

1 **From winery by-product to healthy product: Bioavailability, redox signaling and**
2 **oxidative stress modulation by wine pomace product**

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22 **Abstract**

23 The use of winery by-products, such as wine pomace, to improve human health is attracting
24 increasing interest. The wine pomace is the mainly winery by-products consisted of seeds and
25 skins that suppose an economic and environmental problem and their use as functional
26 ingredient or for pharmaceutical purposes are being increasingly recognized as a good and
27 inexpensive source of bioactive compounds. In this sense, it known the potential health
28 properties of wine pomace products in the prevention of disorders associated with oxidative
29 stress and inflammation such as endothelial dysfunction, hypertension, hyperglycemia,
30 diabetes, obesity, etc. Those effects are due to the bioactive compounds of wine pomace,
31 involved in the maintaining of the cell redox balance through the modulation of oxidative stress
32 and inflammatory process. The mechanisms concern especially modulation of
33 antioxidant/prooxidant activity, improvement of nitric oxide bioavailability, reduction of pro-
34 inflammatory cytokines and modulation of antioxidant/inflammatory signal pathways. This
35 review mainly summarizes the studies that examine the mechanisms of wine pomace products
36 as modulators of oxidative status involved in cell pathologies as well as their potential
37 therapeutic use for cardiovascular diseases. For this purpose, the review provides an overview
38 of the findings related to the wine pomace bioactive compounds profile, their bioavailability and
39 the action mechanisms through which them maintain the redox cell balance involved in health
40 benefits. The review suggests an important role for wine pomace product in cardiovascular
41 diseases prevention and their regular food intake may to attenuate the development and
42 progression of comorbidities associated to cardiovascular diseases.

43 **Keywords:** polyphenols, fiber, bioactive compounds, wine by-products, cardiovascular health,
44 signaling pathways, oxidative stress, and wine pomace.

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47 **1. Introduction**

48 Food processing wastes are defined as residues or by-products derived from processing raw
49 materials to food (Faustino et al. 2019). Winemaking processing industries generates by-
50 products in the form of peels, seeds, pomace that constitute an important source of nutrients
51 and bioactive compounds (Faustino 2019). The main solid waste from the winemaking industry
52 is a residue from the pressing and/or fermentation process, called wine pomace or grape
53 pomace. The major components of wine pomace are seeds and skins, although it can also
54 contain pulp rest and stems residues. Wine pomace contains a high number of bioactive
55 compounds, with potential health benefits and even various applications, which are responsible
56 of its several biological activities. In this regard, the compounds that mainly contribute to the
57 bioactivity of wine pomace are the polyphenols, as the major bioactive compounds present in
58 wine pomace product, and the dietary fiber. At present, most studies are focused on the use of
59 the wine pomace products in the food industry (Kalli et al., 2018; Lavelli et al., 2016). In that
60 regard, wine pomace can serve as a source of natural additives such as antioxidants and extracts
61 for the preparation of functional foods and dietary supplements. In addition, the incorporation
62 of wine pomace as source of bioactive compounds in the preparation of functional foods leads
63 to the generation of foods with potentially beneficial effects for human health.

64 An emerging research area is studying the health effect of winery by-products by their role in
65 the improvement of several disorders associated with oxidative stress and inflammation
66 implicated in the increased risk of cardiovascular diseases, aging, obesity, and other chronic
67 diseases (D`Oria et al. 2020). Scientific evidence has supported the beneficial use of wine
68 pomace products in the prevention of this diseases, among others (Balea et al. 2018; De Groote
69 et al. 2012; Gerardi et al. 2020; Del Pino-García et al. 2017b). The health effects of wine pomace
70 products depend of their intake and of the bioaccessibility and bioavailability of their bioactive
71 compounds (Gerardi et al. 2020a; Fraga et al. 2019; Del Pino-García et al. 2016c; Saura-Calixto,
72 Serrano, and Goñi 2007). Thus, the bioavailability of wine pomace bioactive compounds, mainly

73 polyphenols, varies considerably according to their structure, to their food matrix and by the
74 condition of the host.

75 The dose and the bioavailability of the bioactive compounds, together with their effects after
76 consumption, have been widely discussed within the scientific community over time. In the first
77 place, the antioxidant compounds can act by either decreasing or by increasing oxidative stress,
78 depending on their concentration, the cellular type, and the conditions. In second place, it is
79 known that polyphenols and other bioactive compounds undergo modifications in the organism,
80 as a consequence of digestion, absorption, and metabolism. Hence, an *in vitro* result will not
81 necessarily correlate with the *in vivo* effects.

82 The aim of this review article is to provide insights into the relevance of the wine pomace
83 products as source of bioactive compounds, mainly polyphenols, their bioavailability and the
84 role as modulators of cellular response to oxidative stress including signaling pathways,
85 antioxidant implication, and their role to improve oxidative stress-related disorders.

86 **2. Winemaking by-products as source of bioactive compounds**

87 Wine pomace, also called grape pomace, is the main solid by-product from the winemaking
88 industry, is a residue from the pressing and/or fermentation process, and is compound by seeds
89 and skins, although it can also contain pulp rest, and stems residues. It represents about 20-30%
90 of the original grape weight (Ferri et al. 2020). The wine pomace is an important source of
91 bioactive compounds -“*essential and nonessential compounds that are found in nature or are*
92 *created during the processing of foods or medicinal plants*”-, and modulate many biological
93 activities, providing health benefits (Biesalski et al. 2009; Martín Ortega and Segura Campos
94 2019).

95 The main compounds of wine pomace include water, dietary fiber, proteins, essential oils,
96 minerals, soluble sugars, and polyphenols (**Table 1**). The most important bioactive compounds
97 of wine pomace are polyphenols and fiber (Del Pino-García et al. 2017; Del Pino-García et al.

98 2016a; Deng, Penner, and Zhao 2011; García-Lomillo et al. 2014; Jin et al. 2018; Saura-Calixto
99 2011). Their composition depends on the type of grape variety, environmental factors
100 (harvesting, genetic factors, environmental conditions, degree of plant maturation), and on the
101 winery techniques (Aditya et al. 2018; Chamorro et al. 2012; Chedea et al. 2018; De Sales et al.
102 2018; Doshi et al. 2015; Gerardi 2020a; Gil-Sánchez et al. 2017; González-Paramás et al. 2004;
103 Jara-Palacios et al. 2015; Jara-Palacios et al. 2016; Jara-Palacios et al. 2014; Kadouh et al. 2016;
104 Kammerer et al. 2004; Ky et al. 2014; Lee et al. 2017; Makris, Boskou, and Andrikopoulos 2007;
105 Negro, Tommasi, and Miceli 2003; Peixoto et al. 2018; Pérez-Navarro et al. 2019; Rockenbach et
106 al. 2011; Ruberto et al. 2007; Teixeira 2014; Wei et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2015; Zhu et al. 2012).
107 These different compositions in these by-products result in products with different valorization
108 and with different potential *in vivo* health effects.

109 With regard to polyphenolic compounds, red wine pomaces have a greater content than white
110 wine pomaces (**Table 2**). Nevertheless, the lower content of white wine pomace not necessarily
111 reduce their biological activities (Gerardi 2020a; Gerardi et al. 2020b). In that sense,
112 anthocyanins are the most abundant polyphenolic compounds of red wine pomaces, while
113 flavanols are the main in the white wine pomace (Amico et al. 2008; Cantos, Espín, and Tomás-
114 Barberán 2002; Del Pino-García 2017; Teixeira 2014). Anthocyanin content also varies with the
115 contact time in the winemaking process: longer contact times reduces the anthocyanin content
116 of the wine pomaces (Yu and Ahmedna 2013a). In a study with eighteen wine pomace by-
117 products from red and white cultivars, the authors observed a flavanol content of 29-199
118 mg/100 g of dry matter, where proanthocyanidin B2 was the most abundant among the
119 dimmers, and catechin and epicatechin among the monomers (González-Paramás et al. 2004).

120 As non-anthocyanic polyphenolic in red wine pomaces catechin and epigallocatechin are the
121 most abundant (Gerardi 2020a; Rockenbach 2011). With regard to the phenolic acids, the most
122 abundant are gallic, protocatechuic, vanillic, syringic and gentisic acids, observing some

123 differences between red and white wine pomaces (Gerardi 2020a; Machado and Domínguez-
124 Perles 2017).

125 Phenolic content also differs between winery by-products obtained from different wine pomace
126 materials (skins or seeds) (**Table 2**). Some authors observed a higher content of polyphenols in
127 the seed pomaces compared with the skin pomaces (Teixeira 2014). However, other authors
128 showed that skins have more polyphenols than seed pomaces (Del Pino-García 2017; Guaita and
129 Bosso 2019). In general, skin pomaces are richer in phenolic acids, mainly hydroxycinnamic
130 (Carmona-Jiménez et al. 2021; Castillo-Muñoz et al. 2009; Gerardi 2020a; Jara-Palacios 2015;
131 Kammerer 2004; Rockenbach 2011; Teixeira 2014) and stilbenes (resveratrol and piceid)
132 (Katalinić et al. 2010) and in anthocyanins. While flavanols are more predominant in the wine
133 seed pomace (Del Pino-García 2017), with the exception of epigallocatechin that only has been
134 found in the skin pomace (Gerardi 2020a; Rockenbach 2011). Del Pino-García et al. (2017)
135 observed a different flavonols composition between skin and seeds, a higher concentration of
136 monomers than dimmers flavanols in the skin pomace, and the opposite for the wine pomace
137 obtained from the seeds.

138 Fiber is another type of non-essential compound, present in wine pomace, with important
139 physiological effects (Zhu et al. 2015). There are clear associations between dietary fiber intake
140 and colonic health, gut motility and risk for cardiovascular diseases (Chambers et al. 2018; Das
141 et al. 2020). The polysaccharide fiber type determines its degree of fermentation by the
142 intestinal microbiota (Goñi, Martín, and Saura-Calixto 2005; Palafox-Carlos et al. 2011). The
143 dietary fiber content of wine pomace also varies depending on the grape cultivar, growth
144 climates, and processing conditions. While red wine pomaces are rich in total dietary, fiber
145 (TDF), white varieties have mainly soluble sugars (up to 55%) (**Table 1**) (Deng 2011). For instance,
146 red wine pomace undergoes a period of fermentation whereas white wine pomace is removed
147 before alcoholic fermentation (Moreno, Ballesteros, and Negro 2020). Furthermore, differences

148 in harvest and winemaking practices could explain the different composition between wine
149 pomaces derived from diverse cultivars. Nevertheless, in both types of wine pomaces, the total
150 dietary fiber (TDF) is composed predominantly of insoluble dietary fiber (IDF) (up to 98,5%),
151 while the soluble dietary fiber (SDF) only constitute a small fraction (Deng 2011; Jin et al. 2019;
152 Sheng et al. 2017). The predominance of glucose indicates that cellulose is the major constituent
153 of IDF, while the presence of xylose and galactose in the IDF evidence the existence of
154 hemicellulose, principally in the skin pomace (Deng 2011).

155 Furthermore, fiber compounds in wine pomaces make chemical bonds with phenolic
156 compounds forming antioxidant dietary fibers (Saura-Calixto 2011). Therefore, the bioactivity of
157 polyphenols and fiber from these wine by-products are interrelated. It is proposed that one of
158 the main functions of dietary fiber is the transport of dietary antioxidant through the digestive
159 tract, allowing their release from the fiber matrix within the colon by the action of bacterial
160 microbiota, generating bioactive metabolites and an antioxidant environment (Saura-Calixto et
161 al. 2010; Urquiaga et al. 2015).

162 **3. Bioavailability and metabolism of bioactive compounds from wine pomace**

163 Bioactive compounds have to survive food processing, in order to exert biological activities, and
164 they have to be released from the food matrix and remain accessible in the gastrointestinal tract,
165 undergo metabolism, and finally reach the target tissue (**Figure 1**). Hence, a bioactive compound
166 cannot produce an effect, unless it is bioavailable -*“the rate and extent to which the bioactive
167 compound is absorber and becomes available at the site of action”*- (Rein et al. 2013; FaDA.
168 2002) and includes several processes known as LADME phases: liberation from the food matrix,
169 absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination. The rate and the extent to which different
170 bioactive compounds, obtained from winemaking industry, can be absorbed vary between
171 individuals and could to depend on diet, genetic background, and gut microbiota composition
172 and activity, among others (Fraga 2019; Ozdal et al. 2016; Rein 2013; Teng and Chen 2019).

173 The wine pomace compounds bioavailability is influenced by their bioaccessibility -“*the fraction*
174 *of a compound which is released from the food matrix in the gastrointestinal lumen and thereby*
175 *made available for intestinal absorption*”- (Rein 2013; Saura-Calixto 2007). Bioaccessibility is
176 affected by the composition of food matrix and the interactions between the different
177 components of the food matrix (Fernández-García, Carvajal-Lérida, and Pérez-Gálvez 2009;
178 Neilson and Ferruzzi 2011). Thus, the biological efficiency of wine pomace products, depends on
179 the intake and chemical structures of their bioactive compounds, mainly polyphenols and fiber,
180 that determine their intestinal absorption process (Cantos 2002; Gonzales et al. 2015; Marín et
181 al. 2015; Scalbert et al. 2002) or enzymatic microbial biotransformation (Fraga 2019; Saura-
182 Calixto 2007).

183 Bioavailability of wine pomace polyphenols depends of dietary intake and differs among winery
184 by-products. Thus, studies in rats evaluated the effect of the intake of different doses of wine
185 pomace on polyphenol bioavailability showed a dose-response effect in the plasma and urine
186 profile of phenolic acids after red wine pomace intake but not after white wine pomace intake
187 (Gerardi 2020a). These authors also observed that the bioavailability of phenolic acids of white
188 wine pomace intake came before that red wine pomace with their maximum in plasma at 2
189 hours and 4 hours respectively. Furthermore, the wine pomace polyphenol bioavailability is
190 dependent of the intestinal absorption and of their bioactive metabolites resulted of digestive
191 and hepatic metabolic processes. In general, the plasma phenolic profile, after intake of wine
192 pomace product, is dependent of the grape variety, winery process, and even the presence of
193 an extraction process (Alonso et al. 2002; Del Pino et al. 2016; Deng 2011; Gerardi 2020; Jara-
194 Palacios 2015). In this sense, phenolic acids of wine pomace include polymers, esters, and
195 glycosides that are hydrolyzed by gastrointestinal enzymes and further modified by the
196 intestinal microbiota (Castello et al. 2018). The metabolization of these compounds increases
197 their hydrophilicity and facilitates urinary and/or biliary elimination (Manach et al. 2004). Thus,
198 flavonoids such as the anthocyanins, the principal type of phenolic compounds in the red wine

199 pomace, are metabolized in the upper gastrointestinal tract and their metabolites include 4-
200 hydroxyhippuric and ferulic acids derivatives, that reach their maximum in plasma at 1-1.5 hours
201 after consumption (Ozdal 2016). In another hand, the anthocyanidins can be metabolized by
202 microbiota into phenolic acids such as syringic, vanillic, protocatechuic, and coumaric acids,
203 thereby contributing to the total content of phenolic acids in the plasma sample (Fernandes et
204 al. 2017). Other wine pomace compounds, flavonols (kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside) and flavanols
205 (epigallocatechin, catechin, epicatechin, procyanidins) also contribute to the total phenolic acid
206 content of plasma derivatives from the microbial catabolism (Cueva et al. 2017; Fernandes 2017).
207 It has been suggested that *“colonic metabolism [of polyphenols] could be considered as the*
208 *missing link between the consumption of certain polyphenols and their biological activity”* (Rein
209 2013; Williamson and Clifford 2010). The polyphenol elimination can be through two pathways:
210 renal and biliar. Taking these into account, the levels of different phenolic acids in urine not only
211 depend on their urinary excretion ratio, but they also depend on their capacity to bind plasma
212 proteins and the amount eliminated by biliary excretion (Crespy et al. 2003). Polyphenolic
213 metabolites generated after bioavailability showed different biological actions (**Figure 2**) (Del
214 Pino-García 2016c; Gerardi 2020a; Rasines-Perea et al., 2018; Rodriguez Lanzi et al. 2018). These
215 stable metabolites have the potential to act directly as antioxidants or to interfere with signaling
216 pathways, receptors, enzymes and transcription factors (Hunyadi 2019). High levels of phenolic
217 acids in plasma have been associated with a high plasma antioxidant capacity and with a high
218 prevention of lipid peroxidation and nitric oxide bioavailability in rats after oral administration
219 of wine pomace product (Del Pino-García et al 2016b; Gerardi 2020b).

220 The health contribution of bioavailability of wine pomace fiber is mainly by microbial
221 fermentation of no-digestible carbohydrates that contribute to the production of bioactive
222 compounds. In general the main effects of dietary fiber is to prolong the gastric emptying time
223 and to retard the absorption of nutrients and to reduce glucose and cholesterol levels (Birkett
224 et al. 1997; Fuller et al. 2016; Lecumberri et al. 2007; Llobera and Cañellas 2007; Oh et al. 2019;

225 Stewart et al. 2010). In the colon, the dietary fiber is fermented by the microbiota and enhances
226 the production of microbial metabolites, such as short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) providing a
227 source of energy for colonocytes and by passing through the colonic epithelium into the
228 bloodstream, they also influence lipid, glucose and cholesterol metabolism through effects on
229 G protein-coupled receptors (Barber et al. 2020). A study of red wine pomace bioavailability in
230 rats showed that after 4 weeks of consumption, the contents of SCFAs in fecal rats increase a 20
231 % mainly due to the higher butyric acid concentration (Del Pino 2016c). Furthermore, these
232 authors observed that the relative faecal content of butyric acid in diabetic rats was increased,
233 and acetic acid was decreased, obtaining a molar ratio of butyric:propionic:acetic acid similar to
234 no diabetic rats. Considering that, dietary fiber acts entrapping polyphenols in their matrix and
235 because of that, the gastrointestinal enzymes cannot release the fiber-associated polyphenols,
236 and the polyphenols are not bioavailable in the gut and small intestine until colonic bacterial
237 fermentation (Saura-Calixto 2007). Short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) are the mainly bioactive
238 compounds released due to partial or complete fermentation of TDF and they can act
239 synergistically with polyphenols modulating the expression of genes involved in certain diseases
240 (Tang et al. 2011).

241 **4. Wine pomace modulates the oxidative stress response through redox signaling pathways**

242 Growing evidence indicates that the bioactive compounds such as polyphenolic metabolites
243 might modulate redox state systems *in vivo* (Fraga, Oteiza, and Galleano 2018). Cell oxidative
244 stress is classified by its intensity, from physiological oxidative stress or eustress to toxic
245 oxidative stress or distress with biomolecule damage and disrupted redox signaling
246 (pathological). Sarsour, Kalen, and Goswami (2014) along with Niki (2016) proposed the term
247 oxidative eustress, as a definition of beneficial cell responses to oxidant generation including
248 redox processes which regulate normal physiological functions. In contrast, oxidative distress
249 was defined as *“a cell response resulting from irreversible modifications and damage to*

250 *biomolecules under pathological conditions*". In addition, there are many sub-forms of oxidative
251 stress, associated with their different forms and ways in which they are generated.

252 In physiological concentrations, reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (RONS) can act as signaling
253 molecules in redox signaling pathways and have essential functions at basal levels including cell
254 metabolism, gene expression, cell cycle progression, cell survival, proliferation and
255 differentiation, cytoskeletal organization, immune defense angiogenesis, and vessel relaxation,
256 among others (**Figure 3A**), (Battino et al. 2018; Belleza et al. 2018; Bogdan 2015; Moldogazieva
257 et al. 2018; Schieber and Chander 2014; Takada 2003; Tu et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2019b).
258 Excessive levels of RONS can produce changes in redox status acting as signals that inducing
259 cellular damage and various diseases including inflammation, autoimmunity, tumorigenesis,
260 endothelial dysfunction, atherosclerosis, and hypertension, kidney fibrosis, among others
261 (**Figure 3B**). This excessive increase in the levels of RONS lead to oxidative stress, which is a
262 mediator of oxidative damage of biological targets and modulation of pathways such as the
263 mediated by transcription factors AP-1 (activator protein 1), NF-κB and Nrf2 (Sies 2018; Yin et
264 al. 2017).

265 In this regard, the modulation of the cell redox state by wine pomace is due mainly to the
266 polyphenolic metabolites resulted from their bioavailability by direct or indirect mechanisms.
267 The direct mechanism involves the reaction with RONS giving a less reactive product or the
268 chelation of transitions metals (Fe^{2+} or Cu^+). This direct activity is attributed to the presence of
269 hydroxyl groups in the benzene ring that are capable of donating either one hydrogen or a single
270 electron to RONS, thereby stabilizing the free radical molecules (Forman, Davies, and Ursini
271 2014; Sandoval-Acuña, Ferreira, and Speisky 2014). Nevertheless, a growing body of evidence
272 indicates that the bioactivity of wine pomace polyphenols might also related
273 oxidant/antioxidant production (Fraga 2018). Depending on their concentrations, chemical
274 structures and under the conditions that favor their autoxidation, at high pH, at high
275 concentrations of transition metals or at high concentration of oxygen, some polyphenols also

276 act as prooxidants *in vitro* (Ayuda-Durán et al. 2019; Jara-Palacios et al. 2013; Pizzino et al. 2017;
277 Tang and Halliwell 2010). Moreover, the prooxidant effect of grape pomace extract might be
278 beneficial because it triggers the preconditioning mechanisms (Gems and Partridge 2008;
279 Veskoukis et al. 2012). Still, further studies are necessary for evaluated the therapeutic effect of
280 grape pomace product under distress oxidative conditions.

281 The indirect mechanisms of wine pomace polyphenols can be by inhibition of oxidant enzymes,
282 activation enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant systems and regulation of gene expression
283 of antioxidants by interaction with redox signaling pathways (**Figure 4**) (Del Pino-García 2016;
284 Del Pino-García 2017b; García-Lomillo 2014; Kabir, Sultana, and Kurnianta 2015; Zhang et al.
285 2011).

286 Some authors observed a modulation of the Nrf2/NF- κ B crosstalk by bioavailability fractions of
287 wine pomace in culture cells with a consequent increase in the expression of antioxidant
288 molecules and reduction of pro-oxidant and pro-inflammatory pathways (Del Pino-García 2016;
289 Gerardi et al. 2019). Moreover, wine pomace bioavailability fraction upregulates Nrf2 pathway
290 while downregulate NF- κ B pathways by both regulating their gene expression and by their
291 activation and nuclear translocation (Gerardi 2019). The mechanism of action is acting directly
292 or on transmembrane receptors and trigger the activation or inhibition of signal transduction
293 kinases/phosphatases (**Figure 4**). In that regards, different studies showed that wine pomace
294 polyphenols activate protein kinases MAPK (ERK1/2, p38 and JNK) or PI3K/Akt involved in the
295 modulation of AMPK/FOXO1/mTOR/SIRT1 pathways and later activation of transcription factors
296 Nrf2/NF- κ B, AP-1, HIF-1 α , p53, Wnt/ β -catenin (Bak, Jun, and Jeong 2012; Chen et al. 2017;
297 Chung et al. 2010; Dai et al. 2018; Del Pino-García 2016b; Haegeman et al. 2010; Kårlund et al.
298 2015; Maleki, Crespo, and Cabanillas 2019; Vargas et al. 2018; Wang, Zhong, and Zhao 2017;
299 Weng and Yen 2012). Thus, flavonols presents in wine pomace inhibit MAPK pathways
300 stimulated by IL-1 β or INF- γ in inflammatory rheumatoid arthritis by reduction of the ERK1/2,

301 p38 and JNK phosphorylation (Mateen et al. 2016). In contrast, wine pomace activate MAPK
302 (p38 and ERK1/2), through changes in redox status cell, in human umbilical vein endothelial cells
303 (HUVECs) by modulating the Nrf2/HO-1 gene expression (Cao et al. 2019; Gerardi 2019). Other
304 flavonoids presents in wine pomace product such as quercetin inhibits PTEN phosphatase and
305 PI3K/Akt/eNOS pathway (Cao 2019) involved in angiogenesis and tumor growth (Bjørklund and
306 Chirumbolo 2017; Maaliki et al. 2019).

307 Wine pomace product also modulate the cell redox status by regulation of the Nrf2 and NF- κ B
308 transcription factors and modulating superoxide dismutase (SOD1 and SOD2), catalase (CAT),
309 HO-1 expression, among others (Del Pino-García 2016; Gerardi 2019; Goutzourelas 2015; Groh
310 et al. 2020; Hegazy et al. 2019). In that regards, the presence of wine pomace flavonoids such as
311 quercetin, flavanols, resveratrol and, proanthocyanidins activate Nrf2 by direct modulation
312 (Fraga 2018) or via up-regulation of their mRNA and stabilization of Nrf2 protein. Moreover, it
313 has been observed that wine pomace metabolites improved the redox balance, ameliorated
314 protein oxidation, lipid peroxidation and cell membrane damage, and restored the balance
315 between endothelial RONS and NO production in hyperglycemic cells through gene modulation
316 of SOD1, SOD2, CAT, HO-1, NOX4, cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2) and endothelial nitric oxide synthase
317 (eNOS) (Del Pino-García 2016; Gerardi 2019). Additionally, wine pomace by modulation of cell
318 redox status, inhibit the NF- κ B activation, and as consequence have the inhibition of specific
319 steps in the NF- κ B cascade (Gerardi 2019). In that regard, different authors have observed that
320 some polyphenols presents in wine pomace as epicatechin interacts with NF- κ B and reduces the
321 binding of NF- κ B to the DNA κ B site (Fraga 2018; Mateen 2016).

322 Wine pomace can moreover modulate redox signaling, by their inhibitory effects on enzymes
323 that generate RONS (**Figure 4**) such as NOX, NOS, COX, or LOX (Gerardi 2019). This could to be
324 explained by the presence of polyphenols epicatechin or anthocyanins that reduce the RONS
325 generation and act as competitive inhibitor of the NOX and inflammatory cyclooxygenase (COX)

326 enzymes (Furuuchi et al. 2018; Gómez-Guzmán et al. 2012). In that regard, the decreased of NOX
327 activation by wine pomace product in aorta, heart, liver, kidney and adipose tissue, could have
328 preventive effect on oxidative damage generated in hypertension, endotoxemia or diet-induced
329 obesity (Fraga 2018). In addition, wine pomace prevents cell membrane alterations, by reducing
330 lipid oxidation due to RONS, and regulates calcium fluxes that prevent NOX and protein kinase
331 C (PKC) activation (Fraga 2018; Verstraeten et al. 2008). Another wine pomace mechanism of
332 action is to modulate the levels of nitric oxide synthase (NOS) by activation of eNOS (Gerardi
333 2020). In contrast, it attenuates the expression of iNOS after different inflammatory stimuli and
334 modulates uncontrolled immune response (Cao 2019; Fraga 2018; Maaliki 2019).

335 Recently, the wine pomace epigenetic modulation by regulation of HDACs and NMTs activity or
336 by microRNAs expression is of great interest as news mechanism of action (Arora, Sharma, and
337 Tollefsbol 2019; Lubecka et al. 2018; Milenkovic, Deval, and Gouranton 2012; Ratovitski 2017;
338 Sheng et al. 2019; Su et al. 2017). In that regards, some human studies of supplementation with
339 wine pomace showed changes in the expression of several miRNAs related to glucose
340 metabolism (miRNA-130a-3p, miRNA-122-5p, miRNA-34a-5p, miRNA191-5p and miRNA-342-
341 3p) (Gil-Sánchez et al. 2018; Ramos-Romero et al. 2021). In addition, miRNA regulation by wine
342 pomaces was also observed against inflammatory processes, including the upregulation of mir-
343 376c, which regulates the expression of mRNA of inflammatory chemokines, chemokine
344 receptors, interleukins, and interleukin receptors (Gessner et al. 2017). In addition, epigenetic
345 modulation of individual compounds that are present in the wine pomace, it has been more
346 studied. Thus, epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG) increased the expression of miR-133a/b and
347 reduce Smad3 signaling leading to the amelioration of inflammation and fibrosis in rats with
348 prostatic hyperplasia (Zhou et al. 2018). Several *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies showed the effect of
349 compounds such as quercetin in the modulation of multiple cancer-associated miRNA including
350 let-7, miR-155, and miR21 leading to the reduction of cancer initiation and development (Kim et
351 al. 2019). Furthermore, resveratrol controls cancer proliferation by inducing tumor-suppressive

352 miRNAs such as miRNA-34, miRNA-663, and miRNA-744 (Esmerina Tili et al. 2013; Farooqi,
353 Khalid, and Ahmad 2018; Otsuka, Yamamoto, and Ochiya 2018)..

354 **5. Wine pomace as modulator of oxidative stress-related disorders**

355 Disorders associated with oxidative stress by changes in cell redox equilibrium have
356 consequences at different levels, including cellular, tissue, and systemic alterations. First, the
357 modification of the redox status in the cells leads to the pathological expression of molecules,
358 such as proinflammatory cytokines and oxidant enzymes, which alter the function and the
359 structure of different tissues (epithelial, muscular, nervous tissue). Those pathological
360 alterations are exacerbated by persistent oxidative stress that alters proteins and other cellular
361 components, causing cellular dysfunction (Aykin-Burns et al. 2009; Dalle-Donne et al. 2006;
362 Dikalov et al. 2014; Kuo et al. 2014; Tang et al. 2013; Valko et al. 2007; Welch 2008). Cells
363 progressively lose their physiological activities and can finally to induce apoptosis to cytotoxic
364 levels of oxidative stress or activate the proliferation of cells at levels of oxidative stress
365 persistent. Both options alter the physiological functions of the tissue and cause organ failure
366 and systemic diseases (**Figure 5**).

367 The capacity of wine pomace to modulate the oxidative stress through redox signaling pathways
368 plays an important role in the prevention of chronic diseases involved in cardiovascular diseases
369 include endothelial dysfunction, inflammation, hypertension, hyperglycemia, and obesity (Cani
370 et al. 2012; Del Pino-García 2016b; Gerardi 2020; Pal, Naissides, and Mamo 2004).

371 ***Endothelial dysfunction***

372 Endothelium is a selectively permeable barrier between the vascular wall and the bloodstream
373 that regulates vascular tone, cell growth, vascular wall permeability, and interaction between
374 leukocytes, thrombocytes, and the vessel wall (Endemann and Schiffrin 2004; Yang, Chang, and
375 Wei 2016).

376 The endothelial dysfunction can be considered a consequence of three interrelated processes:
377 impaired nitric oxide (NO) signaling with eNOS uncoupling, oxidative stress, and inflammation
378 (**Figure 6**) (Ding et al. 2004; Higashi et al. 2009). Endothelial dysfunction is associated with the
379 development of atherosclerosis, hypertension, and cardiovascular events. It is likewise
380 associated with aging-related disorders such as erectile dysfunction, renal dysfunction,
381 Alzheimer's disease, and retinopathy (Burnett 2006; Coleman et al. 2008; Karbach et al. 2014;
382 Price et al. 2004; Steven et al. 2019) (**Figure 7**).

383 Wine pomace obtained from by-products showed great potential as source of bioactive
384 compounds that protect the vascular endothelial function against endothelial dysfunction by
385 stimulating Nrf2/ARE pathway and inhibiting the IKK/I κ B/NF- κ B pathway (Gerardi 2019). Wine
386 pomace product in endothelial cells mediated up-regulation of cellular antioxidant genes (HO-
387 1, NQO-1, SOD, CAT) through the promotion of the transcriptional activity of Nrf2 and down-
388 regulation of the inflammatory process gene expression (COX-2, NADPH oxidase) mediated by
389 NF- κ B pathway. This modulation by wine pomace products could be due to the content of
390 phenolic compounds such ferulic acid that decrease the phosphorylation of NF- κ B under
391 conditions of oxidative stress (Cao et al. 2015), or by the content of stilbenes that could to
392 attenuate the phosphorylation, acetylation and nuclear translocation of NF- κ B studies (Chung
393 2010; Shanmugam, Kannaiyan, and Sethi 2011).

394 Wine pomace product also inhibits the endothelial dysfunction by increasing the nitric oxide
395 levels and decreasing superoxide production (Rahman, Biswas, and Kirkham 2006; Son et al.
396 2010). Thus, in *ex vivo* studies, arteries were treated with grape pomace extract at
397 concentrations of 0.1-30 mg/L observing a relaxation in aortic rings in dose-dependent
398 mechanisms by the activation of eNOS (Rodriguez-Rodriguez et al., 2012). The activation of
399 eNOS phosphorylation by wine pomace was observed as resulted PI3K/Akt pathway activation
400 (Gerardi 2019; Gerardi 2020). On the other hand, the wine pomace mechanism involved in the

401 reduction of superoxide production is by reduction of the NADPH oxidase activity through the
402 interaction with MAPK and downregulation of transcription factors, such as NF-kB (Hussain et
403 al. 2016). Furthermore, wine pomace could prevent endothelial permeability increase and cell
404 infiltration by improving endothelial cell-cell junctions. Wine pomace products showed a
405 protective effect on adherent junction in endothelial cells cultures by increasing the expression
406 of endothelial cadherin (VE-cadherin) (Gerardi 2020b).

407 Endothelial dysfunction is also associated with proinflammatory and prothrombic states that
408 results in aberrant endothelium activation (Crimi, Ignarro, and Napoli 2007; Steven 2019).
409 Inflammation is a biological adaptive response of vascular tissues to any alteration of tissue
410 integrity, in order to restore homeostasis through the induction of various repair mechanisms
411 and results in the increased of the expression of pro-inflammatory mediators cytokines and
412 RONS (**Figure 8**) (Lugrin et al. 2014). Chronic inflammation is involved in the pathogenesis of
413 several diseases such as type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, and obesity-related disorders
414 (Hussain 2016) (**Figure 9**).

415 Wine pomace diet supplementation modulates the systemic inflammatory status by the
416 reduction in the expression of several proinflammatory cytokines (TNF- α ; IL-1) (Gerardi et. al.
417 2020c; Rivera et al. 2019; Rodriguez-Morgado et al 2015). Rats fed with high fat diets and
418 supplemented daily with 100 mg wine pomace product /Kg body weight for seven weeks
419 modulate the inflammatory process by reduction of cytokines TNF- α and IL-1 (Gerardi 2020c).
420 The mechanism through which the polyphenols of thr wine pomace exert their anti-
421 inflammatory action was described by different authors (Balea et al. 2020; Rivera 2019; Bettaieb
422 et al. 2016; Fechtner et al. 2017; Martins et al. 2017; Medina-Remón et al. 2015; Yahfoufi et al.
423 2018; Zhang and Tsao 2016). Wine pomace polyphenols can inhibit the arachidonic acid
424 metabolizing enzymes like cyclooxygenases (COX) and lipoxygenases (LOX) reducing the
425 production of inflammation mediators including prostaglandins, and leukotrienes. Other

426 mechanisms involved in the anti-inflammatory activity of wine pomace include suppression of
427 NF- κ B and AP-1 activation, inhibition of iNOS, activation of antioxidant enzymes, and stimulation
428 of MAPK, PKC and Nrf2 (Bode and Dong 2013; Del Pino-García 2016b; Hussain 2016; Nishizuka
429 et al. 2011; Vezza et al. 2016).

430 *Hypertension*

431 Vascular alterations associated with hypertension include endothelial dysfunction, vascular
432 smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) stiffness and adhesion, increased vascular RONS, and endothelin
433 1 (ET-1) expression (**Figure 10**) (Endemann 2004; Larivie`re, Thibault, and Schiffrin 1993; Schiffrin
434 2012; Touyz and Schiffrin 2004; Xu and Touyz 2006).

435 The anti-hypertensive actions of wine pomace extract have been reported in various studies
436 (Cassidy et al. 2011; Del Pino-García et al. 2017a; Gerardi 2020; He 2017; Javkhedkar et al. 2015;
437 Maaliki 2019; Paredes et al. 2018). The action mechanism involves reduction of angiotensin I-
438 converting enzyme (ACE) activity and gene modulation of SOD, HO-1, NOX4, and eNOS (Del Pino-
439 García 2017a; Rasines-Perea 2018). These effects could be due to the synergy effect of the
440 phenolic compounds such as resveratrol, flavan-3-ols, flavonols, anthocyanidins and their
441 degradation metabolites (Appeldoorn 2009; Edwards et al. 2015; Loft et al. 2008; Patel et al.
442 2013).

443 Furthermore, the intake of wine pomace is associated with lowering systolic blood pressure. In
444 this regard flavonols of wine pomace, such as epicatechin, increased eNOS activity and reduced
445 superoxide production in the aorta of spontaneously hypertensive rats (Galleano, Puzserova,
446 and Balis 2013). Other wine pomace compounds, EGCG activates PI3K/Akt/NO/cGMP and inhibits
447 phosphodiesterase (PDE) activity, modulating vascular contractibility (Álvarez et al. 2006;
448 Romano and Lograno 2009). Quercetin showed that improves endothelial function, modulates
449 RAAS, regulates VSMC contractibility, increases aortic eNOS and NO plasma, and suppresses
450 RONS production by NADPH oxidases.

451 Wine pomace also prevent cardiovascular risk factors associates with the vascular remodeling
452 and endothelial function activity (Del Pino-Garcia 2016; Gerardi et al 2010; Spinetti et al., 2010;).
453 Vascular remodeling is an active process that response to physiological and pathological changes
454 in the hemodynamics conditions as consequence of different stimuli like hypertension, and
455 other inflammatory diseases (Van Varik et al., 2012). Large central arteries of hypertensive rats
456 undergo arteriosclerotic changes with outward hypertrophic remodeling characterized by
457 increased cross sectional area and lumen diameter (O'Rourke and Hashimoto, 2007). The diet
458 supplementation with wine pomace used in models of hypertensive and streptozotocin-diabetic
459 rats prevents the vascular remodeling by reducing of wall aortic thickness, cross sectional area
460 and wall/lumen ratio, and decreases ROS and increases eNOS activation (Garrido and Borges
461 2013; Gerardi 2020; Serino-Salazar 2019; Spinetti 2010). Thus, the reduction of this alteration
462 by the wine pomace could contribute to a less incidence of cardiovascular complications. Several
463 mechanisms are involved in the activity of wine pomace including reduction of the gene
464 expression of angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE), NADPH oxidase activity inhibition, reduced
465 expression of NF-kB, stimulation of SOD2 and increased NO production (Del Pino-Garcia 2016;
466 Gerardi 2019; Gerardi 2020; Serino-Salazar 2019; Spinetti 2010). Hence, there is a reduction of
467 prooxidant and proinflammatory activity with a decrease of the reactive oxygen species and the
468 inhibition of mitogen activated protein kinases (MAPK) activity that leads to inhibition of the
469 growth of SMCs and the vascular remodeling (Balasuriya and Rupasinghe, 2011; Del Pino-Garcia
470 2017; Stangl 2007).

471 ***Hyperglycemia***

472 Hyperglycemia implies the alteration of normal glucose levels and constitutes one of the main
473 characteristics of diabetes. Hyperglycemia is also commonly linked to hyperlipidemia and
474 obesity. Both, diabetes and hyperlipidemia are cardiovascular risk factors associated with
475 inflammatory processes, by inducing the expression of proteins and inflammatory molecules in
476 the endothelium that leads to leukocyte adhesion and infiltration. The autoxidation of glucose

477 has a dual role in the pathogenesis of hyperglycemia. On the one hand, the oxidation of
478 monosaccharides such as glucose produces many types of RONS, thereby contributing to the
479 oxidative stress (Exner et al. 2001; Hunt, Dean, and Wolff 1988). On the other hand, the
480 oxidation of glucose participates in protein glycosylation contributing to protein damage (Wolff
481 and Dean 1987) (**Figure 11**).

482 Wine pomace decreases hyperglycemia and improves insulin secretion, and insulin sensitivity
483 (Aryaeian, Sedehi, and Arablou 2017; Del Pino-García 2016; Del Pino-García 2016b). The possible
484 mechanisms include decrease of intestinal absorption of glucose; inhibition of carbohydrate
485 digestion; stimulation of insulin secretion; modulation of glucose release from the liver;
486 activation of insulin receptors and glucose uptake; and modulation of intracellular signaling
487 pathways and gene expression. Winery by-products studied by Doshi (2015) showed antioxidant
488 and insulinotropic effects, leading to an increase in the release of insulin in isolated mice
489 pancreatic islets. Kadouh (2016) suggested potential effects of the red wine pomace in the
490 prevention and treatment of diabetes through inhibition of α -glucosidase in rat intestines.

491 In addition, the protective effects of the wine pomace in hyperglycemic cells include the
492 modulation of several signaling pathways. The mechanisms through which the polyphenols
493 could regulate the Nrf2 and NF- κ B pathways in the hyperglycemic cells are as follows: 1) Nrf2
494 and NF- κ B activities might depend on the modulation exerted by several kinases such as Akt,
495 PKA, PKC, MAPK that phosphorylate Nrf2 and NF- κ B at specific sites; 2) might increase the
496 expression of sirtuins (SIRT1 and SIRT2) that regulate the deacetylation of the NF- κ B
497 transcription factor, leading to a reduction of ROS and inflammatory cytokines. In addition, the
498 inhibition of Nrf2 ubiquitination by SIRT1 might increase Nrf2 availability, favoring nuclear
499 translocation of Nrf2 (Huang, Gao, and Wei 2017); 3) The activator CBP complex is used by both
500 transcription factors, thus an overexpression of Nrf2 induced by bioactive compounds of wine
501 pomace might limit the availability of CBP complexes for NF- κ B (Wardyn, Ponsford, and

502 Sanderson 2015). The reduction of pro-oxidant and proinflammatory actions of Ang II, and
503 NADPH oxidase involves less generation of RONS, decreased activity of the MAPK and
504 consequent reduction of the protooncogenes c-fos, c-jun and c-myc that leads to reduce growth
505 of the remodeling (Domínguez-Avila et al. 2016; Schiffrin 2012).

506 ***Obesity***

507 Obesity is described as a state of chronic low-grade inflammation and is related to increased
508 vascular risk, due to vascular alterations such as endothelial dysfunction, vascular stiffening, and
509 vascular remodeling, dysregulation of adipose tissue signaling, altered metabolism such as
510 insulin resistance and hyperlipidemia, and hypertension (Reho and Rahmouni 2017). Oxidative
511 stress is associated with the development of co-morbidities in obesity. Alterations in several
512 signaling pathways are observed, including excessive RONS production, rennin-angiotensin-
513 aldosterone-system (RAAS) activation, inflammatory/immune signaling, and reduced NO
514 bioavailability and activity. Various factors contribute to oxidative stress in obesity and they are
515 summarized in **Figure 12** (Manna and Jain 2015).

516 The anti-obesity effects of wine pomace products obtained from by-products of the food
517 industry have been observed by various studies (Gerardi et al. 2020c; Hsu et al. 2009; Jin 2018;
518 Zhang 2019a; Zhao et al. 2017). They may be attributed to the direct and indirect interaction of
519 wine pomace compounds with the adipose tissue (Gerardi 2020c). Among the various
520 mechanisms that have been proposed are: suppression of dietary fat absorption; enhancing fat
521 oxidation in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle; increasing glucose utilization; decreasing de
522 novo lipogenesis; inhibition of adipocyte differentiation by C/EBP β and PPAR γ downregulation;
523 stimulation of adipocyte apoptosis and cell cycle arrest; and reduction of RONS levels and
524 inhibition of the inflammatory process. Some polyphenols present in the wine pomace, such as
525 flavonoids, catechins and resveratrol, reduce oxidative markers associated with obesity and
526 diabetes in obese adults (De Groote 2012). Diet supplementation with 100-300 mg of seed

527 extract reduced postprandial glucose levels in healthy adults (Kalli 2018; Sapwarobol et al. 2012).
528 Furthermore, wine pomace reduced food intake in rats and energy intake in humans (Gerardi
529 2020c; Vogels and Plantenga 2004). The incorporation of wine pomace product in the diet of
530 high-fat diet-obese rats, reduced weight gain through amelioration of abdominal fat and
531 improving lipid profile. Moreover, the wine pomace product reduced the obesity-related
532 complications, by regulating oxidative stress, inflammatory processes, and intestinal microbiota
533 (Gerardi 2020c). Supplementation of diet-induced obese mice with grape seed flour ameliorates
534 hepatic steatosis and insulin resistance through downregulation of genes involved in triglyceride
535 and ceramide synthesis, the immune response, oxidative stress and inflammation, and
536 upregulation of genes associated with fatty acid oxidation, and cholesterol and bile synthesis
537 (Seo et al. 2016).

538 **6. Conclusion**

539 There are many cellular mechanisms involved in the antioxidant and anti-inflammatory actions
540 of the wine pomace products obtained from winemaking industry. Several molecules and
541 intracellular pathways are modulated (Nrf2, NF- κ B, MAPK, Akt, SIRT1, eNOS, NOX, etc), which
542 could explain the protective effects of these compounds in the vascular endothelium and other
543 epitheliums. Furthermore, the wine pomace products can improve epithelium integrity through
544 the regulation of the expression of cell-cell interaction proteins. Therefore, these by-products
545 from winemaking industry could be used for the prevention of vascular injury associated with
546 oxidative stress and inflammation.

547 The findings confirmed in this systematic review indicate the health effects of wine pomace
548 products against diseases associated with oxidative stress and inflammatory processes. The
549 bioactive compounds of these products exert their antioxidant action through the modulation
550 of signaling pathways, increasing endogenous antioxidant systems, decreasing RONS
551 production, and enhancing NO bioavailability, among others. Through those mechanisms,

552 polyphenols show a capability to improve pathological states and metabolic disorders, such as
553 diabetes, hypertension, obesity, cancer, and infection and inflammatory processes.

554 **Abbreviations**

ACE	angiotensin I converting enzyme
AGE	advanced glycation end-products
Akt	protein kinase B
AMPK	AMP-activated protein kinase
Ang II	angiotensin II
AP-1	activator protein 1
ARE	antioxidant responsive element
BH4	tetrahydrobiopterin
CAT	catalase
cGMP	cyclic guanosine monophosphate
COX2	cyclooxygenase 2
DAG	diacylglycerol
DNMT	DNA methyltransferase
EC	epicatechin
EGCG	epigallocatechin gallate
EMT	epithelial mesenchymal transition
eNOS	endothelial nitric oxide synthase
ET-1	endothelin 1
GPCR	G protein-coupled receptors
HDAC	histone deacetylases enzymes
HF	high-fat
HIF-1α	hypoxia-inducible factor 1-alpha
HO-1	hemo oxygenase 1
HUVEC	human umbilical vein endothelial cell
ICAM	intercellular adhesion molecule 1
IKKα	I κ B kinase alpha
IKKβ	I κ B kinase beta
IL-1β	interleukin 1 beta
INF-γ	interferon gamma
iNOS	inducible nitric oxide synthase
IP3	inositol triphosphate
IκBα	inhibitor of kappa B alpha
Keap-1	Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1
MAPK	mitogen-activated protein kinase
miRNA	micro-RNA
NADPH	reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
NF-κB	nuclear factor-kappa B
NO	nitric oxide
NOS	nitric oxide synthase
NOX	NADPH oxidase
NQO1	NAD(P)H:quinone oxidoreductase 1
Nrf2	nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2
p38-MAPK	p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase
PDE	phosphodiesterase

PI3K	phosphatidylinositol kinase
PKA	protein kinase A
PKC	protein kinase C
PTEN	phosphatase and tensin homolog
RAAS	rennin angiotensin aldosterone system
RONS	reactive oxygen and nitrogen species
RTK	receptor tyrosine kinase
SIRT1	NAD-dependent deacetylase sirtuin-1
SOD	superoxide dismutase
TNF-α	tumor necrosis factor alpha
VCAM	vascular cell adhesion molecule 1
VE-cadherin	vascular endothelial cadherin
VSMC	vascular smooth muscle cell

555

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559

560 **Conflicts of interest**

561 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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1353 **Figure Captions**

1354 **Figure 1. Overview of the steps involved in the bioavailability and metabolism of bioactive**
1355 **compounds.** After ingestion, bioactive compounds are first released from the food matrix in the
1356 gastrointestinal tract and modified to be then absorbed. Some bioactive compounds are
1357 absorbed in the small intestine, but a significant amount enters the large intestine where the
1358 colonic microbiota further transform them into readily absorbable molecules. After absorption,

1359 the bioactive compounds are metabolized, and the metabolites enter the blood circulation to
1360 finally reach the target tissues and improve their biological activities.

1361 **Figure 2. Main metabolites of wine pomace polyphenols after *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Wistar rats)**
1362 **bioavailability studies.** The bioavailability process produces large amounts of new metabolites
1363 as consequence of the digestion and metabolism of the original bioactive compounds. These
1364 new metabolites can be responsible of different biological activities.

1365 **Figure 3. Physiopathological Effect of RONS. (A)** Physiological effects of redox signaling. **(B)**
1366 Pathological implications of oxidative stress.

1367 **Figure 4. Role of polyphenols in the redox signaling pathways.** Polyphenols can exert their
1368 biological activities by interaction with several intracellular molecules such as enzymes, signaling
1369 kinases/phosphatases, transcriptional factors, regulatory proteins, among others. Straight
1370 arrow: stimulatory effect; Dotted arrow: inhibitory effect.

1371 **Figure 5. Different levels affected in disorders associated with oxidative stress.** Oxidative stress
1372 lead to the generation of a pro-oxidant and proinflammatory state that produces cell alteration
1373 and damage, and finally affects tissue and organ functions.

1374 **Figure 6. Mechanism involved in endothelial dysfunction.** The increased levels of RONS in the
1375 endothelium can improve cell infiltration and atherosclerotic plaque formation by induction of
1376 adhesion and chemotactic molecules, platelet aggregation and alteration of nitric oxide
1377 bioavailability.

1378 **Figure 7. Clinical implications of endothelial dysfunction.** Endothelial dysfunction plays a key
1379 role in the development of several chronic diseases.

1380 **Figure 8. Role of oxidative stress in inflammatory process.** RONS can affect the four
1381 components of the inflammation (inductors, sensors, mediators and effectors).

1382 **Figure 9. Inflammation and oxidative stress.** RONS contribute to inflammation by modulation
1383 of different inflammatory mediators.

1384 **Figure 10. Mechanisms of oxidative stress and inflammation mediated hypertension.** Many
1385 vascular alterations are associated to oxidative stress including endothelial dysfunction, vascular
1386 remodeling, and atherosclerotic plaque formation.

1387 **Figure 11. Participation of hyperglycemia in multiples pathways.** Hyperglycemia contribute to
1388 the development of oxidative stress by increasing RONS formation and protein damage.

1389 **Figure 12. Mechanisms implicated in the obesity.** Obesity is a complex and multifactorial
1390 disease with several pathological metabolic and vascular alterations such as hyperglycemia,
1391 inflammation, lipid accumulation, endothelial dysfunction, among others, that contribute to the
1392 development of oxidative stress.

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Table 1. Different wine pomaces and wine pomace by-products compositions

	Composition % dry matter (dm)	By-product	References	
Water	(50-85%)	50-70%	Grape Pomace (seeds)	(Teixeira et al., 2014)
		55-80%	Grape Pomace (stems)	(González-Centeno et al., 2010)
		73-85%	Grape	(González-Centeno et al., 2010)
Dietary Fiber	(>70% dm)	49-59%	Red wine pomaces	(García-Lomillo et al, 2014)
		80%	Grape pomace	(Valiente et al. , 1995)
		75%	Red grape pomace	(Llobera et al., 2007)

		77%	White grape peel	(Goñi, et al., 2005)
		73%	Grape skins	(Alí et al., 2003)
Proteins	(2-15% dm)	12-14%	Red wine pomaces	(García-Lomillo et al., 2014)
		11-12%	Red wine pomace (skins)	(Deng et al., 2011)
		12-14%	Red wine pomace	(Llobera et al., 2007)
		5-6%	White wine pomace (skins)	(Deng et al., 2011)
		11%	Grape pomace (seeds)	(Teixeira et al., 2014)
Fat	(3-17% dm)	4-17%	Red wine pomaces	(García-Lomillo et al., 2014)
		14-17%	Wine pomace (seeds)	(García-Lomillo et al., 2017b)
		3-6%	Red grape pomace	(Deng et al., 2011)
<i>Essential Oil</i>	<i>(13-16% dm)</i>	13%	Red grape pomace	(Llobera et al., 2007)
		16%	Grape pomace (seeds)	(Teixeira et al., 2014)
Minerals	(6-9% dm)	6-9%	White and red grape pomace	(Bravo et al., 1998)
		5%	Red pomace	(Llobera et al., 2007)
		6-8%	Red pomace (skins)	(Deng et al., 2011)
		2-3%	White pomace (skins)	(Deng et al., 2011)
Soluble sugars	(1-3% Red 55-78% White)	55-78%	White grape pomace	(Zhu et al., 2015)
		1-3%	Red grape pomace	(Deng et al., 2011)
		3%	White and red pomace (skin)	(Bravo et al., 1998)
Polyphenols	(1-5%)	4-5%	White and red pomace	(Bravo et al., 1998)
		2-3%	Red pomace	(Deng et al., 2011)
		3%	Red wine pomace (skins)	(García-Lomillo et al., 2014)
		1-2%	White pomace	(Deng et al., 2011)

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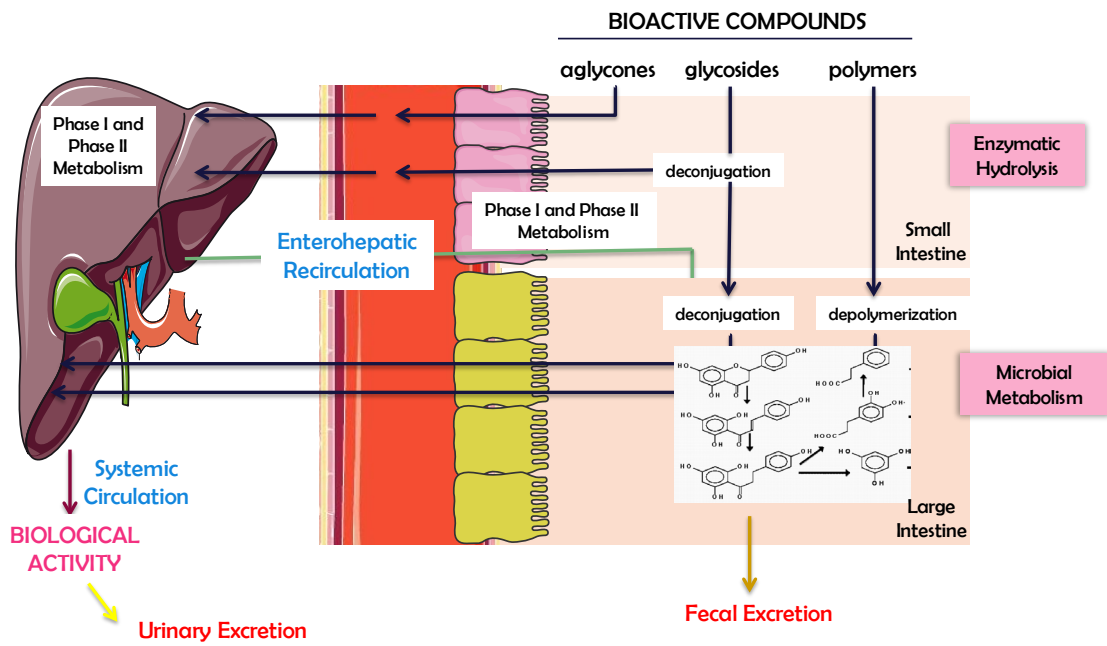
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Table 2. Major polyphenols of red and white wine pomaces from seeds or skins

			Seeds	Skins
Phenolic Families	%		mg/g	
Total Phenols (TP)	30 (r)	96 (w)	12.5 – 85.8 (r) 76.6 – 122 (w)	11.8 – 33.3 (r) 9.50 (w)
Total Flavonoids (TF)	70 (r)	4 (w)	83.6-162.8 (r) 0.77-7.98 (w)	31.2 – 47.5 (r) 0.03-0.92 (w)
• Total Flavonols	21 (r)	23 (w)	17.5 – 152 (r) 4.3 – 34.8 (w)	0.18 – 64.2 (r) 0.3 – 7.56 (w)
• Total Flavonoids	0.6 (r)	5 (w)	0.27 – 1.22 (r) 0.58 (w)	0.29 – 4.0 (r) 0.28 – 8.41 (w)
• Total Anthocyanins (TA)	2.4 (r)	n.d. (w)	n.d.	1.94 – 21.5 (r) 0.09 (w)
• Total Tannins	76 (r)	72 (w)	39.1 – 455 (r) 4.3-8.3 (w)	7.1 – 345 (r) 50.2 – 90.3 (w)
Individual Phenolic Compounds (g/100g)	%		mg/100 g	
<i>Gallic acid</i>	2.8 (r)	5.4 (w)	2.4 – 336 (r) 10.7 – 35.8 (w)	0.31 – 2.01 (r) 0.41 – 2.01 (w)
<i>Caftaric acid</i>	0.5 (r)	8.9 (w)	1.58 (r) 0.93 (w)	1.63 – 62.4 (r) 2.98 – 61.0 (w)
<i>Coutaric acid</i>	0.2 (r)	2.3 (w)	0.23 – 10.5 (r) 3.02 – 10.6 (w)	0.69 – 18.3 (r) 0.98 – 5.45 (w)
<i>Fertaric acid</i>	<0.01 (r)	0.3 (w)	0.26 (r) 0.3 (w)	0.44 – 1.59 (r) 0.44 – 1.73 (w)
<i>Protocatechuic acid</i>	0.1 (r)	2.1 (w)	3.3 – 8-7 (r) 9.3 – 10.3 (w)	1.81 – 2.13 (r) 0.78 – 4.28 (w)
<i>Caffeic acid</i>	0.1 (r)	0.5 (w)	7.6 (r) 0.19 (w)	0.34 – 1.07 (r) 0.17 – 3.57 (w)
<i>Syringic acid</i>	0.1 (r)	<0.01(w)	4.4 (r) 0.11 (w)	0.3 – 7.44 (r) 0.10 (w)
<i>p-coumaric acid</i>	0.1 (r)	1.5 (w)	10.0 (r) 0.72 – 10.0 (w)	0.19 – 0.59 (r) 0.21 (w)
<i>Ferulic acid</i>	<0.01 (r)	0.1 (w)	0.19 (r) 0.39 (w)	0.12 – 0.37 (r) 0.26 – 0.58 (w)
<i>Vanillic acid</i>	<0.01 (r)	0.2 (w)	0.34 (r)	0.32 – 3.04 (r) 1.15 (w)
<i>Gentisic acid</i>	<0.01 (r)	0.4 (w)		2.79 (r) 2.94 (w)
<i>Catechin</i>	3.5 (r)	16 (w)	10 – 280 (r) 79.0 – 87.6 (w)	1.15 – 130 (r) 6.87 – 22.7 (w)
<i>Epicatechin</i>	3.2 (r)	14 (w)	10.1 -270 (r) 67.5 – 85.0 (w)	1.56 – 110 (r) 4.45 – 13.4 (w)
<i>Epigallocatechin gallate</i>	0.1 (r)	1.1 (w)	n.d.	2.33 – 14.6 (r) 7.62 (w)
<i>Epicatechin gallate</i>	0.1 (r)	7.5 (w)	5.29-12.5 (r) 45.8- 48.9(w)	2.05-3.41 (r) 3.55 (w)
<i>Procyanidin B1</i>	4.8 (r)	18 (w)	74.6 – 306 (r) 105 (w)	1.33 – 259 (r) 5.46 – 19.2 (w)
<i>Procyanidin B2</i>	3.0 (r)	8.5 (w)	61.5 – 223 (r) 50.6 (w)	3.35 – 128 (r) 3.28 – 9.10 (w)
<i>Quercetin</i>	0.1 (r)	7.8 (w)	6.89 (r) 3.80 (w)	2.31 (r) 2.66 – 50.9 (w)
<i>Kaempferol</i>	0.3 (r)	3.8 (w)	14.9 (r) 2.00 (w)	3.28 – 21.1 (r) 2.98 – 24.8 (w)
<i>Myricetin</i>	0.3 (r)	0.4 (w)	11.9 (r)	5.09 – 26 (r) 2.79 (w)
<i>Delphinidin-3-O-glucoside</i>	7.3 (r)	n.d. (w)	3.00 – 311 (r)	6.80 -555 (r)
<i>Cyanidin-3-O-glucoside</i>	1.8 (r)	n.d. (w)	2.00 – 23.0 (r)	1.49 – 190 (r)
<i>Petunidin-3-O-glucoside</i>	8.3 (r)	n.d. (w)	5.00 – 318 (r)	6.50 – 668 (r)
<i>Peonidin-3-O-glucoside</i>	11 (r)	n.d. (w)	11.0 – 111 (r)	4.16 – 1245 (r)
<i>Malvidin-3-O-glucoside</i>	52 (r)	n.d. (w)	39.0 – 1052 (r)	95.4 – 5098 (r)
<i>t-resveratrol</i>	0.01 (r)	1.4 (w)	0.74 (r) 1.42 (w)	0.46 – 3.45 (r) 0.12 – 8.64 (w)

TP = Total Phenols expressed as mg Gallic Acid Equivalent/g of wine pomace. TF = Total Flavonoids expressed as mg Catechin Equivalent/g of wine pomace. TA = Total Anthocyanins expressed as mg Malvidin-3-glucoside Equivalent/g of wine pomace. Total Tannins are expressed as mg Catechin Equivalent/g of wine pomace. Individual Phenolic Compounds are expressed as mg/100g of wine pomace. % = percentage of each compound/family respect to the total phenolic composition of the wine pomace. (r) = red wine pomace. (w) = white wine pomace. n.d. = not detected.

1490 **Figure 1**



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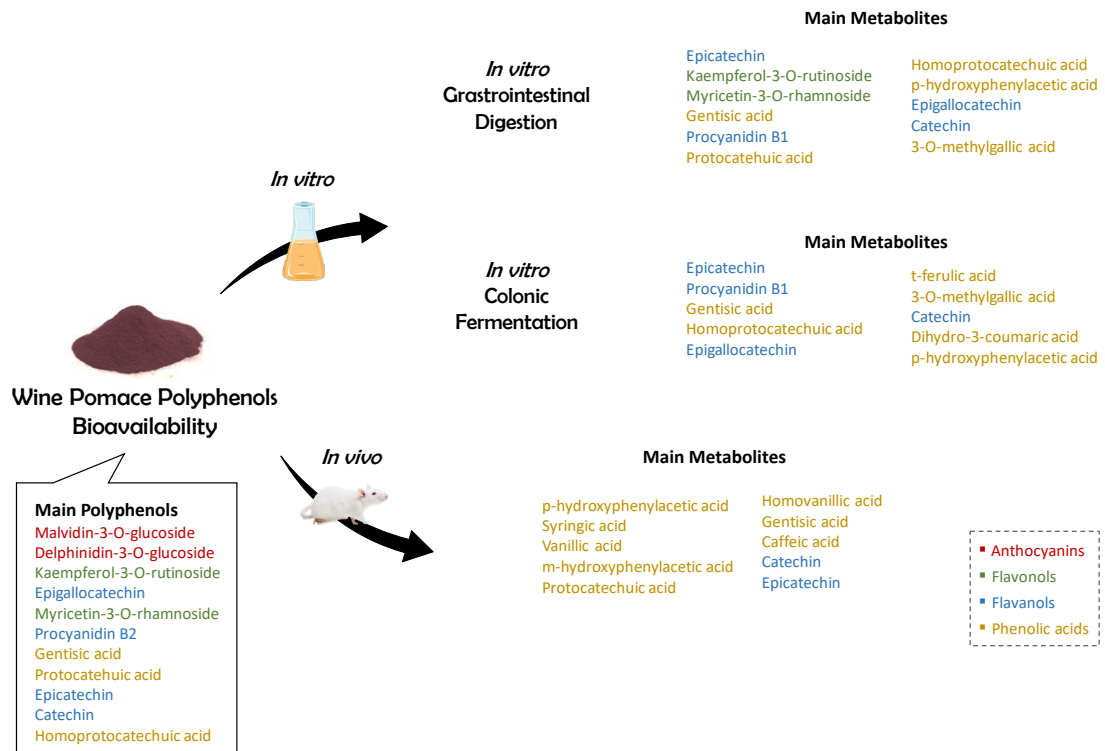
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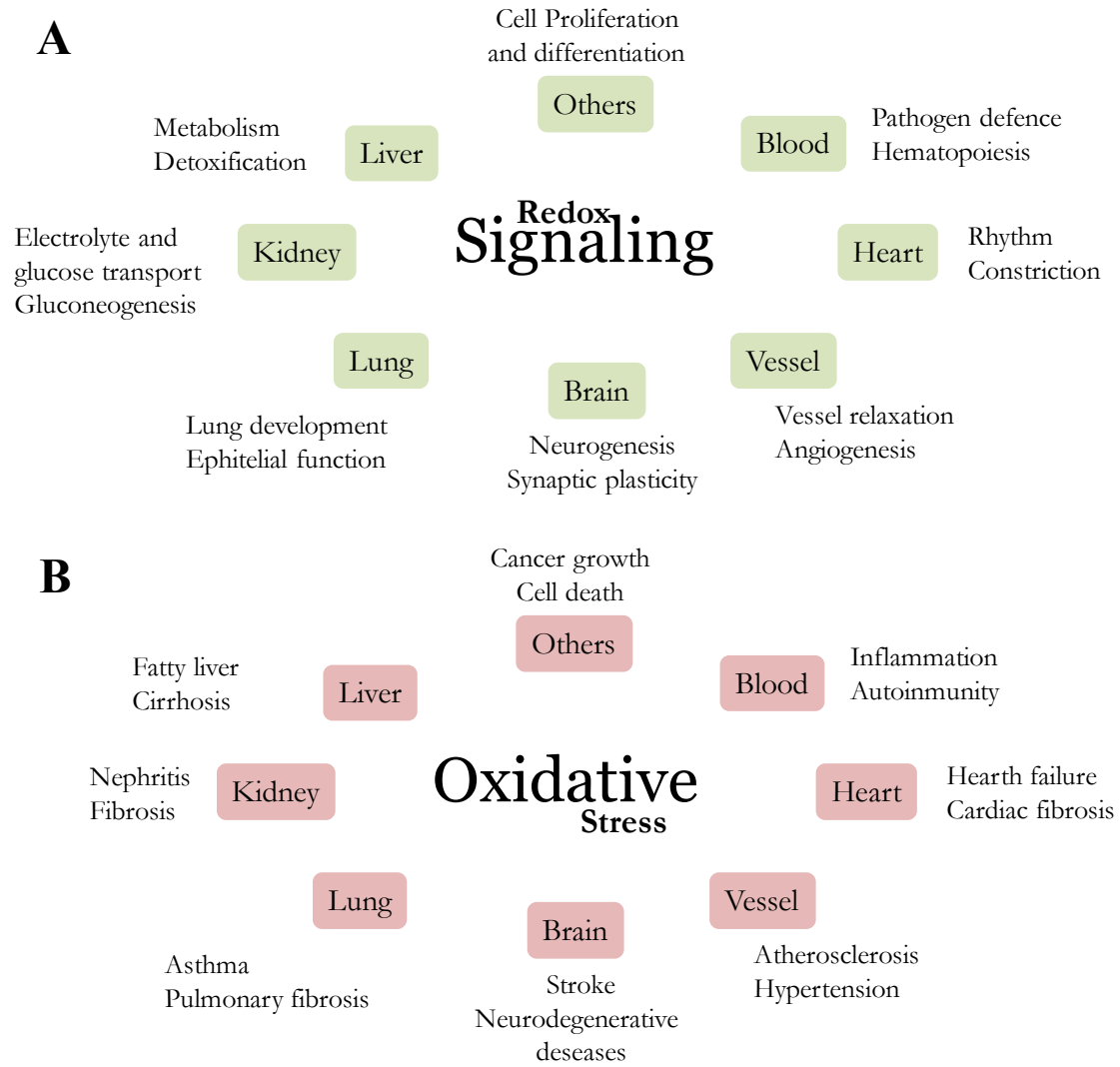
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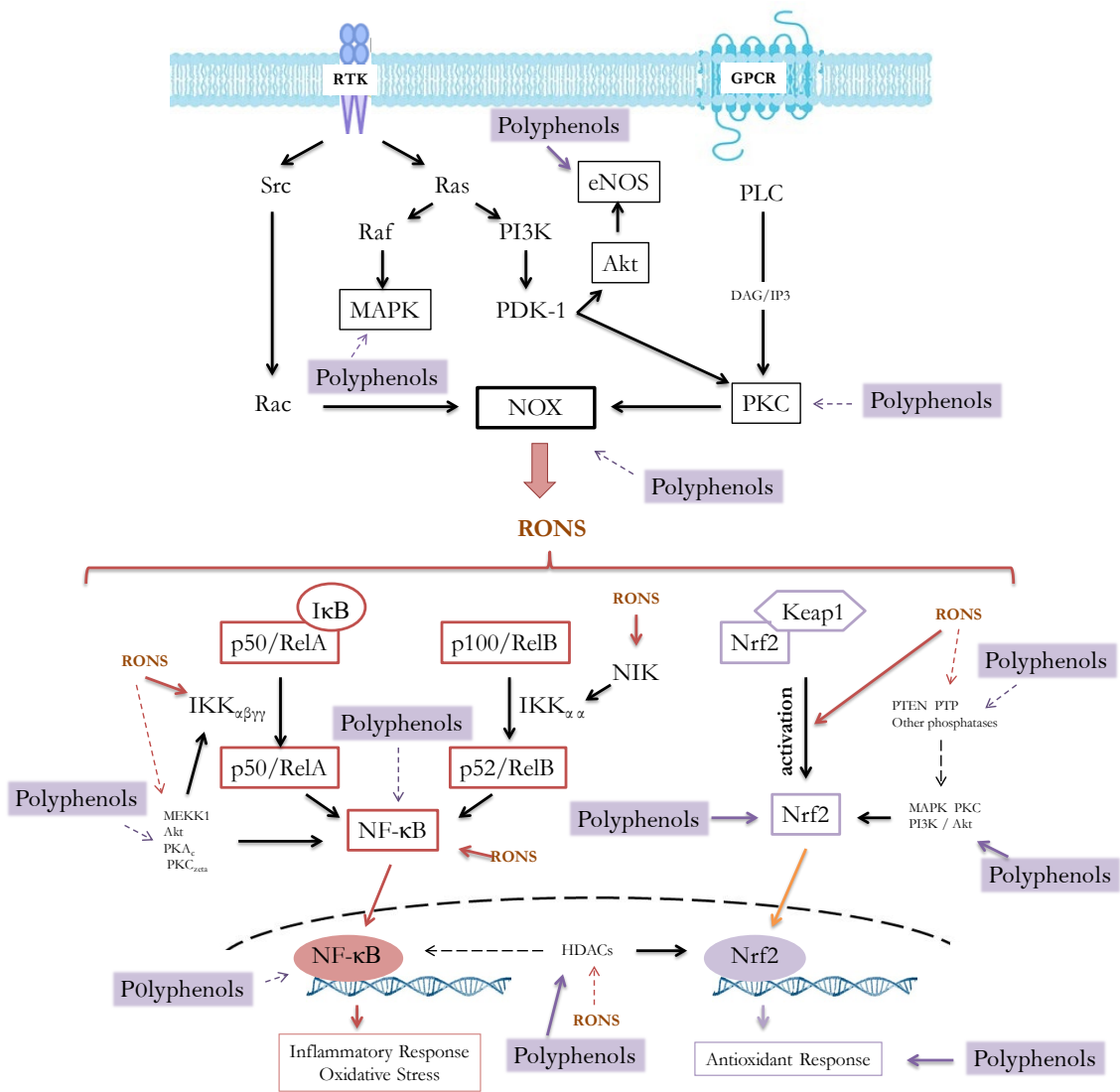
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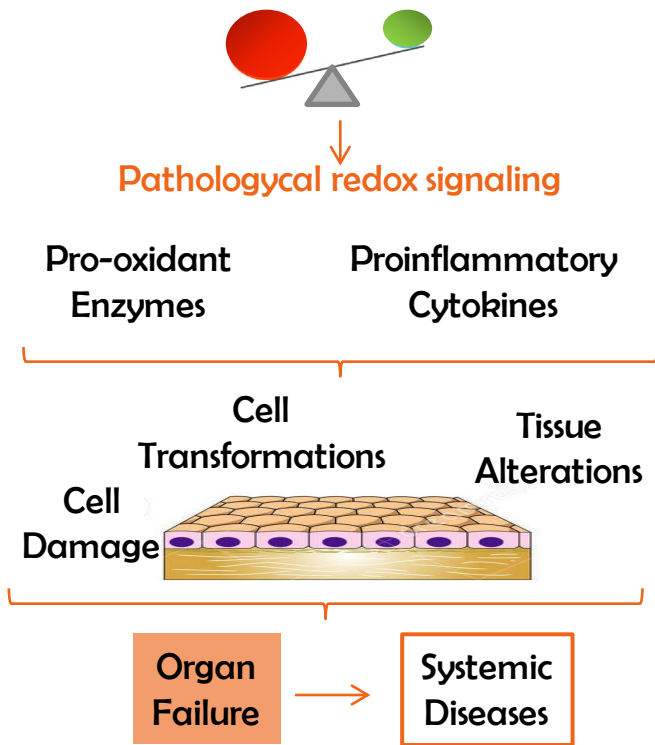
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1556 **Figure 5**



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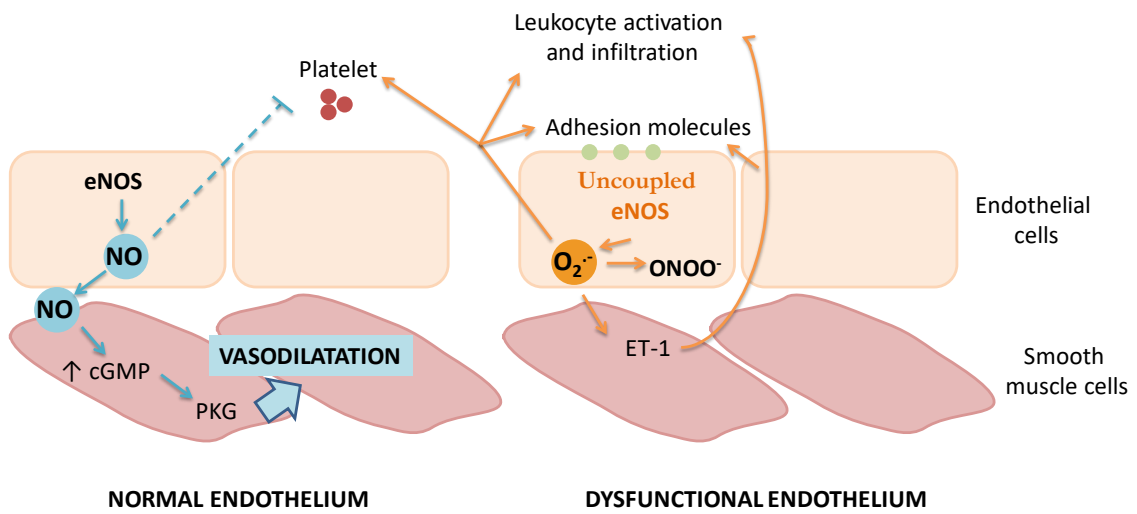
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1575 **Figure 6**



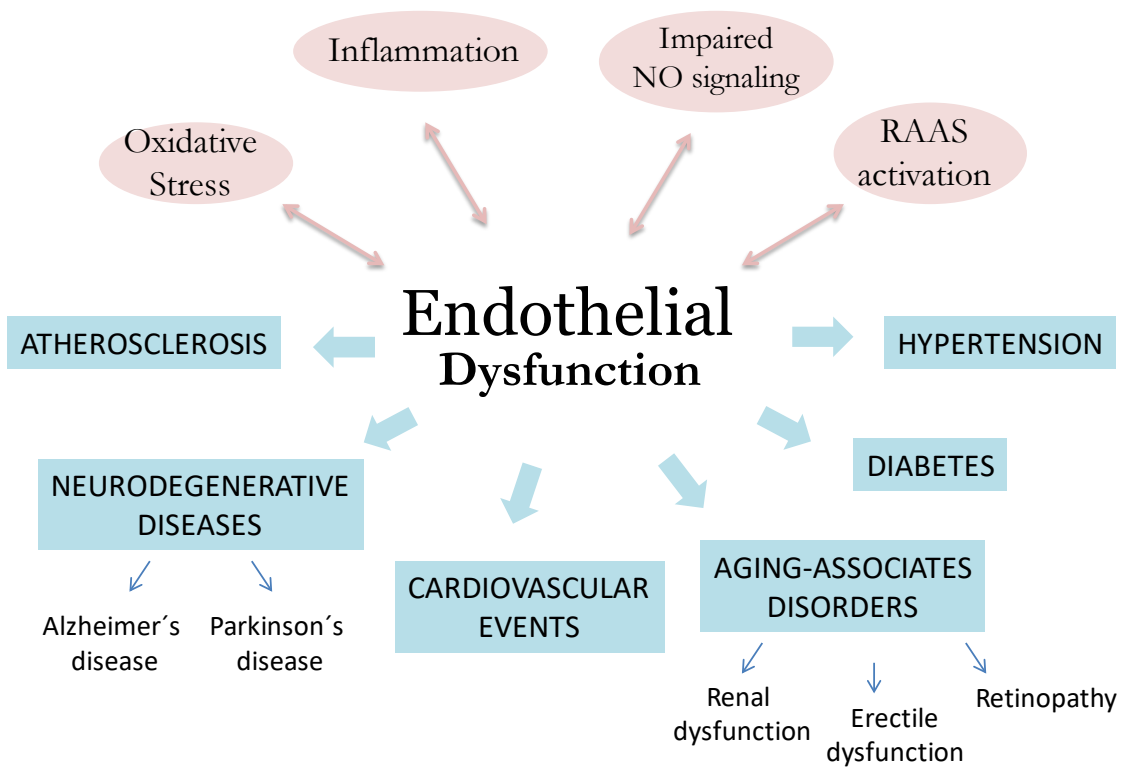
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1580 **Figure 7**



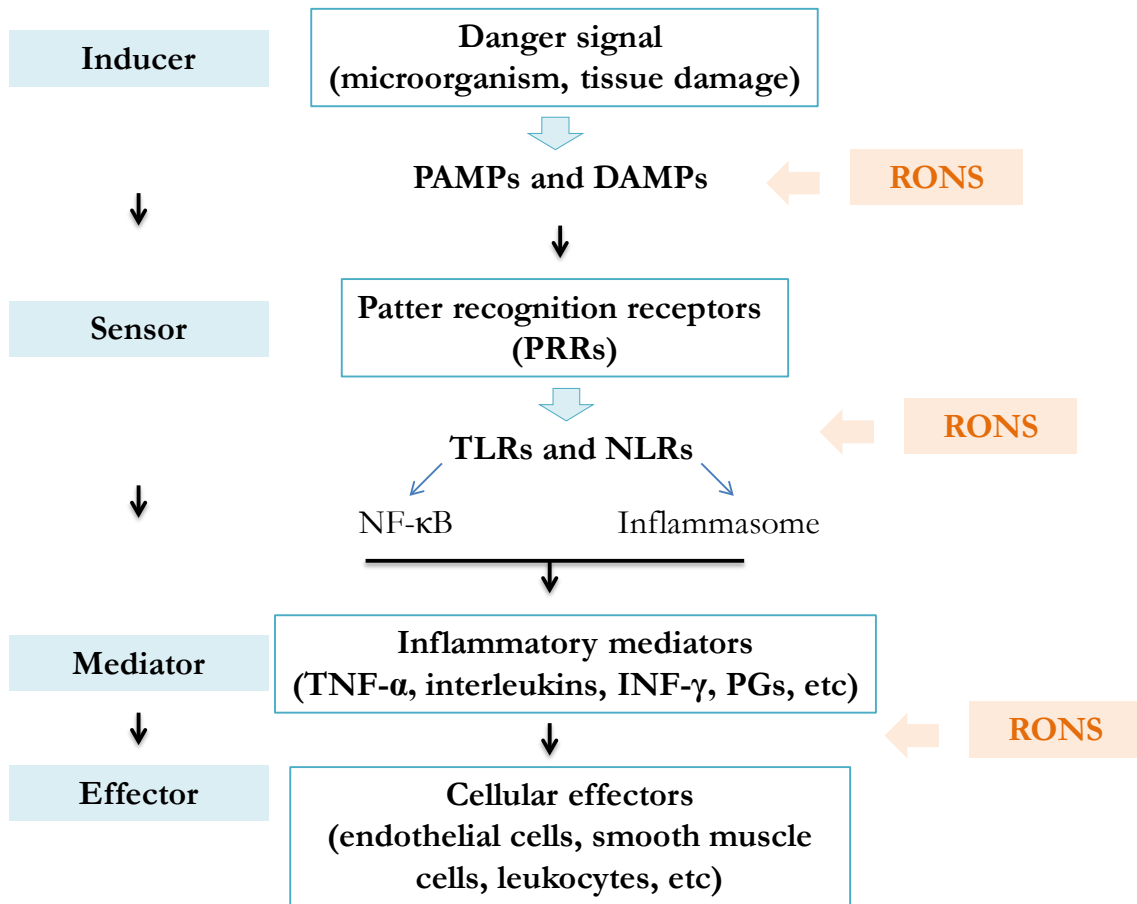
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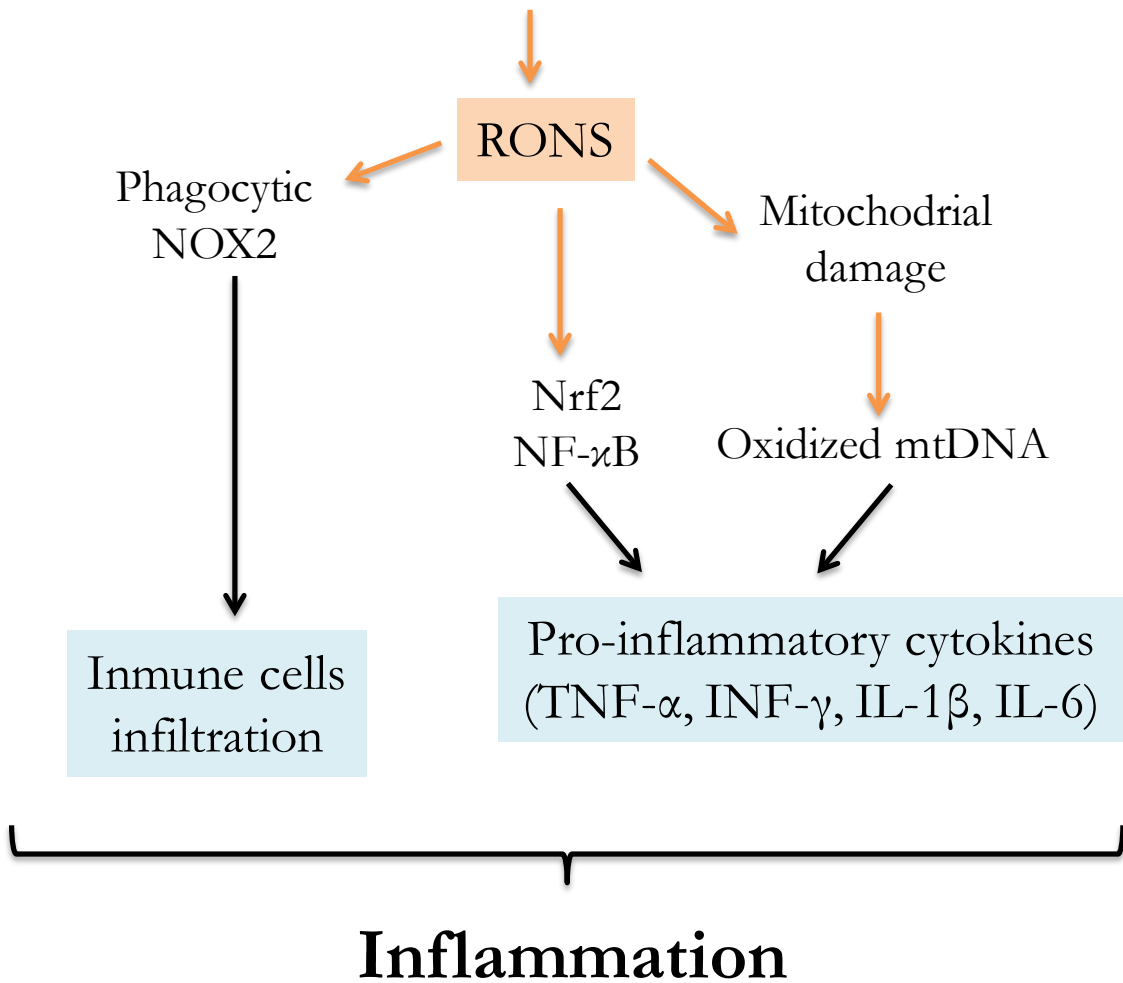
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1585 **Figure 8**



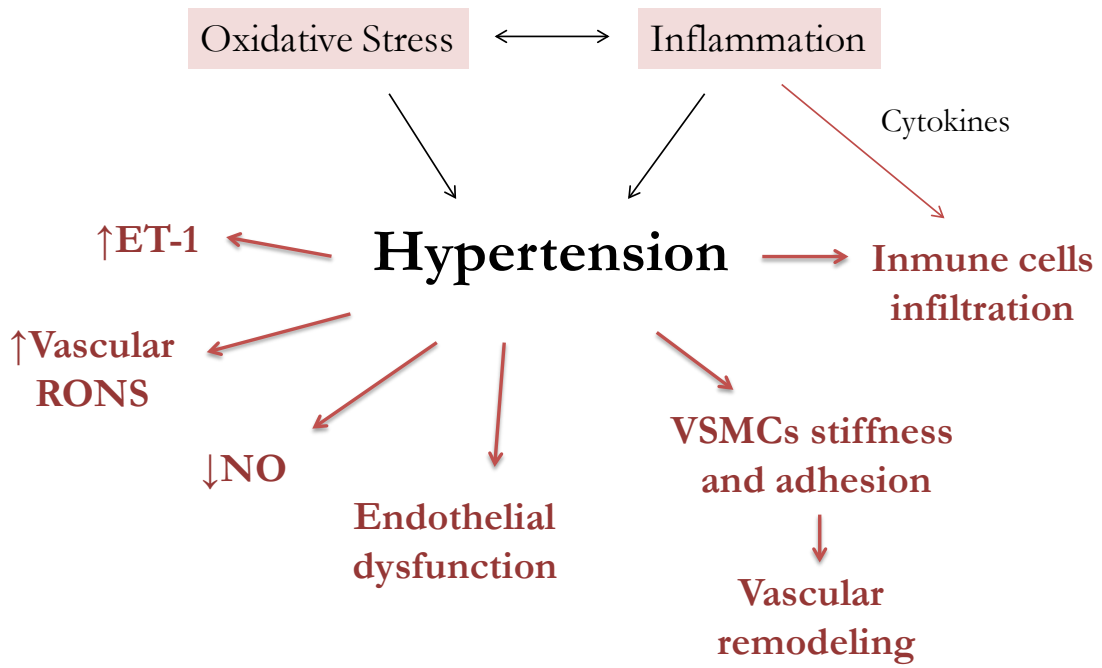
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Oxidative Stress



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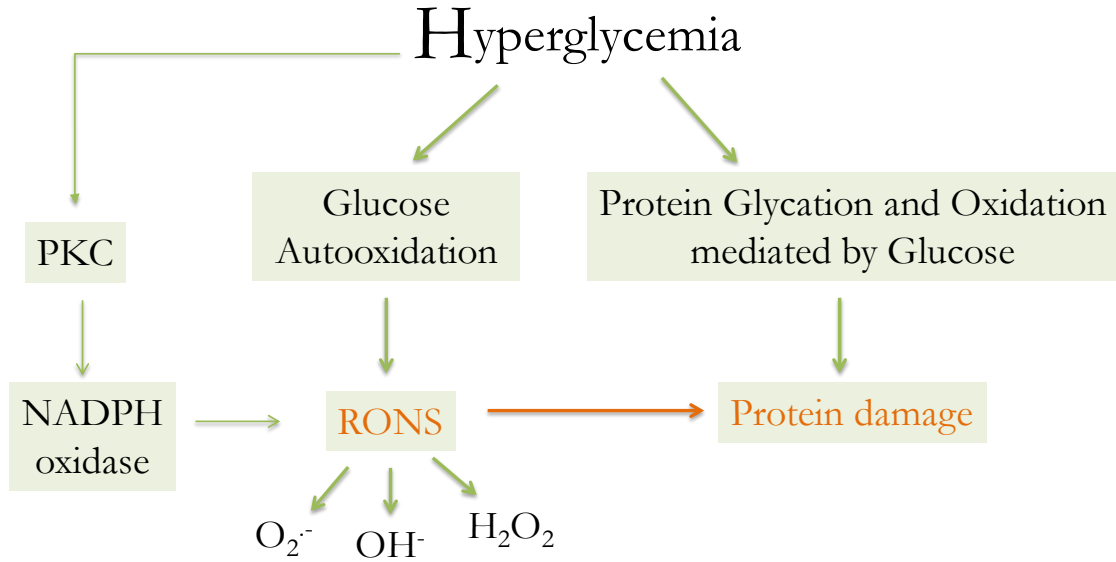
1613 **Figure 10**



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1615 **Figure 11**

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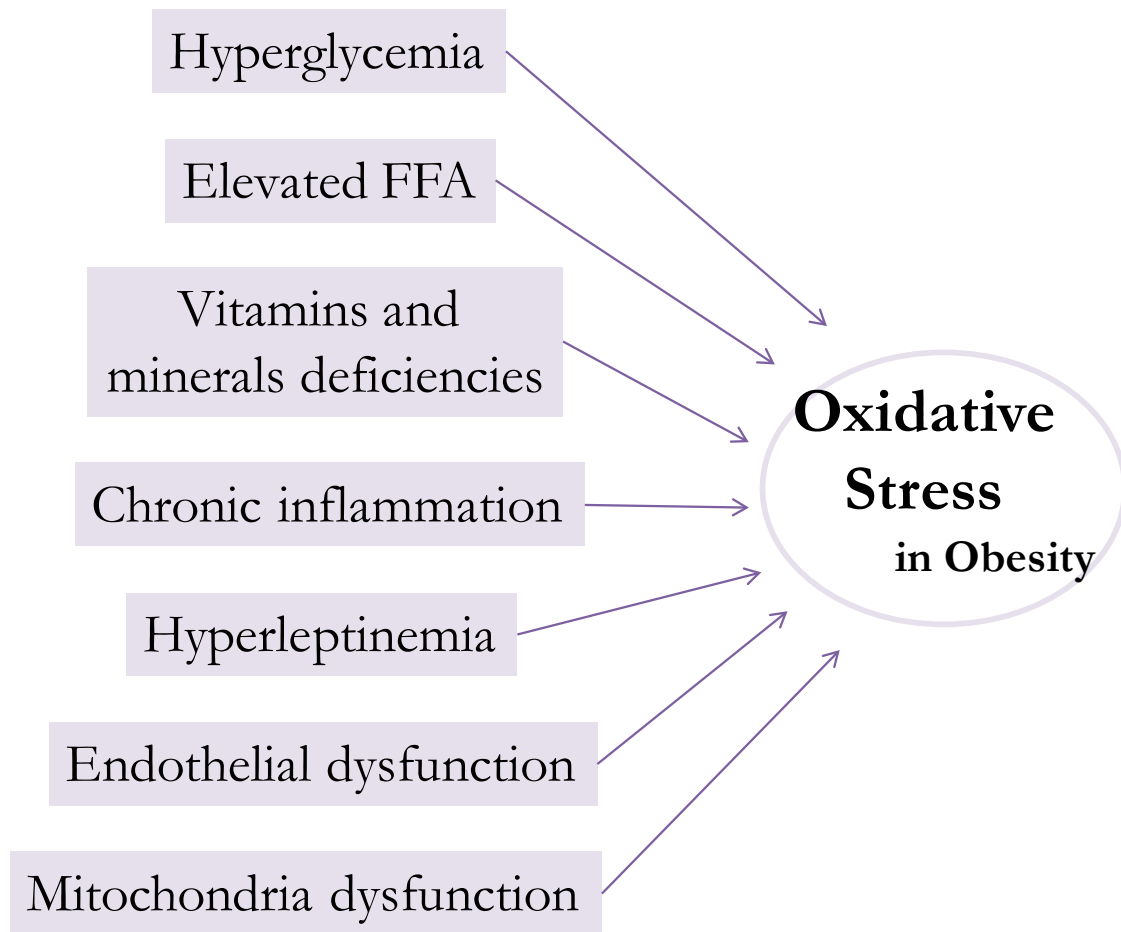
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