Effect of Oxygenation During Maturation on Phenolic Composition, Total Antioxidant Capacity, Colour and Sensory Quality of Pinotage Wine

D. de Beer1*, E. Joubert1,2, J. Marais1 and M. Manley2

(1) Post-Harvest and Wine Technology Division, ARC Infruitec-Nietvoorbij, Stellenbosch 7600, South Africa
(2) Department of Food Science, Stellenbosch University, Private Bag X1, 7602 Matieland (Stellenbosch), South Africa

Submitted for publication: August 2007
Accepted for publication: October 2007
Key words: Antioxidants, free radical scavenging, oxygenation, phenolic compounds

The effect of oxygenation on the phenolic composition, total antioxidant capacity (TAC), colour and sensory quality was investigated during the maturation of Pinotage wines. Oxygenation was carried out in discrete monthly doses at two oxygen dosages (2.5 and 5.0 mg O₂/L/month) for zero, two, four and six months. Oxygenation at the lower dosage for two months had beneficial effects on the colour and sensory quality of Pinotage wine. The higher oxygen dosage (all times) and longer times (all dosages) had a substantial detrimental effect on the overall sensory quality of the wine. A decrease in the TAC of the wine was observed for all the treatment combinations, despite increased concentrations of gallic acid. During the following harvest, a modified oxygenation treatment, entailing 1.0 mg O₂/L in discrete doses every two weeks for two months, was tested. It had little effect on the wine phenolic composition and was not detrimental to the TAC of the wine. The modified oxygenation protocol significantly reduced the berry/plum intensity of the Pinotage wine without negatively affecting the overall sensory quality. Oxygen addition on a continuous basis may also be less detrimental to the TAC of the wine and provide improved sensory quality.

Maturation is an important phase in the production of quality red wines, as it leads to increased colour stability and improved taste and quality in red wines. Oak barrels are generally used, but alternative oak sources, used in old barrels or stainless steel tanks, together with oxygenation, have recently increased the options available to the winemaker.

Important changes in phenolic composition during maturation involve condensation reactions of anthocyanins with flavan-3-ols to form oligomeric and polymeric phenolic compounds, leading to stabilised colour (Timberlake & Bridle, 1976; Singleton, 1987). The major aim of the oxygenation of red wine during the maturation phase is to accelerate this colour stabilisation. In the presence of oxygen, ethanol is oxidised to acetaldehyde (Wildenradt & Singleton, 1974), which contributes to the formation of ethyl-linked anthocyanin-flavan-3-ol condensation products (Atanasova et al., 2002). Ingress of small amounts of oxygen during maturation in oak barrels also contributes to this phenomenon (Singleton, 1987). During oxygenation, however, the amount of oxygen delivered to a wine can be controlled. Oxygen can be applied continuously (Atanasova et al., 2002; Du Toit et al., 2006) or in discrete doses (Castellari et al., 2000).

Since oxygenation affects the phenolic composition of the wine, especially with regard to polymerisation, it is possible that the total antioxidant capacity (TAC) of the wine will also be affected. A change in TAC during maturation is most likely to be negative. Some reactions of phenolic compounds during pre-bottling maturation are expected to be similar to those that occur during bottle maturation, which has been shown to decrease the TAC of Pinotage and Cabernet Sauvignon wines (De Beer et al., 2005).

To date, no reports have been published on the effects of oxygenation on the antioxidant capacity of red wines. In order to produce wines with optimal TAC, the effect of oxygenation on TAC should be taken into account. The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of oxygenation during maturation on the phenolic composition, TAC, colour and sensory quality of Pinotage wines.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Oxygenation treatments

A Pinotage wine was produced from grapes (Vitis vinifera L. cv. Pinotage) harvested at ~23 to 24°B at Nietvoorbij (Stellenbosch, South Africa) during March 2003 and March 2004. Winemaking was carried out at the experimental cellar of ARC Infruitec-Nietvoorbij (Stellenbosch, South Africa) according to the standard winemaking protocol as described by De Beer et al. (2006), with no wood contact and no malolactic fermentation. Instead of bottling after cold stabilisation and filtering, the 2003 wine was divided into 30 closed stainless steel containers (20 L), with three containers for each of the treatment and time combinations. The oxygenation treatments consisted of a control (wine before oxygenation), no oxygenation (0 mg O₂/L/month), low-level oxygenation (2.5 mg O₂/L/month) and high-level oxygenation (5.0 mg O₂/L/month) for two, four and six months (Fig. 1). Oxygenation was carried out in discrete doses at monthly intervals. The control wines were bottled when the oxygenation treatments commenced. The wine used in 2004 was divided into six containers, with three containers for each of the two treatments, which consisted of a control (no oxygenation; bottled directly after cold stabilisation and filtering) and an oxygenation treatment (1.0 mg O₂/L applied

*Corresponding author: E-mail address: DBeerD@arc.agric.za
Acknowledgements: Winetech, the National Research Foundation (NRF) and the Technology and Human Resources for Industry Programme (THRIP) are thanked for financial support. The authors also wish to thank Frikkie Calitz of the ARC Biometry Unit for the statistical analysis of the data.


13
every two weeks for two months. During the oxygenation treatments, wines were stored at 15°C. Oxygenation consisted of introducing compressed medical air (Afrox, Johannesburg, South Africa) into the wine using a gas diffuser until wine oxygen concentrations reached the desired level. The dissolved oxygen concentration was adjusted to 25 mg/L free SO₂. The wines were bottled two weeks after the completion of each oxygenation treatment. The wines were stored at 15°C until the wine treated for six months had been bottled, and thereafter they were stored at 25°C until sampling and sensory analysis. Sampling occurred at the same time as sensory analysis, which was two months after the wine from the last treatment had been bottled. Aliquots from each treatment and time combination were frozen at -20°C to prevent further phenolic changes until the analyses could be carried out. Samples were analysed immediately after defrosting.

Chemicals and phenolic reference standards
2,2’-Azino-di-(3-ethylbenzo-thialozine-sulphonic acid) (ABTS) was obtained from Boehringer Mannheim GmbH (Mannheim, Germany) and HPLC-grade acetonitrile and phosphoric acid were obtained from Riedel-de Haën (Seelze, Germany) and Fluka (Buchs, Switzerland) respectively. 6-Hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid (Trolox) was obtained from Aldrich Chemical Co. (Gillingham, UK). Phenolic reference standards included gallic acid, (+)-catechin, (-)-epicatechin, quercetin-3-galactoside (Gal) and quercetin-3-rhamnoside (Rham) from Sigma (St Louis, MO); caffeoyltartaric acid from Chromadex (Santa Ana, CA); caffeic acid, quercetin and kaempferol from Fluka; procyanidin B1, quercetin-3-glucoside (Glc) and myricetin from Extrasynthese (Genay, France); and delphinidin-3-Glc, peonidin-3-Glc, petunidin-3-Glc and malvidin-3-Glc from Polyphenols AS (Sandnes, Norway). Water used in the experiments was purified and de-ionised using a Modulab water purification system (Separations, Cape Town, South Africa), except for that used in the preparation of the HPLC mobile phases, where the de-ionised water was treated further using a Milli-Q academic water purifier (Millipore, USA).

Spectrophotometric analysis of phenolic content
The wines were subjected to spectrophotometric analysis for the determination of the major phenolic groups. Total phenol and total flavan-3-ol content was determined in triplicate using the Folin-Ciocalteau (Singleton & Rossi, 1965) and dimethylamino-cinnamaldehyde (DAC) (McMurrough & McDowell, 1978) assays respectively. The monomeric, polymeric and total anthocyanin content was determined using a pH shift assay modified from that of Ribéreau-Gayon and Stonestreet (1965) as described in De Beer et al. (2003). A pH 4.9 acetate buffer was used instead of a pH 3.5 phosphate buffer. Anthocyanins were quantified as milligrams of malvidin-3-Glc equivalents/L.

HPLC analysis of phenolic composition
Individual phenolic compounds, as well as coloured and non-coloured polymers detected at 520 and 280 nm respectively, were quantified in duplicate using an HPLC method (Peng et al., 2002), modified and described by De Beer et al. (2006). Polymers included polymeric phenolic compounds with five or more subunits, consisting of coloured and non-coloured polymers.

ABTS radical cation scavenging assay
The total antioxidant capacity (TAC) of the wines was measured (TACₘ) in triplicate using the ABTS⁺ scavenging assay (Re et al., 1999). The content of individual phenolic compounds, measured by HPLC, and their experimental TEAC values (reported in De Beer et al., 2006), were used to calculate the theoretical TAC (TAC₃CAL). The remaining TAC (TACₐ) is the difference between TACₘ and TAC₃CAL. The analysis and calculations were carried out as described in De Beer et al. (2006).

Objective colour parameters
A Colorgard System 2000 Colourimeter (BYK-Gardner, Geretsried, Germany) was used to measure the objective colour parameters of the undiluted wines from all vintages in transmittance mode in an optical cell with a fixed path length of 5 mm. The colorimeter was calibrated before use with a non-diffusing black reflectance standard (BYK-Gardner, Geretsried, Germany). Objective colour measurements were performed <1 h after opening a wine bottle to minimise colour changes. The CIELab parameters, namely a* (red/green

![FIGURE 1](image-url)

Scheme of oxygenation treatments of Pinotage wine.
chromaticity), $b^*$ (yellow/blue chromaticity) and $L^*$ (lightness), were measured using the CIE 1931 standard colorimetric observer under illuminant C (geometry is 45° illumination and 0° viewing). The $h^*$ (hue angle; $^\circ$) and $C^*$ (chroma) were calculated as follows:

$$h^* = \tan^{-1}(b^*/a^*)$$

$$C^* = \sqrt{(a^*)^2 + (b^*)^2}$$

Names for hues were adapted from Gonnet (1999), based on the $h^*$ values. Hue angle values of 0°, 7.5°, 15°, 22.5°, 30°, 37.5° and 45° correspond to magenta, red-magenta, magenta-red, red, orange-red, red-orange and orange respectively.

**Sensory analysis**

The wines were evaluated two months after the last treated wines had been bottled, i.e. eight months after fermentation, for colour acceptability, berry/plum intensity, astringency, fullness and overall wine quality. The evaluation was done by a panel of six experienced judges, comprising winemakers from the industry. Wines were presented in random order. Evaluation was done by making a mark on an unstructured 10 cm line scale. The scales were anchored at both ends by the terms “unacceptable” and “excellent” for colour acceptability and overall wine quality, “low” and “high” for berry/plum intensity and astringency, and “thin” and “full” for fullness. Judges were calibrated before the sensory analysis by reaching consensus on the scores for two sample wines.

**Statistical analysis**

Analysis of variance was performed on the means of triplicate or duplicate samples of each oxygenation treatment and time combination to determine whether significant differences occurred. The Student t-LSD test ($p \leq 0.05$) was used to determine whether the means differed significantly. Analysis of variance and difference testing were done using the SAS version 8 software package (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC).

**RESULTS**

**Phenolic composition of the wines from 2003**

The phenolic composition of the non-oxygenated wine remained largely unchanged during the six-month period (Fig. 2), with only its total monomer content (HPLC) significantly higher than that in the oxygenated treatments after six months (Fig. 2A). Oxygenation caused a significant decrease in the total monomer (HPLC) and total phenol (Fig. 2B) content of the wine. Higher losses were observed at 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month than at 2.5 mg O$_2$/L/month.

Oxygenation, on the other hand, caused a significant decrease in the monomeric anthocyanin content, as measured using both the HPLC (Fig. 2C) and pH shift (Fig. 2D) methods. This decrease over the treatment period occurred at both oxygenation levels, but was more pronounced at 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month (Fig. 2C to L). The same trend was observed for the content of all the individual anthocyanins, except for the vitisin A content (Fig. 2E to N). The vitisin A content increased significantly with oxygenation at 2.5 mg O$_2$/L/month for two months and oxygenation at 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month for two and four months, but after six months its content at both oxygenation levels was similar to that of the control $(p > 0.05)$. Several of the anthocyanins, namely peonidin-3-Glc, delphinidin-3-Glc-Ac, petunidin-3-Glc-Ac and malvidin-3-Glc-Coum, could not be detected in the wine treated for six months with 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month. Only the four- and six-month treatments at 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month caused a significant increase in coloured polymer content (HPLC) (Fig. 2O). On the other hand, the polymeric anthocyanin content (pH shift) exhibited significantly increased concentrations when 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month was applied for all time intervals, as well as when 2.5 mg O$_2$/L/month was applied for four and six months (Fig. 2P).

The concentration of the total flavonol content and the content of several individual flavonols, namely an unknown flavonol, quercetin-3-Glc, quercetin-3-rhamnoside (Rham) and isorhamnetin, decreased significantly as a result of oxygenation, irrespective of the concentration (Fig. 2Q to X). The application of 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month also decreased the quercetin-3-galactoside (Gal), quercetin and kaempferol contents, with the wine treated for six months having significantly lower contents than the control wine.

The total phenolic acid (Fig. 2Y), caftaric acid (Fig. 2Z), coumaric acid (data not shown) and p-coumaric acid (data not shown) contents showed similar trends, i.e. no significant change in content over the six-month period. The caffeic acid content of the wine, on the other hand, decreased significantly with the application of 2.5 mg O$_2$/L/month for six months and with 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month for four and six months (Fig. 2AA). All the oxygenated wines, except the wines oxygenated at 2.5 mg O$_2$/L/month for two months, had a significantly higher gallic acid content than the control (Fig. 2BB). At both oxygenation levels the gallic acid content increased significantly with oxygenation time, with the highest gallic acid content observed when 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month was applied for six months.

At both oxygenation levels, but to a greater extent at 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month, the total flavon-3-ol (HPLC and DAC methods), (+)-catechin and procyanidin B1 content of the wine decreased significantly over time (Fig. 2CC to FF). The non-coloured polymer content of the wines did not change significantly during oxygenation, irrespective of the dosage (data not shown).

**Antioxidant capacity of the wines from 2003**

All the wines treated with oxygen had significantly lower TACC$_M$, TAC$_{CAL}$ and TAC$_R$ than the non-oxygenated wines, although the period of oxygenation did not have a significant effect on the TAC$_M$ or TAC$_R$ (Fig. 3A to C). The decrease in TAC$_{CA}$ was, however, more pronounced for longer oxygenation periods. The TAC$_M$, TAC$_{CAL}$ and TAC$_R$ of the non-oxygenated wines did not change significantly during the oxygenation period. Substantial and significant decreases in the contribution of flavan-3-ols, flavonols and especially anthocyanins to the TAC$_{CA}$ were observed for the oxygenated wines. A significant increase in contribution to the TAC$_{CA}$ was observed only in the case of gallic acid (Fig. 4).

**Objective colour parameters of the wines from 2003**

The colour parameters of the oxygenated and non-oxygenated wines are depicted in Fig. 3D to H. The $C^*$ and $a^*$ values of both the non-oxygenated and oxygenated Pinotage wines decreased significantly during the treatment period. The decreases in $C^*$ and $a^*$ values were more pronounced for the application of 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month than for 2.5 mg O$_2$/L/month. Initially, oxygenation significantly increased the $h^*$ and $b^*$ values of the wines, after which they decreased. However, the final $h^*$ of the wines subjected to oxygenation still was significantly higher than that of the control wine. The $L^*$ value of the oxygenated wines decreased significantly during the six-month period, but not that of the non-oxygenated wines.

Effect of oxygenation on the phenolic composition of Pinotage wine, measured using spectrophotometric assays and HPLC [description of figure legends: no = application of 0.0 mg O₂/L/month; low = application of 2.5 mg O₂/L/month; high = application of 5.0 mg O₂/L/month. Different letters denote significant differences (p ≤ 0.05). Dp = delphinidin; Gal = galactoside; Glc = glucose; Glc-Ac = acetylglycerol; Glc-Coum = p-coumaroylglycerol; Mv = malvidin; Pn = peonidin; Pt = petunidin; Rham = rhamnoside.}

FIGURE 2 (continued)

Effect of oxygenation on the phenolic composition of Pinotage wine, measured using spectrophotometric assays and HPLC [description of figure legends: no = application of 0.0 mg O₂/L/month; low = application of 2.5 mg O₂/L/month; high = application of 5.0 mg O₂/L/month. Different letters denote significant differences (p ≤ 0.05). Dp = delphinidin; Gal = galactoside; Glc = glucoside; Glc-Ac = acetylglucoside; Glc-Coum = p-coumaroylglucoside; Mv = malvidin; Pn = peonidin; Pt = petunidin; Rham = rhamnoside.]
FIGURE 2 (continued)

Effect of oxygenation on the phenolic composition of Pinotage wine, measured using spectrophotometric assays and HPLC [description of figure legends: no = application of 0.0 mg O₂/L/month; low = application of 2.5 mg O₂/L/month; high = application of 5.0 mg O₂/L/month. Different letters denote significant differences (p ≤ 0.05).

Dp = delphinidin; Gal = galactoside; Glc = glucoside; Glc-Ac = acetylglucoside; Glc-Coum = p-coumaroylglucoside; Mv = malvidin; Pn = peonidin; Pt = petunidin; Rham = rhamnoside.

FIGURE 2 (continued)

Effect of oxygenation on the phenolic composition of Pinotage wine, measured using spectrophotometric assays and HPLC [description of figure legends: no = application of 0.0 mg O$_2$/L/month; low = application of 2.5 mg O$_2$/L/month; high = application of 5.0 mg O$_2$/L/month. Different letters denote significant differences (p ≤ 0.05). Dp = delphinidin; Gal = galactoside; Glc = glucoside; Glc-Ac = acetylglucoside; Glc-Coum = p-coumaroylglucoside; Mv = malvidin; Pn = peonidin; Pt = petunidin; Rham = rhamnoside.]

FIGURE 3
Effect of oxygenation on the total antioxidant capacity and colour of Pinotage wine. Description of figure legends: no = application of 0.0 mg O₂/L/month; low = application of 2.5 mg O₂/L/month; high = application of 5.0 mg O₂/L/month. Different letters denote significant differences (p ≤ 0.05); C* = chroma; h* = hue angle (°); L* = lightness; a* = red/green chromaticity; b* = yellow/blue chromaticity.
Sensory quality of the wines from 2003

The non-oxygenated wines retained their sensory characteristics throughout the six-month period, i.e. no significant changes were observed (Fig. 5A to E). The scores for sensory colour acceptability of the oxygenated wines increased significantly, irrespective of the oxygen concentration. Berry/plum intensity scores decreased significantly with oxygenation, and this decrease was more pronounced when 5.0 mg O₂/L/month was applied. There were no significant changes in the astringency scores of the wines during oxygenation. Fullness scores were significantly higher for all wines oxygenated at 5.0 mg O₂/L/month than for the non-oxygenated wines, while oxygenation at 2.5 mg O₂/L/month significantly increased the fullness scores for the six-month treatment period. Considering the overall quality of the wine, only the two-month treatment at 2.5 mg O₂/L/month showed no significant change. Wines that received the 2.5 mg O₂/L/month treatment only gave significantly decreased overall quality scores after six months. The application of 5.0 mg O₂/L/month, irrespective of the period of oxygenation, resulted in low overall quality scores.

Characteristics of the wines from 2004

The phenolic composition of the 2004 wine was not affected significantly by the modified oxygenation protocol, except for the gallic acid and total flavan-3-ol content, which was significantly lower and higher than that of the control wine respectively (Fig. 6A to E). No significant difference in TAC was observed between the control and oxygenated wine (Fig. 6F). The oxygenation treatment gave rise to wine with significantly higher $h^*$ and $b^*$ values than the control wine (Fig. 6G). The berry/plum intensity scores of the wines were significantly lower when using the oxygenation treatment (Fig. 6H).

DISCUSSION

Oxygenation is expected to facilitate direct and acetaldehyde-mediated anthocyanin-flavan-3-ol condensation reactions, as is the case for oak maturation. Pyranoanthocyanins may also be a product when oxygen is present, as the formation of most of these compounds requires an oxidation step (Monagas et al., 2005).

The formation of anthocyanin-derived pigments would therefore explain the substantial decrease in the content of all monomeric anthocyanins, (+)-catechin and procyanidin B1 in the wines after oxygenation. More pronounced changes occurred at the higher oxygenation level, as would be expected. At the same time, the polymeric anthocyanin content (pH shift) increased moderately, although the coloured polymer content (HPLC) showed a slightly different trend, with an increase only at the higher oxygenation level. The difference in trends is probably due to differences in the principles of the analytical methods used. The coloured polymer (HPLC) measurement only included polymers of five or more subunits (Peng et al., 2002), while some smaller oligomers may be included in the pH shift measurement due to their pH dependence (Escribano-Bailón et al., 2001). An increased concentration of sulphur dioxide-resistant pigments, i.e. polymers, and a decreased concentration of monomeric anthocyanins occurred when micro-oxygenation was used at different stages in the vinification process (Castellari et al., 1998; Castellari et al., 2000; Atanasova et al., 2002; Du Toit et al., 2006). Oxidative degradation of monomeric anthocyanins may also occur, especially at the high oxygenation level.

Previously, flavonols and hydroxycinnamic acids were shown to decrease when Sangiovese wines were oxygenated to saturation every month for six months (Castellari et al., 2000). In the present study, similar evidence of oxidative degradation was observed for flavonols and caffeic acid. Oxygenation caused a small but significant increase in the gallic acid content of wine over time, due to the hydrolysis of galloylated flavan-3-ols releasing gallic acid (Singleton & Trousdale, 1983). Castellari et al. (2000), however, observed a decrease in gallic acid when a Sangiovese wine was oxygenated to saturation every month for six months. The total phenol content decreased only slightly, contrary to the HPLC-quantified monomers, and this was attributed to the reaction products still having reactivity in the Folin-Ciocalteau assay. A decrease in total phenol content was also observed after the oxygenation of a Sangiovese red wine (Castellari et al., 2000).

The oxygenation treatments were detrimental to the TACM of the wines. Both monomeric compounds (represented by TACCAL) and unknown compounds (estimated by TACR) contributed to the de-
crease in TACM. The more pronounced decrease in the TACCAL of wines subjected to longer oxygenation periods or the higher oxygen dosage is attributed to greater losses of most monomeric phenolic compounds, despite the increased concentration of gallic acid. Decreased concentrations of unknown antioxidant compounds could also play a role. Furthermore, the formation of anthocyanin-derived pigments and their contribution to the TACM do not seem to compensate for the losses of monomeric and unknown compounds from the oxygenated wine.

The decrease in colour saturation ($C^*$) and $a^*$ values of the wine with oxygenation is attributed to a decrease in monomeric anthocyanin content, especially since only a small increase in polymeric anthocyanin content was observed for some treatments. Decreased concentrations of co-pigment factors, such as (+)-catechin, procyanidin B1 and all individual flavonols, would also have contributed to the decrease in wine $C^*$ and $a^*$ values (Gonnet, 1999). Atanasova et al. (2002) reported a decrease in colour density (sum of absorbances at 420, 520 and 620 nm) over time, although this was less severe for a micro-oxygenated wine than for the control wine. Some authors (Castellari et al., 2000; Du Toit et al., 2006), however, observed an increase in colour density with continuous micro-oxygenation or oxygenation in discrete doses.

Oxygenation changed the hue ($h^*$) from an initial magenta-red to pure red in the direction of orange-red, with a subsequent change back to magenta-red. It seems that the first phase of oxygenation is characterised by the formation of orange-red pyranoanthocyanins (Fulcrand et al., 1996; Fulcrand et al., 1998), while the second phase corresponds to the formation of purple acetaldehyde-mediated anthocyanin-flavan-3-ol condensation products (Tim-
FIGURE 6
Effect of oxygenation (1.0 mg O₂/L in discrete doses every two weeks for two months) on the (A) + (B) anthocyanin content, (C) flavonol content, (D) phenolic acid content, (E) flavan-3-ol content, (F) total antioxidant capacity (TAC), (G) objective colour measurements and (H) sensory scores of Pinotage wine [* significant differences (p ≤ 0.05); * = red/green chromaticity; * = yellow/blue chromaticity; * = chroma; Dp = delphinidin; Gal = galactoside; Glc = glucoside; Glc-Ac = acetylglucoside; Glc-Coum = p-coumaroylglucoside; * = hue angle (°); IR = isorhamnetin; K = kaempferol; L* = lightness; M = myricetin; MA = monomeric anthocyanins; Mv = malvidin; PA = polymeric anthocyanins; Pn = peonidin; Pt = petunidin; Q = quercetin; Rham = rhamnoside].
berlake & Bridle, 1976; Rivas-Gonzalo et al., 1995). The trend for the content of vitisin A (a pyrananthocyanin) supports this conclusion. The formation of brown polymers during the oxidative degradation of flavonoids would contribute to a hue change towards orange-red, but in this case the formation of purple-red ethyl-linked pigments seems to dominate. A similar trend to that observed in this study was also noted for the hue of a Cabernet Sauvignon wine micro-oxygenated (1.5 mg O₂/L/month and 3.0 mg O₂/L/month) over 15 weeks (Du Toit et al., 2006).

The colour of the wine also became darker (lower L*) with oxygenation, which resulted in higher colour acceptability scores during the sensory evaluation. However, this trend cannot be fully explained by the changes in phenolic composition, due to a variety of confounding factors. Complex changes in the pigment content and composition took place during oxygenation. A large percentage of anthocyanins in young wines are associated with tannins in the colourless flavone forms, which become red after oxidation (Liao et al., 1992). Brown polymers, for instance, contribute less to the wine C* than the original anthocyanins, but contribute to the darkening of the wine (lower L*). This is the case especially when wines are exposed to large quantities of oxygen.

It is clear that 5.0 mg O₂/L/month was severely detrimental to the quality of this Pinotage wine, especially with regard to berry/plum intensity and overall quality. However, a lower dosage given for a short time can be beneficial in terms of increased colour acceptability and fullness. Sensory astringency scores, mainly associated with the polymer content (Vidal et al., 2004), did not change during oxygenation, despite modestly increased coloured polymer (HPLC) and polymeric anthocyanin (pH shift) content for some treatments. The method of oxygen application can possibly affect the sensory quality. Continuous application of oxygen at very low quantities may have better results than application in discrete doses, although good results were obtained by Castellari et al. (2000) for oxygenation using discrete doses. In a previous study (Du Toit et al., 2006), continuous micro-oxygenation at levels of 1.5 mg O₂/L/month and 3.0 mg O₂/L/month for 15 weeks produced Cabernet Sauvignon wines that were preferred by a sensory panel over those produced from the control treatments. It is very important to note that the optimal oxygenation rate and time will be subject to the initial composition of the specific wine, especially in terms of tannins and anthocyanins, and the desired outcome. Monitoring of the dissolved oxygen, free sulphur dioxide, monomeric anthocyanins, colour and sensory properties of wine during the oxygenation period is advocated to avoid over-oxygenation and to achieve the desired effect (Lemaire, 2003).

Results obtained for the oxygenated wine from 2004 (1 mg O₂/L every two weeks for two months) are in contrast to the trends observed for the wines from 2003 when higher oxygen doses were used (2.5 mg O₂/L/month and 5 mg O₂/L/month every month for two, four and six months). As a result of the phenolic composition of the oxygenated wine from 2004 being similar to that of the control wine, no significant differences in TAC_A and TAC_CAL or the contribution of any phenolic group to the TAC_CAL were observed between the oxygenated and control wines, in contrast to the results for the wines from 2003. The oxygenated wine presented a magenta-red colour, closer to red than the hue of the control wine, due to the higher b*, as was also observed for all the oxygenated wines in 2003. These objective colour parameter trends did not result in lower colour-acceptability scores for the oxygenated wines compared to the control wine, in contrast with the results for the 2003 wines. Although the phenolic content and TAC of the wines from 2004 were not affected, lower berry/plum intensity was still observed. However, the overall quality scores were unaffected by the modified oxygenation protocol.

CONCLUSIONS

Oxygenation showed potential for producing Pinotage wines with good colour and sensory quality. Care should be taken not to over-oxygenise the wine, as detrimental effects on sensory quality, phenolic content and the TAC of Pinotage wines were observed for some treatments. A low oxygen dose/short time protocol, however, improved the colour of the wine in 2003, although some loss of TAC was still observed. When using a modified oxygenation protocol with lower dosages at shorter time intervals, the overall sensory quality scores and TAC were not affected. Oxygenation should be investigated further to establish more favourable protocols that will allow improved sensory attributes, while retaining the TAC of the wine.

ABBREVIATIONS

\[ \text{Ac} = \text{acetic acid}; \ \text{Coun} = \text{coumarate}; \ \text{Gal} = \text{galactoside}; \ \text{Glc} = \text{glucose}; \ \text{Rham} = \text{rhamnose}; \ \text{TAC} = \text{total antioxidant capacity}; \ \text{TAC}_{\text{A}} = \text{TAC as measured}; \ \text{TAC}_{\text{CAL}} = \text{TAC as calculated from phenolic composition and TEAC values}; \ \text{TAC}_{\text{A}}^* = \text{TAC remaining after TAC}_{\text{CAL}} \text{ is subtracted from } \text{TAC}_{\text{A}}; \ \text{TE} = \text{Trolox equivalents}; \ \text{TEAC} = \text{Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity} \]

LITERATURE CITED


Oxygenation of Pinotage Wine


