenol contents by HPLC were much lower than those observed for the FC method, maybe due to the fact that not all the phenolic compounds in the sample have been identified by the HPLC analysis. However a significantly positive correlation was observed between the TPC quantified by those two methods ( $r = 0.9529$ ).

**Table 2** Quantification of phenolic compounds by HPLC ( $\mu\text{g}/100$  g fresh biomass) in the aqueous extracts prepared by decoction at  $100$  °C (W100) and by maceration at  $25$  °C (W25)

Samples Compounds	Skin		Skin+kernel	
	W25	W100	W25	W100
Protocatechuic acid	$260 \pm 10^c$	$1261 \pm 189^a$	$110 \pm 8^d$	$980 \pm 58^b$
(+)Catechin	$15.1 \pm 0.9^c$	$63 \pm 8^a$	$6.5 \pm 0.0^d$	$58 \pm 1^b$
<i>p</i> -Hydroxybenzoic acid	$3.2 \pm 0.2^c$	$19 \pm 1^b$	$3.6 \pm 0.1^c$	$48 \pm 3^{ca}$
Chlorogenic acid	$58 \pm 1^b$	$305 \pm 42^a$	$27 \pm 2^c$	$288 \pm 17^a$
Vanillic acid	$4.4 \pm 0.5^c$	$20 \pm 2^b$	$3.9 \pm 0.1^c$	$47 \pm 2^a$
(-)Epicatechin	$3.8 \pm 0.2^c$	$46 \pm 6^a$	n.d	$17.1 \pm 0.1^b$
Cyanidin-3- <i>O</i> -glucoside	$14.3 \pm 0.0^b$	$23 \pm 5^a$	$3.3 \pm 0.1^c$	$18.0 \pm 0.0^a$
Coumaric acid	$1.0 \pm 0.0^b$	$7.5 \pm 0.3^a$	n.d	$8.9 \pm 0.4^a$
Ferulic acid	$3.2 \pm 0.2^c$	$17 \pm 1^a$	$1.9 \pm 0.0^d$	$11.2 \pm 0.4^b$
Quercetin-3- <i>O</i> -glucoside	$4.4 \pm 1.0^b$	n.d	n.d	$16 \pm 1^a$
Kaempferol	n.d	$22.6 \pm 1.7^a$	n.d	$25 \pm 1^a$
Kaempferol-3- <i>O</i> -rhamno-glucoside	$2.1 \pm 1.6$	n.d	n.d	n.d
Total	370	1767	157	1529

Within the same line different letters indicate significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ )

n.d Not detected

411 It can also be observed that most of the identified com- 444  
 412 pounds presented significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) concen- 445  
 413 trations in extracts obtained by decoction (W100) than in 446  
 414 extracts obtained by maceration (W25) for both samples 447  
 415 (skin and skin+kernel). It is also possible to observe that 448  
 416 in relation to skin+kernel extracts, skin extracts presented a 449  
 417 higher phenolic content for the majority of the compounds 450  
 418 identified, except for the vanillic and *p*-hydroxybenzoic 451  
 419 acids and quercetin 3-*O*-glucoside that presented higher val- 452  
 420 ues for skin+kernel decoction extract than for skin decoction 453  
 421 extract. Perhaps these compounds are present in the skin 454  
 422 and in the kernel of the fruit. These results are in agreement 455  
 423 with those obtained for polyphenols and antioxidant activity. 456

424 Rødtjer et al. [57] also identified vanillic acid, (+)cat- 457  
 425 echin, and (-)epicatechin in extracts from *P. cerasus* (cv. 458  
 426 Stevns cherry) pomace, obtained in distillers from Denmark. 459  
 427 Moreover, chlorogenic and protocatechuic acids [25, 37] as 460  
 428 well as flavonoid compounds such as catechins and epicat- 461  
 429 echin [36, 59–61] were identified in cherry and sour cherry 462  
 430 juice and fruit extracts. All of these compounds have also 463  
 431 been identified in our pomace extracts, suggesting that after 464  
 432 industrial extraction they remain in the pomace, possibly 465  
 433 linked to the matrix of the skin. The presence of these com- 466  
 434 pounds can justify the antioxidant activity observed. 467

435 Several compounds found in *P. cerasus* pomace extracts, 468  
 436 namely phenolic acids such as protocatechuic, chlorogenic, 469  
 437 vanillin and *p*-hydroxybenzoic acids [6, 59] and flavanols 470  
 438 such as catechins and epicatechins [62], demonstrated 471  
 439 in vitro antioxidant activity, acting as efficient scavengers of 472  
 440 free radicals. Also Picolletta et al. [34] examined the antioxi- 473  
 441 dant capacity of pure compounds isolated from methanolic 474  
 442 extracts and found that the more active compounds were cat- 475  
 443 echins, epicatechins, and chlorogenic acid. Thus, it is likely 476

444 that the presence of these compounds in the extracts under 445  
 446 study can contribute to the observed antioxidant activity. 447  
 448 However, it must be take into account that these compounds 449  
 450 may have a different activity when they are isolated or when 451  
 452 they are present in a complex sample, like pomace extracts, 453  
 454 where synergy or antagonistic relationships may occur [63]. 455  
 456

457 The cyanidin-3-*O*-glucoside content ranged from 3.3 to 458  
 459  $23 \mu\text{g}/100$  g in which the higher value was observed in the 460  
 461 W100 skin extract and the lower in the W25 skin+kernel 462  
 463 extract. Anthocyanins remain in skin even after the industrial 464  
 465 pressing [54]. However in decoction extracts (W100) there 466  
 467 were no significant differences ( $p > 0.05$ ) between cyani- 468  
 469 din-3-*O*-glucoside content in skin and skin+kernel samples, 470  
 471 perhaps due to the thermal degradation of the anthocyanins. 472  
 473 In fact, degradation of anthocyanins has been reported to 474  
 475 occur at temperatures above  $40$  °C [58, 64]. These results 476  
 477 are in agreement with that observed in this study for the 478  
 479 quantification of total anthocyanins content by the pH dif- 480  
 481 ferential method. 482

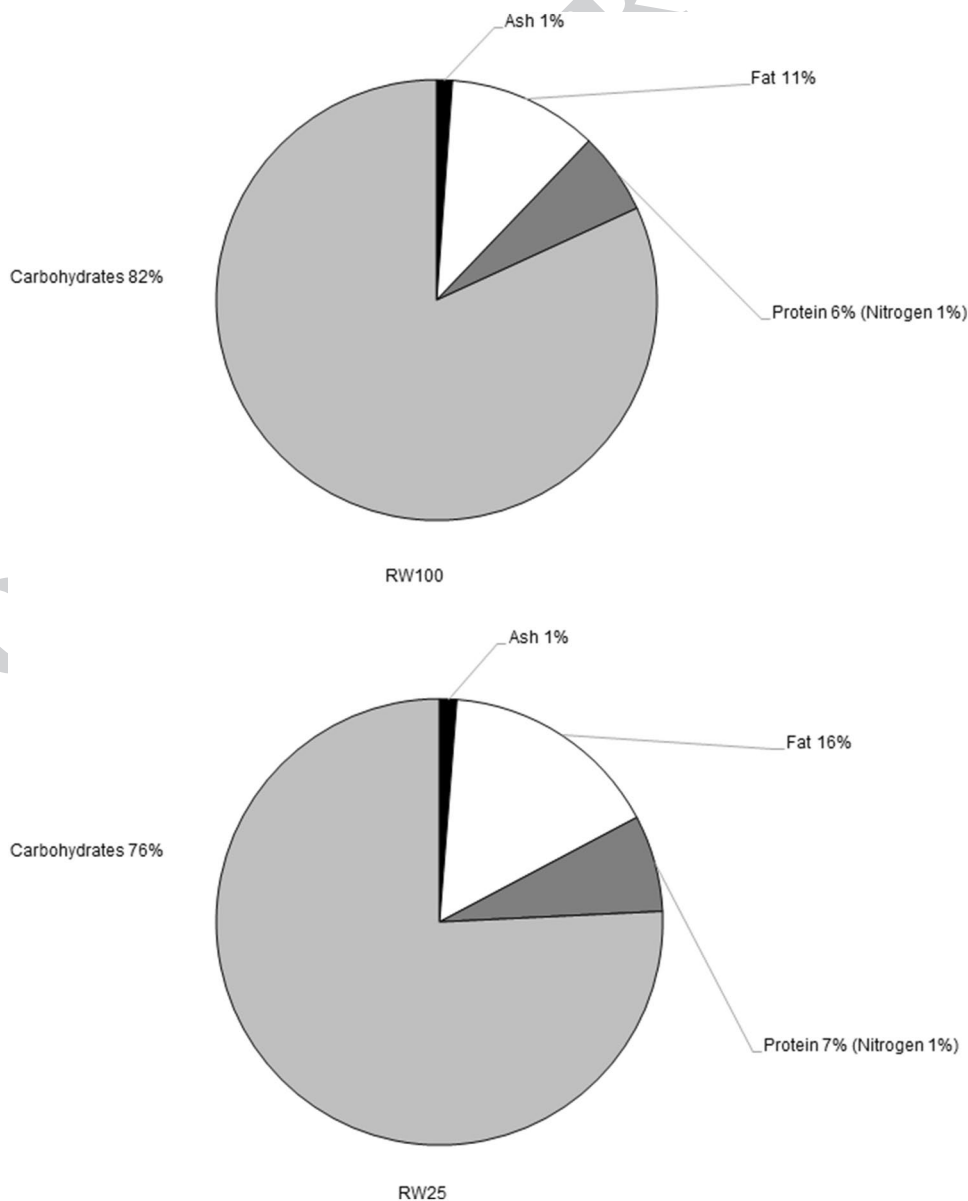
483 The observed presence of anthocyanins in the liquor pom- 484  
 485 ace by-products extracts shows that those compounds can 486  
 487 be recovered and used as natural antioxidants in cosmet- 488  
 489 ics, drinks and nutraceuticals, providing many benefits for 490  
 491 human health. Similar studies have revealed that anthocya- 492  
 493 nins from sour cherry exhibit in vitro antioxidant activities 494  
 495 that can be comparable to synthetic commercial products, 496  
 497 such as butylated hydroxyanisole and butylated hydroxytolu- 498  
 499 ene, and even superior to vitamin E at  $2$  mM concentration 500  
 501 [40, 65]. Thus anthocyanins can be considered as natural 502  
 503 antioxidants that can be added to functional products. 504

505 The chemical composition (ash, fat, sugar and nitrogen 506  
 507 content) of the remaining residues obtained after pomace 508  
 509 extractions were also analyzed in order evaluate its potential 510

477 as an energy source (Fig. 1). The fat content of the resi- 489  
 478 due obtained after extraction at 100 °C (RW100) was lower 490  
 479 than the fat content of the residue obtained after extraction 491  
 480 at 25 °C (RW25). However, results showed that both the 492  
 481 remaining residues still have significant oil content. This oil 493  
 482 can be extracted and valorized in a biorefinery context. The 494  
 483 remaining high sugar content suggests that the residues have 495  
 484 potential for the production of ethanol or they can be used 496  
 485 directly for combustion purposes. In fact, the remaining resi- 497  
 486 dues presented a high heat of combustion (19.9 MJ/kg dry 498  
 487 matter for RW25 and 18.9 MJ/kg dry matter for RW100) and 499  
 488 a low ash and nitrogen contents. Ash and nitrogen contents

are important criteria for thermal conversion technologies. 500  
 High ash content leads to fouling problems, especially if 501  
 the ash is high in metal halides (e.g., potassium), thus these 502  
 content should be lower than 5 g/100 g of dried matter in 503  
 order to avoid the occurrence of slagging processes [66]. 504  
 Moreover, ash does not contribute to energy production and 505  
 it generally cost money to discard [67]. On the other hand, 506  
 lower nitrogen content should lead to lower NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. 507  
 Thus, this value should be lower than 1 g/100 g dry matter 508  
 as the lower the nitrogen absorbed by the biomass, the lower 509  
 the N emissions that will contribute to the greenhouse gases 510

**Fig. 1** Chemical composition of the remaining residue after water extraction at 100 °C (RW100) and at 25 °C (RW25)



## 501 Conclusions

502 Results obtained in this study showed that the sample with-  
 503 out kernel (skins) showed a higher extraction yield, poly-  
 504 phenolic content and antioxidant activity than the sample  
 505 from pomace with kernel (skin+kernel). Results also showed  
 506 that decoction at 100 °C was the best extraction method,  
 507 except for the anthocyanins, that probably suffered some  
 508 degradation with temperature. However, despite allowing  
 509 a higher recovery of phenolic compounds, extraction at  
 510 100 °C requires also higher energy consumption, and thus  
 511 extraction at 25 °C seems to be a more sustainable process.  
 512 In conclusion, results obtained allow us to conclude that  
 513 the cherry pomace could be regarded as a promising eco-  
 514 friendly agro-industrial by-product. It can be considered a  
 515 potential low-cost source of polyphenols, with potential to  
 516 be used as functional ingredients when added to food, nutra-  
 517 ceuticals and cosmetics. Additionally the transformation of  
 518 these by-products in an energy source can be regarded in the  
 519 perspective of total recycling of those by-products.

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